

Leadership for Literacy in the 21st Century

White Paper

Jill Lewis-Spector, New Jersey City University
and
Annemarie B. Jay, Widener University



ABSTRACT

This white paper from the Association of Literacy Educators and Researchers (ALER) posits that literacy leadership is critical for structuring a learning continuum that will broadly advance student achievement. It substantiates that those professional educators who assume roles of literacy leadership must be experts in the field of literacy as well as visionaries capable of closing achievement gaps and expanding learning horizons within our schools. Effective classroom teachers, essential first responders to facilitating literacy learning, are necessary literacy leaders at the heart of students' learning. However, increased daily challenges of multi-tiered interventions, data analysis, new literacies, and diverse learning scenarios reveal that today's classroom teachers benefit tremendously from job-embedded collaboration with reading professionals (specialists and coaches) in order to perform more expertly. But others must also commit to working toward improving student literacy performance.

The white paper suggests adjusting the school-centric lens through which the responsibility for literacy leadership is typically viewed, and asserts that literacy leadership cannot be shouldered completely by designated district or building leaders. Shared leadership among stakeholders within and outside schools is necessary in order to actualize educational goals. This widened lens allows for partnered efforts that promote change and rigor. It utilizes and enhances already existing interconnections beyond the school doors within and among families and the community, and embraces the outreach roles of universities, businesses, and civic organizations. The white paper provides specific suggestions for engaging multiple school and community-based stakeholders as literacy leaders. It contends that broadening the base of literacy leadership will offer greater possibilities for student success.

LEADERSHIP FOR LITERACY IN THE 21ST CENTURY

Association of Literacy Educators and Researchers

White Paper

Jill Lewis-Spector, New Jersey City University

Annemarie B. Jay, Widener University

April 2011

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Although the role of school leadership in promoting student achievement has been well-documented, the complexity of such leadership in the 21st century presents challenges that are more daunting than ever before. Today's school leaders must be capable of preparing thoughtful, productive, literate citizens who contribute individually and collectively to the future well-being of all and who are positioned to succeed in a global environment. Government mandates and public outcry demand that schools step up quickly and masterfully to meet these challenges.

Recent clamor throughout the U.S. about public education has centered on students' weak showing in national and international literacy assessments. Teachers have largely been targeted for blame. Suggestions for improving student accomplishments have included increasing the number of charter schools, reducing class size, and making teachers more accountable by awarding them performance pay based on student achievement. But many studies note that these ideas will not bring about the desired change, especially for students above third grade. In fact, policymakers are now looking at middle and secondary grades and are voicing concern about high student dropout rates, weak preparation for college, low graduation rates, and the lingering gap in literacy achievement of 8th and 11th grade Hispanic and African American children when compared to other, higher scoring groups (Pritchard, 1999; Center for Research on Education Outcomes, 2009; Frankenberg, Siegel-Hawley & Wang, 2010, Harris, 2006; Garcia; 2007). Researchers also largely agree that scores on standardized assessments provide an incomplete picture of what works or does not work in schools (Baker, Barton, Darling-Hammond, Haertel, Ladd, Linn, Ravitch, Rothstein, Shavelson, & Shephard, 2010).

In this white paper, The Association of Literacy Educators and Researchers (ALER) offers an alternative for accomplishing high student literacy achievement, one that entails broadening the base of literacy leadership so that all stakeholders bear some responsibility for achieving this goal. ALER suggests a thorough examination of the potential for literacy leadership both within and outside of the school, by asking "What do we know about effective leadership? What does effective leadership for literacy achievement look like? Who might be able to provide such leadership?" This white paper suggests how the contributions and roles of those on the ground, including teachers, school administrators, reading teachers, literacy coaches and curriculum supervisors, might be modified to take full advantage of their literacy knowledge.

While schools may appear to be isolated institutions, disconnected from what else happens in the rest of the local communities where they are based, this is not the reality. There is, indeed, a very strong connection between schools and the communities they serve such that what happens outside of the school has a great bearing on students' literacy achievement. For this reason, this white paper also considers the many individuals and groups outside of the school setting and how they can engage in literacy leadership: family members; including caregivers and siblings; school-home liaisons; universities; businesses; and religious groups. This white paper suggests the skills and knowledge these community members could bring to schools can contribute to the goal of high literacy achievement for all students.

The Association of Literacy Educators and Researchers believes that we are all stakeholders in the success of our children. Our lives will be affected if today's schoolchildren do not graduate with the ability to read proficiently, problem solve, communicate, and create. Thus, we must all become more visible and participatory in this endeavor by collaborating on initiatives and sharing expertise to support students' literacy achievement in the 21st Century.

Introduction

What can be done to improve students' literacy achievement? It seems that almost everyone has an answer: increase the number of charter schools, reduce class size, make teachers more accountable by awarding them performance pay based on student achievement. To some, these solutions seem reasonable given students' continuing lack of progress on such indicators as recent National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) scores.

The overall average score for fourth-graders in 2009 was unchanged from the score in 2007, [and] the average score for eighth-graders in 2009 was 1 point higher than in 2007 and 4 points higher than 1992. There were no significant changes from 2007 to 2009 in the score gaps between White and Black students or between White and Hispanic students at either grade 4 or grade 8. (National Center for Education Statistics, March 24, 2010, ¶2-3)

But upon closer examination, these recent suggestions for improving school achievement are inadequate, too costly, or in some cases even counterproductive or proven failures. Comparisons of achievement of students in charter schools to that of students in traditional public schools, for example, have produced mixed results. Most recently, a large study was conducted by Center for Research on Education Outcomes (CREDO) at Stanford University that analyzed charter school achievement in fifteen states and the District of Columbia. CREDO found that only 17% of charter schools provided exceptional achievement results, while nearly half provided interchangeable results compared to public school students; however, 37% of charter programs in the 16 state sample delivered achievement scores significantly lower than public school performance, with results fluctuating significantly across states (Center for Research on Education Outcomes, 2009).

Additionally, The Civil Rights Project (2010) pronounced charter schools to be more segregated than traditional public schools and in its view, "The charter school movement has been a major political success, but it has been a civil rights failure" (Frankenberg, Siegel-Hawley & Wang, 2010, p. 1). Garcia (2007) also found patterns of White isolation in some charter schools as well as large minority enrollments in others. The significance of such segregation vis à vis academic achievement has been documented, with students in segregated minority schools having less exposure to advantaged peers who may enrich classroom discussions (Harris, 2006).

Nor has reducing class size offered a satisfying solution for raising student achievement. Although several states have found some increases in student achievement attributable to smaller class size, economic considerations render this option extremely problematic to implement, and the gains from class size reduction have been felt mostly in grades K-3, whereas the grade at which the achievement gap begins to widen is grade 4. As one government report that reviewed the literature on class size explains,

Reducing class size to below 20 students leads to higher student achievement. However, class size reduction represents a considerable commitment of funds, and its implementation can have a sizable impact on the availability of qualified teachers. Strengthening teacher quality also leads to higher student achievement. There is more than one way to implement class size reduction, and more than one way to teach in a smaller class. Depending on how it is done, the benefits of class size reduction will be larger or smaller. (Pritchard, 1999, n.p.)

Giving teachers performance pay based on student achievement is another suggestion for raising student achievement, a policy that states are currently adopting in order to be eligible for *Race to the Top* funding, the Obama administration's program to raise student achievement. Local districts may use student test-score trends to evaluate teachers. A review of the literature on this possibility suggests that it, too, is fraught with complex problems. Although performance pay is not a new idea, when it has been tried, it did not work for one or more of several reasons, explains the Center for Teaching Quality (2007).

In some cases, student test scores could not validly and reliably measure teacher effectiveness. In other instances, poorly trained administrators could not produce useful and trusted teacher evaluation results or union leaders resisted performance-pay plans that focused solely on individual performance and ignored the importance of teamwork in increasing student achievement. Most often, teachers were not adequately involved in the development of the plans and/or policymakers did not fulfill all of their promises as the plans were implemented. (p. 42)

As authors of the Economic Policy Institute's briefing paper of August 2010 contend, "although standardized test scores of students are one piece of information for school leaders to use to make judgments about teacher effectiveness, such scores should be only a part of an overall comprehensive evaluation" (Baker, Barton, Darling-Hammond, Haertel, Ladd, Linn, Ravitch, Rothstein, Shavelson, & Shephard, 2010, pp. 1-2).

Improving student literacy achievement gets at the heart of why we educate our youth. Accomplishing this enormous goal so that all students achieve requires something much more comprehensive and thoughtful than the strategies discussed above or the punitive measures that are frequently suggested to penalize teachers, students, schools, or parents when students do not achieve at high levels. The Association of Literacy Educators and Researchers (ALER) believes that the place to begin is by examining the leadership we have for affecting educational change, generally, and for literacy, specifically. This White Paper examines the role of literacy leadership in relation to student reading achievement by examining three fundamental questions:

1. What do we know about effective school leadership?
2. What does effective leadership for literacy achievement look like?
3. Who might be able to provide such leadership?

Results from this dialogue will point us in a positive direction.

What Do We Know About Effective School Leadership?

The role school leadership plays in student achievement has been well documented (DuFour, DuFour, Eaker, & Many, 2006; Elmore & Burney, 1999; Jackson & Kelley, 2002; Marzano, 2003). But defining effective leadership is complex. According to Joiner (1987), "Effective change requires skilled leadership that can integrate the soft human elements with hard business actions" (p. 1). SEDL's review of the research on school leadership (Méndez-Morse, 1992) concludes

Six characteristics: being visionary, believing that schools are for learning, valuing human resources, communicating and listening effectively, being proactive, and taking risks, are common to successful leaders of educational change. Furthermore, these characteristics are indicative of these educational leaders' successful performance in the two dimensions considered necessary for effective leadership -- initiating structure, which is primarily concern for organizational tasks, and consideration, which is the concern for individuals and the interpersonal relations between them. Leaders of educational change illustrate this with their vision and belief that the purpose of schools is students' learning. Valuing human resources


as well as communicating and listening are directly associated with the dimension of consideration. Being a proactive leader and a risk taker demonstrate the dimension of initiating structure. Leaders of educational change respond to the human as well as the task aspects of their schools and districts. (n.p.)

What Does Effective Leadership For Literacy Look Like Within Schools?


While characteristics of effective school leaders, specifically school principals, have been identified, leadership within schools that will promote high literacy achievement has not been as carefully examined. We do know, however, some specifics that are absolutely essential.

First, individuals who provide literacy leadership within the school must be well versed in what literacy

instructional practices work for all students, including struggling readers, gifted readers, and English Language Learners, as well as how literacy instruction must and can be differentiated to accommodate these diverse learning populations. Literacy leaders must be familiar with theory and



Simply put, those who assume literacy leadership must be experts in the field of literacy.



research that explains such complexities of literacy development as connections between oral and written language and literacy achievement, options for literacy assessment, contributions technology can make to developing students' literacy and their learning of new literacies. Simply put, those who assume literacy leadership must be experts in the field of literacy. But this knowledge alone is insufficient. Literacy leaders must also be able to translate their knowledge into instructional applications so that others can benefit. They must be willing to share their expertise. They also must meet the criteria for effective teachers so they can demonstrate literacy instruction, as needed. Further, effective literacy leaders must be creative and successful in their approaches to engaging others in school or classroom literacy initiatives; they will need to be able to garner support and respect from their peers.

Who Are The Potential Literacy Leaders For Schools?

The Committee on the Future of School Leadership in Connecticut (2000) recognized that the demands of school leadership are conflicting and have become

complex as a result of “educational reform, political realities, economic constraints, an increasingly litigious environment, requiring more flexibility and multiple leaders serving different purposes and performing different functions” (p.1). Thus we must reconsider how literacy leadership roles are allocated within the school setting and reconfigure responsibility for this type of leadership such that all who have a stake in students’ literacy achievement are given opportunity to contribute leader expertise in ways that are appropriate to their respective relationships to students and schools.

In addition, we need to examine how individuals and groups outside of the school setting can engage in literacy leadership. What skills and knowledge might they bring that can contribute to the goal of high literacy achievement for all students? The recently published study on school leadership commissioned by the Wallace Foundation, *Learning from Leadership: Investigating the Links to Improved Student Learning*, (Seashore, Leithwood, Wahlstrom, & Anderson, 2010) emphasizes the need for combined or collaborative leadership, wherein all stakeholders including educators, parents, students, principals, and community members can play important literacy leadership roles. The Association of Literacy Educators and Researchers expands on this idea by describing here the contributions these key community-based stakeholders can make. We first discuss the role of those who are “on the ground,” those who provide direct instruction and support to teachers and students, including literacy coaches, reading specialists, and classroom teachers. And we address organizational leaders: principals and school superintendents. But in addition to considering leader roles within schools, we also suggest specific ways family members, including parents, students, and other family members, might contribute to literacy leadership. Further, we acknowledge and elaborate on the role other stakeholders in the community can play, such as the business community and civic and religious groups. We also examine how universities can contribute to the literacy leadership needs of local schools.

No literacy leader can act alone and expect any great measure of success, and thus we make recommendations for a coordinated effort, one that we believe will address the public’s concerns about how to help children reach literacy achievement that is critical for them to attain success in the 21st century.

The Role of Literacy Leaders ON THE GROUND

Classroom teachers, as well as the reading professionals who assist them in their work with students, are the educators directly involved in the literacy instruction of K-12 students. Although neither the reading professionals (specialists and literacy coaches) nor classroom teachers work in an administrative capacity, they are valuable informal leaders ON THE GROUND and in the heart of the educational process. Their individual and collaborative endeavors have a direct impact on the quality of education children receive. The roles of reading specialists, literacy coaches, and classroom teachers are examined in this section to underscore their importance in fostering literacy and how their expertise can be utilized for school-wide literacy leadership.

Preparing for Literacy Leadership as a Coach or Reading Specialist

The designated school leader, the school principal, often is not prepared specifically in literacy instruction and may lack the theoretical and research background necessary for making instructional decisions directly connected to students’ literacy achievement. Such literacy expertise is, however, available in schools that have either a reading specialist or a literacy coach on staff. The alert school principal will utilize this expertise to full advantage, and will support and even encourage the leadership efforts of the coach or specialist.

A *reading specialist* is a teacher who has received specific training through graduate courses in reading theories and practices related to instruction and assessment; the specialist then receives certification in reading through the state’s department of education. According to Quatroche, Bean and Hamilton (2001), a reading specialist is an educator who is a “specially prepared professional who has responsibility for the literacy performance of readers in general or struggling readers in particular” (p. 282). Reading specialists teach and assess students as part of their daily responsibilities. In many cases, they also co-plan and co-teach with classroom teachers. A *literacy coach* is a reading specialist who works mainly with teachers in either one-on-one or group venues to improve literacy instruction (Jay & Strong, 2008). However, the roles of the specialist and coach often overlap.

Literacy coaches and reading specialists learn much about literacy and about those with whom they work while they encourage teachers to reflect on their instructional practices, or as they work directly with students and teachers. In this manner, they lead by example. They

also continually seek new information in professional readings and relationships (Walpole & Blamey, 2008). Wide professional reading and regular attendance at professional conferences aids these literacy experts in self-learning and facilitates the learning of other teachers and students. Coaches and specialists need to be well-versed in curriculum and instruction as well as in adult learning theory. L'Allier, Elish-Piper and Bean (2010) state that "...advanced preparation in literacy education indicates that the coach has acquired a solid knowledge base through an articulated set of courses so that her understanding of literacy is both broad and deep" (p. 256). Many coaches and reading specialists also continue to learn about their fellow teachers, students, and curriculum by organizing and participating in action research in their schools.

Given their extensive knowledge, consideration of literacy coaches and reading specialists as literacy leaders in schools is warranted, and as such, school principals can utilize their expertise within the school. They can arrange for teachers to meet regularly with these experts for shared networking and collaborative problem-solving. Also, principals can support their literacy experts by providing resources for them to attend state and national conferences or to take graduate courses related to literacy, or by bringing a nationally recognized literacy consultant to the school to lend support to the coach and specialist. These opportunities will be instrumental in building the confidence of the reading specialist and coach, each of whom as a reading professional has a key literacy leadership role to play in the school, and coached teachers and struggling readers alike will reap the benefits.

Reading specialists and literacy coaches must be considered informal leaders even though neither role has an administrative designation. However, both reading professionals serve extremely important roles in ensuring high-quality instruction and helping students gain proficiency as literate individuals. Reading professionals have some very specific challenges they are expected to address as literacy leaders: (1) meeting state testing mandates, (2) implementing Response to Intervention (RtI), (3) teaching new literacies needed for technological communication, and (4) providing differentiated reading

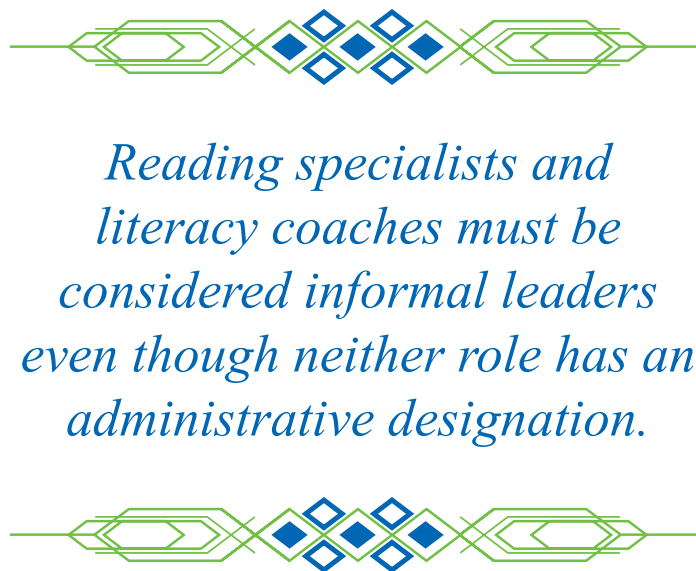
instruction for ELL students and special education students. This is especially true today as greater attention is paid to the need for U.S. workers to be able to compete in the global marketplace.

Mandated testing. With the increasing pressure of state testing mandates, reading professionals are now presented with the challenge to improve students' standardized test scores school-wide (Shaw, 2009). Teachers (and students) spend considerable time preparing for tests, administering and actually taking tests, and then reviewing the test results to make decisions about future instruction and necessary changes. Since some teachers may not be as well informed as reading professionals about assessment-instruction alignment, they would be unlikely to use data accurately to inform their instruction without effective guidance and support (Buhle & Blachowicz, 2008).

Response to Intervention

(RtI). The recent incorporation of school-wide Response to Intervention models in school programs presents new challenges for reading professionals. According to McEneaney, Lose and Schwartz (2008), RtI models propose the "identification of students with reading difficulties on the basis of a series of progressively more intense instructional interventions over extended periods of time" (p. 117). RtI is often

designed with three distinct tiers that progress from Tier I, which is implemented through regular classroom instruction and measures all student progress against grade level expectations, through Tier II, which provides reading intervention either in the classroom or in a pull out program, and Tier III, in which struggling readers receive intense intervention. The intervention portion of RtI is often facilitated by a reading specialist and overseen by the literacy coach. Often, literacy coaches suggest the intervention deemed best for the students (Gersten & Dimino, 2006). In RtI programs, reading professionals frequently assist with administering and analyzing student test data, confer with teachers and principals about the monitoring of student progress, and implement Tier II and Tier III interventions for small groups of students. Johnston (2010) notes that providing instruction through RtI or other instructional models "requires a deep understanding of literacy and how students acquire it" (p.604).



Communication and collaboration among all educators involved in RtI is crucial because “teachers and staff use information to alter instruction based on individual student needs as determined by universal screening and progress monitoring data” (Gerzel-Short & Wilkins, 2009). The International Reading Association addressed the importance of communication and collaboration of RtI practitioners, especially classroom teachers and reading specialists, and emphasized that “expert reading professionals” can plan and facilitate RtI models (Reading Today, 2009, p. 6).

New literacies. Literacy is no longer narrowly defined as the three R’s. New technologies require “more broadly conceived notions of literacy and literacy instruction” (Leu, Kinzer, Coiro & Cammack, 2004, p. 1570). The Internet is a powerful informational resource in the world; the classroom should be the arena for learning appropriate use, and critical analysis of this resource.

New literacies present challenges for reading professionals in two ways: (1) keeping current with technology uses and formats in order to provide appropriate counsel to teachers about using technology as a learning tool in their classrooms, and (2) identifying comprehension skills needed by students to interact with on-line communication and information sources. Coiro (2003) posits that teachers can engage students in “challenging and authentic learning” (p.462) through the use of technology. She advises educators to “introduce students to strategies for interacting with these new literacies... [and] ...explore digital information environments together in more thoughtful ways.” (p. 464). Reading professionals must address such questions as: How do teachers embed literacy activities on the Internet into their curriculum planning and instruction? Which reading strategies for traditional print use are also applicable to digital text use? Which are not? How will teachers know which electronic formats are developmentally appropriate for particular grades? Wepner and Ray (2002) state that the reading professional’s leadership includes the ability to stay in the forefront of what is current in education: “As we expand our definition of literacy to include electronic tools, we need to share our knowledge with our colleagues” (p. 150-151). Internet use and the use of other computer-based technologies need to be topics for professional development.

Providing differentiated reading instruction for English Language Learners (ELL) and special education students. Differentiated instruction refers to adjusting one’s teaching to meet the learning needs of students who vary from the norm. According to Tomlinson (2003), teachers should adjust the level of complexity of the

concepts they teach in order to differentiate how they teach. ELL and special education students are two groups who often require differentiated instruction even though they may be part of a typical classroom environment.

Often reading professionals are expected to assist teachers in planning instruction and finding appropriate resources to differentiate instruction. Furthermore, once struggling students’ strengths and needs are identified accurately, they need supportive, differentiated instruction in small group settings (Huebner, 2009). Differentiation does not connote a lack of rigor in the curriculum. Literacy leaders face the challenge to ensure curricular rigor and that the teachers whom they coach effectively differentiate for the learner sub-groups in their charge. Lundquist and Hill (2009) urge literacy leaders to guide teachers’ interpretation of multiple forms of data. RtI models can help to differentiate instruction for all students, especially those who need intense intervention, including ELLs and special needs students. Flexible grouping and using a range of instructional strategies and assessments are key, as they simultaneously create interest for students and focus on essential understandings and skills.

Although they face similar challenges, reading specialists and literacy coaches have somewhat different roles, and thus the ways in which they extend leadership may vary.

Reading Specialists as Literacy Leaders

The role of the reading specialist gained prominence in the mid to late 1960s following the enactment of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (1965). The federal government funded Title I programs (called Chapter I programs at the inception) to provide supplemental instructional support in reading and/or math to economically deprived students. The law required reading specialists to “work solely with eligible students and to purchase and use various resources and materials for those students only” (Bean, 2009, p. 3). As a result of ESEA, the pull-out model of remedial reading instruction thrived during the late sixties through the late eighties. In the pull-out model, children were removed from their regular classroom to another room for reading instruction from a reading specialist. In this model, children were disconnected regularly from the academic and social interactions of their own classrooms. Further, there was no requirement in the ESEA law for reading specialists and classroom teachers to collaborate about instruction. In the late eighties, the legislation was renewed with changes recommended by reading experts to improve the ways reading specialists provided reading support in schools. These included allowing (1) reading specialists to collaborate with teachers and work with them in their

classrooms; pull-out programs were no longer mandated, and (2) reading specialists whose salaries were funded with federal monies to work with all children in the class, not just those designated as economically deprived. The newfound collaboration between reading specialists and classroom teachers typically resulted in cohesive implementation of reading instruction and programs and advanced the role of the reading specialist as a literacy leader in the school.

For several decades after the ESEA legislation was passed, reading specialist positions were common in most states and they were often charged with school-wide responsibilities for the supplemental reading instruction as well as diagnostic assessment of struggling readers (Bean, 2009; Vogt & Shearer, 2007). During that time, research on the role of the reading specialist and the efficacy of reading programs suggested that reading specialists should be involved in reading instruction in every classroom, not just in those where students needed additional help. However, in many cases instructional assistants rather than certified reading specialists were providing instruction to at-risk readers (Allington & Walmsley, 1995; Quatroche, Bean & Hamilton, 2001).

In 2000, the International Reading Association produced a position statement on the roles of the reading specialist urging that "...children who are struggling with reading receive additional instruction from professionals specifically prepared to teach them" (p. 1). The statement delineated three important roles for reading specialists: instruction, assessment, and leadership.

Instructional duties call for the reading specialists to work collaboratively with classroom teachers to implement quality, research-based programs that meet the needs of students. Collaboration about instruction is crucial to provide congruent teaching (Allington & Walmsley, 2007). When the reading specialist and classroom teacher plan lessons together and share resources, they align instruction so students are able to make connections among concepts. The IRA position statement (2000) assured us that "well-coordinated, congruent, and quality" reading instruction is implemented, and it can occur in either a classroom or pull-out setting.

Reading specialists' knowledge of assessment is necessary to assess the strengths and weaknesses of individual students as well as of reading programs. This knowledge also enables specialists to help classroom teachers learn how (1) to use assessment results to plan and implement appropriate reading instruction and (2) to administer some tests and interpret results (IRA, 2000). Reading specialists must also be skilled at explaining standardized

test scores to their colleagues, administrators, and others. Additionally, they must be cognizant of accurate assessments of classroom contexts for teaching and learning. Such "contextualized assessment" (Vogt & Shearer, 2007) should be student-centered so that the reading specialists can recognize and share with others the alignment and the gaps which exist between needs-based instruction and actual classroom practice.

As a literacy leader, the reading specialist's role can be multi-faceted. First, leadership is evident in the specialist's work as a resource to both teachers and administrators. Their foundational knowledge enables them to offer suggestions to teachers to enhance instruction. Reading specialists can help "administrators in becoming more knowledgeable about the teaching of reading" (IRA, 2000, p.3). Leadership can also be provided when reading specialists offer staff development for teachers and paraprofessionals and facilitate school-wide adoption of new reading programs and other instructional resources.

Unfortunately, the leadership capabilities of reading specialists are underutilized. A national survey conducted by Dole, Liang, Watkins and Wiggins (2006) found that today's reading specialists spend most of their time working directly with students in one-on-one tutoring situations and small group settings (both in-class and pull-out). In addition to instruction, reading specialists assess and diagnose students' needs. They also "direct and implement reading programs and collaborate with other teachers regarding reading instruction" (p. 196). Yet school administrators have not taken full advantage of all that reading specialists are qualified to do. However, the changing role of the reading specialist in recent years, including rising expectations for reading specialists to influence not only individual students and teachers, but also school-wide reading performance and programming, may yield a larger and more visible leadership role for reading specialists.

According to the International Reading Association (2000), there are three distinct components of the leadership role of the reading specialist: serving as a resource to others, providing professional development, and fostering literacy program development. Whether the role is described as multi-faceted, multi-tasked, or transparent, the reading specialist needs to be proactive and responsive to instructional needs when interacting with educators and the community.

Serving as a resource to others. Reading specialists serve primarily as a resource to children by providing struggling readers with instruction in either a pull-out program that functions outside of the regular classroom or a push-in

program wherein the reading specialist goes to a regular classroom during a designated time to work with selected students. Depending on the reading specialist's philosophy and/or district expectations, the reading instruction may be aligned to classroom practices and materials, or distinct from them.

Reading specialists may also serve as a resource to classroom teachers. If reading specialists have a push-in program, the classroom teacher is able to observe the specialist's approaches to teaching, assessing, and managing practices for struggling readers. Collaboration between the classroom teacher and reading specialist provides opportunity for them to discuss and analyze the strengths of each other's instruction and, and when needed, refine methodologies. Reading specialists may have materials for students as well as teachers, that they can share with teachers.

Today's reading specialists also work closely with special education teachers, often serving on a school-wide team that assesses student progress and determines placement in reading and writing interventions. Assisting ELL teachers and/or teachers with many ELL students in the general education classroom may also fall to reading specialists (Vogt & Shearer, 2007).

Assisting with adopting new materials and/or programs is another way the reading specialist has potential for leadership. The specialist could play a major role in previewing materials, learning about the full complement of components of a published reading program, and assessing the strengths and weaknesses of the components. The reading specialist's leadership role would include sharing information about the program with staff, securing a consultant from the publishing company to address questions from the staff and to demonstrate the proper use of the materials and making recommendations about which program (or which specific components of a particular program) might best meet the needs of the school's literacy program and students. The reading specialist may also be invited to review content books, such as those for health or social studies, or books for the school's ELL population, to determine their appropriateness for the students being

served. The specialist would look at such features as readability, supporting materials, level of questions, and integration of technology.

Parents are an extremely important constituency for which reading specialists may serve as a literacy leader resource. Current responsibilities of reading specialists include meeting with parents to discuss their children's reading achievement and difficulties and advising them of what they can do at home to help their children with literacy development. In addition, they may keep parents and other community members informed of special events focused on literacy, changes in reading or writing programs,

summer initiatives, and school-wide literacy committees. Information may be shared with parents through print or electronic newsletters, on-line videos, and in person at home-school meetings.

Each area of support as a resource to others requires the reading specialist to be knowledgeable, collaborative, organized, communicative, efficient, and prudent. Serving as a resource to others exceeds the original role

of the reading specialist: instructing small groups of students. As the role has expanded, so have the leadership responsibilities, and the reading specialist needs to be a capable leader who can adapt to the complexities and challenges of a changing role.

Providing professional development. Reading specialists are frequently asked to provide professional development for individual teachers primarily by modeling lessons and co-teaching lessons. When reading specialists model lessons observed by classroom teachers, each practitioner learns from the other. Teachers and the reading specialist can discuss the lesson together afterwards so that the teachers can comment and pose questions and the reading specialist can reflect and provide a rationale. By watching a literacy expert at his/her craft, teachers gain new perspectives on planning and implementing instruction for their own students, and processing what was observed, especially the deliberate interactions of the reading specialist with the students, is invaluable to improving instruction and developing increased understanding for why specific instructional decisions were made.



Co-teaching with a reading specialist also provides a viable structure for professional development for individual teachers. Beninghof (2004) defines co-teaching as two or more adults simultaneously instructing a heterogeneous group of students in a coordinated fashion. Co-teaching lessons requires the reading specialist to know the content to be used for instruction, to meet with the teacher before the lesson to plan which parts each of them will take in providing instruction, and to follow-up with the teacher for feedback and reflection. As equal partners, co-teachers “actively and jointly plan and implement curriculum” (Wunder & Lindsey, 2004, p. 21).

Reading specialists may also assume a leadership role by providing professional development sessions for groups of teachers, often at the request of the school principal or another administrator. These may be for a grade level or team of teachers or an entire school staff to address such topics as assessment data review, use of new reading materials, or information about a district writing initiative. Many reading specialists regularly write their own newsletters or share current research articles with teachers. They may lead by facilitating professional learning communities, or study groups, in which teachers voluntarily read and discuss issues related to specific literacy topics, such as motivating adolescent learners or using word walls for vocabulary development in primary grade classrooms.

Fostering literacy program development. The third leadership component IRA identified for reading specialists is fostering literacy program development, which can involve an entire school. To promote school-wide or district-wide program development, all teachers need to gain awareness of and proficiency in implementing the literacy program for it to be considered systemically executed. This is important especially when a program is new, as educational change is difficult when group consensus about the change has not been reached (Fullan & Hargreaves, 1996). Reading specialists can foster literacy program development in a variety of ways. Once a need for program development is established, reading specialists often serve on, or facilitate, committees of educators who investigate the program and determine whether it should be used throughout the school, with consideration for cost, its alignment to the school’s literacy philosophy, and student needs. Reading specialists’ foundational knowledge of the reading process and of reading instruction is crucial in aiding a committee to make a reasonable decision, and in sharing the rationale for the decision with administrators, parents, and the community; it is easier when a cohesive committee report is rendered.

Attending professional conferences and seminars and sharing newly learned information based on research with colleagues is a collaborative way for reading specialists to foster literacy program development. It is even more desirable for reading specialists and classroom teachers to attend conferences together so they can collaborate on introducing a new program or idea to colleagues. Their collaboration further legitimates the program in instances where the school culture does not recognize the reading specialist as a “regular” teacher and questions the specialist’s ability to identify what works with whole classes. It offers more opportunity for the specialist to provide the teachers with professional development in the process of fostering program development.

For example, if a school’s writing program is weak and the specialist recently attended a seminar on developmentally appropriate methods for teaching major modes of writing across the grades, the reading specialist can impact on program improvement. After creating a plan for sharing the information, the reading specialist can make staff aware of the initiative through general comments at a faculty meeting or through a newsletter. Specific information about implementation of the writing program can be made at grade level or department meetings in which the reading specialist is allotted time to explicitly delineate components of the program or to demonstrate some elements of it. Ongoing follow-up work can occur in individual classrooms and subsequent grade level or department meetings.

Schools have undergone many reforms since the enactment of both ESEA legislation in the sixties and *No Child Left Behind* (2001) legislation in the 21st century, in part to meet the demands of state and federal mandates and increasingly diverse student populations. Also the roles of educational professionals have changed, and the reading specialist is no exception. Some of these shifts have led to new leadership possibilities for them as literacy coaches.

Literacy Coaches and Leadership for Literacy

Although literacy coaching is currently a “hot topic” (Cassidy & Cassidy, 2009/2010), the role’s epistemology can be traced to the 1930’s (Bean, 2009; Bean & Wilson, 1981) when reading professionals assumed leadership for working directly with teachers, coaching them to improve classroom instruction. Bean and Wilson (1981) identified the coaching aspect of the reading professional’s role as a continuum on which the guidance of students’ reading skills and the guidance of teachers’ craft of reading instruction spanned the range of responsibilities. In recent decades, coaching has taken on many models: a reading professional may serve as a reading specialist part of a

day or week, working directly with struggling readers, and a literacy coach for the remainder of the day or week. A coach may work in one school serving a specified group of grade level teachers or teams, or a coach may have responsibility for an entire school or for several schools.

When federal monies were allotted to public schools for professional development (*No Child Left Behind Act*, 2001), a garden variety of coaching models blossomed as did concern for the quality of coaching and training of coaches. In response, the International Reading Association issued a position statement on the *Roles and Qualifications of the Reading Coach in the United States* (2004). The position statement indicates that the reading specialist's function has "shifted away from direct teaching and toward leadership and professional development roles" (p. 1). At a minimum, literacy coaches should be: excellent teachers of reading, especially at the levels at which they coach; knowledgeable about all aspects of reading processes; experts at interacting with teachers seeking to improve their instructional practices; excellent presenters and staff developers; and experienced in modeling, observing, and providing feedback to teachers and paraprofessionals regarding their literacy instruction. IRA's recently published *Standards for Reading Professionals* (International Reading Association, 2010), provides more detail by delineating the literacy coach requirements as identical to those of the reading specialist and in fact, includes the standards for both in a role description category labeled *Reading Specialist/Literacy Coach*.

Although not all coaches in all states are required to be certified Reading Specialists, if they meet IRA's minimal *Standards*, they can serve a central role as literacy leaders in schools, as skilled mentors who work closely with less skilled yet able colleagues. They spend their time on professional development to improve teachers' literacy instruction, rather than directly instructing students (Jay & Strong, 2008). Recent research (Wei, Darling-Hammond, Andree, Richardson, & Orphanos, 2009; Shanklin, 2009) emphasizes that effective professional development is intensive and ongoing and leads to improved teaching.

There are multiple ways in which coach-teacher interactions take place. Throughout the literature, the literacy coaches' roles and dispositions are referred to as those of collaborator, facilitator, and learner (Bean, 2009; Jay & Strong, 2008; L'Allier, Elish-Piper, & Bean, 2010; Rainville & Jones, 2008; Vogt & Shearer, 2007; Walpole & Blamey, 2008). Having multiple roles can turn easily into an unrealistic, unmanageable job, but support from administrators and colleagues helps the coach to function effectively in each of the leadership roles discussed here.

Literacy coach as collaborator. The collaborative aspect of coaching involves leadership for instructional reform at the building level, working with an individual teacher in the classroom or a grade level or department team of teachers. The foundation for collaborative relationships between literacy coaches and teachers is built on a trusting partnership in which conversations are kept confidential. Coaches focus on teacher learning that will positively affect student achievement, which may be uncomfortable for either the teacher or the coach when it necessitates examining teachers' assumptions or long-term practices.

Walpole and McKenna (2007) find that instituting change through partnered efforts "requires insightful leadership" and is accomplished through "hard coaching" (p. 34). When the two professionals engage in collaborative reflection, they explore possibilities that can be generalized to other instructional situations (Moran, 2007). The effective literacy coach who collaborates with a variety of teachers uses leadership skills to address the unique needs of each teacher, manages the discomfort that may result from reform, and provides support, while maintaining high expectations. Allen (2006) recommends that literacy coaches create both conditions and conversations from which teachers get the support they need.

In addition to demonstrating leadership at the building level with teachers, the literacy coach also leads by collaborating with the principal on literacy priorities for the school: forming a school literacy team; analyzing data and reporting to stakeholders; reporting on curriculum strengths and needs across the building; and planning staff development sessions. Each of these priorities is generalized to encompass school-wide teaching and learning needs; none is prioritized to an individual teacher.

Forming a school literacy team ensures representation of all grades and departments in a process of collegial exploration toward a goal. Teams may be formed for a specific purpose such as language arts curriculum renewal, or for ongoing collaboration regarding a variety of school-based concerns related to literacy instruction, including data analysis and reporting. As a key literacy leader in the building, the literacy coach can confer with the principal about action steps to take to demonstrate needed growth or stability, and can provide feedback to teachers, students, and other stakeholders about testing data.

Literacy coaches and their principals often discuss school-based curriculum strengths and needs. Since the literacy coach does not evaluate teachers, these discussions usually avoid referring to specific teachers and center on general school improvement questions to promote a "we're all in this together" philosophy. For instance, they might

consider: How can the writing program be improved? What technology is well-integrated into our curriculum? What technology needs updating? Do all aspects of the curriculum align with state and national standards? How are we kept informed of students' independent reading time and interests outside of our classrooms? Also they might collaboratively plan the school's professional development program in literacy for the year. The literacy coach often facilitates such meetings (Bean, 2009; Jay & Strong, 2008; Vogt & Shearer, 2007).

Literacy coach as facilitator.

A common leadership responsibility for the literacy coach is facilitating committee work, teacher study groups, and other meetings where students' literacy achievement is central. Coaches may, for instance, facilitate data review meetings with individual, grade/department teams, or an entire school faculty, all of which are likely to require action plans to move toward desired goals. One of the most important meetings a coach might facilitate is a follow-up to initial data review when teachers and the coach closely analyze student artifacts, such as writing samples, completed graphic organizers, comprehension tests, and reading logs. Teachers can share ideas about how to teach so their students achieve at higher levels (Guiney, 2001). The coach, working as a participant-observer, poses thought-provoking questions and comments about student products while considering how to help individual teachers make any instructional changes suggested during these meetings. Additionally, the coach may be asked to facilitate meetings to share student data and/or literacy curriculum information with parents and other community members.

Classroom Teachers as Leaders

No single factor influences students' educational experiences and academic achievement more than their teachers. Teacher influence, especially with regard to decisions about literacy curriculum and instruction and how to best meet students' literacy needs, is requisite to student achievement (Corcoran, Walker, & White, 1988). Yet, as Ingersoll (2003) contends, "Those who are entrusted with the training of this next generation are not entrusted with much control over many of the key decisions in their work" (p. 22). The result of disenfranchising teachers, he cautions, will be schools that "deprofessionalize and demotivate" them. Teachers are

rarely invited into the conversations about school reform. Ingersoll (2007) continues to call for greater involvement of teachers in reform efforts, noting

Too much organizational control may deny teachers the very power and flexibility they need to do the job effectively, undermine their motivation, and squander a valuable human resource—the high

degree of commitment of those who enter the teaching occupation. Having little say in the terms, processes, and outcomes of their work, teachers may doubt they are doing worthwhile work—the very reason many of them came into the occupation in the first place—which may contribute to high rates of turnover. (p. 25)

The recent *ESEA Blueprint for Education Reform* (U. S.

Department of Education, Office of Planning, Evaluation, and Policy Development, March 2010), in which the need for growth in students' literacy accomplishments is given considerable attention, includes President Obama's suggestion that school reform is a "shared responsibility" (p. 1). Yet closer examination of this document reveals that current education leadership policy falls short of the recognition that "we're all in this together." In fact, the report mentions "leaders and teachers" 17 times within its 42 pages, leaving the impression that teachers cannot also be leaders. This point of view ignores the incredible leadership resource teachers can provide.

Leadership opportunities currently available to teachers, such as serving as a leader of a study group, are limited and fail to take advantage of teacher expertise. As Murphy and Lick (2001) note, the study group leadership role does not require special training; the study group determines its curriculum and sets its own goals and directions. The success of the group is dependent on the contribution of each member, and often leadership is rotated.

Opportunities for teachers to extend leadership beyond their classrooms are unavailable for most teachers.

Danielson (2007) explains,

Teaching is a flat profession. In most professions, as the practitioner gains experience, he or she has the opportunity to exercise greater responsibility and assume more significant challenges. This is not true of teaching. The 20-year veteran's responsibilities are essentially the same as those of the newly licensed novice. (p.14)



This situation denies the reality that teachers often remain in their schools far longer than the school administrators, making teachers the carriers of the school culture. Danielson suggests “School districts that want to improve make a wise investment when they cultivate and encourage teacher leaders, because they are in a position to take the long view and carry out long-range projects” (2007, p.16).

It is even more crucial that teachers’ expertise be utilized for literacy leadership. Often school administrators have limited expertise in literacy instruction, and they are further removed from daily instructional routines and accomplishments. Teachers conduct ongoing assessment of student achievement and have opportunities to incorporate the most current, research-based literacy instructional practices. What teachers learn in this process must be shared and developed into successful school-wide literacy practices. Fullan (2007) contends, “The litmus test of all leadership is whether it mobilizes people’s commitment to putting their energy into actions designed to improve things. It is individual commitment, but above all it is collective mobilization” (p. 9). Because they are in classrooms every day and share problems other teachers face, teacher leaders are better able to build relational skills with peers. “When the going gets tough and colleagues lose sight of their purpose or begin to question their commitment, teacher leaders’ clarity, optimism, and dedication are a powerful antidote” (Donaldson, 2007, p.28).

As literacy leaders, skillful teachers will collaborate effectively with peers, and their contributions to student success need to be acknowledged by school administrators. This suggests that administrators must be receptive to teachers becoming literacy leaders. As Danielson (2007) explains, “The school administrator plays a crucial role in fostering the conditions that facilitate teacher leadership,” (p. 17) and she suggests that these conditions include (a) a safe environment for risk-taking, (b) administrators who encourage teacher leaders, (c) teachers who are not resistant to assuming leadership roles, and (d) opportunities for teachers to learn leadership skills.

The role of teachers who are literacy leaders may extend well beyond classroom practice. A study of teachers who had assumed leadership roles, primarily National Board certified teachers and Teachers of the Year, was conducted in February 2003 by the Center for Teacher Leadership at the Virginia Commonwealth University School of Education. Respondents identified the top three areas in which they have not served as leaders, but would like to serve. Ninety-five percent of respondents chose (1) advisor to policymaking group, (2) teacher recruitment, and (3) education policy and issues (Dozier & Barnes, 2003). Many of these respondents might certainly qualify as

literacy leaders in their schools, and they would have an important role to play in such decision-making activities.

Classroom teachers, reading specialists, and literacy coaches are involved directly in providing quality instruction to students to ensure that they develop into proficient readers and writers. Their leadership contributions are crucial in each and every school. However, they do not and cannot work alone. Rather, as currently organized, the principal is the school leader; as such, the principal’s potential for literacy leadership must be considered.

The Role of Organization Leaders in Leadership for Literacy

School administrators are the CEOs of their organizations. They need to be cognizant of all aspects of leading an effective organization, but especially what is being taught and learned in their schools; after all, schools are learning organizations. According to Fullan (2009), successful schools are organized for learning and problem-solving at all times; they are consistently focused on improving the organization. At the organizational level, principals and curriculum supervisors tend to be the administrators directly involved with leading literacy programs and making decisions about what good literacy instruction looks like in their schools. Also these literacy leaders find it necessary to deal with issues related to budget and hiring and evaluating teachers. They are responsible for making decisions in the best interests of students, the teachers who serve the children of the school, and the community at large.

As building leaders, school principals must ensure that their staff is qualified to develop the literacy of the children in their charge. Much of that responsibility involves arranging for consistent, high-level professional development for teachers; knowing the district’s literacy goals and seeing that they are carried out; and being able to adequately report to district superiors and community stakeholders what is happening instructionally in the building.

Curriculum supervisors are responsible for establishing the vision for the school’s instructional programming in literacy. They provide a theoretical framework that can be put into effective instructional practices by school-based literacy leaders such as principals, reading professionals, and classroom teachers.

The Principal’s Role as Literacy Leader

School principals have an eclectic assortment of daily tasks. They interact with children who span a range of

ages and needs, as well as with adults who may or may not advocate the principal's educational and/or managerial philosophies. Resources for effective teaching and learning vary from one school to the next. With so many variables and so many decisions to make, yet having so little time, what's the principal to do? Danielson (2007) speculates that the demands of today's principals are nearly impossible to meet since the principal is expected to be the composite of a visionary, manager, and leader. This is troublesome especially when one considers that the current high rate of principal turnover can result in frequent change of priorities and make it difficult to establish coherence in school programs, including literacy programs. According to Scott (2003) "The National Association of Secondary School Principals [NASSP] found a 50% turnover of high school principals during the 1990's" (p. 50) as compared to a turnover rate of 42% during the preceding 10-year period. Furthermore, the resultant instability makes it difficult for principals to identify and take full advantage of all literacy leaders who may be in the school, since, as noted by the Committee on the Future of School Leadership in Connecticut (2000), this requires

investing in others and increasing opportunities for individual authority, responsibility, choice and influence. Such leadership can release organizational potential, make decisions and actions count, and increase the sense that individuals can make a difference. It is distributing authority, encouraging initiative, creating a culture of cooperation, cultivating connections, building capacity, and developing a professional problem-solving capacity that will increasingly describe successful leadership. (CFSLC, p 2)

If, however, all principals utilize the National Association for Elementary School Principals (NAESP) 2008 standards for what principals need to know and do to be effective leaders of learning, they will have a solid foundation on which to build their literacy leadership skills. Although NAESP created the standards for elementary principals, their basic tenets apply to principals K-12. These six standards provide a sturdy framework to examine the role of the principal as literacy leader.

Standard 1: Lead student and adult learning. Ongoing professional development permits school staff to stay current within their field and evaluate their own practices

and growth based on applicable research. "Schools can be no better than the educators who work within them" (Guskey, 2009 p. 226). Because schools educate our children, it is only logical that literacy leaders such as principals maintain a clear focus on student learning. However, the learning of those who provide the instruction also needs to be attended to by organizational leaders.

Principals can provide literacy leadership when they (1) observe literacy teaching and learning regularly within their school, (2) engage in purposeful dialogue with teachers about their instructional practices for developing children's literacy, and (3) participate in focused classroom


visitations with literacy coaches and then share their thoughts about such features of their observations as the arrangement of the physical environment to promote student learning and the use of print and/or technology resources being used by a class, or groups.

Learner-centered leadership is at the heart of leading both

student and adult learning. When schools attempt reform, the adults become developmental learners engaged in a professional growth process. Teachers cannot be expected to implement a programmatic innovation within the school if they feel they have not been adequately prepared or lack of support from the principal. Guskey (2009) assures school leaders that the content of professional development sessions will be ineffectual if shared in a context unprepared to accept and use it.

Of course, one of the adults who should seek continual learning is the principal, particularly learning about literacy. By effectively utilizing other literacy leaders in the school, such as the coaches, reading specialists, and expert teachers, the principal can expand his/her knowledge base about literacy research and practices that raise literacy achievement. By attending professional workshops facilitated by reading professionals, the principal can learn first-hand what the staff is learning about instructional techniques. Jay and McGovern (2007) suggest that rather than functioning as an expert who oversees the other adult learners in the building, the principal should participate actively in professional development along with the staff.

Standard 2: Lead diverse communities. The majority of 21st century American schools and communities are socioeconomically and ethnically diverse. School leaders



*Learner-centered leadership
is at the heart of leading both
student and adult learning.*

also face diversity issues with students who have physical, mental, or psychological challenges. It is imperative that principals effectively lead the instruction of these groups with an understanding that children who lack language proficiencies need to take part in instructional programs that explicitly teach both conversational and academic language skills as well as social conventions through interactive approaches (Coleman & Goldenberg, 2009). They must also communicate to staff that intercultural transitioning (Copeland, 2007) takes place in schools for students who are striving for academic and social survival and success.

Further, Copeland (2007) posits that educators should “challenge themselves to see their own teaching assumptions through a culturally different lens – one that ultimately broadens their understanding of their own teaching values and methods” (p. 67). For the principal who has neither lived nor worked in a city, yet is assigned to an urban school, this means examining the accuracy of assumptions he or she may hold about the children and families in this urban setting. The principal will also want to encourage the staff to learn how literacy is used at home (Heath, 1983) so those practices can be utilized as a basis for literacy instruction of diverse learners. Carrying this set of understandings into meetings with staff, families, and the community, the principal will convey high expectations for literacy.

Standard 3: Lead 21st century learning. Principals must lead their schools using a 21st century mentality about the information age because familiarity with technology is essential to the literacy future of students (International Reading Association, 2001). IRA’s position statement on integrating technology and literacy encourages school leaders to “systematically integrate Internet and other ICT (information and communication technologies) in thoughtful ways in the literacy curriculum, especially in developing the critical literacies essential to effective information use” (p. 3). Researchers who support this view (Leu, Kinzer, Coiro, & Cammack, 2004) emphasize the need to prepare students with literacy integrated with technology.

Effective principals who act as literacy leaders will ensure that their teachers are trained adequately to use technology when it is the most appropriate tool for facilitating instruction, such as determining when using a Smart Board is better than a PowerPoint presentation, or when a teacher-created graphic organizer on the white board is preferable to a flow chart from a textbook.

It is equally necessary for principals to ensure that students have access to the Internet and other technologies to

conduct inquiries and to communicate with others. When students use electronic research and presentation tools, they develop literacy through technology that helps them build their content knowledge (Wepner & Ray, 2002) and improve their interest and motivation in the communication arts.

Principals wrestle with other issues related to technology. Resources are expensive and quickly out-dated. Budget and equipment needs are often at odds. In order to lead 21st century literacy learning, principals must acquire sufficient funding resources through their school district, grants, or awards, and then to equitably disperse these tools across classrooms so that all students have opportunities to acquire proficiencies with new literacies.

Standard 4: Lead continuous improvement. The school principal as literacy leader will focus on continuous improvement for all learners within the school: the students, the teachers, and the principal. Principals and their teachers need time to think and talk, formally and informally, about the instruction that occurs in their schools (Drago-Severson, 2004).

Teacher evaluations have the potential to contribute to continuous improvement in literacy instruction. The principal’s formal observations of teachers should consider how teachers address the literacy priorities of the school, district, and/or building’s literacy team. However, the potential of teacher evaluations will not be realized if the school environment is one of distrust. “An open, trusting relationship between the principal and faculty enhances motivation for all to work together. In addition, the culture of anxiety traditionally associated with required teacher evaluations can be transformed by a common agenda for improvement in student learning” (Cross & Rice, 2000, p. 64).

Standard 5: Lead using knowledge and data. In this age of accountability, schools have access to considerable student achievement data that can be used to improve instruction. According to Steele and Boudett (2009), “the power of data is unlocked when staff members grapple as a team with information from a wide range of sources” (p. 58). Collaboration on analysis and review of data provides a safety net for professional development. Teachers tend to take risks to improve their own instructional techniques when they share problem-solving ideas related to data. The principal should be an active participant in data review meetings as either facilitator, co-facilitator, or co-participant, thereby revealing the importance of the meetings for all school staff.

When teachers join other teachers and other literacy leaders, including the principal, to examine standardized

test scores, teacher-made tests, and samples of student work, they can discuss what the data reveal about their instruction and their students. They can consider how to proactively adjust instruction to improve learning and ultimately test results. An effective principal will lead teachers to satisfactorily address these issues and to work together for school-wide improvement.

Standard 6: Lead parent, family, and community engagement. The principal can serve as a literacy leader by communicating the efforts and literacy successes of the students to parents and community members through home-school meetings with parents, by writing newsletter columns, and by posting information on school web sites. Regular communication with families is a key to understanding the variety of cultural and social backgrounds that shape children's development; families need to be recognized as integral partners with schools (Arndt & McGuire-Schwartz, 2008).

The diversity issues previously discussed make it incumbent upon the principal to ensure that the families of students with specialized needs are not discriminated against because their culture or language differ from a mainstream European American families. Sensitivity to issues of diversity is core to school-family partnerships in which educators take the initiative to include parents and other caregivers in programs that enhance the literacy learning of the children in the schools (Jay & Korin, 2009; Wearmouth, 2004). Recognizing parents' contributions to children's literacy learning improves the bond between home and school and also between parent and child (Feiler, et al, 2008).

Certainly every principal who attends to these six standards and uses them to work toward promoting literacy achievement in their schools can claim to be a literacy leader. Moreover, he or she can expect the support of the school staff, including reading professionals, teachers, and curriculum supervisors, as they work toward the same goals.

Curriculum Supervisors as Literacy Leaders

Curriculum supervisors often have responsibility for more than one school and, in some cases, an entire district. As those who oversee and document the language arts curriculum, curriculum supervisors need knowledge of current literacy research and best practices so they can help teachers make that research a reality in their classrooms. The role of a curriculum supervisor differs in several respects from those of reading professionals. Firstly, they focus more on standards and curriculum alignment and less on particular students and/or teachers' needs. They must ensure that the language arts curriculum for all children is

aligned to district goals and state and national standards. Their knowledge base must consist of the content and process knowledge of all reading professionals. Secondly, they are supervisors and as such they are certified to observe and evaluate teachers. They work closely with principals and other administrators to develop a deep understanding of the schools' and community's literacy needs and achievements.

When observing teachers at their craft, curriculum supervisors need to be keenly aware of whether teachers are providing effective instruction and equitable learning opportunities for all of the language arts (reading, writing, listening, speaking and viewing) and not de-emphasizing or omitting one from the curriculum. Also they should ensure that technology is integrated with instruction. They might use an observation guide to indicate (for themselves and for the teachers) which areas of the language arts are taught, how they are taught, and how students are encouraged to respond and apply literacy skills. The guide might be published, such as the one published by Vogt in 1991, or it might be created in collaboration with a committee that includes classroom teachers from a range of grades or departments, reading specialists, literacy coaches, principals, and special education teachers.

Curriculum supervisors plan and organize professional development for teaching staff. Typically, they start with a needs assessment for professional development. The reading professionals in individual buildings can help curriculum supervisors determine what is happening well and not so well in the schools. Also principals can provide valuable insights about literacy teaching and learning in their schools. This information may be used to design workshops for teachers facilitated by in-house experts (coaches, reading specialists, classroom teachers) or by consultants from outside the school.

As the case with all literacy leaders in schools, a curriculum supervisor must be able to communicate effectively with the teaching staff and other administrators. While they need to be able to plan and design curriculum and assessment and analyze data, they also must be active, respectful listeners who display optimism and enthusiasm as they communicate with colleagues (Danielson, 2007).

Although they do not have direct teaching responsibilities, administrators such as principals and curriculum supervisors have direct responsibility for what is taught in their schools, for designing effective instructional programs, and for providing information to the public. As literacy leaders, principals, supervisors, and other educational administrators are charged with the effective learning of all the students in their charge *and* all the

adults with whom they work: this includes the teachers who instruct the children, the parents and caregivers who oversee the transitions children make between home and school, and the community in which the children and their families live and work.

The Role of FAMILY MEMBERS as Literacy Leaders

If we map assets outside of the school to identify resources to improve students' literacy development, parents, caregivers, students, and other family members would be seen to play key leadership roles. Here we outline ways these outside of school resources can serve as literacy leaders. Each suggestion offers support to the school and does not detract from the school's mission, but rather enhances the school's possibilities.

Parents and Other Caregivers as Literacy Leaders

To achieve the kind of coordinated, collaborative leadership for literacy we recommend here, parents must be empowered to participate in decision-making that affects the literacy experiences their children will have in school. *Parents*, as we use the term, may be biological, adoptive, or foster parents, grandparents, aunts, uncles, siblings, or any adult with the responsibility for caring for the child. Creating a cohesive and multi-faceted leadership system that involves parents in policy planning discussions, curriculum development, and governance considerations requires vision, courage, and commitment from school administration and teachers.

Collaborative engagement in school activity can affect positively parents' relationships with and beliefs about their responsibilities to the school. To achieve such connections schools need to welcome parents. In addition, the entire school staff needs to recognize that their success depends upon establishing a reciprocal relationship with stakeholders outside of the school whose interests intertwine with its own. Student achievement affects everyone, and parents are as much stakeholders in what their children accomplish in school as those who instruct them.

True collaboration is difficult to achieve. As the UCLA Center for Mental Health in Schools reports, "The

hallmark of collaboration is a formal agreement among participants to establish an autonomous structure to accomplish goals that would be difficult to achieve by any of the participants alone" (2007, p.2). Autonomous structures within the school might include parent-teacher-staff councils, where each member has an equal vote and equal opportunity to suggest ideas and express concerns that can bear on student progress.

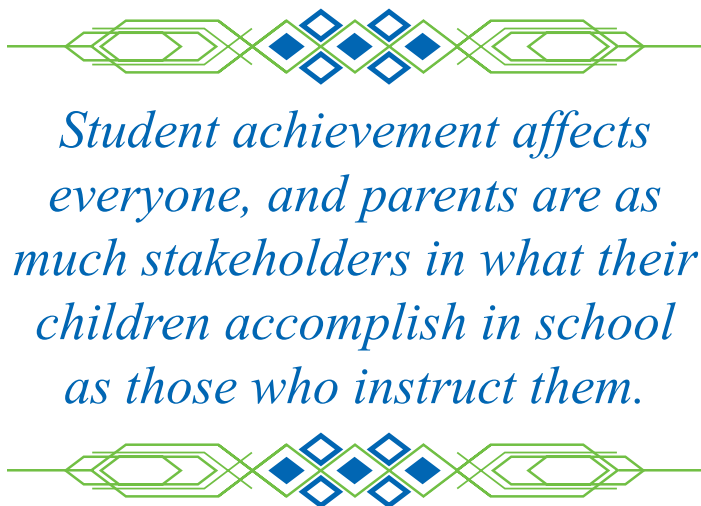
Epstein (1987) suggests four practices that do not rely on autonomous structures but can contribute to the development of positive home-school relationships: *parenting, communicating, volunteering, and home learning*. An examination of these vis à vis literacy achievement yields suggestions that extend parental/caregiver literacy leadership roles.

Parenting. Parents often receive guidance from schools about the need to establish home environments conducive for doing homework and studying. They may learn teacher expectations as students transition from grade to grade, and they may be encouraged, especially in the

early grades, to read to their children. While important suggestions, to become literacy leaders, parents need more than a set of directions. Workshops and videotapes could provide information on such topics as how to read to children; book selection; games for developing such skills as sight word recognition, fluency, phonological awareness and comprehension; building literacy utilizing local resources, including the

local library; intelligent television viewing; and effective ways to use the internet with children. As parents become more familiar with ways to contribute to their children's literacy development, they can make knowledge-based contributions to school-wide literacy instruction policy discussions.

Communicating. Many schools communicate with parents via email, and post school information, such as progress reports and school events, on the school's website. For some parents, this is the only communication they have with the school; others may be unable to take advantage of these notices because they lack access to a computer or do not have the necessary computer skills. Others may struggle with reading or they may not be fluent in the language(s) used at the school's website. Some may



have a combination of these disadvantages, thus limiting their ability to communicate with their children's schools as well as their ability to understand school policies and practices, their knowledge of their children's progress, and their capability to take on literacy leadership roles.

One powerful leadership role parents can play is that of a home/school liaison. As links between homes and schools, liaisons typically help immigrant families with school issues, both academic and nonacademic. Liaisons can familiarize other parents with school expectations, practices, as well as policies, which may differ from those of their home countries. The communication liaisons provide is essentially one-way—school-to-home. A more vibrant two-way communication and achievement-oriented approach would entail the liaison using information learned about how literacy is used in the home to inform the school about potential home literacy resources. This expanded role positions the liaison for literacy leadership and lets parents know that their home practices are valued and important contributions to their children's literacy accomplishments.

Volunteering. Parents and other caregivers often volunteer in their children's schools. Typically, though, they read stories to children, assist at special events at the school, and chaperone on field trips or at school dances. Parents might also serve on school boards or can be appointed to board committees. They can participate as judges during competitive school events, such as talent shows and science fairs. Whereas others can serve as teacher-for-a-day, or share specialized technology-based skills, gardening expertise, or a crafting talent. Currently, parents are an underutilized resource for schools.

Home learning. There is no question that parents can work at home to reinforce what their children learn in school. Those parents who are enthusiastic about this responsibility could be encouraged to be part of a videotape library for other parents who may be less comfortable, and/or less familiar with how to scaffold reading literacy or math skills though everyday experiences, how to use television as a learning tool, or how to share stories and play math games with their children.

One way schools can make parents feel welcome is to provide them with a meeting space at the school where they can share ideas with others who have common childrearing concerns, such as those centered on school performance or behavioral issues. Leadership can emerge from such parent groups and identifiable leaders can be invited to participate in other school activities where they can play a key role.

Also parents can contribute significantly as literacy leaders when they work as advocates for schools. Some may view parent advocacy as working in opposition to schools to obtain special privileges or considerations for their children, such as admission to special programs, e.g., honors classes. But parent advocacy can be much more and can contribute positively to a school's reform efforts. For instance, parents can be one voice that meets with legislators on behalf of their children's school district whose funds are in danger of being cut. They can serve as grassroots advocates for grant applications schools submit for literacy programs. They can talk with other parents in the community or write letters to editors of local newspapers to garner support for school budgets.

Partnerships created between parents and schools must be authentic if they are to be meaningful for parents. This means they cannot be geared to narrow school agendas or mandates for collaboration and must go beyond symbolic activities like having coffee with the principal.

When parents become engaged more meaningfully with the school they see themselves as positive contributors to their children's accomplishments and important school resources; also they recognize they have accountability for their children's achievements. Another important consequence is their goals for their children have greater likelihood of becoming consonant with those of the school. In effect, through these suggested activities, parents come to see themselves as real partners and leaders in their children's achievement and school success.

Students' Roles as Literacy Leaders

When the topic of family involvement in literacy is addressed, it typically revolves around the notion that parents and caregivers can influence positively the literacy values and practices that younger family members eventually attain. However, there are opposite yet equal contributing factors of family literacy. While the positive effects of adults on children's literacy growth are well-documented, the contributions children can make on the literacy development of adult family members as well as on other children in the family are rarely identified. How do school-age children affect the dynamics of family literacy interactions?

The differences among family relationships, literacy support, and life situations should be considered as factors that can enhance or hinder students' roles in family literacy (Wiseman, 2009). To determine how school-age children affect family literacy interactions, the following questions might be asked: What inspires younger family members to read a book, look through household magazines, research

a topic on the internet, or text or e-mail extended family? What family literacy interactions do children, rather than adults, initiate? How much interest is shown by feedback given to students at home about their literacy activities?

For students to take a leadership role in literacy of family members, they need to possess some of the same dispositions needed for effective literacy engagement at school: self-efficacy and motivation, a good attitude toward learning, established reading habits, and willingness to practice skills that require improvement.

Self-efficacy. Self-efficacy may be defined as the belief and confidence one has about his/her capacity to accomplish meaningful tasks and achieve goals. According to Linnenbrink and Pintrich (2003), self-efficacy involves specific and situational judgments of one's capabilities. These authors state that accurate and specific judgments are more closely related to an individual's actual task engagement and learning than generalized ability statements. For example, "I can sing" is a generalized judgment; "I can sing well enough to perform an aria with the local opera company" is a specific judgment.

Children's self-efficacy develops when they experience positive family, peer, and school relationships, and receive encouragement when they attempt new tasks or become involved with new situations. In order for children to assume a leadership role in family literacy, they need a secure sense of self-efficacy as well as a willingness to put forth effort to achieve goals. A young child indicates a desire to read a favorite story to an adult or sibling at home. Although the young child may not be a fluent reader, s/he demonstrates self-efficacy by requesting the audience of an experienced, proficient reader. Similarly, an adolescent demonstrates self-efficacy when requesting that a parent or older sibling read and critique an essay written for a homework assignment.

School-age children become literacy leaders at home when they assist younger family members with literacy learning (reading to or sharing reading with a young child), help an adult who is not tech-savvy locate information on the computer, or help a non-English speaker with communicating in English. They can also initiate literacy events such as suggesting that family members read a particular book and then watch the book-based movie together so they can compare the two and share each other's expectations and impressions.

Intergenerational discussions about what is read, whether books, articles, or blogs, can take place at home and inspire additional reading and dialogue among family members. As digital natives (Prensky, 2001), today's children adapt quickly to using communication skills

necessary for electronic communication. As confident users of technology, school-age children can provide their families with demonstrations about how to access information and correctly use specific applications.

When family interactions enable a school-age student to identify and express self-efficacy, the child's strong belief in personal capabilities and achievable goals often leads to further literacy engagement at home.

Motivation. How does competence/efficacy develop? Usually, an activity or process is repeated often until one performs it competently. When we feel competent in a particular area, such as sports, social interactions, academics, the performing arts, sewing, or specific job-related skills, we are more motivated to perform that action than if we feel incompetent in that area. Participation and active learning are critical determinants to students' self-investment in their learning both at home and at school (Willms, Friesen & Milton 2009).

Motivation is critical to reading success. Children motivated to read spend more time reading than those not motivated (Guthrie, Wigfield, Metsala, & Cox, 1999). Although the motivation may be intrinsic, children who read are rewarded. Motivational engagement is evident when students possess both a personal, intrinsic interest and an identified utility value for a topic or event (Linnenbrink & Pintrich, 2003). Often those who complete school reading assignments at home can participate successfully with peers in class discussions or other reading response activities. When school age children are intrinsically motivated to read, they value the time and effort they expend for the literacy event as well as the information gained from what they have read. Further, while children who pleasure read at home are reading for their own self-gratification and making personal decisions about what to read, their motivation can be sustained and even increased when others show a sincere interest in that child's activity. According to Tomlinson and Allan (2000), strong links exist between interest and motivation and interest-based reading options and enhance intrinsic motivation.

Usually interested and engaged children are cogent thinkers and proficient students (Guthrie & Humenick, 2004). Therefore, being motivated to read at home is a win-win situation for students. They enjoy reading self-selected topics of interest, and they build background knowledge and vocabulary they can apply to learning situations in the classroom and the community.

Reading habits and practice. Often adult family members instill reading habits in the younger generation. Adult modeling of daily literacy, provides one of the most

influential forces on children's acquisition of independent literacy habits. Children who do not see adults regularly read and write rarely apply a utility value to those processes. Children who live in an environment where reading and writing occur routinely typically grow to value independent literacy events and the social interactions that develop from them. Reading and writing at home, visiting the local library, taking books and digital literacy applications to places where family members wait for appointments or transportation, discussing what was read about the news or during self-selected reading support the establishment of reading habits for independent and shared purposes.

Several researchers have documented the benefits of school and family partnerships (Lefever-Davis, Johnson, & Pearman, 2007; McLaughlin & Black-Hawkins, 2007; Walkington, 2007). When parents play a participatory role addressing student achievement, their children explicitly receive the message that what is learned in school is important for their entire lives, not just for school (Jay & Korin, 2009). Families, deliberate in the ways they use and acknowledge the value of literacy, serve as literacy leaders for their children.

The Role of COMMUNITY STAKEHOLDERS as Literacy Leaders

Schools appear to be isolated institutions where what occurs in them is disconnected from what happens in the communities where they exist. Yet data point to a very strong school-community connection such that what happens outside of the school impacts students' literacy achievement. Barton and Coley (2010) found in their recent analysis of the achievement gap between 1990 and the present, that

Areas of concentrated poverty where generations of Black children are growing up are bereft of many of the attributes and resources that are necessary to promote youth development. The family is not an island where all the opportunity resides; opportunity also depends on the social and economic capital found in the neighborhood. Are there libraries accessible to the children? Are there venues for positive interactions

among children and parents, such as playgrounds that are safe to visit? Is quality childcare available, with qualified teachers and staff? Is the quality of the schools (and the teachers in those schools) in these neighborhoods impacted by the low tax base that typically characterizes urban school districts? The list is long and the comparisons stark. (p. 35)

We must, then, assume a broader perspective on literacy leadership, looking for it in places both expected and unexpected, in order to take the fullest advantage of all the resources that might be brought to bear on students' literacy development. Here we discuss how universities might collaborate with schools for this purpose and examine how religious and civic groups and businesses

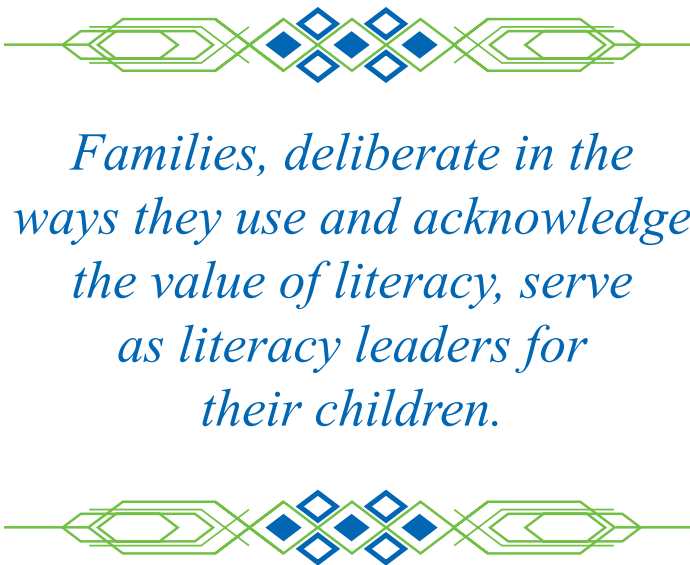
might participate. Their partnerships will contribute to a more comprehensive approach with the potential for greater success.

The Role of Universities as Literacy Leaders

Universities, as community stakeholders, can play two major leadership roles to promote literacy regionally and beyond. The first is an outreach role wherein the university forms literacy-focused partnerships with local schools. The second

role is one where the university serves as a nucleus of exemplary scholarship: a well-functioning learning laboratory for teacher preparation. Both roles establish universities as centers where faculty model teaching and professional development and where preservice and inservice teachers enrolled in educational programs model the learning process. In both roles, universities provide literacy leadership and serve as contributing resources for school systems and other community-based organizations.

School-university partnerships. Because universities and schools play a major part in preparing young people for productive societal roles, they can serve as mutually accessible resources for each other when they form effective partnerships (Jay & Korin, 2009). According to Noguera (2003) the importance of reciprocity and combining the strengths of both the university and the school are critical in bridging the gap between research and practice, creating a relationship of interdependence, and achieving the missions of both. Jay and Korin (2009) emphasize that:



*Families, deliberate in the
ways they use and acknowledge
the value of literacy, serve
as literacy leaders for
their children.*

Schools provide universities with future students; school-university partnerships have the capability to promote higher education aspirations for children and their families. Partnership initiatives can improve the academic, behavioral, social and emotional development of school students when collaborative planning between university and school staff includes a blend of expertise from both university and school personnel. In addition, partnerships frequently lead to collaboration with local and regional community agencies. (p. 34)

As stewards of education, universities and school systems have an obligation to assume roles as literacy leaders. When schools and universities agree to become partners, classroom teachers are provided with a supportive network of mentors and research expertise to advise their pedagogy and curricula.

Partnerships between schools and universities can take shape through on-going parent/family workshops, grant applications, ad campaigns, and professional development for teachers. Each type of partnership is addressed in the following sections.

Parent/family workshops. The role of the family in literacy leadership can be strengthened by university/school activities designed for family members, such as parent/family workshops. These regularly scheduled workshops provided jointly by school and university personnel create a unified message for families: this partnership is important to us because of how important it is for you and the future of your family. “One and done” workshops do not work for teachers, nor do they work for parents. Themed strands of workshops provide continuity for all involved and help reinforce ideas for parents and families. Themes might include *Helping Your Child Read And Understand Informational Text*, or *Using Dialogue Journals To Clarify Reading*. Parents learn about the value they have as they interact with their children during literacy events at home. They also learn how to reinforce and provide practice at home for skills taught at school.

Before the workshop presentations, teachers and university staff need to determine the goals and desired outcomes of their work. Co-planning allows them to support each other in decision making about resources, pacing, and techniques. After the presentations, the facilitators should engage in self-assessment of their workshop techniques and review any written or verbal feedback from participants.

Grant acquisition. University and school partners can collaboratively seek and apply for grants that enable them to provide resources and/or personnel to assist with collaborative projects. The two institutions can apply

funding toward a mutually agreed upon endeavor that will foster literacy for their students. Acquiring material resources such as technology equipment or personnel such as a project director or consultant can help the partners work toward their literacy goals more efficiently.

Ad campaigns. Signs, billboards, and community service announcements on TV, radio or the Internet can promote literacy with slogans such as “Have you read to your child today?” or “What is your family reading?”. These public reminders help promote literacy when school-university partners invest in advertising. Student service organizations or honor reading councils at universities can be instrumental in creating and supplying the ads. School children can contribute their artwork. A byline identifying the school-university partners will give recognition to their combined literacy leadership.

Professional development for teachers. Recent studies suggest that upon graduation from their certification programs, new teachers do not feel prepared adequately to teach reading. For instance, in comparisons of elementary and special education teachers’ knowledge of reading instruction with state standards, McCombes-Tolis and Feinn (2008) found that nearly a third of the teachers either did not know or were unsure about the stages of children’s reading development, the common characteristics of children who experience reading difficulties, and the type of interventions such children require. The researchers concluded, “teacher preparation programs are not preparing candidates to achieve mastery of essential teacher competencies” (p. 236). With the wide variety of course requirements needed for certification, little room exists for more than two precertification courses in reading instruction. Thus, ongoing professional development in literacy instruction is essential for teachers. University-school partnerships can form strong alliances to provide this. The university can host one-day teacher institutes with multiple and connected large and small group presentations aligned with schools’ current professional development topics or an assessed need in the district, and by doing so it can become part of on-going professional development. For example, an institute might focus on using historical fiction to understand the past and the present. Children’s authors known for writing historical fiction can speak to the group. University professors can follow-up with content related to historical periods, using technology to enhance teaching and learning, and designing response activities to literature. School district personnel can talk about alignment to standards and assessments. University and school personnel might co-present during some of the sessions.

Professional development schools. Another school-university partnership can be realized through professional development schools (PDS), schools that allow university students to observe and interact with regularly scheduled school classes and also has the school's teachers participate in formal presentations or professional learning communities facilitated by university faculty. The National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) developed Standards for Professional Development Schools, and as defined by National Commission on Teaching and America's Future (Wehling & Schneider, 2007). "These are innovative institutions formed through partnerships between professional education programs and P-12 schools. PDS partnerships possess a four-fold mission: the preparation of new teachers, faculty development, inquiry directed at the improvement of practice, and enhanced student achievement" (p. 62.).

According to Shaver (2000) a PDS partnership serves three important functions: to develop and conduct research, to provide in-service opportunities, and to provide a setting for pre-service education. The ultimate goal of a PDS partnership is to increase student achievement through quality learning. Researchers can conduct both formal and action research in authentic school settings. Observational and statistical data can serve as a source of discussion with teachers about their students and their school. In-service opportunities that meet the needs of the school's staff can be provided by university professors and even professors and teachers together. Professional conversations about the teaching and learning that occurs in the school can be aligned to theoretical models, state and national standards, and best practices. Preservice teachers who observe and interact in the school participate in valuable internships during and after these events. Post-observation discussions in their university classes help them gain knowledge and experience they need at their level of professional development.

Another area that lends itself to either an institute or part of the on-going work of a PDS is the integration of technology to augment the school's curriculum. The increased use of technology in education seems to be a natural fit to school-university partnerships. Whichever professional development approach is used, helping teachers embed technology into their teaching repertoire and professional learning goals should be part of a shared decision between the school staff and the university, so that universities know what schools need and can better prepare new teachers. As the U.S. Department of Education's Office of Educational Technology notes, "The challenge for our education system is to leverage the learning sciences and modern technology to create

engaging, relevant and personalized learning experiences for all learners that mirror students' daily lives and the reality of their futures" (2010, Spring, p. vi).

A PDS can make a difference in teacher quality and, ultimately, students' literacy achievements. In their recent study of graduates who participated in PDS programs Latham and Vogt (2007) found that "PDS preparation versus traditional preparation significantly and positively influenced teachers' persistence in the field, even after controlling for their individual demographic and academic characteristics" (p.164). However such partnerships pose challenges for both schools and universities, and as Berry, Montgomery, Curtis, Hernandez, Wurtzel, and Snyder (2008) observe,

...these partnerships — driven primarily by universities — have been unevenly implemented, and no state has put into place the funding, governance, and accountability systems that could ensure uniform quality and sustainability. In addition, many programs claim the name of "professional development school" but do not include the structures and processes defined by the NCATE standards. (p.9)

Thus PDS arrangements should be explored further to determine their viability as an option to build bridges between and schools.

Teacher-preparation programs. Quality undergraduate and graduate teacher-preparation programs are designed by faculty who are strong teachers with high knowledge of pedagogy and curriculum, apply rigor to all courses within programs, and align programs with state guidelines for standards and requirements for certification. Further, providing sufficient field experiences in actual classrooms followed by constructive feedback are hallmarks of quality teacher-preparation programs. Preparing teachers to be life-long literacy leaders puts the onus on universities to prepare teachers who are not only adept at their classroom pedagogy, including the accurate integration of technology as a teaching and learning tool, but who are also able to develop a strong philosophy of support regarding family literacy.

Students in teacher-preparation programs can develop their literacy teaching craft when they take part in activities to help others related to literacy learning, such as tutoring and service learning. Schools and universities may deliberately arrange tutoring opportunities, or parents who contact universities inquire about such services may be provided assistance, perhaps as part of a course requirement or teacher-candidate service opportunity.

One-on-one tutoring provides an excellent way for university teacher-candidates to gain a diagnostic perspective about how and why some students struggle with literacy. It also helps future teachers gain confidence in their teaching skills, learn the importance of building rapport with literacy learners, and plan instruction based on student needs.

Another university-based opportunity for future teachers is the *America Reads* program. This federally funded program sponsors college students to serve as reading tutors for at-risk children in the local community. The goal of the program is to have every child read on grade level by the end of the third grade. Students eligible for federal work-study funding can use *America Reads* as their work experience, under the supervision of a university-based faculty member who is a reading expert. As tutors, university students function as leaders when they are interested and caring role models, consistent with planning and implementing lessons, and reflective about their own practices and their students' performance. Their increased confidence prepares them for the leadership roles they can assume as classroom teachers.

Service learning also bridges the university to the community and offers university students and faculty literacy leadership opportunities. Service learning occurs through courses that require university students to provide some service to the community that is related to the content of the course they are taking. Many times these courses are initial experiences for students to learn about volunteerism. Service learning projects may originate from a joint venture between the university and school, or from an original idea from one or more university students. Tutoring may fulfill a service learning requirement for a course. As literacy leaders, students studying education can participate in many forms of service learning: tutoring, book drives, technology initiatives, and many more.

Book drives are a specific area of service learning, yet there are variations on what can be done. A typical book drive involves collecting donated books and then sorting them by appropriate content and readability. Next, the books are distributed to an organization such as a school, hospital, or domestic shelter within the region. Sometimes monies are collected to purchase new books

for distribution to community organizations. The goal is to promote literacy by making books more accessible to school-age children who would not otherwise have such access. Book drives have entered the age of technology too. University students are often asked to create audio and/or video book readings that can be shared with children and families from community organizations. These digital presentations can be placed on local radio and TV stations. In addition to reading the story, the university students who create the presentation can share information about the book's author, or create follow-up reading activities that they can suggest and include as part of the tape.

University students can also create web pages with activities for school-age students to write responses. The

web page might include a story and response activity, as well as links to authors' sites and a list of other books by theme or author. Another technology initiative includes e-pals, an electronic form of pen-pals, in which a class of university students adopts a class of school students. The students engage in one-on-one emails with the older students encouraging the younger students about their studies, and what they read.

The service learning may

expand as the university students design a culminating activity for the two groups to do together for an actual final meeting before the semester or year ends.

Schools located near universities seek college students to volunteer in specific programs, which may also be considered service learning opportunities. For example, if a school has an after-school program which requires children to complete their homework and practice literacy skills, university students from a particular class may assist in the child care program by helping the children with their homework and skill practice. Building rapport and instilling an "I can do this" attitude in children are important characteristics of literacy leaders.

University graduate programs for literacy

professionals. Masters degree candidates in Reading Specialists, Literacy Coaches, and Teachers of Reading programs learn the most current research in the field and often conduct classroom research as part of their course assignment. By utilizing the degree candidates' on-the-ground-teaching as the laboratory for improving



students' literacy achievement, universities encourage the use of research-based best practices and the setting of high expectations for all learners. Candidates may be encouraged to share their findings with colleagues at their schools and in this way continue the work of the university to disseminate quality literacy instruction. Effective school administrators who utilize a graduate student's growing expertise in literacy may even call upon the university to develop collaboratively graduate program goals and content that align with the state's standards for students' literacy achievement.

The Literacy Leadership Role of Religious and Civic Groups and Businesses

Many stakeholder communities outside of the school, especially religious groups, civic groups, and businesses, have voiced concern about the recent literacy achievements of students and efforts to improve them, and have offered testimony, written policy briefs and proposals, conducted surveys, energized advocacy, submitted legal briefs, and even held conferences to address concerns. By looking at instances of their involvement in education policy, we can find places where their ideas are similar to many of those held by school personnel and other stakeholders. These areas of common interest should serve as a basis for common enterprise directed at promoting students' literacy.

Religious and Civic Groups. When *No Child Left Behind* (2001) was due for reauthorization, the National Council of Churches Committee on Public Education and Literacy (CPEL) disseminated its concerns about this legislation in a July 25, 2007 statement, "Joint Organizational Statement on the *No Child Left Behind Act*" that was signed by 138 national organizations. This statement criticized several aspects of NCLB, including the sanctions imposed on teachers and schools. Committee Chair Jan Rensinger notes,

While poorly operated schools must be improved, the law should focus on leadership development among principals, staff development for teachers, and support for stronger professional assistance from state departments of education. Instead NCLB redirects federal Title I money from school programming to provide unregulated, privatized, supplemental tutoring for which there is little quality control, and which may not be well coordinated with school programs. (Rensinger, 2007, n.p.)

As of June 1, 2009, more than 150 civil rights, religious, children's, disability, and civic organizations had signed on to a similar joint statement, indicating that these groups believe they have a role to play in determining education policy and can affect practice. Arguments expressed

in their statement echo those of many on the ground educators.

A visit to the 2010 updated home page of Citizens for Effective Schools, a nonprofit civic group, provides another example. The group voices strong opposition to *No Child Left Behind*, pointing to national data on students' math and reading performance. The group concludes,

Unless concerned citizens step forward publicly now to demand fundamental changes in ESEA's remedial approach, we risk having NCLB's arbitrary Adequate Yearly Progress-based test score mandates generate increasing numbers of "failing" schools and destroy the public's confidence in the public schools. We must speak out now to restructure NCLB's "accountability" scheme before ESEA is reauthorized! (2010, n.p.)

The American Civil Liberties Union (ACLU), another nonprofit organization, also participates in activities that address education policy impacting student achievement. In 2009 ACLU filed a class-action lawsuit against Florida state officials (Aho et al. vs. State of Florida et al. - Class Action Complaint), claiming the officials violated the state constitution, which guarantees a free "uniform, efficient, safe, secure and high quality" public education to its citizens. In Florida's Palm Beach County, between one-third and one-half of students do not graduate from high school, depending on the method of calculation used. The ACLU found that a significant disparity existed between the graduation rates of African-American and Hispanic students and those of white students in Palm Beach County. According to Donnelly (November 10, 2009), the remedy sought by ACLU was "a meaningful improvement in Palm Beach County's graduation rates without pushing students out of the system" (§2).

Such civic and religious organizations have assumed education policy leadership, with their efforts felt more in the political and legal spheres of influence than directly in schools. There are local chapters for each of these groups that could work closely with schools and where their literacy leadership could be beneficial. Local ACLU chapter members, for example, can model advocacy strategies and assist schools with develop students' literacy for social justice. They can be a sounding board for students and suggest how students can use their literacy to effectively communicate concerns to authorities, including school and local authorities, the press, and their local and state representatives. They can bring their life experiences with advocacy into the classroom and provide authentic learning opportunities for students.

Business groups. As with religious and civic groups, the business community feels it can advocate for school

reform and many business organizations have fiercely argued for tougher education standards. For instance, on its webpage titled *Jobs Agenda: Education* (n.d.), the U.S. Chamber of Commerce states, “No competition is tougher than the global race for talent. In every industry, employers are asking the same question: How are we going to find, train, and retain the best workers?” (§ 1). Similarly, a review of a study conducted by the Mackinaw Institute (Greene, August 31, 2000) reported,

it is clear from the survey comments that many businesses simply endure what they must with workers lacking basic skills, without teaching those workers and without purchasing technology to substitute. This imposes a significant cost on businesses in the form of lowered productivity. (n.p.)

While business groups may appear to be disconnected from what happens in schools, clearly they are not. In fact, as the recipients of student quality, many business groups claim that outsourcing results from employers’ inability to find enough quality workers among those educated in the United States. They also use considerable dollars to train U.S. workers in needed skills employees did not obtain while in school. The Manufacturing Institute of the National Manufacturing Association, for instance, explains that its purpose is to focus “on developing human capital strategies through education reform and workforce development, conducting applied research to provide critical information to public policy makers on challenges and opportunities for today’s industry, and advancing the innovation capacity of manufacturers operating in a global market” (Deloitte, 2009, Sec. 1:18). The United States Chamber of Commerce also notes on its homepage that, “The U.S. Chamber responds by working to strengthen our nation’s educational standards and promoting effective workforce training programs” (n.p.).

However, many go even further by becoming directly involved in state and national education policy, and the influence of many of these groups must be recognized so that school leaders understand how critical it is to include representatives from these groups in discussions about improving students’ literacy. For example, on June 2, 2010, the National Governors Association and the Council of Chief State School Officers released the final Common Core State Standards for English Language Arts & Literacy in History/Social Studies, Science, and Technical Subjects and Common Core State Standards for Mathematics. A coalition of business groups, including several Business Roundtables and Chambers of Commerce signed a letter of support for these standards that included the comment,

We believe that the Common Core State Standards Initiative, led by the National Governors Association Center for Best Practices and Council of Chief State School Officers, has produced K-12 standards in the foundational subjects of math and English that meet the business community’s expectations: they are college- and career-ready, grounded in evidence and internationally-benchmarked. (Common Core State Standards Initiative, n.d.)

Some corporations understand the need to connect with local schools. Johnson and Johnson, for instance, implemented a Bridge to Employment (BTE) program, primarily in urban communities, where they work with high schools to introduce students to careers in the health professions. The program reinforces family involvement and introduces students to higher education opportunities. However, although the program offers test preparation and touts its contribution to academic success, the program’s researchers (Brooks, MacAllum, & McMahon, 2005) do not specifically address increased literacy as a project goal. They note, “Students who participate in BTE are observed to be more interested in their studies, more committed to completing high school, and more likely to attend and graduate from college than their counterparts” (p. 13).

Likewise, in 2001 the Coca Cola Company funded the Council for Corporate and School Partnerships (CCSP), notes the urgency for doing so.

Challenged by budget shortfalls in the face of efforts to have all students meet high standards, and recognizing the link between good schools, student achievement and a prosperous economy, schools and businesses are now more ambitious and creative than ever before in their efforts to work together. (CCSP, n.d., p.1)

The Council developed “Eight Guiding Principles for Business and School Partnerships” to help alleviate concerns educators had about the commercialism that had been entwined with partnerships schools had previously with the business sector, and that would promote a relationship based on shared values and local school/student needs. The principles emphasized communication, shared core values, integration into the school and business cultures, commitment at the highest levels, organization and accountability, and recognition.

In preparation for its work, the Council engaged the National Association of Partners in Education (NAPE) to conduct a national study of school/business partnerships, which found a 35% increase between the years 1990 and 2000 (NAPE, 2010), with nearly 70% of schools having some kind of partnership, and contributing an estimated \$2.4 billion and 109 million volunteer hours to schools.

It determined, further, that these partnerships now impact the lives of an estimated 35 million students. However, reported outcomes of these partnerships ranked students' academic growth only fourth, trailing improvements in student motivation and self-esteem; providing students direction toward future education; and funding for libraries, computers, etc. While these are certainly worthwhile accomplishments that can contribute to literacy success, efforts targeted directly to improving literacy might yield higher literacy achievements.

A much more ambitious project, begun in 2002 is the Partnership for Learning in the 21st Century (P21), formed collaboratively by eight members, including the U.S. Government, the National Education Association, and several high-tech corporations (e.g. Apple Corp., Microsoft). P21 has expanded to include a more diverse group of thirty-nine concerned businesses, including publishers such as Scholastic, Inc, and Pearson, as well as companies such as Lego and ETS. P21's homepage states as its mission, "To serve as a catalyst to position 21st century readiness at the center of US K-12 education by building collaborative partnerships among education, business, community and government leaders (P21, n.d.)." This national organization developed a *Framework for Learning in the 21st Century* that fuses "the three Rs and four Cs (critical thinking and problem solving, communication, collaboration, and creativity and innovation)" (P21, n.d., n. p.). It urges government leaders, businesses, and educators to embrace this framework. It offers professional development for teachers, and has a Professional Development Affiliate Program for professional developers. In 2009 P21 hosted a summit on 21st Century Learning. This group has been effective in advocating for inclusion of 21st century skills in state standards and assessments. Its publication, *The MILE Guide: Milestones For Improving Learning & Education* (2009) includes a self-assessment tool for schools to determine the extent to which they are preparing students for 21st century skills, and defines partnership roles for higher education, the community and businesses. According to the publication, the role of businesses is essentially to communicate with schools for developing shared vision, and

to provide student internships. While P21 urges businesses and schools to partner on projects that will promote 21st century skills, and while some of its members do so, P21 does not do so as an organization.

A reasonable question to ask the business community is whether in addition to voicing concern, suggesting curriculum and standards, retraining workers, and writing letters of support for education reform, its members might work in tandem with schools, as leaders who introduce students and teachers to ways to use literacy for career success? By sharing what they know about the kinds of writing, reading, and communication skills needed and then providing real-world examples, these community stakeholders could offer authentic learning opportunities for students while simultaneously addressing concerns they have about students' readiness for the workplace. In this way, they could become literacy leaders

for schools, working in collaboration with all other stakeholders to help students achieve their highest literacy potential. While internships benefit selected students, the effects of broader participation by businesses in the daily work of schools can be more profitable vis à vis students' literacy success.

Conclusions and Recommendations

Our children's literacy achievement greatly affects our nation's political, economic, and social decisions, and ultimately our country's prosperity. For these reasons we all have a vested interest in student success, and many in the public and private sectors are thus voicing concerns about our students' performance on national and international literacy assessments. A 'blame the victim' attitude is prevalent—blame the schools (primarily the teachers) for not teaching better; blame the students (for not applying themselves more seriously to their studies); raise the bar and, simultaneously, raise the stakes and increase the penalties for weak performance.

Such an approach will not yield success. The Association of Literacy Educators and Researchers contends that everyone has a stake in our children reaching high



literacy achievements, and thus everyone must contribute toward this goal. We do not exist as silos in which what happens in one environment has no bearing on another. Stakeholders inside the school, the principal, reading professionals, teachers, and students can provide literacy leadership. Stakeholders outside the school, family members, caregivers, universities, civic groups, religious organizations, and the business community, can provide literacy leadership by becoming more visible and participatory in this endeavor by collaborating on initiatives and sharing expertise.

Toward this end we recommend that each constituency examine how to best serve the literacy needs of our schoolchildren and determine what role it can play in providing literacy leadership. We also suggest that each look beyond its own agency and identify other partners not yet contributing to this enterprise who might offer valuable literacy leadership service and expertise. Specifically, the Association of Literacy Educators and Researchers recommends that

1. Improving students' literacy achievement requires comprehensive and thoughtful processes rather than quick-fix, temporary solutions. Literacy leaders need to maintain goals of leading continuous improvement in both teaching practices and learning endeavors.
2. Effective literacy leadership occurs within a construct of structured, purposeful organizational tasks that consider the interpersonal relations of those within the learning organization.
3. Literacy leaders need to possess strong foundational knowledge of how literacy learning occurs, demonstrate the ability to enable teachers to translate theory into sound practice, and ensure that instructional practices meet the needs of diverse learners and learning styles.
4. Literacy leaders should maintain a professional disposition that enables them to garner support and respect from their peers and the larger community.
5. Literacy leadership needs to be recognized as a collaborative effort among key community-based stakeholders including educators, parents and other family members, students, universities, businesses, religions groups, and community members.
6. The expertise of reading professionals (literacy coaches and reading specialists) can be a major advantage in facilitating the professional development of teachers and the increased achievement of students when these professionals perform as informal leaders as they collaborate at a variety of levels with teachers, students, parents/families, administrators and other community members.
7. Literacy leaders embrace new literacies by fostering the appropriate use and critical analysis of the Internet, identifying comprehension skills needed by students to interact with on-line communication and information resources, and ensuring that equitable opportunities to learn from technological experiences are afforded to all students.
8. The use of accurate assessment tools will help literacy leaders skillfully guide teachers' interpretation of the multiple forms of data widely used in schools today.
9. The effective literacy coach implements leadership skills to collaborate with a variety of teachers, address the specific needs of individual teachers, and promote the school's educational programs for the benefit of all students.
10. Classroom teachers play a pivotal role in literacy leadership since they directly interact with and instruct students on a daily basis. However, their expertise is underutilized and undervalued; it can be extended beyond their individual classrooms when teachers collaborate with peers and parents/families to ensure an appreciation of literacy routines outside of school.
11. Building principals, cognizant of their own leadership strengths and needs in promoting literacy teaching and learning to achieve the goal of academic improvement, can seek the aid of experts when needed. Such recognition makes it incumbent on the principal to avail himself to additional training, both formal and informal, from within and outside of his own school, and to utilize the expertise of other literacy leaders to significantly fill the gaps in his own repertoire.
12. Administrators such as principals and curriculum supervisors have direct responsibility for what is taught in their schools, designing effective instructional programs that are aligned with curriculum and standards, and providing information to the public. As observers and evaluators of teachers, these administrators must be able to determine whether teachers are providing effective instruction and equitable learning opportunities for all students.
13. Parents/caregivers must be empowered to participate in decision-making that will affect the kinds of literacy experiences their children will have in school.

14. Cooperation, guidance and support between school literacy leaders and parents promotes congruent practices at school and in the home, allows parents to contribute to their children's literacy development, and enables them to make informed contributions to school-wide literacy instruction policy discussions.
15. Encouraging children in their efforts with literacy and other learning tasks will help them assume a leadership role in family literacy, develop self-efficacy, develop good reading habits, and work toward achieving their immediate and long-term goals.
16. A broad perspective of literacy leadership needs to be realized beyond the school, including community stakeholders and university literacy leaders, in order to take the fullest advantage of all the resources that might be brought to bear on students' literacy development.
17. Universities can serve two major leadership roles: (1) outreach, in which they maintain literacy-focused partnerships with local skills by providing professional development for teachers, workshops for parents, and work toward grant acquisition for schools, and (2) research, in which they serve as a nucleus of exemplary scholarship, especially in teacher preparation programs.
18. Small and large businesses can proactively reinforce families' school involvement and advocate schools' improved learning standards by suggesting traits and qualities students should have to enter and meet success in the workforce.

Because literacy achievement remains high on all of our agendas, collaborative literacy leadership offers a real solution to providing the literacy opportunities, instruction, and support that students need to succeed in school and beyond.

References

- Allen, J. (2006). *Becoming a literacy leader*. Portland, ME: Stenhouse Publishers.
- Allington, R. L., & Walmsley, S. (Eds.). (1995). *No quick fix: Rethinking literacy programs in America's elementary schools*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Allington, R. L. & Walmsley, S. A. (2007). Redefining and reforming instructional support programs for at-risk students. In R. L. Allington & S. A. Walmsley (Eds.). *No quick fix: Rethinking literacy programs in America's elementary schools: The RTI edition* (pp. 19-44). NY: Teachers College Press.
- Arndt, J. S. & McGuire-Schwartz, M. E. (2008). Early childhood school success: Recognizing families as integral partners. *Childhood Education*, 84(5), 281-285.
- Baker, E. L., Barton, P. E., Darling-Hammond, L., Haertel, E., Ladd, H. F., Linn, R., Ravitch, D., Rothstein, R., Shavelson, R. J., & Shephard, L. A. (2010, August). *Problems with the use of student test scores to evaluate teachers*. Economic Policy Institute (Issue Brief No. 278): Washington, DC. Retrieved from http://epi.3cdn.net/b9667271ee6c154195_t9m6iij8k.pdf
- Barton, P. E., & Coley, R. J. (2010). *The black-white achievement gap: When progress stopped*. Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service. Retrieved from <http://www.ets.org/Media/Research/pdf/PICBWGAP.pdf>
- Bean, R. M. (2009). *The reading specialist: Leadership for the classroom, school and community*. (2nd ed.). NY: The Guilford Press.
- Bean, R. M., & Wilson, R. M., (1981). *Effecting change in school reading programs: The resource role*. Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Beninghof, A. (2004). *Co-teach that works: Effective strategies for working together in today's inclusive classrooms, grades 1-12 resource handbook*. Bellvue, WA: Bureau of Education and Research.
- Berry, B. & Montgomery, D. (Center for Teaching Quality); Curtis, R., Hernandez, M. & Wurtzel, J. (The Aspen Institute); Snyder, J. (Bank Street College). (2008, August). *Creating and sustaining urban teacher residencies: A new way to recruit, prepare, and retain effective teachers in high-needs districts*. Retrieved from <http://www.teachingquality.org/legacy/AspenUTR.pdf>

- Brooks, L., MacAllum, K., McMahon, A. (2005). *The Bridge to Employment initiative: A decade of promising school-to-career partnerships*. Retrieved from http://www.bridge2employment.com/act_sendfile.cfm?fileid=97
- Buhle, R. & Blachowicz, C. L. Z., (2008). The assessment double play. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 66(4), pp. 42- 47 (December, 2008/January, 2009).
- Cassidy, J., & Cassidy, D. (December 2009/January 2010). What's hot, what's not for 2010. *Reading Today*, 22(3), 1, 8-9.
- Center for Research on Educational Outcomes. *Multiple choice: Charter school performance in sixteen states*. Stanford: CREDO. Retrieved from http://credo.stanford.edu/reports/MULTIPLE_CHOICE_CREDO.pdf
- Center for Teaching Quality. (2007). *Performance-pay for teachers: Designing a system that students deserve*. Retrieved from <http://www.teachingquality.org/pdfs/TSreport.pdf>
- Citizens for Effective Schools. (2010). Retrieved from <http://citizenseffectiveschools.org/>
- Coiro, J. (2003). Reading comprehension on the Internet: Expanding our understanding of reading comprehension to encompass new literacies. *The Reading Teacher*, 56(5), 458-464.
- Coleman, R. & Goldenberg, C. (2009). What does research say about effective practices for English learners: Introduction and Part 1: Oral language proficiency. *Kappa Delta Pi Record* 46(1), 10-16.
- Committee on the Future of School Leadership in Connecticut. (2000, September 21). Retrieved from http://www.sde.ct.gov/sde/lib/sde/PDF/Leadership/school_leadership.pdf
- Common Core State Standards Initiative. (n.d.) *Business sign-on letter in support of the common core state standards*. Retrieved from http://www.corestandards.org/assets/k12_statements/Business_Endorsement_Letter_on_CCSS.pdf
- Copeland, A. P. (2007). Welcoming international parents to your classroom. *Kappa Delta Pi Record*, 43(2), p. 66- 70.
- Corcoran, T.B., Walker, L. & White, J. (1988). *Working in urban schools*. (ED 299 356). Washington, D.C.: Institute for Educational Leadership.
- Council for Corporate & School Partnerships. (n.d.). *Guiding principles for business and school partnerships*. Washington, DC: Author. Retrieved from http://www.corpschoolpartners.org/pdf/guiding_principles.pdf
- Cross, T., & Rice, R. C., (2000). The role of the principal as instruction leader in a Standards-driven system. *NASSP Bulletin*, 84(61). Retrieved from <http://bul.sagepub.com/cgi/content.abstract/84/620/62>
- Danielson, C. (2007). The many faces of leadership. *Educational Leadership*, 65(1), pp.14-19.
- Darling-Hammond, L. & Orphanos, S. (2007, March). *Leadership development in California*. Stanford, CA: Institute for Research On Education Policy & Practice. Retrieved from http://srnleads.org/resources/publications/leadership_dev/leadership_development_brief.pdf
- Deloitte Consulting, LLP. (2009). *People and profitability: A time for change*. Retrieved from <http://institute.nam.org/view/2001005064765286263/info>
- Dole, J. A., Liang, L. A., Watkins, N. M., & Wiggins, C. M. (2006). The state of reading professionals in the United States. *The Reading Teacher*, 60(2), 194-199.
- Donaldson, G. A. (2007). What do teachers bring to leadership? *Educational Leadership*, 65(1), 26-29.
- Donnelly, T. (2009, 10 November). *Florida failing its schoolchildren, high dropout rates violate state constitution*. American Civil Liberties Union Blog of Rights. Retrieved from <http://www.aclu.org/blog/racial-justice/florida-failing-its-schoolchildren-high-dropout-rates-violate-state-constitution>
- Dozier, T. & Barnes, N. (2003, December) Ready, willing, and able? A Virginia Commonwealth University survey reveals how potential teacher leaders see themselves. *Virginia Journal of Education*, 15-17. Retrieved from <http://www.veanea.org/vea-journal/0312/December2003-ReadyWillingandAble.html>
- Drago-Severson, E. (2004). *Helping teachers learn: Principal leadership for adult growth and development*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- DuFour, R, DuFour, R, Eaker, R., & Many, T. (2006). *Learning by doing: A handbook for professional learning communities at work*. Bloomington, IN: Solution Tree.

- Education Commission of the States. (2002, May). *ECS literacy programs database – 50-state report on leadership components*. Retrieved from http://www.ecs.org/dbsearches/Search_Info/Literacy_50S_Reports.asp?type=Leadership
- Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965*, Pub. L. No 89-10, 29 Stat.27.
- Elmore, R., & Burney, D. (1999). Investing in teacher learning: Staff development and instructional improvement. In L. Darling-Hammond & G. Sykes (Eds.). *Teaching as the learning profession: Handbook of policy and practice*. San Francisco: Jossey Bass, 263-291.
- Epstein, J. L. (1987) School – Toward a theory of family–school connections: Teacher practices and parent involvement. In K. Hurrelmann, F. Kaufmann, and F. Losel (Eds.). *Social intervention: Potential and constraints*. New York, NY: Walter de Gruyter, 121-136.
- Feiler, A. C., Andrews, J. C., Greenhough, P. M., Hughes, R. M., Johnson, D. F., Scanlan, M. & Yee, W. C. (2008). The home school knowledge exchange project: Linking home and school to improve children's literacy. *Support for Learning* 23(1), 12-18.
- Frankenberg, E., Siegel-Hawley, G., & Wang, J. (2010). *Choice without equity: Charter school segregation and the need for civil rights standards*. Los Angeles, CA: The Civil Rights Project/Proyecto Derechos Civiles at UCLA; www.civilrightsproject.ucla.edu.
- Fullan, M. (2009). Leadership development: The larger context. *Educational Leadership*, 76(2), 45-49.
- Fullan, M. (2007). *Leading in a culture of change* (Rev. edition). San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Fullan, M., & Hargreaves, A. (1996). *What's worth fighting for in your school?* New York: Teachers College Press.
- Garcia, D. (2007). The impact of school choice on racial segregation in charter schools. *Educational Policy*, 22(6), 805–829.
- Gersten, R., & Dimino, J. (2006). RtI: Rethinking special education for students with reading difficulties (yet again). *Reading Research Quarterly*, 41(5), 99-107.
- Gerzel-Short, L. & Wilkins, E. A. (2009). Response to Intervention: Helping all students learn. *Kappa Delta Pi Record*, 45(3), 106- 110.
- Greene, J. P. (2000, August 31). *The cost of remedial education*. Retrieved from <http://www.showmichiganthemoney.org/3025>
- Guiney, E. (2001). Coaching isn't just for athletes: The role of teacher leaders. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 82(10), 740-743.
- Guskey, T.R. (2009). Closing the knowledge gap on effective professional development. *Educational Horizons*, 87(4), 224-233.
- Guthrie, J.T., Wigfield, A., Metsala, J. & Cox, K. (1999). Motivational and cognitive predictors of text comprehension and reading amount. *Scientific Studies of Reading*, 3(3), 231-256.
- Guthrie, J. T., & Humenick, N.M. (2004). Motivating students to read: Evidence for classroom practices that increase reading motivation and achievement. In P. McCardle & V. Chhabra (Eds.). *The voice of evidence in reading research* (329-354). Baltimore: Paul H. Brookes.
- Harris D. N. (2006, November 24). *Lost learning, forgotten promises: A national analysis of school racial segregation, student achievement, and "controlled choice" plans*. Washington, DC: Center for American Progress.
- Heath, S.B. (1983). *Ways with words: Language, life, and work in communities and classrooms*. Cambridge, United Kingdom: Cambridge University Press.
- Huebner, T. (2009). Small-group intervention for ELLs. *Educational Leadership*, 66(7), 90-91.
- Ingersoll, R. M. (2007). Short on power, long on responsibility. *Educational Leadership*, 65(1), 20-25.
- Ingersoll, R. M. (2003). *Who controls teachers' work? Power and accountability in America's schools*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- International Reading Association. (2010). *Standards for reading professionals*. Newark, DE: author.
- International Reading Association. (2009). RtI: Questions reading professionals should ask. *Reading Today*. 27(1), August/September, 2009, 1, 6.
- International Reading Association. (2004). *The roles and qualifications of the reading coach in the United States*. Newark, DE: author.
- International Reading Association. (2001). *Integrating literacy and technology in the curriculum: A position statement*. Newark, DE: author.
- International Reading Association. (2000). *Teaching all children to read: The roles of the reading specialist*. Newark, DE: author.

- Jackson, B. L., & Kelley, C. (2002). Exceptional and innovative programs in educational leadership. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 38(2), 192-212.
- Jay, A. B. & Korin, D. R. (2009). The parents' academy: A program for supporting caregivers in fostering literacy skills. *Metropolitan Universities Journal*, 20(3), 34-46.
- Jay, A. B. & Strong, M. W. (2008). *A guide to literacy coaching: Helping teachers increase student achievement*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Jay, A. B., & McGovern, J. (2007). Not just a manager anymore: Principal's role as literacy leader moves to the front. *Journal of Staff Development*. 28 (4), 51-54.
- Johnston, P. (2010). An instructional framework for RtI. *The Reading Teacher*, 63(7), 602-604.
- Joiner Jr., C.W. (1987). *Leadership for change*. Cambridge, MA: Ballinger Publishing Co.
- L'Allier, S., Elish-Piper, L., & Bean, R.M. (2010). What matters for elementary literacy coaching? Guiding principles for instructional improvement and student achievement. *The Reading Teacher*, 63(7), 544-554.
- Latham, N. I. & Vogt, W. P. (2007). Do professional development schools reduce teacher attrition?: Evidence from a longitudinal study of 1,000 Graduates. *Journal of Teacher Education*, 58(2), 153-167. DOI: 10.1177/0022487106297840
- Lefever-Davis, S, Johnson, C, & Pearman, C. (2007). Two sides of a Partnership: Egalitarianism and empowerment in school-university partnerships. *Journal of Education Research*, 100 (4), 204-209.
- Leu, D., Kinzer, C. K., Coiro, J. L. & Cammack, D.W. (2004). Toward a theory of new literacies emerging from the Internet and other information and communication technologies. In R. B. Ruddell & N. Unrau (Eds.). *Theoretical models and processes of reading* (5th ed), (1568-1611). Newark, DE: International Reading Association.
- Linnenbrink, E. & Pintrich, P. (2003). The role of self-efficacy beliefs in student engagement and learning in the classroom. *Reading and Writing Quarterly*, 19, 119-137.
- Lundquist, A.M., & Hill, J. D. (2009). English language learning and leadership: Putting it all together. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 91(3), 38-43.
- Marzano, R.J. (2003). *What works in schools: Translating research into action*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision & Curriculum Development.
- McCombes-Tolis, J., and R. Feinn. (2008). Comparing teachers' literacy-related knowledge to their state's standards for reading. *Reading Psychology* 29(3), 236-65.
- McEneaney, J. E., Lose, M. K., & Schwart, R. M. (2008). A transactional perspective on reading difficulties and response to intervention. *Reading Research Quarterly*, 41(1), 117-128.
- McLaughlin, C. & Black-Hawkins, K. (2007). School-university partnerships for educational research – Distinctions, dilemmas and challenges. *The Curriculum Journal*, 18(3), 327-341.
- Méndez-Morse, S. (1992). *Leadership characteristics that facilitate school change*. Austin, TX: SEDL. Retrieved from <http://www.sedl.org/change/leadership/character.html>
- Moran, M. C. (2007). *Differentiated literacy coaching: Scaffolding for student and teacher success*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Murphy, C. and Lick, D. (2001). *Whole-faculty study groups: Creating student based professional development*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- National Association for Elementary School Principals (2008). *Leading learning communities: Standards for what principals should know and be able to do* (2nd ed.). Alexandria, VA: Author.
- National Association of Partners in Education. (2001). *Partnerships 2000: A Decade of Growth and Change*,.
- National Center for Education Statistics. (24 March 2010). *Reading report card: Executive summary*. Retrieved from <http://nces.ed.gov/nationsreportcard/pubs/main2009/2010458.asp>
- No Child Left Behind Act of 2001*, EPL 107-110, 115 Stat. 1425, 20 U.S.C. Ss 6301 et seq.
- Noguera, P. A. (2003). *City schools and the American dream: Fulfilling the promise of public education*. NY: Teachers College Press.
- Partnership for Learning in the 21st Century. (n.d.). Retrieved from <http://www.p21.org/>
- Partnership for Learning in the 21st Century. (2009). *The MILE guide: Milestones for improving learning & education*. Tucson, AZ: Author. Retrieved from http://www.p21.org/documents/MILE_Guide_091101.pdf

- Prensky, M. (2001). Digital natives, digital immigrants. *On The Horizon*, 9(5). MCB Press. Retrieved from <http://www.marcprensky.com/wiriting/Prensky>
- Pritchard, I. (rev March,1999). *Reducing class size: What do we know?* (SAI 98-3027). Washington, DC: Office of Educational Research and Improvement U.S. Department of Education. Retrieved from <http://www2.ed.gov/pubs/ReducingClass/title.html>
- Quatroche, D. J., Bean, R. M., & Hamilton, R. L. (2001). The role of the reading specialist: A review of research. *The Reading Teacher* 55(3), 282-294.
- Rainville, K. N., & Jones, S. (2008). Situated identities: Power and positioning in the work of a literacy coach. *The Reading Teacher*, 61(6), 440-448.
- Ressinger, J. (2007, July 25). *Concerns of the National Council of Churches Committee on public education and literacy- Reauthorization of the No Child Left Behind Act*. Retrieved from <http://www.ucc.org/justice/public-education/pdfs/concerns-of-the-ncc-committee-on-public-education-and-literacy-nclb-reauthorization.pdf>
- Scott, N. M. (2003). Let's keep our quality school principals on the job. *High School Journal*, 86(50), 50-57.
- Seashore, K. L., Leithwood, K., Wahlstrom, K. L., & Anderson, S. E. (2010). *Learning from leadership: Investigating the links to improved student learning*. New York, NY: The Wallace Foundation. Retrieved from <http://www.wallacefoundation.org/KnowledgeCenter/KnowledgeTopics/CurrentAreasofFocus/EducationLeadership/Documents/Learning-from-Leadership-Investigating-Links-Final-Report.pdf>
- Shanklin, N. (2009). Literacy coaching: What are we learning? Corpus Christi, TX. *CEDER Yearbook*.
- Shaver, K. (2000, Spring). In partnership. *Voices: Alabama Consortium for Educational Renewal*.
- Shaw, M. L. (2009). Teaching and empowering reading specialists to be literacy coaches: Vision, passion, communication and collaboration. *The NERA Journal*, 45(1) 7-18.
- Steele, J. L., & Boudett, K. P. (2009). The collaborative advantage. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 66(4), pp. 54-59.
- Tomlinson, C. A. (2003). Differentiating instruction for academic diversity. In J. M. Cooper (Ed.). *Classroom teaching skills*, (7th ed.). Boston, MA: Houghton Mifflin.
- Tomlinson, C. A. & Allan, S. D. (2000). *Leadership for differentiating schools and classrooms*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- UCLA Center for Mental Health in Schools. (2007). Engaging the strengths of families, youth, and communities in rebuilding learning supports. *Addressing Barriers to Learning*, 12(2). Retrieved from <http://smhp.psych.ucla.edu/pdfdocs/Newsletter/spring07.pdf>
- U. S. Chamber of Commerce. (n.d.). *Jobs agenda: Education*. Retrieved from <http://library.uschamber.com/workforce>
- U. S. Department of Education, Office of Planning, Evaluation, and Policy Development. (2010). *A blueprint for reform: The reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act*. Washington, D.C. Government Printing Office.
- U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Technology. (2010). *Transforming American education: Learning powered by technology - Executive summary*. Washington, D.C. Government Printing Office. Retrieved from <http://www.ed.gov/sites/default/files/NETP-2010-exec-summary.pdf>
- Vogt, M. E. (1991). An observation guide for supervisors and administrators: Moving toward integrated reading/ language arts instruction. *The Reading Teacher*, 45(3), 206-211.
- Vogt, M. & Shearer, B.A. (2007). *Reading specialists and literacy coaches in the real world*. Boston, MA: Pearson/Allyn & Bacon.
- Walkington, J. (2007). Improving partnerships between schools and universities: Professional learning with benefits beyond preservice teacher education. *Teacher Development*, 11(3), 277-294.
- Walpole, S., & Blamey, K. L. (2008). Elementary literacy coaches: The reality of dual roles. *The Reading Teacher*, 62(3), 222-231.
- Walpole, S., & McKenna, M.C. (2007). *The literacy coaching challenge: Models and methods for grades K-8*. NY: The Guilford Press.
- Wearmouth, J. (2004). Issues in addressing children's difficulties in literacy development through family-school partnerships. *The Curriculum Journal* 15(1), 5-17.

- Wehling, R. L. & Schneider, C. (2007). *Building a 21st century U.S. education system*. Washington, D.C.: National Commission on Teaching and America's Future. Retrieved from http://www.nctaf.org/resources/research_and_reports/nctaf_research_reports/documents/Chapter5.Wise.pdf
- Wei, R. C., Darling-Hammond, L., Andree, A. Richardson, N. & Orphanos, S. (2009). *Professional learning in the learning profession: A status report on teacher development in the United States and abroad*. Dallas, TX: National Staff Development Council.
- Wepner, S., & Ray, L. (2002). Leading and learning with technology. In S. B. Wepner, D. S. Strickland, & J. T. Feeley, (Eds.). *The administration and supervision of reading programs* (3rd ed.). New York: Teachers College Press.
- Willms, J. D., Friesen, S. & Milton, P. (2009). What did you do in school today? Transforming classrooms through social, academic and intellectual engagement. (First National Report) Toronto: *Canadian Education Association*. Retrieved from http://www.cea-ace.ca/media/en/WDYDIST_National_Report_EN.pdf
- Wiseman, A. (2009). "When you do your best, there's someone to encourage you": Adolescents' views of family literacy. *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy*, 53(2), pp. 132-142.
- Wunder, M., & Lindsey, C. (2004). The ins, outs of co-teaching. *Innovations*, 31(4), 21-25.