



**K-4 English Language Arts
Menu of Best Practices**
Strengthening Student Educational Outcomes
2023



ENGLISH LANGUAGE ARTS

MENU OF BEST PRACTICES AND STRATEGIES

2023

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WELCOME

Background and Philosophy

In 2013, the Legislature passed the Strengthening Student Educational Outcomes Act ([ESSB 5946](#)) to improve the Learning Assistance Program and K–4 literacy outcomes. It required the [Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction](#) (OSPI) to convene an ELA panel of experts, including the [Washington State Institute for Public Policy](#) (WSIPP), to develop a menu of best practices and strategies for English Language Arts (ELA). The menu content is updated annually and is intended to accelerate student literacy development and performance in K-4. Schools can either use the best practices from the menus or alternative practices that are effective in improving student literacy to provide intensive supports to students who are not meeting ELA goals. These provisions are detailed in RCW [28A.655.235](#). To learn more about this law, please see the [Strengthening Student Educational Outcomes page](#).



This publication contains not only the menu of best practices, but also foundational content describing Washington State’s literacy landscape and other initiatives designed to improve the literacy skills of all students. The practices align to WA ELA and Literacy Standards, and they reflect the work of the National Reading Panel and the National Early Literacy Panel. We have also included a rich set of resources and references for those who wish to further explore the identified best practices.

Washington State Institute of Public Policy (WSIPP)

The 2013 Legislature directed WSIPP to “prepare an inventory of evidence-based and research-based effective practices, activities and programs for use by school districts in the Learning Assistance Program” ([Senate Bill 5034, Section 610](#)). The [WSIPP Inventory of Evidence- and Research-Based Practices: Washington’s K–12 Learning Assistance Program](#) classifies strategies as *evidence-based*, *research-based*, or *promising* based on the average effects of identified interventions, a cost-benefit analysis, and other criteria. Both OSPI and WSIPP consider the two reports as companions. As such, OSPI and WSIPP coordinated their tasks to ensure that the content of both reports were consistent, while still adhering to the unique directives given to each agency.

Both agencies collaborated on identifying topics for consideration as best practices and

strategies. WSIPP Research Associates have contributed as key participants in the expert panel sessions as non-voting members. They provided research references to the panel members, and solicited panel member input regarding effective practices. The two agencies then followed different, complementary processes to identify and classify practices for inclusion in each menu. The identification of best practices and strategies in the OSPI menus was informed by WSIPP's findings and ultimately determined by the expert panel. OSPI included notations indicating whether the practices included in the menu are *evidence-based* or *research-based*, as determined by WSIPP. Additional practices and strategies are included in the menu as *promising* based on the research reviewed by the panel of experts.

Integrated Student Supports (ISS)

ISS promotes students' academic success through a school-based approach. An ISS approach involves "developing or securing and coordinating supports that target academic and non-academic barriers to achievement" (Moore & Emig, 2014, p. 1). Current and emerging evidence suggests ISS has positive effects on student engagement, academic achievement, and social-emotional outcomes (Moore et al., 2017). In addition, ISS models like [Building Assets, Reducing Risks \(BARR\)](#) are associated with educators' increased feelings of self-efficacy and willingness to collaborate (Borman, Bos, O'Brien, Park, & Liu, 2017).

According to Child Trend's [Theory of Change](#), an ISS system enables educators to mobilize both academic (i.e. reading or math interventions) and non-academic (e.g. mental health, medical care, behavior intervention plans, or basic needs support) supports to promote students' academic success and overall health and well-being. Research in the interdisciplinary field of developmental science highlights risks to child development and learning, and offers insight into the protective factors most likely to mitigate those risks. Researchers at Boston College's Center for Optimized Student Support have synthesized these findings into [Principles of Effective Practice for Integrated Student Support](#) to guide implementation of effective systems of student support. There are several different models of ISS, but *integration* is the defining feature. In practice, integration involves aligning various supports to match students' needs and embedding the ISS program into all aspects of the operations of a school (Moore & Emig, 2014).

Washington Integrated Student Supports (WISSP)

In 2016, the Washington state legislature created the [WISSP](#) through [4SHB 1541](#). The bill outlined a set of interdependent strategies for closing educational opportunity gaps, and was based on the recommendations of the State's [Educational Opportunity Gap Oversight and Accountability Committee](#) (EOGOAC). The bill charged the [Center for the Improvement of Student Learning](#) (CISL), within OSPI, with developing the [WISSP](#) and making [recommendations to the Legislature](#) to support implementation in districts across the state.

Multi-Tiered System of Supports (MTSS)



Figure 1. Multi-Tiered System of Supports, from OSPI.

MTSS is a [framework](#) for enhancing the adoption and implementation of a continuum of evidence-based practices to achieve important outcomes for every student. When MTSS is implemented with fidelity, this prevention-based framework ensures that schools create the necessary conditions to systematically integrate academic and nonacademic supports to meet the needs of the whole child. This integration involves coordination of tiered delivery systems, including Academic Response to Intervention (RTI) and Positive Behavioral Interventions and Supports (PBIS),

Pyramid Model, and Social and Emotional Learning (SEL). By integrating these supports, schools may increase the efficiency, effectiveness, and sustainability of their services (McIntosh & Goodman, 2016).

The MTSS framework builds on a public health approach that is preventative and focuses on organizing the efforts of adults within systems to be more efficient and effective. MTSS helps to ensure students benefit from nurturing environments and equitable access to universal instruction and supports that are culturally and linguistically responsive, universally designed, and differentiated to meet their unique needs.

More information and [resources](#) on MTSS implementation can be found on the [OSPI MTSS webpage](#), including the Reading Tiered Fidelity Inventory (R-TFI). The [Reading Tiered Fidelity Inventory \(R-TFI\)](#) helps school leadership teams assess the extent to which the literacy components of MTSS are implemented and guide next steps in their process of continuous improvement (St. Martin et al., 2022).

Content Philosophy (WA State English Language Arts and Literacy Instruction)

Supporting All Students' Language and Literacy Development

Washington's literacy teaching landscape is as diverse as our charter, native, private, and public school districts. OSPI's mission is to provide funding, resources, tools, data, and technical assistance that enable educators to ensure students succeed in our public schools, are prepared to access post-secondary training and education, and are equipped to thrive in their careers and lives.

OSPI and statewide partners work to support literacy instruction by continually revising and improving the supports and systems available for educators to support building students' literacy skills. The *ELA Menu of Best Practices and Strategies* is one of a suite of literacy-focused resources that support the academic standards and supports, listed below.

- [Washington State ELA Learning Standards](#)
- [English Language Proficiency Standards \(ELP Standards\)](#)
- [Dual Language Education](#)
- [Washington State Seal of Biliteracy](#)
- [Asynchronous Bundle on Structured Literacy through MTSS \(Free\)](#)

Vision for English Language Arts and Literacy Education

Learning is a process of leveraging and building upon what we know, and it is therefore essential that literacy instruction connect to students' lives and identities. If we, as educators, are to close opportunity gaps, we must come to know, respect and connect to students' language and literacy repertoires.

Students come to the classroom with a rich range of languages, dialects and communicative practices, or "literacies." These ways with words—as well as other modalities—develop from birth through interaction with others and the world around them.

As children grow and experience environments that are saturated in communication, they develop the literacies that respond to the contexts and situations they encounter. Some of these literacies are closely tied to family and community traditions, such as history and cultural knowledge that are passed through storytelling or music. Others occur at intersections with the many worlds in which children and youth participate—for example, the sports field, places of worship, online multiplayer games, friends, interest groups, social media and school.

Through thoughtfully planned opportunities to learn in school, children can deepen and expand these repertoires to include the complex, critical thinking articulated in the Washington State Standards. To scaffold deep engagement with new concepts and information, teachers need a deep understanding of reading and writing processes, literacy development, critical thinking, and research-based strategies for instruction and assessment. Highly skilled teachers use their knowledge of students, literacy, teaching and learning in flexible ways, creating productive, supportive, linguistically diverse and culturally sustaining learning environments. While a full exploration of these skills is not possible here, the sections below highlight some key features of equity-focused literacy instruction.



Community Cultural Wealth. To achieve a high-quality literacy education for *all* students, *all* educators must be able to work effectively in diverse settings. As educators, we must (at minimum) develop 1) knowledge and constant consideration of the sociopolitical context in which schools are situated and 2) knowledge of and constant responsiveness to our students, families and communities.

Educators must be willing to learn about systemic racism and inequities in the public education system and to develop culturally competent skills and mindsets ([EOGOAC, 2017](#)). Professional learning opportunities aimed at increasing cultural competencies should focus on increasing educators' knowledge of students' cultural histories and contexts; students' cultural norms, values and ways of being/thinking; community resources; and skills for designing instruction that is culturally responsive and sustaining ([RCW 28A.410.260](#)).

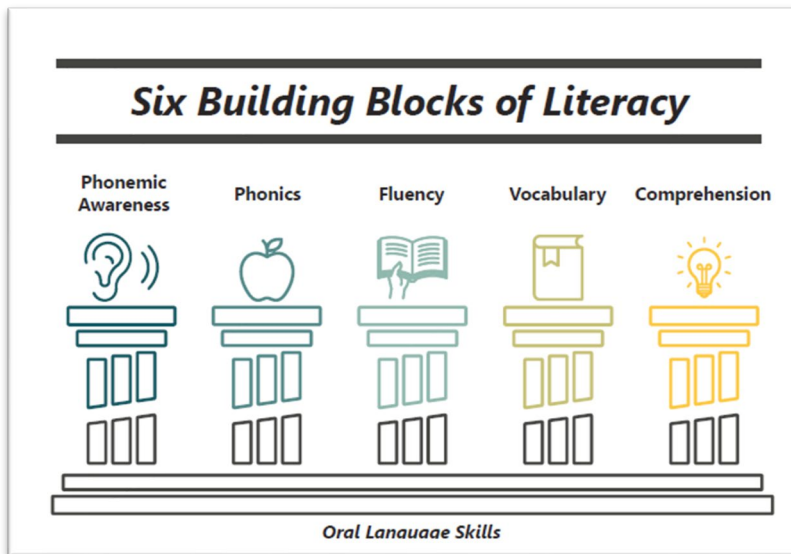
Teaching the whole child. In alignment with Superintendent Reykdal's focus on the whole child, the Washington State vision for literacy education recognizes that social and emotional wellbeing has a significant impact on cognitive and academic development. Moreover, language and literacy learning is both academic and deeply personal. What we ask students to read, write and discuss—as well as how we ask them to do these tasks—is always intersecting with students' identities, emotional states, experiences, and world views.

Effective educators consider students' socioemotional wellbeing across a range of decisions, from arranging the physical environment to the ways in which they cultivate community in the classroom. They also know their students well. By making connections and building relationships with students, educators can foster a safer space in which trust and care can grow. A teacher's

expectations are also crucial. Students try harder when they know someone believes that they can succeed and cares about their success. They also feel more comfortable seeking help in academics and beyond. Positive student-teacher relationships have long-lasting effects on student outcomes.

Science of Reading

OSPI believes the explicit teaching of the following building blocks are anchored in the ELA Standards and the recommendations from the National Panel for Reading and What Works Clearinghouse to ensure [strong early literacy development](#).



A Note About Oral Language and Classroom Talk: The Foundation of Literacy Learning

Language—and, more specifically, oral language—is the foundation of literacy. It is the means through which we learn “higher psychological functions” (Vygotsky, 1978), which is most of what students learn in school. Educational research across the disciplines has revealed the positive impact of scaffolded classroom talk on learning—as well as the consequences of environments in which students do not have these opportunities.

Washington’s communities and schools are linguistically and culturally diverse. Our equity stance maintains that “each student, family, and community possess strengths and cultural knowledge that benefits their peers, educators and schools.” Schools can demonstrate this value by developing a welcoming, multilingual, multicultural environment. Through embracing multiple languages, schools can make space for multiple identities, foster relationships, and begin to build trust with communities that have been historically marginalized in schools and society.

This equity focus should also extend to the classroom. Effective teachers understand that there are cultural differences in children’s literacies, such as ways of participating in a group discussion or ways oral stories are structured. Effective teachers integrate these funds of knowledge into

their teaching so that all students' linguistic and cultural repertoires are seen as having value within the classroom and beyond.

ELA MENU

Overview

The expert panels worked together with the Washington State Institute for Public Policy (WSIPP) to develop a comprehensive menu of best practices and strategies based on the most current evidence and rigorous research available. Panelists referred to the following WSIPP definitions for evidence-based, research-based, and promising practices.

Evidence-based

A program or practice that has been tested in heterogeneous or intended populations with multiple randomized, or statistically controlled evaluations, or both; or one large multiple site randomized, or statistically controlled evaluation, or both, where the weight of the evidence from a systemic review demonstrates sustained improvements in at least one outcome. Evidence-based also means a program or practice that can be implemented with a set of procedures to allow successful replication in Washington and, when possible, is determined to be cost-beneficial.

Research-based

A program or practice that has been tested with a single randomized, or statistically controlled evaluation, or both, demonstrating sustained desirable outcomes; or where the weight of the evidence from a systemic review supports sustained outcomes [. . .] but does not meet the full criteria for evidence-based.

Promising

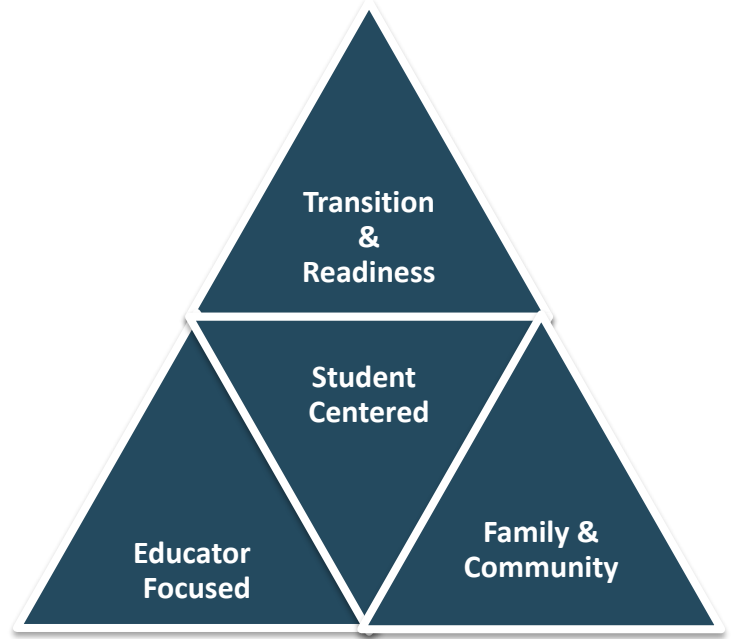
A practice that, based on research evidence, a well-established theory of change, or guidance from expert panels, shows potential for improving student outcomes but does not meet the criteria for classification as an evidence-based or research-based program. The expert panels and WSIPP collaborate to identify promising practices for inclusion in the inventory and the menus.

The English Language Arts menu lists practices and strategies that have been shown to support literacy improvement for students who have not yet met academic benchmarks. It is important to note that the work of the expert panel was to identify proven general practices and strategies, not recommend specifically branded programs that might include those practices. Districts considering adoption of programs or curriculum are encouraged to review the materials for alignment to the WA State K–12 ELA Learning Standards and best practices and strategies outlined in this menu. Schools are also encouraged to use the IMET and EQUIP rubrics to vet

alignment of materials. Any chosen program or curriculum should be evaluated on an ongoing basis to ensure it effectively impacts student achievement.

Menu Organization

The menus have been organized into four broad categories of interventions. Student-centered practices and strategies directly involve the student, like peer tutoring, double dosing, or summer book programs. Educator-focused practices and strategies include activities like targeted professional learning and instructional coaches. Entries in the transition and readiness category are intended to prepare students to engage in learning, transition from middle to high school, and graduate from high school. Family and community practices and strategies include mentoring, family engagement, and P-4 community partners.



ELA Menu at a Glance

<i>Student-Centered Practices and Strategies</i>	
<u>Before-After School Programs</u>	<i>Evidence-based</i>
<u>Summer Book Programs</u>	<i>Promising</i>
<u>Summer School/Programs</u>	<i>Evidence-based</i>
<u>Tutoring by an adult</u>	<i>Research-based</i>
<u>Tutoring by an Intervention Specialist</u>	<i>Evidence-based</i>
<u>Tutoring by a Peer</u>	<i>Evidence-based</i>
<u>Specialized Literacy Instruction for Students Receiving English Learner (EL) Services</u>	<i>Evidence-based</i>
<i>Educator-Focused Practices and Strategies</i>	
<u>Co-Teaching</u>	<i>Promising</i>
<u>Consultant Teacher/EL Coaches</u>	<i>Evidence-based</i>
<u>Consultant Teacher/Instructional Coaches</u>	<i>Evidence-based</i>
<u>Consultant Teacher/Literacy Coaches</u>	<i>Evidence-based</i>
<u>Professional Learning Communities</u>	<i>Promising</i>
<u>Targeted Professional Learning</u>	<i>Evidence-based</i>

Transition and Readiness Practices and Strategies

Kindergarten Transitions

Promising

Family and Community Practices and Strategies

Family Engagement

Promising

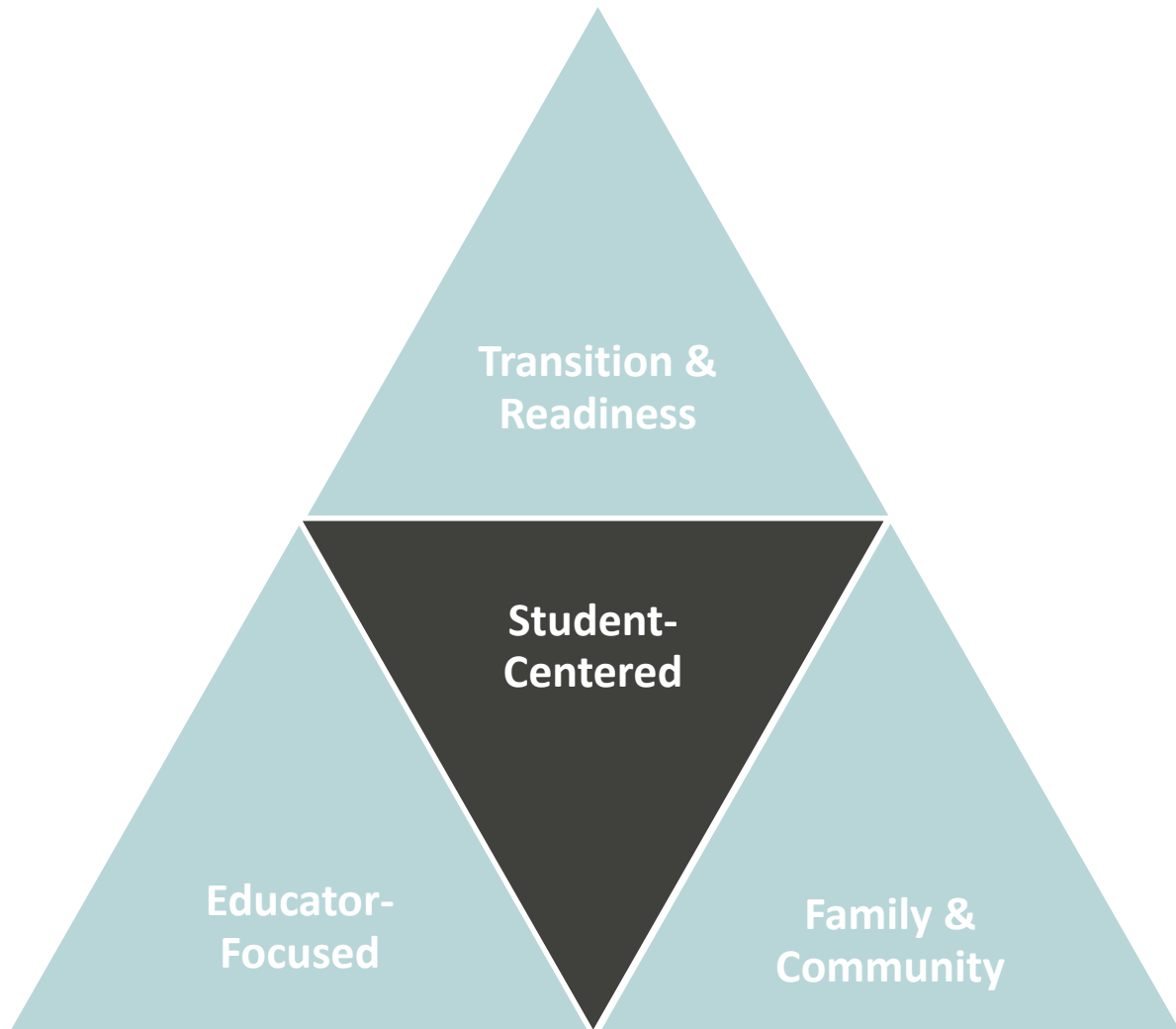
P-4 Community Partnerships

Promising

Community-Based Student Mentors

Research-based

Student-Centered Practices and Strategies



Before & After School Programs

Research emphasizes the importance of high quality out-of-school time learning opportunities for children's academic success in school, as well as their health and well-being. *Out of School Time* (OST) programs can support and promote academics, socialization, sports, and safe environments for children before- and after-school, on Saturdays, and during scheduled school breaks. Programs that focus on emerging foundational literacy skills and on-going speaking, listening, writing, and reading skill development can significantly impact student learning outcomes.

Practice Possibilities—Ideas to Consider When Planning

- Design literacy enrichment activities that incorporate the arts, fitness, and technology, which can motivate student attendance and engagement while impacting literacy skill development.
- Provide targeted interventions before and after school for students who need additional literacy support and provide student transportation home from after-school learning opportunities to ensure students will be able to participate.
- Identify programs within your community that celebrate the backgrounds and cultures of the families and children in your school. Partner with these programs to enroll students and to support home language and literacy skill development.
- Design activities around literacy themes, author’s work, or games. The club could focus on poetry, song writing, singing, and reading.
- Offer clubs before and after school, on Saturdays, and during regularly scheduled school breaks.
- Design project-based learning opportunities for students. Projects incorporate and develop speaking, listening, reading, and writing, while also developing critical thinking and cooperative learning.
- Create project-based, computer-assisted credit retrieval programs for students in grades 11–12 to complete before and after school.
- Partner with district food service and child nutrition providers to provide breakfast, lunch, or snacks to students, while educators focus on literacy skill development. Target shared reading experiences and foundational literacy skill development to support students with feed the body and the mind activities.

Demographic Considerations—Student Factors to Consider When Planning

- Students who have not yet met standard in reading, writing, speaking, and listening benefit from before- and after-school programs that target and offer opportunities for development in those areas.
- Cultural and linguistic interests of students should be part of the design of the program.
- Activities should be age appropriate to engage students beyond the school day.
- Elementary school students need: program time to be consistent throughout the school year and time in program is aligned to student needs.
- Middle school students need: credible/trained staff and programs that are independent from school, yet family connected.

- High school students need: funding collaboration, planning/cooperation from stakeholders, set objectives, connections to community/career readiness, and leadership opportunities.

Strategies for Implementation—Success Factors to Consider When Planning

- Consider students' interests.
- Recruit district-level sponsorship.
- Provide an on-site coordinator.
- Establish sustainable funding.
- Partner with district food service and child nutrition providers to provide healthy snacks.
- Create a positive environment, dedicated to building connections with students.
- Provide training and technical assistance for staff.
- Establish goals with timelines for the program and students.
- Limit staff turnover.
- Align regular-day curriculum and assessment with hands on enrichment activities.
- Use individual/group data to target program design.
- Engage in ongoing progress monitoring.
- Make connections with schools and school day teachers.
- Encourage community involvement.

Resources—Tools for Planning

- [Structuring Out-Of-School Time to Improve Academic Achievement](#)
- [The Evaluation of Enhanced Academic Instruction in After-School Programs Final Report](#)
- After School Alliance: [Literacy Brief & Toolbox](#)
- [Structuring Out-Of-School Time to Improve Academic Achievement](#)
- Effective Out-of-School Time Programs: [Reading Rockets](#)
- Literacy in Afterschool Programs: [SEDL Report](#)
- [21st Century Community Learning Centers](#)
- [School's Out Washington](#)
- [Buck Institute for Education \(BIE\): Project-Based Learning](#)

Supporting Research

In a review of studies on before- and after-school programs, WSIPP found that high-quality out-of-school programs are “evidence based”. Before- and after-school programs take all different shapes and forms. Some schools design and implement opportunities while others connect with external providers. Regardless of the program provider, *Out of School Time* (OST) opportunities can lead to positive outcomes for children and youth, as well as families, communities, and schools (Vandell, 2014).

The [National Center for Time and Learning \(NCTL\)](#) and [UCLA’s Institute for Democracy, Education, and Access \(IDEA\)](#) support *more* and *better* extended learning time and recognize that low-income students generally do not have access to extended enrichment opportunities outside of the typical school day (Del Razo & Renée, 2013). The [National Institute on Out-of-School Time](#) (2009) reports: (1) Quality programs improve school attendance, engagement in learning, test scores, and grades; (2) high-risk students who participate regularly in programs benefit the most; (3) the frequency and duration of participation increase benefits.

Several ELT programs that occur after-school are sponsored by community partners. These programs have many benefits to frequent students and families who participate regularly in after-school programs. Participation reduces stress for parents by knowing that their child is in a supervised activity after-school, and it reduces juvenile crime and accidents (NIOS, 2009).

The design of before- and after-school programs are unique to the schools and communities they serve. One example of an after-school literacy program co-exists with a free YMCA after-school program. This program is free to students and families because over 90 percent of the students qualify for the free and reduced lunch. Annual reports of student progress from 2001–2004 identify nearly 40 percent of participating students achieved more than one year’s growth on reading assessments. Student growth was connected to program attendance records. The primary design of the program focuses on one-on-one tutoring that targeted oral fluency and comprehension (Fleming, 2005).

Another example of a uniquely designed program used a project-based learning (PBL) model. Elementary, middle, and high school students participate in a minimum of four PBL assignments ranging from three to ten weeks throughout the year (Schwalm & Tylek, 2012). The use of PBL provides students with meaningful and authentic learning experiences. By selecting high-interest projects, students are intrinsically motivated to participate in a variety of literacy activities involved in the project. Using PBL during additional after-school learning time helps enhance literacy skills and prepares students for college and career readiness by developing communication, critical thinking, problem solving, and collaboration skills (Schwalm & Tylek, 2012).

Recently, there has been much debate on the placement of core literacy standards in after-school programs. Opponents believe that after-school activities should be designed around enrichment, leadership, arts, sports, and civics (Marten, Hill, & Lawrence, 2014). However, the

Robert Bowne Foundation in New York City has offered quarterly forums for over ten years to support the development of quality OST programs. Through their work, they have concluded that OST programs already support core literacy standards and they recommend more and better partnerships between OST programs and schools to develop systematic strategies (Marten, Hill, & Lawrence, 2014). Focusing on the [CCSS-ELA Habits of Mind](#), OST programs can align the literacy skills necessary for students to be college and career ready while developing their individual skills in leadership, “problem-solving, perseverance, independence, and understanding other cultures” (Marten, Hill, & Lawrence, 2014).

Summer Book Programs

In summer book programs, students can participate from any location during non-scheduled school time. These programs provide students with a choice of reading materials and access to books at home.

Practice Possibilities—Ideas to Consider When Planning

- Use funds to support your summer program by providing new books for students to borrow during the summer. Students select books to borrow and bring back to school in the fall. These books may be used to stock classroom libraries so that independent practice in reading continues throughout the school year.
- Identify community partners to support enrichment summer opportunities for students as an incentive for participating in summer reading activities. National and community partners can provide free books and other incentives for at-risk students.
- Partner with a local library to promote summer reading resources. Provide training opportunities for students and parents to use the library electronic resources to reserve books and search for e-books, audio books, magazines, and movies.
- Establish a summer literacy program that includes books and blogs. Blogging about summer books provides educators an opportunity to formatively assess student comprehension and interact with students. Teachers could be provided a summer teaching stipend to follow up and work with students remotely/electronically during the summer.
- Design a K–2 program using numeracy and social-emotional development-themed books. Provide training for shared-reading opportunities and books for parents to borrow for the summer. Collect the books at the end of the summer during a summer book reading celebration.
- Establish a book mobile program and deliver books to low socio-economic areas. Seek community partners, grants, and volunteers to assist in the design and development of the program.
- Develop a system to mail a book to students every two weeks, and then have staff follow up with a phone call to each student to have a genuine conversation about what they liked about the book. Train staff members or volunteers (adults or high school students) to engage students in phone book talk conversations.

Demographic Considerations—Student Factors to Consider When Planning

Students who struggle with reading and reluctant readers benefit greatly when given a choice of reading materials.

- Students and families where English is not the home language may benefit from reading bilingual books to promote literacy in the home language and English language acquisition.
- Students identified for free and reduced-price lunch programs often have fewer books at home and gain added benefit with access to books.
- Students learning English as an additional language benefit from a mix of leveled books and audiobooks for language development and comprehension.
- All K–4 students benefit from multi-year summer book programs that start in kindergarten and continue for at least three years.
- *Strategies for Implementation—Success Factors to Consider When Planning*
 - Provide multi-year programs designed to accelerate reading growth.
 - Provide easy access to books for students and families.
 - Allow students to self-select books to increase reading motivation.
 - Seek grant funding to provide books for low-income, at-risk students.
 - Engage families as partners.
 - Use reading logs to measure progress toward goals (available online).
 - Collaborate with community libraries.
 - Provide external motivators to help with engagement (e.g., name in local paper or recognition by school board for amount of time spent reading over summer).
 - Read out loud to primary students who are not independent readers.
 - Provide guidance to students as they select books to ensure books are not too difficult.
 - Encourage students to read a wide selection of genres.
 - Create a schedule to open the school library during summer months.
 - Provide families with meaningful strategies and resources that can be carried over and implemented at home, which ensures continuity of summer reading programs throughout the year, after the intervention has concluded.

Resources—Tools for Planning

- OSPI [Summer Programs Presentation](#)
- [Washington State's Summer Reading Program](#)
- Cultivating Readers Family Guide for shared literacy activities.: [English](#) & [Spanish](#)

- Reading Rockets: [Get Ready for Summer!](#) Ideas for Teachers to Share with Families!
- Book Programs: Pizza Hut--[Book It!](#)
- Scholastic app—[Summer Reading Challenge](#)
- Barnes and Noble—[Summer Reading Program](#)
- Reading Rockets [resources for free books](#)

Supporting Research

Based on their review of summer book program studies, WSIPP rated them as “promising.” Research shows that students who do not read in the summer can lose two to three months of reading development, whereas students who do read tend to gain a month of reading proficiency during the same amount of time (Allington & McGill-Franzen, 2003). For decades, summer break has attributed to loss of reading comprehension skills and student academic outcomes in reading. From 1st to 5th grade, summer break can attribute to a loss of up to 1.5 grade levels (Whittingham & Rickman, 2015). Reading just five books over the summer can prevent summer learning loss (Heyns, 1978), and students who participate in multi-year programs show the greatest academic growth (Allington & McGill-Franzen, 2013). Summer book programs promote students’ reading during the days they are not in school. Multiple strategies are starting to emerge to provide students access to books and choice of materials. Some programs hand the books out to students at the end of the regular school year or mail books to students throughout the summer, while other programs have establish digital device checkouts with a multitude of books loaded on the device (Allington & McGill-Franzen, 2013; Mitchell, 2016). Mobile book projects are also becoming more popular and the results of these projects are reducing summer reading loss and inspiring communities (Allington & McGill-Franzen, 2013; Genay, 2015; Groff, S, 2015).

In a study by Allington et al. (2010), elementary students self-selected 12 books each spring for a voluntary summer reading program over three consecutive years. Students who received books in this study “reported more often engaging in voluntary summer reading and had significantly higher reading achievement than the control group....[T]he reading gains of students from the most economically disadvantaged families in the study were found to be larger, perhaps because these students have the most restricted access to books” (p. 422). When students identified for free and reduced-price lunches participated in voluntary summer reading programs, their confidence increased in the classroom and their achievement scores were higher at the beginning and end of the following school year (Whittingham & Rickman, 2015).

In a 2008 summer book program study, 400 students in grades 3–5 displayed significant differences based on their research groups (Blazer, 2011). The research groups included: (1) students were not provided books, (2) students were provided books, (3) students were provided books and fluency scaffolding, and (4) students were provided books with fluency and

comprehension scaffolding. The study resulted in significant differences in the no books and the books with fluency and comprehension scaffolding groups. Black, Hispanic, and low-income students enrolled in the book program study group with both oral fluency and comprehension scaffolding showed average gains of four months of academic growth over the course of three months (Blazer, 2011).

Research suggests the following strategies will help schools develop successful summer reading programs (Allington & McGill-Franzen, 2013; Blazer, 2011, p. 8–9):

- Review oral reading and comprehension strategies at the end of the school year with students individually.
- Review oral reading and comprehension strategies at the end of the school year with both students and parents together.
- Teach parents how to scaffold oral and comprehension activities at home.
- Review book selection activities to ensure books are just right for the reader at the independent reading level.
- Send at least eight books (that match each student’s reading level) home for the summer.
- Open the school library on designated days.
- Establish a bookmobile program.
- Send families packets, postcards, and books at regular intervals.
- Send summer letters with scaffolding skills and reminders.

Research on the impact of digital devices to enhance literacy skills during summer break is still new. Early research has found that adolescents using e-readers have reported changes in attitudes and motivation toward reading, students preferred to read on the e-readers, and reluctant readers are incentivized by using e-readers (Mitchell, 2016). In an 11-week summer book program for 6th grade students, *Nooks* were preloaded with books and checked out to students who struggled to meet grade-level reading outcomes. Two findings stood out in this study: students regularly used and benefited from the imbedded tools in the e-reader, and the e-reader provided more opportunities for reading because of its portability and convenience. Students reported the dictionary as the most used tool because it helped them understand the text and learn new words (Mitchell, 2016).

Many adolescent students prefer to read using a digital device, and teachers can motivate students by incorporating digital devices in reading and writing activities (Fink, 2012). With the added motivation, teachers can guide students to use their digital devices with academic intent to explore their interest and develop their reading, writing, speaking and listening skills with a variety of apps and websites. Multiple websites provide free magazines and grammar games

that can enhance summer reading activities, and various apps have recording tools for speaking activities. For older students, digital devices are becoming more practical based on their daily access to laptops, cell phones, and tablets; digital devices are also becoming more and more accessible to younger students (Fink, 2012).

Summer School Programs

Summer school programs have the potential to accelerate the reading development of students who struggle to read and diminish summer reading loss. Summer programs extend the school year into the summer months and provide enriching opportunities to foster a love of reading and develop speaking, listening, and writing skills. Summer learning loss disproportionately affects low-income students. An academic summer program has the potential to minimize learning loss and result in achievement gains.

Practice Possibilities—Ideas to Consider When Planning

- Create summer school programs that promote a balanced literacy model of reading and allow for student choice.
- Implement literacy summer school programs that affirm students' culture and identity by designing activities and selecting literature reflective of students' cultural backgrounds. If staffing is available, consider running a summer school program in the home language of the students.
- Invite community partners to participate in creating programs, naming, and highlighting their literacy talents.
- Combine literacy summer school programs with other content areas or enrichment opportunities such as Lego robotics, science, math, and theater to create excitement and engagement.
- Create a literacy summer camp focused on a theme. Students can dig into a topic through reading, writing, and talk.
- Create a project-based, computer-assisted ELA credit retrieval summer program for 11th- and 12th-grade students.
- Create a site-based summer school program in locations where students congregate during the summer to increase participation.
- Use funds to purchase classroom libraries for summer school classrooms. These books can be re-distributed to classroom libraries in the fall.

Demographic Considerations—Student Factors to Consider When Planning

- Students from families of poverty may have few or no books at home and will benefit from a summer literacy program.
- Students who are reluctant to read, are building reading skills, or are learning English as an additional language, will benefit from engaging summer literacy opportunities.

- Students who are reading below grade-level proficiency standards and those who have not yet met grade level standards on state ELA assessments benefit from summer literacy programs.

Strategies for Implementation—Success Factors to Consider When Planning

- Keep student/staff ratios small and support targeted interventions for students who have not yet met grade-level standards.
- Align summer instruction to the regular school-year curriculum and the Washington State Learning Standards.
- Provide professional learning to teachers and trained professionals to improve the quality and consistency of instruction in supporting best practices in literacy instruction.
- Hire experienced staff and provide professional learning opportunities.
- Provide differentiated instruction.
- Provide small group instruction and supports (3–6 students).
- Allow for student choice and teach how to select just right books.
- Provide sustained time for independent reading.
- Support connection to core and school-year instructional strategies and content.
- Partner with transportation services and provide transportation to and from summer learning opportunities.
- Partner with district food service and child nutrition providers to provide healthy snacks.
- Provide communication between the program and home, and encourage regular attendance.
- Encourage parents and families to read with their child daily and talk to their children about what they have read.
- Evaluate programs to ensure the summer program is effective at improving and sustaining student outcomes.
- Use observational data, youth, parent, and staff input, and student academic data to evaluate programs.
- Provide summer school opportunities over multiple summers.

Resources—Tools for Planning

- OSPI [Summer Programs Presentation](#)
- Summer Reading Camp [Self-Study Guide](#)

- Reading Rockets: [Get Ready for Summer! Ideas for Teachers to Share with Families!](#)
- Reading Rockets, Colorin Colorado, and LD Online: [Making Reading Relevant: Read, Learn, and Do! \(K–3\)](#)
- [Washington State’s Summer Reading Program](#)
- [Every Child, Every Day](#) by Richard Allington

Supporting Research

A WSIPP review of summer school program studies found that they are “evidence-based”. Research on summer reading loss dates back to the early 1900s (Blazer, 2011). Not only are students who live below the poverty line less likely to participate in summer activities like going to the museum, camp or zoo, they are also less likely to go to the library or bookstore. Summer programs serve multiple purposes for students, families, educators, and communities. These programs are often designed to promote students who have failed or been retained, accelerate learning for students who have not yet met standard, prevent future academic problems, improve student and parent attitudes towards school performance, and provide academic enrichment. Program design should include enrichment activities that are hands-on and foster students’ creativity (Blazer, 2011). Summer learning should also provide different experiences than those provided during the regular school year. Allington (2013) discusses the importance of providing high- quality summer literacy opportunities for students from families of poverty in order to close the reading achievement gap.

Attending school-based, camp, and community programs has been found to be beneficial to students. However, those in low-income households are less likely to participate in these summer enrichment activities (Blazer, 2011). Research indicates over half of the participants in summer programs are white. It further indicates that Black (18 percent), Hispanic (14 percent), Asian (5 percent) and Native American (2 percent) students are poorly represented (Blazer, 2011, p. 4). The design of the summer program must appeal to the diversity of its students and families. Intensive summer intervention strategies, such as small group or one-on-one teaching using an evidence-based curriculum, can be delivered through *well-designed* summer Use observational data, youth, parent, and staff input, and student academic data to evaluate programs.

According to Duffy (2001), summer school programs have the potential to accelerate the reading development of students who struggle with reading. In this particular study by Duffy (2001) of 2nd-grade students in a summer school program, students improved in word identification, fluency, comprehension, perceptions of themselves as readers, attitudes toward reading, and instructional reading levels. This summer school program was designed and implemented according to the constructs of balanced literacy instruction—a short, explicit mini-lesson, independent reading, partner reading, shared reading and interactive read aloud, shared/interactive writing and independent writing. Also included was accelerated teaching and

responsive teaching—small group-guided reading, strategy groups, and conferring with students. Duffy (2001) warns though, that summer school, as a short-term intervention, should not be viewed as a quick fix for all students who struggle with reading. Some students will need ongoing literacy support during the school year to meet grade-level goals and to sustain their summer literacy learning.

Borman's research indicates that summer learning may be the primary intervention through which educators can prevent the cumulative widening of the reading achievement gap (Borman, 2000, p. 24). Local schools and districts should use data to design, develop, and evaluate programs to serve different student groups, including students with disabilities at various grade levels, multiple demographics, and students who are learning English as an additional language. Research conducted by Roderick, et al. (1999) demonstrates that participation in a summer program, in addition to the regular academic school year's curriculum, provides students with at least a short-term gain in standardized test scores (Roderick, Bryk, Jacob, Easton, & Allensworth, 1999). More recently, Kindron & Lindsay (2014), through a meta-analytic review of the research, found that increased learning time programs had a positive effect on students' literacy performance at the elementary school level, and it was especially beneficial for students performing below standard.

Tutoring by an Adult

Adult tutors can be a strong supplement to a comprehensive literacy program. Carefully selected adult tutors can include paraeducators and volunteers. Tutors can provide targeted one-on-one or small-group instruction to meet the specific needs of students. All tutors should receive specialized professional learning to target students' literacy needs.

Practice Possibilities—Ideas to Consider When Planning

- Provide a framework for literacy tutors. The framework will provide a foundation for training, monitor student progress, and will reduce prep time for teachers.
- Provide targeted training for all tutors prior to working with students. Training for tutors should be on-going and aligned to the foundational skills targeted during scheduled tutoring time. Tutor training should also focus on delivery strategies like wait time, student observation, data collection, coaching, correction techniques, etc.
- Partner with local university education departments and ESDs to provide literacy foundational skills training for educators and tutors.
- This is common with students in Dual Language settings learning an additional language. Additionally, instructional strategies to promote oral language practice will benefit comprehension.

Demographic Considerations—Student Factors to Consider When Planning

Students who are reading below grade-level proficiency standards and who have not yet met grade level ELA assessments.

- Students identified as needing additional language development support may receive simultaneous support for language and literacy.
- One-to-one and small group support are an appropriate, effective strategy for students in grade 3–12 who require significant acceleration of growth to meet grade-level standards.
- In dual language settings, students may receive literacy support in either language

Strategies for Implementation—Success Factors to Consider When Planning

- Select a research-based intervention model within a multi-tiered system of support that use individualized, diagnostic assessments to design appropriate developmental lessons for students.
- Provide a setting where distractions and disruptions do not interfere with productive engagement.
- Provide extensive and ongoing tutoring for all tutors that includes observation and correction techniques.

- Recognize that untrained tutors can have negative effects on learning.
- Schedule tutoring time that pairs students who have the greatest needs with the most skilled tutor.
- Provide one-to-one or small group tutoring, consisting of 3–6 students.
- Consider group size when reviewing student outcomes.
- Design and implement a highly structured program where knowledge is constructed from the integration of previously learned and newly acquired skill sets.
- Pair computer-assisted learning programs can be paired with adult tutoring models but should not replace adult tutoring interventions

Resources—Tools for Planning

- [Keys to Effective Intervention](#)
- U.S. Department of Education—[Tips for Reading Tutors](#)
- [Foundational Skills to Support Reading for Understanding in Kindergarten Through 3rd Grade](#)
- [Improving Reading Comprehension in Kindergarten through 3rd Grade](#)

Supporting Research

WSIPP found that adult tutoring programs range from evidence-based to research-based, depending on the structure of the intervention. Research has consistently shown that students benefit from tutoring programs that are *well-designed* and include professional training and coaching centered on the best practices in literacy development (Center for Prevention Research and Development, 2009; Elbaum et al., 2000; Ritter et al., 2009; Shinn, Deno & Fuchs, 2002; Slavin et al., 2011).

Adult tutors must be familiar with concepts associated with the essential components of reading such as: phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension (Birsch, 2005; Erion & Ronka, 2014; Pittman & Dorel, 2014). For example, early literacy tutors should be trained to provide instruction with respect to alphabetic sounds (both consonants and vowels), blending letters, word recognition skills, and decoding unfamiliar words. Moreover, as students' literacy skills develop, tutors must be well versed in strategies to enhance fluency, engage students in dialogue about reading and error correction processes, and support comprehension (Birsch, 2005; Pittman & Dorel, 2014). Both in and outside of the classroom, tutors can play an essential role in supporting literacy learning for students.

Tutoring as an intervention should be provided in addition to regularly scheduled core classroom instruction. Shorter sessions, multiple times a week, are more successful than longer sessions fewer times a week. The desired length of one-on-one tutoring should be 10–15

minutes, and multiple sessions should be at least three per week. The intensity and frequency of the session will allow the students who need more intensive instruction to become proficient in the relevant concept or topic (Allington, 2001; Center for Prevention Research and Development, 2009).

Tutoring can be implemented via a *pull-out* model, wherein the student is removed from the classroom in order to receive extra support or instruction, or via a *push-in* model, wherein intervention is provided by an adult tutor within the classroom itself. All students must have access to core literacy instruction; therefore, all supplemental *pull-out* tutoring models must be provided outside core literacy instructional time.

Very limited research exists in support of the effectiveness of the push-in model of tutoring (Gelzheiser, Meyers, & Pruzek, 1992). *Push-in* tutoring generally is implemented one of two ways. In one approach, the tutor works with an individual or groups of students to help them better learn from the lesson the classroom teacher is giving to the whole class; in another common model, the tutor provides *intensive re-teaching* of targeted lessons (Shanahan, 2008). Both *push-in* and *pull-out* models of tutoring must be targeted and based on student learning data, and aligned carefully to curriculum used by the classroom teacher (Shanahan, 2008). Careful planning and communication between classroom teacher and tutor is key to the effectiveness of literacy tutoring interventions (Shanahan, 2008). A lack of coordination and communication between teacher and tutor has been found to be a common weakness of both the *push-in* and *pull-out* models (Allington, 1994; Davis & Wilson, 1999; Dawson, 2014). Overall, interventions should be designed around evidence-based and reliable diagnostic assessments administered at the beginning of the school year and throughout the intervention program for progress monitoring. Well-designed tutoring programs can improve students' literacy skills. From one-to-one instruction to small group instruction, tutors can accelerate academic outcomes (Hattie, 2012). Through carefully coordinated processes and Multi-Tiered System of Supports, students who require more intensive literacy instruction will develop proficiency (Allington, 2001).

Tutoring by an Interventionist/Specialist

Highly trained literacy interventionists/specialists provide quality literacy instruction that support students who have not yet met LA Standards. Tutoring by an interventionist/specialist is supplemental to core literacy instruction and provides students additional learning time during the school day and during Out-of-School Time (OST) programs with a trained content expert.

Practice Possibilities—Ideas to Consider When Planning

- Flex interventionists' time to start the workday earlier or end after school in order to serve students outside the regular-scheduled school day.
- Create an intervention/enrichment block within the master schedule to serve students who need additional literacy support. Ensure literacy interventionist works with students most at-risk.
- Create opportunities for classroom teachers and interventionist to develop a push-in or pull-out model for targeted literacy intervention support.
- Hire a language learning specialist to support paraeducators and interventionists working with multilingual learners. In a Dual Language setting, hire a bilingual Dual Language specialist to support paraeducators and interventionists working with emergent bilingual students.

Demographic Considerations—Student Factors to Consider When Planning

- Students identified as needing additional language development support may receive simultaneous support for language and literacy.
- One-to-one and small group support are an appropriate, effective strategy for students in grade 3–12 who require significant acceleration of growth to meet grade-level standards.
- In dual language settings, students may receive literacy support in either language.

Strategies for Implementation—Success Factors to Consider When Planning

- Select a research-based intervention model within a multi-tiered system of support that use individualized, diagnostic assessments to design appropriate developmental lessons for students.
- Ensure strategies and programs are evidence-based.
- Align student supports with core content work so students can see the connection across skills.
- For multilingual students in a dual language and non-dual language settings, focus on oral language, academic language, and vocabulary within the literacy intervention.

- Implement a highly structured program where knowledge is constructed from the integration of previously learned and newly acquired skill sets.
- Provide regular, structured opportunities to develop speaking, listening, writing, and reading skills. This is especially important for emergent bilingual students.
- Build students' literacy skills through explicit teaching and modeling of strategies.
- Provide a setting where distractions and disruptions do not interfere with productive engagement. Provide frequent opportunities for shared-reading experiences for students who struggle with literacy skills.
- Establish a continuation of communication with families.
- Adjust teaching to meet students' needs based upon frequent diagnostic progress monitoring assessments.
- Schedule intervention time that pairs expert professionals with students who have the greatest needs.
- Provide frequent and ongoing-targeted professional learning for reading intervention specialists.
- Hire highly trained reading specialists to provide intervention to students struggling to read.
- One-to-one and small group tutoring, consisting of three (3) to six (6) students.
- Effectiveness of outcomes determines group size.

Resources—Tools for Planning

- [Keys to Effective Intervention](#)
- U.S. Department of Education—[Tips for Reading Tutors](#)
- [Foundational Skills to Support Reading for Understanding in Kindergarten Through 3rd Grade](#)
- [Improving Adolescent Literacy: Effective Classroom and Intervention Practices](#)
- [Improving Reading Comprehension in Kindergarten through 3rd Grade](#)

Supporting Research

WSIPP's review found that tutoring by literacy specialists is an "evidence-based" practice. Given what we know about the importance of an effective teacher in supporting student learning, it is perhaps unsurprising that these studies showed stronger gains, on average, than tutoring from non-specialists. Literacy interventionists/specialists working in one-on-one and small-group contexts supplemental to core literacy instruction must be highly trained and pursue continuing

professional learning (Gordon, 2009). If the intent is to accelerate students' literacy development sufficient to close the achievement gap, interventions must be planned such that the teachers who are experts on reading instruction deliver those lessons. Expecting less well-trained adults in the school to provide powerful instruction to the most difficult-to-teach students has little basis in theory or research. Good teaching is adaptive, and interventions require frequent modifications to groupings of students based upon regular progress monitoring results. Literacy interventions should focus on [foundational literacy skills, which](#) include phonemic awareness, oral language (oracy), alphabetic knowledge, phonological awareness, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension (Birsch, 2005; NELP, 2008). In addition to working directly with students, another role of interventionists/specialists should be to work with classroom teachers to identify text at the best reading level for students who struggle to access content area materials. Even as difficult texts are required for students to be college and career ready, it is necessary to have text at the appropriate reading level for students who struggle with reading to scaffold their learning. According to Allington (2001), students need to have access to [engaging] books throughout the day that are at each student's independent reading level. Procedures and routines within a predictable structure are crucial to intervention success; however, no two lessons will be identical because all students are different—even within small groups. Thus, interventionists/specialists need a deep knowledge of content, instructional pedagogy, and the concepts embedded in various practices in order to provide optimal services. Reading interventionists/specialists must be able to draw on their discipline-specific expertise to intentionally select the strategic actions that best match the needs of the specific reader and their learning goals. They must be able to teach for the transfer of skills and strategies necessary for successful classroom achievement.

Peer Tutoring

Peer tutoring involves the formation of same- or cross-age pairs of students who serve as a tutor and tutee in structured partner work. Each pair works to attain a shared goal within an interactive framework that is planned by the teacher. This partner work can be fixed, where the role of the tutor and tutee do not change, or it can be reciprocal, where role alternation occurs. Peer tutoring can provide academic and social benefits for the tutee as well as the tutor. For example, engagement increases when students can access tasks tailored to their strengths and needs. In addition, the one-on-one format allows for relationship-building and immediate feedback. Funds can be used to purchase appropriate instructional and progress monitoring materials needed for tutoring, support peer tutor training to establish instructional routines, and provide on-going teacher monitoring of the tutoring dyads.

Practice Possibilities—Ideas to Consider When Planning

- Use peer tutoring to develop phonemic awareness, phonics and word identification, fluency, vocabulary, comprehension, and spelling.
- Identify a site coordinator to work with educators to develop structured peer tutoring routines.
- Develop a training manual and/or anchor posters about tutoring routines to provide guidance and support for peer tutors.
- Schedule regular time for the site coordinator to train educators to establish peer tutoring routines and to model and observe these routines with students.
- Identify peer tutors that are in higher grades than prospective tutees when using a cross-age tutoring model. In general, peer tutors should have equal or higher skill sets than prospective tutees.
- Obtain evidence-based instructional materials and progressing monitoring materials for use within peer tutoring arrangements.
- Schedule peer tutoring time for 35 minutes on three to four days each week for elementary students.
- Schedule peer tutoring time for 35 minutes five times over the course of two weeks for high school students.
- Schedule a regular time for teachers to train peer tutors and provide guidance by designing an easy to follow template for tutors.

Demographic Considerations—Student Factors to Consider When Planning

- Students in elementary, middle, and high school can benefit from peer tutoring arrangements (Jones, Ostojic, Menard, Picard, & Miller, 2017).

- Peer tutors and tutees benefit from peer tutoring arrangements.
- K–1 students benefit most from phonological awareness, decoding and fluency practices with focus on word level reading skills, word attack, word identification, and spelling activities.
- Students identified as needing additional language development support, such as emergent bilinguals, may need more practice with oral fluency, phonemic awareness, phonics, reading fluency, vocabulary, comprehension and background knowledge.
- Peer tutoring can be implemented in whole class (all students in the class are working in tutoring pairs) or single dyad configurations.

Strategies for Implementation—Success Factors to Consider When Planning

- Consider the following to foster high academic achievement (Chau Leung, 2015):
 - Selecting participants from high school will be most effective, followed by post-secondary, elementary, and kindergarten
 - Selecting tutees that have high ability, followed by those with low, average, and mixed ability levels
- Conduct initial training of educators to implement peer tutoring using tutoring routines, tutor-tutee partnership monitoring, and progress monitoring data collection.
- Conduct initial training of tutors on the following:
 - Support targeted skill development (e.g., phonemic awareness) and implement the use of any instructional materials with fidelity (e.g. phonemic awareness).
 - Utilize data collection tools for progress monitoring.
 - Use tutoring strategies (e.g., how to respond with structured prompt, how to provide praise and error corrections).
 - Model study skills, communication skills, work habits, questioning skills, and other helpful academic behaviors.
 - Maintain confidentiality regarding tutee performance. Do not form competing teams (Chau Leung, 2015).
 - Obtain teacher support during tutoring arrangements based on a decision-making protocol.
- Match tutors and tutees with considerations given to reading skills sets, interpersonal skills, and gender (Chau Leung, 2015).
- Provide all teaching materials in an organized manner to each peer tutor.

- Provide templates for peer tutors to record daily activities.
- Participate in at least one tutoring session with each peer tutoring dyad at least one time per week. Assist in optimizing the peer tutoring experience.
- Incorporate a motivation system for students to use during peer tutoring time.
- Provide tangible rewards to support achievement (Chau Leung, 2015).
- Engage parents in the tutoring process (Chau Leung, 2015)

Resources—Tools for Planning

- [Council for Learning Disabilities: Peer Tutoring](#)
- [Peer Tutoring Resource Center](#)
- Kids as Reading Helpers— [A Peer Tutor Training Manual](#)
- Provided feedback—[Austin’s Butterfly: Building Excellence in Student Work](#)
- Edutopia—[Analyzing Student Work: Using Peer Feedback to Improve Instruction](#)
- The Teaching Channel—[ELL Peer-to-Peer Tutoring](#)
- [Education Leadership Video with Nancy Frey: Peer Teachers](#)

Supporting Research

According to Zeneli, Thurston, & Roseth (2016), peer tutoring is a form of cooperative learning and can be implemented through peer-assisted learning, reciprocal peer tutoring, and cross-age tutoring. In a meta-analysis, same-age reciprocal peer tutoring was identified as being to be the most beneficial arrangement for peer tutoring followed by cross-age fixed role peer tutoring (Zeneli, Thurston, & Roseth, 2016). Tutoring is a versatile practice and can occur in alternative programs, resource rooms, before/after-school settings, during summer arrangements, and in general education classrooms (Bowman-Perrott, et. al., 2013).

Peer tutoring is effective across multiple demographics of students (Bowman-Perrott, et. al., 2013). The benefits of peer tutoring include improved social emotional outcomes (e.g. self-efficacy and confidence). Peer tutoring also improves student time on task and pacing by providing students with timely feedback and more opportunities to respond/participate (Shenderovich, Thurston, & Miller, 2015; Bowman-Perrott, et. al., 2013). Fuchs & Fuchs (2005) have found that reading skills improve when students cooperatively work together using well-designed routines. Peer tutoring is especially effective at improving peer relationships, personal development, and motivation (Topping, 2008). Hattie notes research demonstrates that peer tutoring has numerous benefits for both the tutor and tutee (Hattie, 2009).

Peer-assisted learning is appropriate for all students and is often targeted at students in grades K–6 (What Works Clearinghouse, 2012). Students work together on literacy activities. Peer-

assisted learning generally partners students based on literacy skill/ability levels (e.g., proficient students with non-proficient students) and students take on assigned roles of tutor or tutee (What Works Clearinghouse, 2012). When implementing peer tutoring arrangements, practitioners should combine organized structures, foundational skills in reading instruction, partner reading with story retelling, summarizing text (paragraph shrinking), making predictions (prediction relay), and group-reward contingencies to experience positive results (Gersten et al., 2007; Fantuzzo & Rohrbeck, 1992; What Works Clearinghouse, 2012).

Reciprocal peer tutoring (RPT) is an intervention strategy in which students alternate roles between the tutor and the tutee. RPT has a structured format where “students prompt, teach, monitor, evaluate, and encourage each other” (Fantuzzo, King, Heller, 1992, p. 332). RPT learning opportunities can be used to increase the learning time and opportunities within the classroom. This peer-tutoring model combines self-management methods, group reward possibilities, and promotes academic and social aptitude (Fantuzzo & Rohrbeck, 1992). Whenever RPT is used, keeping the group small is important. The lead teacher, or lead tutor, should determine the selection of tutoring groups based on the goal of the activities and the daily schedule (Gersten et al., 2007; Fantuzzo & Rohrbeck, 1992).

Cross-age peer tutoring consists of older students, college/university students, and community volunteers who work with tutees; tutors are not certificated educators, but they are part of the tutees community (Shenderovich, Thurston, & Miller, 2015).

Research on peer tutoring in grades K–6 can be effective at improving student literacy outcomes. Based on Fuchs & Fuchs research and partnerships with the Center on Accelerated Student Learning (CASL), five conclusions can be drawn (2005):

1. Content for kindergartners and fluency building in 1st grade should be directed at younger students.
2. Teachers can implement peer tutoring in the classroom to impact reading instruction and skills.
3. Research supports positive and robust results in literacy outcomes for all students: low, middle, and high performers including students with special needs, English language learners, and free and reduced-price lunch populations.
4. No one pedagogical best practice reaches 100 percent of students; therefore, 10–20 percent of students will need additional academic supports.
5. Narrowing the focus on specific skill development during peer tutoring is recommended.

Specialized Literacy Instruction for Students Receiving English Learner (EL) Services

Many students can benefit from specialized literacy instruction, however, because multilingual students are learning two or more languages, they require specialized instruction. Specialized literacy instruction for multilingual students relies on assessment-based planning to differentiate and individualize student literacy instruction based on the student's language and literacy needs.

Practice Possibilities—Ideas to Consider When Planning

- Train all staff in language and literacy strategies to support multilingual students' language development.
- Develop language and content objectives for each lesson and explicitly share with students.
- Use the English Language Proficiency (ELP) standards to provide meaningful access to content for multilingual students.
- Implement a two-way dual language program to build upon the students rich language resources.
- Whenever possible, hire biliterate teachers who specialize in both language development and literacy.

Demographic Considerations—Student Factors to Consider When Planning

- English Learner is a classification that encompasses a wide range of English language proficiency. Identify the EL's proficiency level and use the Achievement Level Descriptors to understand the student's English language skills.
- Students with EL designation for more than five years (sometimes referred to as "long-term English Learners") need to have specifically designed, rigorous language and literacy instruction to address the academic gaps that they have accrued.
- Multilingual students who are dual-served with English learner and special education supports benefit academically when there is intentional, systematic collaboration between the classroom teacher, language and literacy specialist, and special education teacher.
- Multilingual students come from a variety of rich cultural and linguistic backgrounds and benefit from primary language development and scaffolds to develop literacy in English.

Strategies for Implementation—Success Factors to Consider When Planning **Scaffolds and instructional strategies**

- Use songs, chants, rhymes, poems, texts with repetitive frames and read-alouds to facilitate phonemic awareness, the practice of language structures, and develop content knowledge.
- Use realia (objects or activities that bring real life to classroom learning), visuals, non-verbal support, and highly contextualized text to develop comprehension and academic vocabulary.
- Engage students in learning activities that build background knowledge and that make personal connections to the text.
- Focus phonological awareness instruction on English phonemes that are not present in the student's native language.
- Use anchor charts to support oral and written discourse.

Structures of academic language

- Explicitly teach English academic vocabulary and language skills.
- Provide ample opportunities for multilingual students to use, and be exposed to, new vocabulary through authentic task-based practices that foster comprehension and skill transfer.
- Deconstruct complex text and focus student's attention on grammatical and rhetorical structures to develop academic language.
- Explicitly teach metacognitive, cognitive, social, and affective strategies to support academic growth.
- Create opportunities for guided oral language practice with peers and adults who can model content-based discourse, participate in storytelling, and question-of-the-day oration activities.
- Provide multilingual students with opportunities to practice literacy strategies using age-appropriate, high interest texts that align with the student's language proficiency level.

Making connections to primary language

- Allow students to negotiate meaning and clarity in primary language.
- Use the students home language to promote learning, this includes using native language texts, primary language thinking partners, and scaffolds to build English literacy skills.
- Use cognates, words with the same linguistic origins, from the student's native language when teaching vocabulary.

- Use a holistic, well-rounded, approach to literacy and assess students' literacy in all their languages (when possible) to identify gaps for targeted instruction.
- Use authentic texts written in your students' languages.
- Use literacy materials that are designed to support both language development and literacy.
- Develop metalinguistic charts with students to identify similarities and differences between English and the students' languages and dialects. Focus lessons on language differences will facilitate cross-linguistic transfer.

Resources—Tools for Planning

- Institute of Education Sciences/Southwest Regional Educational Laboratory: [Teaching Academic Content and Literacy to English Learners in Elementary and Middle School](#) and the [Professional Learning Communities Facilitator's Guide for Teaching Academic Content and Literacy to English Learners in Elementary and Middle School](#) with [handouts and videos](#).
- OSPI Online Professional Learning to Support Multilingual Students: [Academic Language Toolkit](#); [Dual Language Toolkit](#); [Funds of Knowledge](#) and [Home Visits Toolkit](#); and [English Language Proficiency \(ELP\) Standards](#) with correspondences to K–12 ELA, Mathematic, and Science Practices, K–12 ELA Standards, and 6–12 Literacy Standards. The 10 ELP Standards are designed for collaborative use by English as a second language (ESL)/English language development (ELD) and content area teachers in **both** English language development and content-area instruction.
- [Achievement Level Descriptors \(ALDs\)](#): ALDs describe what a student can do in relation to skills measured by and demonstrated on ELPA21. The ALDs are intended to be used by educators in personalizing instruction and interventions to meet the individual needs of the learner.
- U.S. Department of ED: The [English Learner Toolkit](#) is designed to help local education agencies meet their legal obligations to multilingual students who qualify for EL services and provide them with the support needed to attain English language proficiency while meeting college- and career-readiness standards. The [Newcomer Toolkit](#) is designed to help U.S. educators, elementary and secondary teachers, principals, and other school staff who work directly with immigrant students—including refugees and asylum seekers—and their families).
- Professional learning modules and [Guiding Principles for Dual Language Education](#); [Center for Applied Linguistics](#)

- Resources and tools for developing multilingual students' literacy skills; [Center for Teaching for Biliteracy](#)
- [Professional learning modules](#) about language learning and [tools](#) to build classroom-based assessments in the student's native language; [Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition](#)
- [Understanding Language: Research and Teaching Resources for Language, Literacy, and Learning in the Content Areas](#)
- [Colorín Colorado: Strategies, ideas, recommendations, resources, videos, and news from the ELL field.](#)

Supporting Research

Specialized literacy instruction for multilingual students provides a framework for instructional design and collaboration to support them through the complexity and increased cognitive load of learning two language registers (Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007) and becoming proficient in English. Students who qualify for EL services have typically acquired their primary language and literacy skills in a language other than English. These students encounter greater challenges in school because they are faced with the challenge of simultaneously acquiring English and learning academic content. Without adequate support, these challenges lead to lower high school graduation rates for students in EL programs as compared to their peers who do not qualify for these services. (<http://www.k12.wa.us/DataAdmin/Dropout-Grad.aspx>). To address this challenge, educators need to understand the different levels of language acquisition within oral and language domains.

To the greatest extent possible, students' primary language and cultural background should be integrated into instructional practices to enhance comprehension and conceptual development. When feasible, bilingual instruction programs should be offered to strengthen students' literacy skills in both English and their primary language. Recommendations for success for secondary English learners also highlight the importance of student identity, identity groups, and the creation of a community of learners (i.e., [Funds of Knowledge](#)) (Faltis & Coulter, 2008; Flores-Gonzalez, 2002; Walqui, 2000).

Recognizing native language skills as an asset is fundamental to designing effective literacy instruction for multilingual students. Assessing the student's native language literacy opens the door to using and developing these skills as they transfer to and can accelerate learning in English (Escamilla et al., 2013; Rolstad, Mahoney, & Glass, 2005). Educators can use students' home language to support academic learning even when instruction is primarily in English. This results in both academic and non-academic benefits in the classroom (Goldenberg, Hicks, & Lit, 2013). Additionally, when native language scaffolds are used, multilingual students develop greater brain density in areas related to language, memory, and attention which increase comprehension in English (Moughamian, Rivera, & Francis, 2009). When students learn to read

in their home language, it benefits them as they learn to read in English (Goldenberg, 2013). Research has shown that instruction in the essential elements of reading will have a greater impact on decoding and fluency for multilingual students than on comprehension (August & Shanahan, 2006; Lesaux, Crosson, Kieffer, & Pierce, 2010) requiring intentional oral language support to develop this critical aspect of literacy. Difficulties with reading comprehension compromise learning academic language and can lead to achievement and opportunity gaps for multilingual students beginning as early as mid-elementary (Genesee, Lindholm-Leary, Saunders, & Christian, 2006; Thomas & Collier, 2002).

Providing instruction in oral language development in the student's native language and English builds a foundation and a bridge for the student's English literacy development (Beeman & Urow, 2013). As multilingual students are learning phonemes in their native language and in English, they benefit from increased time and instruction focused on phonological processing. Providing instruction on the similarities and differences in discourse structures in English and in the student's native language enables the EL to effectively transfer their native literacy skills to English literacy skills (August & Shanahan, 2006).

Educators must be aware of how oral language and literacy skills develop across different contexts (both in and out of school) as well as across the different academic content areas. Language proficiency levels vary greatly, both across grade levels as well as within the same age/grade level. Given these understandings, educators need to create learning environments where students are taught and have opportunities to use the content and academic vocabulary of the grade level curriculum (Gottlieb & Ernst-Slavit, 2014). EL students need ample opportunities for listening and speaking in the target language, and they require learning opportunities that integrate language across subject areas, thus increasing both depth and frequency of language use (Saunders, et al., 2013).

As multilingual students in the early grades are learning the foundational literacy skills alongside their native English-speaking peers, they are simultaneously developing the vocabulary, syntax, and constructs of an entirely new language system. As Pauline Gibbons notes, "many approaches and mainstream reading programs do not take into account the needs of multilingual students, since most are based on the assumption that learners are already familiar with the spoken form of the language" (2009, p. 83). For this reason, developing literacy with multilingual students must take into account the development of the student's oral language skills in English. Oral language is a foundational literacy skill. For literacy development, research has shown that reading interventions have a minimal effect when time spent on oral language is not part of the intervention. A study by Klingner and Vaughn (1996) indicated "children with the potential to benefit most from the [reading] intervention had some initial reading ability and fairly high levels of second-language oral proficiency" (In August, et al., 2008, p. 163).

With close collaboration between the EL specialist and the classroom teacher, design language and content objectives for each lesson and explicitly share them with students (Echevarría, Vogt,

& Short, 2012) to magnify the connection between language, literacy, and content knowledge. Provide students opportunities to communicate orally about content in English to foster listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills (Lesaux, Crosson, Kieffer, & Pierce, 2010). To further support comprehension and skill transfer, provide multilingual students with context-embedded instruction and authentic task-based practices (Lightbown & Spada, 2006).

Models of Instruction

Strategies to support multilingual students are implemented in a variety of ways. Instructional models and programs can be implemented as English-only or dual language models. English-only models include *structured immersion* and *sheltered instruction* and are often used when EL student demographics in a building represent multiple languages. English-only models decrease the amount of native language supports as students develop their English language skills (Moughamian, Rivera, & Francis, 2009). Strategies in English-only programs include the use of background knowledge, graphic organizers, sentence frames, anchor charts, gestures, pictures, multi-media, and hands-on, interactive learning activities to develop academic skills and to build content knowledge (Goldenberg, 2013; Moughamian, Rivera, & Francis, 2009). It is important to note that students in English-only programs can receive directions and support in their primary language as they work to develop their English language skills.

Bilingual models consist of *dual language* and *transition bilingual* models. These models differ in “intensity and length of time in which students participate” (Moughamian, Rivera, & Francis, 2009, p. 7). The most effective bilingual model of instruction for multilingual students is to implement a two-way dual language program — classrooms with 50 percent of students who are strong in one language and 50 percent who are strong in the other. This model leverages students’ bilingual assets, develops biliteracy for all students, and produces the strongest long-term academic outcomes for multilingual students and their English monolingual peers (Swenson & Watzinger-Tharp, 2012; Thomas & Collier, 2002). Since students in dual language programs are learning in two languages, their literacy trajectory at 3rd grade is slightly slower in developing than peers in English-only instruction. However, in 5th grade and beyond, multilingual students in dual language programs outperform their peers on academic assessments in English (Escamilla et al., 2013; Genesee, Lindholm-Leary, Saunders, & Christian, 2006; Swenson & Watzinger-Tharp, 2012; Thomas & Collier, 2002).

Similar results were reported in a recent longitudinal study of the dual language programs in [Portland Public Schools](#) where students had an average of seven months of additional reading skills in 5th grade and an additional nine months in 8th grade compared to their peers who received English-only instruction.

Both English-only and bilingual models focus on using effective instructional strategies. These strategies overlap with what is effective for all students and focus on (Moughamian, Rivera, & Francis, 2009; Goldenberg, 2013; Saunders, et al., 2013):

- Oral language development

- Cooperative learning
- Explicit literacy instruction
- Differentiated instruction
- Actionable feedback
- Graphic organizers to support comprehension
- Academic language
- Background Knowledge

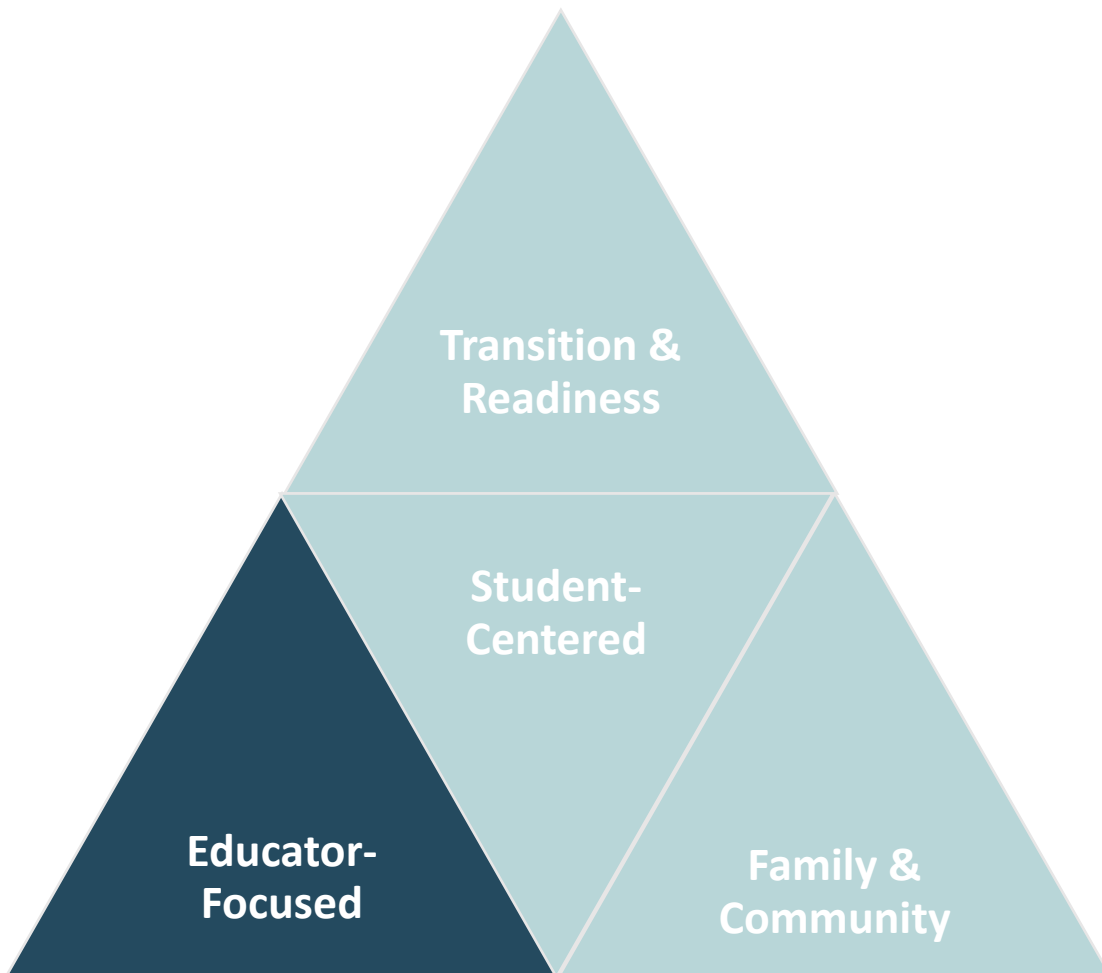
Studies show that students in both English-only and dual language models benefit from additional time focused on explicit language instruction, specifically time devoted to listening and speaking increases oral language proficiency (Saunders, et al., 2013). When deciding which model to implement, “decision-makers should look both at the language of instruction (i.e., bilingual or English-only), and at an instructional program’s specific elements to ensure that multilingual students receive the optimal instruction to facilitate their English language and literacy development as well as their academic success” (Moughamian, Rivera, & Francis, 2009, p. 22). When schools and districts focus on academic success goals for multilingual students, they have higher levels of student achievement (Saunders, et al, 2013).

Resources—Tools for Planning

- Harvard: Harvard Family Research Project, [A Dual Capacity-Building Framework for Family-School Partnerships](#), and [Harvard edX—Introduction to Family Engagement in Education](#)
- National Network of Partnership Schools: Dr. Joyce Epstein, [Six Types of Involvement: Keys to Successful Partnerships](#) and [PTA National Standards for Family-School Partnerships Assessment](#)
- OSPI: [WA State Title I, Part A website](#), [Funds of Knowledge and Home Visits Toolkit](#)
- REL: Toolkit of Resources for Engaging Families and the Community as Partners in Education [Part 1](#), [Part 2](#), [Part 3](#), [Part 4](#)
- [National Association for the Education of Young Children: Engaging Diverse Families Project](#)
- [Washington State Family and Community Engagement Trust](#)
- [High Expectations](#)
- [Washoe County School District and University of Nevada Reno Cooperative Extension: Literacy Tip Sheets for families](#)

- [Colorin Colorado](#): resources offer tips on helping your child learn to read, succeed in school, and learn a new language. They also provide information about the U.S. school system and share ideas on how to build a relationship with your child's teacher and school.

Educator-Focused Practices and Strategies



Co-Teaching

As a pedagogical strategy, co-teaching arrangements consist of two certified educational professionals in one classroom. As a partnership, co-teaching is designed to enhance access to core grade-level instruction for all students. Generally, co-teaching partnerships consist of a general education educator and a certified specialist.

Practice Possibilities—Ideas to Consider When Planning

- Partner a language learning or bilingual specialist or special education teacher with a grade-level or content-based teacher (K–12) to co-plan, co-teach, co-assess, and reflect on students' literacy skills.
- Collaborate with grade-level teams in support of integrating best practices for English learners and students with disabilities or students with dual services (e.g., special education and language support).
- Create a flexible collaboration time for educators to partner for the entire day or for a designated block of time during the day.
- Support a variety of co-teaching arrangements for the literacy block, such as pairing a classroom teacher with a language learning specialist, speech and language therapist, media specialist, gifted and talented/highly capable teacher, or special education teacher.
- Partner a first-year teacher with a veteran teacher who can also mentor and support the new teacher as they co-plan, co-teach, co-assess, and reflect together.
- Provide co-teachers with a coach to support their co-teaching partnership.

Demographic Considerations—Student Factors to Consider When Planning

- Students learning English as an additional language benefit from the additional linguistic, academic, and socio-emotional support.
- Students with disabilities who are in a push-in or inclusion model benefit from access to core literacy instruction.
- Students in low-performing demographics subgroups benefit from additional differentiation and support in literacy instruction.

Strategies for Implementation—Success Factors to Consider When Planning

- Provide training on co-teaching model.
- Provide adequate planning time for co-teacher to plan together (co-teaching requires more planning than solo teaching).
- Establish collaborating norms and strategies.
- Require agreement and openness to participate.
- Establish systematic and periodic feedback and evaluation of the model.
- Develop strong co-teaching working relationships.
- Provide coaching, administrative support, and needed resources to co-teaching partners.

- Develop effective strategies to assess the effectiveness of the co-teaching partnership.

Resources—Tools for Planning

- University of Minnesota—[What is Co-Teaching?](#)
- [6 Models of Co-Teaching](#)
- [Co-Teach America](#)
- [Self-study for Implementing Early Interventions](#)

Supporting Research

Co-teaching originally started as a practice designed to provide students with disabilities access to grade-level core instruction by partnering a special education teacher with a general education teacher (Friend, 2016). Co-teaching can also be successful when partnering with a Language Learning Specialist with general education teachers (Beninghof & Leensvaart, 2016; Honigsfeld & Dove, 2016). Co-teaching partnerships that include a teacher who specializes in and focuses on meeting the needs of students who have not yet met ELA Standards can benefit student educational outcomes.

Villa, Thousand, and Nevin (2013) define co-teaching as “two or more people sharing responsibility for teaching all of the students assigned to a classroom.” While Friend (2014) provides a slightly different definition, defining the arrangement as being dependent on the characteristics of the students’ individual needs and the services provided. According to Friend, a co-teaching arrangement would include a general education teacher and an educator with specialization for students who struggle. Examples might include a special education teacher, a Language Learning Specialist, a speech and language therapist, a media specialist, or a teacher of gifted and talented/highly capable students.

The benefits of co-teaching reach further than student academic growth. As a result of co-teaching, educators who participate in this partnership tend to reflect more on individual instructional strengths and areas for improvement with their co-teaching partner, thus improving their educational practices (Chanmugam & Gerlach, 2013; Simmons & Magiera, 2007). In addition, co-teaching improves instructional practices through its in-depth, all-inclusive, collaborative approach that improves teacher effectiveness (Chanmugam & Gerlach, 2013; Beninghof & Leensvaart, 2016). Educator relationships are enhanced by bringing equal value to the individuality that each educator brings to the classroom (Friend, 2016).

Co-teaching partners can take six different approaches in the classroom (Friend, 2016; Honigsfeld & Dove, 2016):

1. **Station Teaching:** Each teacher works at a station while students rotate through teacher guided and independent areas. Each teacher will work with every student as students rotate through the stations.

2. **Parallel Teaching:** Working in two groups, teachers present instruction in different ways using different strategies.
3. **Alternative Teaching:** One teacher teaches whole group while the other teacher pulls small groups for re-teaching, pre-teaching, enrichment, etc.
4. **Teaming:** Teachers co-instruct the lesson together.
5. **One Teach, One Assist:** One teacher leads whole group instruction while the other moves around the room re-directing student behavior, re-explaining directions/concepts, and answering questions individually.
6. **One Teach, One Observe:** While one teacher leads whole group instruction, the other teacher collects observational and formative assessment data.

For students, the benefits of co-teaching re-emphasize students' right to specially designed instruction, recognizing multiple instructional strategies are needed for all students to be successful. For students learning English as an additional language, co-teaching allows students to stay in the class with their native-speaking peers instead of being pulled out and segregated for language instruction (Beninghof & Leensvaart, 2016). Co-taught classrooms "aim to create a classroom culture of acceptance, in which learning variations and strategies to address those variations are the norm" (Friend, 2016, p. 21). Because of its positive results in achievement gains, most notably in language arts and reading, co-teaching is recommended at both the elementary and the secondary level (Simmons & Magiera, 2007).

Researchers have determined that co-teaching is a promising pedagogical strategy applicable to all students, with and without academic difficulties (Simmons & Magiera, 2007). Co-teaching, as defined above, is a viable model that will intensify instructional practices, provide access to core literacy instruction, and increase student achievement in ELA for all students. While this practice has been explored in the context of providing services for students identified for special education for over 30 years, a recent resurgence of interest has been the result of current reform demands. Research supports that co-teaching improves instructional practices with its in-depth, all-inclusive, collaborative approach to improve teacher effectiveness (Chanmugam & Gerlach, 2013), and specially designed instruction can be embedded in every co-teaching approach (Friend, 2016).

Ongoing, long-term professional learning is necessary to enhance the effectiveness of coaching. "Simply placing two educators together in a classroom does not result in effective co-teaching" (Beninghof & Leensvaart, 2016, p. 71). Establishing a framework for co-planning can help teachers effectively come together as they co-plan, co-teach, and co-assess. For example, one co-planning framework includes three phases for instructional planning (Honigsfeld & Dove, 2016):

Phase 1: Pre-Planning is completed separately. Each educator reviews and plans for the learning

targets and standards, possible content and language objectives, materials, resources, and learning tasks.

Phase 2: Collaborative Planning is done completely together. Co-teachers come together with their pre-planning ideas in an agreed-upon meeting (e.g., face-to-face, by phone, Skype, etc.). During this meeting, educators confirm targets, standards, objectives, etc., and they discuss how they will co-teach the lesson. They also identify challenging concepts and skills students will face.

Phase 3: Post-Planning is completed separately. After establishing roles and responsibilities, each teacher follows through on assigned tasks for the lesson (e.g., scaffolding activities, prepping stations, finding materials, etc.).

The roles of the teachers are shared and lessons are planned based upon the identified needs of the students. Co-teachers take on various roles, from partner teaching the same lesson to teaching the same lesson using different strategies.

Consultant Teacher/Coaches: Dual Language (DL) and English Language (EL) Support

EL and DL coaches work with classroom teachers to maximize student learning and achievement for students learning English as an additional language, or learning multiple languages simultaneously through a dual language model. EL and DL coaches can provide professional learning and coaching in language and literacy acceleration to meet ELA Standards and across content areas to support the language learning needs of students. EL and DL coaches can work with educators to effectively impact student outcomes for students who have not yet met ELA Standards.

Practice Possibilities—Ideas to Consider When Planning

- Establish a coaching model for your school/district with a system to identify areas for language learning growth and receive individual/team coaching.
- Provide coaching for language proficiency standards across content areas, throughout the day (e.g., coach models use of strategy during literacy block, in science, in math).
- Use gradual release of responsibility model with language learning strategies acting as coach models, co-teachers, and independently coaching educators.
- Coach co-plans with teachers as they implement literacy strategies and language objectives with content standards to target students language development needs.
- Provide opportunities for coaches to work with all educators (classroom teachers, paraeducators, and volunteers) to support students' language learning needs. Target strategies for whole group instruction, small group, and one-on-one intensive interventions.

Demographic Considerations—Educator Factors to Consider When Planning

- K–4 EL/DL coaches can identify and assess language and literacy needs for multilingual students.
- K–12 EL/DL coaches can help pinpoint gaps in multilingual students' language learning.
- K–12 EL/DL coaches can support developmentally appropriate instructional activities and interventions for multilingual students.

Strategies for Implementation—Success Factors to Consider When Planning

- Provide administrative support and guidance regarding the short and long-term planning of EL/DL coaches.
- Ensure the work of the EL/DL coach is aligned to the broader vision of the school and the multi-tiered supports in the building.

- Provide the foundation upon which the EL/DL coach can improve, enhance, and develop teachers' efficacy in both literacy and content-based instruction.
- Provide time to review, reflect and adjust techniques; and on agreement, share with staff as an example of successful implementation.

Resources—Tools for Planning

- [Characteristics of Effective Literacy Coaching](#)
- [Self-study Guide for Implementing Early Literacy Interventions](#)
- Instructional Design Framework: [Literacy Design Collaborative](#)
- [Learning Forward](#): The Professional Learning Association, site for National Council of Professional Learning.
- [Washington Education Association](#)

Supporting Research

Like other instructional coaches, EL and DL coaches collaborate with classroom teachers to maximize student learning and achievement for multilingual students. Over the past decade in Washington, the number of multilingual students who qualify for English Learner services has increased. A unique pedagogy is necessary for teachers teaching multilingual students learning to read and write in a new language (Escamilla, 2007).

Specific details surrounding the general professional duties of coaching are outlined above in the section on *Instructional Coaches*. Moreover, EL/DL coaches are also faced with a variety of unique demands that may not typically be encountered by content specific coaches. Examples of such demands include (but are not limited to):

- Designing instructional approaches within a framework that is designed to support multilingual students.
- Assessing students' language needs according to the English language proficiency standards.
- Focusing on students' oral language development while simultaneously incorporating literacy skills.
- Identifying techniques for supporting students from varying language proficiency levels.
- Accommodating the needs of students from multiple linguistic and cultural backgrounds.
- Familiarizing themselves and staff with the student's first language.
- Working with teachers from multiple content areas and grade levels.
- Finding resources for primary language support.
- Acting as "cultural brokers" between home and school interactions.

Stemming from these demands, EL/DL coaches are best supported when provided with explicit professional learning opportunities that cater to their professional contexts (Burkins & Ritchie, 2007). Specific areas for EL/DL coaching professional learning opportunities include:

- Explicit language learning or bilingual instruction techniques.
- Effective language scaffolding methods.
- Language demands across content areas.
- Sheltering instruction.
- Family engagement strategies.
- Translanguaging strategies that draw on students' home languages.
- Effective collaboration strategies to communicate with colleagues.
- Differentiated instruction techniques.
- How to create meaningful language opportunities.
- How to build oracy and background knowledge.
- How to build on students' funds of knowledge.
- How to analyze text for cultural responsiveness. .

Effective EL/DL coaching also involves working closely with school literacy coaches, while being mindful of supporting multilingual students in linguistically and culturally appropriate ways. Of particular importance for EL/DL coaches is helping classroom teachers draw on their students' cultural background and funds of knowledge and promoting the use of students' primary language in learning activities (Escamilla, 2007). Many EL students understand more than they are able to express in English both orally and in writing; thus, "[c]oaches need to understand that reading comprehension for second language learners may mean that students understand more in English reading than they are able to discuss" (Escamilla, 2007). This understanding will help coaches work with teachers who fear that allowing students to use their full linguistic repertoire will slow down their English language learning. In fact, learning is enhanced when multilingual students have opportunities to draw on all their language resources in school (Escamilla, 2007).

Consultant Teacher/Coaches: Instructional Coaches

Instructional coaches focus on personalized and team-centered professional learning that is often embedded during the school day. To increase student achievement, coaches support staff, identify leadership needs, and facilitate decision making around instruction (e.g., instructional materials choices, data analysis/formative assessment, technology integration, instructional/pedagogical strategies). The goal is to increase educator instructional expertise and to effectively impact literacy outcomes for students struggling to meet ELA Standards.

Practice Possibilities—Ideas to Consider When Planning

- Provide data coaching by training staff, Professional Learning Communities (PLCs), grade-level teams, and individuals on how to use universal screeners, diagnostic assessments, formative assessment processes, and progress monitoring tools. Model, co-assess, and provide feedback as teachers assess students and use data for planning instruction.
- Support educators (classroom teachers, paraeducators, volunteers, etc.) through a push-in model. Coaches will observe, co-plan, co-teach, etc., to develop educator literacy skills and strategies.
- Establish a coaching model for your school/district. Identify how educators can safely identify areas for growth and receive individual/team coaching. Ask educators what instructional support is needed and determine which adult learning style will be effective to implement new instructional skills and strategies. Establish criteria for reciprocal feedback between coaches and educators by designing a template with talking points for coaches and educators to ensure coaching is targeted and effective.
- Establish coaching cycles, based on grade-level need, where an instructional coach models differentiation strategies in the classroom, then coaches educators to implement strategies through ongoing non-evaluative feedback as educators master strategies.
- Support PLCs in the process of identifying targeted professional learning needs for students who have not yet met ELA Standards. Coaches lead data analysis processes, lead student progress monitoring, establish protocols for lesson design aligned to standards/claims, and incorporate formative assessment processes to identify individual needs of learners.

Demographic Considerations—Educator Factors to Consider When Planning

- K–12 coaches must be proficient in content standards.
- K–12 coaches must be proficient in research-based teaching strategies.
- K–12 coaches must be proficient in diagnostic assessments, progress monitoring and data analysis.

- K–12 coaches must be able to plan and model lessons with teachers.
- K–12 coaches must be able to plan and model differentiation with students.
- K–12 coaches must understand and apply appropriate principles of adult learning theory.

Strategies for Implementation—Success Factors to Consider When Planning

- Build trust with staff through frequent communication and collaboration.
- Connect coaching to current practices and on-going content initiatives.
- Use gradual release of responsibility model with effective instructional strategies as coach models, co-teaches, and independently coaches teachers.
- Teach research-based strategies for identified needs of learners.
- Focus on student progress through data oriented teaching and learning.
- Provide feedback to teachers through lesson observation and video reflection as they teachers implement new strategies.
- Allow for review, reflection and adjusting techniques; and on agreement, share with staff as an example of successful implementation.
- Use videos and modeling as a tool for successful coaching.
- Establish evaluation criteria for evaluation of the coaching model.
- Monitor effectiveness of coaching program with assistance from school/district administration.

Resources—Tools for Planning

- IES: [Foundational Skills to Support Reading for Understanding in Kindergarten Through 3rd Grade and K–3 Foundational Skills Professional Learning Communities Facilitator’s Guide \(2016\)](#)
- IES: [Foundational Skills to Support Reading for Understanding in Kindergarten Through 3rd Grade](#)
- [IES: Improving Adolescent Literacy: Effective Classroom and Intervention Practices](#)
- [IES: Improving Reading Comprehension in Kindergarten through 3rd Grade](#)
- [Learning Forward](#): The Professional Learning Association, site for National Council of Professional Learning
- [Self-study Guide for Implementing Early Literacy Interventions](#)
- Achieve the Core: [Understanding the ELA/Literacy Shifts](#)
- [Smarter Balanced Digital Library](#): Formative Assessment Process Modules

- [Characteristics of Effective Literacy Coaching](#)
- Instructional Design Framework: [Literacy Design Collaborative](#)

Supporting Research: Instructional Coaches

Coaching has been identified as the specific training component within professional development models that has the highest impact on understanding, skill attainment, and application of skills (Hattie, 2012). Instructional coaches may specifically target meeting the needs of students by providing professional learning in instructional strategies and decision making. Coaching should be student and data centered with a direct link to improved literacy outcomes (Sweeney, 2010). The WSIPP review rated Instructional coaching as an “evidence-based” practice.

Coaching may be in a 1:1 setting with small groups or in larger cross-content groups. Coaching may include modeling best practice with students and classes, conducting learning walks, engaging in book studies, or other focused actions that reflect the data-driven needs for the learners in the building (Shanklin, 2006).

To ensure credibility with novice as well veteran teachers, instructional coaches should have demonstrated successful teaching histories (Blachowicz et al., 2005). Along with the requisite knowledge of standards, differentiated instructional practices, and assessments, an instructional coach must also have a deep understanding of the components of effective coaching (L'Allier et al., 2010; Shanklin, 2006). The knowledge, skills, and dispositions of coaching specifically for instructional coaches are strongly recommended (Biancarosa, 2010).

For strongest impact, coaches should be supported by the system. Building principals should intentionally structure the learning culture that support instructional coaching. Principals should closely monitor the roles of the instructional coaches to ensure the activities support teachers in improving their practice. “Studies suggest that coaching may need to be embedded in broader efforts to build professional knowledge if it is to be most useful” (Darling-Hammond, et al. 2009, p. 12).

Instructional coaches designated to support K–4 literacy outcomes should be proficient with the ELA Standards, instructional practices, programs, and assessments to the degree to which they can plan and model lessons with teachers (Biancarosa, 2010). Strong knowledge of foundational reading skills, a continuum of literacy learning, differentiation methods, and instructional strategies for acceleration are critical to support teachers working with students who have not yet met ELA outcomes.

Consultant Teacher/Coaches: Literacy Coaches

These coaches specialize in literacy instruction and foundational literacy skills. Literacy coaches have depth of knowledge and training in literacy and are adept at identifying students *at-risk* of not meeting literacy benchmarks. In order to support acceleration of student achievement in literacy, literacy coaches work 1:1 with a classroom teacher or with a team of teachers to target specific professional learning to meet the needs of students.

Practice Possibilities—Ideas to Consider When Planning

- Develop literacy coaching cycles, with grade-level teams of teachers, for coaches to model and plan for implementation of research-based strategies for literacy acceleration (e.g., guided reading, shared reading, oral language development, etc.). Set collaborative goals for desired outcomes of the coaching cycles and review frequently to guide coaching decisions and measure effectiveness.
- Identify groups of students not proficient in ELA Standards; provide ongoing coaching for teachers of students needing specialized instruction in foundational literacy skills instruction.
- Regularly meet with staff, PLCs, grade-level teams, and individually to model use of literacy assessment tools: universal screeners, diagnostic assessments, formative assessment processes, and progress monitoring tools. Model, co-assess, and provide feedback as teachers assess students and use data to differentiate instruction.
- Establish a literacy-coaching model for your school/district. Identify how educators can safely identify literacy areas for growth and receive individual/team coaching. Ask educators what foundational literacy skills they need to develop as educators and implement a “push-in” coaching plan to model, co-teach, and observe new skills and strategies. Establish criteria for reciprocal feedback between coaches and educators by designing a template with talking points for coaches and educators to ensure literacy coaching is targeted and effective.
- Provide opportunities during the school day that allow for modeling and co-teaching with time for reflection and feedback.

Demographic Considerations—Educator Factors to Consider When Planning

- K–4 literacy coaches must be proficient in pedagogy and instruction to support early literacy skills development for students who have not yet met ELA Standards.
- K–12 literacy coaches must be proficient in pedagogy and instruction for students who have not yet met ELA Standards.

- K–12 literacy coaches must be proficient in English language acquisition and elementary literacy instruction to support newcomer students, including students with interrupted formal education and “long-term English learners.”
- K–12 literacy coaches must be proficient in using research-based teaching strategies for students who have not yet met ELA Standards.
- K–12 literacy coaches must be proficient in using evidence and research-based diagnostic assessments, progress monitoring, data analysis, and gap analysis tools for students who have not yet met ELA Standards.
- K–12 literacy coaches must be able to plan and model lessons with teachers for students who have not yet met ELA Standards.
- K–12 literacy coaches must be able to plan and model interventions with students who have not yet met ELA Standards.

Strategies for Implementation—Success Factors to Consider When Planning

- Provide administrative support, guidance, and goals regarding the short and long-term planning of literacy coaches.
- Use gradual release of responsibility model with effective literacy instructional strategies as coach models, co-teaches, and independently coaches teachers.
- At the secondary level, literacy coaches should be knowledgeable of elementary literacy instruction and English language acquisition to support students not yet at grade level.
- Define and develop a literacy coaching plan for the building.
- Provide training and coaching to paraeducators around effective small group instruction.
- Ensure that work is aligned to the broader vision of the school and the multi-tiered supports in the building.
- Provide administrative support to set the foundation upon which the literacy coach can improve, enhance, and develop teachers’ efficacy in reading instruction.
- Connect coaching to current practices and on-going literacy initiatives.
- Build trust with staff by providing resources, instructional support, and demonstration of lessons.
- Provide frequent communication and collaboration opportunities for staff.
- Teach research-based strategies that are reproducible by teachers.
- Focus on student progress.
- Provide feedback to teachers through lesson observation and video reflection.

- Provide time to review, reflect and adjust techniques; and on agreement, share with staff as an example of successful implementation.

Resources—Tools for Planning

- [Self-study for Implementing Early Literacy Interventions](#)
- IES: [Foundational Skills to Support Reading for Understanding in Kindergarten Through 3rd Grade and K–3 Foundational Skills Professional Learning Communities Facilitator’s Guide \(2016\)](#)
- IES: [Foundational Skills to Support Reading for Understanding in Kindergarten Through 3rd Grade](#)
- [IES: Improving Adolescent Literacy: Effective Classroom and Intervention Practices](#)
- [IES: Improving Reading Comprehension in Kindergarten through 3rd Grade](#)
- [Learning Forward](#): The Professional Learning Association, site for National Council of Professional Learning
- Achieve the Core: [Understanding the ELA/Literacy Shifts](#)
- [Characteristics of Effective Literacy Coaching](#)
- Instructional Design Framework: [Literacy Design Collaborative](#)
- [Smarter Balanced Digital Library: Formative Assessment Process Modules](#)

Supporting Research

Student success in literacy improvement is dependent on teachers’ abilities to use strategies and interventions that meet the differentiated needs of all learners. The National Reading Panel (2000) describes this simply as *a complex task* that necessitates much professional training. Evidence supports literacy coaching increases student literacy success (Shanklin, 2006). The term *literacy coach* refers to one who has specialized knowledge/training in literacy instruction, which may encompass specific intervention with reading and writing instruction. The focus of work is to support acceleration of student achievement in literacy via working with the classroom teacher and collaborating with teams. The literacy coach should be available to work with all staff across content areas and experience levels. By creating a cohort of teachers from across the building, a learning community develops and teachers learn from each other (Shanklin, 2006). According to the International Reading Association, “[Literacy] coaching is a powerful intervention with great potential; however, that potential will be unfulfilled if reading coaches do not have sufficient depth of knowledge and range of skills to perform adequately in the coaching role” (International Reading Association, 2004, p. 4). To have a positive impact on student achievement, literacy coaches will have deep training and experience in research and evidence-based literacy instruction, including intervention and assessment strategies.

Additionally, literacy coaches will work with educators to impact outcomes for students struggling to meet ELA Standards. Literacy coaches are collaborative members of the larger faculty who work cohesively among staff to provide rich literacy support for students. Like other coaches (e.g., EL and instructional), literacy coaches collaborate with educators to maximize student literacy learning and achievement. Data analysis of students' learning outcomes guides coaching. Data comes in the form of formative, classroom-based, interim, and summative assessments (Shanklin, 2006). Specific details surrounding the general professional duties of coaching are outlined in the section on *Instructional Coaches*. Some of the demands of literacy coaches who specialize in meeting the needs of students who have not yet met ELA Standards are similar to content-specific coaches. Literacy coaches must:

- Have specialized knowledge that goes beyond teaching reading; is best to have certification or advanced training in pedagogy for literacy.
- Build collaborative and trusting relationships that honor confidentiality and effective communication.
- Spend a majority of their time with educators observing, videotaping, modeling, conferencing, and co-teaching.
- Encourage and guide teachers to reflect on their instructional practices and evidence-based research (Shanklin, 2006).
- Support a core set of literacy activities that deepens understanding of literacy and foundational reading skills and teachers' instructional practice.
- Set goals and direction of the literacy program and support the structural changes necessary for buildings/districts to achieve increased literacy outcomes (Shanklin, 2006; L'Allier, 2010).

Successful literacy coaches will ensure the school has a clear, site-based literacy plan that is linked to district growth goals. Literacy coaches ensure on-going, job-embedded professional learning is available to all educators who work with students who have not yet met ELA Standards. Literacy coaches lead study groups, co-teaching, adult learning time, and guidance on Response to Intervention and Multi-Tiered System of Supports to improve literacy instruction and learning. Literacy coaches are supportive, not evaluative; they help guide teachers in reflection activities and identify areas for educator growth (Shanklin, 2006).

Professional Learning Communities (PLCs)

PLCs capitalize on the positive effects of collaborative learning. PLCs can be defined as a group of educators that meet on a regular-basis. In PLCs, educators collaborate toward a shared goal to improve academic practices and processes in the classroom and school in order to support literacy outcomes. The support can include determining instructional supports, differentiating instructional practices, implementing an early warning system, and developing formative assessment processes to support student growth.

Practice Possibilities—Ideas to Consider When Planning

- Establish PLCs with a shared vision and goals focused on student learning and educator professional learning. Invite paraeducators, special education staff, educators who support multilingual students, behavior specialists, and interventionists to participate. Educators will identify the ELA skills students need to improve ELA outcomes and identify which skills are needed for continued professional learning for staff. PLCs will develop an ongoing continuous learning plan for educators to acquire these skills to support students who have not yet met ELA standards.
- Use PLC time to focus on best practices and strategy implementation (e.g., foundational literacy skills, text complexity, working with tutors, etc.). Develop an ongoing continuous learning plan, establish observable success criteria, and schedule walk-throughs for PLC members to observe colleagues implementing best practices. Use PLC time to share self-reflections, discuss observations, utilize data to inform instructional and provide feedback on implementation practices.
- Meet bi-weekly or monthly to review student work, analyze data to inform instructional to ensure a lens of the ethnically diverse learner, underrepresent student. Focus on those who have not yet met grade-level standards, anticipating student misconceptions, and identifying instructional strategies teachers will use to support student learning in ELA.
- Design PLCs with a focus around ELA target standards/claims, formative assessment processes, and student progress monitoring. Use common formative assessments as a resource to inform educator professional learning needs, and to develop targeted intervention plans for students who have not yet met grade-level standards.
- Develop a cross-disciplinary PLC using the common Literacy standards for ELA and History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects to support students who struggle with literacy across content areas by focusing on academic language, professional learning, and implementing academic language.

Demographic Considerations—Educator Factors to Consider When Planning

- Language Learners benefit from culturally responsive classroom strategies that are integrated into pedagogical approaches as a result of focused learning on cultural competency in a PLC. Students in a Dual Language setting benefit from classroom strategies that incorporate biliteracy beliefs and approaches to instruction.
- Adult instructional practices improve when educators intentionally identify and implement practices, strategies, content and assessments that engage and represent the needs of all learners, including historically underserved or underrepresented students.

Strategies for Implementation—Success Factors to Consider When Planning

- Create a collaborative culture: classroom, building, district, and region.
- Address specific cultural differences through PLCs to promote a collegial understanding of the demographics of the school, district, and community.
- Develop collaborative teams who work interdependently and hold each other mutually accountable to achieve a clear and shared: mission, vision, values, and goals.
- Invite support staff to PLCs to increase awareness of the needs of the population(s) identified and discuss how to support students through targeted academic and non-academic strategies.
- Implement a continuous improvement model that focuses on procedure, practice, policy and outcome data. Ensure educators review multiple data points of formative and summative data regularly to monitor student progress. Review and adjust educator practice when students are not demonstrating growth.
- Focus on a single theme or idea frequently, over an extended period of time, rather than expending energy on ad hoc individual student work.
- Align with current frameworks or initiatives such as Teacher/Principal Evaluation Project (TPEP), school improvement plans, and National Board certification to improve educator effectiveness.
- Focus on reviewing student work, anticipating student misconceptions, and identifying instructional strategies educators will use to support student learning.
- Establish a regular schedule for collaboration time with clear objectives for each session to support students who have not yet met standard in ELA.
- Provide initial and ongoing professional learning for all PLC participants.
- Establish clear agendas and protocols to maximize the effectiveness of the PLC.

Resources—Tools for Planning

- [PLCWashington](#)
- [All Things PLC](#)
- [Marzano Research: Tips from Dr. Marzano – Collaborative Teams That Transform Schools](#)
- [Rutgers University Center for Effective School Practices: Measurement instruments for assessing the performance of professional learning communities](#)
- [Learning Forward: The Professional Learning Association](#)
- [K–12 Blueprint: Professional Learning](#)
- [Regional Educational Laboratory Program: Professional Learning Communities Facilitator’s Guide](#)
- [Foundational Skills to Support Reading for Understanding in Kindergarten Through 3rd Grade](#)
- [Improving Adolescent Literacy: Effective Classroom and Intervention Practices](#)
- [Improving Reading Comprehension in Kindergarten through 3rd Grade](#)
- [Self-study for Implementing Early Interventions](#)
- [Smarter Balanced Digital Library: Formative Assessment Process Modules](#)

Supporting Research

A professional learning community, or PLC, can be defined as a group of teachers, administrators, coaches, or school staff (or a combination of people in these roles) that meets on a regular, planned basis with the explicit goal of collaboratively improving practices in the classroom, school, and district in order to improve student learning outcomes. PLCs must be based on clearly articulated, shared goals for student achievement and school improvement (DuFour & DuFour, 2012). An effective professional learning community is more than just a given group of educators learning together—rather, it is a process of continuous improvement that requires engaged inquiry, reflection, planning, analysis, and action (DuFour & DuFour, 2012; Killion & Crow, 2011). The goal of PLCs is to improve the effectiveness of educators in order to directly impact student learning.

Educators working as part of a professional learning community should work collaboratively in alignment with the school’s comprehensive improvement plan. To establish an effective PLC, educators must develop an agreed upon set of norms. Developing norms together, sets the stage for the collaborative culture needed for PLC success. Collaborative PLCs encourage sharing, reflecting and risk taking. Teams who are not trained to have collegial conversations may become frustrated, resulting in less productive PLCs. Educators need skills for facilitation, having collegial conversations, building shared norms, and discussing teaching practices (Wood,

2007). Examples of how educators can de-privatize practice include, but are not limited to: lesson sharing, establishing and using protocols, peer observation and reflective dialogue, as well as examining research around best practices. Blankstein (2010) suggests six essential principles for schools with PLCs:

- Common mission, vision, values and goals;
- Ensure achievement for all students;
- Collaborative teaming focused on teaching and learning;
- Using data to guide decision making and continuous improvement;
- Gaining active engagement from family and community; and
- Building sustainable leadership capacity.

Once the foundation of trust is in place, the PLC team can support the evaluation of student learning data and focus on a clear set of goals to improve student achievement.

In order for professional learning communities focused on improving outcomes for students to be successful, they must have strong administrative support (Akopoff, 2010). According to Barton and Stepanek, "Principals exert considerable influence over the successful implementation and continued functioning of PLCs." School leaders can support PLCs by building a climate of trust and mutual respect, supporting de-privatization of practice and professional growth (Little, 1993, Kruse, Louis, and Bryk, 1995, and McLaughlin and Talbert, 2001). Key success factors include creating time for teams to focus on student data, observe and reflect on instructional practices, and plan interventions for students who have not yet met standard (Reynolds, 2008). Jones et al., (2013) emphasize the role of the school principal in facilitating PLCs, being an instructional leader who models what they want educators to do, and facilitating a positive school learning culture. For teacher collaboration to be meaningful, DuFour (2008) highlights that leaders ensure:

- Teachers have time to meet built into the schedule,
- Clear priorities are given for collaboration,
- PLC participants develop an appropriate knowledge base for decision making,
- Professional learning is provided and differentiated for teacher participants, and
- Clear expectations for assessing instructional impact on student achievement are made.

Providing a clear framework for how a school's professional learning communities fit into the larger districtwide goal of improving student achievement can help build leadership capacity. PLCs can also reach beyond the building level to provide collaboration and support districtwide. Forming collaborative teams across the district develops a collective responsibility for student learning and it leverages educator expertise from across the district (Barton & Stepanek, 2012; DuFour & Reeves, 2016).

The fundamental purpose of PLCs is to transform traditional school systems by establishing collaborative cultures focused on building capacity for continuous improvement. These collaborative cultures welcome new ways of thinking and learning (Fullan, 2006). Therefore, collaboration must be embedded into the school culture as an essential component. According to Darling-Hammond et al. (2009), collaboration is one of four characteristics of professional learning that positively impacts student achievement. DuFour and Reeves (2016) draw attention to four essential questions that drive the work of collaborative PLCs:

1. What do we want students to learn?
2. How will we know if they have learned it?
3. What will we do if they have not learned it?
4. How will we provide extended learning opportunities for students who have mastered the content?

Educators working in an effective PLC, driven by the guiding questions above, must continually reflect on the ways they are working together to explore which practices are leading to effective results and to ensure that each practitioner has the skills and support to get there (DuFour & Reeves, 2016).

PLCs are action oriented and have a strong focus on bridging the knowing-doing gap (DuFour & DuFour, 2012). Using a continuous improvement model, educators participating in a PLC review each action and evaluate it for effectiveness. In other words, effective PLC teams focus on evaluating student learning data, a shared vision, and a clear set of goals to monitor progress impacting student achievement (Nelson, et al. 2010, Jacobson, 2010). A shared focus on learning, collaboration, and reflective dialogue put into practice through a cycle of continuous improvement expands educator knowledge and practice which can result in enhanced student learning (Dimino, Taylor & Morris, 2015, Fullan, 2006). Hord and Sommers (2008) note that PLC success depends on the application of what is learned about practice.

PLCs should pursue measurable goals and evaluate the success of these goals by looking at evidence of student achievement (DuFour, 2004). When professionals form a collaborative learning community with an explicit shared focus on student achievement and school improvement goals, they purposefully engage in professional learning that has tremendous potential.

Targeted Professional Learning

Targeted professional learning are experiences that focus on improving teaching practices in a particular content area and a particular grade level in order to meet student needs. Targeted professional learning should be explicitly aligned to student learning goals, student achievement, and school improvement. The focus of targeted professional learning should include strategies, pedagogies, and skills that will support students who struggle to meet grade-level standards. Practice Possibilities—Ideas to Consider When Planning

- Identify foundation literacy skills educators need to develop/improve. Seek professional learning opportunities through the local ESD or with a literacy coach well versed in these skills to target professional learning of staff.
- Provide a summer institute on foundational literacy skills and follow-up with facilitated on-going classroom observations of literacy strategies being implemented. Ensure participants are provided time to connect throughout the following school year. Have members participate in observational walk-throughs in teams of three to five to observe and provide feedback to improve teacher practices. Provide professional learning opportunities on practices that connect students' home languages to the language of instruction.
- Create a flipped professional learning summer camp. During afternoon workshops, educators (e.g., classroom teachers, paraeducators, volunteers, etc.) participate in workshops to implement foundational skills strategies for students have not yet met ELA Standards. During morning summer program sessions, educators are observed and coached on implementation as they work with students one-on-one or in small groups. Schedule a new skill/strategy each week.
- Establish lesson study cycles that include bi-weekly or monthly sessions where teachers collaboratively plan lessons for accelerating reading with an identified group(s) of readers. Sessions could include professional learning on how to use data, how to differentiate and plan additional lessons for identified students, how to use specific literacy strategies, and how to set goals for learners and monitor their progress.
- Provide time for grade-level/content-based teams to work with a coach on lesson planning and observe each other teaching the lesson. Follow up with team feedback on observations and identify areas for continued improvement.

- Identify staff literacy development needs and target learning opportunities for all educators (e.g., classroom teachers, paraeducators, volunteers, etc.) working with students. For example, foundational literacy skills, K–2 readiness, or balanced literacy.
- Deliver targeted professional learning for grade-level or content-based teams, and then have teams cross-collaborate to identify common goals and strategies.

Demographic Considerations—Educator Factors to Consider When Planning

- K–4 educators who would benefit from explicit instruction in foundational literacy skills.
- K–12 educators who would benefit from opportunities to deepen their understanding of the WA K–12 ELA Learning Standards.
- K–12 educators who would benefit from opportunities to deepen their understanding of the English Language Proficiency Standards.
- K–12 educators who would benefit from opportunities to deepen their understanding of the Formative Assessment Process. K–12 Dual Language educators would benefit from opportunities to deepen their understanding on biliteracy practices and multilingual approaches to assessment analysis.

Strategies for Implementation—Success Factors to Consider When Planning

- Provide theory, demonstration, practice, feedback, and classroom support as part of ongoing professional learning opportunities.
- Focus on specific data, literacy skills, or instructional strategies rather than a general approach.
- Design learning aligned with school improvement goals, student achievement data, and professional learning for the educator.
- Focus on modeling strategies for teachers and opportunities for hands-on professional learning that builds literacy skill development knowledge.
- Ensure collaboration within PLCs is focused, follows protocols, and monitored.
- Plan for professional learning that is ongoing and supports educators.
- Align professional learning plans to standards for professional learning to develop systemic, sustained, high-quality professional learning.

Resources Resources—Tools for Planning

- [Self-study for Implementing Early Interventions](#)
- IES: [Foundational Skills to Support Reading for Understanding in Kindergarten Through 3rd Grade and K–3 Foundational Skills Professional Learning Communities Facilitator’s Guide \(2016\)](#)

- [Improving Adolescent Literacy: Effective Classroom and Intervention Practices](#)
- [Improving Reading Comprehension in Kindergarten through 3rd Grade](#)
- [Learning Forward](#): The Professional Learning Association, site for National Council of Professional Learning
- [Smarter Balanced Digital Library: Formative Assessment Process Modules](#)
- Achieve the Core: [Understanding the ELA/Literacy Shifts](#)
- [Characteristics of Effective Literacy Coaching](#)
- Instructional Design Framework: [Literacy Design Collaborative](#)

Supporting Research

Research is clear that highly effective teachers make a difference in student success and student achievement (Darling-Hammond, et al., 2009). Therefore, it is worthwhile for schools and districts to invest in high-quality professional learning that strengthens educators' knowledge of ELA content and pedagogy, and effectively impacts student literacy outcomes. The WSIPP review rated targeted professional learning opportunities as an "evidence-based" practice. While professional learning opportunities are vital for teacher engagement and motivation for improvement, not all professional learning opportunities effectively impact student literacy outcomes equally. Research identifies targeted professional learning as producing the best results on student outcomes. According to the Washington State Institute for Public Policy report (Pennucci, et al, 2015) and Linda Darling-Hammond's studies (Darling-Hammond et al., 2009; Yoon et al., 2007; Garet et al, 2001), professional learning is most effective when it is targeted, which involves expertise on behalf of educators. Targeted professional learning includes a focus on standards and goals specific to learners, data that informs instruction, and instructional strategies specific to the content.

The McREL Report (Snow-Renner & Lauer, 2005) states that providing professional learning that is long lasting, content-focused, and based on student and teacher performance data takes more time and effort to implement in comparison to less effective types of professional learning opportunities. In addition, Garet, et al. state (2001), "[a] professional development activity is more likely to be effective in improving teachers' knowledge and skills if it forms a coherent part of a wider set of opportunities for teacher learning and development" (p. 927). Thus, successful professional learning takes time and is part of a coherent and comprehensive plan to improve student and educator performance (Darling-Hammond, 2009).

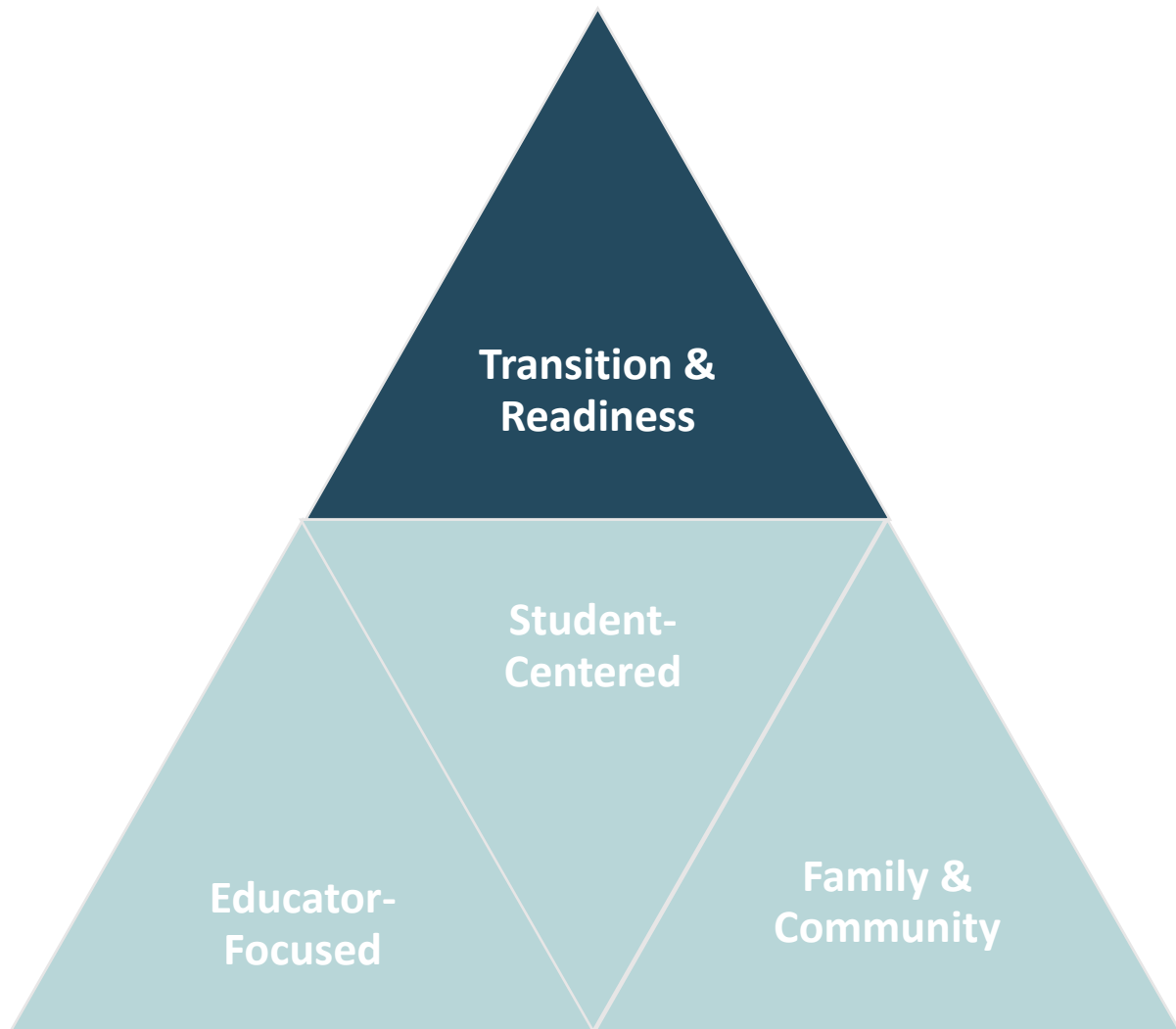
Research also contends that to improve student achievement through professional learning, the work should be contextualized. Darling-Hammond explains that educator professional learning improves student achievement when it is focused on "the concrete, everyday challenges involved in teaching and learning specific to academic subject matter, rather than focusing on abstract educational principles or teaching methods taken out of context" (Darling-Hammond et

al., 2009, p. 10). In addition, professional learning needs to be sustained; that is provided as an ongoing, systemic process informed by evaluation of students, and the needs of teachers and schools. Research by Joyce and Showers (2002) supports the importance of ongoing, adult learning through a continuum in which participants learn from a presentation of theory, observe demonstrations, apply and receive feedback around a practice, and are ultimately provided with coaching or other classroom supports to self-evaluate according to learner-centered goals (Joyce, 2002). This model of transfer for adult learning and professional learning identifies the importance of educators needing ongoing, professional learning that is relevant, job-embedded, and supported over time.

Drawn from research and evidence-based practices, Learning Forward's standards for Professional Learning (Learning Forward, 2011) aim to support a systemic and sustained professional learning system. Seven standards describe the characteristics of effective professional learning which may be used as a consumer guide for educators and school systems as they plan and prepare for high-quality, targeted professional learning. The standards for Professional Learning (Learning Forward, 2011) encompass goals related to learning communities, leadership, data, resources, learning design, implementation, and outcomes. Such standards support schools and districts in their efforts of planning, facilitating, and evaluating the effectiveness of professional learning.

Below is a list of professional learning formats that support ongoing, targeted, data-driven, job-embedded professional learning for literacy improvement for educators targeting students who have not yet met ELA Standards.

- PLCs: a group of educators that regularly meet to analyze data, collaborate on student achievement, and set goals for instruction.
- Lesson study: a professional learning practice that involves educators collaboratively planning lessons based on data and student needs, and observing evidence of student learning in action.
- Facilitated observations: may also be referred to as learning walks or instructional rounds whereby a group of educators participate in classroom observations based on a problem of practice or focus related to the instructional core (the students, the teacher, the task).
- Ongoing workshops or coursework: workshops/courses based on an identified content need; coursework is ongoing and over time.
- Online networks: a professional group focused on specific content that strengthens professional expertise.
- Targeted literacy coaching: literacy coaching that involves modeling, working with assessments, observation and feedback, co-planning, and conferencing makes a difference in reading and writing achievement (Elish-Piper and L'Allier, 2011).



Transition and Readiness Practices and Strategies

Kindergarten Transitions

Supporting kindergarten transitions is a promising practice. Transitioning through kindergarten is a time when behavioral, emotional, and social changes impact all students and their families. Communities, schools, families, and educators can increase the likelihood of a successful student transition by providing academic and non-academic support services. Kindergarten transition opportunities provide support to students and their families for successful transitions from in-home care, daycare, relative care, pre-school, ECEAP, or Head Start.

Practice Possibilities—Ideas to Consider When Planning

- Establish a program that allows pre-kindergarten and kindergarten educators to create a transition plan with a focus on sharing student data, aligning curriculum, and supporting strategies for transitioning students.
- Create an outreach program that promotes early kindergarten registration, conducts needs assessments with families, finds and connects families with resources, and provides a safety net of support for the first several months a child attends kindergarten.
- Provide opportunities for families to visit elementary schools before children begin kindergarten by inviting students and families to participate in school events, school tours, school lunch, library time, and recess.
- Develop summer transition programs, or kindergarten camps, that focus on incoming kindergarteners who may not have attended a pre-school program. Allow time for kindergarten students to become familiar with teachers, buildings, classrooms, and routines.

Cultivate a peer connection program that arranges for pre-school children and kindergarten children to meet, play, and connect within a classroom or outside the classroom at a community event.

Provide opportunities for teachers to share WaKIDS results with parents and provide activities parents can engage in with their children to support areas of need as identified by the WaKIDS assessment.

Demographic Considerations—Student Factors to Consider When Planning

- Students and families who are new to the school system benefit from a friendly environment where families are valued as decision makers regarding their own child's education and school programs.
- Migratory families may benefit from programs that help students learn about school routines and ease the separation from home to school; families benefit from learning about activities and strategies families can do in the home to strengthen their child's education in the classroom.
- Students and families who are learning English as an additional language benefit from a welcoming environment where responsive two-way communication, in the language spoken by the family, is facilitated. Students and families in a Dual Language program setting benefit from seeing all of their languages and cultures valued throughout the school environment.
- Students and families who qualify for free and reduced-priced lunch benefit when they are connected to resources and information related to family services.

- Students and families who participate in Head Start or ECEAP programs benefit when standards, curriculum, support services, and assessments from pre-kindergarten to kindergarten are carefully aligned.
- Students who struggle with emotional and social issues that may hinder a successful transition benefit from peer connections that continue from pre-school into kindergarten.
- Students and families from American Indian/Alaska Native communities may benefit from a teaching environment that focuses on cooperation instead of competition, has Tribal cultures represented in the classroom, and utilizes culturally responsive teaching methods.

Strategies for Implementation— Success Factors to Consider When Planning

- Promote academic readiness and emerging literacy, language, numeracy, and social emotional skills families can practice at home. WaKIDS data can help inform these practices.
- Establish protocols for collecting data from pre-kindergarten programs to support early intervention.
- Provide families tools and support to be advocates for their children. In a Dual Language setting, provide families information about the goals and structure of the program. Provide them information of how to support learning multiple languages from home.
- Provide funds to purchase support materials for age-level readiness practices.
- Provide time and funding for collaboration between pre-kindergarten and kindergarten staff, families, and community members to establish a district-wide transition plan for students entering kindergarten.
- Provide time and resources to promote ongoing connections among children, families, in-home, daycare, and pre-kindergarten providers with elementary schools.
- Identify a coordinator to oversee kindergarten transition programs, connect with families/early childhood centers, and monitor progress.
- Provide training for kindergarten educators to further develop an understanding of the norms, practices, and procedures of pre-school education.
- Provide training for educators on culturally sensitive and anti-bias pedagogy, curriculum, early childhood development, and evidence-based practices.
- Provide services tailored to the cultural, linguistic, and learning needs of students and their families.

Resources—Tools for Planning

- Institute for Educational Leadership: [Case Studies of Early Childhood Education & Family Engagement in Community Schools](#)
- Child Care Aware of Washington: [Collaboration with Principals and Child Care Providers](#)
- Kindergarten Questionnaires and Checklists: Bellingham Public Schools- [Kindergarten Parent Questionnaire](#) and [Teacher Questionnaire](#); Washington State Department of Early Learning [Kindergarten Checklist](#)
- [The Early Childhood Community School Linkages Project](#)
- OSPI: [WaKIDS](#), [Washington State Full-Day Kindergarten Guide](#), [Early Literacy Pathways](#), [Early Numeracy Pathways](#), and [Early Learning and Development Guidelines](#)
- University of Washington's Institute for Learning & Brain Sciences [Love, Talk, Play](#)
- [Enhancing the Transition to Kindergarten: Linking Children, Families, and Schools](#)
- [Center on the Social and Emotional Foundations for Early Learning](#)
- [Technical Assistance Center on Social Emotional Intervention for Young Children](#)
- [Erickson Institute Resources for Early Learning: Programs and Services](#)

Supporting Research

Kindergarten transition is a crucial time for young students and families. Transition programs can set the stage for how families will handle their children's future educational experiences by engaging them in the transition to kindergarten. Kindergarten students in particular need of additional support and care when transitioning as changing learning environments present new challenges: new academic expectations, different school structures, and new social interactions with peers and adults. Families, educators, and community partners can use effective transition activities to create supports and connections across pre-kindergarten and kindergarten settings. (LoCasale-Crouch et al., 2008). These practices should begin prior to kindergarten and take into account the cultural, linguistic, and learning needs of individual students and their families (National Center on Parent, Family, and Community Engagement, 2013).

Key guiding principles should be in place as a framework for kindergarten transition success (Sayre & Pianta, 2000, p. 2):

- Foster collaborative relationship building among educators, families, and students;
- Promote continuity between pre-school and kindergarten systems;
- Focus on family strengths to develop school support; and
- Focus on the individual needs of the student.

Building capacity for students, families, and schools is essential. Children's successful transition to kindergarten relies upon building relationships with a variety of people, including families, day care providers, pre-school educators, and elementary educators (La Paro, Kraft-Sayre, & Pianta, 2003). Family connections, whole child assessment, and early learning collaboration are key components of the Washington Kindergarten Inventory of Developing Skills ([WaKIDS](#)). Research supports using these three components as the foundation for best practices in successful kindergarten transitions.

Transition to kindergarten activities needs to establish effective communication between pre-school/pre-kindergarten settings and elementary schools (La Paro, Kraft-Sayre, & Pianta, 2003, Sullivan-Dudzic, Gearns, & Leavell, 2010). Fostering collaborative relationships and two-way communication among stakeholders support successful and seamless transitions for students. The culture in an elementary school may be more formal than the typical culture of a pre-school (Connors & Epstein, 1995; Pianta & Kraft-Sayre, 1999), which makes communication between the two settings more crucial to help students and families navigate the new environment. "These environments should also work together to ensure that standards, curriculum, support services, and assessments from pre-kindergarten settings to kindergarten are carefully aligned" (Bohan-Baker & Little, 2002; Kagan & Neuman, 1998; Pianta & Kraft-Sayre, 2003, Sullivan-Dudzic, Gearns, & Leavell, 2010).

Communication with Families

Kindergarten transition plans that promote family participation prior to the start of the school year have been associated with students having increased self-confidence, school enjoyment, and overall happiness with the kindergarten experience (Hubbell, Plantz, Condelli, & Barrett, 1987). Transition to kindergarten should include opportunities for students and families to learn about the new setting, build relationships, and experience continuity in curriculum and assessments within their new setting. Children show greater school readiness (Hubbell et al., 1987; LoCasale-Crouch, Mashburn, Downer, & Pianta, 2008), reduced stress at the beginning of school (Hubbell et al., 1987), and stronger academic growth over their kindergarten year (Ahtola et al., 2011; Schulting, Malone, & Dodge, 2005) when such opportunities are offered.

Outreach to families should be done in a personal way before students enter kindergarten (Pianta et al., 1999; Sullivan-Dudzic, Gearns, & Leavell, 2010). Families are more likely to be involved in their student's kindergarten year when schools actively engage families in the transition process and recognize the families' efforts to participate (Schulting et al., 2005). Outreach with families that is established in pre-kindergarten programs promotes positive relationships and emphasizes early on that families are valued partners in their child(ren)'s education (La Paro, Kraft-Sayre, & Pianta, 2003). Schools and educators can smooth the transition to kindergarten by engaging families in meaningful ways. Families gain confidence from helping their children adjust to new schools. (Van Voorhis et al., 2013, p. 117). One way to support early family engagement is to establish family visits between kindergarten educators

and school staff prior to the beginning of the school.

Research by La Paro, Kraft-Sayre, & Pianta (2003) showed that despite barriers families may face, when offered opportunities to interact with the transition process, such as meeting with educators prior to the beginning of the school year and visiting kindergarten classrooms, families almost always participated and believed that these opportunities were helpful. When asked, families can offer educators knowledge about their children to support classroom routines and can help reinforce essential academic and non-academic skills at home (Ferretti & Bub, 2017; Sullivan-Dudzic, Gearn, & Leavell, 2010). Students who experience more stability in their early school settings, and in the relationships with the adults in these settings, perform better socially and academically (Curby, Rimm-Kaufman, & Ponitz, 2009; Tran & Winsler, 2011) during their kindergarten year and beyond.

Regardless of a student's skill level, positive relationships between schools and families support children's academic progress (Kraft-Sayre & Pianta, 2000). Establishing relationships with community partners, pre-kindergarten learning partners, and kindergarten educators may help provide resources to and support for students and families during the kindergarten transition. "Peer connections that continue from children's pre-school years into kindergarten also can help ease children's transition to school by being a source of familiarity and an avenue for building social competencies" (Kraft-Sayre & Pianta, 2000). These types of adult and peer relationships support social and emotional competencies in young students that aid in their school success (Kraft-Sayre & Pianta, 2000).

Community Partnerships

Pre-school and kindergarten programs can make the transition for families smoother by aligning pre-school and kindergarten policies and practices (Sullivan-Dudzic, Gearn, & Leavell, 2010; NCDEL, 2002). "Connecting early childhood programs with the K-12 educational system is a proactive strategic plan to increase student achievement" (Sullivan-Dudzic, Gearn, & Leavell, 2010, p. 1). Consider including the following stakeholders as part of the district kindergarten transition team (Sullivan-Dudzic, Gearn, & Leavell, 2010):

- Elementary school principals,
- Kindergarten and local pre-school educators,
- Families (include multiple demographics and include pre-school and private school families),
- School board members,
- Child care providers,
- Higher-education professionals,
- District leadership (e.g. Title I director, special programs coordinator, etc.),

- School district PTA/PTO president, and
- Other community organization representatives (e.g. tribal leaders, Head Start supervisor, healthcare providers, etc.).

By inviting multiple partners to be part of the planning and implementation of kindergarten transition practices, districts can focus on “increasing achievement, by using a unified approach that honors existing efforts and builds on the strengths and resources in your community” (Sullivan-Dudzic, Gearns, & Leavell, 2010, p. 27).

It is also important for pre-kindergarten and kindergarten educators to participate in ongoing professional learning opportunities together to support social emotional and academic competencies necessary for school success and achievement (NCDEL, 2002). Promoting professional learning on culturally sensitive and anti-bias pedagogy, curriculum, early child development, and evidence-based practices ensures that educators receive the supports needed to fully engage students and families both academically and non-academically (Henderson and Berla, 1994; Epstein 2001; Weiss, Caspe, & Lopez, 2006; Halgunseth, 2009).

Student Success

“Teachers report that nearly half of typically developing children experience some degree of difficulty during the transition to kindergarten” (Ferretti & Bub, 2017; Rimm-Kaufman & Pianta, 2000, Rimm-Kaufman, et al., 2000). In any classroom, there are students achieving beyond the grade-level standards and students not yet achieving the grade-level standards. The goal is for all students to meet the end-of-year expectations, and when necessary, to recognize that stages of development are based on experiences and not solely defined by age or grade. It is essential to take into consideration the learning progressions necessary for student growth by planning intentional experiences, selecting appropriate materials, and determining the best instructional approaches to meet students’ academic and non-academic learning needs. In order for the unique learning needs of students to be met, educators must understand the social-emotional, language, literacy, and numeracy needs of each student.

Educators and researchers recognize that social-emotional competencies and skills related to school preparedness develop early in life. A recent study reports that children who enter kindergarten with underdeveloped social-behavioral skills are more likely to be identified for special education services, suspended or expelled from school, and retained to repeat grade-level standards (Bettencourt, Gross, & Ho, 2016). While focusing on social-emotional development in early childhood is critical, social-emotional learning (SEL) can take place throughout a student’s primary and secondary education. Research indicates that SEL programs can positively influence a variety of student educational outcomes across grade levels (Durlak, et al., 2011).

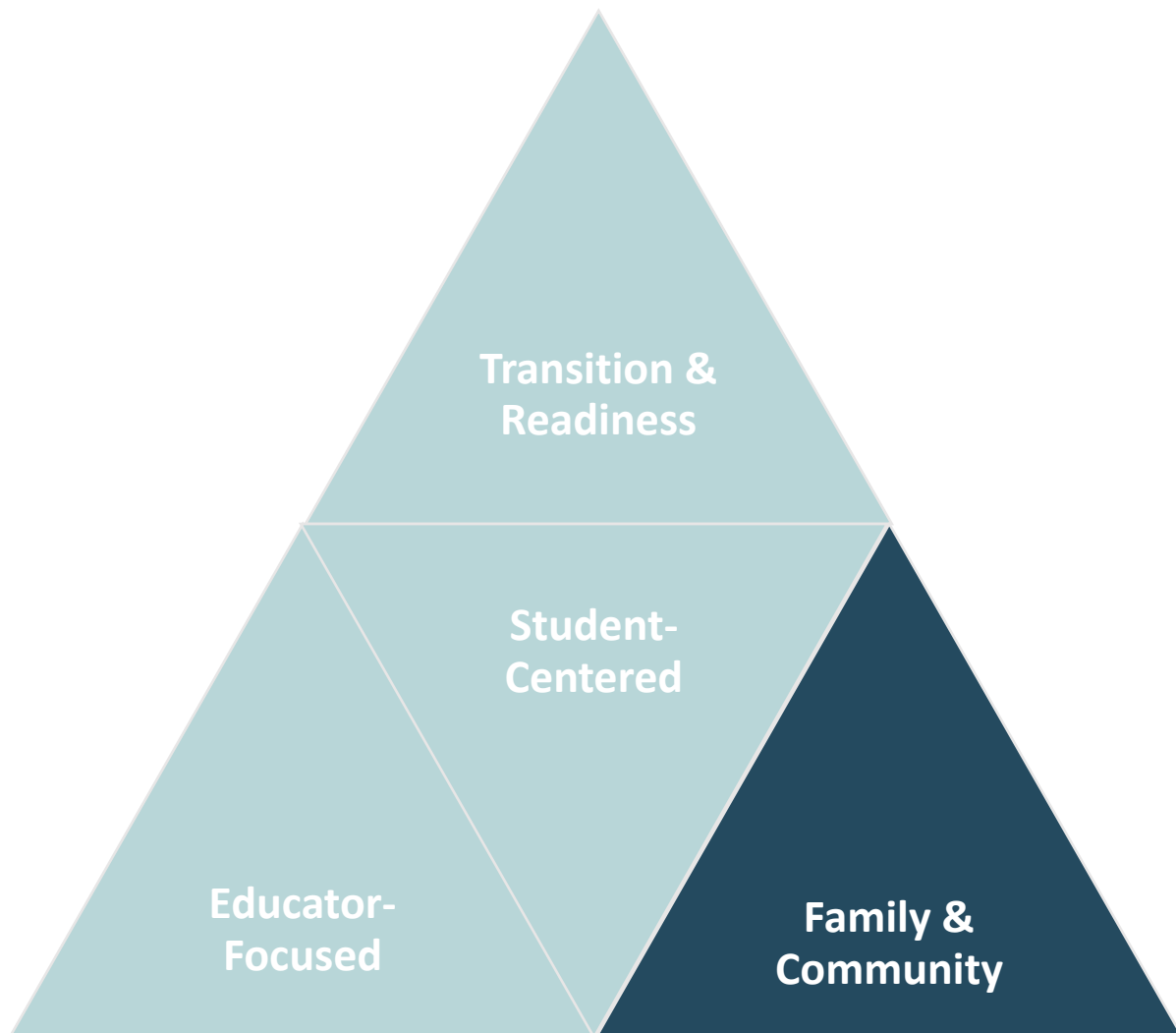
High-quality instruction in language and literacy skills is vital to students’ academic and non-academic success. Children start developing language and literacy skills at birth; *emergent*

reading skills and *early reading* skills start around age three ([Early Literacy Pathways](#), 2016). Oral language skill development helps students as they begin to develop and progress reading and writing skills. As students enter kindergarten, oral language skills are connected to later gaps in both reading and writing (Coll, 2005; Storch & Whitehurst, 2002). English language development for students learning an additional language is also grounded in oral language skill development and needs explicit instruction; by providing instruction in oral language development in a student's native language, educators can build a foundation for literacy and a bridge for the student's English literacy development (Beeman & Urow, 2013). For additional information, research, and best practices on oral language, alphabet knowledge, and phonological awareness refer to [ELA Menu: Appendix A](#).

Mastery of early math concepts (number sense and counting) upon school entry is the strongest predictor of future academic success (Duncan, 2007). Learning to make sense of mathematics early helps build future math proficiency. Students transitioning to kindergarten should have opportunities to make sense of math ideas including number concepts and quantities, number relationships and operations, geometry and spatial sense, patterns, and measurement and comparison. For more information on math progressions for early learners, refer to [Learning Pathways in Numeracy](#). An important success factor, and an important tie-in to early literacy, is to get children to communicate their ideas and explain their thinking about mathematics in their natural language. By providing opportunities for students to share their thinking, educators can assess what concepts students understand, and they can identify gaps in students' mathematical understanding.

Families, pre-kindergarten, and kindergarten programs can provide opportunities to develop social-emotional learning, language, literacy, and numeracy skills through play, songs, books, games, and other daily routines. For more information on social-emotional learning, early literacy, and early numeracy, please refer to the [background and philosophy](#) sections in the menus of best practices and strategies.

Family and Community Practices and Strategies



Family Engagement

Family engagement is a promising practice. Family engagement involves two-way communication in which families and educators come together as equal partners to engage in decision-making processes. Family literacy support on emerging reading and literacy strategies can help students improve listening, speaking, writing, and reading skills as they progress through the early elementary years. All families engage in social activities to support the development of language and communication. These activities lay the foundation for literacy development in school and life. The more parents and caregivers understand their role in supporting literacy, the more successful they can be in preparing their children for successful literacy experiences and learning.

Family engagement involves collaboration between families and schools toward increasing student success. Family engagement can occur during the regular school day (within the school building or outside of school), within families' homes, or within the community. The following menu entry provides a robust list of research-based practices and possibilities, including family engagement coordinators and modeling instructional strategies families can provide at home.

Practice Possibilities: Ideas to Consider When Planning

- Create a culturally responsive family leadership program and invite families to join the school improvement planning process. To ensure joint decision-making, ask families to make recommendations to support and promote family engagement practices.
- Provide a space within the school where educational staff can support families and students in literacy. This space could be available for families to convene before, during, and after school. For example, invite families to participate in literacy skill building in the library at the beginning of the school day.
- Create a plan to host monthly family literacy events. These events should have targeted literacy goals and provide time for families to practice literacy skill building. When possible, provide tips/materials for families to continue practicing the literacy strategies learned at the event at home.
- Create literacy games for students to play at home. Families can support skill development by repetitively playing the games in English and in the student's home language.
- Establish a home-visit program where educators engage families. Family preference should determine if visitations occur in the home or at another mutually agreeable location. Home visits present educators with opportunities to develop authentic and meaningful relationships with families.
- Provide educators with professional learning opportunities on the effective use of funds of knowledge. Funds of knowledge are the knowledge and skills a student learns from their family and cultural background. Apply this learning when designing school policies, ELA instruction, family engagement activities, and volunteer opportunities.
- Use technology to support positive ongoing communication with families. Take a photo with each student on the first day of school and share it with the family. Continue to send positive visual updates bi-weekly/monthly on students engaging in literacy activities. Older students can share assignments and accomplishments electronically with their families.

Demographic Considerations—Student Factors to Consider When Planning

- Students without immediate family members in their lives, such as students experiencing homelessness or students in transitional situations, should be welcome to participate in family engagement activities and be encouraged to invite friends or other persons they consider family.
- Families with adverse experiences in schools may require prolonged and intentional positive feedback from school staff before the family will engage in regular, meaningful communication with the school.
- Students with negative feelings about literacy benefit from seeing family members and other trusted adults engaging in literacy activities and expressing positive attitudes about reading, writing, speaking, and listening.
- K–4 family literacy support results in students being more likely to complete high school and go on to college.
- Family engagement in schools starts to decrease as early as grade 3.
- Multilingual families may benefit from personal invitations, translation and interpretation services, and guided support.
- Migratory families benefit from information about the school, community, and services their children can receive as they may be new to the area and unsure how to access resources.
- Students and families from American Indian/Alaska Native communities may benefit from Title VI–Indian Education funded support services.
- Students and families from American Indian/Alaska Native communities may benefit by participating in extra-curricular Tribe-sponsored events such as read-arounds, pow-wows, culture nights, youth leadership programs, and Tribal Journeys/canoe families.
- K–12 students who struggle with reading benefit from listening to and discussing text.

Strategies for Implementation—Success Factors to Consider When Planning

- Welcome all families. Create a family friendly school learning community that is inviting and authentic.
- Design activities and talking points for parents to support oral language and at-home reading expectations.
- Focus on getting to know students and families during home visits.
- Establish opportunities for students to read the same book.

- Consider ways to provide workshop and family night information to those who could not attend: podcasts, online videos, and other formats aligned with parent resources at home.
- Advertise events through multiple modalities: personal invitations in the family's home language, emails, social media, phone messages, and postcards.
- Establish a positive relationship with families during the first few weeks of school by making phone calls and using authentic outreach efforts.
- Hire a family/community liaison to explicitly connect and communicate with families about the resources available within the community.
- Design support for families around reading skills, homework, student progress-monitoring, and conversations about academic and non-academic supports.
- Communicate using the family's home language when sharing information about events, expectations, and available resources and materials.
- Give families timely notice and schedule flexible meeting times to provide families with irregular work schedules more opportunities to participate.
- Identify families where English is not the home language and provide interpreters at events to support these families.
- Design activities and games for students to take home to play with their families.

Resources—Tools for Planning

- Harvard: Harvard Family Research Project, [A Dual Capacity-Building Framework for Family-School Partnerships](#), and [Harvard edX—Introduction to Family Engagement in Education](#)
- National Network of Partnership Schools: Dr. Joyce Epstein, [Six Types of Involvement: Keys to Successful Partnerships](#) and [PTA National Standards for Family-School Partnerships Assessment](#)
- OSPI: [WA State Title I, Part A website](#), [Funds of Knowledge and Home Visits Toolkit](#)
- REL: Toolkit of Resources for Engaging Families and the Community as Partners in Education [Part 1](#), [Part 2](#), [Part 3](#), [Part 4](#)
- [National Association for the Education of Young Children: Engaging Diverse Families Project](#)
- [Washington State Family and Community Engagement Trust](#)
- [High Expectations](#)

- [Washoe County School District and University of Nevada Reno Cooperative Extension: Literacy Tip Sheets for families](#)

Supporting Research

Families can and do make a difference in the academic and social-emotional lives of students. School-based family engagement efforts can have a positive impact on K–12 student academic achievement (Jeynes, 2012). However, effective family engagement practices ultimately support improved student academic and non-academic outcomes (Caspé & Lopez, 2006). “When schools build partnerships with families that respond to their concerns and honor their contributions, they are successful in sustaining connections that are aimed at improving student achievement” (Henderson and Mapp, 2002, p. 8).

- Family engagement strategies are built on the foundation that:
- All families have goals and dreams for their children.
- All families have the capacity to support a child’s literacy outcomes.
- All families and educators are equal partners.
- Educational leaders are responsible for engaging partnerships (Henderson, Mapp, Johnson, & Davies, 2007).

The Washington State Governor’s Office of the Education Ombuds (OEO) recommends developing and sustaining meaningful, culturally responsive school and family partnerships. The [OEO Family and Community Engagement Recommendations](#) (2016) highlights the importance of genuine, authentic relationships between diverse groups of families, educators, and community members to support student success in schools.

Family and community *engagement* strategies are more inclusive than *involvement* strategies. Consider the following (Mapp & Kuttner, 2013; Graham-Clay, 2005):

Involvement means to include as a necessary condition. Involvement strategies tend to coincide with meeting requirements and lack a true partnership. Family and community involvement strategies often result in **one-directional communication**. This looks and feels like educators passing on information to families.

Engagement means to pledge or to make an agreement. Engagement strategies work to develop relationships and to build trust. Family and community engagement strategies ignite **two-way communication** and brings families and educators together as equal partners in the decision-making processes. This looks and feels like teamwork.

Communication with families is vital to promote collaboration between students’ home and school settings, and provides the direct benefit of increased student achievement. However, barriers can and do exist that limit effective communication with families. Schools need to consider socio-economic conditions, cultural and linguistic factors, disability-related needs, and

other family characteristics when strategizing how to overcome barriers to effective communication and collaboration with families (Drummond & Stipek, 2004; Cheatham & Santos, 2011; Tucker & Schwartz, 2013). Schools should make a considerable effort to promote collaboration by using multiple means of communication (Graham-Clay, 2005; Cheatham & Santos, 2011). Often families only receive communication from the school when their child has done something wrong. The perspectives of families with a history of negative interactions with the school can inform communications plans if their input is valued (Tucker & Schwartz, 2013). Effective two-way communication with families can be implemented in a variety of ways to strengthen collaboration between school and home.

It is important to have a well-organized family engagement plan around partnership with families (Epstein & Salinas, 2004). Family and community engagement can include a variety of activities and events. When planning family and community activities/events, it is important to include and invite families and community members in all aspects of planning and implementation stages (OEO, 2016). Joint decision making and responsibility are key components to successful partnerships. When planning events, it is also important to have targeted learning goals and time for participants to practice and receive feedback on the desired outcomes. For example, the learning goal of a literacy event may be to provide families with shared reading strategies to support literacy at home. This event would be designed to provide strategies, examples of the strategy in use, and time for family and community participants to practice and receive feedback on implementing these strategies (Mapp & Kuttner, 2013). Home visits can be beneficial for all students K–12, especially for new-comers to a district and for those transitioning into a new building. These meetings can occur before the school year begins, and they can take place in the student’s home or at an agreed-upon location in the community. As families and educators meet for the first time, these conversations should not be an overload of information based on expectations and rules. Instead, these meetings should be conversational and focused solely on the child. One question educators can ask families to start these conversations would be: “What are your hopes and dreams for your child?” It is important for families and educators to build a foundation of trust and respect.

One example of home visits could occur at the beginning of the school year when kindergarten teachers meet with families and early learning providers to talk about each child’s strengths and needs. The Washington Kindergarten Inventory of Developing Skills, or WaKIDS, brings families, educators, and early learning providers together to support each child’s learning and transition into public schools. These meetings are beneficial to students, families, and educators and can take place in neutral locations. They can also increase student attendance and family participation in additional school activities and events (Flamboyant Foundation, 2011; Mapp & Kuttner, 2013).

Family and community engagement includes all of the various ways families and communities effectively support a child’s learning and healthy development. Family members are a child’s first

teachers, and literacy development begins at home. Engagement strategies should target multiple stages of a child's literacy progression, and they should be consistent with, and inclusive of, a child's home language and culture (Wessels & Trainin, 2014). A focus on intergenerational family literacy, working with the family rather than the child or the adult separately, provides the greatest impact. Effective programs might provide early childhood interventions, early parenting strategies, and increased adult literacy in addition to guidance for parents in the development of their child's literacy skills (St. Pierre, Layzar & Barnes, 1995; Wasik & Fierrmann, 2004, p. 3). Family engagement strategies involving learning activities at home are more likely to have a positive effect on both student achievement and social-emotional development (Voorhis, Maier, Epstein, & Lloyd, 2013).

Well-designed family engagement programs "should be ongoing, culturally relevant, responsive to the community, and target both families and school staff" (O'Donnell & Kirkner, 2014). Using a student's home language and providing families with strategies to support cognitive development that are explicit and culturally responsive empower families to take an active role in supporting their student's literacy development (Wessels & Trainin, 2014). High interest informational text can promote comprehension skill practice among parents, caregivers, and children and should also be included in effective family literacy activities. (Pinkham and Neuman, 2012). Hosting family literacy workshops is one way to guide parents in literacy activities such as participating in shared reading, working on fluency, and using electronic resources to enhance literacy skills at home (Mort, 2014). Family workshops can increase literacy dialogue at home by modeling literate behaviors (Mort, 2014). Family nights can also introduce parents to school and community resources, ways to provide homework help, and other ways to support the school curriculum at home, each of which can greatly benefit student literacy achievement through family support (Waldener, 2004; Blazer, 2011; St. Clair et al., 2012; Wessels & Trainin, 2014). Intervention activities that students can practice at home should be the same activities students are working on in the classroom (Mort, 2014). This ensures that students are familiar with the tasks and can go home and successfully practice the literacy development skills with their families. For example, students experience valuable practice time and build literacy confidence when they take home books they have already read with success in the classroom. Word games are another effective strategy to increase student engagement in word activities at home. Students learn how to play the game in class, and then they take the game home and teach their family how to play. By designing games and establishing at-home literacy routines for students, educators can help families create positive literacy experiences outside of school (Mort, 2014).

It is important to establish family academic supports early in order to establish long-lasting effect on student reading achievement. For example, a family literacy program for migrant kindergarten families showed significant academic gains for students at the end of 1st grade, as well as at the end of 5th and 6th grades (St. Clair et al., 2012). This culturally sensitive program

provided family workshops with an adult educator to support student literacy development at home. Additionally, families were provided with materials to support literacy learning at home: letter and word identification games, books, and electronic talking books. By teaching migrant families how to support their child's language skills, schools can establish a positive collaborative effort with families that will result in increased language and literacy development at home (St. Clair et al., 2012).

As schools/districts review student outcome data, it is important to include families and community members that represent the diversity of the school. Team members should represent the demographic needs of all students. Data-based decision making and goal setting improve when educators and community members work together. One suggestion is to have an action team for partnerships (Epstein & Salinas, 2004). An action team should consist of teachers, administrators, parents, and community partners, and be proactively connected to the school council or school improvement team. The focus of the partnership is to promote student success, develop the annual plans for family engagement, evaluate family engagement, and develop activities to include all families in the school community.

P-4 Community Partnerships

Establishing community partnerships is a research-based practice. Community involvement and partnership not only yield positive results in upper grades, it also has a strong correlation to positive student outcomes for younger children. While there may be different local structures and compositions of community partnerships, many of these components are foundational to the success of this intervention practice to support literacy development.

Program Possibilities

- Enhance library and community center partnerships by hosting cross-staff and volunteer activities. Invite library staff to lead activities (e.g., shared reading, book talks, how to access digital resources, etc.) during literacy night activities. Plan grade-level events onsite at the library.
- Invite families and community partners to share cultural traditions through oral storytelling, poetry, songs, and crafts during monthly literacy events.
- Develop partnerships for discounted and free admission fees one day a month with local children’s museums, zoos, etc., for students and families enrolled at your school. Students will have the opportunity to participate in multiple speaking and listening activities. These experiences build background knowledge for reading comprehension and provide ideas for writing topics.
- Grow strong wrap-around support for children by building decision-making teams of community partners, families, and school personnel to support working together.
- Partner with community organizations to provide a network of support for students and families to develop foundational literacy skills in the community.

Demographic Considerations—Student Factors to Consider When Planning

- Students and families learning English as an additional language benefit from the additional linguistic, academic, and socio-emotional support provided by community partners.
- Students who have not yet met ELA Standards benefit from additional literacy support from community partnerships.
- Students who qualify for free and reduced-price lunch programs benefit from community support and resources that support literacy.
- Students in elementary school literacy intervention programs benefit from building and sustaining community partnerships.

Strategies for Implementation—Success Factors to Consider When Planning

- Focus on working with community and parents versus seeking involvement only.

- Establish goals for short-term actions and activities.
- Establish long-term goals and work trajectory.
- Establish a measurement point in the school year to evaluate the work and processes.
- Use individual/group data to target program design.
- Identify school staff to be stable and ongoing leads throughout multiple years.
- Partner with local healthcare leaders.
- Identify (where possible) family/community lead for a school year.
- Identify student assessment communication protocols to share information with parents.
- Apply for community grants and establish sustainable funding.

Resources—Tools for Planning

- Community in Schools Washington [Model](#)
- Build [Initiative: Community Development Toolkit](#)
- [Washington Reading Corps](#)
- [ReadingPartners.org](#) [\[Video\]](#)

Supporting Research

Community involvement in schools is a long-standing indicator of a school's success across the country. The goal is to engage community involvement, and grow a partnership in which the school and community members work together to create *action* and to *support* children (Ferlazzo, 2011). The most successful partnerships are developed between schools, communities, and families (Jacobson & Blank, 2015). How these partnerships develop is important. Merely engaging family and communities in superficial activities will not improve students' experiences in the same way as developing deep, authentic, and sustainable collaborative partnerships (Ferlazzo, 2011).

Some community-based programs are established and sustained at individual school sites, while other community-based programs span across districts. What this looks like might be different for different schools and communities. Generally, community-based partnerships can be categorized into three types of programs (NEA, 2011):

1. Community and family programs include community organizations, community residents, and families.
2. Family engagement-focused programs.
3. Wrap-around programs that promote social and health services.

Community-based organizations provide structures and offset costs to implement programs.

Across Washington, schools are implementing community-based partnerships with various community organizations. The [Washington Reading Corps](#) is a statewide service program committed to improving early literacy and reading outcomes. Reading Corps members serve in schools to provide tutoring and to build capacity for schools to benefit from additional community volunteer involvement. Members also focus on strategies to enhance family engagement in literacy activities. Several Washington schools work with [Page Ahead](#). This community-based partner supports family engagement strategies, summer book programs, and early learning centers as they prepare students for kindergarten readiness.

Community-based partners focus on family engagement, and they approach family engagement programs strategically. Family involvement coordinators, parent-teacher organizations, and parent-school community teams coordinate and support family engagement in schools/districts, unlike traditional family involvement activities where schools send home fliers telling parents what to do, offer parenting classes, refer students to local tutoring programs, seek parent approval for compliance, and hold annual Fun Nights (NEA, 2011). Community-focused schools focus on family engagement. They seek input from families and community members, and they listen to the input. Community-based partners and schools take a shared ownership approach to family engagement and school improvement (NEA, 2011).

Community-based wrap-around supports reduce barriers to learning by establishing purposeful partnerships between community organizations and schools (Blank & Villarreal, 2015). Social and health services are provided resulting in improved student attendance and learning outcomes (NEA 2011, Jacobson & Blank, 2015). Support services may include connecting families to foodbanks and programs that support basic nutrition and shelter needs. Health, eye, dental, and social/emotional services also support student achievement in the classroom. Whenever possible, providing space within the school or within walking distance from the school allows families the opportunity to access wrap-around supports. Schools/districts may use case managers and family and community advocates to support community-based wrap-around services.

Building a strong communication structure is vital to establishing strong P-4 community partnerships. The tone of communications outreach can directly influence the strength of relationships. Effective communication and relationship building starts with listening (Ferlazzo, 2011). Encouraging a system that fosters structures so parents and communities not only receive information but can also provide feedback and express concerns is a strong first step (NEA, 2011; Ferlazzo, 2011).

Ideas to build communication structures can cross a range of methods and approaches. Choosing what makes the most sense for the needs of the local community is key. Taking stock of which methods have the highest impact (e.g., weekly email or monthly mailed report, quarterly meetings or bimonthly *town halls*, etc.) can help teams make efficient choices for maximum impact and efficacy. Regardless of methods, reciprocal communication built on trust

is the most effective (Ferlazzo, 2011; NEA, 2011).

Community-Based Student Mentors

Community-based student mentoring is research based. It is defined as a positive relationship between a non-parental adult (or older youth) and a younger child or youth. Community-based mentoring usually takes place outside the school day with longer sessions and strong mentor-mentee relationships built over time. The structure of the mentoring experience requires goal setting and may include a variety of social, cultural, and academic activities. Community-based student mentors can support literacy development for students who have not yet met ELA Standards.

Practice Possibilities—Ideas to Consider When Planning

- Identify possible community connections to support literacy and create a mentor program pairing a non-parental adult to a younger child or youth, provide training for mentor and mentee, develop guidelines for meetings/outings, and create tools for reflection and feedback on the program goals.
- Identify students who might benefit from a community-based mentor to support literacy, do a needs assessment with individual students to gather information to help find the community mentor, set up meetings/events with the students' needs/ interest as the foundation, and gather feedback and reflection on program goals.
- Connect with local libraries, faith-based organizations, and community youth outreach programs to find, train and use adult non-parental mentors who will then connect with identified students who would benefit from a mentor-mentee relationship.
- Partner with Boys and Girls Club and provide transportation after school to support literacy mentoring programs.

Demographic Considerations—Student Factors to Consider When Planning

- Students who have not yet met ELA Standards.
- Students who have not yet met ELA graduation requirements.
- Multilingual students (particularly those who qualify for EL services) benefit from opportunities to converse with native English speakers.
- Students with specific needs: single-parent homes, families in poverty, students who struggle emotionally, socially, and academically and have not yet met ELA Standards.
- Students who come from stressed and busy households and are struggling to meet ELA Standards.
- Students who may need a positive adult role model (for various reasons) and are struggling to meet ELA Standards.

Strategies for Implementation—Success Factors to Consider When Planning

- Activities should be developmentally appropriate and focus on developing speaking, listening, writing, and reading skills.
- Seek parent permission and involve parents in creating goals and activities.
- Provide mentors and mentees regular opportunities to meet and to participate in shared activities over an extended period of time.
- Encourage mentors and mentees to set goals and consistently revisit and adjust goals.
- Screen mentors and identify students who may benefit from the program.
- Identify the characteristics desired in mentors and actively seek out mentors who will commit to the program.
- Provide training for mentors and mentees.
- Monitor and gather feedback on the program to ensure it remains effective.
- Use a mentor coordinator who schedules activities, communicates with families, and recruits/trains/supports mentors and mentees.

Resources—Tools for Planning

- [The ABCs of School-Based Mentoring](#)
- [Impact Evaluation of the U.S. Department of Education’s Student Mentoring Program](#)
- [National Mentoring Partnership](#)
- [Big Brothers Big Sisters of America](#)
- [United Way of America](#)
- Community Partner [Toolkits](#)

Supporting Research

Mentoring programs may be broadly categorized as school based or community based. In school-based mentoring, mentors typically meet with mentees one-on-one during or after the school day and engage in both academic and nonacademic activities. Community-based mentoring occurs outside of the school context. Community-based mentoring sessions are typically longer than school-based mentoring activities. In addition, community-based mentor-mentee relationships often are longer in duration than school-based matches (Herrera, 2011). Mentoring experiences can take many forms. The structure of the mentoring experience is often influenced by the goals of the mentoring program and may include a variety of social, cultural, and academic activities. Mentors and mentees may spend time studying and going to local events, but may also spend time navigating issues for the mentee such as problems with time

management, conflicts with a teacher, relationship issues, or family problems (Larose et al., 2010). The types of activities may vary based on the age and needs of the mentee. "In late adolescents, activities focused on personal and professional identity, autonomy, time and relationship management, and skills development are believed to meet the needs shared by many young people. Mentoring program managers must ensure that the objectives of their programs and the nature of the activities in these programs strongly reflect the developmental needs of their clientele" (Larose et al., 2010, p. 138).

School-based and community-based mentoring has been found to have a positive effect on student academic outcomes. In a study of mostly middle school African American male students, researchers found an Afrocentric mentoring program to be effective in fostering academic achievement and success in the participating mentees (Gordon et al., 2009). In a five-month Big Brothers Big Sisters school-based mentoring program, mentees experienced modest short-term academic gains (Herrera et al., 2011).

Other important benefits include: improved self-esteem levels, better relationships with other adults, more clarity in both academics and future college and career outlook (Community Tool Box, 2015). Community-mentoring programs offer innovative options for both mentor and mentees by building partnerships that may lead to valuable life skills. Mentor programs can break down stereotypes, promote teamwork, and help create a culture of community diversity. Research shows that to build lasting and effective community-mentoring programs, specific factors must be considered. Community partners must be identified and approached to determine commitment level, willingness to contribute financially, and ability to assist in finding and training mentors. Next, youth recipients of mentoring need to be approached and connected with the "best-fit" mentor. This step is critical to the success of not only the mentor/mentee relationship, but also the program as a whole. These relationships take hard work, open minds, flexibility, and a promise to communicate and problem solve as a team (The Community Toolbox, 2016).

Trust is the final factor when building a lasting community mentoring program. Trust among the stakeholders; trust between the mentor and mentee; and trust in the process. Young people often have trust issues with adult authorities, therefore, mentors need to be sensitive to this possibility and be willing to build the relationship slowly. Open communication, consistency, and positive encouragement are key to building trust while also promoting responsible feelings and actions.

The above elements, combined with the principles of mentoring outlined in [*The Elements of Effective Practice for Mentoring*](#), will ensure a quality program that will instill confidence in the youth who are served. These principles (listed below) should be the foundation upon which any fruitful program is built.

Principle	Description
Recruitment	Recruit mentors and mentees by relaying a realistic description of the programs elements and goals.
Screening	Screen mentors and mentees to determine commitment, time, and personal characteristics needed to form a lasting relationship.
Training	Training must focus on ensuring that prospective mentors, mentees, and their parents or guardians have the basic knowledge, attitudes, and skills needed to build a safe and effective relationship.
Matching	Matching helps create appropriate mentoring relationships by using strategies most likely to increase the odds that the relationship will be safe and effective.
Monitoring and Support	Monitoring and support is critical to mentoring as relationships develop and need to be adjusted to changing needs. Support may also include additional training when needed.
Closure	Closure is a normal stage in a mentoring relationship and mentors and mentees should be able to prepare for closure and reflect upon their experience with the relationship.

These principles are the pillars of community-based mentoring programs that will impact students academically, emotionally, and socially.

CONCLUSION

The ELA menu will be updated annually, no later than July 1, each calendar year. Interested stakeholders are invited to submit recommendations to the [ELA office](#) for intervention practices, along with related research references, for consideration by the expert panel for possible inclusion in subsequent menus. It is important to note that if new research emerges that disproves the effectiveness of a practice that has historically been included in this report, the practice may be removed.

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Acknowledgements

Expert Panel Members

Name	Organization	Title	Year(s)
Alice Murner	Cape Flattery School District	Principal, Neah Bay Elementary	2014
Alma Duran	Pasco School District	Director of Special Programs	2018
Amy Mesick	Vancouver Public Schools	LAP Intervention Coordinator	2017, 2018
Amy Thierry	Smarter Balanced	Assistant Director	2018
Angela Borza	Monroe School District	ELA K–5 Teacher	2019
Ann Teberg	Whitworth University	Associate Professor of Education and Director of Student Teaching	2017
Annie Pennucci	WSIPP	Research Associate	2014, 2015
Cheryl Vance	ESD 113	Regional Literacy Coordinator	2014, 2015
Christine Clausen	Everett School District	Literacy Curriculum and Assessment Specialist	2016
Cynthia Chaput	Federal Way Public Schools	Dean of Students	2016
David Tudor	Washougal School District	Curriculum Director	2014, 2015
Dawn Christiana	Bellingham	Director, Teaching and	2017

Name	Organization	Title	Year(s)
	Public Schools	Learning	
Debra Knesal	Central Avenue Elementary	Principal	2014
Erick Johnson	Washington State University Tri-Cities	Assistant Professor of Bilingual/ESL Education	2014
Erin Chaplin	Yakima School District	P-12 Instructional Director	2014
Glenda Sederstrom	Northeast Washington ESD 101	Coordinator for the Center for Special Education Services	2014, 2015
Jeffrey Dunn	Deer Park School District	High School Teacher	2016, 2017
John Mitchell	Oakwood Elementary	Principal	2014
Jordan Montalvo	Highline School District	Spanish Dual Language Specialist	2019
Julia Cramer	WSIPP	Research Associate	2018, 2019, 2020, 2021
Justin Young	Eastern Washington University	Assistant Professor, Director of English Composition Program & Writing Center	2015, 2016
Katharine Overhauser-Smith	Michael Anderson Elementary	Literacy Specialist	2017
Kathy Shoop	Northwest ESD 189	Assistant Superintendent	2014, 2015
Kimberly Witte	PineCrest Elementary	Elementary Teacher	2015
Leilani Thomas	Concrete School District	Special Programs Director	2016, 2017, 2019
LaWonda Smith	Puget Sound ESD 121	Director K-12 Learning, Leadership and Student Success	2019
Liisa Potts	EdReports.org	ELA Director	2016
Lisa Markussen	Edmonds School District	Learning Support and Title I/LAP Reading Specialist	2019
Lindsey Backus	ESD 123	Regional Literacy Coordinator	2019
Linda Wert	Spokane School	Coordinator of Special	2014, 2015,

Name	Organization	Title	Year(s)
	District	Programs	2016
Lori Inman	Mead School District	Secondary ELA Content Specialist	2016
Mary Atkinson	Mukilteo School District	Visual Art	2017
Marsha Riddle Buly	Western Washington University	Professor	2016, 2017, 2018
Mary Boyle	Pateros School District	Special Programs Director	2017
Matt Lemon	WSIPP	Research Associate	2014, 2015, 2016, 2017
Michele Vegas	North Thurston School District	Elementary Teacher	2017
Mike Jacobsen	White River School District	Curriculum Director	2014
Molly Branson Thayer	University of Washington	Director of Quality Youth Development	2016
Nancy Duffey	Wenatchee School District	Director of State and Federal Programs	2014
Pamela Pottle	Bellingham School District	ELA Coach	2014
Patricia Jones	Woodland School District	Instructional Coach/LAP Coordinator	2017
Rachel Dibble	Yakima School District	Assessment Specialist	2015
Roger Chow	Tacoma School District	Curriculum and Instruction	2014
Sara Shaw	Stevens Elementary	English Language Development (ELD) Teacher/Trainer	
Saundra Hill	Pasco School District	Superintendent	2014, 2015
Stephanie Strachan	Western Washington University	Assistant Professor	2018
Ted Howard II	Garfield High School	Principal	2015
Teri Ann Barlow	Renton School District	Secondary Techer	2016
Terry Lyon	Lawton	Elementary Teacher	2015

Name	Organization	Title	Year(s)
	Elementary		
Theresa Kendall	West Valley School District	Categorical Programs/K-4 Literacy Administrator	2016, 2017
Todd Johnson	Capitol Region ESD 113	Director, Center for Research and Data	2015, 2016
Wendy Blocher	Renton School District	Learning Assistance Program Facilitator	2016

OSPI Staff, National Advisors, and Consultants

Name	Organization	Title	Year(s)
Aira Jackson	OSPI	Director, K-12 ELA	2016, 2017, 2018, 2019, 2020, 2021
Alyssa Westall Ibañez	OSPI	Program Supervisor, Bilingual Education	2017, 2018, 2019
Amy Ripley	OSPI	K-12 Literacy Specialist, Learning and Teaching	2014, 2015
Amy Thierry	OSPI	Program Supervisor, LAP ELA and Research	2015, 2016, 2017
Amy Vaughn	OSPI	Program Supervisor, LAP Math and Research	2014, 2015
Andrea Cobb	OSPI	Executive Director, Center for the Improvement of Student Learning (CISL)	2014, 2017, 2018, 2019
Anne Gallagher	OSPI	Director, Learning and Teaching Mathematics	2014
Annie Pennell	OSPI	Program Supervisor, LAP	2020, 2021
Anton Jackson	OSPI	Director, Assessment Development	2020
Ben King	OSPI	Communications Consultant	2019, 2020
Beth Simpson	OSPI	ELA Assessment Specialist	2015
Carrie Hert	OSPI	Executive Assistant	2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019, 2020
Caryn Sabourin Ward	National Implementation Research Network	Senior Implementation Specialist	2015, 2016
Dean Fixsen	National	Co-Director	2014, 2015

Name	Organization	Title	Year(s)
	Implementation Research Network		
Deb Came	OSPI	Director, Student Information	2014
Dixie Grunenfelder	OSPI	Director, K-12 System Supports	2016, 2017, 2018
Estela Garcia	OSPI	Administrative Assistant	2017, 2018
Faith Rackley	OSPI	Secretary Senior, Title I, Part A, Highly Capable & LAP	2020
Gayle Pauley	OSPI	Assistant Superintendent, Special Programs and Federal Accountability	2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019, 2020
Latifah Phillips	OSPI	Director, Office of Native Education	2019
Gil Mendoza	OSPI	Deputy Superintendent, K-12 Education	2014, 2015, 2016
Greg Williamson	OSPI	Director, Student Support	2014
Helen Malagon	OSPI	Director, Migrant Bilingual	2014
Jami Peterson	OSPI	Executive Assistant	2014, 2015, 2016, 2017, 2018, 2019, 2020
Jason Miller	OSPI	Assistant Director, Title I, Part A/LAP	2020
Jess Lewis	OSPI	Program Supervisor, Behavior and Discipline	2014, 2015
Jessica Vavrus	OSPI	Assistant Superintendent, Learning and Teaching	2014, 2015
Joan Johnston Nelson	OSPI	EL Trainer and Consultant	2015
John Bresko	OSPI	Program Supervisor Special Education	2014
Jon Mishra	OSPI	Director, Title I, Part A/LAP	2020
Jordyn Green	OSPI	Data Analyst, Student Information	2015, 2016, 2017
Joshua Lynch	OSPI	Program Supervisor, Student Discipline and Behavior	2016, 2017, 2018, 2019, 2020
Judith Mosby	OSPI	Director, Student and	2014, 2015

Name	Organization	Title	Year(s)
		School Success Reading Instruction, Assessment, and Implementation	
Julie Chace	OSPI	Administrative Assistant	2015, 2016
Justin Young	OSPI	Program Supervisor, LAP ELA and Research	2014
Kathe Taylor	OSPI	Assistant Superintendent, Learning and Teaching	2016, 2017, 2018, 2019, 2020
Kelcey Schmitz	OSPI	Program Supervisor, Integrated Student Supports	2017, 2018, 2019
Kevan Saunders	OSPI	Administrative Assistant	2015, 2016
Kimberlee Cusick	OSPI	Secretary Senior, LAP	2015, 2016, 2017
Kristi Coe	OSPI	Program Supervisor, LAP Math and Research	2017, 2018, 2019
Larry Fazzari	OSPI	Program Supervisor, Title I, Part A/LAP	2017, 2018, 2019
LaWonda Smith	OSPI	Program Supervisor, Title I, Part A/LAP and Consolidated Program Reviews	2014
Liisa Potts	OSPI	Director, Literacy and Professional Learning Integration	2014, 2015
Maja Wilson	OSPI	ELA Assessment Specialist, Assessment Development	2020
Maria Flores	OSPI	Program Manager, Accountability and Research	2014
Mea Moore	OSPI	Director, Migrant Bilingual	2015, 2016
Michael Kamil	Stanford	Emeritus Professor	2014
Michaela Miller	OSPI	Deputy Superintendent	2017, 2018, 2019, 2020
Molly Berger	OSPI	ELA Specialist	2017, 2018, 2019
Patty Finnegan	OSPI	Program Supervisor, Bilingual Education Special Projects	2019
Paula Moore	OSPI	Director, Title I/LAP and	2016, 2017

Name	Organization	Title	Year(s)
		Consolidated Program Reviews	
Penelope Mena	OSPI	Program Supervisor, Title I, Part A/LAP	2017, 2018, 2019
Porsche Everson	Relevant Strategies	President, Project Facilitator	2014, 2015, 2016, 2017
Rachel Hart	OSPI	Professional Learning Integration and State Implementation Specialist	2015, 2016
Robin Munson	OSPI	Assistant Superintendent, Assessment and Student Information	2014
Samantha Diamond	OSPI	Research Analyst, LAP	2017, 2018, 2019
Sheila Gerrish	OSPI	Program Supervisor, LAP	2020
Shelley O'Dell	OSPI	ELA Assessment Specialist	2016, 2017, 2018, 2019
Tania May	OSPI	Director, Office of Special Education	2019
Wendy Iwaszuk	OSPI	Program Supervisor and State Transformation Specialist	2015

Appendix B: List of Acronyms

Acronym	Definition
AI	Active Implementation
AK	Alphabet Knowledge
AVID	Advancement Via Individual Determination
CAST	Center for Applied Special Technology
CBMs	Classroom-Based Measurements
CCSS	Common Core State Standards
CEDARS	Comprehensive Education Data and Research System
CISL	Center for the Improvement of Student Learning
CLP	Comprehensive Literacy Plan
DLD	Digital Learning Department
EL	English Learner—the federal term for multilingual students who qualify for language supports.
ELA	English Language Arts
LA	Language Arts
ELP	English Language Proficiency
ESD	Educational Service Districts
ESSB	Engrossed Substitute Senate Bill
IAB	Interim Assessment Blocks
ICA	Interim Comprehensive Assessment
IEP	Individualized Education Plan
ISS	Integrated Student Supports
LAP	Learning Assistance Program
MTSS	Multi-Tiered System of Supports
NCTM	National Council of Teachers of Mathematics
NELP	National Early Literacy Panel
NIRN	National Implementation Research Network
OSPI	Office of Superintendent of Public Instruction
OST	Out of School Time
PDSA	Plan, Do, Study, Act
PLC	Professional Learning Community
PTA	Parent Teacher Association
RCW	Revised Code of Washington
RTI	Response to Intervention
RTL	Readiness to Learn
SBAC	Smarter Balanced Assessment Consortium

Acronym	Definition
SISEP	State Implementation and Scaling up of Evidence-based Practices
TPEP	Washington State Teacher/Principal Evaluation Project
UDL	Universal Design for Learning
WISSP	Washington Integrated Student Supports Protocol
WSIPP	Washington State Institute for Public Policy

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