

### **critical considerations**

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- In what ways is 'literacy' more than simply reading and writing?
- What are the essential elements of a literacy development approach or program?
- What theoretical framework guides your instructional approach to literacy instruction?
- Why is it beneficial for CLD students to interact with meaningful text prior to knowing the letters and sound system of the English alphabet?
- What role does schema play in the reading process?

# **Literacy and the Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Student**



## chapter outline

### **Interactive Literacy: Defining Literacy for CLD Students**

- Literacy Is Biographical
- Literacy Is Fundamental
- Literacy Is Research Based

### **Essential Elements of Literacy Development**

### **The Theoretical Foundations of Reading**

- Reading the Symbols and Sounds of English:  
The Bottom-Up Reading Process Model
- Schematic Connections to Text: The Top-Down  
Reading Process Model
- Reading as a Circular Process: The Interactive  
Reading Process Model

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Ms. Gilbert has 24 children in her third-grade class. Thirteen of these children are classified as culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD). Eight of the CLD students are Spanish speaking; however, they are hardly homogeneous. Four of these children have been in Ms. Gilbert's school since kindergarten; their instruction has been all in English, and they have had English as a second language (ESL) classes. Two of the children arrived at her school this year. They are beginning-level ESL students, but they can both read and write in Spanish. The other two children have moved back and forth between Mexico and the United States over the past four years and, in the process of moving, have missed many days of school in both countries. Three of the five remaining CLD students are Vietnamese children born in the United States. All three have attended school since kindergarten and speak English, but they struggle with reading and comprehension tasks. The final two students are Hmong and have recently immigrated to the United States. While one has some basic English skills, the other Hmong student is classified as a non-English speaker; both have been placed in an ESL class for part of the school day. This is the first time Ms. Gilbert has had any Hmong students in her classroom.

Ms. Gilbert has just returned from a district-mandated literacy workshop, where she was told that the basic reading program that was purchased for the monolingual English children should be "just fine" for her CLD students. Because the program is research based, she just may need to repeat lessons for her CLD students. Ms. Gilbert is frustrated because she has observed that none of the 13 CLD students is progressing well in English; they have different needs than monolingual English children, and they are not "all the same." The seven students who have been in the United States since kindergarten are good decoders, but they have poor comprehension in English reading and have very

weak writing skills. The two Spanish-speaking newcomers try very hard and use their knowledge of Spanish to read and write in English, but they cannot read English text at the third-grade level. The two Hmong newcomers are having difficulty transferring their knowledge of Hmong to English because a number of phonological features in Hmong are unfamiliar to English speakers. The two children with interrupted schooling are simply lost in this curriculum.

Using the mandated reading program for CLD students as it was meant to be used with native English speakers is not working for half of Ms. Gilbert's class. Ms. Gilbert has observed that the program needs to be modified for her English language learners and realizes that there is no one type of CLD student.

The dramatic demographic changes in the United States over the past decade have been well documented. In the year 2000, over 11 percent of the U.S. population was foreign born, with more than 51 percent of that populace originating from Latin America (U.S. Census Bureau, 2006). Out of the more than 400 languages represented in U.S. schools, Spanish-speaking students comprise 77 percent of the total kindergarten through grade 12 (K–12) CLD student population. Of the remaining languages spoken, Vietnamese, Hmong, Haitian Creole, and Korean are among the top four, and each comprises 1 to 3 percent of this remainder (USDE, 2002).

Given the diversity of languages and cultures represented by CLD students across the country, our preferred term to describe the students for whom this book is targeted is *culturally and linguistically diverse* (CLD). However, when discussing instruction and learning processes unique to second language learners, we frequently will use the term *English language learner* (ELL).

CLD students are not only located in urban school districts, but they are also increasingly present in small town schools and rural school districts. In addition to those areas that historically have had large immigrant populations, more and more areas that have never had immigrant populations are now home to CLD students. The impact of this new population is particularly apparent in K–12 public schools. Nineteen percent of U.S. schoolchildren speak a language other than English at home, and 28 percent of these students are limited in English proficiency (NCES, 2006). By 2025, an estimated one out of every four students will be an English language learner (Spellings, 2005).

Despite the growing numbers of students who bring diverse language experiences to school, just 26 percent of all public school teachers and only 27 percent of teachers teaching English language learners feel well prepared to meet the needs of students with limited English skills (NCES, 2001). At the same time, 90 percent of U.S. teachers are white (National Education Association, 2003), and 97 percent are estimated to be monolingual in English (Darling-Hammond & Sclan, 1996). Fre-

quently, those who work with CLD students have little experience adapting to a new culture or learning a second language. While they may be caring teachers and want to be effective with all their students, many have no knowledge of what students are experiencing culturally or linguistically and have few concrete strategies and approaches for teaching this population. In short, most teachers will have second language learners in their classrooms, yet few will have the preparation to teach them.

Nowhere is this more evident than in the instruction of literacy. Of the public school teachers across the United States, only 12.5 percent of those who have CLD students in their classrooms have had eight or more hours of professional development targeting the needs of these students (NCES, 2002). Moreover, only a small portion of this training has focused on literacy development. Yet it is this explicit training that teachers need to support English literacy development among students who are second language learners of English.

As in the case of Ms. Gilbert, the majority of teachers care about the children they teach and want to be effective in teaching them. However, these teachers often are frustrated by the “one size fits all” reading programs they are given and the misguided advice that suggests that good methods will be equally effective with all students. Good teachers know that all children do not learn in the same way and at the same pace, and they are well aware that children who do not speak English need different methods to help them learn English and be successful readers and writers in U.S. classrooms. This book explores how teachers can provide differentiated literacy instruction that addresses the specific linguistic and cultural needs of their CLD students by proposing an interactive literacy design.

## ■ Interactive Literacy: Defining Literacy for CLD Students

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The *Newbury House Dictionary of American English* defines *literacy* as “the ability to read and write.” In this book, we propose that literacy is much more than simply the ability to read and write. Literacy, as defined in this text, is biographical, fundamental, and research based. For CLD students, the biographical dimensions that define literacy are sociocultural, linguistic, academic, and cognitive in nature. The fundamental domains that define literacy are listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The research-based elements that define literacy are phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, comprehension, and fluency. Figure 1.1 identifies each of these components and illustrates the interactive nature of these elements during instruction as teachers continually move back and forth between them when teaching literacy to CLD students.

■ **figure 1.1** Interactive Literacy Design

### Literacy Is Biographical

From the time a child is born, he or she is developing literacy. The family, home, and community are the foundation of literacy development in the life of the child. Therefore, we propose that literacy is first and foremost biographical in nature. The sociocultural, linguistic, academic, and cognitive dimensions of CLD students are critical. Although each of these dimensions plays a role in shaping how CLD students view and approach literacy, the sociocultural dimension lies at the heart.

Socioculturally, the family and community in which the CLD student is being raised define literacy. Consider the following example:

It is bedtime, and Jesse (7 years old), Isa (5 years old), and Ruth (4 years old) sit outside on the porch with their *abuelita* (the Spanish name for *grandmother*). The air is

humid, and cars speed down the road in front of the house. But the children don't notice the heat or the noise, for this is their special time with *Abuelita*. It is just before 10 o'clock, and it will be several hours before their parents get home from work. Knowing that it is almost bedtime, Isa asks *Abuelita* to tell them the story of "La Llorona." At the mention of her name, Ruth grabs *Abuelita's* hand and squeezes it tightly. She smiles in anticipation, even though she is scared.

In this example, these Mexican American children are engaged in an act of literacy development that is rooted in their sociocultural background. "La Llorona" ("The Weeping Woman") is a traditional story told to children so they do not stray from home at night in fear that the weeping woman will mistake them for her own children and take them away with her. The children here are being exposed to a form of storytelling that is culture-specific and unlike more traditional examples of bedtime stories, in which a book is read aloud while the child is tucked snugly into bed. Instead, the children in this example are sitting outside on a porch late at night, listening to their grandmother tell the story orally. However, other CLD students are not exposed to these specific kinds of literacy at all. Rather, they come to school never having been read a book or had a story told to them, making their socialization to literacy very distinct from that of their peers.

Building on the previous example, the children's *Abuelita* told the story of "La Llorona" in Spanish, the family's native language. For many CLD students who enter school with a native language other than English, literacy is defined by their native language, making language the second way in which literacy is biographical. Some of the key language factors that shape literacy development are as follows:

- *Phonology*: the sounds of the native language, which may or may not exist in the English language
- *Syntax*: the order in which words are put together in the native language, which can be very different from English word order
- *Morphology*: the structure of words and the meanings of word parts
- *Semantics*: the meanings of words in context

Knowing about these language factors can support educators as they approach literacy instruction with CLD students.

Equally important for educators to know is the academic biography of the CLD student. *Academic literacy*, as defined by Gipe (2006), is the instructional literacy children have been exposed to through personal experiences with books and other forms of written or spoken language. For CLD students, exposure and access to books or text may or may not have been part of their academic literacy. Therefore, the academic literacy biographies of CLD students may not necessarily match those of peers encountered in a public school setting.

The final dimension that makes literacy biographical is the cognitive dimension. *Cognition* refers to “the nature of knowing, or the ways of organizing and understanding our experiences” (Gipe, 2006, p. 5). The experiences that CLD students bring to the classroom shape the way they view and understand information. These experiences may or may not match those of their monolingual English-speaking peers.

Within this text, the biographical nature of literacy is the foundation on which literacy instruction is based. Understanding the impact of the sociocultural, linguistic, academic, and cognitive dimensions on CLD students’ literacy development informs educators by providing a holistic picture of each CLD student. Knowing the biographical literacy backgrounds of their CLD students empowers educators as they build on students’ assets to promote their literacy development and academic success.

### **Literacy Is Fundamental**

The fundamental domains of literacy are listening, speaking, reading, and writing. When CLD students begin to receive formal instruction in literacy at school, these are the four areas targeted. Consider the following examples:

- *Listening*: First-grade students are asked to listen to a story being read aloud by the teacher in English.
- *Speaking*: Second-grade students are asked to share with partners what they think a book will be about after looking at the cover.
- *Reading*: Third-grade students are asked to read a story from a basal.
- *Writing*: Fourth-grade students are asked to write a short story.

Each of these fundamental domains of literacy is emphasized and taught to CLD students from the day they enter school. However, for teachers to successfully guide students to perform these fundamental acts of literacy in English, they must begin by looking at CLD students’ biographies, which set the stage for learning.

### **Literacy Is Research Based**

Research-based literacy is defined by five key elements: phonics, phonemic awareness, vocabulary, comprehension, and fluency. According to the National Reading Panel (NRP, 2000), these five research-based elements need to be present in any reading approach or program designed to develop the skills necessary for children to become successful lifelong English readers. For CLD students, acquiring these research-based elements of literacy is central to becoming literate; therefore, a foundation of research comprises the final characteristic of literacy. In fact, it is the

acquisition of these research-based elements of literacy that provide the framework for this text.

The characteristics of literacy, as discussed in this text, are interactive in nature, such that no single aspect should be considered in isolation when working with CLD students. Throughout this text, we illustrate how teachers can continually build on CLD students' biographical literacy to foster and promote fundamental and research-based literacy in English.

## ■ Essential Elements of Literacy Development

Teachers in today's classrooms must focus on literacy. As previously shared, the NRP (2000) identified five research-based elements that need to be present in any reading approach or program designed to develop the skills necessary for children whose first language is English to become successful lifelong readers. These elements include phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, comprehension, and fluency.

The NRP made a conscious decision *not* to include the scientific literature available on the development of language and literacy for those students learning to read in English for whom English was not their first or native language (NRP, 2000). Furthermore, the NRP focused solely on reading, although by definition, literacy includes both reading and writing. The NRP did not address, in any way, what research says about learning to write in English for native English speakers, thereby giving no direction to policymakers and practitioners about the potential best practices for teaching writing. If little is known about how to teach writing to native English speakers, then even less is known about teaching writing in English to students who are second language learners.

In 2006, a second report on literacy that specifically addressed second language issues was published. That report, titled *Developing Literacy in Second-Language Learners* (August & Shanahan, 2006), examined and reported on the research regarding the development of literacy in children whose first language is not the societal or majority language (i.e., English). This second report sought to determine whether the principles set forth by the NRP report might apply to English language learners and specifically to Spanish-speaking children. While the report concluded that little quality research is available on how to best teach literacy to English language learners, it did discuss several noteworthy trends.

First, August and Shanahan (2006) report that bilingual instruction has a positive impact on English reading outcomes. That is, children who learn to read and write in their native or first language either before or while they are learning to read and write in English have better outcomes in English literacy than children in English-only or English immersion classrooms. The reality in current policy and practice is that most second language learners are in English medium classrooms



and are learning literacy only in English. Regardless of the language of instruction, however, a student's first language is a resource for learning to read and write in English, not a barrier or a problem. The relationship between the first language and the second language and how teachers can use both languages to enhance literacy learning are dominant themes throughout this text.

Second, August and Shanahan (2006) report that English oral proficiency is closely associated with reading comprehension skills in English. Thus, literacy programs for second language learners need to include a strong oral language component that builds on the students' existing oral language skills and supports the transfer of those skills to English. The relationship between oral language and literacy, although important for monolingual English learners, is *critical* for second language learners. This text includes suggestions for promoting oral language development and the transfer of oral language skills from the CLD student's native language to English.

Third, August and Shanahan's (2006) findings suggest that elements of literacy instruction that help monolingual English-speaking students learn to read and write are advantageous for second language learners as well. However, these authors caution that the strategies, routines, and approaches used with monolingual English speakers need to be modified for second language learners to make them effective as well as linguistically and culturally relevant.

Finally, although August and Shanahan (2006) call for modifications to basic literacy elements for second language learners, they do not provide concrete direction for practitioners in terms of *how* such instruction should be modified. This text strives to provide practitioners with concrete strategies for modifying the elements of reading instruction for second language learners.

## ■ The Theoretical Foundations of Reading

As literacy instruction has evolved over time, so have the methods of literacy instruction used in classrooms across the United States. To better understand this historical evolution and the impact it has had on instruction, this section will discuss three of the most prevalent research-based reading process models: bottom-up, top-down, and interactive. Each of these reading process models presents a specific theoretical framework that explains how monolingual English-speaking children learn to read.

These models were chosen for their strong research base, historical significance, and historical prevalence. However, such historical models are not part of the research base on teaching reading to CLD students. Therefore, as each model is introduced, the instructional implications for teachers working with CLD student populations will be explored. Having an understanding of each reading process model is important, as educators select models that reflect their beliefs

about the reading process, the reader's role in this process, and how reading instruction is contextualized in daily literacy instruction (Leu & Kinzer, 2003).

### **Reading the Symbols and Sounds of English: The Bottom-Up Reading Process Model**

One of the first reading process models that emerged from the research is the *bottom-up reading process model*. This model depicts reading as a process of decoding written symbols into sounds (Gunning, 2000; Kuder & Hasit, 2002; Marzano, Hagerty, Valencia, & DiStefano, 1987; Reutzel & Cooter, 2000, 2005; Vacca, Vacca, Gove, Burkey, Lenhart, & McKeon, 2006). Figure 1.2 provides a visual demonstration of the steps readers go through for acquiring literacy proficiency in the bottom-up reading process model.

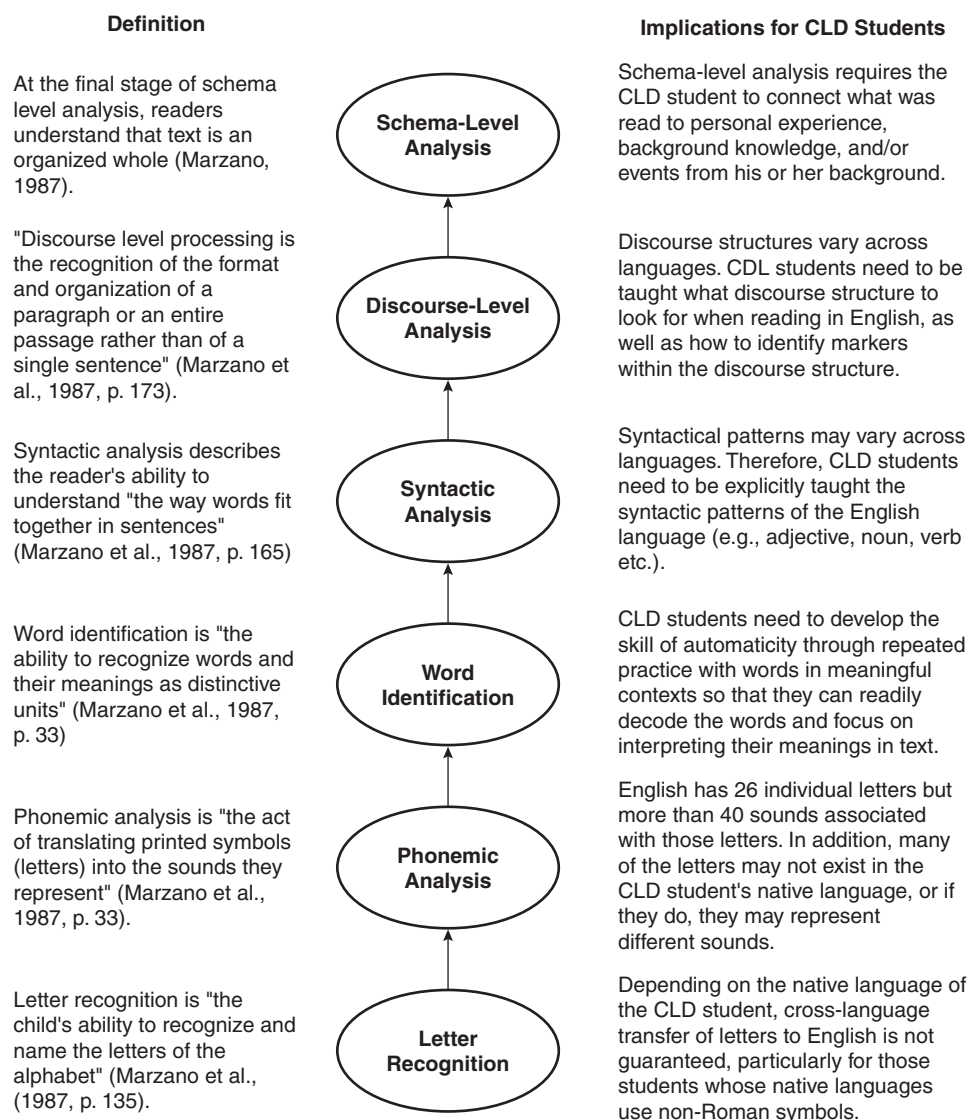
Figure 1.2 illustrates how the reader sequentially processes information to decode text. Each level and the prerequisite skills associated with that level are defined on the left-hand side of Figure 1.2. In the bottom-up reading process model, it is only after achieving mastery of the first level that the reader can move on to the next level. To get to the whole, the reader must pass sequentially from the smallest unit of meaning to the largest unit of meaning (Vacca et al., 2006). The right-hand side of Figure 1.2 identifies the implications of each level for CLD students. Because the bottom-up model was developed around monolingual English readers, such implications were not made an integral part of the original model. For educators working with CLD students, consideration of these implications supports the contextualization of literacy instruction within the classroom.

### **Literacy Instruction via the Bottom-Up Reading Process Model**

Educators who use the bottom-up reading process model as the foundation for literacy instruction view literacy as a series of skills to be mastered in a sequential order (Gunning, 2000; Marzano et al., 1987; Reutzel & Cooter, 2005; Vacca et al., 2006). However, when consideration is not given to the broader issues associated with mastery of each level for CLD students, this sequential approach to literacy development may hinder rather than support these students' literacy development.

This process model is most commonly associated with phonics-based reading programs. In phonics-based programs, the initial emphasis is on identifying the individual sounds and symbols found in text. Educators who approach instruction in this manner emphasize a structured approach to literacy instruction by focusing on teaching students to blend sounds to form words. As these skills are mastered, the student is then taught how to combine these words into phrases and clauses and finally to develop phrases and clauses into sentences.

■ **figure 1.2** The Bottom-Up Reading Process Model



Adapted from Marzano et al., 1987.

The drawback to using this phonetic approach with CLD students is that identifying letters and their corresponding sounds is considered a prerequisite to reading. As a result, before being exposed to authentic text, CLD students often end up enduring hours of drill and practice to master isolated letter names and

sounds that have no meaning. This approach also assumes that the primary obstacle readers must overcome, particularly CLD students who do not speak English, is an inability to decode the English text. According to Reutzel and Cooter (2005), this assumption explains why teachers using phonics-based approaches believe that readers “must be taught phonics first via the letters of the alphabet and the sounds these letters represent before beginning to read books” (p. 8). However, by contrast, studies have shown that when these phonics skills are taught via authentic experiences with text, students acquire and master letter names and sounds much more quickly (Escamilla, 2004; Krashen, 2002). This is particularly true for CLD students, who benefit greatly by having a meaningful context to draw from when learning letters and sounds of the English language.

*Decodable books* are also based on the bottom-up reading process model and typically comprise words that follow phonic generalizations or patterns readers are expected to learn, such as short vowel families (e.g., *sit, fit, bit*) (Ruetzel & Cooter, 2005). These books are meant to provide repeated practice on specific letter/sound patterns; however, they rarely emphasize meaning. This type of text, while repetitive in nature, does not help CLD students make schematic connections to existing background knowledge, and without these schematic connections to text, little if any comprehension takes place (Gunning, 2000; Nunan, 1999). For CLD students, reading comprehension is highly dependent on schematic connections to text that are made before, during, and after reading. These schematic connections provide CLD students with the meaningful connections they need to successfully understand and interpret the text. The importance of these schematic connections is explored in more detail in the second model, the top-down reading process model.

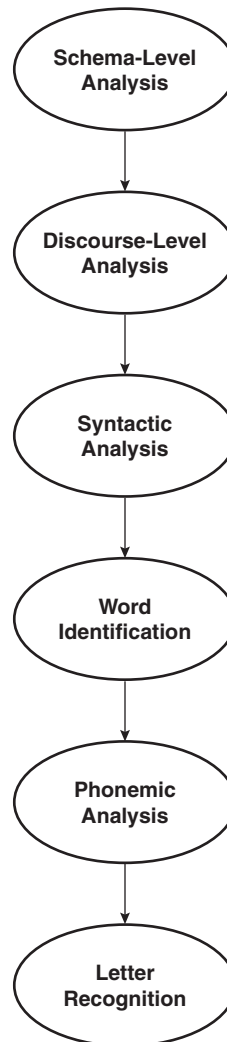
### **Schematic Connections to Text: The Top-Down Reading Process Model**

The *top-down reading process model* “assumes that reading begins at the schema level and works down to the letter level” (Marzano et al., 1987, p. 46). Accordingly, the process of reading in the top-down model is the exact opposite of that presented in the bottom-up model. As seen in Figure 1.3, the top-down model highlights the central role of schematic connections in the reading process.

To understand how reading within the top-down model begins with schema-level analysis, let us take a moment to discuss what a *schema* is and what role schematic connections play in this reading process model. Rumelhart (1980) developed a theoretical model known as *schema theory* to describe how knowledge of objects, events, and situations is categorized and retained in the reader’s memory. In a sense, a *schema* is a mental, representational storage facility for experiences.

The top-down reading process model proposes that the reader accesses these stored experiences (or schema) for making sense of the information encountered while reading. Thus, proponents of the model argue that using schematic connections

■ **figure 1.3** The Top-Down Reading Process Model



enables a reader to manipulate existing concepts and knowledge for comprehending text (Gregory, 1996). When educators begin reading instruction by bringing students' schema to the surface, the cultural and linguistic backgrounds of CLD students are not only acknowledged but also built on to promote meaningful connections to text.

The top-down reading process model also aligns with a theory of second language acquisition known as *transfer theory*. Developed by Cummins (2000), transfer theory is built on the idea that the literacy and language skills a CLD student has in the native language are transferable and can aid in his or her

acquisition of second-language literacy skills. Instrumental to this theory are the connections CLD students make to existing schema when reading. It is important to consider that words by themselves do not have meaning. Rather, the reader constructs meaning from a personal understanding of the words, along with the schematic connections that accompany this understanding. (The concept of linguistic transfer will be discussed in greater detail in Chapter 2.)

### ***Literacy Instruction via the Top-Down Reading Process Model***

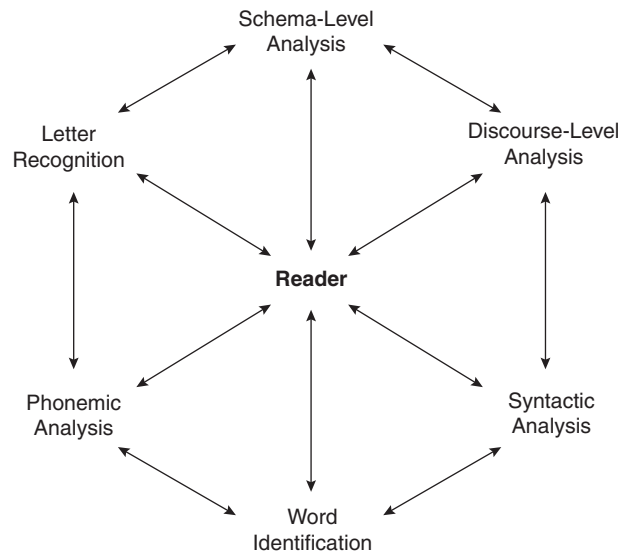
Educators who use the top-down reading process model are most often described as “whole language” teachers. A primary reason for this characterization is that teachers using this approach see it as their responsibility to guide understanding of the reading process and text by tapping into students’ prior knowledge (Williams & Snipper, 1990). As such, the CLD student continually draws on prior experience while reading in an effort to create meaning. This approach to instruction provides learning leverage by ensuring, as Rutherford (1987) aptly notes, that the CLD student “does not embark upon his/her second-language learning experience as a *tabula rasa* or in total ignorance” (p. 7).

In addition, teachers using the top-down reading process model contextualize literacy instruction by using authentic texts rather than predictable and decodable texts, which are constructed to provide repeated practice of phonemic skills. Authentic reading materials represent naturally occurring patterns of language. For example, in the story “The Three Little Pigs,” readers learn repetitive patterns such as “I’ll huff, and I’ll puff, and I’ll blow your house down.” Such patterns of language can be linked to CLD students’ schema and work to support their development of the sounds and patterns of words in authentic contexts.

### **Reading as a Circular Process: The Interactive Reading Process Model**

The more research focused on the bottom-up and top-down models, the more theorists came to believe that neither model adequately explains the complexity of the reading process (Reutzel & Cooter, 2005). As a result, researchers proposed the *interactive reading process model*. This model defines the reader’s role as a constructor of meaning, whereby the reader simultaneously makes schematic connections *and* decodes letters and words, thus moving fluidly between the skills and processes defined in the bottom-up and top-down models. Thus, the interactive reading process model combines the theoretical perspectives of the bottom-up and top-down models (Kuder & Hasit, 2002; Marzano et al., 1987; Reutzel & Cooter, 2000, 2005; Vacca et al., 2006). Figure 1.4 illustrates the interactive reading process model, showing how readers use top-down and bottom-up skills concurrently during the reading process.

■ **figure 1.4** The Interactive Reading Process Model



The interactive view of reading assumes that the reader proceeds cognitively from both whole to part and part to whole. Readers navigate among multiple processes to comprehend text in the most efficient manner. Readers take an active role when they possess a relevant schema about the information presented. For example, when a student is reading a text about birds and already knows a lot about birds, he or she can more actively engage in reading and comprehending the text. If, however, the student is reading a text for which he or she has no relevant schema to draw from, he or she will spend more time decoding the text to understand the author's message. Thus, the reader takes on a more passive role. According to this model, a CLD student uses schematic connections to comprehend text while simultaneously decoding letter sounds and word meanings as necessary to comprehend the text by taking on both *active* and *passive* roles (Vacca, Vacca, & Gove, 1995).

### ***Literacy Instruction via the Interactive Reading Process Model***

Teachers who use the interactive reading process model approach reading from a skills-based perspective. Skills-based reading instruction comprises three components: decoding, vocabulary, and comprehension. As such, “children are expected to integrate their knowledge of decoding and their background knowledge, vocabulary, and experiences as needed to construct meaning from text” (Reutzel &

Cooper, 2005, p. 16). Many teacher editions of basal readers used in U.S. classrooms are structured to follow this format:

- Basal readers traditionally guide teachers to draw out students' background knowledge before reading the text.
- Teachers are also encouraged to preteach vocabulary before assigning a reading.
- During reading instruction, teachers are guided to teach decoding and vocabulary skills as well as comprehension strategies.
- After reading, students are assessed to determine their comprehension of the story.

The benefits of this model for CLD students relate to the interactive nature of the reading process. For example, the interactive model teaches CLD students to draw on relevant schema and background knowledge to support text comprehension. Equally relevant in this model are the decoding skills that are contextually taught as students interact with text. Finally, this model recognizes that each child is unique and brings different sets of skills and knowledge to the reading process.

Each of the reading process models presented in this section has a strong theoretical foundation upon which it was developed. This information can be used to support educators as they perform these tasks:

- critically reflect on their own beliefs about literacy development and instruction
- articulate the theoretical foundations on which their instruction is based
- adapt the mandated curriculum to support and foster literacy development for their CLD students

Educators' socialization influences their initial views on literacy development. This socialization involves not only the ways they were taught to read but also the ways they were trained to teach reading. For educators working with CLD students, it is important to understand how their own literacy instruction can affect CLD students' success in learning to read English.

## ■ Conclusion

In this chapter, we defined *literacy* as interactive. The biographical, fundamental, and research-based aspects of literacy are intertwined. For CLD students, the biographical dimensions of literacy are sociocultural, linguistic, academic, and cognitive in nature. The fundamental domains of literacy are listening, speaking, reading, and writing, and the research-based elements of literacy are phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, comprehension, and fluency. Together, these



aspects communicate to educators the necessity of keeping the whole child in mind as they develop instruction that targets the research-based aspects of literacy, while maintaining an emphasis on communication for meaning.

The chapter also identified and discussed the theoretical foundations of three dominant reading process models. This discussion articulated the impact of teachers' philosophical foundations and personal beliefs on their daily literacy instruction. Teacher's ability to maximize the assets CLD students bring to literacy endeavors is enhanced by knowing how they define literacy and understanding the ways their literacy instruction and practices can directly affect how CLD students learn to read.

## ■ key theories and concepts

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|---|---------------------------------------|
| • authentic text                              | • literacy                            |
| • biographical dimensions of literacy         | • research-based elements of literacy |
| • Bottom-up reading process model             | • schema                              |
| • Culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) | • top-down reading process model      |
| • fundamental domains of literacy             | • transfer theory                     |
| • interactive reading process model           |                                       |

## ■ professional conversations on practice

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1. This chapter defined *literacy* as biographical, fundamental, and research based. Talk about your own definition of literacy and how the information presented in this chapter might affect your definition.
2. Central to the definition of literacy presented in this chapter was the proposition that literacy is first defined via the biographies of your students. Think of a CLD student you know, and identify considerations for him or her related to the biographical dimensions of literacy (i.e., sociocultural, linguistic, academic, and cognitive).
3. This chapter explored the theoretical foundations of three models of literacy instruction for monolingual English-speaking students. Discuss the implications of each model for CLD students' literacy development.

## ■ questions for review and reflection

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1. How is *interactive literacy* defined in this chapter?
2. In what ways do you address biographical, fundamental, and research-based aspects of literacy in your own instruction?
3. What are the key components of the bottom-up reading process model, and what are the implications of this model for CLD students?
4. The top-down reading process model argues that background knowledge is central to reading comprehension. What are the implications of this model for CLD students whose background knowledge differs from that of their monolingual English-speaking peers?