

Modified Guided Reading: Gateway to English as a Second Language and Literacy Learning

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Modified guided reading provides students with the understanding that reading is about creating and gaining meaning from text.

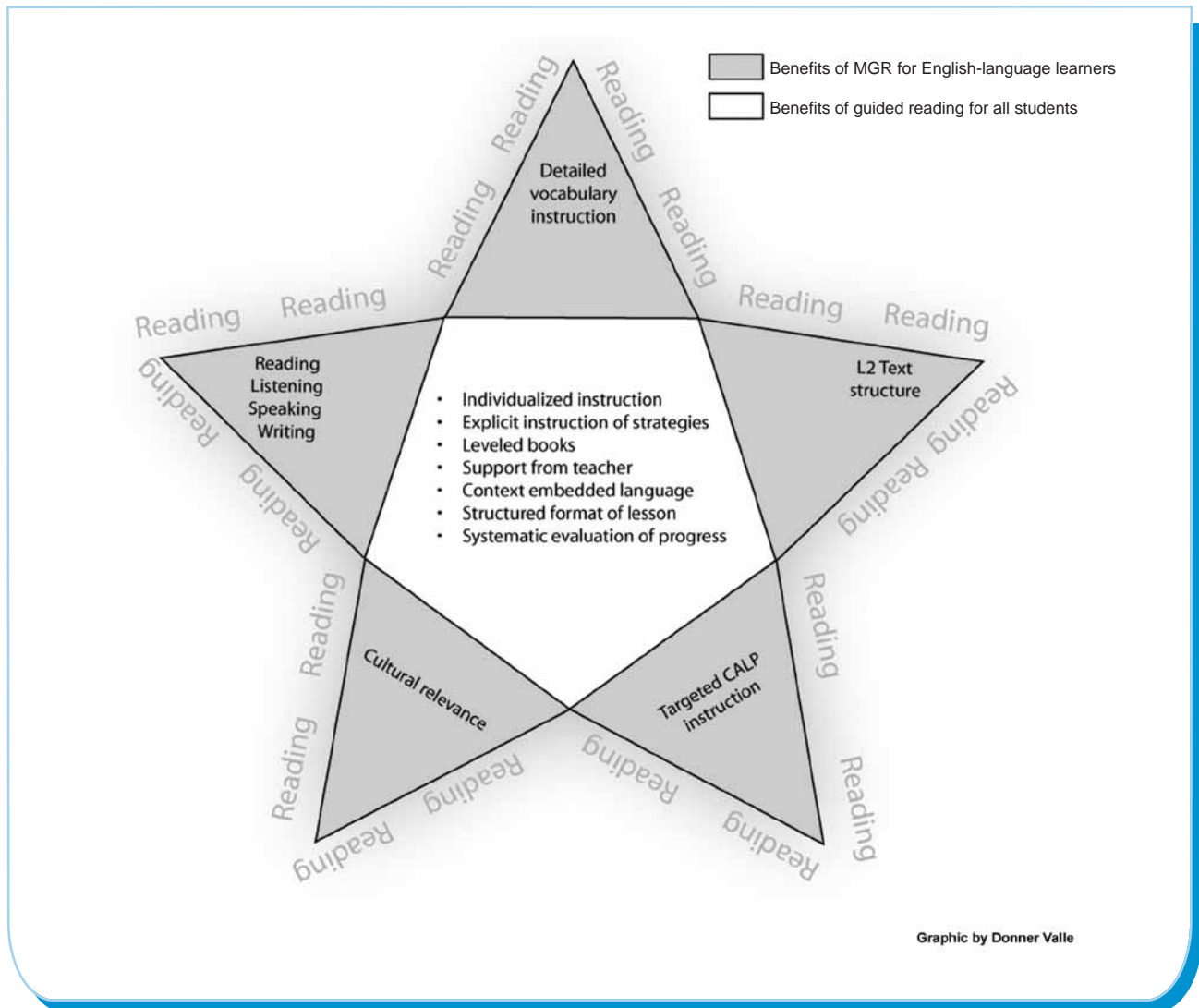
Guided reading is a component of a balanced literacy program providing differentiated, small-group reading instruction to four to six students with similar strengths and instructional needs (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996) or to heterogeneously grouped students (Cunningham, Hall, & Sigmon, 2000). It is recommended that these groups meet at least three to five times per week for 20 to 30 minutes each session in order for students to make consistent reading gains (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996). This approach to reading instruction provides teachers the opportunity to explicitly teach children the skills and comprehension strategies students need, thus facilitating the acquisition of reading proficiency. Multiple copies of graded leveled books are carefully selected and used by the teacher based on the children's instructional needs and interests. According to Reutzel and Cooter (2005), graded leveled books are typically categorized to include four levels of children's reading development: early emergent, emergent, early fluency, and fluency. The language of these leveled texts developmentally matches the syntax and organization of most young children's speech. It is important that texts chosen for the guided-reading groups provide children with a reasonable challenge but also present an opportunity for potential success. In implementing guided

reading, teachers act as a guide to build upon the knowledge, skills, and strategies the children already possess.

All students benefit when teachers use the guided-reading instructional model. These benefits include individualized instruction, the use of books at students' reading levels, the opportunity to create and sustain meaning, the exposure to language that is context embedded, the structured format of the lesson, and the systematic evaluation of students' progress (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996; Knox & Amador-Watson, 2002). Active student involvement is key as the children talk about the story, ask questions, and build their expectations of the text. This active involvement includes everyone in the group as students simultaneously read and receive support from the teacher and peers. In addition, reading, writing, speaking, and listening skills are implemented in a social environment by engaging in conversations before and after reading.

English-language learners (ELLs) also benefit from these aspects of guided reading; however, when a modified approach is used, they gain additional language-learning opportunities that native speakers typically acquire implicitly. The modifications described here enhance and enrich language- and literacy-learning opportunities to include detailed vocabulary instruction, variables concerning second-language text structure (e.g., semantics, syntax, morphology), and cultural relevance. Modified guided reading (MGR) addresses these variables, enabling language *and* literacy instruction to be emphasized in small-group settings (Figure 1). First we describe why modifications are necessary for ELLs and provide a theoretical framework for this approach. Then we describe the components of MGR and walk through a lesson by means of a

Figure 1
Benefits of the Guided Reading and MGR Instructional Approaches



planning guide, ending the manuscript by sharing a small pilot study using this approach.

Why Modify for ELLs?

Some researchers have determined that ELLs are not generally ready for English reading instruction until they are at the intermediate stage of English-language acquisition (Knox & Amador-Watson, 2002), while others advocate that reading and a second language are best acquired simultaneously (Anderson & Roit, 1998; Barrera, 1983). Collier and Thomas (1999) found that ELLs who receive support in their native language can take 4 to 7 years to achieve 50th normal curve

equivalents in English reading and 7–10 years if support in the first language (L1) is not provided. More recently, Slavin and Cheung (2005) reviewed experimental studies comparing bilingual and English-only reading programs for ELLs. Although only 17 studies met the criteria to be included in their review, the majority favored bilingual approaches to reading instruction for ELLs; however, paired bilingual strategies teaching reading in both the L1 and L2 simultaneously were especially successful. Slavin and Cheung concluded that more longitudinal studies with randomized designs are needed to determine how reading instruction for ELLs should be approached. In working with ELLs at all grade levels, we have found

Table 1
Comparing and Contrasting Guided Reading and Modified Guided Reading

Guided reading	Modified guided reading
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Instructional cycle varies (one to two days, 20-minute sessions) ■ Teacher presents the text through a guided discussion connecting the content and language structure to students' personal lives (e.g., picture walk, predicting) ■ Emergent and early fluent readers vocalize softly as they read the text; fluent readers read silently ■ Teacher coaches the students by reinforcing correct strategies and prompting to problem solve during miscues ■ Word work focuses on phonological and orthographical awareness 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ■ Instructional cycle of three or more days (20- to 30-minute sessions) ■ Teacher presents the culturally relevant text through a guided discussion connecting the content and language structure to students' personal lives (e.g., picture walk, predicting) ■ Teacher reads guided-reading text aloud to model fluency and generate discussions regarding comprehension and vocabulary guided by teacher and students ■ ELLs with higher L2 oral proficiency vocalize softly as they read the text ■ Teacher observes and coaches students by reinforcing correct strategies and using word-recognition prompts to problem solve ■ Word work focuses on morphological awareness, phonemic awareness, or phonics connected to guided-reading text ■ Vocabulary journals and writing assignments connect to guided-reading texts

that the key to determining readiness appears to be the student's reading level in the first language, indicating the importance of L1 literacy assessment to guide L2 instruction.

Generally, if the student is a proficient reader in the L1, the act of reading is a known process (Heath, 1983; Jiménez, García, & Pearson, 1996; Krashen, 1985). With proper support from the teacher, students in the early L2 acquisition stages can be successful L2 readers (Anderson & Roit, 1998; Avalos, 1999; Barrera, 1983; Goodman, Goodman, & Flores, 1979). Our experiences working with L2 readers mirror these findings in that students with a higher proficiency in the L1 most often have a smoother transition to L2 oral and reading proficiencies. It should be noted, however, that students who were not proficient readers in the L1 have also made gains using the MGR approach.

While basic interpersonal conversation skills (BICS) are acquired using guided reading or other interactive approaches, students' cognitive academic language proficiency (CALP) will develop more quickly when instructional needs pertaining to language are considered as well. CALP is academic language, or the

language of texts. According to Cummins (1981), BICS takes two to three years to acquire and CALP, the tier of language necessary for academic success, five to seven years. When using texts as the instructional vehicles, CALP will be enhanced as teachers focus on students' combined literacy *and* language instructional needs. In addition, small, flexible groups lend themselves to accelerated learning; however, teacher planning for students' needs is the key to learning gains (Foorman, Francis, Fletcher, Schatschneider, & Mehta, 1998; Juel & Minden-Cupp, 2000; Wiggins, 1994).

Guided reading provides teachers with a systematic, yet open-ended framework for evaluating students' needs while building upon the strengths students have already demonstrated (Fountas & Pinnell, 1996). MGR adds to this supportive framework by stretching the lesson from one or two 20- to 30-minute sessions to three or more per text, adding a shared reading of the guided-reading text and incorporating word work with objectives pertaining to morphological and phonemic awareness, as well as phonics and explicit instruction of semantics and syntax (Table 1). Reading, writing, listening, and speak-

ing are integrated and grounded within the selected texts, offering relevant, meaningful instruction that validates and builds on what ELLs already know.

Theory to Practice

The theory guiding the development of MGR is the interactive reading model (Rumelhart, 1977). The interactive reading model divides the reading process into two components: the reader's experiences or background knowledge (top down) and the reader's cognitive processing strategies (bottom up). Birch (2002) explained that both components work together in order for the reader to gain access to the text and create meaning. She further explained how the reader's world knowledge base and "cognitive processing strategies must be working together so accurately and efficiently that they work at an unconscious level. All the knowledge of English graphemes, morphemes, and words must be readily accessible in long-term memory" (Birch, 2002, p. 148).

Using the MGR approach during literacy instruction aims to increase automaticity and improve comprehension of texts through an interactive understanding of the reading process. MGR builds stronger "understandings and appreciation for the low-level knowledge and processing strategies" involved in L2 literacy learning (Birch, 2002, p. 146).

Planning and Teaching a Guided-Reading Lesson for ELLs

Authors specializing in guided reading suggest different procedures for a guided-reading lesson; however, they all have similar teaching emphases and outcomes (see Cunningham et al., 2000; Fountas & Pinnell, 1996; Knox & Amador-Watson, 2002). We synthesized guided-reading approaches with Birch's (2002) focus on bottom-up processing to meet the needs of ELLs simultaneously learning to read and speak in a L2. A sample MGR framework for lesson planning (Figure 2) presents a model for the reader to use when planning an MGR lesson. Because of space limitations, this article does not discuss how to group students, determine the purpose of the lesson, or select a text for guided-reading lessons (see aforementioned guided-reading authors). Instead, we begin here with "analyzing the text" where MGR is substantially different than a typical guided-reading lesson.

Analyzing the Text. Once selected, the teacher analyzes the text to prepare for the introduction, shared and student readings, word work, and writing response for the lesson cycle. This is done to proactively identify possible problem areas for ELLs within the text as well as to embed the teaching objectives within a guided-reading context. The teacher begins by reading the entire text (or portion of the text if students are reading at a higher level) and notes potential points of confusion with the semantics (meaning) of the text. Two to three receptive and five to nine productive vocabulary words are identified for lesson emphasis. Receptive vocabulary words are those that are low frequency and not necessarily used in everyday speech (CALP), and productive vocabulary words may be new or confusing to ELLs even though they are commonly used.

Figurative language or phrases without literal translations are other probable areas of confusion for ELLs. Native speakers would read the word *nevermind* and typically not have a problem with comprehension; but there is rarely a literal translation for it in other languages, making it confusing for ELLs. Similes and metaphors are other examples of figurative language that would be difficult for ELLs to understand (e.g., "The moon looked like a big, round cheese"), although not all texts contain figurative language.

The teacher also needs to note homophones and homographs within the text. Fry, Kress, and Fountoukidis (2000) defined homophones as words that sound the same but have different meanings and at times different spellings (e.g., *bear* cub and *bare* bones). Homographs are defined as words that are spelled the same but have different meanings and different origins. For example, a *bat* can be (a) used to hit a baseball, (b) a flying animal, or (c) a wink. Some homographs are also heteronyms, meaning they have different pronunciations (e.g., *bass* as in a low male voice and *bass* as in the freshwater fish). These types of words potentially change the meaning of the text for ELLs who are not familiar with their multiple definitions. (See Fry et al., 2000, for comprehensive lists of common homographs and homonyms.)

Complex grammar or syntax (word order) is something else the teacher looks for when scanning the text. For example, when working with emergent readers, the text may lend itself to instruction about comma placement when writing a list. Embedding skills within a context provides meaningful instruction for

Figure 2
MGR Lesson-Planning Framework

School:

Date of lesson:

Planning the lesson(s)

1. Determine objectives of lesson(s) based upon instructional needs (English-language learning and literacy learning).
 - a. Determine the main idea or essential message from text and supporting information.
 - b. Read for information to use in performing a task and learning a new task.
 - c. Identify words and construct meaning from the text.
2. Group students by name/oral L2 level–instructional reading level (e.g., Student 1/1-first grade, Student 2/1-first grade).
3. Select guided-reading books based upon objectives and students' instructional reading levels.
4. Analyze the text and identify literacy challenges based upon your knowledge of the students.
 - a. Semantics:
 - i. Vocabulary:
 1. Focus on common English morphemes (e.g., affixes) or orthographic patterns
 2. Identify two to three words for receptive vocabulary and five to nine words for productive vocabulary
 3. Understand the meaning of the story whenever possible
 - ii. Figurative language:
 - iii. Homophones (words that sound the same, different meanings):
 1. Homographs (words that are spelled the same but have different meanings and origins):
 - b. Grammar (complex syntax, punctuation):
 - c. Text structure (narrative, expository):
 - d. Content or concept (cultural relevance):
 - e. Strategy instruction (if needed, identify good places to insert strategy instruction during shared reading [e.g., think-alouds, elicitation of predictions, word solving])

Extending the lesson(s)

Word work:

Writing:

Possible minilessons:

Note. As ELLs become more proficient (orally and literary), they will need less support. This framework should be adjusted to reflect more student responsibility as the teacher facilitates learning and guides when necessary.

Table 2
Text Types and Language Features

Expository text language features	Narrative text language features
Some action verbs (e.g., <i>climb, quake, eat</i>)	Mainly action verbs
Generally in the “timeless” present tense	Generally past tense
Many linking verbs relating one part of a clause to another	Many linking verbs to do with time
Language focuses on defining, clarifying, and contrasting	Dialogue typically included with tense changes from past to present to future
Descriptive language that is factual and precise	Descriptive language enhances and develops the story by creating images in the reader’s mind
Writing is usually in a formal and objective style that is likely to contain technical vocabulary; first-person pronouns generally unacceptable	Can be written in the first person (<i>I, we</i>) or third person (<i>he, she, they</i>)

Note. Adapted from Derewianka (1998).

ELLs and enables them to learn from authentic uses of the skill rather than isolated, workbook exercises. Knowing curricular goals and objectives facilitates identification of grammatical and syntactical teaching points in order to match them with the group’s instructional needs.

Teachers should also be aware of how many narrative and expository texts are used during reading instruction so that ELLs receive an instructional balance of text types. Expository texts use language differently with a greater number of low-frequency words (Latin and Greek origin) and complex sentence structures that assist CALP development. Narrative texts generally have more figurative language and varying story structures or genres that not only facilitate language development but also provide a means for development of cultural knowledge. Table 2 outlines the differences between expository and narrative text types (Derewianka, 1998), demonstrating how they each contribute to language development for ELLs.

Strategy instruction, word work, and writing are other components of an MGR lesson that need to be addressed before teaching the MGR lesson. Writing should be connected to the guided-reading text and considered a means of response. Story innovations, informational reports, poems, and journal entries are examples of assignments that can be connected to guided-reading texts. When this analysis of the text and examination of students’ needs have been completed and matched, it is a win-win situation for teach-

ers and ELLs. Although the text analysis may seem to be a lengthy process, with time it becomes automatic. As texts are analyzed and recorded, teachers just need to refer to their notes when using the same texts to make any necessary modifications for different groups of students. Finally, reviewing the concept or content of the text is important to ensure that your students have the background knowledge necessary to successfully comprehend the text. Visuals or other supplemental materials can be used to build the background knowledge during the introduction of the text if necessary. For example, when planning a MGR lesson for a group of fourth-grade ELLs, one of the authors realized that the story was about jackals, and the text did not have any type of picture support. The students in the group were all from Cuba or Nicaragua and would more than likely not know what a jackal was. Pictures of jackals were found on the Internet with basic information on how they survive in the wild. This information was discussed with students during the introduction of the text, and they were better prepared to comprehend the story. (For a complete discussion on supporting ELLs with content learning see Echevarria, Vogt, and Short, 2000.)

Setting the Scene or Introducing the Text. The introduction sets a successful reading experience by mediating access to the text. Most introductions are brief; however, it may differ for second-language learners due to the language structures, the students’ background knowledge, or the content and character-

istics of the book. If a concept is unfamiliar to the students, the introduction should be as long as necessary to scaffold the text. When a great deal of background knowledge building is required, it should be done during other components of the balanced literacy program (e.g., shared reading, read-aloud) or other subject-area instruction (Batzle, 1994). Manipulatives or realia may be used to facilitate conversation and scaffold the meaning of the text. Unfamiliar vocabulary can be presented at this time; however, it is important to note that vocabulary is generally taught within the context of the story either before or during the shared reading with productive and receptive vocabulary words identified by the teacher during the planning phase of an MGR lesson.

The teacher may also have the students sample part of the text by reading a sentence to call attention to semantic or syntactic structures that may be unfamiliar to them. An example of this type of minilesson would be explaining the use of *called* in the sentence, “‘Gala! Kiss!’ she called.” (Scholastic, 1996, p. 254). The owner of two dogs named Gala and Kiss was calling them to come to her in this story. In a study investigating ELLs’ L2 text comprehension, Avalos (1999, 2003) found that Spanish-speaking ELLs, from beginning to advanced English proficiency, interpreted this sentence using the meaning of *called* as the Spanish *llamarse*, which means to call oneself or to be named. Participants in the study therefore interpreted the sentence as “the woman was named Gala Kiss” when completing written recalls to check story comprehension. This interpretation completely changes the author’s intended meaning and demonstrates the importance of the need for teachers to be sensitive, aware, and knowledgeable of their students’ L1 syntax and semantic structures. The introduction should provide enough support for the students to read the text fluently while using known strategies, yet it should allow opportunities for problem solving and discussion to facilitate literacy and language learning, specifically with regard to vocabulary, phonics, and comprehension.

Shared Reading. Shared reading is an excellent way to engage learners with texts, particularly learners from diverse backgrounds (Allen, 2002; Koskinen et al., 1999; Meier, 2003). Knox and Amador-Watson (2002) recommend a shared-to-guided reading format. Shared reading of the guided-reading text supports L2 readers by providing teachers the opportunity

to model fluent reading, discuss the story and vocabulary as the text is read aloud, make connections and scaffold the content or concepts that may be different for the students, and focus on strategy demonstrations (e.g., think-alouds, chunking words to decode) before the students read with guidance as needed from the teacher. Using MGR enables ELLs to see reading as a meaning-making process while vocabulary and strategy instruction are introduced within the context of texts.

Students discussing their understanding of the text could reveal a misinterpretation due to a literal translation from L1 to L2, a different experience base than the author’s, or a need for vocabulary instruction. It is recommended that teachers of L2 readers assess comprehension in a manner that is open-ended and conducive to discovering language-learning needs (Avalos, 1999). Bernhardt (1991) expressed this well by explaining that L2 readers “approach a text from their first language framework” (p. 16). Thus, there is the possibility of a divergent understanding before any reading ever takes place. These diverse understandings are a result of various causes ranging from microlevel text features (e.g., orthography) to grammatical structures (e.g., How does word order differ in the L1 versus L2?) to the issue of literacy access in the primary culture (e.g., What is a supermarket tabloid or fairy tale?). Examples of open-ended comprehension assessments include retelling (i.e., written or oral in the L1 or L2), asking open-ended questions without “known answers” (Heath, 1983), or inviting the student to infer and explain a character’s action (e.g., “Why do you think the grandmother always sat in the chair by the window?”).

Reading the Text. After the teacher has set the scene, introduced the text, and conducted the shared reading, the students read the book to themselves. Emergent readers will vocalize softly as they read, progressively moving toward silent and independent reading. The softly vocalized reading may initially distract some students, but soon they become accustomed to the routine and the soft vocalization is no longer an issue.

The teacher’s role is to maintain anecdotal records as he or she listens and observes the students implement strategies, stepping in to guide by reinforcing and providing appropriate prompting as teachable moments present themselves. The teacher also reinforces positive reading behaviors by calling attention

to the strategies being used by a student or by using this time to model effective reading strategies. Fundamental to the success of this approach is the teacher's ability to create a learning environment that facilitates a high level of comfort. Students must feel that their remarks and conversation are important. How teachers react to students' comments determines how and if they will continue to share their thoughts about texts, take risks in using the L2, and inquire about language use (Krashen, 1982).

When a child does not use a cueing system correctly he or she is making a miscue. For many struggling readers, particularly ELLs, it is common for students to make miscues because the form (language graphophonics, syntax, or semantics) is new *and* the content could also be unfamiliar; therefore, both are competing forces while performing or reading aloud.

Syntactic (language structure) cues may be one of the most difficult for ELLs to understand because they may not always know if a sentence sounds right due to their developing English-language proficiency. Knox and Amador-Watson (2002) stated that

Typical lists of coaching prompts used during guided reading lessons are often incomprehensible for English language learners. For example, "Does it make sense?" or "Does it sound right?" require the student to call on a native speaker's intuitive grasp of English, which the second language learner naturally does not have. Many prompts include abstract language that describe unseen processes inside the reader's head and are inaccessible to ELLs who need concrete support for language to be comprehensible. (Unit 7, p. 95)

Instead of prompting, it is recommended that ELLs be coached with explicit demonstrations integrating the cueing systems using a three-step process. First, the teacher models the strategy, describing the process by thinking aloud. Then the student applies and demonstrates the strategy modeled by the teacher. Finally, the student is asked to verbalize the strategy by thinking aloud in order to internalize the process.

Returning to the Text. When the students have completed their independent reading of the text, the teacher engages the students in a conversation similar to the introduction. Students share their thoughts about the text, including questions and connections they may have had during the reading. The teacher asks open-ended questions to enhance comprehension and generate dialogue. Accepting students' answers without criticism is key. Repeating the student's

response to a question and then asking why they think that provides teachers with clues as to how the text was interpreted in such a way. This in turn provides teachable moments and a guide for future instruction. Upon subsequent teacher analyses of retellings, when consistent language patterns or miscues are noted, assessment will drive instruction as language- and literacy-learning needs are identified and met.

Responding to the Text. Many books lend themselves to the extension of learning activities through art, writing, or drama in response to the reading, thus expanding the meaning of the text. Although it does not always seem feasible to plan such activities for every book because of time constraints, these extensions can be beneficial for ELLs to further develop their understanding of concepts and reading or language skills. Whenever possible, the teacher should plan to have students respond to the texts using different activities that are tied in with identified objectives. It is highly recommended that reading, writing, listening, and speaking be integrated as much as possible throughout the curriculum for ELLs (Au, 1993).

Word Work. ELLs learn more when new concepts are context embedded (Cummins, 2003). Guided-reading lessons provide optimal opportunities for students to apply and learn word-solving skills throughout the lesson. Word work can be taught explicitly after the text has been read in order to minimize interruptions of the reading process. This explicit instruction is particularly important for ELLs because of their developing language proficiency. The word-work lessons should incorporate systematic phonics as well as morphological instruction. ELLs are in the process of acquiring the sounds and structure of the L2 and typically encounter difficulties with pronunciation of sounds that are not found in their L1 (e.g., the English /th/ sound for Spanish speakers). The *Words Their Way* (Bear, Invernizzi, Templeton, & Johnston, 2004) approach to word study allows us to assess spelling and integrate word work within our MGR lessons at appropriate levels according to the ELLs' knowledge of the English sound system.

MGR in Classrooms

We have used MGR with elementary, middle, and high school ELLs in a large, urban school district. Each time we have implemented MGR in these various

Table 3
Context of Pilot Study

	Ms. Mays	Ms. Lopez
School population (% ELL)	2,100 (22%)	1,363 (10%)
Environmental context of school	Inner-city urban	Urban
School population qualifying for free or reduced-cost lunch program	96%	65%
Assessment instrument used	Ekwall/Shanker informal reading inventory	Burns/Roe informal reading inventory
Number of students receiving MGR	10	13
Mean age of students	13	13
Months in USA (Average/range)	25/3–48 months	36/24–48 months
Range of Spanish (L1) instructional reading levels prior to MGR	Preprimer to fourth grade	At or above fourth grade
Range of English (L2) instructional reading levels prior to MGR	Preprimer to second grade	First to fourth grade
Time receiving MGR	24 30-minute sessions	36 30-minute sessions
Average reading level gains in L2 after receiving MGR	1.3 grade levels	1.8 grade levels

classroom settings, reading gains have been made. Because of space limitations, only the results of a small study with middle school students will be reported here (Table 3).

After nine months of working in Ms. Lopez’s classroom (all names are pseudonyms), her group of 13 students gained an average of 1.8 grade levels in L2 reading. Ms. Mays’s 10 students made an average gain of 1.3 grade levels within four months of implementing MGR. Figures 3 and 4 demonstrate the growth recorded for each participant. Students 9 and 10 from Ms. Mays’s groups (Figure 4) appeared to make no progress; however, they were reading at the preprimer level with frustration for the pretest and at an instructional level for the posttest. Students 6, 7, and 8 made 1–2 grade level gains, reading at the preprimer (instructional level) for the pretest.

Student perceptions of the MGR approach, as measured by a survey following the intervention periods, were overwhelmingly positive. All participants enjoyed participating in the intervention and felt they

learned more about reading, writing, and speaking English during the MGR sessions. Specifically, they learned more about English sounds and how those sounds related to the letters. Participants also felt that the small-group instruction format helped them to comprehend what was being read because they could ask questions and clarify anything they didn’t understand. In addition, they all agreed that they enjoyed listening to books being read aloud by the teacher and would like to continue using the MGR approach for reading instruction.

Creating and Gaining Meaning From Text

From our work with MGR in elementary and secondary classrooms, ELLs have enjoyed this approach to reading and English-language instruction. Student engagement was high when working in small groups; thus, literacy and language learning needs were met using

Figure 3
 Reading Gains of Students in Ms. Lopez’s Classroom (as Measured by the Burns/Roe Informal Reading Inventory)

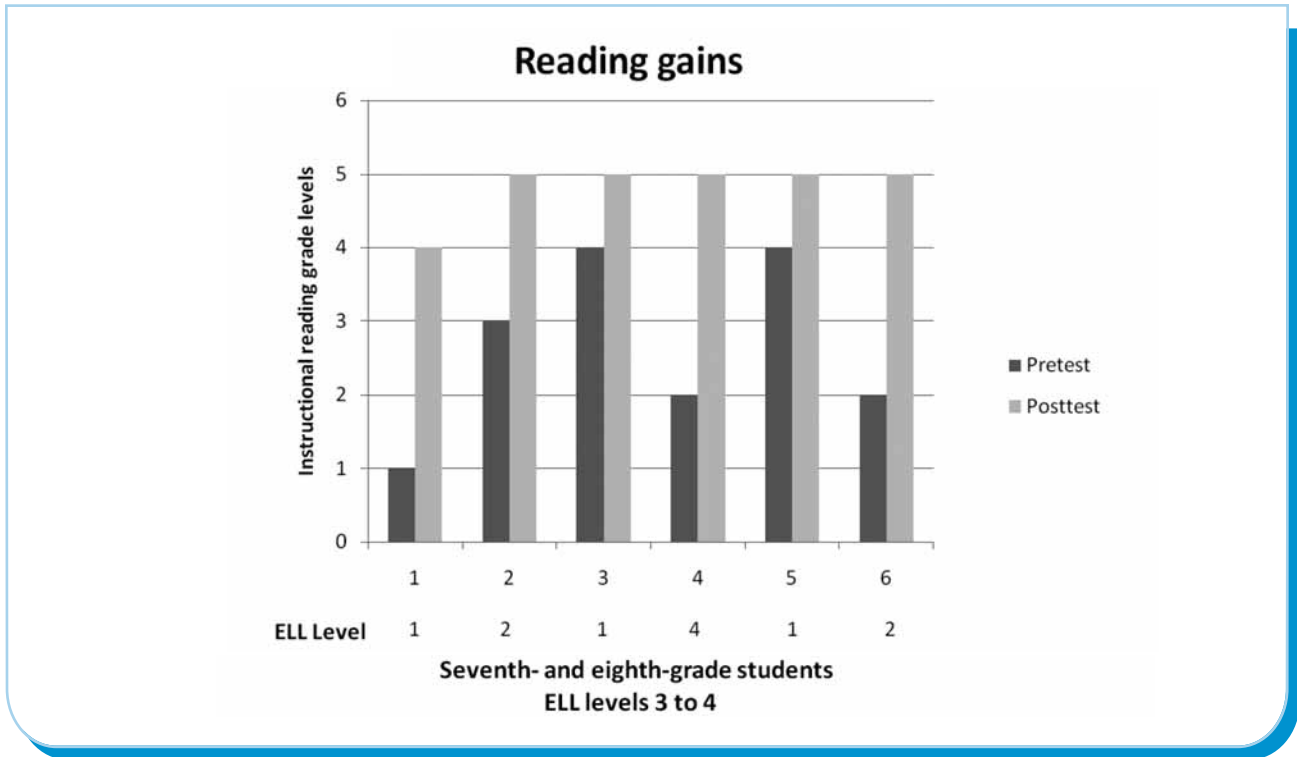
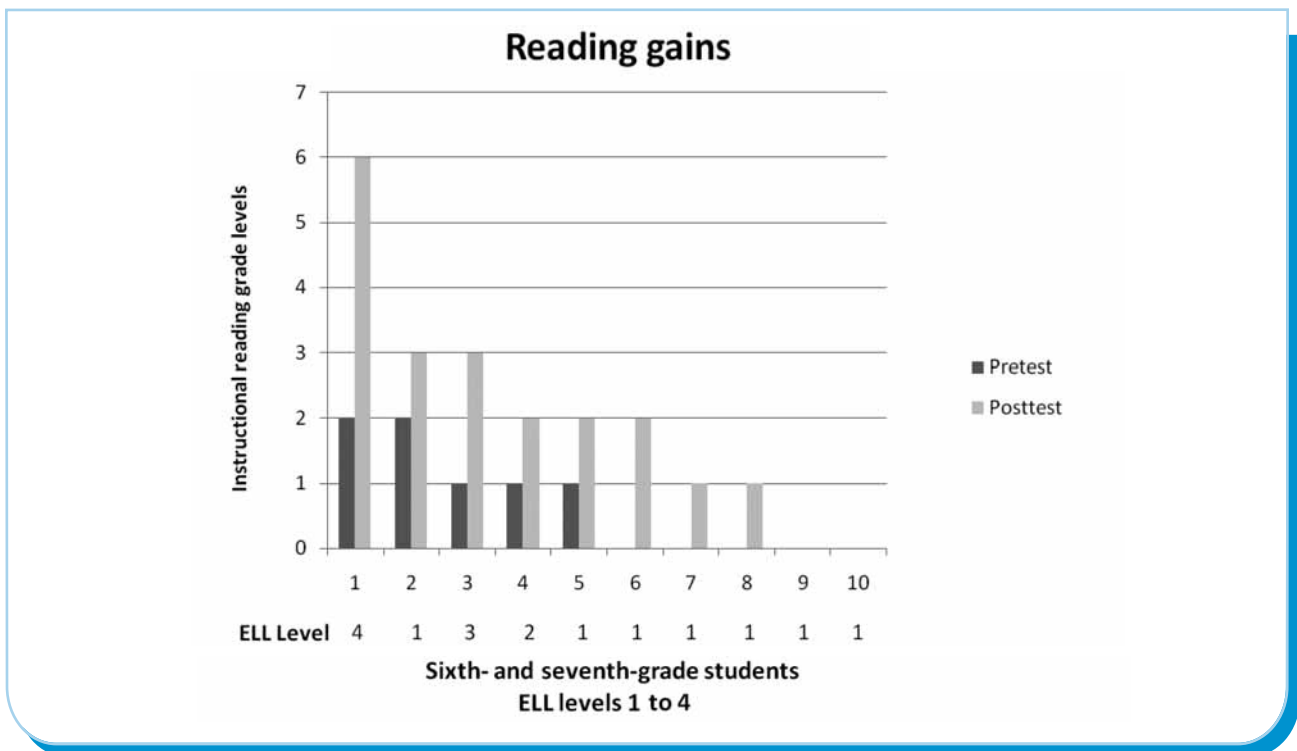


Figure 4
 Reading Gains of Students in Ms. Mays’s Classroom (as Measured by the Ekwall/Shanker Informal Reading Inventory)



texts as vehicles to provide meaningful instruction. MGR also allowed us to get to know the students better as we had many conversations that enabled them to make connections between the texts and their lives.

MGR provides students with the understanding that reading is about creating and gaining meaning from text. Teachers work *with* students as they develop the strategies, allowing the students to be successful when they encounter syntax, contexts, or vocabulary that is unfamiliar to them. More research needs to be conducted in order to assess the extent of MGR's effectiveness when instructing ELLs. The goal of guided reading is for children to progress and read more challenging texts independently and successfully. Using this modified instructional model, teachers are able to monitor ELLs' progress, meet their needs in order to facilitate literacy and language learning, and enable students to self-extend their reading and language proficiencies by building on what is known in their L1.

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