Learning Progressions Frameworks Designed for Use with
The Common Core State Standards in English Language Arts &
Literacy K-12

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Please send comments, questions, or feedback about using the LPF or related instructional support materials to Karin Hess, National Center for the Improvement of Educational Assessment /khess@nciea.org/

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Introduction

Many researchers (including developmental, educational, and cognitive psychologists), as well as curriculum and content specialists, have attempted to define and operationalize the use of learning progressions/learning continua for instruction and assessment purposes over the years. For example, Wilson and Bertenthal (2005) define them in terms of “descriptions of the successively more sophisticated ways of thinking about an idea that follow one another as students learn;” while Masters and Forster (1996) see them as “a picture of the path students typically follow as they learn...a description of skills, understandings, and knowledge in the sequence in which they typically develop.” Duschl, Schweingruber, and Shouse (2007) describe learning progressions as “anchored on one end by what is known about the concepts and reasoning of students entering school…[for which] there now is a very extensive research base.” At the other end of the learning continuum are “societal expectations (values)” about what society wants students to know and be able to do in the given content area. Learning progressions propose the intermediate understandings between these anchor points that are “reasonably coherent networks of ideas and practices…that contribute to building a more mature understanding.” Further, they explain that often, the “important precursor ideas may not look like the later ideas, yet crucially contribute to their construction” (Hess, 2008a, p. 2).

A focus on research and learning: This project has attempted to describe research-based pathways for learning that can guide lesson planning, and curriculum and assessment development K-12. Our working definition of learning progressions is based on four interrelated guiding principles (Hess, 2008a).

Four Interrelated Guiding Principles of Learning Progressions (LPs)

- LPs are developed (and refined) using available research and evidence
- LPs have clear binding threads that articulate the essential core concepts and processes of a discipline (sometimes called the ‘big ideas’ of the discipline)
- LPs articulate movement toward increased understanding (meaning deeper, broader, more sophisticated understanding)
- LPs go hand-in-hand with well-designed and aligned assessments

It is the research base (how understanding of the core concepts and essential skills of reading and writing typically develop over time when supported by high quality, targeted instruction), not standards that have driven this work. The Common Core standards have not simply been ‘rearranged’ or reorganized. It is our hope that with a better understanding of how to apply the research to classroom practice (both instruction and assessment), teachers will be better able to prepare all students to be productive citizens in the 21st century world beyond high school.

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A conceptual framework: The use of the term “framework” in this document is similar to the National Research Council (2010) use, meaning that this learning progression framework (LPF) presents a broad description of the essential content and general sequencing for student learning and skill development, but not at the level of detail of grade-specific curriculum. As with the NRC approach, this framework is committed to “the notion of learning as an ongoing developmental progression. It is designed to help children continually build on, and revise their knowledge and abilities, starting from initial conceptions about how the world works and curiosity about what they see around them” (NRC, 2010, Ch1-p2). This document is intended to present a coherent vision for language arts and literacy learning and act as a “first step” in curriculum development or test design. It can serve as a guide to curriculum designers, assessment developers, state and district administrators, those responsible for teacher education, and teachers working in both general and special education classrooms. As a matter of fact, we hope that this document will encourage more teaming and collaborative planning at the school, district, and state levels between general and special education professionals.

The learning progressions frameworks developed in mathematics, language arts, and science for this project build upon the concept of the Assessment Triangle, first presented by Pellegrino, Chudowsky, and Glaser in Knowing What Students Know/KWSK (NRC, 2001). “The assessment triangle explicates three key elements underlying any assessment: ‘a model of student cognition and learning in the domain, a set of beliefs about the kinds of observation that will provide evidence of students’ competencies, and an interpretation process for making sense of the evidence’ (NRC, 2001, p. 44). KWSK uses the heuristic of an ‘assessment triangle’ to illustrate the relationships among learning models, assessment methods, and inferences one can draw from the observations made about what students truly know and can do” (Hess, Burdge, & Clayton, 2011, p. 184). The LPF frameworks offer a coherent starting point for thinking about how students develop competence in an academic domain and how to observe and interpret the learning as it unfolds.

**Observation:** A set of specifications for assessment tasks that will elicit illuminating responses from students

**Cognition:** Beliefs about how humans represent information and develop competence in a particular academic domain

**Interpretation:** The methods and analytic tools used to make sense of and reason from the assessment observations/evidence

Learning progressions research focuses on how competence develops

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Alignment to the Common Core State Standards (CCSS): Progress indicators (PIs) describe observable learning along the learning continuum for each strand in the ELA & Literacy learning progressions framework. While links between the LPF and most of the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) in Reading, Writing, and Language have been identified, the LPF also includes descriptions of learning along the continuum for which there may not be aligned CC standards. For example, LPF developers included a strand, Reading and Writing Habits & Dispositions; however, there are few CC standards that specifically address metacognitive habits, use of strategies, and literary engagement which can impact learning in the language arts (Biggam & Itterly, 2009; Hammond & Nessel, 2011; Hill, 2001; McKenna & Stahl, 2003; Pinnell & Fountas, 2007; Schumm, 2006). Reading strategies are not explicit in the CCSS (and so cannot be “aligned” with the LPF), but are addressed to some degree through wording of PIs in the seven LPF strands. Also, this document specifically identifies related CC Speaking-Listening standards if appropriate; and communication skills are incorporated into the wording of many progress indicators. Due to the redundancy of CC literacy standards (gr 6-12), they are not identified for alignment, but do parallel most standards that are aligned. Finally, there are cases where a CC standard is linked to more than one progress indicator (perhaps in different reading or writing strands and/or at multiple grade levels), or places where only part of the CC standard actually aligns to a progress indicator. This approach to alignment serves to focus instructional emphasis on how to use progress indicators to plan lessons and interpret a student’s learning path, rather than on teaching everything described in a particular CC standard at the same time. (See pages 26-27 for an explanation of CCSS alignment coding.)

Possible Uses for the Learning Progressions Frameworks Documents
Implementation of the Common Core State Standards will require many layers of understanding the content and performance expectations as educators review existing curriculum and assessments and make critical decisions as to how to move forward and shift instructional emphasis during the transition. This framework is presented as a starting point for that important work. Users of this document may find several ways to guide their thinking about how to design instruction and assessment based on a learning progressions conceptual framework. Here are a few ideas:

- to analyze or plan general sequencing and mapping of existing major curricular units using research-based learning continua;
- to adapt or develop replacement units and assessment tools using “backward design” (watch for future postings of sample units on www.nciea.org/publications);
- to conduct research or become action researchers in classrooms, collecting evidence (through student work samples, teacher observations, and think-alouds with students) to validate your own hypotheses about how learning develops over time for some or all students;
- to identify specific trouble areas along the learning continuum for struggling students (e.g., identifying the necessary prerequisite/precursor skills needed for achieving success) and a range of possible CC standards that address them;
- to locally create smaller grained/expanded mini progressions for specific grade levels using the range of CC standards listed, as in the sample instructional modules in ELA, mathematics, and science developed for this project;
- to create formative tools and student work analysis processes for progress monitoring during the school year (see a prek-4 science example used for progress monitoring at http://www.nciea.org/publications/ScienceProfile_KH08.pdf);
- to use the larger-grained grade span learning targets (listed at the top of each strand) to design engaging performance assessment tasks that measure the generalization or transfer of skills and concepts; and/or
- to create interim assessment items/tasks (or “families” of test items) along the learning continuum that will assist with ongoing local progress monitoring at critical points during the school year (see samples of CCSS-aligned grades K-5 writing prompts, annotated student work, and sample scoring rubrics to be posted at www.nciea.org/publications/ during 2011-2012).
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<tr>
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<th>Title/Institution</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Bonnie’s literacy work over several decades and through her many books were in part the inspiration for this project. Sadly, she lost her battle with cancer in 2011 before seeing the final draft of this document. We hope in some small way that this work honors her dedication to the global fight against illiteracy.</td>
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## English Language Arts/Literacy Curriculum Development Committee
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<thead>
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The Learning Progressions Frameworks (LPFs) Development Process

The approach used to identify the content progressions and specific standards within the Common Core State Standards (CCSS) considered three important dimensions. First, national content experts and researchers in reading and writing were asked to identify specific content strands that represented a way to organize essential learning for all students, K-12. Next, the committee was asked to describe the “enduring understandings” (as defined by Wiggins and McTighe, 2005) for each particular content strand, as well as review the research literature and articulate what the learning targets would look like if students were demonstrating achievement of the enduring understandings by the end of each grade span (K-4, 5-8, and 9-12). The grade span learning targets for each strand (pp. 11-25) are stated as broader performance indicators and are designed to describe progressively more complex demonstrations of learning across the grade spans for each enduring understanding. The broad-based learning targets use wording similar to what one might see in performance level descriptors for a given grade level or grade span (e.g., By the end of grade 4 (E.RL), students recognize and use knowledge of text structures (e.g., chronology, description), literary devices and techniques (e.g., dialogue, elaboration, narrator point of view), and genre-specific features to read and comprehend literary texts; By the end of grade 8 (M.RL), students identify and interpret use of text structures, genre-specific features, and literary devices and techniques (e.g., narrative hook, pacing, back-story) to comprehend and analyze a range of literary texts).

In the language arts and literacy framework, a total of seven Reading and Writing strands have been established. Four reading strands were initially developed in 2010; later, three writing strands were added during 2010-2011 and the habits and dispositions strand was expanded to include both reading and writing. “For each content area, these essential threads [strands] interact to build greater understanding of the discipline over time. Identifying a small number of essential threads makes the learning progression manageable for the classroom teacher in terms of tracking ongoing progress in the classroom” (Hess, 2008a, p.5). It is not the intent that skills/concepts described in a particular strand be taught in isolation or in a linear sequence. Instruction and formative assessment should integrated skills across strands, such as when developing a response to a text read, heard, or viewed where students are demonstrating comprehension and their understanding of text structures while interpreting and critiquing a text. In other words, the LPF should be thought of as a general map for learning, not a single route to a final destination.

These first two steps resulted in developing the major ELA strands, each with progressively more sophisticated or complex grade span learning targets. With the underlying conceptual framework in place, it could then be built upon across the grades and linked to specific research-based continuums of the skills and concepts leading to the designated learning targets.

After the reading and writing content committees established the broader grade span learning targets for each strand, they were asked to identify and describe the essential skills and concepts needed to achieve the grade span expectations (learning targets); use research syntheses to establish a general order of how those skills and concepts emerge for most students; and then further break down the descriptors into smaller grades spans: K-2, 3-4, 5-6, 7-8, and high school. The descriptors of related skills and concepts became what we now call the progress indicators (PIs) and the ordering-numbering system used (a, b, c, etc.) reflects the research base used to
establish a general learning continuum. Generally speaking, descriptions of earlier skills (a, b, c…) will build the foundation for later skills (d, e, f…) at the next grade level or grade span.

The final step in the LPF development process was to identify alignment of LPF progress indicators (PIs) with specific CCSS English language arts content standards in order to create guidance for a cohesive curriculum experience across grades. Sometimes multiple standards from within the smaller grade spans could be linked to the same PI; sometimes there was only one or no standard that aligned. For example, in some strands and some grade spans you may see PI descriptors that do not link (align) with an existing CC standard; however, the research review identified critical learning or certain stages during the learning process that may be essential for conceptual understanding or interpreting progress. Therefore, progress indicators with no CCSS links are also included in the LPF to guide instruction, formative assessment use, and progress monitoring.

Below is a brief description of the seven strands identified by the LPF language arts committees.

- **STRAND 1: Reading and Writing Habits & Dispositions (HD)** – This strand is meant to address some of the indicators showing that students are developing habits and dispositions associated with becoming independent readers and writers. These progress indicators include metacognitive and intentional processes controlled by the reader/writer. “Habits and dispositions of reading [and writing] are not something to be ‘mastered’ …individuals develop and grow as readers [or writers] often as result of the literacy environment that surrounds them” (Biggam & Itterly, 2009, p.85). This strand is placed first to stress the importance of nurturing positive habits and dispositions within the environment of a literate community, even if not assessed formally. Individual reading logs, writing portfolios, peer- and self-assessments, and conferencing will be the best indicators of progress in this area of literacy. (See p. 11 for grade span learning targets and selected related research for the Reading and Writing Habits & Dispositions/HD strand.)

- **STRAND 2: Reading/Making Meaning at the Word Level (RWL)** – Making Meaning at the Word Level, presented in this document as the first of three reading strands, is a reminder NOT to limit reading instruction to decoding and “calling” single words, but to encourage students to utilize a range of skills and strategies to expand their depth and breadth of vocabulary from single-context definitions to deeper conceptual understanding across a variety of texts and contexts. These progress indicators articulate many of the prerequisite skills and concepts needed for success in the other ELA/literacy strands (e.g., recognizing letter-sound relationships, decoding words and reading with automaticity, determining unknown word meanings). Progress indicators for the Word Level strand should be taught and reinforced in conjunction with skills and concepts described in PIs from other strands, with the goal of building flexibility with a variety of texts. (See pp. 12-13 for grade span learning targets and selected related research for the Making Meaning at the Word Level/RWL strand.)

- **STRAND 3: Reading Literature/Making Meaning at the Text Level (RL)** – The skills and concepts described within the Reading Literary Texts strand build upon “word-level” reading skills and integrate with students’ ongoing vocabulary development. Research related to text structures identifies narrative structures (chronology and enumeration/description) as generally less complex than many of the expository text structures. Complexity of literary texts is increased when literary devices and discourse styles are applied (Hess, 2008b). Therefore, literary texts should be introduced early in the K-12 continuum and have differing instructional emphasis at grades K-5 than at grades 6-12. Local curriculum development efforts should consider
how the skills and concepts described in the progress indicators of the RL strand can be introduced, practiced, and extended with skills/concepts found in the other LPF strands. (See pp. 14-15 for grade span learning targets and selected related research for the Reading Literary Texts/RL strand.

- **STRAND 4: Reading Informational Texts/Making Meaning at the Text Level (RI)** – As with reading literary texts, the skills and concepts described within the Reading Informational Texts strand build upon “word-level” reading skills and integrate with students’ ongoing vocabulary development, including use of domain-specific vocabulary. Research related to text complexity and text structure identifies a wide range of expository structures from those that tend to be less complex (sequence, description, definition) to more complex (compare-contrast, cause-effect, problem-solution, proposition-support, critique, and inductive-deductive) (Hess, 2008b). Informational texts need to be introduced early in the K-12 continuum and have increasingly more instructional emphasis by high school. Local curriculum development efforts should consider how the skills and concepts described in the progress indicators of the RI strand can be introduced, practiced, and extended with skills/concepts found in the other LPF strands. (See pp. 16-17 for grade span learning targets and selected related research for the Reading Informational Texts/RI strand.)

- **STRAND 5: Writing Literary Texts/Communicating Ideas and Experiences (WL)** – Progress indicators for this strand apply to composing and “publishing” literary texts for authentic audiences and purposes (e.g., stories, personal narratives/reflective essays, poems, lyrics, plays, memoirs, literary nonfiction) using both written and oral communication. (See page 18-19 for grade span learning targets and selected related research for the Writing Literary Texts/WL strand.)

- **STRAND 6: Writing to Inform/Communicating Ideas through Informative Texts (WI)** – Progress indicators for this strand apply to composing and “publishing” informative texts for authentic audiences and purposes (e.g., science procedures, informational articles, biographies, research reports, podcasts) using both written and oral communication. Understanding and applying genre-specific features (e.g., subheadings, captions, graphics, diagrams, data displays) of various informational text types, as well as locating relevant and accurate supporting information are critical to high-quality idea development and presentation. (See pages 19-21 for grade span learning targets and selected related research for the Writing Informative Texts/WI strand.)

- **STRAND 7: Writing Persuasively/Communicating Opinions, Critiques, & Arguments (WP)** – Progress indicators for this strand apply to composing and “publishing” persuasive texts for authentic audiences and purposes (e.g., opinions, arguments, editorials, literary critiques) using both written and oral communication. As with all informational texts, understanding and applying genre-specific features (e.g., rhetorical questions; argument-counterargument; persuasive techniques – testimonial, social proof, storytelling, empathy, etc.) and text structures (e.g., proposition-support, critique, inductive-deductive reasoning) of various persuasive text types, as well as locating relevant and accurate supporting information are critical to high-quality idea development and presentation. (See pages 22-25 for grade span learning targets and selected related research for the Writing Persuasive Texts/WP strand.)

The following pages show the seven ELA/literacy strands with statements of enduring understanding (in the white area at the top of each page) and grade span learning targets for elementary, middle, and high school (*in the color-shaded areas under the enduring understanding*). A few selected supporting research findings are highlighted for each strand as well.
**Strand 1: Reading and Writing Habits & Dispositions**

The statement of enduring understanding across grades states WHY the learning is important.

Different learning targets show a progression of “expertise” from one grade span to the next grade span.

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**STRAND 1 Habits & Dispositions (HD):** Reading and writing habits and dispositions affect enjoyment, motivation, confidence, and greater independence when developing and applying literacy skills.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(K-4) Elementary School Learning Targets</th>
<th>(5-8) Middle School Learning Targets</th>
<th>(9-12) High School Learning Targets</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>EHD</strong> Use self-selected print/non-print texts and self-monitoring strategies and tools to:</td>
<td><strong>MHD</strong> Use self-selected print/non-print texts, self-monitoring strategies and tools, and goal setting to:</td>
<td><strong>HHD</strong> Use self-selected print/non-print texts and self-monitoring strategies and tools to:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Comprehend texts and enjoy reading;</td>
<td>• Comprehend, sustain, and enjoy reading;</td>
<td>• Expand personal and academic knowledge;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Explore and improve written and oral communication.</td>
<td>• Improve and expand written and oral communication.</td>
<td>• Reflect on perspectives of self, others, and the world through oral and written communication.</td>
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**Some Key Research Ideas Considered during LPF Development - Reading and Writing Habits & Dispositions**

Note that the research reviewed for this strand supported the importance of encouraging literacy habits and dispositions that lead to increased confidence and independence, and less to indicate a continuum of how those habits/dispositions develop over time. Consequently, for this LPF strand, the general order of indicators within a grade span is based more on professional judgment than on empirical research and should be considered collectively as a “set” of indicators for teachers to develop, encourage, and support.

- Achievement and effort are linked through a variety of factors. Students are more likely to be intrinsically motivated when they achieve success through literacy endeavors that are meaningful and culturally relevant. The underlying belief system about achievement held by students and teachers can affect a student’s level of effort over time (Hammond & Nessel, 2011; McNaughton, 2002; Pressley, 2002).
- Comprehension strategies are deliberate and flexible plans that readers use and adjust to accomplish specific goals with a variety of texts (Dole, Duffy, Roehler, & Pearson, 1991; Lenski & Nierstheimer, 2002).
- “Reading and writing activities that immerse learners in authentic real-world applications promote active, purposeful engagement by learners at all levels... [and lead to] ownership, personal responsibility and use. Frequent use of reading and writing in all forms with appropriate feedback and response is key to developing learners who competently use reading and writing as tools for lifelong learning. ... Ultimately, our goal with students of diverse backgrounds, and with all students, is to promote ownership of literacy. ... Ownership has to do with valuing literacy, having a positive attitude towards literacy, and having the habit of using literacy” (Au, 2002, pg.398).
- Students who read more tend to achieve more. High-progress readers self-monitor, using a wide range of strategies and a combination of cuing systems to self-correct. This flexible use of strategies develops over time often with the support of modeling and guidance by others (Allington, 2006; Biggam & Ittely, 2009).
- “Metacognition, which is needed to use comprehension strategies well, can begin during direct teacher explanations and modeling of strategies, but develops most completely when students practice using comprehension strategies as they read. It seems especially helpful if such practice includes opportunities to explain one’s strategy use and reflect on the use of strategies over the course of semesters of schooling” (Pressley, 2002, p. 292).
- At all grade levels, teachers can help students develop the disposition to write... focusing on writing mechanics at the early grades leads to less interesting writing... the priority should be on communicating meaning, formulating and expressing their own ideas even when relating ideas of others, giving students control over the writing process, and providing substantive feedback [such as from peers] (Hammond & Nessel, 2011, pp.124-125).
- Children need to develop metacognitive understanding of their own writing processes (Flower, & Hayes, 1981).
**STRAND 2 Reading/Making Meaning at the Word Level (RWL):** Reading is flexibly using a variety of strategies to make meaning – literal and interpretative - at the word level.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(K-4) Elementary School Learning Targets</th>
<th>(5-8) Middle School Learning Targets</th>
<th>(9-12) High School Learning Targets</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>ERWL</strong> Read and comprehend words with accuracy and fluency:</td>
<td><strong>MRWL</strong> Read texts of increasing complexity with accuracy, fluency, and comprehension:</td>
<td><strong>HRWL</strong> Read a range of test genres of increasing complexity with accuracy, fluency, and comprehension:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– Read high frequency and grade-level words;</td>
<td>– Apply knowledge of word structure, context, and use of reference materials to determine intended word meaning and purpose;</td>
<td>– Expand conceptual understanding and breadth of vocabulary use to multiple contexts (literary, historical, technical, political, cultural, social);</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– Apply knowledge of phonics, word structure, word relationships, and context to read and understand unfamiliar words in connected text;</td>
<td>– Expand vocabulary use (connotation and denotation) to reading tasks across content areas and genres.</td>
<td>– Apply content knowledge, use of resources, and word analysis skills to interpret and evaluate the intent and impact of authors’ word choice(s).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>– Distinguish between literal and interpretive meanings.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Some Key Research Ideas Considered during LPF Development – Reading/Making Meaning at the Word Level

- The Report of the National Early Literacy Panel (2008, p. 79) suggests that children progress through the phonological awareness continuum by progressing to smaller and smaller units of sound (e.g. words, syllables, onset rimes, phonemes).
- Alphabet knowledge and phonological awareness have medium to large “predictive relationships with later measures of literacy development” (National Early Literacy Panel, 2008, p. vii).
- “The inescapable points of [phonics] research are that (1) to learn to read, all students must know the letters of the alphabet, understand their linguistic significance (phonemic awareness), and learn the logic and conventions governing their use (phonics); and (2) ensuring students’ grasp of these basics must be a serious goal of any responsible program of beginning reading instruction” (Adams, 2001).
- A reliable and recognizable connection between sounds and letters develops as children become familiar with the constancy of a few initial relationships through emergent reading and writing activities. The emergent learner begins to recognize a personal corpus of sight words as the alphabetic principle becomes known. The relationship between phonological awareness and phonics continues to grow through spelling, writing, and reading. As students master more words, word reading becomes more fluent since word recognition is automatic. When unknown words appear in text, students must begin using more sophisticated strategies beyond phonics since decoding the word does not in itself help to determine the word’s (or phrase’s) intended meaning (Clay, 1991, Bear, Invernizzi, Templeton, & Johnston, 2008).
- Word knowledge and word solving strategies can be taught implicitly and explicitly and are most useful when using authentic texts. Word learning strategies provide students the opportunity to grow their vocabularies independently through their own reading and writing initiatives (Armbruster, Lehr, & Osborn, 2001; Cunningham & Allington, 2007; Dalton & Grisham, 2011).
- Readers not only decode written words, but they must also interpret the meaning behind the word within the context where the word is found. Incrementally, word solving skills and strategies become more sophisticated over time, as a learner develops breadth and depth of personal oral and written vocabularies (Fountas & Pinnell, 2001; Durkin, 2004).
- Beck, Perfetti, and McKeown (1982) provided one well-known experiment establishing the causal relationship between teaching of vocabulary and improvement of comprehension. Fourth-grade students were taught 104 new vocabulary words over the course of half a
school year. The words were taught thoroughly to these students, with them encountering the words in multiple contexts and using them in multiple ways over the course of the semester. Otherwise comparable students served in a control condition, which did not include the teaching of the 104 word meanings (in context). At the end of the study, the vocabulary-instructed students outperformed the controls on a standardized comprehension test. Thus, developing students’ vocabulary is also a way to improve their comprehension” (pp. 293-294).

- “While using context clues is the most important word-learning strategy, using word parts is a close second . . . . Once words are broken into parts, students can use their knowledge of word parts to attempt to deduce their meanings—if they understand how word parts function. There are three sorts of word parts to consider: prefixes, suffixes, and non-English roots” (Graves, 2006, p. 103).

- “Some derivational suffixes might be taught to elementary students at opportune times when words containing those suffixes come up in the material students are reading, but systematic instruction in derivational suffixes ought to be reserved for secondary students” (Graves, 2006, p. 110).

- “The one (strategy) that needs to be taught formally during the primary grades is suffix removal, which is actually a decoding procedure. ... Grades 4 through 6 are when most of the more formal [word study] instruction should take place. Because using context is the most valuable word learning strategy, it should probably be taught first ... Using prefixes is the next most valuable strategy and should be taught next... Whenever prefix instruction begins, it should probably be extended over 3 years, beginning with the most frequent half dozen or so prefixes in the first year and teaching another half dozen or so in the each of the next 2 years. Teaching students to use the dictionary and related reference tools, develop a strategy for dealing with unknown words, and develop a personal approach to building vocabulary are much shorter endeavors. One target of instruction that remains for the secondary grades is that of Latin and Greek roots. When a Latin or Greek root shows itself to be useful in a particular content area— science, history, and so on—it should probably be taught” (Graves, 2006, pp. 116-117).

- “…reading is a complex task that involves the orchestration of a multitude of processes. These processes cannot be set in motion without any of the following three pillars of comprehension: understanding of the language (e.g., words sentences, discourse structure) through which the story is constructed; possession of relevant experiences and background knowledge that are stated, assumed, implied, or taken for granted in the text; command of a repertoire of self-regulating strategies (e.g., monitoring, inferring, visualizing, questioning, clarifying), the activation and effective use of which depend heavily on the reader’s understanding of text language and knowledge of its subject matter” (Fang, 2008).

- Because the ability to obtain meaning from print depends so strongly on the development of word recognition accuracy and reading fluency, both should be regularly assessed in the classroom, permitting timely and effective instructional response when difficulty or delay is apparent” (Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998, p. 7).

- Baker, Simons, & Kame’enui (1995) provide guidelines for deeper vocabulary learning. They characterize instructional methods as ‘big ideas for making words/concepts more explicit and employable.’ ... Three levels of understanding - verbal association (incidental), partial concept knowledge (mediated), and full concept knowledge - characterize how students acquire vocabulary knowledge. At the full concept knowledge level, students develop deeper understanding using a combination of multiple contexts, word analysis, and connections to their lives and the world around them (cited in Allen, 1999, p.12).

- Context clues are relatively ineffective means for inferring the meaning of specific words; students are more apt to learn specific new vocabulary when definitional information is combined with (rich) contextual clues than when contextual analysis is used in isolation (Baumann & Kame’enui, 1995; Dalton & Grisham, 2011; Pearson, Heibert, & Kamil, 2007).

- “Figuring out unfamiliar words on their own builds students’ capacity of independent reading and encourages them to employ word solving skills previously learned. Contextual meanings can be clarified during in-depth discussions of the text” (Hammond & Nessel, 2011, p. 42).
Strand 3: Reading Literature/Making Meaning at the Text Level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(K-4) Elementary School Learning Targets</th>
<th>(5-8) Middle School Learning Targets</th>
<th>(9-12) High School Learning Targets</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>E.RL</strong> Recognize and use knowledge of text structures (e.g., chronology, description), literary devices and techniques (e.g., dialogue, elaboration, narrator point of view), and genre-specific features to read and comprehend literary texts.</td>
<td><strong>M.RL</strong> Identify and interpret use of text structures, genre-specific features, and literary devices and techniques (e.g., narrative hook, pacing, back-story) to comprehend and analyze a range of literary texts.</td>
<td><strong>H.RL</strong> Analyze the use of text structures, literary devices, and techniques, complex plotlines and subtexts, and universal themes to comprehend and critique increasingly more diverse texts and formats.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some Key Research Ideas Considered during LPF Development - Reading Literature/Making Meaning at the Text Level

- Concepts about print is a basic understanding of how print functions. It includes the concept that print carries meaning, reading occurs from left to right, top to bottom, that books have fronts and back, and that words are made up of letters (Clay, 1993).
- “The panel believes that students comprehend and remember content better when they are taught to recognize the structure of a text because it can help them to extract and construct meaning while reading” (IES, 2010, p. 17).
- Using the organization of a story helps children differentiate between major and minor events (IES, 2010).
- Instruction and practice in summarizing result both in students’ improved ability to summarize and in their overall comprehension of the passage summarized (Duke & Pearson, 2002).
- “Literature—and poetry in particular—can package language in forms that are both "concise and precise" (Holbrook, 2005) with the potential for sharpening oral communication, building vocabulary, facilitating closer readings of texts, and improving writing skills” (Eva-Wood, 2008, p. 564).
- “… poetry can offer its readers opportunities to stretch their awareness, adapt their perspectives, and construct new knowledge in a way that many expository texts cannot” (Eva-Wood, 2008, p. 564).
- “Good comprehenders use a number of strategies, including activating prior knowledge, monitoring comprehension, generating questions, answering questions, drawing inferences, creating mental imagery, identifying the text structure the writer has used, and creating summaries” (Dymock, 2007, p. 161).
- “Story grammar research provides teachers with an excellent tool for teaching narrative text structure awareness. Teaching pupils about story grammars and how stories are structured will help them to comprehend better. Story grammar research moves the teacher away from general explanations of story structure (e.g., that stories have a beginning, middle, and end) to the more specific (e.g., that stories have characters, a theme, and a plot)” (Dymock, 2007, p. 162).
- Students’ ability to recognize and to use text structures has been shown to increase reading comprehension, to affect how much information students remember, to enhance the learning of content, and is considered to be a valuable reading strategy (Gajria, Jitendra, Sood, & Sacks, 2007; Meyer, 2003; Montelongo & Hernández, 2007; Purcell-Gates, Duke, & Martineau, 2007).
• Comprehension is a complex cognitive process; students learn nothing or little unless they build on their initial preconceptions and use effective strategies for accessing and revising these preconceptions as they read (Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000).

• “The best way to pursue meaning is through conscious, controlled use of strategies” (Duffy, 1993, p. 223).

• Predicting is a natural thought process ... unfolding story/events lead to revised thinking ... therefore predictions reflect a reader’s reasoning ... when predictions are based on semantic memory, readers are applying their conceptual knowledge (Hammond & Nessel, 2011, pp. 44-46).

• Historical fiction picturebooks represent a unique art form in children’s literature ... they encompass artistic and imaginative reconstructions of the past through words, images, and design features intended to help readers make sense of historical events and concepts. ... Even though there has been a proliferation of historical fiction in elementary and intermediate classrooms, teachers need to recognize their complexity and challenging features. ... They are multimodal – meaning they include more than one mode or system of meaning: visual images, design elements, and written language. ... The fact-fiction blend is challenging for readers, as they must discern what is fact and what is fiction. ... and many readers lack historical background. ... Attending to the blend of fact and fiction is important for students to understand the authoritative stance from which the author and illustrator created the story (Youngs & Serafini, 2011, pp. 115-118).

• Motifs – repeated images found in historical fiction picturebooks are used to bring attention to certain images. ... [motifs] take on weight because of the associations made with the images (e.g., a Nazi armband). ... students must learn to analyze motifs to uncover connections related to themes and character relationships (Youngs & Serafini, 2011, p. 121).

• Embedded historical visual symbols must be critically analyzed by readers within the original historical context in order to make inter-textual links and deepen understanding. ... Iconic historical images challenge readers to identify their origins and make connections to the new context presented in the text (Youngs & Serafini, 2011, pp. 121-122).
Strand 4: Reading Informational Texts/Making Meaning at the Text Level

STRAND 4: Reading Informational Texts (RI): Reading is making meaning at the text level and understanding the unique genre features, structures, and purposes of print and non-print informational texts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(K-4) Elementary School Learning Targets</th>
<th>(5-8) Middle School Learning Targets</th>
<th>(9-12) High School Learning Targets</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>E.RI Recognize and use knowledge of expository text structures (e.g., sequence, description, definition, compare-contrast) and genre features to read and comprehend informational texts: Identify, compare, and draw inferences about concepts, central ideas, and supporting details.</td>
<td>M.RI Use content knowledge, knowledge of expository text structures (e.g., compare-contrast, cause-effect, proposition-support), and genre features, to read and comprehend a range of informational texts, including textbooks and on-line texts: Explain, compare, and analyze concepts, events, central ideas, relevant details.</td>
<td>H.RI Integrate content and background knowledge to evaluate and extend understanding of central ideas, concepts, and diverse perspectives presented in multiple sources, including textbooks, on-line texts, and technical and primary source documents.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some Key Research Ideas Considered during LPF Development - Reading Informational Texts/Making Meaning at the Text Level

- “Research shows that early and continued exposure to different types of writing is related to later reading success in the content areas” (Flood & Lapp, 1986, p.284).
- Because narrative and informational books serve different purposes, different textual patterns and linguistic registers are used to communicate their meaning (Pappas, 1993).
- Talking is a primary vehicle for constructing meaning. It helps students make sense of new information and reveals unsuspected areas of fuzziness that can be clarified. ... Testing ideas in the public arena leads learners to think more rigorously. In response to questions or challenges, they must clarify statements, give examples, or offer evidence. ... Even a typical discussion of a reading selection has a significant impact on participants’ cognition (Hammond & Nessel, 2011, p. 87).
- Duke & Bennett-Armistead (2003) cite research from Barbara Moss (1997) and provide the retelling rubric (Moss) used to evaluate children’s retelling of informational text. “This work [referring to Moss] indicates that retelling informational text is not beyond even first-grade children” (p. 121).
- “The panel believes that students comprehend and remember content better when they are taught to recognize the structure of a text because it can help them to extract and construct meaning while reading” (IES, 2010, p. 17).
- Students’ ability to recognize and to use text structures has been shown to increase reading comprehension, to affect how much information students remember, to enhance the learning of content, and is considered to be a valuable reading strategy (Gajria, Jitendra, Sood, & Sacks, 2007; Meyer, 2003; Montelongo & Hernández, 2007; Purcell-Gates, Duke, & Martineau, 2007).
- Recognizing text structure can be challenging for students, as many expository trade books often use more than one organizational pattern. ... Clue words and graphic organizers are two strategies that can effectively be used to teach the organizational patterns of text (Williams, Stafford, Lauer, Hall, & Pollini, 2009).
- Increasingly complex text structures tend to follow this general progression: sequence (procedure), chronology (time order), description, definition, compare-contrast, cause-effect, problem-solution, proposition-support, critique, and inductive-deductive reasoning. Each text structure has associated semantic cues and signal words and phrases that help readers understanding how the information is organized, as well as to compose texts with greater coherence and clarity (Hess, 2010, p. 1).
• “Descriptive structures focus on the attributes of something, that is, the qualities that distinguish it from other things . . . The three descriptive patterns that readers encounter most frequently are list, web, and matrix” (Dymock & Nicholson, 2010, p. 168).
• “Text features can help readers locate and organize information in the text. The recognition and use of text organization are essential processes underlying comprehension and retention. As early as the third grade, students are expected to recognize expository text structures” (Akhond, Malayeri, & Samad, 2011 p. 369).
• “. . . because expository language is often simultaneously technical, dense, abstract, and impersonal, students should learn how to paraphrase it into their own language. Reading expository texts involves learning how to translate the patterns of expository language into everyday spoken language” (Fang, 2008, p. 485).
• Instruction and practice in summarizing result both in students’ improved ability to summarize and in their overall comprehension of the passage summarized (Duke & Pearson, 2002).
• “Results of this study provide empirical confirmation of the suspected paucity of informational texts in the early grades. . . there was relatively little informational text in classroom libraries, on classroom walls or other surfaces, and in classroom written language activities. These findings are cause for concern both because of the missed opportunity to prepare students for informational reading and writing they will encounter in later schooling and life, and for the missed opportunity to use informational text to motivate more students’ interest in literacy in their present lives” (Duke, 2000, p. 220).
• Comprehension is a complex cognitive process; students learn nothing or little unless they build on their initial preconceptions and use effective strategies for accessing and revising these preconceptions (Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000).
• Instruction and practice in summarizing result both in students’ improved ability to summarize and in their overall comprehension of the passage summarized (Duke & Pearson, 2002).
• “Synthesizing while reading is critical to understanding the big ideas in informational texts (Block & Duffy, 2008). When students engage in synthesizing, they move from simply recalling the facts in the text to considering how the author’s compilation of these facts conveys a big idea” (Cummins & Stallmeyuer-Gerard, 20011, p. 395).
Some Key Research Ideas Considered during LPF Development - Writing Literary Texts/Communicating Ideas and Experiences

NOTE: A literature review researching how expertise develops when composing literary texts (poetry and narratives) was not as rich as what was found for composing informational texts. There is, however, compelling research linking reading-writing (e.g., use of mentor texts as models for writing); therefore much of the research related to comprehending increasingly complex literary texts might be applied to composing increasingly complex literary texts.

- “Some children’s earliest writing appears in the forms of letters or created letter shapes. ... But for many children, their drawing is their earliest writing. It’s important for ... early childhood educators to recognize and honor these drawings for what they are: an important aspect of literacy... When children create their drawings to communicate their meaning, those pieces they create are not “preliterate”; they are true literacy events. Sometimes an entire story is recorded pictorially” (Shagoury, 2009, pp. 28-31).

- “Rather than seeing words and images as two very separate systems, early childhood educators are recognizing the importance of how the use of these systems changes depending on the task at hand—and how children use these systems together to complement one another.” (Shagoury, 2009, p. 32)

- “Children need to see that the details of their lives are worth writing about and they jot entries in their writers’ notebook often. ...Children reread their entries, find one that matters, and take this entry as a grain of sand around which they’ll pear their writing and their lives.” (Calkins, 2001, p. 496).

- “Chances are if children can sing it or recite it, they will soon be able to read it, and if they can read it, they will soon be able to write it” (Parr, M. & Campbell, T. (2006, p.38).

- Novice writers write in such a way that requires no greater amount of planning or goal setting than ordinary conversation (Bereiter & Scardamalia, 1982, p. 9).

- “We found that writing poetry with our first grade students prompted them to use voice and an abundance of creative language in their writing. ... and that poetry is an ideal vehicle for expanding on ideas and letting student voice shine through. This process taught us that when poetry is abundantly read, explicitly taught, and actively encouraged as an acceptable writing form in a first-grade classroom, the benefits are numerous (Oczkus, Baura, Murray, & Berry, 2006, p. 479):
  - The experimentation and process of poetry writing enhances the narrative writing of students.
  - Struggling and reluctant writers find success and acceptance. Writing brief pieces, repeating words that they like or know, and being unconcerned with standard grammar allowed these students to write freely. The success that our struggling students found with poetry writing made other writing tasks seem more approachable.
  - English-language learners are free to play with language without concern for syntax or convention.
  - More proficient writers are able to experiment with language, enhancing their creativity.

- Writing a poem or essay relies on more complex processes than writing a friendly letter (Gunning, 2004).
“Literature—and poetry in particular—can package language in forms that are both "concise and precise" (Holbrook, 2005) with the potential for sharpening oral communication, building vocabulary, facilitating closer readings of texts, and improving writing skills” (Eva-Wood, 2008, p. 564).

“. . . a critical examination of literary devices can help children become more reflective writers. . . . We found that children benefit from experiencing what it is like to be an author—wrestling with problems, drawing on knowledge and experiences, seeking advice, and responding to critical comments” (Corden, 2005, pp. 285-286).

Using the organization of a story helps children differentiate among major and minor events (IES, 2010).

“Story grammar research provides teachers with an excellent tool for teaching narrative text structure awareness. Teaching pupils about story grammars and how stories are structured will help them to comprehend better. Story grammar research moves the teacher away from general explanations of story structure (e.g., that stories have a beginning, middle, and end) to the more specific (e.g., that stories have characters, a theme, and a plot)” (Dymock, 2007, p. 162).

“Text Structures are the internal organizational structures used within paragraphs or longer texts, appropriate to genre and purpose. Research in literacy learning indicates that: a) an understanding of various text structures and their purposes enhances student’s ability to comprehend what is read; and b) that some text structures are more easily learned and understood before other more complex structures. Increasingly complex [literary] text structures tend to follow this general progression: chronology (narrative time order), description, and problem-solution. Each text structure has associated semantic cues and signal words and phrases that help readers understanding how the information is organized, as well as to compose texts with greater coherence and clarity (Hess, 2008b, pp. 1-2).

- **Time Order/Chronology** – This pattern is found in most narrative texts, where the plot unfolds over time. More complex texts use literary devices, such as flashback and foreshadowing to implicitly establish time order/chronology to add suspense or control pacing of the story.
- **Events/Enumeration/Description Structure** – This pattern usually covers a larger piece of writing rather than a single paragraph. An introductory paragraph is provided which states the topic and facilitates the listing or elaboration of important descriptions, characteristics, or attributes.
- **Problem-Solution Structure** – This structure, more complex than chronology and description, may follow a number of different forms and is found in both literary and expository texts. At one extreme, the problem and solution are presented explicitly and unfold logically (e.g., in early picturebooks). At the other extreme, the pattern is a series of episodes or interactive subplots that may or may not lead to a resolution of the problem (e.g., man versus self or nature conflict).

“When students have begun to generalize what is typical of each genre of text (e.g., a fable is a fantasy story with animals as characters intended to teach a lesson; a play presents dialogue in a way distinct from narrative texts; an essay generally begins with a thesis/proposition and lays out support for it) they are better able to anticipate how information will be organized, thus supporting their comprehension when encountering [and composing] new texts” (Hess, 2010, p. 1).

The benefits of text structure instruction for reading comprehension have strong empirical support. Research also supports the causal relationship between text structure instruction and improvement in composition skills” (Dickson, Simmons, Kame’enui, 1995b).

Following a model helps students become more attentive to language patterns and encourages them to read like writers. Some models (such as frames) provide a specific structure ... genres, such as the argumentative essay or the memoir can be used as another type of model. . . .imitation builds deftness with language while encouraging close reading. . . . While providing structures for student composing, frames illuminate commonly used elements of text organization, such as transitions. As students become familiar with these elements by seeing them repeatedly in frames, they begin to notice the elements in texts they read, and the awareness benefits their comprehension. . . . learners benefit from some use of models and frames, but they will be hampered as writers if they never get beyond such aids (Hammond & Nessel, 2011, pp.117-121).

“Effective writers evaluate their writing from the point of view of prospective readers and revise accordingly...but can easily overlook ambiguous sentences, confusing statements, or omitted ideas or words. . . . Revision involves attending closely to constructed meanings, so the process increases the students’ capacity to comprehend. . . . (students) need to understand (revision) involves four interrelated processes: (1) adding ideas; (2) taking out ideas, or ‘pulling weeds’ as Zinser (2006) calls it; (3) restating ideas; and (4) moving ideas around. They also need to understand that revising is distinctly different from editing, which addresses grammar, usage, and mechanics, such as spelling and pronunciation” (Hammond & Nessel, 2011, pp.122-123).

“. . . children who were identified as being more developed writers on the basis of their writing competence were also more able to display meta-linguistic knowledge. Through their control of a meta-language the more competent writers could consciously access more extensive knowledge about language than those assessed as less competent writers” (Martello, J. (200, p. 108).
Strand 6: Writing to Inform/Communicating Ideas through Informative Texts (WI)

Some Key Research Ideas Considered during LPF Development - Writing to Inform/Communicating Ideas through Informative Texts

- According to Duke (2000) and many others she cites (Christie, 1984, 1987b; Derewianka, 1990; Duke & Kays, 1998; Jan, 1991; Pappas, 1986, 1987), informational texts are defined as texts that have many or all of the following features:
  1. a function to communicate information about the natural or social world, typically from one presumed to be more knowledgeable on the subject to one presumed to be less so;
  2. an expectation or durable factual content;
  3. timeless verb constructions;
  4. generic noun constructions;
  5. technical vocabulary;
  6. classificatory and definitional material;
  7. comparative/contrastive, problem/solution, cause/effect, or like text structures;
  8. frequent repetition of the topical theme; and/or
  9. graphical elements such as diagrams, indices, page numbers, and maps.

- “My students, though only in first and second grades … were aware of the need to include interesting content in their writing and of the need for good form. They also reflected critically and made adjustments - that while simple - show that they were dealing with the same problems that experienced writers face. Given appropriate instruction in the skills of writing and a topic that they’ve chosen and find interesting, young students are fully capable of dealing with the complex problems that occur when reading and writing informational texts … Common instruction in the primary grades may be underestimating the ability of these students to comprehend informational texts and to produce informational writing of their own”… this research supports giving primary students opportunities to written informational texts. It also supports giving students the opportunity to write collaboratively. … While writing, partners naturally provide feedback to each other on content as well as on aspects of form such as spelling, punctuation, and organization. I strongly recommend that students be allowed to read and write informational texts in pairs after they have had explicit instruction in reading and writing such texts” (Read, 2005, pp. 43-44).

- “In early literacy classrooms, writing activities often entail following specific writing templates or prompts, or engaging in personal narrative that does not include critical dialogue about its contentor form. In this first-grade writing time, students are able to set their own agendas for their work—naming a topic that merits exploration in writing, deciding what to share and with whom, devising plans for writing, and interrogating their work’s importance. Their writing projects are not limited to a pre-delineated trajectory. What “really matters” to students is embedded in collaborative critical engagement” (Ghiso, 2011).

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• “Our research indicates that students’ writing progresses along various continua toward a mature form. Along the way, students produce increasingly more complex approximations. ... As might be expected in a study that examines students’ writing from kindergarten through fifth grade, students’ compositions display many levels of spelling development. Our stance is that students’ attention to genre and related features is present from preschool forward, long before spelling becomes conventional. ... From our study of K-5 students’ informational writing, we have created a continuum of development, which describes the intermediate forms (developmental categories) of students information reports (which) typically fall into one of eight categories: Labels, Fact Statements, Fact Lists, Couplets, Fact List Collections, Couplet Collections, Single and Unordered Paragraphs, and Ordered Paragraphs” (Donovan, & Smolkin, 2011, pp. 406-409).

• “Text Structures are the internal organizational structures used within paragraphs or longer texts, appropriate to genre and purpose. Research in literacy learning indicates that: a) an understanding of various text structures and their purposes enhances student’s ability to comprehend what is read; and b) that some text structures are more easily learned and understood before other more complex structures. Increasingly complex [expository-informative] text structures tend to follow this general progression: sequence, description, compare-contrast, cause-effect, and problem-solution. Each text structure has associated semantic cues and signal words and phrases that help readers understanding how the information is organized, as well as to compose texts with greater coherence and clarity (Hess, 2008b, pp. 1-2).
  
  o Sequence (Process) Structure – In this [least complex] pattern, steps or phases of a process or project are specified without cause-effect relationships being implied. A recipe or procedure for a science investigation would be examples of differing complexity that employ the sequence structure.
  
  o Events/Enumeration/Description Structure – This pattern usually covers a larger piece of writing rather than a single paragraph. An introductory paragraph is provided which states the topic and facilitates the listing or elaboration of important descriptions, characteristics, or attributes.
  
  o Compare-Contrast Structure - This pattern shows similarities and dissimilarities between objects, actions, ideas, or processes. Headings and subheadings generally provide extra support/signals to readers about this structure. Often one [descriptive] paragraph is dedicated to similarities and another to differences.
  
  o Cause-Effect (Antecedent-Consequence) Structure – Unlike the sequence pattern, this pattern carries the implication that the effect is produced by a specific cause or that the consequences follow from the specified antecedents. This pattern requires a multi-paragraph text and might be found in a discussion of science investigation results and conclusions or historical articles and research reports linking multiple causes and effects.
  
  o Problem-Solution (Hypothesis) Structure – This most complex informational structure may follow a number of different forms and is found in both literary and expository texts. At one extreme, the problem and solution are presented explicitly and unfold logically. At the other extreme, the pattern begins with an hypothesis about an existing or perceived problem (e.g., environmental pollution) followed by an explanation of factors that affect the problem and one or more possible/plausible (fact-based) solutions to address the problem.

• All writing takes place within a context that influences what the writer says and how he says it. Context includes the writer, the audience (person or persons with whom the writer communicates), and the situation for the writing. Awareness of context benefits students’ writing because it helps them consider who they want to communicate with, what information they want to convey, and how to communicate that information effectively. ... On-demand writing required much planning, drafting, revising, and editing in a compressed and sometimes stressful amount of time. Students who have a good deal of experience as writers in less pressured, everyday circumstances have an advantage in on-demand writing tasks (Hampton & Resnick, 2009, pp. 55-71).

• Following a model helps students become more attentive to language patterns and encourages them to read like writers. Some models (such as frames) provide a specific structure ... genres, such as the argumentative essay or the memoir can be used as another type of model. ...Imitation builds deftness with language while encouraging close reading. ... While providing structures for student composing, frames illuminate commonly used elements of text organization, such as transitions. As students become familiar with these elements by seeing them repeatedly in frames, they begin to notice the elements in texts they read, and the awareness benefits their comprehension. ... Learners benefit from some use of models and frames, but they will be hampered as writers if they never get beyond such aids (Hammond & Nessel, 2011, pp.117-121).

• “Effective writers evaluate their writing from the point of view of prospective readers and revise accordingly...but can easily overlook ambiguous sentences, confusing statements, or omitted ideas or words. ... Revision involves attending closely to constructed meanings, so the process increases the students’ capacity to comprehend. ... (students) need to understand (revision) involves four interrelated processes: (1) adding ideas; (2) taking out ideas, or ‘pulling weeds’ as Zinsser (2006) calls it; (3) restating ideas; and (4) moving ideas around. They also need to understand that revising is distinctly different from editing, which addresses grammar, usage, and mechanics, such as spelling and pronunciation” (Hammond & Nessel, 2011, pp.122-123).

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**Strand 7: Writing Persuasively/Communicating Opinions, Critiques, & Arguments (WP)**

**Strand 7 Writing Persuasively/Communicating Opinions, Critiques, & Arguments (WP) - Different genres of persuasive writing (literary critiques, persuasive essays, speeches, editorials, etc.) are appropriate for different purposes and require use of genre-specific features, text structures, and strategic use of logic chains with compelling supporting evidence to produce a coherent unit of thought that persuades the intended audience.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(K-4) Elementary School Learning Targets</th>
<th>(5-8) Middle School Learning Targets</th>
<th>(9-12) High School Learning Targets</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>EWP</strong> Apply organizational strategies (e.g., description, definition, compare-contrast, cause-effect, proposition-support) and an understanding of topics or texts to develop and support opinions about them for authentic audiences.</td>
<td><strong>MWP</strong> Apply organizational strategies (e.g., cause-effect, problem-solution, proposition-support, critique), and use of multiple sources to analyze topics or texts in order to support a claim/thesis for authentic and varied audiences.</td>
<td><strong>HWP</strong> Apply organizational structures (e.g., proposition-support, critique, inductive and deductive reasoning), credible sources, and rhetorical strategies to the analysis and synthesis of complex ideas to present and support reasoned arguments/critiques of texts, issues, or problems for authentic and varied audiences.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some Key Research Ideas Considered during LPF Development - Writing Persuasively/Communicating Opinions, Critiques, & Arguments

**NOTE:** There is compelling research linking the reading-writing (e.g., use of mentor texts as models for writing); therefore much of the research related to comprehending increasingly complex persuasive texts might also be applied to composing increasingly complex persuasive texts. Important research findings included: (1) related to the use of peer conferencing was that for developing ideas for writing literary and informational texts, peer conferencing was found to be an effective strategy used early in the development of compositions. For persuasive writing, peer conferencing was most effective near the final stages of writing when restructure a stronger argument chain; (2) more than any other genre of writing deep understanding of both content and audience are essential areas that teachers may not pay enough instructional attention to.

- In an interview with U.S. Supreme Court justices (National Public Radio, Morning Edition, 6/13/2011), each justice was asked about what kinds of texts helped them to learn how to write their decisions (which could be called “reasoned arguments” with strong and deep supporting evidence). Each one named novelists and/or literary texts as their sources, inspirations, and models of good writing, thus calling attention to the application and integration of literary and information writing techniques and the high level of complexity of the genre of critique/reasoned argument.

- Each text structure has associated semantic cues and signal words and phrases that help readers understanding how the information is organized, as well as to compose texts with greater coherence and clarity. Structures associated with critique and argument are the most complex (Hess, 2010, p. 1).

- “Text Structures are the internal organizational structures used within paragraphs or longer texts, appropriate to genre and purpose. Research in literacy learning indicates that: a) an understanding of various text structures and their purposes enhances student’s ability to comprehend what is read; and b) that some text structures are more easily learned and understood before other more complex structures. Increasingly complex [expository-persuasive] text structures tend to follow this general progression: problem-solution, proposition-support, critique, inductive-deductive. Each text structure has associated semantic cues and signal words and phrases that help readers understanding how the information is organized, as well as to compose texts with greater coherence and clarity (Hess, 2008b, pp. 1-2).”

  - **Problem-Solution (Hypothesis) Structure** – This structure may follow a number of different forms and is found in both literary and expository texts. At one extreme, the hypothesis and results or conclusions are presented explicitly and supported with data. At the other extreme, the pattern begins with an hypothesis about an existing or perceived problem followed by an explanation of factors that affect the problem and an argument that promotes the problem.

  - **Proposition-Support (Persuasion)** – This is similar to problem/solution, although arguments and counter arguments are both presented in support of a thesis statement. “A refutation structure (Diakidoy, Mouskounti, & Ioannnides, 2011, p.24) makes explicit reference to one or more common misconception [about a concept or problem], argues against them, and offers a more acceptable or valid conception.”

  - **Judgment/Critique Structure** – This pattern uses a set of criteria to evaluate information or ideas that have been presented. Often discourse style (e.g., humor, satire, irony) affects the complexity and understanding of this type of text.

  - **Inductive/Deductive Reasoning Structure** – There are subtle differences between these two structures, which apply elements of enumeration and definition structures. A deductive structure first presents a generalization/definition and then follows it with specific examples; conversely, an inductive structure presents illustrations/anecdotes and examples and then moves the reader to draw a conclusion from the examples. These structures are often embedded within cause/effect, proposition/support, and judgment/critique structures.

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“Following a model helps students become more attentive to language patterns and encourages them to read like writers. Some models (such as frames) provide a specific structure ... genres, such as the argumentative essay or the memoir can be used as another type of model. ... Imitation builds deftness with language while encouraging close reading. ... While providing structures for student composing, frames illuminate commonly used elements of text organization, such as transitions. As students become familiar with these elements by seeing them repeatedly in frames, they begin to notice the elements in texts they read, and the awareness benefits their comprehension. ... learners benefit from some use of models and frames, but they will be hampered as writers if they never get beyond such aids (Hammond & Nessel, 2011, pp.117-121).

“Effective writers evaluate their writing from the point of view of prospective readers and revise accordingly...but can easily overlook ambiguous sentences, confusing statements, or omitted ideas or words. ... Revision involves attending closely to constructed meanings, so the process increases the students’ capacity to comprehend. ... (students) need to understand (revision) involves four interrelated processes: (1) adding ideas; (2) taking out ideas, or ‘pulling weeds’ as Zinsser (2006) calls it; (3) restating ideas; and (4) moving ideas around. They also need to understand that revising is distinctly different from editing, which addresses grammar, usage, and mechanics, such as spelling and pronunciation” (Hammond & Nessel, 2011, pp.122-123).

“All writing takes place within a context that influences what the writer says and how he says it. Context includes the writer, the audience (person or persons with whom the writer communicates), and the situation for the writing. Awareness of context benefits students’ writing because it helps them consider who they want to communicate with, what information they want to convey, and how to communicate that information effectively” (Hampton & Resnick, 2009, p. 56).

The fact-fiction blend is challenging for readers, as they must discern what is fact and what is fiction. ... Attending to the blend of fact and fiction is important for students to understand the authoritative stance from which the author and illustrator created the story (Youngs & Serafini, 2011, pp. 115-118).

“From a rhetorical perspective, the overall frequency of embedded arguments in a persuasive text is seen as important because it reflects the use of argument chains—complex structures that can serve to strengthen a major claim. Everyday argument or persuasive discourse often consists of modalized propositions. Using an argument to present data, which would otherwise stand as a qualified claim, may be considered a particularly effective strategy in attempting to gain the audience's adherence to the overall or major claim. Having a countered rebuttal take the form of an argument also seems a strategic move because this particular substructure comprises an attempt to support a top level claim as well as refute the opposition. This interpretation as to the strategic use of arguments to present countered rebuttals and data is supported by the experts' performance. There is also evidence that this ability develops with age in that the Grade 10 students made greater use of argument chains involving data substructures than did their younger counterparts. It was noted that writers in all groups made use of argument chains involving subclaims. ... Of interest is the finding that younger students clearly favor argument chains involving reservations. Although including a reservation may serve to make the claim more acceptable to the audience (i.e., by taking into account exceptions), the justification of this inclusion (which is reflected in the embedded argument) may be evidence of some inner deliberation or dialectical activity rather than an acknowledgment of and a concession to the audience's concerns” (Crammond, 1998, p. 230).

“The absence of warrant substructures in student persuasive texts at the Grade 6 level and the slight increase in occurrence found at the higher grade levels are results that are consistent with those reported by McCann (1989). The overall minimal use of warrants relative to claim and data substructures, a pattern that persists even for older students, confirms findings of studies conducted by Connor (1990), Cooper et al. (1984), and Knudson (1992, 1993)” (cited in Crammond, 1998, p. 230).

“Although the majority of student texts in the present study showed evidence that opposing points of view had been considered, variation was noted in how this opposition was dealt with. Whereas few students (25%) in Grades 6 and 8 used a Countered Rebuttal substructure and most (75 to 83%) used at least one Reservation substructure, the reverse pattern of performance was true for students in Grade 10, only a few of whom (25%) used Reservations and more than half of whom used Countered Rebuttals. The developmental pattern observed with respect to the use of Countered Rebuttals is somewhat similar to that reported by Golder and Coirier (1994). These researchers found that less than 20% of their 11- to 12-year-old students used counterarguments in their argumentative texts as opposed to more than 70% of the 13- to 14-year-old students and 15- to 16-year-old students. Unlike in
the present study, a notable increase in the number of students using at least one counterargument occurred between the ages of 11 to 12 and 13 to 14 years; in the present study, this increase appeared later on (i.e., approximately between the ages of 14 and 16 years). ... This study also has implications for instruction. First, students should be given the opportunity to write persuasive texts on topics for which they have a well-developed knowledge base. Second, teachers should attempt to facilitate students’ inclusion of rhetorically significant structures in their persuasive texts. This might be effected by providing information regarding audience characteristics, manipulating the audience factor (e.g., hostile versus friendly) (Hays et al., 1988), and instructing and encouraging students to engage in audience analysis. Finally it needs to be pointed out that this model was designed to support the analysis of arguments in discourse, and its potential to serve as a heuristic for either students or teachers in their attempts to produce or critically evaluate persuasive text is limited. Any attempt to construct or evaluate arguments presented in persuasive text cannot be based solely on either form or content but must be coordinated with an understanding of the audience to whom it is directed. Meaningful assessment or production of persuasive text cannot proceed unless grounded in an appreciation of the social context or community in which it occurs” (Crammond, 1998).

- “Audience awareness is key to successful persuasive writing—writers persuade by knowing how to capture their readers’ attention and to convince them to believe or do something that they otherwise might not. Writers reflect audience awareness through use of various strategies or rhetorical moves. These moves include directly addressing and cueing readers to their expected stance . . . providing background information readers need, appealing to readers’ emotions, circumstances, interests, or sense of humor, and stating and accommodating readers’ concerns” (referring to 4th graders). ... We know that children may be capable of taking another’s perspective if they are in a situation that is not contrived, that seems reasonable and purposeful, and in which they understand what is expected. Perhaps, then, children can demonstrate audience awareness if they are writing for a real purpose and familiar audience. ... The children’s expressed belief that their intended audiences would read the letters suggested a sense of genuine purpose for their writing as did their hopeful talk about whether these readers could really be persuaded. ... My observation notes revealed that the changes made in final drafts were based primarily on ideas garnered during peer conferences. Students seemed better able to anticipate readers’ perspectives, and to provide additional reasons for their requests and responses to possible objections when they met as a group. ... Notably, peer conferences resulted in significant improvement in the letters, indicating that students thinking together, even though not working on a joint project, can accomplish more than they would individually based on prior knowledge or teacher instruction alone. ... final letters [were coded] for persuasion strategies, drawing first upon rhetorical moves that have been established as evidence of audience awareness and developing a final, more comprehensive list of codes by also using inductive coding and constant comparison. The final categories were: (1) Naming Moves: Address readers directly and cue them to their expected stance (e.g., “As we who care know . . .”); (2) Context Moves: Provide background information; (3) Strategy Moves: Appeal to readers’ interests, emotions, circumstances, or humor [a. Emotional Interpersonal, b. General Reason, c. Particular Reason]; (4) Response Moves: Address readers’ potential concerns or objections [a. Stating, b. Accommodating]” (Wollman-Bonilla, J. E. (2004, pp. 502-511).

- “In describing ways to move an audience, Aristotle identified three possible appeals that are widely and usefully taught to this day: ethos, pathos, and logos. Ethos is the character of the writer in the writing (credibility level, ethical stance, etc.). Pathos is emotion used to engage an audience’s sensibilities. Logos is an argument, including facts and critical reasoning, used to make a case” (Lindblom, 2010).

- “This entire process describes the essential elements of rhetoric which are applicable to both written composition and oratory discourse. When writers strive for optimum effectiveness in discourse, they should also include considerations of audience, human nature, and human emotions. Although we may prefer to have our arguments considered on the merit of logic or reason alone, emotional factors often do come into play. Accordingly, in consideration of both logic and emotion, Aristotle noted that appeals should be advanced on three different levels: appeal to reason (logos), appeal to emotions (pathos), and appeal to personality or character (e-thos) . . . If one fails to use all three appeals in an argument, one will risk sacrificing optimum effectiveness” (Lamb, 1998, pp. 108-109).

- Toulmin’s basic conception of argument includes several elements: a claim based on evidence of some sort, with a warrant that explains how the evidence supports the claim, backing supporting the warrants, qualifications, and rebuttals or counterarguments that refute competing claims. ... Although many teachers begin to teach some version of argument with the writing of a thesis statement, in reality, good argument begins with looking at the data that are likely to become the evidence in an argument and that give rise to a thesis statement or major claim (Hillocks, 2010).

- “Rare also among the sixth-graders was the recognition of possible op-posing arguments and a response to the opposition. Although the ninth-and twelfth-graders scored significantly higher in these two categories, their use of these components of argument remained weak. ... At all three grades the
students are strongest in two areas: making claims and stating propositions. This is what one might expect to find in arguments prepared by inexperienced writers: many papers offer a series of claims without providing the supporting data. The results support Bereiter and Scardamalia’s (1982) analysis of young writers’ failure to provide the needed elaboration in their writing. The students in the present study are weakest in offering and interpreting data and in recognizing and responding to opposition. ... It is clear that the students in this study have difficulty providing their own prompts to guide the elaboration that will assist the reader in understanding an argument. If a teacher were to plan instruction for these students, he or she would need to think about ways to instill in students an awareness of the needs of the audience and an ability to be self-critical in developing support. ... The present study suggests that students as early as sixth grade already know something about argument. ... Other research may show which instructional activities are effective in teaching students how to use data, warrants, qualifications, and rebuttals” (McCann, 1989).

• “I have also found that the cases that work most successfully involve concrete situations and specific people, rather than abstract concepts such as whether the death penalty should be abolished. Also, the issue needs to have enough information for students to have an informed debate based on evidence. ... Since students are attempting to convince their classmates and others who have different viewpoints, they have the sense of a real audience for their writing even though they are not writing an actual letter to the editor or letter to their legislator” (Kahn, 2009).
Reading and Interpreting the Learning Progressions Framework for a Grade Span

### STRAND 3: Reading Literature (RL): Reading is making meaning at the text level and understanding the unique genre features, structures, and purposes of literary texts.

#### (K-4) Elementary School Learning Targets

**E.RL.** Recognize and use knowledge of text structures (e.g., chronology, description), literary devices and techniques (e.g., dialogue, elaboration, narrator point of view), and genre-specific features to read and comprehend literary texts.

#### K-4 Grade Span Learning Targets

- By the end of grade 4, students demonstrate and apply the skills and concepts related to Reading Literature (RL) using a variety of literary texts and genres and text features.
- Learning targets are the more general/broad performance descriptors associated with specific skills and concepts at each grade level described in Progress Indicators.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What you see articulated in this LPF strand:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>&quot;E&quot; means elementary grade span; &quot;RL&quot; means read literary texts. Letters a, b, c,.. (after RL) indicate the general order for instruction and typical learning, based on research reviewed. Earlier descriptors = prerequisite skills for later learning. No CCSS standards align with the first descriptor under K-2; however, this may be the first indicator that a student is beginning to comprehend literary texts, so is included. Most LPF descriptors/progress indicators are stated in a more general way than a single/specific CCSS standard; therefore progress indicators (PIs) often align with several CCSS standards at different grade levels within the grade span. This multi-standard alignment can provide insights into potential &quot;mini progressions&quot; for lesson and unit design and support to students working below or above grade level when appropriate. Most aligned CCSS standards for this strand are from the reading literature standards (grade level + RL + CCSS number). Progress indicator E.RL.b indicates prerequisite Foundational Reading as well (grade level + RF + CCSS number). Some CC Speaking-Listening (SL) and Language (L) standards are also linked to progress indicators. (See E.RL.6 as an example)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Larger grade spans are then broken into smaller spans

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grades K-2</th>
<th>Grades 3-4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students comprehend literary texts when…</td>
<td>Students comprehend literary texts when…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.RL.a offering a basic emotional response to literary texts read, texts read aloud, or texts viewed</td>
<td>E.RL.1 identifying relationships among characters, setting, key events, and conflicts 3.RL.1, 3; and 4.RL.1, 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.RL.b demonstrating basic concepts of print (e.g., follows words/pictures left-right, top-bottom; matches spoken words to print words; distinguishes words from sentences)</td>
<td>E.RL.2 using evidence from the text to summarize or make and support inferences, opinions, and conclusions 3.RL.1, 2, 3, 6, 7; and 4.RL.1, 2, 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.RL.c recognizing organization and features of literary texts (e.g., follows a story line/chronology of events, interprets illustrations; connects word meanings)</td>
<td>E.RL.3 describing and texts according to literary genre, text features, or author's style/perspective 3.RL.5, 9; and 4.RL.5, 6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K.RL.2, 6, 7; K.SL.2</td>
<td>E.RL.4 identifying central ideas to derive author's purpose/message or theme 3.RL.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.RL.1, 7; 1.L.5</td>
<td>4.RL.1, 2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.RL.5; 2.L.5</td>
<td>E.RL.5 using supporting evidence to analyze character development and character traits (e.g., deeds, dialogue, description, motivation, interactions) 3.RL.3, 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.RL.6 identifying main characters, key events, a problem, or solution when prompted</td>
<td>4.RL.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>K.RL.1, 2, 3; K.SL.2</td>
<td>E.RL.7 describing aspects of author's craft (e.g., literary devices, dialogue, point of view) when analyzing literary elements or themes within or across texts 3.RL.4, 6, 7, 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.RL.1, 3, 7; 1.SL.2</td>
<td>4.RL.4, 6, 7, 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.RL.1, 3, 7; 2.SL.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.RL.8 retelling or paraphrasing sequence of events, central ideas, and details from a range of stories K.RL.2 and 1.RL.2 and 2.RL.2, 3, 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.RL.9 interpreting and analyzing literary elements within a text (e.g., intentions/feelings of characters, cause-effect relationships, a lesson) K.RL.7 and 1.RL.2, 6, 7 and 2.RL.2, 3, 6, 7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.RL.10 exploring, interpreting, and comparing literary text genres, text features, story lines, or authors' styles K.RL.5, 9 and 1.RL.5, 7, 9 and 2.RL.6, 7, 9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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“Unpacking” the LPF Grade Span for a Grade Level: In this second expanded LPF example, we illustrate how to “unpack” the LPF by grade level.

Reading at the Word Level (RWL): Reading is flexibly using a variety of strategies to make meaning – literal and interpretative - at the word level.

(K-4) Elementary School Learning Targets

**ERWL.** Read and comprehend words with accuracy and fluency:
- Read high frequency and grade-level words;
- Apply knowledge of phonics, word structure, word relationships, and context to read and understand unfamiliar words in connected text;
- Distinguish between literal and interpretive meanings.

**ERWL.a** by the end of Grade 4, all students should demonstrate these learning targets for Reading at the Word Level/RWL.

### Progress Indicators for Grades K-2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade K</th>
<th>Grade 1</th>
<th>Grade 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrate word analysis and word solving strategies…</td>
<td>Demonstrate word analysis and word solving strategies…</td>
<td>Demonstrate word analysis and word solving strategies…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ERWL.a</strong> acquiring understanding of new words from shared literacy activities</td>
<td><strong>ERWL.a</strong> acquiring understanding of new words from shared literacy activities (some students may need extensive work in this area)</td>
<td><strong>ERWL.a</strong> acquiring understanding of new words from shared literacy activities (some students may need extensive work in this area)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ERWL.b</strong> recognizing the reciprocal relationship of sound to letter/letter to sound in words (e.g., letter-sound knowledge; rhyming; blending, segmenting, substituting sounds)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ERWL.c</strong> applying grade-level phonics and word analysis skills when decoding or interpreting word meaning (e.g., reading names, signs, labels, lists, connected text)</td>
<td><strong>ERWL.c</strong> applying grade-level phonics and word analysis skills when decoding or interpreting word meaning (e.g., reading names, signs, labels, lists, connected text)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ERWL.d</strong> using newly learned words in conversations, writing, and in responding to questions about texts read, heard, or viewed</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ERWL.e</strong> determining word meaning, multiple meanings, or shades of meaning based on word relationships (e.g., categories, synonym/antonym), context, or use of resources (e.g., glossary)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ERWL.f</strong> applying grade-appropriate words with automaticity and fluency, including irregularly spelled words</td>
<td><strong>ERWL.f</strong> applying grade-appropriate words with automaticity and fluency, including irregularly spelled words</td>
<td><strong>ERWL.f</strong> applying grade-appropriate words with automaticity and fluency, including irregularly spelled words</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>ERWL.g</strong> reading grade-appropriate words from shared literacy activities</td>
<td><strong>ERWL.g</strong> reading grade-appropriate words from shared literacy activities (some students may need extensive work in this area)</td>
<td><strong>ERWL.g</strong> reading grade-appropriate words from shared literacy activities (some students may need extensive work in this area)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Kindergarten students work on demonstrating learning in Progress Indicators **ERWL.a** through **ERWL.c** and many related Common Core K standards- Reading Foundational (RF) skills, Language Acquisition (L) during the school year.

The first grade level in each grade span builds the foundation for later learning. If there are no CCSS standards listed for PIs, students still need to have learning experiences for each PI.

At grade 1, students who have not built a solid foundation, may need to revisit or have added practice with selected PIs (and lower grade level CC standards) before moving on.

The highest grade level (gr 2) in the grade span may have more intermediate steps I the progression than grades K or 1. PIs (and lower grade level CC standards) may need to be revisited for students who need additional reinforcement/ intervention.

If CC standards align with the Progress Indicators (PIs), they are listed below (in blue) and include each related CC standard in the grade span (grades K, 1, and 2).

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## STRAND 1: Reading & Writing: Habits and Dispositions (HD): Reading and writing habits and dispositions affect enjoyment, motivation, confidence, and greater independence when developing and applying literacy skills. (See note on page 11 regarding general order of progress indicators.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(K-4) Elementary School Learning Targets</th>
<th>(5-8) Middle School Learning Targets</th>
<th>(9-12) High School Learning Targets</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>EHD</strong> Use self-selected print and non-print texts and self-monitoring strategies and tools to:</td>
<td><strong>MHD</strong> Use self-selected print/non-print texts, self-monitoring strategies and tools, and goal setting to:</td>
<td><strong>HHD</strong> Use self-selected print/non-print texts and self-monitoring strategies and tools to:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Comprehend texts and enjoy reading;</td>
<td>- Comprehend, sustain, and enjoy reading;</td>
<td>- Expand personal and academic knowledge;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Explore and improve written and oral communication.</td>
<td>- Improve and expand written and oral communication.</td>
<td>- Reflect on perspectives of self, others, and the world through perspectives of self, others, and the world through</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Grades K-2
- Demonstrate increasing confidence, engagement, and independence by...
  - EHD.a recognizing that reading should "make sense" and that writing "carries a message"
  - EHD.b choosing enjoyable texts to read and reread (or listen to/view) for own purposes (e.g., curiosity, personal interest, to find an answer, favorite author)
  - EHD.c engaging in shared and independent/self-initiated reading and writing activities
  - EHD.d discussing a favorite text (something learned from reading, connect to experience); sharing own writing with others
  - EHD.e practicing self-monitoring strategies to aid comprehension (e.g., reread, use visuals or cueing system, self-correct, ask questions, confirm predictions)

### Grades 3-4
- Demonstrate increasing confidence, engagement, and independence by...
  - EHD.f selecting texts at own reading level to expand personal breadth or depth (e.g., genre, author, topic, inquiry)
  - EHD.g contributing relevant ideas in book or writing discussions and initiating comments (e.g., share something learned, ask questions, make connections)
  - EHD.h using self-monitoring talk ("I think...", "This reminds me of...", "This was about...") and fix-up strategies (e.g., reread, word solving using phonics and context clues, visualizing) to monitor comprehension
  - EHD.i self-evaluating, and describing own process of comprehension (e.g., thinking aloud, one-on-one conferences, written responses or composition (e.g., planning, organizing, rereading own writing)

### Grades 5-6
- Demonstrate increasing confidence, engagement, and independence by...
  - MHD.a varying reading or writing options to fulfill own purposes, including exploring new genres or perspectives (e.g., non-traditional, digital, or more challenging texts)
  - MHD.b self-monitoring and deepening comprehension with metacognitive self-talk ("I wonder...", "Now I know... so I think this means that...") including identifying conflicting information from different sources
  - MHD.c flexibly making strategy choices and sustaining effort to fit composition needs/purposes

### Grades 7-8
- Demonstrate increasing confidence, engagement, and independence by...
  - MHD.d expanding options for reading for pleasure and for academic learning to include new genres, topics, and sources (e.g., newspapers, online/digital media, magazines, historical, scientific, or technical texts)
  - MHD.e developing a deepening awareness and raising questions about the accuracy and intent of various media messages and texts (e.g., print/non-print, blogs, political cartoons)
  - MHD.f sustaining effort to complete complex reading or writing tasks; seeking out assistance, models, sources, or feedback to improve understanding or refine final products

### Grades 9-12
- Demonstrate increasing confidence, engagement, and independence by...
  - HHD.a reading a variety of grade level texts to accomplish academic and personal goals
  - HHD.b reflecting on how reading or writing/communication impacts how self and others see the world (e.g., contrasting diverse points of view, evaluating reasoning, determining importance or credibility)
  - HHD.c identifying purposes for social media, including (as a tool for learning) and evaluating the credibility of sources, and effectiveness/impact and accuracy of media messages
  - HHD.d tracking personal reading and writing progress (e.g., using portfolios, personal reflection, journals, self-scoring rubrics, conferencing)
  - HHD.e independently reading challenging texts/material (e.g., for pleasure, for information to solve problems, to expand personal knowledge)
  - HHD.f interpreting requirements, planning, and persevering through extended literacy tasks
  - HHD.g identifying and explaining issues of ethics; taking responsibility in using and producing texts (e.g., social media, plagiarism)
  - HHD.h pursuing interactions/discourse with a widening community of readers and writers
### Grades K-2
- **ERWL.a** demonstrating word analysis and word solving strategies (e.g., identifying syllables, segments, and sounds in words)
- **ERWL.b** recognizing the relationship between sounds and letters in words (e.g., letter-sound correspondences)
- **ERWL.c** applying grade-level phonics and word analysis skills when decoding or interpreting word meanings (e.g., reading grade-level words)

### Grades 3-4
- **ERWL.d** analyzing word meanings, multiple meanings, and shades of meaning based on word relationships (e.g., synonyms, antonyms, context)
- **ERWL.e** determining word relationships (e.g., categories, word families) in conversations, writing, and in responses to texts read, heard, or viewed

### Grades 5-6
- **ERWL.f** using newly learned words in conversations, writing, and in responding to questions about texts read, heard, or viewed

### Grades 7-8
- **ERWL.g** using newly learned words/phrases in conversations, writing, and in responding to questions about texts read, heard, or viewed

### Grades 9-12
- **ERWL.h** using standard word analysis strategies (e.g., identifying word parts, roots, affixes) to determine word meanings in different contexts

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### (K-4) Elementary School Learning Targets
**ERWL.a** Read and comprehend words with accuracy and fluency:
- Read high frequency and grade-level words;
- Apply knowledge of phonics, word structure, word relationships, and context to read and understand unfamiliar words in connected text;
- Distinguish between literal and interpretative meanings.

### (5-8) Middle School Learning Targets
**MRWL.a** Read texts of increasing complexity with accuracy, fluency, and comprehension:
- Apply knowledge of word structure, context, and use of reference materials to interpret intended word meanings and purposes;
- Expand use of vocabulary (connotation and denotation) to literacy tasks across content areas, text formats, and genres.

### (9-12) High School Learning Targets
**HRWL.a** Read a range of text genres of increasing complexity with accuracy, fluency, and comprehension:
- Apply content knowledge, use of resources, and word analysis skills to interpret and evaluate the intent and impact of authors’ word choice(s);
- Expand conceptual understanding and breadth of vocabulary to multiple contexts (literary, historical, technical, political, cultural, social etc.).

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**Learning Progressions Frameworks Designed for Use with the Common Core State Standards in English Language Arts & Literacy K-12.**
### STRAND 3: Reading Literature (RL): Reading is making meaning at the text level and understanding the unique genre features, structures, and purposes of literary texts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(K-4) Elementary School Learning Targets</th>
<th>(5-8) Middle School Learning Targets</th>
<th>(9-12) High School Learning Targets</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>E.RL</strong> Recognize and use knowledge of text structures (e.g., chronology, description), literary devices and techniques (e.g., dialogue, elaboration, narrator point of view), and genre-specific features to read and comprehend literary texts.</td>
<td><strong>M.RL</strong> Identify and interpret use of text structures, genre-specific features, and literary devices and techniques (e.g., narrative hook, pacing, back-story) to comprehend and analyze a range of literary texts.</td>
<td><strong>H.RL</strong> Analyze the use of text structures, literary devices, and techniques, complex plotlines and subtexts, and universal themes to comprehend and critique increasingly more diverse texts and formats.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Grades K-2</strong></td>
<td><strong>Grades 3-4</strong></td>
<td><strong>Grades 5-6</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehend literary texts by…</td>
<td>Comprehend literary texts by…</td>
<td>Comprehend literary texts by…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>E.RL.a</strong> offering a basic emotional response to literary texts read, texts read aloud, or texts viewed</td>
<td><strong>E.RL.h</strong> describing relationships among characters, setting, key events, and conflicts</td>
<td><strong>M.RL.a</strong> using evidence from the test to summarize or make and support inferences, opinions, and conclusions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>E.RL.b</strong> demonstrating basic concepts of print (e.g., follows words/pictures left-right, top-bottom; matches spoken words to print words; distinguishes words from sentences)</td>
<td><strong>E.RL.i</strong> using evidence from the text to derive meaning from a variety of texts</td>
<td><strong>M.RL.i</strong> using evidence from the text to support interpretations, inferences, or conclusions (e.g., narrative hook, pacing, back-story) to comprehend and analyze a range of literary texts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>E.RL.c</strong> recognizing organization and features of literary texts (e.g., follows a story line/chronology of events, interprets illustrations; connects word meanings)</td>
<td><strong>E.RL.j</strong> identifying central ideas and key details to derive author’s purpose, message, or theme</td>
<td><strong>M.RL.j</strong> analyzing texts according to text structure, genre features, or author’s style</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>E.RL.d</strong> identifying main characters, key events, a problem, or solution when prompted</td>
<td><strong>E.RL.k</strong> retelling or paraphrasing sequence of events, central ideas, and details from a range of stories</td>
<td><strong>M.RL.k</strong> analyzing how the use of literary elements and point of view influence development of plot, characters (motivation, interactions) or theme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>E.RL.e</strong> interpreting and analyzing literary elements within a text (e.g., intentions/feelings of characters, cause-effect relationships, a lesson)</td>
<td><strong>E.RL.l</strong> using evidence from the test to derive meaning from a variety of texts</td>
<td><strong>M.RL.l</strong> analyzing and critiquing a range of literature using given criteria (e.g., use of source material or medium, authenticity of time/place)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>E.RL.f</strong> exploring, interpreting, and comparing literary texts using literary elements, text features, story lines, or authors’ styles</td>
<td><strong>E.RL.m</strong> analyzing texts according to text structure, genre features, or author’s style</td>
<td><strong>M.RL.m</strong> analyzing and comparing two or more works (e.g., by the same author, from the same time period, from different cultures, presented in different forms, with similar universal themes) using given criteria</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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**STRAND 4: Reading Informational Texts (RI):** Reading is making meaning at the text level and understanding the unique genre features, text structures, and purposes of print and non-print informational texts.

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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>E.RI</strong> Recognize and use knowledge of expository text structures (e.g., sequence, description, definition, compare-contrast, cause-effect) and genre-specific features to read and comprehend informational texts: identify, compare, and draw inferences about concepts, central ideas, points of view, and supporting details.</td>
<td><strong>MRI</strong> Use content knowledge, knowledge of expository text structures (e.g., compare-contrast, cause-effect, proposition-support, critique), and genre-specific features, to read, comprehend, and analyze a range of informational texts, including textbooks and online texts: explain, compare, and analyze concepts, events, central ideas, points of view, relevant details.</td>
<td><strong>H.RI</strong> Integrate content and background knowledge to evaluate and extend understanding and analyze and evaluate central ideas, concepts, and diverse perspectives presented in multiple sources, including textbooks, online texts, and technical and primary source documents.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Grades K-2</strong></td>
<td><strong>Grades 3-4</strong></td>
<td><strong>Grades 5-6</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehend informational texts…</td>
<td>Comprehend informational texts…</td>
<td>Comprehend informational texts…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>E.RI.a</strong> offering a basic emotional response to informational texts read, texts read aloud, or texts viewed</td>
<td><strong>E.RI.h</strong> locating relevant key ideas using text features (e.g., table of contents, diagrams, tables, animations) to answer questions and expand understanding</td>
<td><strong>E.RI.1g</strong> exploring the differences among tests and recognizing author’s purpose: tests to “teach” us about…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>E.RI.b</strong> demonstrating basic concepts of print (e.g., follows words/pictures left-to-right, top-bottom; matches spoken words to print words; distinguishes words from sentences; book parts)</td>
<td><strong>M.RI.c</strong> identifying, paraphrasing, or summarizing central ideas and supporting details; determining importance of information</td>
<td><strong>H.RI.a</strong> flexibly using strategies to derive meaning from a variety of print/non-print texts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>E.RI.c</strong> recognizing organization and features of informational texts (e.g., describes a topic, finds facts in visual information)</td>
<td><strong>M.RI.d</strong> attending to signal words, text structure, and semantic cues to interpret and organize information (e.g., sequence, description, compare-contrast, cause-effect)</td>
<td>9-10.RI-4; 9-10.L-4, 5a; 9-10.SL-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>E.RI.d</strong> approaching informational texts with a question to answer; identifying key details and main topic</td>
<td><strong>M.RI.e</strong> using evidence to show how graphics/visuals support central ideas</td>
<td>11-12.RI-4; 11-12.L-4, 5a; 11-12.SL-2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>E.RI.e</strong> locating/interpreting information using a variety of text features (e.g., title, illustrations, bold print, glossary)</td>
<td><strong>M.RI.f</strong> using support to draw inferences and support content presented within or across texts</td>
<td><strong>H.RI.b</strong> using supporting evidence to summarize central ideas, draw inferences, or analyze connections within or across texts (e.g., concepts, events, issues, or problems explored)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>E.RI.f</strong> relating informational texts to a question or a personal point of view</td>
<td><strong>M.RI.g</strong> determining relevance or comparability of concepts and supporting details from multiple sources and integrating them to research a topic</td>
<td>9-10.RI-1, 2, 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>E.RI.g</strong> using a variety of strategies to derive meaning from a variety of print/non-print texts</td>
<td><strong>M.RI.h</strong> using supporting evidence to evaluate central ideas, draw inferences, or analyze connections within or across texts (e.g., events, people, ideas)</td>
<td>11-12.RI-1, 2, 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>E.RI.h</strong> using a variety of strategies to derive meaning from a variety of print/non-print texts</td>
<td><strong>E.RI.i</strong> using evidence to show how graphics/visuals support central ideas</td>
<td><strong>H.RI.c</strong> analyzing the author’s use of organizational patterns, ideas development, or persuasive and propaganda techniques to convey information and advance a point of view</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>E.RI.j</strong> using evidence to show how graphics/visuals support central ideas</td>
<td><strong>E.RI.k</strong> using supporting evidence to draw inferences and compare text presented within or across texts</td>
<td>9-10.RI-3, 5, 6; 9-10.SL-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>E.RI.l</strong> determining importance of information</td>
<td><strong>E.RI.m</strong> using evidence to show how graphics/visuals support central ideas</td>
<td>11-12.RI-3, 5, 6; 11-12.SL-3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>E.RI.n</strong> using evidence to show how graphics/visuals support central ideas</td>
<td><strong>E.RI.o</strong> using evidence to show how graphics/visuals support central ideas</td>
<td><strong>H.RI.d</strong> describing an author’s approach to a topic and evaluating the effectiveness and credibility of arguments presented (e.g., identifying unstated assumptions/subtexts, faulty reasoning, inaccurate information)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>E.RI.p</strong> using evidence to show how graphics/visuals support central ideas</td>
<td><strong>E.RI.q</strong> using evidence to show how graphics/visuals support central ideas</td>
<td>11-12.RI-4, 6, 8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>E.RI.q</strong> using evidence to show how graphics/visuals support central ideas</td>
<td><strong>E.RI.r</strong> using evidence to show how graphics/visuals support central ideas</td>
<td><strong>H.RI.e</strong> synthesizing information across multiple sources to develop ideas, resolve conflicting information, or develop an interpretation that goes beyond explicit text information (e.g., express a personal point of view, new interpretation of the concept/author’s message)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>E.RI.s</strong> using evidence to show how graphics/visuals support central ideas</td>
<td><strong>E.RI.t</strong> using evidence to show how graphics/visuals support central ideas</td>
<td>9-10.RI-7, 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>E.RI.u</strong> using evidence to show how graphics/visuals support central ideas</td>
<td><strong>E.RI.v</strong> using evidence to show how graphics/visuals support central ideas</td>
<td>11-12.RI-7, 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>E.RI.w</strong> using evidence to show how graphics/visuals support central ideas</td>
<td><strong>E.RI.x</strong> using evidence to show how graphics/visuals support central ideas</td>
<td><strong>H.RI.f</strong> evaluating points of view/perspectives from two or more texts on related topics and justifying the more cogent viewpoint (e.g., different accounts of the same event/issues, use of different media or formats)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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**Grades K-2**

- Use a process approach to compose literary texts...
  - EWL generating story ideas using discussion, dictation, drawing, letters and invented spelling, writing when responding to a stimulus (event, photo, text, daily writing log, etc.)

- EWL literary writing (e.g., peer conferencing, finding words, to develop characters, story lines, central message/theme, 5.Wr: 5.RL-2, 5, 8, 6.Wr: 3, 6.3)

<table>
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<th>Grades 7-8</th>
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**Grades 3-4**

- Use a process approach to compose literary texts...
  - EWL: writing an introduction of several sentences/lines that sets the context/situation & ’hook' readers (e.g., lead with action, dialogue)

- EWL: taking and sustaining a point of view as storyteller (narrator or character) seeing the situation through his/her eyes; developing characters and advancing plot with setting, deeds, dialogue, description 3.WL-3a-c and 4.WL-3a-d

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**Grades 5-6**

- Use a process approach to compose literary texts...
  - EWL: elaborating with precise language and sensory details; using varied sentence types and transitions 3.WL-3b-c; 3.LL-1 & 4.WL-3b-d; 4.sL-1f

- EWL: writing a believable or satisfying conclusion or concluding statement that links back to a lesson learned 3.WL-3d and 4.WL-3e

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**Grades 7-8**

- Use a process approach to compose literary texts...
  - EWL: applying editing and revision strategies to full texts that clarify intent and meaning; making judgments about impact on reader interpretation and cohesion of text (transitions, illustrations, subject-verb, pronoun use, verb tense, etc.)

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**Grades 9-12**

- Use a process approach to compose literary texts...
  - EWL: applying sophisticated editing and revision strategies that fully test clarity, intent, strengthened intended impact on reader, and reflect personal voice and writing style

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</table>

**K-4 Elementary School Learning Targets**

**M-5 Middle School Learning Targets**

**H-9 High School Learning Targets**

**EWL** Recognize and apply organizational strategies (chronology, problem-solution) and literary techniques (e.g., sensory images, dialogue) to compose a variety of literary texts that express real or imaginary experiences and ideas.

**M-5** Apply organizational strategies (e.g., chronology, description, problem-solution), genre-specific features, and literary techniques (e.g., point of view, pacing, figurative language) to compose a variety of literary texts (poems, historical or science fiction, mysteries, etc.).

**H-9** Apply organizational and research strategies, literary techniques, and the synthesis of complex ideas to communicate interrelationships of characters, conflicts, or experiences for authentic and varied audiences.
**STRAND 6: Writing Informative Texts/Communicating Information (WI) - Different genres of expository text provide information/explanations (science procedures, content-based articles, biographies, research reports, historical documents, etc.) for different purposes and require use of genre-specific features, text structures, and supporting evidence to produce a coherent unit of thought that informs or educates the intended audience.**

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<tr>
<td><strong>E.W.</strong> Apply organizational strategies (e.g., sequence, description, definition, compare-contrast, cause-effect) to develop, summarize, and communicate factual information about topics and events for authentic audiences.</td>
<td><strong>M.W.</strong> Apply organizational strategies (e.g., description, definition, compare-contrast, cause-effect, problem-solution) and multiple reference sources to analyze, integrate, and communicate fact-based information on topics, concepts, and events for authentic and varied audiences.</td>
<td><strong>H.W.</strong> Apply organizational strategies (e.g., cause-effect, proposition-support, inductive-deductive reasoning), multiple reference sources, and the synthesis of complex ideas to communicate interrelationships among facts, principles, issues, and concepts for authentic and varied audiences.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Grades K-2
- Students use a process approach to compose informational texts by...
- Using generative ideas for using a range of responses (e.g., discussion, dictation, drawing, letters/invitations, spelling, writing), when responding to a topic, text, or stimulus (event, photo, video, peers, etc.)
- K.W-2, 7, 8; K.SL-4, 5; K.L-6
- 1.W-7, 8; 1.SL-1b, 2, 4, 5; 1.L-6
- 2.W-7, 8; 2.SL-2, 4; 2.L-6

### Grades 3-4
- Students use a process approach to compose informational texts by...
- Using generative ideas for writing, using strategies to clarify writing (e.g., conference with peers, find words for stronger descriptions)
- 3.W-5; 3.SL-1d, 3; 3.L-3, 6
- 4.W-5; 4.SL-1d, 3; 4.L-3, 6

### Grades 5-6
- Students use a process approach to compose informational texts by...
- Locating information from at least two reference sources (print/non-print) to obtain factual information on a topic (e.g., sports), listing sources
- 5.W-7, 8, 9; 5.SL-2; 5.L-6, 7
- 6.W-7, 8, 9; 6.SL-2

### Grades 7-8
- Students use a process approach to compose informational texts by...
- Using organizational strategies (e.g., graphic organizers, outlining) to analyze information and show relationships (e.g., compare/contrast, cause/effect, problem/solution) related to topics/subtopics
- 7.W-9, 2c, 8; 7.SL-4; 7.RI-3, 9
- 8.W-9, 2c, 8; 8.SL-4; 8.RI-2; 8.RI-9

### Grades 9-12
- Students use a process approach to compose informational texts by...
- Using advanced searches to locate relevant information from multiple (print/non-print and digital) sources, including references, and selectively integrating complex facts (facts, principles, examples, quotations, data, etc.) to develop full texts that clarify intent and meaning: making judgments about completeness, accuracy, and significance of text/visual/auditory information, validity and format of sources cited, overall coherence, and impact of style, tone and voice
- 9-10.W-2, 2b, 7, 8, 9; 9-10.SL-2
- 11-12.W-2, 2b, 7, 8, 9; 11-12.SL-2

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E.WI.d with support, using various information retrieval sources (e.g., word wall, book talks, visual/audio images, Internet) to obtain facts and compose information on a topic
K.W-6, 7, 8; K.SL-2, 3; K.RI-7
1.W-6, 7, 8; 1.SL-2, 3; 1.RI-6, 7
2.W-6, 7, 8; 2.SL-2, 3; 2.RI-7

E.WI.e with support, using simple notetaking strategies to record and group facts (e.g., numbering, T-chart, graphic organizer) to plan writing
1.W-6
2.W-6

E.WI.f selecting and ordering fact statements, using domain-specific vocabulary to describe a sequence of events or explain a procedure (e.g., list necessary materials and steps in logical order)
1.W-7; 1.SL-4; 1.L-1f 1.RI-3
2.W-2, 7; 2.RI-3

E.WI.g presenting factual information about subtopics of larger topics, grouping relevant details using several related and varied sentence types
3.W-2, 4; 3.SL-4; 3.L-1f; 3.RI-2, 3
4.W-2, 4; 4.SL-4; 4.L-1f; 4.RI-2, 3

E.WI.h incorporating text features (e.g., numbers, labels, diagrams, charts, graphics) to enhance clarity and meaning of informational writing
3.W-2a; 3.RI-7
4.W-2a; 4.SL-4; 4.RI-7

E.WI.i writing a conclusion or concluding statement that links back to the focus
3.W-2d; 3.RI-2
4.W-2e; 4.RI-2, 8

E.WI.j revising full texts from the reader's perspective: making judgments about clarity of message, intent of word choice, and overall continuity of text/visual/audio components
3.W-2, 4, 5 (revise); 3.L-1i, 3, 4, 5
4.W-2, 4, 5 (revise); 4.SL-5; 4.L-1f; 3, 4, 5

E.WI.k selecting relevant facts, details, or examples to support the controlling idea, including use of domain-specific vocabulary
3.W-2a, b, 5, 8; 3.SL-4; 3.L-6; 3.RI-4
4.W-2a,b, 9, 4.SL-4; 4.L-6; 4.RI-4

E.WI.l presenting factual information about subtopics of larger topics, grouping relevant details using several related and varied sentence types
3.W-2, 4; 3.SL-4; 3.L-1f; 3.RI-2, 3
4.W-2, 4; 4.SL-4; 4.L-1f; 4.RI-2, 3

E.WI.m incorporating text features (e.g., numbers, labels, diagrams, charts, graphics) to enhance clarity and meaning of informational writing
3.W-2a; 3.RI-7
4.W-2a; 4.SL-4; 4.RI-7

E.WI.n writing a conclusion or concluding statement that links back to the focus
3.W-2d; 3.RI-2
4.W-2e; 4.RI-2, 8

E.WI.o applying editing (cohesion of subject-verb, pronoun use, verb tense, and impact of word choice and sentence variety) and revision strategies to full texts that clarify intent and meaning: making judgments about completeness and accuracy of information/visual/audio components, validity of sources cited
3.W-2, 4, 5; 3.SL-4, 5; 3.L-1, 2, 3, 4c, 6
4.W-2, 4, 5; 4.SL-4, 5; 4.L-1, 3, 4, 6

E.WI.p with support, revising by adding concrete details, descriptions, and concluding statement/closure; editing using grade-appropriate grammar, usage, spelling (high frequency words), and mechanics
K.W5 (details); K.SL-4, 5; K.L-2
1.W2 (closure), 5 (details); 1.SL-5; 1.L-2
2.W2 (closure), 5 (revise/edit); 2.L-1, 2, 3

M.WI.e maintaining a (formal) style and text structure(s) of longer writing pieces appropriate to purpose and genre, including use of transitional words and phrases to connect ideas
5.W-2a, c, 4; 5.RI-3, 5

M.WI.f incorporating test features (e.g., numbering, bulleted, white space, captioned pictures, labeled diagrams, charts) to enhance clarity and meaning
5.W-2a; 5.SL-5
6.W-2a; 6.SL-5; 6.RI-7

M.WI.g writing a conclusion that links back to the focus/central idea and provides a sense of closure
5.W-2e; 5.SL-3; 5.RI-8
6.W-2f; 6.RI-2

M.WI.h applying editing (subject-verb, pronoun use, verb tense, transitions, sentence variety, etc.) and revision strategies to full texts that clarify intent and meaning: making judgments about accuracy of evidence and cohesion of text/visual/audio components
5.W-2; 5.SL-4; 5.L-1, 2, 3, 4c, 6
6.W-2, 4, 5; 6.SL-4, 5; 6.L-1, 2, 3, 4c, 6

M.WI.i applying editing (subject-verb, pronoun use, verb tense, transitions, sentence variety, etc.) and revision strategies to full texts that clarify intent and meaning: making judgments about accuracy of evidence and cohesion of text/visual/audio components
5.W-2; 5.SL-4; 5.L-1, 2, 3, 4c, 6
6.W-2, 4, 5; 6.SL-4, 5; 6.L-1, 2, 3, 4c, 6

M.WI.j selecting relevant facts, details, examples, quotations, or text features to support/clarify the focus/controlling idea
7.W-2a, 2b, 3, 5; 7.SL-4, 5; 7.RI-1
8.W-2a, 2b, 3, 5; 8.RI-1

M.WI.k drawing and stating conclusions by synthesizing information and summarizing key points that link back to focus/thesis
7.W-2f; 7.SL-3; 7.RI-2
8.W-2f; 8.SL-3; 8.RI-2

M.WI.l applying editing (cohesion of subject-verb, pronoun use, verb tense, and impact of word choice and sentence variety) and revision strategies to full texts that clarify intent and meaning: making judgments about completeness and accuracy of information/visual/audio components, validity of sources cited
7.W-2, 4, 5; 7.SL-4, 5; 7.L-1, 2, 3, 4c, 4d, 6; 7.RI-4
8.W-2, 4, 5; 8.SL-4, 5; 8.L-1, 2, 3, 4c, 4d, 6; 8.RI-4

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EWP.a with support, using simple note-taking strategies to record and distinguish facts-opinions or reasons for-against a real-world topic (e.g., T-chart with reasons why people like/do not pizza)
1.W-8
2.W-8

EWP.a locating facts to support stated opinions about a topic (e.g., survey peers) or text; collaboratively describing reasons for-against through illustrations, captions, and simple sentences that connect reasons with evidence; applying basic capitalization and end punctuation
K.W-1; K.SL-4, 5; K.L-1f, 2, 6
1.W-1; 1.SL-4, 5, 6; 1.L-1j, 2, 6
2.W-1; 2.SL-2, 4, 6; 2.L-1f, 2, 6

EWP.b selecting a topic or text of personal interest, finding accurate information about the topic/text, and generating statements (in somewhat random order) connecting opinion with reasons and supporting evidence (e.g., I like winter because)
K.W-1; K.SL-4, 5; K.L-1f, 2, 6
1.W-1; 1.SL-4, 5, 6; 1.L-1j, 2, 6
2.W-1; 2.SL-2, 4, 6; 2.L-1f, 2, 6

EWP.c developing an opinion on a topic/text with statements that connect the stated opinion ("You will think/agree this story is funny...") in several related sentences with reasons and relevant details/supporting evidence for an authentic audience
K.W-1; K.SL-4, 5; K.L-1f, 2, 6
1.W-1; 1.SL-4, 5, 6; 1.L-1j, 2, 6
2.W-1; 2.SL-2, 4, 6; 2.L-1f, 2, 6

EWP.d revising full texts from the reader's perspective: making judgments about clarity of message, intent of word choice, and overall continuity of text/visual/auditory components, peer/audience feedback
3.W-1, 4, 5 (revise); 3.L-1i, 3, 4, 5
4.W-1, 4, 5 (revise); 4.SL-5; 4.L-1f, 3, 4, 5

M.WP.e stating reasons in a logical order, elaborating on each reason with relevant details and examples using several related sentences, and making connections using transitions (because, but, for example, etc.)
3.W-1b, 1c, 4; 3.SL-4; 3.L-1f
4.W-1b, 1c, 4; 4.SL-4; 4.L-1f

MWP.f writing a conclusion or concluding statement that links back to the focus (opinion) and helps to summarize key reasons
3.W-1d; 4.W-1d

MWP.g with support, editing for clarity and meaning: grade-appropriate spelling (words that follow patterns/rules), end punctuation and capitalization, variety of sentence types
3.WS (edit); 3.L-1, 2
4.WS (edit); 4.L-1, 2

MWP.h revising full texts from the reader's perspective: making judgments about clarity of message, intent of word choice, and overall continuity of text/visual/auditory components, peer/audience feedback
3.W-1, 4, 5 (revise); 3.L-1i, 3, 4, 5
4.W-1, 4, 5 (revise); 4.SL-5; 4.L-1f, 3, 4, 5

MWP.i developing a chain of reasoning for the thesis using elaboration to explain logical reasons or rationale, meaningful transitions showing points and potential counterpoints, and techniques (e.g., language use, emotional appeal, progression of ideas, propaganda strategies) which contribute to the impact on readers
5.W-1a, 1b, 1c, 4; 5.SL-4; 5.L-3
6.W-1a, 1b, 1c; 6.SL-4

MWP.j incorporating text features (e.g., numbering, bullets, captioned pictures, labeled diagrams, data tables) to enhance and justify support for claims
5.W-1b; 5.SL-5
6.W-1b; 6.SL-5

MWP.k writing a conclusion that links back to the focus (claim/thesis), summarizes logic of reasoning, and provides a sense of closure for conclusions drawn
5.W-1d; 5.SL-3
6.W-1e

MWP.l applying editing (subject-verb, pronoun use, verb tense, and impact of word choice and sentence variety) complexity) and revision strategies to full texts that clarify intent and meaning: making judgments about completeness and accuracy of information/visual/auditory components, validity of sources cited, discourse style, and approach to addressing audience needs (e.g., emotion, interest, moral authority, potential objections)
7.W-1, 4, 5; 7.SL-4, 5; 7.L-1, 2, 3, 4, 4c, 4d, 6
8.W-1, 4, 5; 8.SL-4, 5; 8.L-1, 2, 3, 4, 4c, 4d, 6

MWP.m utilizing emotive, precise, or technical language, transitional devices, and rhetorical questions for effect, while maintaining a authoritative stance and consistent discourse style and voice
7.W-1c, 1d; 7.L-3, 5c
8.W-1c, 1d; 8.L-3, 5c

MWP.n drawing and stating conclusions by synthesizing information, summarizing key points of reasoning that link back to focus/thesis, and reflecting a response to the opposition
7.W-1e; 7.SL-3
8.W-1e; 8.SL-3

MWP.o applying editing (cohesion of subject-verb, pronoun use, verb tense, and impact of word choice and sentence variety) complexity) and revision strategies to full texts that clarify intent and meaning: making judgments about completeness and accuracy of information/visual/auditory components, validity of sources cited, discourse style, and approach to addressing audience needs (e.g., emotion, interest, moral authority, potential objections)
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