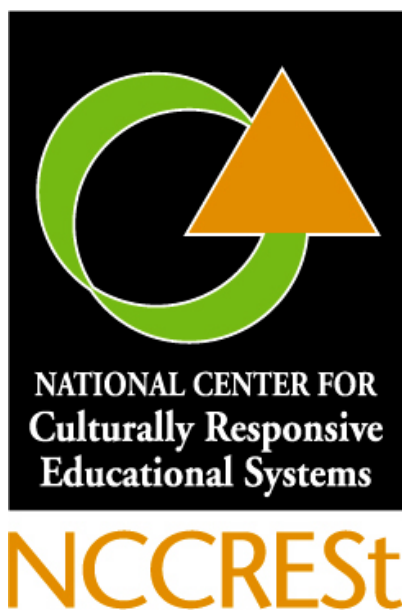


MODULE 5: CULTURALLY RESPONSIVE LITERACY

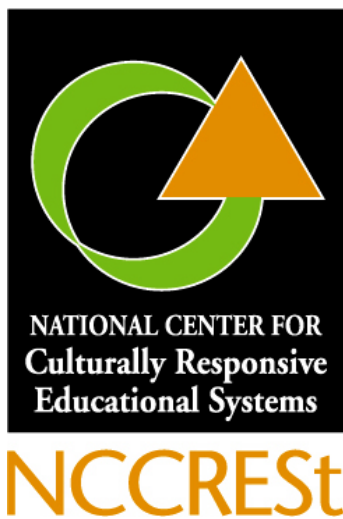
ACADEMY 2: Culturally Responsive Literacy Instruction- What does it look like in the classroom?



Facilitator's Manual

NATIONAL CENTER FOR CULTURALLY RESPONSIVE
EDUCATIONAL SYSTEMS

Facilitator's Manual



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Arizona State University, PO Box 872011 Tempe, Arizona 85287-2011
Phone 480.965.0391 • Fax 480.727.7012



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We strive to produce the most reliable and current academies possible. Therefore, our academies are updated regularly based on facilitator and participant feedback, on subject-matter expert input, and on up-to-date research. Please check our web site regularly -- www.NCCRESt.org – to find new versions and addenda to this academy.



National Center for Culturally Responsive Educational Systems (NCCRESt)

The National Center for Culturally Responsive Educational Systems (NCCRESt) is funded by the Office of Special Education Programs at the U.S. Department of Education. The mission of NCCRESt is to close the achievement gap between students from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds and their peers, and to reduce inappropriate referrals to special education.

As a result of the work of NCCRESt, we expect to see an increase in the use of prevention and early intervention strategies, a decrease in inappropriate referrals to special education, and an increase in the number of schools using effective literacy and behavioral interventions for students who are culturally and linguistically diverse.

As part of our work, we link existing general education reform networks with special education networks. We also synthesize existing research into products that are made accessible in both print and electronic versions. These publications support the efforts of professionals, families, researchers, advocacy organizations and others involved in the work to create culturally responsive, inclusive school communities.

NCCRESt Professional Learning Modules

The tasks of closing achievement gaps and reducing inappropriate referrals to special education are complex. The challenge is great, but can be achieved if educators throughout our nation and other nations are actively engaging the opportunity to transform education and how we go about the work of teaching and learning in our schools. This module is one of many developed by NCCRESt for the networks of schools engaging their faculty, staff, families, students, and community members in addressing issues of equity in general and special education for students who are culturally and linguistically diverse.

Every module is designed around a particular aspect of school-wide improvement with three separate academies that build knowledge, skills, and practices. The intent is simple: Build a common vision, vocabulary, and skill-set around essential elements of school improvement. The best way to implement this module is to bring together building leadership teams from a cluster of schools so that teams can learn from one another and create a practice community that can support innovation. The academies should be offered in sequence, spaced four weeks apart so that some application can occur between sessions, and that there is a plan for on-site coaching between academies. The three academies in each module are intended to be utilized together, over a series of professional learning collaborations in local contexts, but each academy within a module can also be used as a stand-alone tool.



The goal of all professional learning modules is to create a network of skilled and knowledgeable teacher leaders, administrators, community members, and family members who will serve as effective transformational agents of change for culturally responsive practices and systems. Participants are generally teams of educational professionals from schools and districts, selected to advance knowledge and practice related to culturally responsive systems and practices. The modules include:



Modules and their corresponding academies are designed to (1) engage adult learners in advancing their knowledge and skills about culturally responsive practices within organizations; (2) build communities of practice in which inquiry and public discourse are cornerstones of continuous improvement in culturally responsive systems; and (3) embody approaches to learning that affirm the socio-cultural histories and experiences that all members of the academies bring to shared learning. Finally, the modules create forums for open discussion to help school and community members think more broadly and systemically about culturally responsive schools and classrooms.



Professional Learning Principles

NCCREST has a set of Professional Learning Principles for work with educators who work in practice, policy, and research settings. These principles emerged from a variety of research traditions, particularly those focused on socio-cultural perspectives. As a lens for understanding human learning, socio-cultural perspectives help us understand the relationship between individual psychological characteristics, identification with and mastery of specific cultural and linguistic heritages, and the contexts in which learning occurs. This perspective offers us a way of understanding the interaction between the tasks or activities that focus learning and the various ways that the tasks may be understood and valued by learners. Finally, the kinds of intellectual and affective tools that learners bring to tasks, or the kinds of tools they may need to develop, are also influenced by the nature of tasks and the learners' own cultural and psychological characteristics. This framework is particularly useful as the United States navigates the increasing cultural and linguistic diversity of our school-age population. Our principles have been influenced by research from the Center for Research on Education, Diversity, and Excellence (CREDE) as well as the National Staff Development Council.

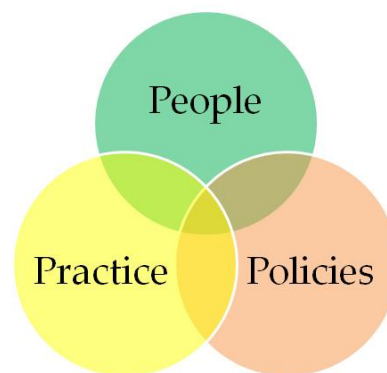
PRINCIPLE 1: Professional Learning is focused on improving learning within a diverse, multicultural community. The outcomes, content, and activities of any professional learning activity must be grounded in the diverse, multicultural context that characterizes most contemporary communities.

PRINCIPLE 2: Professional Learning engages educators in joint, productive activity through discourse, inquiry, and public practice. Effective professional learning is reached by continuous, collaborative interaction with colleagues through discussion, knowledge development and understanding, and directed inquiry around practice.

PRINCIPLE 3: Professional Learning is a facet of daily practice, not a compartmentalized activity. Since professional learning is embedded within practice, it becomes part of daily discourse, shared discussions about student learning and student products, as well as more formalized mentoring and coaching, meetings, study groups, and examination of evidence from inquiry cycles.

PRINCIPLE 4: Professional Learning results in improved learning for students who have been marginalized from the academic and social curricula of the US public school system. Professional learning scaffolds teacher learning so that the influence of individual cultural identity and values on individual and systems practices are understood, mediated by expanding professional knowledge of the socio-cultural dimensions of learning, and its impact assessed through student involvement and performance in academic and social curricula.

PRINCIPLE 5: Professional Learning influences decisions about what is taught and why. Since professional learning is generative, educators' knowledge will expand and become more complex as it develops. It is expected that professional learning will result in examination and improvements to the content and process of instruction for culturally and linguistically diverse learners.



PRINCIPLE 6: Professional Learning is focused on the diffusion of professional knowledge to build sustainable educational communities focused on improving learning outcomes for students and their families who are culturally and linguistically diverse. As educators gain knowledge, they also have the responsibility for sharing and mentoring others both in the practice of professional learning and in the expanded knowledge that comes from such activity.



Facilitator Note

There are three Facilitator Manuals per Professional Learning Module: one for each of the three academies in every NCCRESt module. Each Facilitator Manual provides detailed information about every aspect of an academy from the academy outcomes through the academy content and, finally, evaluations. In most cases, you will follow the same process when presenting every academy: (1) Introduction to NCCRESt Academies; (2) Academy Overview; (3) Academy Session; (4) Self-evaluation; and (5) Academy Evaluation.

Please make sure that you prepare for each academy by reviewing all the materials: Facilitator Manual, lecturette presentation, lesson plans, activity handouts, and participant materials. If you have questions or comments about this or any other academy, please contact NCCRESt. We welcome your questions, suggestions, and feedback.



Tips for Facilitating Leadership Academies

Before delving into the flow of the academies, please read through the following tips that can help you and your participants get comfortable and maintain focus on learning and growing. Notice that each tip is accompanied by an icon. These icons signal specific types of facilitator behavior and you will notice them appearing throughout the academy as symbols for actions, explanations, and notations. We hope that you enjoy facilitating these learning opportunities as much as we have.

TIPS FOR GETTING STARTED:

Introduce the academy facilitators, and provide an overview of NCCRESt and sponsors of the academy. Talk a bit about what a Leadership Academy is, its structure, how it is designed, and present the academy topic and outcomes. Explain the roles the facilitators will play and have participants introduce themselves and briefly tell what they'd like to learn or take away with them at the end of the academy, focusing on what would be useful to them in their practice. This should take no longer than 15 minutes. You are provided with a PowerPoint to lead this introduction.



TIPS FOR MOVING THINGS ALONG:

Included in the academy is a time schedule for activities – stick to it! Each activity has a built in timer, simply click to the next slide when you finish reading the instructions, the timer will keep you on schedule so you won't have to watch the clock. Try to begin and end on time, and instead of scheduling multiple breaks, invite people to get up to stretch, get a drink or use the bathroom as needed.



During discussions, try not to let one person dominate the conversation or go off on tangents that are narrowly focused on their own experiences. To “cut people off” politely, ask others what they think or ask a questions to get the discussion moving in a different direction.



TIPS FOR MANAGING ACTIVITIES:

Before beginning an activity, briefly review the activity with the group and discuss its purpose. Read through the tasks and look over supporting materials. Ask if there are any questions. If necessary, have each group select a person who will take notes and report to the larger group the outcomes of their discussion or work.

While the participants are working in their small groups, circulate from group to group to make sure they are on task and to answer any questions. Be available if a group gets stuck, but don't interfere in the group process unless they need assistance.

TIPS FOR LECTURETTES:

Practice timing yourself so you don't run over the allotted period. Copies of the PowerPoint slides and facilitator notes are provided in this manual. Each slide is accompanied by a lecturette icon (as seen on the right), a pause for questions and answers is identified by a question icon (seen below in the "tips for participant questions" section), and a stop sign icon indicates a participant activity.



TIPS FOR PARTICIPANT QUESTIONS:

Paper is included in the participant materials for note-taking. Urge participants to jot down notes and save their questions for the Q and A periods so the academy does not run over the allotted time.

TIPS FOR LEAVE-TAKING:

To wrap things up, ask people to take a minute to think about what they learned during the academy. Ask the participants to complete the self-assessment and share their thoughts and any last words. Use the overhead or chart paper to record what they say as a way to highlight new learning and congratulate the group on their hard work. Ask participants to complete the Academy Evaluation before they leave as a way to improve future academies.



Special Facilitation Tips:

Facilitating conversations about culture, race, power, and privilege requires a set of skills that may be different from other facilitation/training experiences.

To lead such conversations requires that you, as the facilitator:

1. Have read sufficient background material from the reference list provided in the academy.
2. Have a well developed understanding of your own identity and culture, and be willing to share those experiences with others.
3. Can hold a multiplicity of truths and perspectives.
4. Be able to remain objective and not take comments personally (compassionate detachment) and utilize active listening.

These topics often stir up strong emotions and reactions. Be prepared to diffuse and redirect anger or attacks, and support individuals who are struggling with feelings of guilt, shame, anger, sadness, and defensiveness.

Tips for facilitating difficult conversations

1. Don't ignore a conflict between participants if one arises, for such a situation will not disappear on its own. Invite participants to respectfully share and explore each point of view in order to ensure they are heard.
2. Recognize and acknowledge how the conflict is affecting others in the group. Invite group members to share emotions, thoughts, and solutions.
3. Encourage each member to allow others to be heard in the group
4. Create a work environment in which healthy conflict is encouraged. Conflicts can enhance discussion by spurring productive discussions and engaging participants emotionally.
5. Set clear expectations about how participants should approach sensitive topics. For example, create a group norm that conflict around ideas and direction is expected and that personal attacks are not tolerated.
6. Reward, recognize, and thank people who are willing to take a stand and support their position.

Resources:

http://humanresources.about.com/od/managementtips/a/conflict_solue.htm

<http://humanresources.about.com/cs/conflictresolves/l/aa071002a.htm>



Module 5: Culturally Responsive Literacy

Academy 2: Culturally Responsive Literacy Instruction- What does it Look Like in the Classroom?

Academy Abstract:

This academy focuses on developing an awareness, approach, and skills needed to transform current literacy practices into a more culturally responsive model. This shift is supported by data that demonstrates a continued achievement gap for marginalized students in our public schools (e.g. students of color, low socioeconomic status, students with disabilities, and English language learners). Participants are introduced to the seven elements of culturally responsive literacy instruction and explore ways to implement elements into classroom practice.

Academy Outcomes:

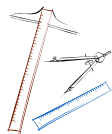
As a result of the activities and information shared at this Leadership Academy, module participants will:

- Define culturally responsive literacy
- Examine and analyze data revealing the extent of the literacy achievement gap in the United States
- Review research findings relevant to closing the achievement gap in reading and writing
- Identify key elements of culturally responsive literacy instruction and explore how to put them into practice in classrooms.

Academy Agenda:

Review the agenda, noting the structure of the academy (lecture, activities, question-answer period, break time, assessment), and process for answering participant questions.

ACADEMY OVERVIEW	10 MINUTES
ACTIVITY 1: THE STATE OF LITERACY IN THE UNITED STATES	30 MINUTES
LECTURETTE 1: WHY SHIFT TOWARDS A CULTURALLY RESPONSIVE LITERACY MODEL?	20 MINUTES
ACTIVITY 2: LITERACY ACHIEVEMENT GAP: EXAMINING THE DATA:	50 MINUTES
BREAK	10 MINUTES
LECTURETTE 2: ADDRESSING THE LITERACY GAP IN CLASSROOMS	20 MINUTES
ACTIVITY 3: REFLECTIONS ON CURRENT READING AND WRITING PRACTICES:	30 MINUTES
LECTURETTE 3: ELEMENTS OF CULTURALLY RESPONSIVE LITERACY INSTRUCTION	20 MINUTES
ACTIVITY 4: EXPLORE ELEMENTS OF CULTURALLY RESPONSIVE LITERACY INSTRUCTION	75 MINUTES
OUTCOMES REVIEW	10 MINUTES
TOTAL:.....	4:35



Academy Materials

You should have these materials prior to conducting the Academy:

- FACILITATOR'S MANUAL
- ACADEMY POWERPOINTS and access to a PowerPoint presentation system
- PARTICIPANT HANDOUTS. Handouts contain the Leadership Academy overview and agenda, paper for note-taking, activity handouts, self-assessment and academy evaluations, and resources. (Handouts can be copied double sided and in black and white).
- NAME TAGS (Make sure you have broad tipped felt pens for name tags so that people write their names in large print that can be read from a distance).
- CHART PAPER
- MARKERS
- TAPE



Participant Handouts

These handouts may be passed out together at the beginning of the academy. They are packaged together as the academy Participant Handouts.

- Activity handouts
- Copies of the lecturettes
- Resources
- Self Assessment and Academy Evaluation

Introductions and Greetings

Academy Overview

Spend some time introducing yourself, the module sponsors, and the Leadership Academy to the participants. The overview provides you with Leadership Academy background information, this academy's purpose and outcomes, and the agenda. If time allows, ask participants to introduce themselves by letting others know where they are from and their roles and responsibilities within their buildings.



FACILITATOR MATERIALS



Overview PowerPoint

TIME LIMIT

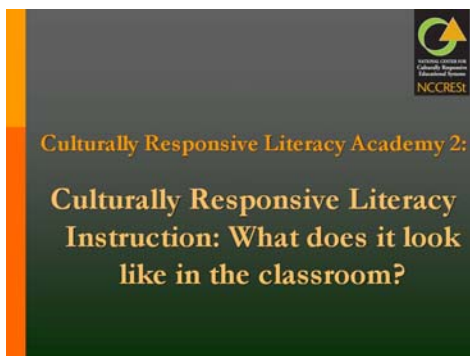
15 minutes

Academy 2:
**CULTURALLY RESPONSIVE LITERACY
INSTRUCTION- WHAT DOES IT LOOK LIKE IN
THE CLASSROOM?**

Activity /Lecture Slides and Facilitator Notes



Slide 1



Culturally Responsive Literacy Academy 2: Culturally Responsive Literacy Instruction- What does it look like in the classroom?

This academy focuses on developing an awareness, approach, and skills needed to transform current literacy practices into a more culturally responsive model. This shift is supported by data that demonstrates a

continued achievement gap for marginalized students in our public schools (e.g. students of color, low socioeconomic status, students with disabilities, and English language learners). Participants are introduced to the seven elements of culturally responsive literacy instruction and explore ways to implement elements into classroom practice.



Slide 2



Introduction – Facilitators, Sponsors, and NCCRESt:

Introduction: Introduce the academy facilitators (your position and background, and co-facilitators, if any) and the school or district that is sponsoring the academy.

The National Center for Culturally Responsive Educational Systems (NCCRESt) is funded by the Office of Special Education Programs at the U.S. Department of Education. The mission of NCCRESt is to close the achievement gap between students from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds and their peers, and to reduce inappropriate referrals to special education.

As a result of the work of NCCRESt, we expect to see an increase in the use of prevention and early intervention strategies, a decrease in inappropriate referrals to special education, and an increase in the number of schools using effective literacy and behavioral interventions for students who are culturally and linguistically diverse.

As part of our work, we link existing general education reform networks with special education networks. We also synthesize existing research into products that are made accessible in both print and electronic versions. These publications support the efforts of professionals, families, researchers, advocacy organizations and others involved in the work to create culturally responsive, inclusive school communities.



Slide 3



Introduction – Leadership Academies:

Leadership Academies: NCCREST helps educators develop leadership skills for culturally responsive practice through leadership academies.

The academies are designed to be used by local researchers and professional developers who are invested in

collaborating with schools. The goal of this collaboration is to build more culturally responsive schools that successfully educate students from diverse cultural and linguistic backgrounds. The approach includes careful consideration of the content for professional development, adult learning principles, and selection of teams from schools and districts that can support their colleagues' learning and practice. In this way, professional development can build on converged needs, create a sense of common purpose and extend the creativity and skill of practitioners.

NCCREST specifically works with school districts and state education agencies to build information systems that help leadership teams focus on goals for instructional, curricular, and cultural improvement. NCCREST also works toward empowering action research agendas among school professionals.

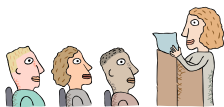


Slide 4

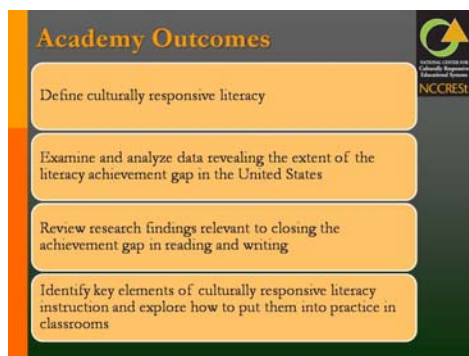


Roles

Explain the roles the facilitators will play and go over the agenda. Have participants introduce themselves and briefly tell what they'd like to learn or take away with them at the end of the academy, focusing on what would be useful to them in their practice.



Slide 5



Outcomes:

As a result of this academy, participants learn skills and acquire information to support them in their practice. These outcomes provide a glimpse of the academy topics. You may wish to run through these outcomes quickly, or give the participants a brief preview of the lessons as you talk about each

outcome. These are the outcomes for this academy:

- Define culturally responsive literacy
- Examine and analyze data revealing the extent of the literacy achievement gap in the United States
- Review research findings relevant to closing the achievement gap in reading and writing
- Identify key elements of culturally responsive literacy instruction and explore how to put them into practice in classrooms



Slide 6



Agenda	
Activity 1: The State of Literacy in the United States	30 minutes
Lecturette 1: Why shift towards a CR Literacy model?	20 minutes
Activity 2: Literacy Achievement Gap: Examining the Data	50 minutes
Break	10 minutes
Lecturette 2: Addressing the Literacy Gap in Classrooms	20 minutes
Activity 3: Reflections on Current Reading and Writing Practices	30 minutes
Lecturette 3: Elements of CR Literacy Instruction	20 minutes
Activity 4: Explore Elements of CR Literacy Instruction	75 minutes
Outcomes Review	10 minutes

Agenda:

Activity 1: The State of Literacy in the United States 30 minutes

Lecturette 2: Why shift towards a CR Literacy model? 20 minutes

Activity 2: Literacy Achievement Gap: Examining the Data 50 minutes

Break 10 minutes

Lecturette 2: Addressing the Literacy Gap in Classrooms 20 minutes

Activity 3: Reflections on Current Reading and Writing Practices 30 minutes

Lecturette 4: Elements of CR Literacy Instruction 20 minutes

Activity 4: Explore Elements of CR Literacy Instruction 75 minutes

Outcomes Review 10 minutes



Activity 1: The State of Literacy in the United States

	Fact or Fiction?	Plausible Explanation?
1. Reading achievement has declined in the United States over the past 30 years.		
2. 40% of United States children cannot read at a basic level.		
3. 20% of United States children are dyslexic.		
4. Children from Baby-Boomer generation read better than students today.		
5. Students in the United States are among the worst readers in the world.		
6. The number children classified as good readers has been declining in the United States.		
7. In reading performance, the score gaps between White and Black students and White and Hispanic students have increased since 1992.		
8. The score gaps between fourth and eighth grade students eligible for the National Lunch Program and students who are not eligible has decreased since 1998.		

Adapted from *The Literacy Crisis, False Claims, Real Solutions* (1998) by Jeff McQuillan, Portsmouth, New Hampshire: Heinemann.



Facilitator Notes:

Part I: As participants enter the room, they are given the worksheet to fill out. Then, divide the participants into groups of 3-4 individuals. They discuss each question in a small group. Following each question, the group reports back and the facilitator takes notes on chart paper.

Part II: Whole Group Debrief for each question. Use two walls in the training room, one representing “true” and another “false”. Work through the questions, having participants move to the wall that represents how they responded to the question. Provide participants with correct response and brief support before moving on to next question.

NOTE: See activity answer sheet for explanations of each question. Play particular attention to the plausible explanations participants provide for each statement. Explanations that will most likely surface are... poverty, student motivation, ability, and families. These will be addressed following activity 2. You will need to make a judgment as to whether you need to attend to any of the comments at this point or point out that a little later we will have a discussion around the plausible explanations. The critical learning is that the participants need to know that it is NOT families.

Introductory Activity: The State of Literacy in the United States

Part I: Have participants respond True or False to the statements.

_____ 1. Reading achievement has declined in the United States over the past 30 years.

False - The best evidence on reading achievement in the United States comes from a national system of examinations established back in the late 1960s by the federal government to determine how United States schoolchildren were performing in a variety of school subjects. These exams, known as the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) are important barometers of educational achievement. They are given nationally to a representative sample of United States children.

When the test was first administered in 1971, the average reading proficiency score for nine year-old children was 208, for thirteen year-old children was 255, and for seventeen year-old children was 285. The results of the most recent administration of the test (2005) revealed that the average reading proficiency score for nine year-old children was 219 and for thirteen year-old children was 262. These scores indicate that, despite a few minor shifts, reading achievement has either stayed even or increased over the past thirty years.

Between 1992 and 2005, there was no significant change in the percentage of fourth-graders performing at or above *Basic*, but the percentage performing at or above *Proficient* increased during this time. The percentage of eighth-graders performing at or above *Basic* was higher in 2005 (73 percent) than in 1992 (69 percent), but there was no significant change in the percentage scoring at or above *Proficient* between these same years.

_____ 2. 40% of United States children cannot read at a basic level.

False - During the early years of the NAEP tests, the Department released only the raw scores for each age level on its 0 to 500 scale, with no designations of which score was thought to constitute

"basic knowledge" or "proficiency." The designers of the NAEP test later decided that simply reporting the raw scores was no longer adequate in order to judge the progress of United States schools. The Department decided it would determine how well students were reading by establishing the minimum score constituting "below basic," "basic," "proficient," and "advanced" reading. The "basic" level for fourth-grade reading, for example, was fixed at a score of 208. In 2005, 36% of United States children scored below the "basic" cutoff of 208.

There was no significant change between 1992 and 2005 in the percentage of fourth-graders performing at or above *Basic*. While there was no change compared to 2003 in the percentage of fourth-graders performing at or above *Proficient*, there was an increase from 29 percent in 1992 to 31 percent in 2005. The percentage of eighth-graders performing at or above *Basic* was higher in 2005 than in 1992, but showed a 1-point decrease between 2003 and 2005. The percentage of eighth-graders performing at or above *Proficient* also showed a 1-point decrease between 2003 and 2005, and the percentage in 2005 was not significantly different from that in 1992.

_____ 3. 20% of United States children are dyslexic.

False - Closely related to the previous misconception that 40% of our students read below the "basic" level is another ominous-sounding figure that indicates 20% of United States schoolchildren suffer from a "neuro-behavioral disorder" known as "dyslexia" (Shaywitz et al., 1996). The research most often cited to support this claim is drawn from the results of the Connecticut Longitudinal Study (CLS), a large-scale project funded in part by the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (e.g. Shaywitz, Escobar, Shaywitz, Fletcher & Makuch, 1992; Shaywitz, Fletcher & Shaywitz, 1994). The CLS tracked over 400 students from kindergarten through young adulthood, periodically measuring their Intelligence Quotient (IQ), reading achievement, and mathematical abilities, among other attributes. CLS researchers measured "reading disability" by two methods. The first is what is known as "discrepancy scores," which represent the difference between a child's actual reading achievement and what would be predicted based upon his IQ. The idea is that if you have a high IQ but are poor at reading, then something must be wrong with you. The actual size of the discrepancy used in the CLS studies was that recommended by the United States Department of Education, 1.5 standard deviations. This 1.5 standard deviation figure was thus their "cutoff" score used to determine who was reading "disabled" and who was not. In any given year, a little less than 8 percent fall into the category of reading disabled, using the 1.5 cutoff.

Two important things need to be noticed about these results. First, and most importantly, the 1.5 standard deviation cutoff point is arbitrary. We could just as easily have used 1.25 or 1.75 or .5, each producing a different percentage of "neuro-behaviorally" afflicted children. Second, even the 8% have not been shown in this research to be "dyslexic," if by "dyslexic" we mean a "neurologically based disorder in which there is unexpected failure to read," the definition used by the CLS team (S. Shaywitz et al., 1992, p. 145; emphasis added). This is because, quite simply, no neurological measures were administered to these particular children. All that can be said from these findings is that around 8 percent of children in any given year will have a discrepancy of 1.5 standard deviations between their IQ and reading achievement, at least if they live in Connecticut.

_____ 4. Children from Baby-Boomer generation read better than students today.

False - Some argue today's reading levels are dismal compared to those of the 1940s or 1950s. This evidence comes from a study of adult literacy levels, the National Adult Literacy Survey (NALS), which was given to a representative sample of United States adults in 1992 (Kirsch, Jungblut, Jenkins

& Kolstad, 1993). McGuinness (1997) notes that those who learned to read in the mid-1950s to mid-1960s have higher reading scores than those of later generations.

Can we really measure the effectiveness of schools 40 years ago by how well their graduates read today? What about the intervening 30 years of reading experience and education? We should hardly expect the reading proficiency of these adults to remain stagnant over time. Surely the reading scores of this group of 35-44-year-olds from when they were still enrolled in school are better indicators of how well they performed as children, since fewer intervening variables then exist to confound the results. We do, in fact, have reading achievement scores from a representative sample of children of this age cohort in the form of the high school NAEP scores from 1971 (for those who entered first grade in 1959 and were 38 at time of the NALS administration). Their scores are not much different than more recent graduates.

_____ 5. Students in the United States are among the worst readers in the world.

False - What will come as most surprising to many people is how the United States compares internationally in reading achievement: Our nine-year-olds ranked second in the world in the most recent round of testing conducted by the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA); our fourteen-year-olds ranked a very respectable ninth out of 31. A dissenting opinion on just how well United States school-children perform over time and internationally is held by Walberg (1996), who argues that reading achievement has in fact declined since the early 1970s. Walberg compared the IEA scores from 1990-91 to the first IEA test given to 15 nations in 1970, with the scores from the two tests equated (Lietz, 1995, cited in Walberg). Walberg (1996) concluded that the scores did indeed decline, from 602 in 1970 to 541 in 1991 (using his adjusted scores).

Two problems exist with this analysis, however. First, it is not clear why the two IEA tests given 22 years apart should be preferred in measuring trends in United States reading performance over the United States Department of Education's own NAEP exam, which has not only been given more frequently (9 times since 1970), but was designed to be much more sensitive to a broader range of reading achievement (Binkley & Williams, 1996) than the IEA tests. Second, the IEA test has changed considerably since its first administration in 1970 (Elley, 1994). Unfortunately, the reanalysis of the scores upon which Walberg bases his comparisons is unpublished, making it difficult to know precisely how these "equated" scores were derived from what were markedly different tests.

_____ 6. The number of children classified as good readers has been declining in the United States.

False - It has been claimed by some critics that the number of students "at the top" has been declining (e.g., Murray & Herrnstein, 1992; Coulson, 1996). While it is true that the number of students scoring above 700 on the SAT did decline, the numbers were never high (2.3 percent in 1966, 1.2 percent in 1995). Also, the large demographic changes in United States schools over the past three decades have almost certainly had an influence on the scores. Bracey (1997) points out that the drops occurred primarily between 1966 and 1972, since which time the percentage of students scoring above 700 has remained stable. Moreover, two studies that have attempted to control for the significant demographic shifts in the test pool since the early 1950s have found that the average declines during the 1960s and 1970s were rather small (Bracey, 1997).

However, the most important point to keep in mind when discussing the SAT is that it is not a representative sample of United States high school students. It is a voluntary test that a large

proportion of students take in some states (e.g., New York) and hardly any students take in other states (e.g., Iowa). The NAEP tests, by contrast, are representative. They indicate no decline in the percentage of students who score at the highest levels. Little change has occurred in the percentage of high-scoring students at any grade level, with the percentage of thirteen-year-olds scoring at the top levels showing an increase over the past three decades.

_____ 7. In reading performance, the score gaps between White and Black students and White and Hispanic students have increased since 1992.

False - The reading achievement gap has remained relatively unchanged between 1992 and 2005. While scores for both White and Black students declined in comparison to 1992. Apparent declines over the same time for other racial/ethnic groups were not statistically significant.

The percentages of students performing at or above Proficient were lower in 2005 than in 1992 for White students but showed no significant change for other racial/ethnic student groups. There was no significant change in the gaps between White students and their Black or Hispanic counterparts in comparison to either 1992 or 2005. The scoring gap between White and Black students was 24 points in 1992 and 26 points in 2005. The scoring gap between White and Hispanic students was 19 points in 1992 and 21 points in 2005. (Source: Full achievement-level and gap information is available on the NAEP website at <http://nces.ed.gov/nationsreportcard/nde/>)

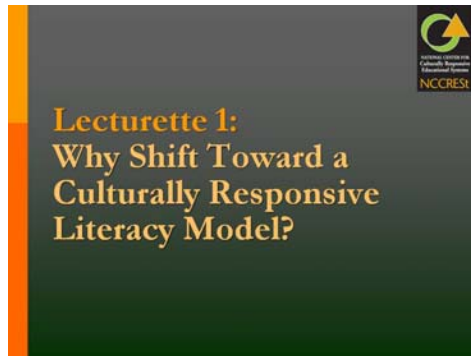
_____ 8. The score gaps between fourth and eighth grade students eligible for the National Lunch Program and students who are not eligible has decreased since 1998.

False – The scoring gaps for the NAEP reading assessment have remained relatively stable since 1998. Between 1998 and 2007, the fourth grade gap is largest, with a 29% - 34% gap in the percentage of students eligible for the National Lunch Program who do not achieve proficiency compared to non-eligible students. For eighth graders during the same time frame the gap, while still relatively stable, narrows to 24%-25% gap in the percentage of students eligible for the National Lunch Program who do not achieve proficiency compared to non-eligible students.

Scores were higher in 2007 than in any previous year for fourth-graders eligible for the National School Lunch Program. However, the increase did little to narrow the gap between non-eligible students where 29% fewer eligible students achieved proficiency in the NAEP reading assessment.



Slide 7



Lecturette 1: Why Shift Toward a Culturally Responsive Literacy Model?

Why shift towards a culturally responsive literacy model? The purpose of this lecturette is two-fold. First, participants need to have a common reference point for how we define literacy and culturally responsive literacy. Second, the

lecturette ends in an activity where participants review NAEP data that reveals gaps in literacy achievement of students in our public schools, providing one answer to the opening question, “why shift towards a culturally responsive literacy model?”



Slide 8



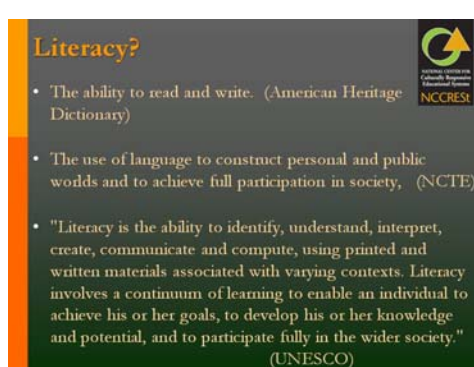
What is literacy? How do you define it?

Introductory question prompt to activate thinking:

Ask participants how they would define literacy. Record responses on chart paper. Then move to next slide and provide this set of literacy definitions.



Slide 9



Literacy?

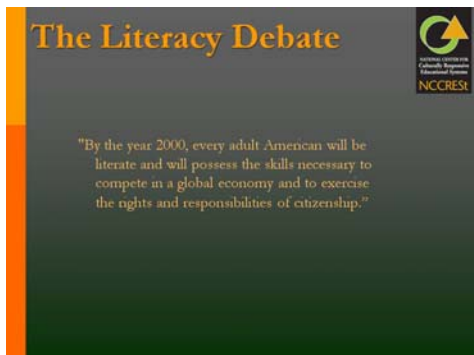
Facilitator Note: This is a small sampling of literacy definitions taken from various sources: 1) a dictionary; 2) the National Council of Teachers of English; and 3) United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization.

- The ability to read and write. (American Heritage Dictionary)
- The use of language to construct personal and public worlds and to achieve full participation in society. (NCTE)
- "Literacy is the ability to identify, understand, interpret, create, communicate and compute, using printed and written materials associated with varying contexts. Literacy involves a continuum of learning to enable an individual to achieve his or her goals, to develop

his or her knowledge and potential, and to participate fully in the wider society." (UNESCO)



Slide 10



The Literacy Debate

In February 1990, the president of the United States and the nation's governors proposed six national education goals and objectives (GOALS 2000). One of these goals was, "By the year 2000, every adult American will be literate and will possess the skills necessary to compete in a global economy and to exercise the

rights and responsibilities of citizenship" (*Teachers and GOALS 2000: Leading the Journey Toward High Standards for All Students*). While there may be general support for this goal, the way to achieve it has been the subject of ongoing debate.

Forty years ago, this debate was between the use of phonics versus sight words as the most effective way to teach reading. Some time later the linguistic approach was introduced. In the 1990s, the debate shifted so that the previous approaches constituted what have since been labeled "traditional" approaches, in contrast to what is referred to as "whole language" (Ladson-Billings, 1992).

At the international level, the literacy debate has been less about instructional method than the social and political purposes of literacy. Thus the notion of a literacy "campaign" in countries such as China, Brazil, Tanzania, Cuba, and Nicaragua connotes the idea of literacy for human liberation and social empowerment (Arnové & Graff, 1987).

Neither the debate over methodology nor the sociopolitical struggle for human liberation and power have directed attention to the literacy needs of linguistically and ethnically diverse students in US schools. No matter how attractive and "humanizing" the whole language approach may seem, teachers of marginalized students in the United States are confronted with students who lack certain literacy skills (Delpit, 1986). Stacks of worksheets and pages of workbook exercises (Autonomous Literacy Model) do not necessarily result in functional and advanced literacy.

Rather, the compelling issue is the development of a culturally responsive approach to teaching in general that fosters and sustains the students' desire to *choose* academic success in the face of so many competing options.



Slide 11

Darlene tryin to teach me how to talk....Every time I say something the way I say it, she correct me until I say it some other way. Pretty soon it feel like I can't think. My mind run up on a thought, git confuse, run back and sort of lay down. You sure this worth it? I ask. She say Yeah. Bring me a bunch of books. White folks all over them, talking bout apples and dogs. What I care bout dogs? I think....But I let Darlene worry on. Sometimes I think bout the apples and the dogs, sometimes I don't. Look like to me only a fool would want you to talk in a way that feel peculiar to your mind.

- Celie, in *The Color Purple*

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- Celie, in *The Color Purple*



Slide 12

Culturally Responsive Literacy Model

A culturally responsive literacy model utilizes instructional practices that are explicit, relevant, and multifaceted. A culturally responsive literacy model bridges the gap between the Autonomous and Ideological models, using instructional approaches that

utilize the strength of the multiple literacies students bring to the classroom to develop their basic literacy skills. It is the kind of teaching that uses the students' culture as the basis for helping students understand themselves and others, structure social interactions, and conceptualize knowledge (Ladson-Billings, 1992).

1. Relevant - using the cultural knowledge, prior experiences, and performance styles of diverse students to make learning more appropriate and effective for them; teaching to and through the strengths of students (Gay, 2000).
2. Multifaceted - goal is to develop a variety of literacies in students so they can critically examine the society in which they live and to work for social change. (Ladson-Billings, 1992) Culturally responsive literacy is designed to help students ask larger socio-political questions about how schools and the society work to expose ongoing inequity and social injustice. "If students do not begin to ask these questions, they are likely to reiterate positions that suggest that the reason people are unsuccessful in school is that they do not try hard enough. Culturally responsive teaching is designed to help students move past a blaming the victim mentality and search for the structural and symbolic foundations of inequity and injustice." (Ladson-Billings, in *The Skin that we speak*, p. 111)

Literacies:

- Language-based
- Mathematical
- Scientific
- Historical
- Cultural
- Political
- Economic
- Artistic
- Musical
- Social

3. Explicit – includes explicit instruction in basic literacy skills needed for full participation in the culture of power (Delpit, 1988).



Activity 2: Literacy Achievement Gap- Examining the Data

Directions: In small review the handout of NAEP reading and writing data – national trends, student group trends. Analyze one set of data (reading or writing) to focus on and compose a response to the following questions. Share your results with the whole group.

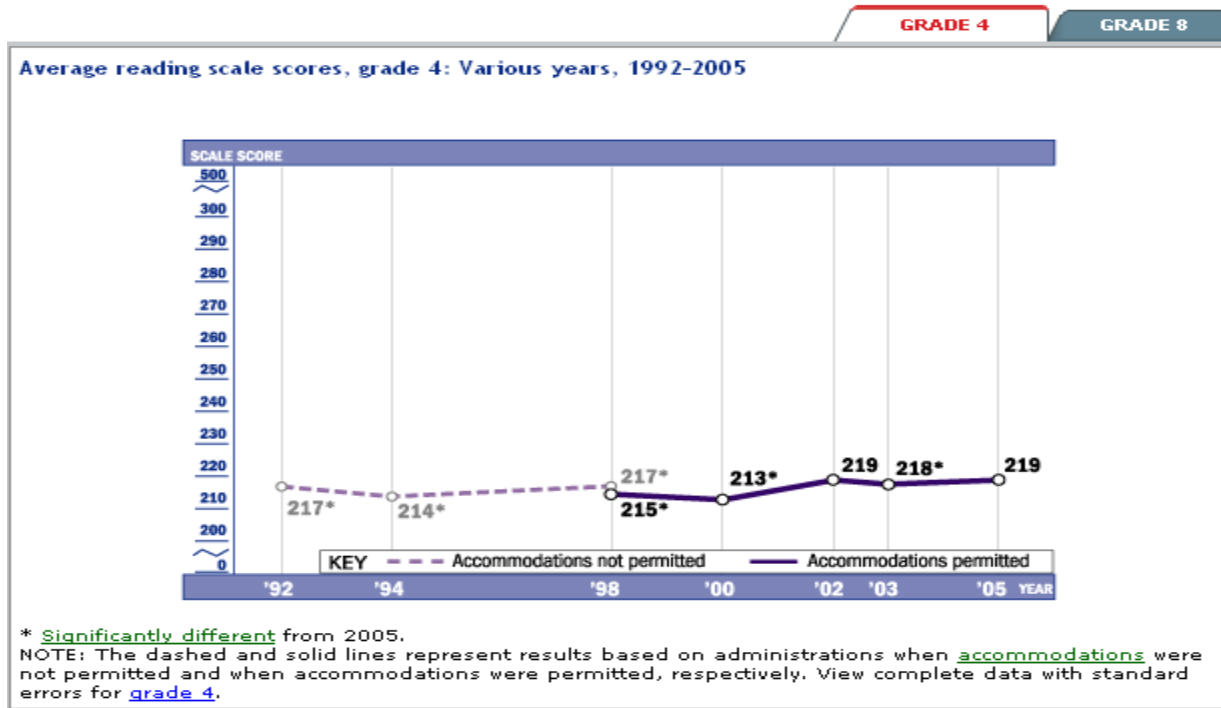
Facilitator Notes: You may select the groups or allow participants to select their own groups. Have each small group share one idea their group generated during discussion of data trends. Record group responses on chart paper. Use responses as bridge to next lecturette. Debrief activity by sharing what research suggests are explanations to the literacy achievement gap.

Analyze and develop possible explanations for the literacy gaps evident between races, socioeconomic status, students with disabilities, and English learners.

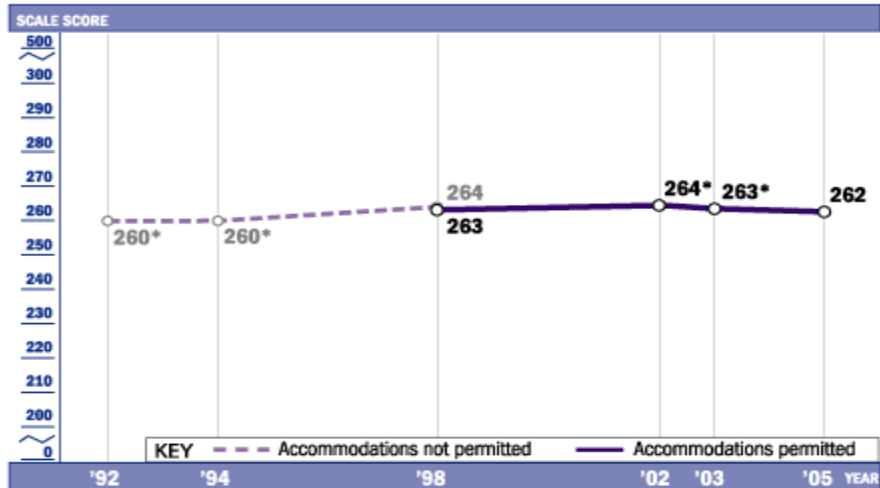
- How do you explain these statistics?
- What explanations are plausible for the literacy achievement gap?

NAEP Reading Data 1992-2005 – US National Scale Score Averages

4th Grade



Average reading scale scores, grade 8: Various years, 1992-2005



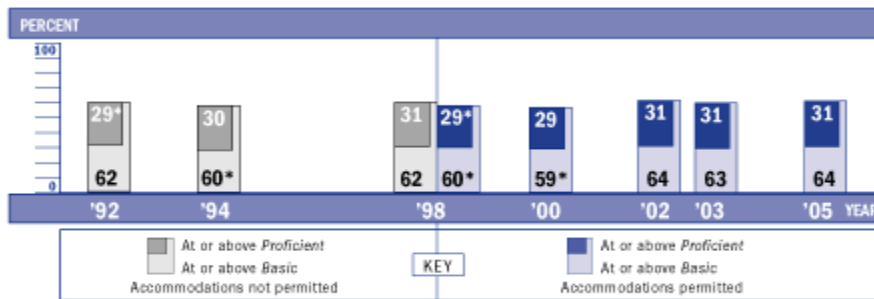
* Significantly different from 2005.

NOTE: The dashed and solid lines represent results based on administrations when accommodations were not permitted and when accommodations were permitted, respectively. View complete data with standard errors for [grade 8](#).

NAEP Reading Data 1992-2005 – US Achievement Levels

4th Grade: At or above Basic, at or above Proficient

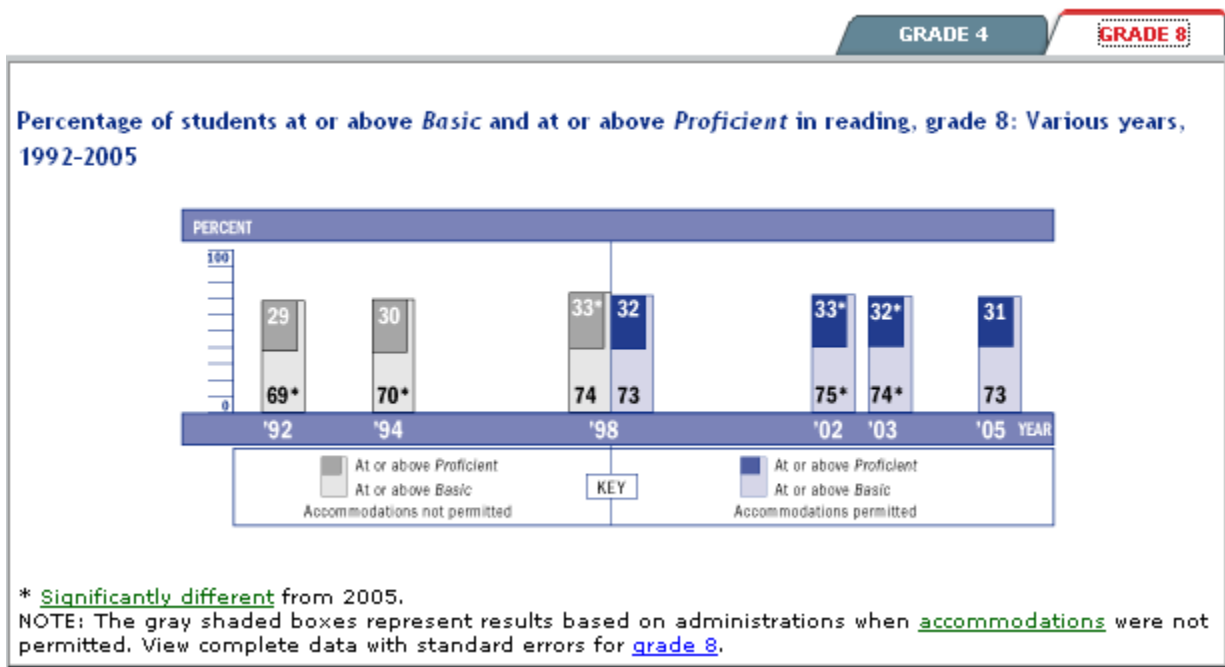
Percentage of students at or above Basic and at or above Proficient in reading, grade 4: Various years, 1992-2005



* Significantly different from 2005.

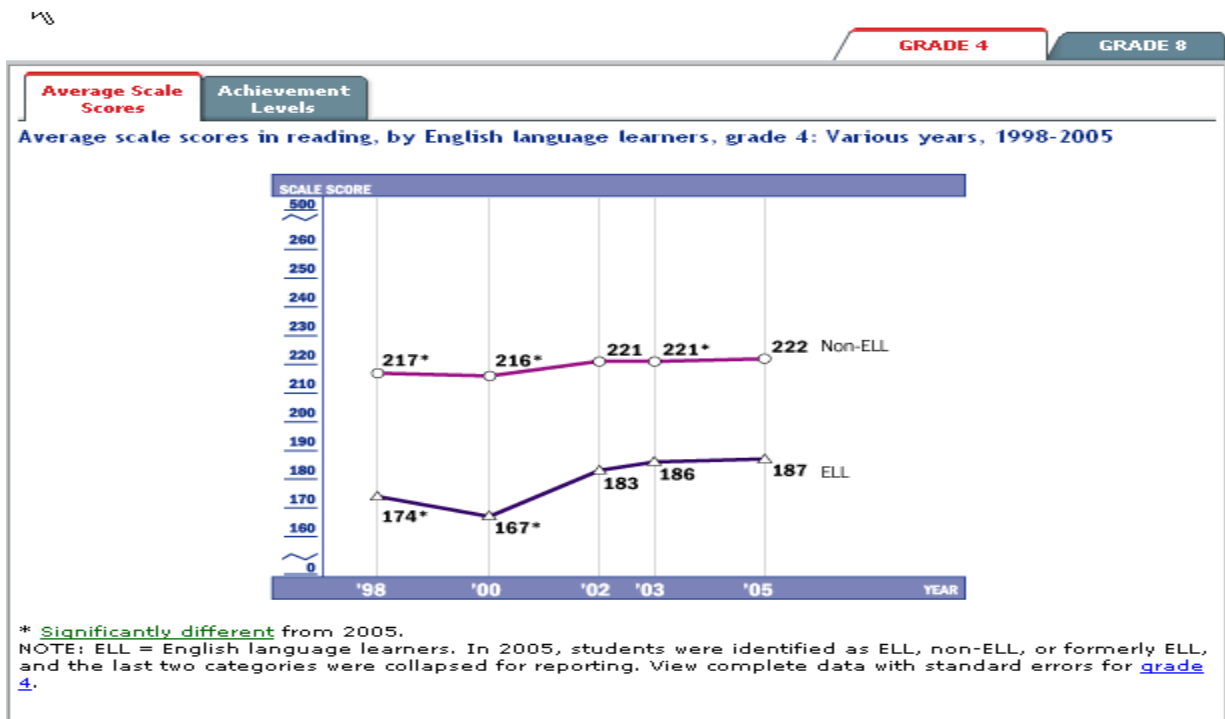
NOTE: The gray shaded boxes represent results based on administrations when accommodations were not permitted. View complete data with standard errors for [grade 4](#).

8th Grade: At or above Basic, at or above Proficient

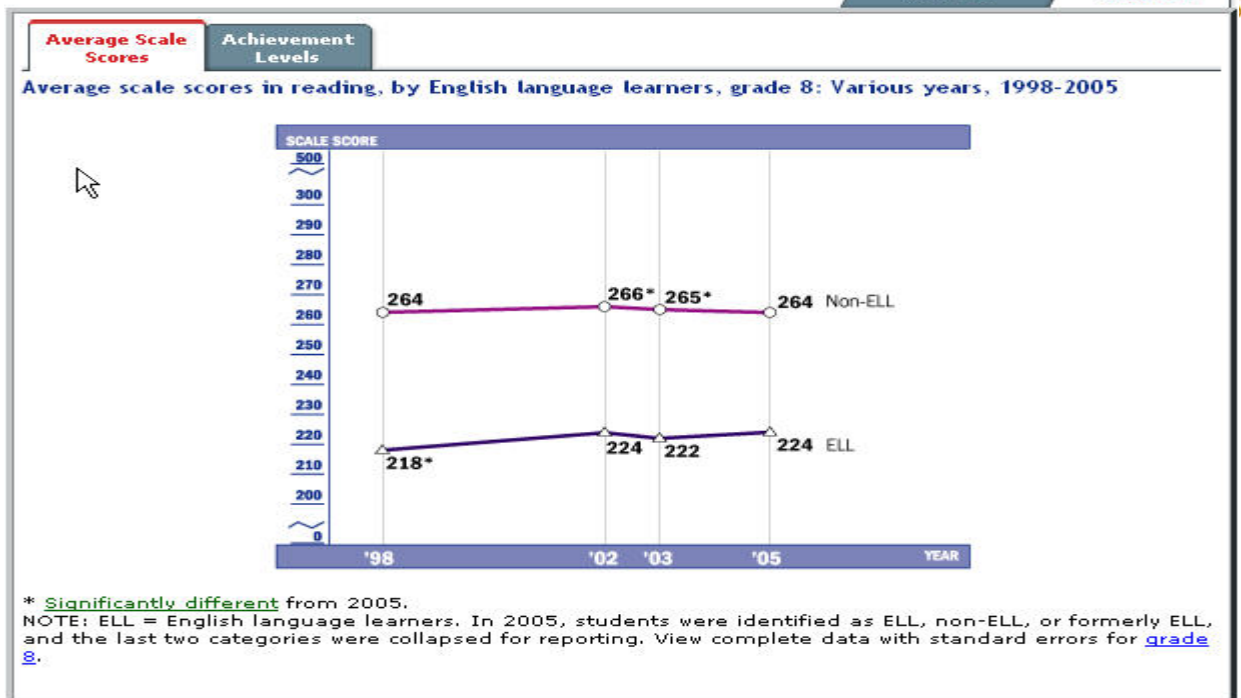


NAEP Reading Data 1998-2005 – English Language Learners

4th Grade Average Scale Scores

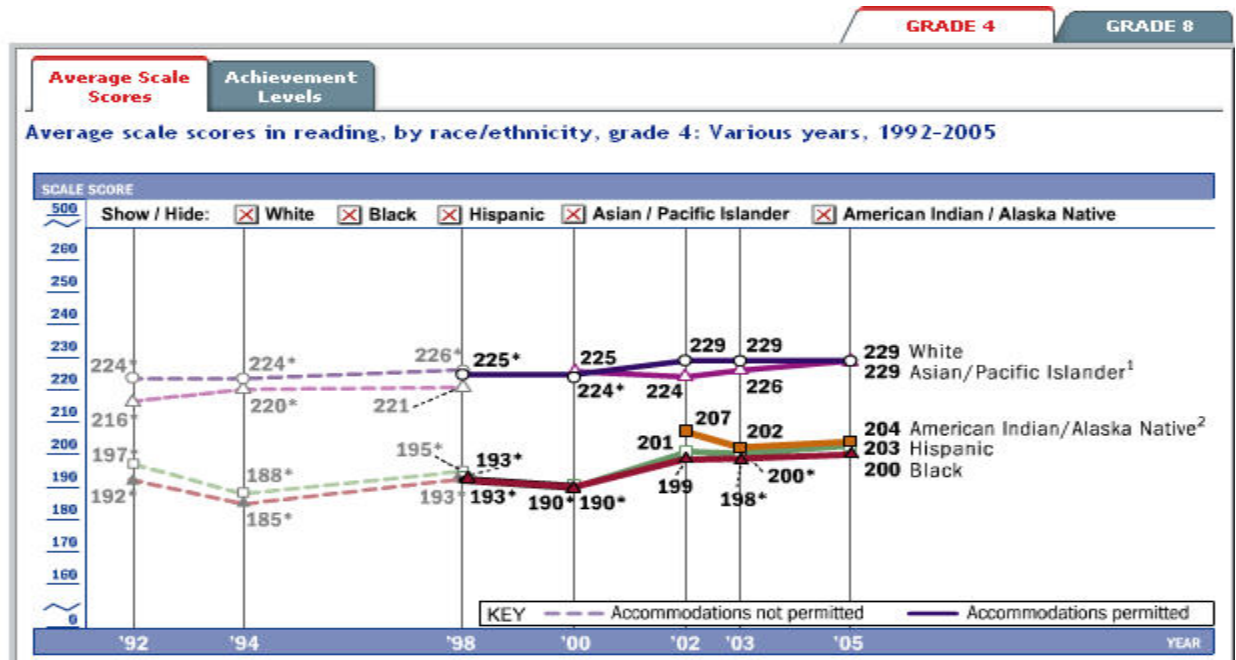


8th Grade Average Scale Scores



NAEP Reading Data 1992-2005 – Race/Ethnicity

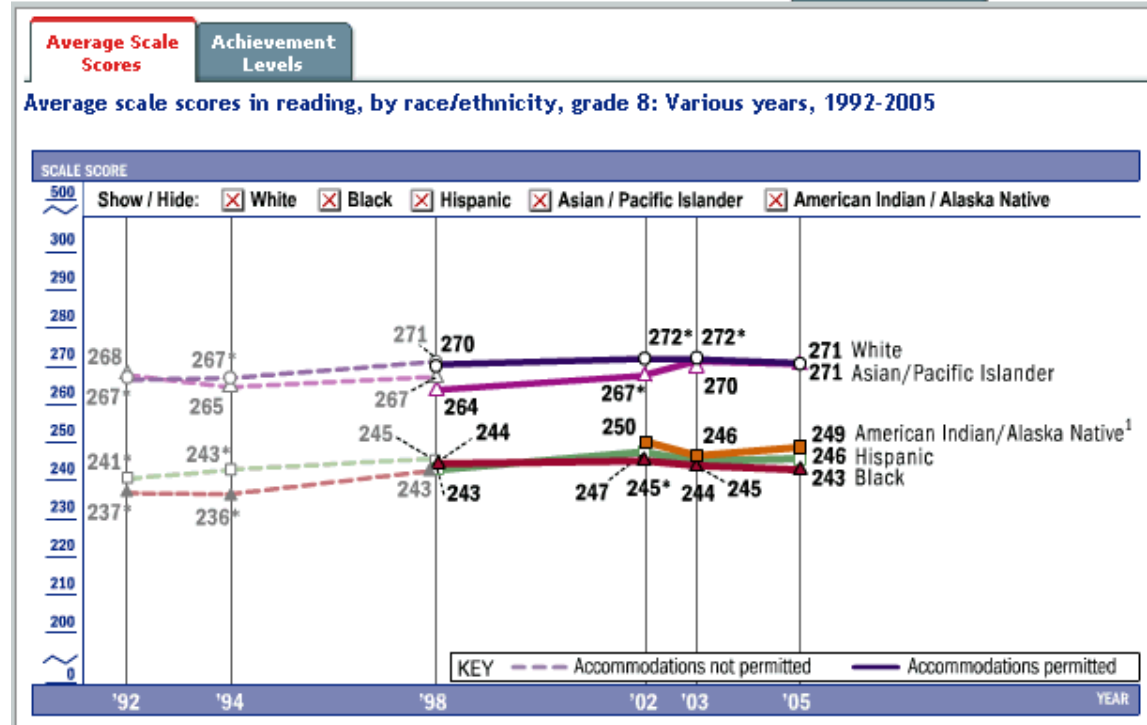
4th Grade



8th Grade

GRADE 4

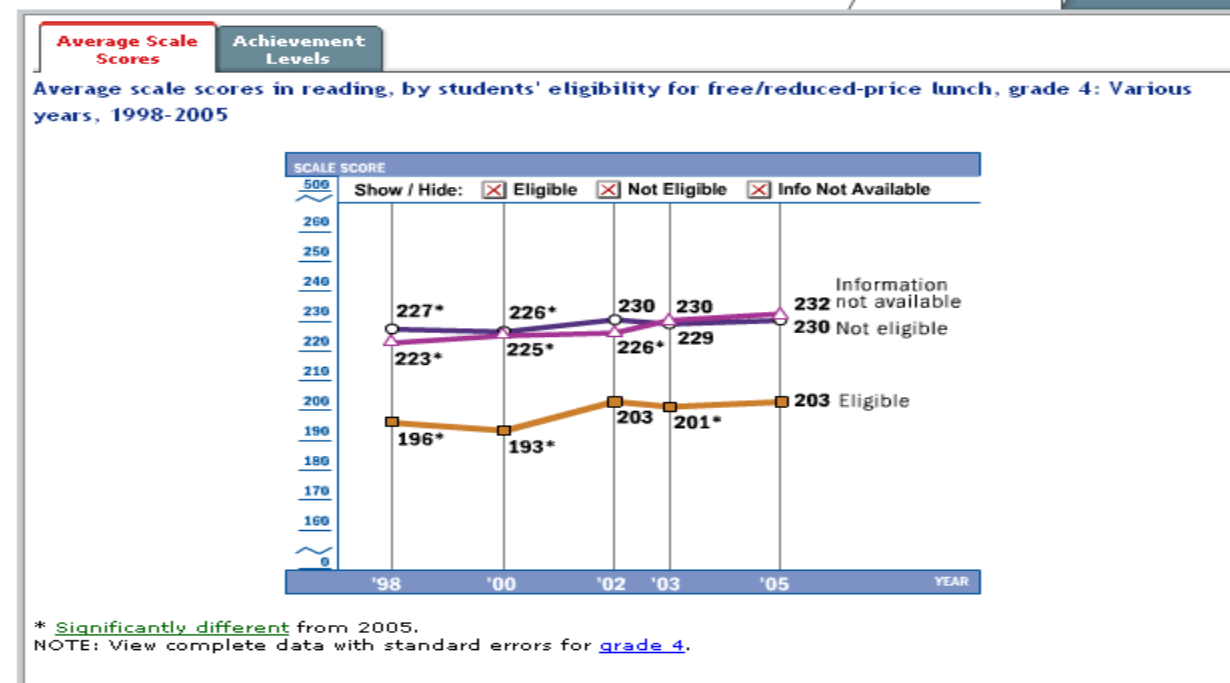
GRADE 8



NAEP Reading Data 1998-2005 – Low Socioeconomic Status
4th Grade

GRADE 4

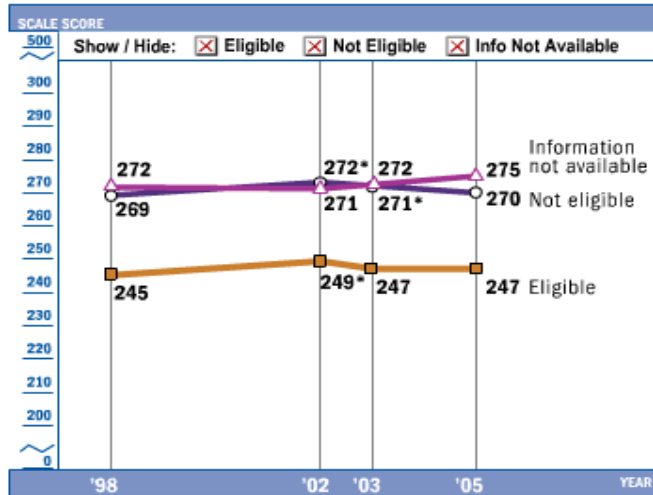
GRADE 8



Average Scale Scores

Achievement Levels

Average scale scores in reading, by students' eligibility for free/reduced-price lunch, grade 8: Various years, 1998-2005

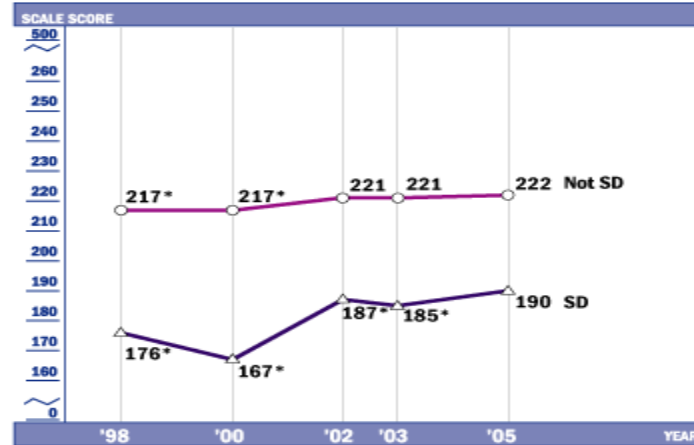


NAEP Reading Data 1998-2005 – Students with Disabilities
4th Grade

Average Scale Scores

Achievement Levels

Average scale scores in reading, by students with and without disabilities, grade 4: Various years, 1998-2005



* Significantly different from 2005.
NOTE: SD = students with disabilities. View complete data with standard errors for [grade 4](#).

8th Grade

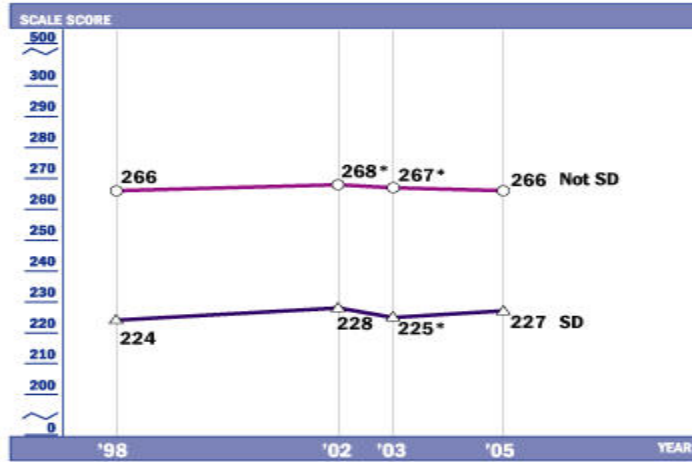
GRADE 4

GRADE 8

Average Scale Scores

Achievement Levels

Average scale scores in reading, by students with and without disabilities, grade 8: Various years, 1998-2005

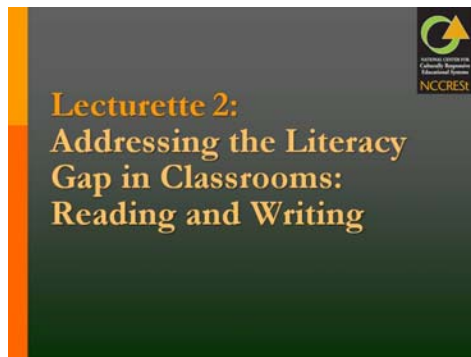


* Significantly different from 2005.

NOTE: SD = students with disabilities. View complete data with standard errors for [grade 8](#).



Slide 13

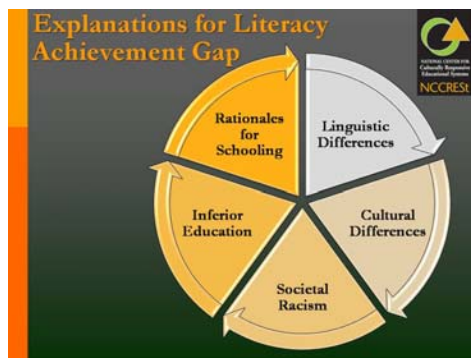


Lecturette 2: Addressing the Literacy Gap in Classrooms: Reading and Writing

Facilitator Note: This lecturette provides participants with what research studies conducted by the National Reading Panel and the National Commission on Writing suggest that classroom teachers need to do to address the literacy gap.



Slide 14



Explanations for Literacy Achievement Gap

Kathryn Au (1998) suggests five major explanations that appear likely for the literacy achievement gap. Using a social constructivist perspective where social constructs are generally understood to be the by-products (often unintended or unconscious) of countless human choices rather than

laws resulting from divine will or nature. From a social constructivist perspective, research should examine the literacy achievement gap in relation to the social conditions that led to its creation and sustenance through students' schooling experiences. Au's five major explanations include:

1. Linguistic Differences – This explanation stems from the fact that many students of diverse backgrounds speak a home language other than standard American English. Current theory and research in bilingual education suggests that students' poor academic achievement generally is not due to their limited English proficiency. Instead, it is due to the exclusion or limited use of instruction in the home language in many school programs (Snow, 1990) or to the low status accorded the home language. Linguistically diverse students are not encouraged or permitted to use their existing language skills as the basis for developing literacy in school, because these skills are often ignored or denigrated (Moll & Diaz, 1985).
2. Cultural Differences – Because our public school system is a mainstream institution, instruction is carried out in ways following mainstream standards for behavior and reflect mainstream cultural norms. Students outside the mainstream culture of our society prefer forms of interactions, language, and thought that conflict with the

mainstream behaviors needed to succeed in our school system. These preferences are not inborn, but the result of socialization practices in the home and community which reflect different cultural norms/values.

3. Societal Racism – American society and its public school system are structured to prevent equality of educational opportunity and outcome. For example, disproportionate numbers of students of color are labeled as poor readers and placed in the lowest reading groups, or removed from the classroom to receive remedial reading instruction. The resulting instruction is qualitatively different from students placed in higher reading groups, further exacerbating the problem.
4. Inferior Education – Material circumstances in urban and rural schools (e.g. deteriorating buildings, outdated textbooks, inexperienced teachers) and in the conditions of students’ lives and communities lead to dramatic inequalities in educational opportunity (Kozol, 1991, 2005). Schools with a high proportion of low-income students tend to devote less time to reading instruction and to rely on testing practices that limit students’ opportunities to learn (Allington, 1991).
5. Rationales for Schooling – D’Amato (1987) identified two rationales for schooling, structural and situational, noting that students who accept school and cooperate with teachers do so on the basis of these rationales. Structural rationales allow students of mainstream backgrounds to justify their participation in school, because they usually have family histories that illustrate a strong connection between schooling and life opportunities. These children understand the significance of school performance beyond the school setting; the relationship to employment and other life opportunities. Structural rationales are not available to students of diverse backgrounds whose family histories do not show these same conditions. On the other hand, situational rationales are found in students’ experiences with being in school and whether or not the experience is rewarding and enjoyable. When school structures and processes are compatible with the structures and processes of students’ peer groups, a positive situational rationale for accepting schools is available to students.



Slide 15

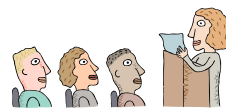


Teaching Children to Read: National Reading Panel

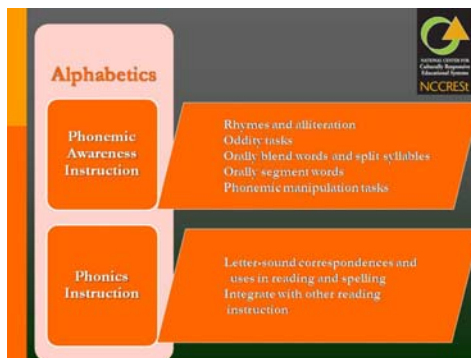
In 1997, Congress asked the Director of the National Institute of Child Health and Human Development (NICHD), along with the Secretary of Education, to convene a national panel on reading. The National Reading Panel (NRP) was asked by Congress to assess the status of

research-based knowledge about reading, including the effectiveness of various approaches to teaching children to read. The Panel concentrated on the following areas: Alphabetic, including the issues of phonemic awareness instruction and phonics instruction; Fluency; Comprehension, including vocabulary instruction, text comprehension instruction, along with several components of teacher education and preparedness.

The National Reading Panel issued a report in 2000 making the following conclusions related to each of these components of reading that should be considered in addressing literacy issues in the classroom:



Slide 16



Alphabetic

- Phonemic Awareness (PA) Instruction - Phonemic awareness is the understanding that the sounds of *spoken* language work together to make words. Phonemes are the smallest units making up spoken language that combine to form syllables and words. A

few words have only one phoneme, such as a (a) or oh (o). Most words consist of a blend of phonemes, such as go (g-o) with two phonemes, check (ch-e-ck) with three phonemes, or stop with four phonemes (s-t-o-p). Phonemic awareness refers to the ability to focus on and manipulate these phonemes in spoken words. The NRP concluded that teaching phonemic awareness to children significantly improves their reading when compared to instruction without any attention to phonemic awareness. The results of experimental studies led the Panel to conclude that PA training led to improvement in students' phonemic awareness, reading, and spelling.

Teachers need to keep in mind several cautions when implementing PA instruction. First, PA training does not constitute a complete reading program.

Rather, it provides children with essential foundational knowledge in the alphabetic system. It is one necessary instructional component within a complete and integrated reading program. Second, there are many ways to teach PA effectively. Third, the motivation of both students and their teachers is a critical ingredient of success.

There are 5 kinds of phonemic awareness tasks.

1. Ability to hear rhymes and alliteration – (ex. Listening to nursery rhymes)
2. Ability to do oddity tasks – (ex. Listen to three words I say. Which word begins with a different sound: sat, hid, send?)
3. Ability to orally blend words and split syllables – (ex. I will say the first sound of a word and then the rest of the word. Say the word as a whole. /s/...at. What's the words? Sat)
4. Ability to orally segment words – (ex. What sounds do you hear in the word sat? /s/ /a/ /t/)
5. Ability to do phonemic manipulation tasks – (ex. Replace the first sound you hear in the word sat with /K/ ... cat.

NOTE: Facilitator could model an activity for each of these tasks and/or have participants try a couple of phonemic awareness tasks.

- Phonics Instruction - Phonics is the understanding that there is a predictable relationship between phonemes and graphemes, the letters that represent those sounds in *written* language. Phonics instruction is a way of teaching reading that stresses the acquisition of letter-sound correspondences and their use in reading and spelling. The primary focus of phonics instruction is to help beginning readers understand how letters are linked to sounds (phonemes) to form letter-sound correspondences and spelling patterns and to help them learn how to apply this knowledge in their reading. Phonics instruction may be provided systematically or incidentally.

NRP research revealed that systematic phonics instruction produces significant benefits for students in kindergarten through 6th grade and for children having difficulty learning to read. The ability to read and spell words was enhanced in kindergartners who received systematic beginning phonics instruction. First graders who were taught phonics systematically were better able to decode and spell, and they showed significant improvement in their ability to comprehend text. Older children receiving phonics instruction were better able to decode and spell words and to read text orally, but their comprehension of text was not significantly improved.

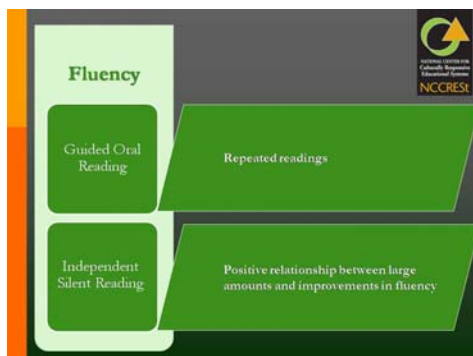
A common question with any instructional program is whether “one size fits

all.” Teachers may be able to use a particular program in the classroom but may find that it suits some students better than others. At all grade levels, but particularly in kindergarten and the early grades, children are known to vary greatly in the skills they bring to school. Some children will already know letter-sound correspondences, and some will even be able to decode words, while others will have little or no letter knowledge. It is more common for phonics programs to present a fixed sequence of lessons scheduled from the beginning to the end of the school year. With the wide range of student preparedness, teachers need to be flexible in their phonics instruction in order to adapt it to individual student needs.

Teachers must understand that systematic phonics instruction is only one component—albeit a necessary component—of a total reading program; systematic phonics instruction should be integrated with other reading instruction in phonemic awareness, fluency, and comprehension strategies to create a complete reading program. It is important not to judge children’s reading competence solely on the basis of their phonics skills and not to devalue their interest in books because they cannot decode with complete accuracy. It is also critical for teachers to understand that systematic phonics instruction can be provided in an entertaining, vibrant, and creative manner.



Slide 17



Fluency

Fluent readers are able to read orally with speed, accuracy, and proper expression. Fluency is one of several critical factors necessary for reading comprehension. Despite its importance as a component of skilled reading, fluency is often neglected in the classroom. If text is read in a

laborious and inefficient manner, it will be difficult for the child to remember what has been read and to relate the ideas expressed in the text to his or her background knowledge.

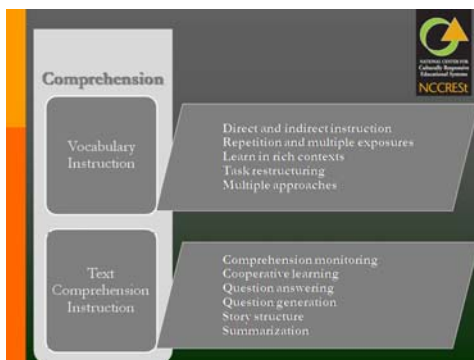
- **Guided Oral Reading** - The Panel concluded that guided repeated oral reading procedures that included guidance from teachers, peers, or parents had a significant and positive impact on word recognition, fluency, and comprehension across a range of grade levels. These studies were conducted in a variety of classrooms in both regular and special education settings with teachers using widely available instructional materials. This suggests the classroom readiness of guided oral reading and repeated reading procedures. These results also apply to all students—good readers as well as those experiencing reading difficulties.
- **Independent Silent Reading** - With regard to the efficacy of having

students engage in independent silent reading with minimal guidance or feedback, the Panel was unable to find a positive relationship between programs and instruction that encourage large amounts of independent reading and improvements in reading achievement, including fluency. Even though encouraging students to read more is intuitively appealing, there is still not sufficient research evidence obtained from studies of high methodological quality to support the idea that such efforts reliably increase how much students read or that such programs result in improved reading skills.

These findings do not negate the positive influence that independent silent reading may have on reading fluency, nor do the findings negate the possibility that wide independent reading significantly influences vocabulary development and reading comprehension. Rather, there are simply not sufficient data from well-designed studies capable of testing questions of causation to substantiate causal claims. The available data do suggest that independent silent reading is not an effective practice when used as the only type of reading instruction to develop fluency and other reading skills, particularly with students who have not yet developed critical alphabetic and word reading skills.



Slide 18



Comprehension

Comprehension is defined as “intentional thinking during which meaning is constructed through interactions between text and reader” (Harris & Hodges, 1995). Thus, readers derive meaning from text when they engage in intentional, problem solving thinking processes. The data suggest that text comprehension is

enhanced when readers actively relate the ideas represented in print to their own knowledge and experiences and construct mental representations in memory.

- Vocabulary Instruction** - The studies reviewed suggest that vocabulary instruction does lead to gains in comprehension, but that methods must be appropriate to the age and ability of the reader. The use of computers in vocabulary instruction was found to be more effective than some traditional methods in a few studies. Vocabulary also can be learned incidentally in the context of storybook reading or in listening to others. Learning words before reading a text also is helpful. Techniques such as task restructuring and repeated exposure (including having the student encounter words in various contexts) appear to enhance vocabulary development. In addition, substituting easy words for more difficult words can assist low-achieving students.

The findings on vocabulary yielded several specific implications for teaching reading.

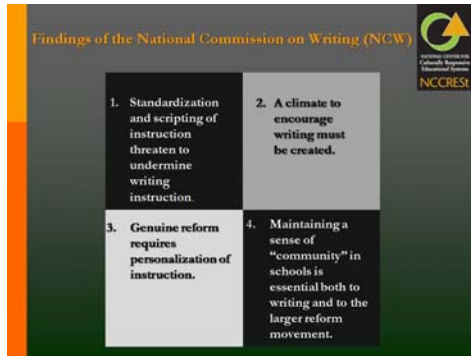
1. Vocabulary should be taught both directly and indirectly.
 2. Repetition and multiple exposures to vocabulary items are important.
 3. Learning in rich contexts, incidental learning, and use of computer technology all enhance the acquisition of vocabulary.
 4. Direct instruction should include task restructuring as necessary and should actively engage the student. Simplify tasks into smaller steps, do more modeling or demonstration, provide more review or give more guidance, decrease the difficulty of the material, use different types of text, provide cue cards or checklists for the task, change membership of groups, change time of day of instruction, and/or change location of the task.
 5. Dependence on a single vocabulary instruction method will not result in optimal learning.
- **Text Comprehension Instruction** - In the Panel's review they identified 16 categories of text comprehension instruction of which 7 appear to have a solid scientific basis for concluding that these types of instruction improve comprehension in non-impaired readers. Some of these types of instruction are helpful when used alone, but many are more effective when used as part of a multiple-strategy method.

The types of instruction are:

- Comprehension monitoring, where readers learn how to be aware of their understanding of the material;
- Cooperative learning, where students learn reading strategies together;
- Use of graphic and semantic organizers (including story maps), where readers make graphic representations of the material to assist comprehension;
- Question answering, where readers answer questions posed by the teacher and receive immediate feedback;
- Question generation, where readers ask themselves questions about various aspects of the story;
- Story structure, where students are taught to use the structure of the story as a means of helping them recall story content in order to answer questions about what they have read; and
- Summarization, where readers are taught to integrate ideas and generalize from the text information.



Slide 19



Findings of the National Commission on Writing (NCW)

1. Standardization and scripting of instruction threaten to undermine writing instruction.	2. A climate to encourage writing must be created.
3. Genuine reform requires personalization of instruction.	4. Maintaining a sense of "community" in schools is essential both to writing and to the larger reform movement.

Findings of the National Commission on Writing

“Writing extends far beyond mastering grammar and punctuation. The ability to diagram a sentence does not make a good writer. There are many students capable of identifying every part of speech who are barely able to produce a piece of prose. While exercises in descriptive, creative, and narrative

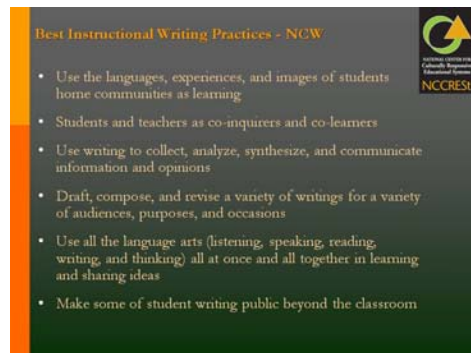
writing help develop students’ skills, writing is best understood as a complex intellectual activity that requires students to stretch their minds, sharpen their analytical capabilities, and make valid and accurate distinctions.” (National Commission on Writing for America’s Families, Schools, and Colleges, May 2006)

In an effort to focus national attention on the importance of teaching and learning writing, the College Board established the National Commission on Writing for America’s Families, Schools, and Colleges in September 2002. The Commission conducted a series of five hearings throughout the United States in 2004, listening to experts in the field of writing and discovered several clear messages across all the hearing:

1. Standardization and scripting of instruction threaten to undermine writing instruction.
2. A climate to encourage writing must be created.
3. Genuine reform requires personalization of instruction.
4. Maintaining a sense of “community” in schools is essential both to writing and to the larger reform movement.



Slide 20



Best Instructional Writing Practices - NCW

- Use the languages, experiences, and images of students home communities as learning
- Students and teachers as co-inquirers and co-learners
- Use writing to collect, analyze, synthesize, and communicate information and opinions
- Draft, compose, and revise a variety of writings for a variety of audiences, purposes, and occasions
- Use all the language arts (listening, speaking, reading, writing, and thinking) all at once and all together in learning and sharing ideas
- Make some of student writing public beyond the classroom

Best Instructional Writing Practices-NCW:

- Encouraged students to bring the languages, experiences, and images of their home communities into the classroom to be used as resources in service of student learning;
- Positioned students and teachers as co-inquirers and co-learners, a process that allowed teachers to model inquiry, study, and learning for their students;
- Asked students to use writing to collect, analyze, synthesize, and

communicate information and opinions;

- Called on students to draft, compose, and revise a variety of writings for a variety of audiences, purposes, and occasions;
- Required students to use all the language arts (listening, speaking, reading, writing, and thinking) all at once and all together in the service of learning and sharing their ideas; and
- Encouraged students to make some of their writing public beyond the classroom, so as to gain a better understanding of how literacy works in the world.



Activity 3: Reflections on Current Reading and Writing Practices

Directions: As a small group reflect on the current state of reading and writing instruction in your classroom or school. Share with the whole group.

Facilitator Notes: depending on the nature of your audience, you may want to structure the groups in schools, role alike groups (teachers, principals, literacy coaches, district administrators). You could also split into reading and writing groups allowing participants to select the literacy arena they would like to focus on.

The purpose of this activity is to provide reflection time related to the findings on effective reading and writing strategies from the various panels. It is important for participants to have time to reflect on the current state of literacy instruction before shifting into the next lecturette on culturally responsive literacy practices.

Guiding Questions:

Reading

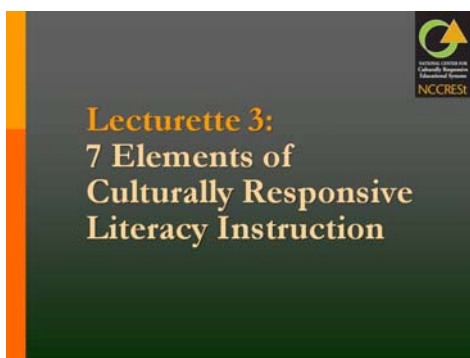
- Where is the emphasis – alphabets, fluency, comprehension?
- What percentage of time is spent on each of these reading areas?
- What shifts, if any need to occur?

Writing

- How would you rate your school or classroom in relation to the four NWC findings on slide 22?
- How would you rate your school or classroom in relation to the six writing practices identified on slide 23? What areas need to have increased emphasis?



Slide 21

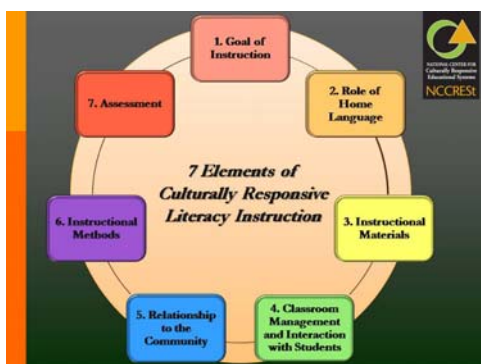


Lecturette 3: 7 Elements of Culturally Responsive Literacy Instruction

The final lecturette introduces the 7 elements of culturally responsive literacy instruction developed by Kathryn Au (1998).



Slide 22



7 Elements of Culturally Responsive Literacy Instruction

Given the literacy achievement gap that exists and the reports from the National Reading Panel and the National Commission on Writing, what alternatives do teachers have to improve literacy learning of students of diverse backgrounds? Kathryn Au's framework for improving the school

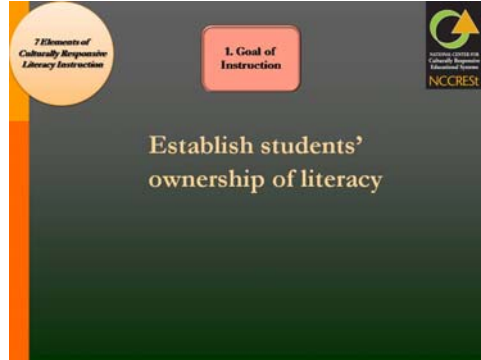
literacy learning of students of diverse backgrounds includes seven elements, which reflect key areas of research on school literacy learning, especially work conducted by scholars from underrepresented groups. The seven elements include:

1. Goal of Instruction
2. Role of Home Language
3. Instructional Materials
4. Classroom Management and Interaction with Students
5. Relationship to the Community
6. Instructional Methods
7. Assessment

To overcome the barriers of exclusion posed by conventional literacy instructional practices, educators must work with an expanded vision of literacy strategies and concepts in school, so that school definitions of literacy are transformed.



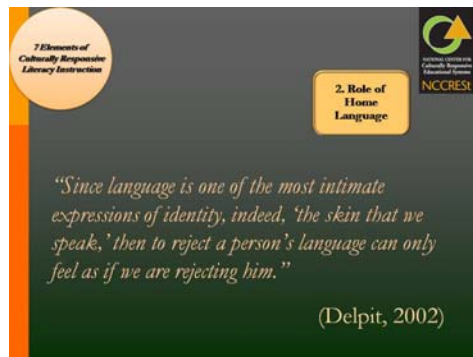
Slide 23



1. Goal of Instruction – Establish students’ ownership of literacy; make literacy personally meaningful and viewed as useful for the individual’s own purposes. Draw on students’ interests and experiences. Make literacy activities rewarding in an immediate sense, providing students with situational rationales for staying in school and engaging in literacy learning. However, attention must still be paid to systematic instruction in the cognitive processes of reading and writing.



Slide 24



2. Role of the Home Language –

“Since language is one of the most intimate expressions of identity, indeed, ‘the skin that we speak,’ then to reject a person’s language can only feel as if we are rejecting him.” (Delpit, 2002).

Literacy in the home language should not be treated simply as a means for becoming literate in English. Literacy in

the home language should be valued in and of itself. Teachers should be responsive to the student’s home language by allowing the students’ cultural language to exist in the classroom and build upon this first language.

Language-minority children who are instructed in their first language, as well as English, perform better on English reading measures than students instructed only in English. This is the case at both secondary and elementary levels. Additionally, “there is no basis in the research findings to suggest that they [bilingual programs] are in any way disadvantageous to English academic outcomes” (August & Shanahan, 2006, p. 639).

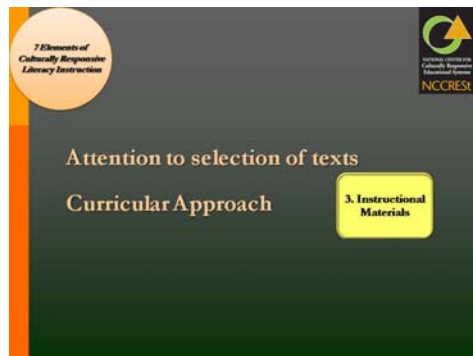
Although students should not use their first language as a crutch, they should have the opportunity to experience the connection between their language and the mainstream language. Teachers must acknowledge and validate students’ home language without using it to limit students’ potential. Students’ home Discourses are vital to their perception of self and sense of community connectedness. The point is not to eliminate students’ home language (primary Discourse), but rather to add other voices and Discourses (e.g. school, academic) to their repertoire (Delpit, 1992). In this respect, Discourse is considered to be part of a larger political entity (Gee, 1989) and construed as a type of “identity kit” for learners. Discourse encompasses not only ways of saying and writing, but also doing, being, valuing, and believing. Gee suggests

that no one learns to simply read or write, but to read and write within a larger Discourse that includes a larger set of values and beliefs (Gee, 1989).

In Lisa Delpit's book *The Skin that We Speak*, there is a chapter by Judith Baker that serves an excellent secondary language arts classroom example of how one teacher used her students' home language as a bridge to formal (standard) English.

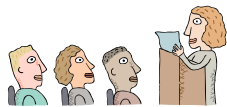


Slide 25

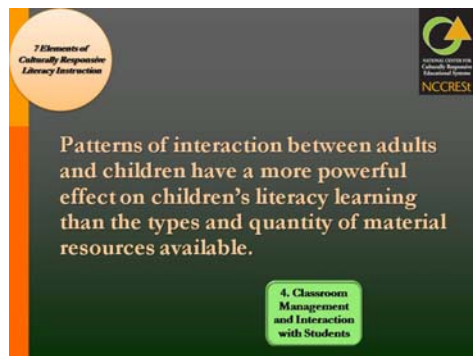


3. Instructional Materials – The use of literature that accurately depicts the experiences of diverse groups may improve the literacy achievement of students of diverse backgrounds by increasing their motivation to read, their appreciation and understanding of their own language and cultural heritage, and their valuing of their own life experience as a topic for writing.

Attention must be given not only to the selection of books, but also to the curricular approach (Darling-Hammond, 1995).



Slide 26



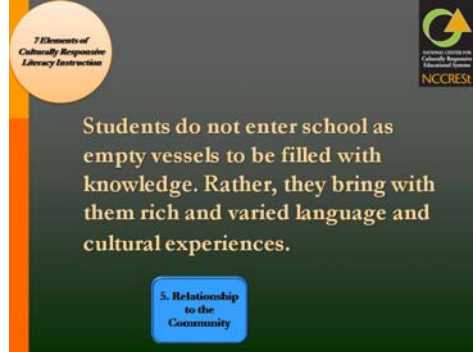
4. Classroom Management and Interaction with Students – A teacher's approach to classroom management and interaction with students may need to be adjusted on the basis of differences in students' cultures (Delpit, 1988). Research has shown that students' opportunities to learn to read improve when teachers conduct lessons in a culturally

responsive manner, consistent with community values and norms for interaction (Foster, 1989; Au & Kawakami, 1994).

Teaching and learning also depends upon a complex web of social relationships that teachers and students negotiate over time. Anthropologists such as Heath (1982) and Schiefflin and Cochran-Smith (1984) argue that patterns of interaction between adults and children have a more powerful effect on children's literacy learning than the types and quantity of material resources available. However, success in the acquisition of literacy cannot be measure solely in terms of success with school-based literacy tasks. Children must acquire the skills and knowledge that they need to function as literate adults in the world outside schools. Culturally responsive teachers are ones who perceive the distinction between the acquisition of school-based versus nonschool literacy and develop the kinds of social relationships in their classrooms that allow the acquisition of multiple kinds of literacy.



Slide 27



7 Elements of
Culturally Responsive
Literacy Instruction

Students do not enter school as empty vessels to be filled with knowledge. Rather, they bring with them rich and varied language and cultural experiences.

5. Relationship to the Community

5. Relationship to the Community –

Teachers and schools need to restructure power relations between the school and community to increase involvement of parents and other community members, which in turn may increase the cultural and linguistic relevance of school situations for students of diverse backgrounds. Literacy practices, as well as the

resources available to promote literacy, differ across cultures. Connections need to be made to the specific communities to which students belong.

For example, Luis Moll (1992) described the “funds of knowledge” present among Mexican American households and how teachers motivated students to write about the topics such as building and city planning, using parents and other community members as speakers. The researchers and teacher-researchers looked at the ways families develop social networks with their environments and with other households, focusing on how these social relationships can facilitate the development and exchange of resources, including funds of knowledge. The researchers found that these relationships are often reciprocal in that each exchange with kinsmen, friends, neighbors, or teachers results in the development or reinforcement of mutual trust. This trust was established and reinforced as the participants shared in practical activities (e.g., home and auto repair, animal husbandry, music) that constantly provide contexts in which learning can occur (Moll & Greenberg, 1990).

- Develop units and classroom activities that grow out of and speak to student’s interests and cultural backgrounds
- Encourage students to research and document life in their homes and communities
- Choose texts that reflect the cultural and ethnic diversity of the nation
- Incorporate popular culture (e.g. music, film, video, gaming, etc.) into the classroom curriculum



Slide 28

7 Elements of Culturally Responsive Literacy Instruction

6. Instructional Methods

Include both authentic learning activities and instruction in specific literacy skills

Develop personal literacy *and* power-code literacy

NCCREST

6. Instructional Methods – Teachers need to provide students with both authentic literacy activities and a considerable amount of instruction in the specific literacy skills needed for full participation in the culture of power. Literacy skills need to be taught within the context of authentic literacy activities. Teachers need to balance facilitating learning with mediating

learning, providing students with instruction on specific skills.

In a study of the literacy learning of bilingual Latina/o students, Reyes (1991) concluded that students' progress appeared to depend on a higher degree of teacher mediation and scaffolding that their process-oriented teacher felt she should provide. Similarly, Delpit (1988) argued that students of diverse backgrounds are outsiders to the culture of power and deserve to gain a command of conventions and forms of discourse already known to those inside the culture of power. Students need to develop both personal literacy and power-code literacy.



Slide 29

7 Elements of Culturally Responsive Literacy Instruction

7. Assessment

Use forms that eliminate or reduce sources of bias, such as:

- Prior knowledge
- Language and
- Question type

Teachers examine extent to which they label or disable students of diverse backgrounds, as opposed to serving as advocates for them.

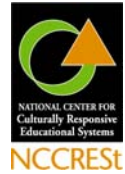
NCCREST

7. Assessment – Teachers need to use forms of assessment that eliminate or reduce sources of bias (i.e. prior knowledge, language, and question type) and more accurately reflect students' literacy achievement. Culturally responsive teachers support the development of alternatives to standardized testing. However, they recognize that innovative approaches to

assessment also have the potential to work to the detriment of students of diverse backgrounds. For example, performance-based assessments tied to standards may not be sufficiently flexible to assess the literacy of Spanish-speaking children. If innovative assessments are high-stakes in nature, poor performance may carry the same negative consequences associated with standardized testing. Culturally responsive teachers recognize that all forms of assessment, whether informal or formal, may incorporate elements of bias.

Teachers need to examine the extent to which they tend to label or disable students of diverse backgrounds, as opposed to serving as advocates for them.

Activity 4: Elements of Culturally Responsive Literacy Instruction



Facilitators Notes:

Materials: Handouts (question sheet), chart paper, dots, stickies, and markers

Part I: Develop possible approaches and/or strategies for each of the CR Literacy Elements

Give each small group a different element of culturally responsive literacy instruction to grapple with. Come up with possible approaches to incorporate into the classroom that would represent a culturally responsive approach for each particular element.

The next part of the activity can be done multiple ways. Two are suggested below (IIa and IIb) based on whether or not the participants have already completed Academy 1.

Part IIa: Review the ideas generated for each element and rate ideas based on Bank's Model for Integration of Multicultural Content.

If you decide to use this option it would be a good idea to review the Bank's model slide from Academy 1.

Groups/participants rotate through each of the element charts and use Bank's model to determine which level of the framework the majority of suggestions/ideas would get a teacher to on the framework (e.g. contributions, additive, transformative, social action). Provide participants with 4 different colored dots, each dot representing a different level of Bank's framework (i.e. Red = contributions, Green = additive, Yellow = Transformative, Blue = Social Action). Have participants read through each element and rate the suggestions using the dot code.

Part IIb: Review the ideas generated for each element.

Groups/participants rotate through each of the element charts to review the ideas generated by other groups. Provide participants with colored dots and stickies. The dots are to be placed on ideas they found particularly interesting. The stickies are to be used to ask questions or make comments regarding any strategies they review. After all the groups have rotated through each of the elements, allow time for individuals to move through all the elements again to capture the comments and notations of everyone in the training.

Part III: Whole group debrief of findings

1. Goal of Instruction

- How do you establish students' ownership of literacy as the overarching goal of the curriculum, while maintaining a systematic instruction in the cognitive processes of reading and writing?
- How do you make literacy personally meaningful and viewed as useful for the student's own purposes?

2. Role of Home Language

- How do you allow students' cultural language to exist in the classroom and build upon this first language to achieve English literacy proficiency?

3. Instructional Materials

- In what ways can you use materials that present diverse cultures in an authentic manner?
- Does the literature accurately depict the experiences of diverse groups?
- How do you increase students' motivation to read, their appreciation and understanding of their own language and cultural heritage, and their valuing of their own life experiences as a topic for writing?

4. Classroom Management and Interaction with Students

- How do you create and adjust classroom environment (organization and management system), which allows for genuine literacy activities where students can feel ownership, where students may learn through collaboration and engage in conversations with rules more like those for everyday talk rather than for classroom recitation?

5. Relationship to the Community

- How do you make stronger links to the community, restructure the power relationships between the school and community, and involve parents and other community members in the school?
- How do you make specific connections to specific communities to which students belong?

6. Instructional Methods

- In what ways can you provide students with authentic literacy activities, while providing instruction in specific literacy skill needed for full participation in the culture of power?
- How do you teach basic literacy skills within the context of authentic literacy activities?

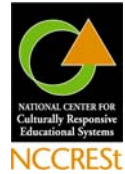
7. Assessment

- What are some strategies you could utilize to prepare and analyze your assessments prior to implementation that would help reduce or eliminate sources of bias and more accurately reflect students' literacy achievement?



Leave Taking

Part 1: Self Assessment



Facilitator Materials

None

Participant Materials

Self Assessment

Activity Purpose

The self assessment provides the participant with an objective means of evaluating the knowledge and skills gained in this academy.

Activity Time Limit

10 minutes

Facilitator Note

None

Activity

Have participants complete the *Self Assessment*. Remind groups that their assessments will be collected for module assessment purposes and they do not need to put their names on the assessments.

Leave Taking, Part 2: Debrief

Facilitator Materials

Chart paper, overhead, or presentation slide

Participant Materials

Self Assessment

Activity Purpose

This activity gives participants a chance to compare their evaluation answers.

Facilitator Note

None

Activity Time Limit

10 minutes

Activity

Return to whole group and ask participants to share their responses. Use an overhead or chart paper to record what they say as a way to highlight new learning, and congratulate the group on their hard work.

Leave Taking, Part 3: Academy Evaluation

Participant Materials

Academy Evaluation

Activity Purpose

This activity provides feedback for developers from module participants.

Activity Time Limit

10 minutes

Facilitator Note

Collect the *Academy Evaluations* and return them to the National Center for Culturally Responsive Educational Systems

Activity

Have participants complete the *Academy Evaluation*. This evaluation gives the module developers a chance to see how the academy is being received and allows them to improve it as needed.

Glossary

Culture: A body of learned beliefs, traditions, principles, and guides for behavior that are shared among members of a particular group.

Cultural racism: Value systems that support and allow discriminatory actions against racially and ethnoculturally marginalized communities.

Cultural responsiveness: The ability to learn from and relate respectfully with people of your own culture as well as those from other cultures. It includes adjusting your own and your organization's behaviors based on what you learn. Cultural responsiveness is not something you master once and then forget... cultural responsiveness is not about trying to change others to be more like you. It is about cultivating an open attitude and new skills in yourself. Cultural responsiveness involves exploring and honoring your own culture, while at the same time learning about and honoring other people's cultures.

Cultural sensitivity: The ability to be open to learning about and accepting of different cultural groups.

Discrimination: To make a difference in treatment on a basis other than individual character; or, behaviors directed towards people on the basis of their group membership.

Diversity perspective: Research that seeks to emphasize a wide range of voices, viewpoints, and experiences, and may seek to include identities of ethnicity, culture, sexuality, gender, age, disability, or a wide range of other perspectives.

Ethnocentrism: To judge other cultures by the standards of one's own, and beyond that, to see one's own standards as the true universal and the other culture in a negative way.

Institutional and structural racism: Racism that systematically deprives a racially identified group of equal access to a treatment in education, medical care, law, politics, housing, etc.

Prejudice: Generalized attitude towards members of a group without adequate prior knowledge, thought, or reason.

Racism: A belief that racial differences produce an inherent superiority of a particular race.

Sexism: The belief in the inherent superiority of one sex (gender) over the other and thereby the right to dominance.

Social privilege: A right or immunity granted to or enjoyed by certain people beyond the common advantage of all others.

Stereotype: Generalized belief about members of a cultural group.



Resources

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