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UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA, IRVINE

Reframing High School English Language Arts to Imagine and Foster Possibility

DISSERTATION

submitted in partial satisfaction of the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in Education

by

Briana Marie Hinga

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2014

DEDICATION

To the hope education shines on the path toward social justice and unimaginable potential.

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ABSTRACT OF THE DISSERTATION

Reframing High School English Language Arts to Imagine and Foster Possibility

By

Briana Marie Hinga

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Typical high school ELA instruction fails to break the deeply rooted cycle of inequality in the United States. Within democratic and social justice traditions, a variety of theoretical frameworks promote equitable learning opportunities for nondominant youth. This dissertation synthesizes such frameworks to paint a more vivid picture of how to create high school English Language Arts (ELA) instruction for social justice and democracy than when frameworks are presented independently. The synthesis also highlights a need for a better understanding of how to design and evaluate education for social justice and democracy. Subsequently, the dissertation draws upon the wealth of knowledge on how to create equitable and effective ELA instruction to design high school ELA instruction through the lens of democracy, social justice, and Cultural Historical Activity Theory. A partnership between the author of this dissertation, a high school ELA teacher, and two of her 10th grade ELA classes (n = 58 mostly low-income, Latina/o students) completed the study in partnership. A Social Design Experiment provided the model for the process. The study provides an example of how to design ELA instruction that fosters democracy, social justice, and expansive learning within a public school classroom accountable to standardized processes and assessments. Contradictions and synergies between theoretical understandings of democracy, social justice, Cultural Historical Learning Theory, and standards based practices are brought to light to inform both theory and practice. Findings pose questions

for educators to consider. Bounds on the potential for expansive learning in practice, inform the need for Cultural Historical Activity Theory to account for power to understand diversity in development within a system. The study also compares student development across fairly standardized instruction versus a Social Design Experiment. Students earn higher academic literacy scores, engage more actively in class, and form a more supportive community during the Social Design Experiment.

Chapter 1

Introduction

“It is not overstating matters to claim that eliminating the academic literacy achievement gap is a core component of developing a vibrant and inclusive multicultural democracy. Only an empowered, engaged, and literate citizenry can form the foundation of an equitable and inclusive society” (Morrell, 2002, p. 1). Unfortunately, many students, particularly from low-income and ethnic minority backgrounds (i.e., hereafter referred to as “nondominant youth” based on their structural position in society), do not experience English Language Arts (ELA) classroom environments that foster such outcomes (Gay, 2010). Instead, nondominant students often receive remedial instruction, aimed to overcome their perceived deficits (Gutierrez & Vossoughni, 2010) and absent of opportunities for deep learning, engagement or empowerment (Ladson-Billings, 2006). This dissertation discusses problematic ELA instruction with a focus on solutions to the problem.

The study uses a syncretic approach, to center the goal of social justice and democracy in high school ELA instruction, by utilizing multiple perspectives to achieving this goal. This approach opens an investigation into the wealth of theoretical and practice based literature that inform the problem as well as solutions. The dissertation also draws upon the wealth of knowledge within nondominant communities. The dissertation investigates connections between theory and typical practices, toward the goal of an expanded understanding of how to create democratic and socially just ELA practices as the norm. Syncretism involves combining discrete traditions and theories for purposes of greater understanding. Within the syncretic approach, this dissertation reviews current knowledge on ELA educational practices and principles that promote democracy and social justice, explores connections between this knowledge base and

possibilities within a high school ELA classroom, and evaluates the effects of this within a classroom.

The dissertation takes the form of three papers. The first paper reviews literature on education for democracy and social justice related to high school ELA instruction. This paper takes inventory of the field, highlights strengths, calls for areas for growth within this field, and provides an assessable synthesis of how traditionally separate bodies of knowledge can work together toward the goal of democracy and social justice through ELA instruction. The second and third papers utilize the foundation of knowledge set forth in paper one and fill gaps pointed out in the review section of paper one. Namely, the second two papers add to the dearth of literature providing examples of the design process or assessment of student outcomes of instruction aimed to meet goals democracy and social justice in addition to meeting requirements of ELA standards.

Chapter 2

Mapping Possibilities of ELA Instruction for Democracy and Social Justice

Introduction

A grave disconnect between problematic ELA instruction and outcomes for nondominant youth on the one hand, and theoretical understandings of ELA instruction that fosters democracy and social justice on the other hand, presents a space for exploration. Typical ELA instructional practices and deeply embedded historical trends of ELA outcomes contrast with the promise of democracy and social justice through education (e.g., Bowles & Gintis, 1976; National Council of Teacher of English, 2009). The historically pronounced academic achievement gap along ethnic and SES lines contrasts with the promise of equality and meritocracy through the US school system. Typical ELA instructional practices for nondominant youth contrast with understandings of effective instruction. All the while, a growing body of theoretical and practical information describes ELA instruction that promotes democratic and socially just practices and outcomes.

As a step toward understanding how to translate the knowledge base into more widespread practice, this paper synthesizes frameworks informing high school ELA instruction that promotes democracy and social justice. This synthesis aims to move from isolated understandings of different frameworks, toward a more complete understanding of instruction for social justice and democracy. Additionally, the synthesis aims to expose gaps in knowledge that may inform directions of future work toward the goal of ELA instruction for democracy and social justice.

Framework

This paper is framed by the view that education, and specifically high school English Language Arts (ELA) instruction, should foster democracy and social justice (Dewey, 1916; Friere, 1970). Within this frame, democracy means that power within society is held by the people, in a society characterized by formal equality of rights and privileges (Democracy, n.d.). Social justice calls for everyone to have equal economic, political and social rights and opportunities. In the case of formal schooling, a framework based in democracy and social justice necessitates everyone's right to an education that equitably prepares students to participate in US democracy. In this frame, democracy and social justice are both necessary outcomes as well as the means of ELA instruction. This means that practices foster fair chances for all students to participate and succeed in the classroom and in society. The below section describes problems with typical practices in terms of meeting this goal.

Disconnect between Theory and Practice

Theoretical understandings of effective instruction, contrast with typical instruction for nondominant youth. Leading learning theory explains that “people construct new knowledge and understanding based on what they already know and believe” (Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000). In other words, what is learned, how it is learned, and how learning is understood is inseparable from cultural and historical context. Consequently, the need to incorporate students' knowledge, skills, attitudes, and beliefs into learning environments for successful learning is well understood (e.g., The National Research Council, 2005). Despite what we know to be effective practices, typical ELA instruction fails to incorporate the background knowledge of nondominant students. This disconnect can be seen in what is taught, how knowledge is taught, and how learning is assessed (Lee, 2004). Accordingly, too often, nondominant students do not

experience ELA instruction that builds upon the vast knowledge they bring to the classroom (Gay, 2010). Instead, nondominant students tend to receive remedial education, aimed to overcome their perceived deficits (Gutierrez & Vossoughii, 2010), often limited to drilling basic skills and absent of opportunities for deep learning or critical thinking (Ladson-Billings, 2006).

Typical ELA practices marginalize cultural, linguistic, and social knowledge traditionally possessed by nondominant students, including African-American, Latino/a, second language learners, and economically poor students within high school ELA classrooms (Johannessen, 2004). In addition to stifling student cultural and family resources, such instruction hinders opportunities for success in the classroom. Instruction and assessments that do not build upon the diverse knowledge students bring to the classroom tend to: 1) underestimate student capabilities; 2) postpone challenging and interesting work for too long; and 3) deprive students of contexts for meaningful, engaging, or empowering learning (e.g., Lee, 2004; Means & Knapp, 1991). Low expectations, lack of challenges, and lack of meaningful learning opportunities correspond with low rates of engagement and literacy achievement for nondominant youth (Darling-Hammond, 1998; Jencks & Phillips, 1998; National Center for Education Statistics, 2010).

Obstacles to ELA instruction for Social Justice

A cycle of deficit theorizing, problematic practices, and problematic results are inseparable components to the problem of ineffective instruction for nondominant students. Whether conscious or unconscious, deficit theorizing contributes to the exclusion the cultural assets (e.g., Moll & Gonzales, 1986) and literacy expertise (e.g., Alvermann, 2001, Mahiri, 2008) nondominant students bring to the classroom. Deficit theorizing refers to the prevalent tendency (Gee, 1996; Shields, Bishop, & Mazawi, 2005) to blame school underachievement of nondominant youth on perceived deficiencies associated with the students, their families, and

their cultures (Bishop, 2001; Gonzalez, 1995; Irvine & York, 1993; Moll, Amanti, Neff, & Gonzalez, 1992). Deficit theorizing makes sense of low academic achievement for nondominant students by pointing to various inadequacies, including insufficient home literacy practices, limited English language proficiency, limited motivation, and poor parental support (Hogg, 2011).

Considering that nondominant student knowledge tends to be perceived as an obstacle to learning, it makes sense that many teachers are not prepared to effectively integrate student culture into the learning process. Teachers may not believe they should include nondominant student culture in the learning process, may be unfamiliar with diverse student background knowledge, discourse patterns, and/or best ways to teach nondominant students (Michaels, 1981). Without such knowledge, teachers tend to focus on basic skill, disconnected from students' lives and missing opportunities to foster and build upon the diverse knowledge sets nondominant students bring to the classroom.

Reframing Instruction within Democracy and Social Justice

Deficit perceptions have stifled efforts to reform ELA instruction for nondominant youth along lines of leading learning theory. The understanding that learning requires building upon current understandings tends to be outweighed by perceptions that nondominant youth do not bring worthwhile knowledge to the learning environment. Fortunately however, educational pioneers, have shown theoretical and practical models that shatter taken for granted deficit assumptions of nondominant youth.

A strong and growing body of evidence uncovers the wealth of literacy skills held by nondominant youth (e.g., Alvermann, Young, Green, & Wisenbaker, 1999; Finders, 1997; Lewis & Fabos, 1999; Mahiri, 2008; Moje, 2000; Shuman, 1986), instructional methods that foster

success of nondominant students (e.g., Ladson-Billings, 2014), and promising outcomes for nondominant students when afforded effective learning opportunities (e.g., Hogg, 2011). Such literature has been integral to shattering deficit theories that blame nondominant students for failure, and pushes toward placing responsibility classroom environments to foster the success of nondominant students. This literature also provides helpful guidance toward the creation of ELA instruction for democracy and social justice.

Two particular components that arise from such frameworks are cultural relevance and critical consciousness. *Culturally responsive* instruction respects student culture and helps students to maintain their own culture while navigating in the mainstream culture (Siwatu, 2007). This of course aligns with leading learning theory describing the importance of building upon students' knowledge sets to foster learning. Culturally responsive teaching includes lessons and methodologies inclusive of students' backgrounds, knowledge, and experiences (Ladson-Billings, 2004). Secondly, several frameworks above demonstrate the promise of instruction that promotes critical consciousness. *Critical consciousness* is defined as the ability to understand, critically evaluate, confront, and resist social inequalities and social oppression (e.g., Aronowitz & Giroux, 1991; McLaren, 1989; Ladson-Billings, 1995). Since these two components show great promise toward the creation of ELA instruction for democracy and social justice, investigation into frameworks that inform these components in ELA instruction is warranted.

Purpose

The purpose of this paper is to further illuminate how available frameworks inform culturally relevant ELA instruction that promotes critical consciousness. Theoretical and practical descriptions of instruction for democracy and social justice have traditionally been described in isolation and through separate frameworks. A look across frameworks may paint a

more vivid picture of knowledge currently available in relation to high school ELA that promotes democracy and social justice.

Specifically, the paper will:

- 1) Provide a brief review of frameworks that inform high school ELA instruction for democracy and social justice.
- 2) Investigate contradictions and spaces of synergy across frameworks, toward a more vivid understanding of ELA instruction for democracy and social justice.
- 3) Highlight gaps in current understandings of ELA instruction for democracy and social justice.

Method

Each framework chosen for review in this paper contributes to an understanding of ELA instruction that fosters and builds upon the knowledge, experiences, and skills nondominant students bring the classroom. In other words, each framework informs ELA instruction for nondominant youth that aligns with leading learning theory. The frameworks reviewed in the paper include: Multicultural Education (ME); Culturally Relevant Pedagogy (CRP); New Literacy Studies (NLS); Funds of Knowledge (FK); Critical Literacy (CL); Critical Youth Participatory Action Research (CYPAR); Critical Hip Hope Languages (CHHL); Social Design Experiments (SDE); and Cultural Modeling (CM). The frameworks (listed in Table 1) are first explained separately and then examined together as a means to learn from differences and potential synergies.

Table 1

List and Summary of Frameworks

Framework	Summary
Multicultural Education (ME)	Comprehensive school reform movement promoting democratic principles of social justice by fostering pluralism and social reconstruction
Culturally Relevant Pedagogy (CRP)	Pedagogy that empowers students intellectually, socially, emotionally, and politically by using cultural referents to impart knowledge, skills, and attitudes
New Literacy Studies (NLS)	The recognition of literacy as a social practice including multiple literacies that are contested in relations of power
Funds of Knowledge (FK)	Studies showing how people are competent and have knowledge, provided by their everyday experiences, that can be integrated into the design or curriculum
Critical Literacy (CL)	Instructional approach, theoretical approach and worldview aimed to inform marginalized people about how to read the word and read the world.
Critical Youth Participatory Action Research (CYPAR)	The desire to take individual and/or collective action to address an issue through cooperation and by drawing on indigenous knowledge to better understand an issue
Critical Hip Hop Language Pedagogy (CHHLP)	Pedagogy that fosters the interrogation of language through intersections between identities, ideologies, histories, and power
Social Design Experiments (SDE)	Cultural historical formations, organized around equity oriented and robust learning principles, designed with and for nondominant communities to promote transformative learning
Cultural Modeling (CM)	A pedagogy that draws upon youth knowledge from everyday settings to support academic learning in school

In the following section, the frameworks are separately introduced. Subsequently, categories, themes, and issues that arise when viewing the frameworks together are discussed in terms of understanding ELA instruction for social justice and democracy. The unique foci and purposes of each framework are not trivialized or blended through the review. Rather, unique purposes, histories and points of contradictions between frameworks are highlighted. Contradiction as well as spaces of synergy between frameworks are discussed to create a richer

understanding of the meaning, practical implications, and gaps in current knowledge of ELA instruction for democracy and social justice.

Review of Frameworks

Multicultural Education (ME)

Multicultural Education (ME) can be traced to the civil rights struggles, including challenges to discriminatory practices in educational institutions during the 1960's when advocates, community leaders, and parents demanded curricular reform and the review of hiring practices (Banks, 1989; Banks, 1993; Davidman & Davidman, 1997). Since this time, ME has evolved as a theory and a practice (Gorski, 2010), which encompasses full educational reform, including but not limited to the design of learning environments. As more people have used "ME" to describe educational reform, the term has taken on many different meanings (Sleeter & Bernal, 2004).

An extensive review of the literature on ME (Sleeter & Grant, 1987, 2006) illuminated five different approaches to ME. All but one of the approaches focus on the affirmation of difference without a critical focus on power relations (McLaren & Torres, 1999; Nieto, Bode, Raible, & Kang, 2008; Sleeter & Bernal, 2004; Sleeter & Grant, 2006). Therefore, Sleeter and Grant (2006) advocate for the fifth approach which describes a transformation of education as multicultural and social reconstructivist. The following definition, by Nieto (1996), represents the definition of ME espoused by this paper.

"Multicultural education is a process of comprehensive school reform and basic education for all students. It challenges and rejects racism and other forms of discrimination in schools and society and accepts and affirms the pluralism (ethnic, racial, linguistic, religious, economic, and gender, among others) that students, their

communities, and teachers represent. Multicultural education permeates the curriculum and instructional strategies used in schools, as well as the interactions among teachers, students, and parents, and the very way that schools conceptualize the nature of teaching and learning. Because it uses critical pedagogy as its underlying philosophy and focuses on knowledge, reflection, and action (praxis) as the basis for social change, ME promotes the democratic principles of social justice." (p. 307)

ME permeates the curriculum, teaching practices, assessments, interactions, and the entire conceptualization of teaching and learning. By definition, ME must permeate the entire educational process.

While ME encompasses much more than instructional practices, the principles of ME inform effective and equitable instruction. Specifically, Banks (2004) elucidated five required dimensions of ME that pertain to (but are not limited to) learning environments. The five domains of ME according to Banks (2004) are: *content integration, knowledge construction process, equity pedagogy, prejudice reduction, and empowering school culture and social structure*. The dimensions are separated for clarity, but each dimension is interrelated. *Content integration* means the curriculum includes various cultures, ethnicities, and identities. Through the *knowledge construction* process, teachers foster student understanding, investigation, and determination of cultural assumptions and perspectives within the discipline. *Equity pedagogy* requires teaching methods to enable success for diverse students. *Prejudice reduction* requires that teachers are sensitive to prejudice and use methods to help students develop more positive racial attitudes and enhance intergroup relations. Empowering school culture and social structure requires the examination of school processes and school culture by all staff members with the goal of creating access for all groups (Banks, 2004). Banks (2004) clarified five domains of ME

to help scholars, researchers, and educators practically conceptualize the minimum components of ME. While all five elements permeate educational processes, the elements of: *content integration, knowledge construction process, equity pedagogy, and prejudice reduction* have direct implications for the design and implementation of high school ELA.

Culturally Relevant Pedagogy (CRP)

The term *culturally relevant pedagogy* (CRP) was coined by Ladson-Billings (1990, 1992, 1995) to characterize pedagogical principles she found teachers to use that lead to promising outcomes for African-American students within their classes. Ladson-Billings (1995) discovered these patterns by studying teachers who consistently lead African-American students to high academic achievement. Two underpinnings of CRP include teacher's: *sociocultural consciousness* and *caring for students* (Ladson-Billings, 1995). *Sociocultural consciousness* is “the awareness that a person’s worldview is not universal but is profoundly influenced by life experiences, as mediated by a variety of factors, including race, ethnicity, gender, and social class” (Villegas & Lucas, 2007, p. 31). In other words, teachers must challenge notions of racism and develop affirming views toward diversity (Nieto & Bode, 2008; Sleeter 2001; Ladson-Billings, 1999; Giroux, 1994; Nieto, 2004). *Caring for students* means consideration for both academic and emotional wellbeing of students (Ladson-Billings, 1995). These requisite teacher characteristics have led to CRP being called "a state of being" (Ladon-Billings, 1992). In other words, a teacher's state of mind and dispositions are integral to this pedagogy.

In addition to the requisite teacher characteristics, CRP is defined by three fundamental characteristics: *high expectations; cultural competence; and critical consciousness* (Ladson-Billings, 1995). Teachers with *high expectations* believe all students can reach high academic standards and they make this expectation clear to students (Ladson-Billings, 1995). Teachers

using CRP also help students gain *cultural competence* by creating classrooms respectful of all students' cultures and assisting students in forming positive cultural identities (Ladson-Billings, 1995). Lastly, teachers using CRP help students reach *critical consciousness* by teaching students to critique societal inequalities and to confront oppressive social conditions (e.g., Aronowitz & Giroux, 1991; McLaren, 1989; Ladson-Billings, 1995). Overall, CRP must help students develop “dynamic or synergistic relationship between home/community culture and school culture” (Ladson-Billings, 1995, p. 467). In this way, Ladson-Billings (1995) calls for teachers to encourage cultural competence of students by fostering the diverse cultural assets students bring to class and establishing strong ties between instruction and children's out of school lives.

Additionally, Ladson-Billings (2009) more recently provided six tenets needed for the implementation of CRP:

1. All students are empowered as intellectual leaders in the classroom.
2. All students are active, participating and contributing members of the learning community.
3. Students' real life experiences are intentionally incorporated into the curriculum.
4. Students learn in diverse ways. Understanding is broadly demonstrated and understood.
5. Teachers and students are active in the pursuit of social justice and equality.
6. Teachers demonstrate their understanding of their political role in the classroom.

CRP is a framework targeted toward the design and implementation of effective and equitable instruction. Therefore, it adds many important and comprehensive details of how to design and implement high school ELA instruction.

New Literacy Studies (NLS)

The term "New Literacy Studies (NLS) was introduced by Gee (1990) and Street (1993) to describe literacy as an ongoing social practice that can only be understood within sociocultural context. According Street (2003),

What has come to be termed the "New Literacy Studies" (NLS) (Gee, 1991; Street, 1996) represents a new tradition in considering the nature of literacy, focusing not so much on acquisition of skills, as in dominant approaches, but rather on what it means to think of literacy as a social practice (Street, 1985). This entails the recognition of multiple literacies, varying according to time and space, but also contested in relations of power...and asking "whose literacies" are dominant and whose are marginalized or resistant. (p. 77).

Since its inception, NLS has been associated with literacy research from a broad range of disciplines (Prinsloo & Baynham, 2008). One field within NLS is focused on examining the cognitive and social processes involved in comprehending online or digital texts (e.g., Leu, 2001; Leu, Kinzer, Coiro, & Cammack, 2004; Coiro, 2003; Coiro & Dobler, 2007). This field distinguishes between "new literacies" and "New Literacies" theories. The former theories keep up with the quickly changing essence of literacy and can include a broad range of unique perspectives and findings (Coiro, Knobel, Lankshear, & Leu, 2008). The later theories (i.e., "New Literacies") represent a broader concept inclusive of common findings across multiple "new literacies." This model assumes that the definition of literacy changes consistently, across multiple perspectives.

Another, related field within NLS highlights literacy as a social practice. Barton, Hamilton and Ivanic (2000: 1-15) summarized the characteristics of this NLS as follows:

- Literacy is best understood as a set of social practices; these are observable in events which are mediated by written texts;
- There are different literacies associated with different domains of life;
- Literacy practices are patterned by social institutions and power relations and some literacies are more dominant, visible and influential than others;

- Literacy practices are purposeful and embedded in broader social goals and cultural practices;
- Literacy is historically situated;
- Literacy practices change and new ones are frequently acquired through processes of informal learning and sense making as well as formal education and training;
- The ways in which people use and value reading and writing are themselves rooted in conceptions of knowledge, identity and being.

This summary of NLS is not meant to blend the diverse perspectives within NLS. Rather, this section highlights how the various, adapting definitions of literacy can inform the meaning of literacy within high school ELA instruction. The foundation of such studies was founded in research into community literacies demonstrating the ways people use literacy in their everyday lives (e.g., Street, 1984; Barton & Hamilton, 1998; Heath, 1983; Purcell-Gates, 1995). This foundation laid groundwork for figuring out ways to make literacy instruction meaningful and relevant by recognizing and incorporating students' out of school ways of practicing literacy (Perry, 2012).

For one, NLS depict adolescents as highly engaged and highly skilled in many literacy activities outside of classroom walls (Majiri, 2008; Moje, 2000). In other words, NLS studies provide counter evidence to deficit theorizing about nondominant students. Rather than prominent tendencies blame nondominant student culture for low academic success, NLS shed light on the need to create classrooms that value and foster the knowledge and potential for engagement that students bring to the classroom (Coiro, Knobel, Lankshear, & Leu, 2008). Second, NLS illuminates specific ideas about what sorts of literacy skills students have outside of school and what engages students (e.g., Mahiri & Sablo, 1996). While each student and community are different (i.e., their skills and motivations differ) this research provides a starting place to think about what literacy skills and motivations adolescents may bring to classrooms. Third, the tools used throughout NLS to discover out of school literacies and engagement in

literacy can help educators learn about specific literacy skills and motivations of students in particular classrooms. Therefore, these tools are integral to background knowledge needed design learning environments where literacy skills and motivations of specific students within classroom. Fourth, as cited above, Street (2003) poses the question of "whose literacy is valued" (Street, 2003) as a key decision point toward the design, implementation, and assessment process.

Funds of Knowledge (FK)

The term "Funds of Knowledge" (FK) was originally coined by Wolf (1966) to describe resources and knowledge manipulated by households to make ends meet in the household economy (e.g., funds for rent and social funds). Decades later, ethnographers used this definition to study economically vulnerable Mexican communities in the United States and Mexico. These studies expanded examples of FK to include:

information and formulas containing the mathematics, architecture, chemistry, physics, biology, and engineering for the construction and repair of homes, the repair of most mechanical devices including autos, appliances and machines as well as methods for planting and gardening, butchering, cooking, hunting, and of 'making things' in general. Other parts of such funds included information regarding access to institutional assistance, school programs, legal help, transportation routes, occupational opportunities, and for the most economical places to purchase needed services and goods. (Velez-Ibanez, 1988, p. 38)

The original definition of FK has expanded to include many different types of assets. The idea behind all of these definitions is "that people are competent and have knowledge, and their life experiences have given them that knowledge" (Gonzalez & Moll, 2002, p. 625). Different types of FK include: FK in households (e.g., Velez-Ibanez, 1988; Moll & Greenberg, 1990), FK based on community assets (Barton & Tan, 2009), FK from popular culture (e.g., Nelson, 2001),

FK based on culture (Antrop-Gonzales & DeJesus, 2006); and FK based on life experiences (e.g., Smythe & Toohey, 2009).

Original FK literature informs the design, or even "pre" design (i.e., understanding cultural assets that can eventually be linked to classroom instruction) components ELA instruction. Specifically, FK studies depict the recruitment of teachers to visit a few students' homes over the course of the school year to learn about students' FK, and weekly meetings between teachers and researchers to discuss how FK can be leveraged to create effective and meaningful learning environments for students (e.g., Moll & Greenberg, 1990; Velez-Ibanez & Greenberg, 1992). More recent use of the FK framework illuminates the many assets students and families have that are not utilized or fostered by typical schooling processes. Continued studies within the FK framework describe the diverse assets teachers find in students' lives that can be used to inform design of effective pedagogies within the classroom (e.g., Moll & Greenberg, 1990; Velez-Ibanez & Greenberg, 1992). Additionally, with FK studies, various tools exist to study FK relevant to the design of ELA instruction. These tools include contextualized: ethnographic observations, conversations with students and families; home visits; open-ended interview strategies; life histories; and case studies (Moll, Amanti, Neff, & Gonzalez, 1992; González, Moll, & Amanti, 2005).

Critical Literacy (CL)

Critical Literacy (CL) stems from pedagogical practices of Friere (1967; 1968; 1970), an adult literacy teacher concerned with exploitation of adult workers in Brazil. Friere (1967; 1968; 1970) demonstrated how to engage students in dialogue and expose students to critical texts that facilitates critical consciousness. More recently, CL has been described as an instructional approach, a theoretical approach, and a worldview (e.g., Freire, 1990; Hull, 1993). In each case,

the goal of CL is the understanding of how power and domination underlie texts (Hull, 1993; Morrell, 2008). Morrell (2003) defines CL as the "ability to understand the various purposes and functions of language and literacy in society" (Morrell, 2003). Within CL, texts are not limited to writing but include multiple means of expression including music, art, television, and multiple forms of media. Important aims of CL are to help students recognize how language is affected by and affects social relations and examine power relationships embedded in language use, acknowledge that language is not neutral, and recognize their own values in the construction and comprehension of information (Janks, 1993; Lankshear, 1994, 1997; Lankshear & McLaren, 1993; Morgan, 1997; Shor, 1999). From many perspectives, the final goal of critical literacy is an emancipated worldview and transformational social action (Freire, 1970; Hull, 1993; McLaren, 1989; UNESCO, 1975).

As a theory, a few principles lay at the heart of CL which can be considered design principles. According to Friere (1970) dialogue between teachers and students must be fostered, traditional subjects must be problematized, topics must be situated within students' personal concerns, and must facilitate an analysis of how institutions can change. Teacher self-reflection through CL acts as a model for students' invitation to engage in critical examination students (Auerbach & Burgess, 1985). The following two sections (i.e., sections reviewing Critical Youth Participatory Action Research and Critical Hip Hop Language Pedagogy) illuminate specific types of CL that have been utilized in relation to high school ELA design, instruction, and assessment. The overarching principles of each framework align with the principles of CL.

Critical Youth Participatory Action Research (CPAR)

According to Morrell's (2006) review on Critical Youth Participatory (CYPAR), three principles tie the field of CYPAR together: a) cooperative investigation of an issue; b) drawing

on indigenous knowledge to better understand an issue; and (c) the desire to take individual and/or collective action to address an issue. Through CYPAR, students fully participate in the research process, organization and mobilization efforts, and action oriented steps to solve a problem (Selener, 1997). Additionally, CYPAR questions "who" has the right to engage in research and positions students, community members, and teachers as fundamental participants in research processes (Kincheloe & McLaren, 1998; Morrell, 2006). Through CYPAR students are positioned as producers of knowledge and agents of change, rather than simply consumers of information, including classroom instruction. In general, CYPAR mobilizes individuals and communities interested in research that promotes equitable change, such as more equitable schooling teaching practices and allocation of resources (Fine, Burns, Payne, & Torre, 2004). Each of these CYPAR principles informs the design and implementation process of how to create high school ELA environments that foster critical perspectives and help students engage as critical consumers and producers of equitable change. Additionally, throughout the design, implementation, and assessment process two important questions facilitators of CYPAR should ask are: "What is the purpose of this?" "Who benefits from this?" and "Whose voices are represented and valued through this process" (Kinloch, 2012).

Critical Hip Hop Language Pedagogy (CHHLP)

Critical Hip Hop Language Pedagogy (CHHLPs) describes a Freireian critical pedagogy (Freire, 1970) of language aimed to foster an understanding of power associated with language use for linguistically profiled and marginalized individuals (Alim, 2007). Through the lens of critical language awareness (Fairclough, 1995; Wodak, 1995) and critical applied linguistics (Pennycook, 2001) CHHLP challenge the notion that dominant discourses on language and

literacy are a neutral, decontextualized practices. Instead, CHLLP interrogates language and literacy through intersections of identities, ideologies, histories, and power (Alim, 2007).

Requirements of CHLLP can be thought of as design and implementation principles, including: lessons build on reciprocal; caring relationships between teachers; and students that allow students to be vulnerable and write about their daily struggles (Alim, 2011). During the design, implementation, and assessment process of CHLLP, consideration must be paid to the "ideological combat that is being waged inside and outside of our classroom walls" (Alim, 2007). Also, through CHHLP, fostering student success and meeting the needs of linguistically and culturally diverse students participating in the Global Hip-Hop Nation are centered (Mitchell, 2001). Finally, literacy must be viewed as "Intimate, Intimate, Lived, and Liberatory" (Alim, 2011).

A prominent tool used in the design and implementation of CHLLP are students' "ill-literacies." Youth use ill-literacies or "Hip-hop literacies" to challenge dominant construction of static-one dimensional relationships between languages and cultures (Alim, 2011). Ill-literacies creatively express intimate lived experiences as a means to work toward a collective and social transformation (Alim, 2011). Lastly, Alim (2007) noted specific questions used to guide CHHLP which can be used as tools for other educators during the design, implementation and assessment processes. The questions are: "How can language be used to maintain, reinforce, and perpetuate existing power relations?" And, conversely, "How can language be used to resist, redefine, and possibly reverse these relations?"

Social Design Experiment (SDE)

Social Design Experiments (SDEs) are cultural historical formations, organized around equity oriented and robust learning principles, designed with and for nondominant communities

to promote transformative learning (Gutiérrez, 2008a; Gutiérrez, Hunter, & Arzubiaga, 2009; Gutiérrez & Vossoughi, 2010). SDEs rest on the notion that culture can be understood as a history of involvement and a dynamic process (Gutiérrez & Rogoff, 2003; Gutiérrez & Vossoughi, 2010). This approach to culture "accounts for within and across subgroup differences in ways that do not essentialize or define groups such as English learners and cultural communities monolithically and fundamentally attends to how issues of race, ethnicity, language, mobility, culture, gender, and power are addressed in the inquiry project." (Gutiérrez & Vossoughi, 2010 p. 103).

The design, implementation, and assessment of a SDE are an integrated process. Gutiérrez and Vossoughi (2010) posed four principles of SDEs: *Design as re-mediating activity; contradictions; historicity; and equity*. *Design as a re-mediating activity* means that SDEs create robust learning environments with transformative potential for teacher educators, teacher apprentices, students, and institutions in which they participate. Re-mediation provides a frame to cultivate the reorganization of systems of learning that reject deficit theorizing and instead, demands the creation of environments that allow all students to share and further their expertise (Cole & Griffin, 1983; Engeström, 1991). A focus on *contradictions* highlights the problematic tendency to dichotomize valuable versus invaluable literacy practices, top down versus bottom up projects; quantitative versus interpretive approaches to research, proximal versus distal influences; local versus global policies; the researcher versus the researched, school versus home, and dominant versus nondominant communities (Engeström, 1987; Gutiérrez, 2006; Gutiérrez, 2008a; Gutiérrez & Vossoughi, 2010). A focus on *historicity* includes an investigation of school structures and literacy practices overtime and across contexts, which adds a greater perspective to static views of school structure and literacy practices (Gutiérrez, 2007; Gutiérrez

& Vossoughi, 2010). This view also allows educators to situate how these policies impact and can be impacted by their own practices (Gutiérrez & Vossoughi, 2010).

SDEs position teachers as actors as well as critical observers and reflectors of their own practice (Gutiérrez & Vossoughi, 2010). The design, implementation, and assessment of SDEs require persistent reflection and examination of teachers' conceptions and experiences (Gutiérrez & Vossoughi, 2010). These reflections provide a means for teachers to understand and consciously develop their own frameworks for teaching and learning (Gutiérrez & Vossoughi, 2010). Cognitive ethnographies (Hutchins, 2003; Williams, 2006), expanded vocabulary, and theory are tools used through the process of self-reflection. Cognitive ethnographies help teachers focus attention on interactions between the material, cognitive and social world, through detailed description of how learning is at play in activity (Hutchins, 2003). The utility of these three tools together help teachers make sense of their practices and the theories that guide their practice. Through these reflections and through learning different theories and frameworks of teaching for equity, teachers are able to create a space between practice and theory to better understand and assess their own assumptions and histories. Clearly articulated theory is used to deliberately guide decision making and consistently challenge deficit views of students from nondominant communities (Gutiérrez, 2006; Gutiérrez & Orellana, 2006). Additionally, embedded at the heart of the SDE is making sure that the process benefits the community of practice. Asking how equity is accounted for and if equity is defined and experienced locally are centering questions for this work.

Within the SDEs, assessment of learners' identities, participation, and knowledge are evidenced in practice (Rogoff, 2003; Gutiérrez & Vossoughi, 2010; Little, 2002, 2003; Artiles, Trent, Hoffman-Kipp, & Lopez-Torres 2000). Additionally, the individual cannot be effectively

evaluated without the context of the social situation; therefore evaluation of change in the individual is inseparable from change in the social situation (Engeström, 2008b). Outcomes of SDEs as evidenced in practice include high levels of student engagement, motivation, and sustained interaction around learning (Griffin & Cole, 1984; Cole & Griffin, 1983; Gutiérrez, Morales, et al., 2009). Overall assessments of SDEs must ensure that the intervention benefits the community. This requires documentation of how equity is understood and addressed, from multiple perspectives, from the initial design stages through implementation and assessments (Gutiérrez, 2008b).

Cultural Modeling (CM)

Cultural modeling (CM) is "a framework for the design of learning environments that examines what youth know from everyday settings to support subject matter learning in school so that differences between community-based and school-based norms can be negotiated by both students and teachers" (Lee, 2007 p. 15). CM draw parallels between academic knowledge and reasoning on the one hand and cultural funds of knowledge on the other hand (Gonzales, Moll, & Amanti, 2005; Moll, 1993).

CM provides guiding principles for the design and implementation of ELA instruction that fosters student understanding of how students' everyday knowledge is related to and different from academic knowledge. A primary step in the design of CM is for teachers to develop a deep understanding of students' cultural data sets. *Cultural data sets* are the routine practices students engage in outside of school (Lee, 2000). The next step is to investigate how specific cultural data sets align with ELA topics, reasoning, skills, and processes (Lee, 2001). For example, this may include making connections between strategies of speakers of African American Vernacular English (AAVE) and rap lyrics and the use of and interpretation of

academic figurative language like irony, satire, and symbolism (Lee, 1993a, 1995a, 1995b, 2000, 2001).

CM also provides tools to think through high school ELA assessments in terms of *breadth* and *depth* (Lee, 2007). *Breadth* is declarative knowledge such as knowledge about authors, literary works and movement. This is typically measured on standardized tests. *Depth* involves structural and generative understanding and knowledge. Tests that allow students to draw upon cultural datasets allow students to express their depth of knowledge even before they may grasp the breadth of declarative knowledge valued within high school ELA courses.

Synthesis of Review

The synthesis of frameworks points out the different purposes for each framework. Contradictions between frameworks highlight the importance of resisting the urge to blend principles across frameworks. With respect for the distinct traditions and purposes of each framework, the following section highlights patterns and points of connections across frameworks.

Conceptions of Cultural Responsive Instruction

While all frameworks shed light on how to foster culturally responsive instruction, the ways these frameworks shed light on culturally responsive curriculum differ. Culturally responsive instruction encompasses many conceptions of culture. Instruction can be culturally responsive for several reasons. For example, culturally responsive instruction can include the use of students' home language and discourse patterns within the classroom (Lee, 2000) or curriculum in which content is relevant to the reality of the learner (Alim, 2011). "Culture" is conceived differently across the frameworks and ways in which curriculum connects to the culture and reality of the learner differ. Table 2 describes how each framework illuminates

adolescent ELA design/implementation/assessment processes that foster culturally responsive instruction.

Table 2

How each Framework Fosters Culturally Responsive Instruction

Framework	How framework fosters "Content Relevant to the Reality of the Learner"
Multicultural Education (ME)	ME fosters cultural pluralism across differences in gender, ability, class, race, sexuality through the inclusion various cultures, ethnicities, and identities in the curriculum (Banks, 2004)
Culturally Relevant Pedagogy (CRP)	CRP fosters dynamic or synergistic relationship between home/community culture and school culture including home language, home dialect, language and interaction styles and demonstrated pride in himself and his cultural heritage, cultural values and styles (Ladson-Billings, 1995)
New Literacy Studies (NLS)	NLS provides tools to understand literacy outside of school that could fit any definition of culture and allows for a better understanding of literacies that already exist in students' lives.
Funds of Knowledge (FK)	FK describes knowledge within a household; Wolf (1966) expanded this to include any competencies people have based on their life experiences (Gonzalez & Moll, 2002). FK studies provide evidence of expertise out of the classroom and tools to study this expertise and integrate it into curriculum design.
Critical Literacy (CL)	CL requires that instruction must be situated within students' personal concerns. Additionally literacy is relevant as a tool through which power is transmitted and transformed (Friere, 1987)
Critical Youth Participatory Action Research (CYPAR)	Same as CL
Critical Hip Hop Language Pedagogy (CHHLP)	Same as CL. Additionally, CHHLP requires literacy to be viewed as "Intimate, Lived, and Liberatory" meaning that it must be made intimately relevant to students' lives and chances of transformation (Alim, 2011)
Social Design Experiments (SDE)	SDE relies on dynamic and processual notions of culture that focuses on people's history of involvement with the valued practices of their communities and the routine activities of everyday life (Gutiérrez & Rogoff, 2003)
Cultural Modeling (CM)	Cultural datasets encompass the patterns, generational archtypes, and plots within national and/or ethnic cultures. This includes patterns of narratives and systematic features of language such as African American English (AAE). These cultural dataset should be fostered and should be used to scaffold academic learning (Lee, 2007)

The ways in which each framework adds insight into culturally responsive instruction and assessments is related to the purpose of each framework. Seven of the nine frameworks set forth pedagogical principles in relation to the design, implementation, and assessment of instruction: ME; CRP; CL; CYPAR; CHLLP; SDE; and CM. All but CM include pedagogical principles related to both making the culturally relevant instruction and the fostering of critical consciousness. Therefore, ME, CRP, CL, CYPAR, CHLLP, and SDE can independently be utilized to create culturally responsive instruction that fosters critical consciousness. CRP is a particularly well developed framework for the purpose of designing and implementing culturally responsive instruction that fosters critical consciousness (Ladson-Billings, 2014). Therefore, CRP is particularly highlighted in the below analysis as it crosses sections.

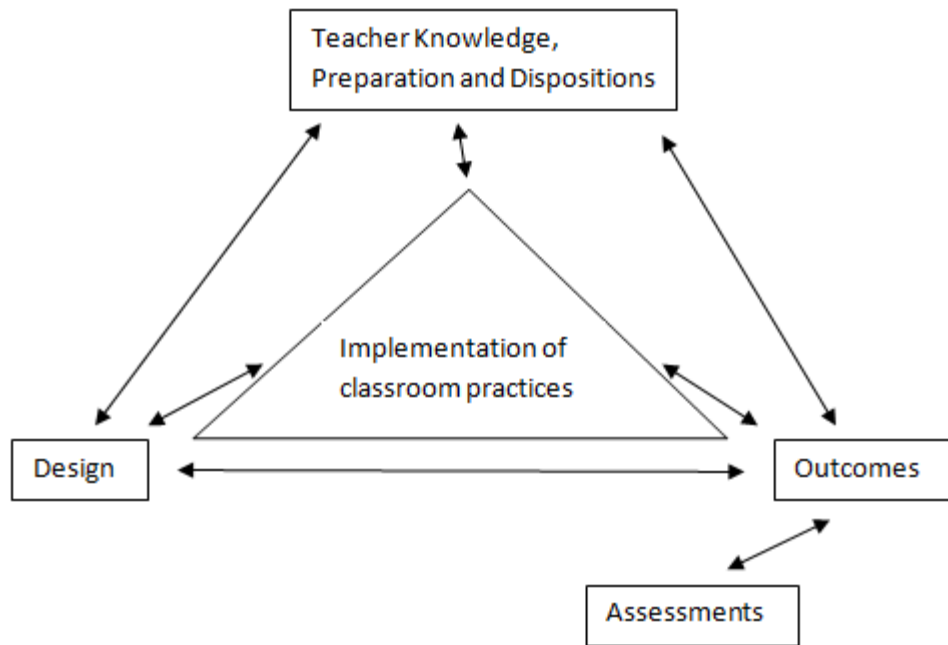
CM independently can be used to create a culturally responsive learning environment but it falls short of informing instruction that meets principles of social justice and democracy because it does not foster critical consciousness. The remaining two frameworks, FK and NLS are not specifically pedagogical frameworks. Rather, they inform the design, implementation, and assessment of ELA instruction by illuminating a broader definition what literacy means and what skills students bring to the classroom.

Components of ELA instruction

Five categories of ELA instruction for social justice across frameworks emerged through the synthesis: Teacher knowledge, design, implementation, assessment and outcomes. *Teacher knowledge* refers not only to specific knowledge of teachers but also to dispositions, beliefs and experiences of teachers that facilitate the design of ELA instruction for social justice. *Design* of ELA instruction refers to the planning stages of instruction. *Implementation* refers to actual classroom practices. *Assessment* refers to measures of outcomes related to instruction. Rather

than lay out assessment processes, many frameworks described either ideal or realized student *outcomes* associated with the framework. An understanding of outcomes helps illuminate the assessment process. Figure 1 depicts how these five categories fit into the interrelated process of high school ELA.

Figure 1
A Model of the Interrelated Categories within High School ELA



Instruction

Map of principles across frameworks

Figure 2 depicts how principles within the reviewed frameworks can be mapped together along the five categories of teacher knowledge, design, implementation, assessment, and outcomes of culturally responsive high school ELA instruction that fosters critical consciousness. The figure shows which framework(s) each principle is encompassed by as a means to keep principles within the context of their framework. Based on contradictions laid out above, the framework of each principle should be considered when interpreting each principle. The model in Figure 1 including multidirectional connections and impacts between the teacher knowledge,

design, implementation, assessment, and outcomes should be kept in mind when considering the interrelated nature of each category and principle depicted in Table 3.

Table 3

Categorizations of Principles by Framework

Needed knowledge/perspectives	ME	CRP	NLS	FK	CL	CYPAR	CHHLP	SDE	CM
Examination of students out of school literacies			X	X				X	X
Understanding multiple literacies			X						
View of students within the classroom as cultural resources	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X
Understanding students cultural datasets	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Sociocultural consciousness		X							
View of literacy as political, intimate, lived and liberatory							X		
Caring for students' academic and emotional wellbeing		X							
Belief that all students can meet high academic standards	X	X						X	
Design	ME	CRP	NLS	FK	CL	CYPAR	CHHLP	SDE	CM
Include various cultures/ethnicities	X	X							X
Incorporate students' life experiences		X			X		X		X
Draw parallels between students' knowledge/skills and academic knowledge	X	X							X
Utilize multiple perspectives and sources of information	X				X				X
Critical teacher reflection		X			X			X	
Focus on historicity								X	
Engage with history								X	
Engage with theory								X	
Focus on contradictions								X	
Ask "what the purpose is;" "who benefits;" and "whose voices/literacies are represented?"			X			X			
Ask "how equity is accounted for" and "how equity is defined and experienced within the community?"								X	
Ensure the process benefits the local community								X	

Build on reciprocal, caring, relationships between teachers and students that allow students to be vulnerable								X		
Demand the creation of environments that allow all students to share and further their expertise	X	X						X	X	
Implementation	ME	CRP	NLS	FK	CL	CYPAR	CHHLP	SDE	CM	
Assign sociolinguistic language analysis	X									
Assign students to write counter texts					X					
Respect all students cultures	X	X								
Problematize traditional subjects					X					
Dialogue between teachers and students					X					
Foster student understanding, investigation, and determination of cultural assumptions and perspectives	X									
Teacher demonstrate an understanding of their political role in the classroom		X								
Teacher demonstrates high expectations		X								
Create bridges between students cultural knowledge and academic knowledge										X
Types of Assessments	ME	CRP	NLS	FK	CL	CYPAR	CHHLP	SDE	CM	
Cognitive Ethnography								X		
Research Projects/Reports/Presentations					X	X				
Document student actions								X		
Student driven assessments					X	X				
Understanding is broadly demonstrated and understood		X						X		
Outcomes	ME	CRP	NLS	FK	CL	CYPAR	CHHLP	SDE	CM	
Critical consciousness		X			X					
Cultural competence		X								
Students develop more positive racial attitudes	X									
All students are empowered as intellectual leaders in the classroom		X								
All students are active, participating and contributing members of the learning community		X						X		
Development of synergistic relationship between home/community culture and school culture		X					X			X
Understanding of how power and domination underlie text					X					

Students are producers of knowledge and actively work toward solutions to injustices within their community X

Teachers and students are active in the pursuit of social justice and equality X

Note: All principles cross boundaries between "Teacher knowledge," "Design," "Implementation," "Assessment," and "Outcomes." These categories are included for clarity in thinking through each principle.

The differences, connections, and synergies between principles listed across frameworks in Figure 2 provide a picture of a variety of potential tools and perspectives toward creating culturally responsive high school ELA instruction that fosters critical consciousness. The following section further unpacks how connections between frameworks illuminate the design, implementation, and assessment processes of instruction for social justice.

Teacher Knowledge

To implement culturally responsive ELA instruction that fosters critical consciousness, and across all pedagogical frameworks listed above, teachers need a deep understanding of students' culture. However, individually, each framework is limited in terms of explicit principles explaining how teachers gain this type of knowledge, when considering all available principles across frameworks. For example, Ladson-Billings (1994) describes CRP as instruction aligned with students' cultural background and social knowledge. Teachers using CRP understand their students and their community because they grew up in and lived in the same community as their students (Ladson-Billings, 1995). While growing up and living within the same community as students provides a distinct advantage in terms of teachers' understanding community assets and culture of students, many teachers of African-American, Latina/o, English-language learners, and low-income students do not come from the same communities as their students (Florio-Ruane, 1994; Gollnick & Chinn, 2002; McIntosh, 1990; Paley, 2001; Schmidt, 1999; Sleeter, 2001;

Snyder, Hoffman, & Geddes, 1997). Further, even if teachers have lived within the community which they teach, the generational gap between teachers and students can lead to disconnects in teachers' knowledge about his/her students and how to utilize students' lives within the classroom, especially with ever evolving literacy and technology practices of adolescents (Sacks, 1996). Therefore, without minimizing the need to diversify the teaching force to represent the increasingly diverse student population (Gay & Howard, 2000) it is also important to understand how teachers (whether they come from their students' communities or not) come to understand their students' community and home cultures. Therefore, looking across frameworks can help paint a picture of multiple paths to help teachers learn about the culture and assets of their students.

FK, NLS, SDE, and CM shed light on how examination of students' out of school literacies provides knowledge of student assets. ME, CHHP, SDE, CM, and FK also shed light on how and why to view students within the classroom as a cultural resource. Additionally, research on the culture and multiple literacies of nondominant students' acts as a guide for understanding the vast wealth of cultural assets adolescents bring to ELA courses. NLS opened up an increasing body of literature highlighting the vast literacy practices adolescents (and especially nondominant adolescents) participate in outside of school (e.g., Alvermann, Young, Green, & Wisenbaker, 1999; Finders, 1997; Lewis & Fabos, 1999; Moje, 2000; Shuman, 1986). For instance, Mahiri (2008) documents ten case studies of rich literacy practices of urban youth that were not recognized in ELA classrooms. Such examples illustrate how teachers can learn about the assets and culture of their students as a means to implement culturally responsive ELA instruction.

Learning about students' culture, multiple literacies, and out of school lives also informs teachers' view of students. For instance, learning about these assets and the dynamic nature of literacy through the view of requires teachers to view literacy as "Intimate, Lived, and Liberatory" (Alim, 2011). Additionally, it is conceivable that implementing effective pedagogy (without requisite preconceptions) may end up leading teachers to belief that all students are capable of success in school, through experience.

CRP requires teachers to have critical consciousness, care for students' academic and emotional well-being, and a belief that all students can reach high academic standards (Ladson-Billings, 1992). SD and ME share this last requirement. In Figure 2, arrows between such categories of teacher knowledge are drawn because they are all related. The tools that help teachers learn about student assets can inform teachers' views of students as capable and intelligent beings. On the other hand, having a view that students are capable may lead to the examinations of students' assets and cultures. Understanding different tools to promote teacher understanding of student's culture and students' asset view of students and students' culture can then take many forms and start from multiple different points.

Design

Teacher knowledge and the design of learning environments also inform each other. The process of including various cultures, ethnicities, and identities espoused by ME, CRP, and CM and the process of incorporating students' life experiences into the design process espoused by CRP, CL, CYPAR, CHHP, and CM require an understanding of student culture. The process of designing to include student assets and culture also informs a teachers' understanding of student culture.

Similarly, teacher reflections are a multidirectional process that inform and are informed by every stage of the process (i.e., teacher knowledge, design, implementation, assessment and outcomes). For purposes of simplicity reflections are included in the design section of Figure 2, because they fit within the definition of "planning for action". Critical teacher reflections are an integral component of CRP, SDE, and CL. SDE provides insights into specifically *how* teachers can reflect critically by centering historicity, engagement with theory, and the use of journals (Guitierrez & Vousigni, 2010). CYPAR and NLS additionally suggest questions that can be used in teacher reflections including: "What is the purpose (of any assignment/assessment/discourse style, etc.)", "Who benefits?" and "Whose voices are represented?" SDE also requires teachers to ask "How is equity accounted for?"

The critical reflections and/or inclusion of student culture within the classroom also multidirectionally impact the building of reciprocal, caring relationships between teachers and students that would allow students to be vulnerable as espoused by CHHLP (Alim, 2011). All of the design principles can also connect to the design principle of fostering student success as espoused by ME, CRP, SDE, and CHLLP. Each of these principles also multidirectionally impacts the teachers' perceptions that transcend the typical view that student knowledge and assets must fit and flourish within standardized and deficit oriented learning environments and assessments to be valued. Teacher reflections are particularly helpful to help teachers think through such perceptions and design principles.

Implementation

Culturally responsive ELA instruction that fosters critical consciousness necessarily looks different across contexts because specific implementation rely on the specific needs, cultures, and assets of students within a particular classroom. As described by Ladson-Billings (2005)

there is no cookbook way to implement CRP because specific CRP practices will look differently across contexts. Therefore, examples of culturally responsive instruction that fosters critical consciousness provides helpful insight into what such pedagogy looks like in concrete terms. However, such examples are not often connected to the full design and assessment processes nor do the examples illuminate necessary teacher knowledge of student outcomes. Therefore, depictions of culturally responsive ELA pedagogy that fosters critical consciousness can seem limited to isolated attempts by extremely skilled and educated individuals (Lee, 2008). The map in Figure 2 helps illuminate processes that make specific implementation possible.

The teacher knowledge and design principles highlighted above can lead into the instructional processes. For example, for teachers to be prepared to implement that six tenants of CRP instruction (Ladson-Billings, 2009), including (e.g., empowering students as intellectual leaders and intentional incorporation of students life experiences in the curriculum) teachers need knowledge of student assets and how design instruction that empowers students. Additionally, the survey across implementation, design, and assessment processes illuminates how such processes can inform each other and lead to instruction that fosters principles of social justice and democracy. Implementation processes that foster critical consciousness also foster culturally responsive instruction because the content of critical instruction is relevant to the learner. As Morrell (2008) explains, CL is two times an asset model of instruction because it: 1) “Provides pedagogy and curricula that lend immediate relevance to school in the lives of urban youth” and 2) “works to break the cycle of disinvestment of human capital in urban communities by creating graduates who recognize their potential agency to improve urban centers, rather than seeing them as places to escape” (p.7). Though Morrell (2008) referred only to CL, his reasoning draws the explicit focus between any critical pedagogy. Therefore, the explicit focus on critical

consciousness in ME, CRP, CL, CYPAR, CHHLP, and SDE naturally foster instruction relevant to the learner.

Implementation of critical instruction can lead students being equipped with tools to transform their lives and the injustice within society (Morrison, Robins, & Rose, 2008). CRP aims to help students find their voice and sense of agency, so they can become critical consumers and producers of the multiple literacies relevant to their lives (Morrell, 2008). Therefore the implementation of learning environments that foster critical consciousness, including student problematizing traditional subjects, dialogue between teachers and students, assigning sociolinguistic language analysis, and assignment of students to write counter-texts foster both culturally responsive pedagogy as well as critical consciousness. Each of these dynamics multidirectionally impact teacher perceptions and expectations of students, students' role within the classroom, students' willingness to share and participate within the classroom. Lastly, the implementation processes multidirectionally impact student assessments and outcomes. Critical reflections (discussed above) are helpful tools to process such implementation.

Assessments

Many tools mentioned above can inform the assessment processes as well. Through CM, Lee (2001) describes an example of how she drew upon her African-American high school students' FK including, African-American English Vernacular and knowledge of signifying, to scaffold learning of academic literacy works. This parallels many studies demonstrating students reaching high levels of academic literacy through the scaffolding afforded by building bridges utilizing diverse FK within the classroom (e.g., Alim, 2004; Ball & Lardner, 2005; Cooks, 2004; Lee, 2001; Fischer, 2003, 2007; Morrell, 2004; Siegel, 1999). Therefore, the teacher knowledge required to create culturally responsive pedagogy multidirectionally informs the design,

implementation, assessments and resulting outcomes. When the design of learning environments flexibly accounts for and builds upon diverse student knowledge, continual assessment of the actual skills students bring to the classroom rather than a pre-conceived deficit oriented view of what students bring to the classroom leads to impressive outcomes for students. Types of assessments mentioned across frameworks include: cognitive ethnographies (Williams, 2006); research reports/projects/presentation (e.g., Morrell, 2006); student actions (Guitierrez & Vousigni, 2010); and student driven assessments (Kinloch, 2010).

Outcomes

Some principles within the frameworks are dense and difficult to conceptualize in terms of concrete practical implications. Mapped together, the frameworks provide a more complex and vivid description of design, implementation, and assessment strategies. This denser picture comes from both distinctions between frameworks and ways in which principles and frameworks connect. Additionally, the map provides a picture of how to utilize tools across multiple frameworks that inform instruction and assessments that are culturally responsive and fosters critical consciousness.

Not all frameworks aim to foster the same outcomes. However, taking inventory of outcomes associated with each framework helps illuminate possibilities. Outcomes or goals of each pedagogical framework in the review include: critical consciousness (Ladson-Billings, 1992); more racially positive attitudes (Banks, 2004); empowered and intellectual leadership within the classroom (Lee, 2000); cultural competence (Ladson-Billings, 1993); active, participation and contribution to the learning community (e.g., Gutierrez & Vousigni, 2010); an understanding of how power and domination underlie text (e.g., Alim, 2011); production of knowledge and equitable solutions to community problems (e.g., Morrell, 2006).

Student outcomes are connected to each category of the design process through creation of spaces where students have opportunities to share their diverse knowledge. For example, integrating students' out of school literacies into the curriculum can transform student identity from nonreader and non-learner to capable learner (Gee, 1996) because students are experts on many literacies. Valuing the knowledge students bring to the class can help disenfranchised students realize their knowledge is valued within the classroom. This invites students more fully to engage and learn from course content. Similarly, creating learning environments where meaning of texts is scaffolded within their current expertise makes reading rich texts both compelling and rewarding (Lee, 2007). Such processes further opportunities for both learning and the display of student knowledge.

Discussion

Mapping the different theories together adds depth into the understanding of teacher knowledge, design, implementation, assessment, and outcomes of culturally responsive high school ELA instruction that fosters critical consciousness. The following section discusses implications of this review for teacher education, current teachers, students, and in and out of school day literacy instruction.

Implications

The map of multiple frameworks provides a picture of multiple access points for the implementation of culturally responsive ELA instruction that fosters critical consciousness. This picture paints teacher knowledge, design processes, implementation, assessment, and student outcomes as mutually informing each other. Therefore, many potential spaces can create and be affected by transformation toward culturally responsive ELA pedagogy that fosters critical consciousness. In other words, teachers perceptions both impact and can be impacted by the type

of instruction they facilitate within a classroom. Exposure to student knowledge and skills impacts teachers' view of students' knowledge and skills.

Exposure to students' knowledge and skills impact the design of learning environments and assessments that foster, build upon, and value student knowledge and skills. When afforded opportunities to share their expertise students push learning environments to new levels. When afforded opportunities to share their critical perspectives on how to improve the system of schooling, instruction, etc. students themselves can make changes. The access points that lead students to have these opportunities can be started through many different processes, as the map shows. Teachers can enter communities to learn about student knowledge. After-school educators can create spaces for students to share their critical perspectives. Curriculum plans can foster unique literacies of students within classrooms.

Another question this review opens is the applicability of such instruction within the current context of the public school system. There are limited examples of studies documenting ELA instruction for social justice within the typical school day. Documentation of CYPAR, CL, SDE, and CHHLP tends to take place outside of school walls such. For example, SDE remains in the after-school arena through the UC Links program. While studies of CRP have taken place during the school day, most studies are limited to the depiction of teachers using effective teaching method but not shed light on design processes. These studies have not illuminated the extent of struggles and successes teachers have within the regular school day, when working toward democracy and social justice explicitly. Therefore, many questions remain about how instruction for social justice and democracy can be implemented within high school ELA classrooms.

CM literature explicitly documents challenges of implementing CM within the regular school day. A unique component of CM is the careful attention paid to both cultural data sets and academic knowledge (e.g., Lee1993a, 1995a, 1995b, 2000, 2001). Such studies reveal example processes to connect cultural and academic knowledge. However, as noted above, CM only encompasses cultural responsiveness and not critical consciousness. Therefore, CM does not provide a model for different types of culturally responsive instruction, nor do these studies provide an example of critical consciousness fostered within a classroom setting.

There are difficulties associated within linking principles of both cultural competence and critical consciousness within the context of the school day, the requirement of canonical texts and standardized curriculum and pacing guides (Lopez, 20110). For example, the following questions are important to consider in future research: Within the context standardized curriculums and pacing guides, how can students' pose problems and drive literacy projects described through CL. What if these projects do not align with the pacing guide? If teachers need to ensure students meet certain standards on state mandated tests, how can they act as a facilitators rather than a leaders within the classroom? Do current contradictions between CL and standardized curriculums keep ELA instruction that includes a critical component, outside of school walls? What would need to change to lead to more wide-spread implementation of culturally responsive ELA instruction that fosters critical consciousness within the school day?

As it stands now, the research reviewed above helps re-envision what education can look like and juxtaposes liberatory education with typical classroom practices. Nonetheless, the nature of the work, within the context of the current structure of schooling, keeps such research in the margins of educational research. In light of this position, harnessing potentially synergistic resources across frameworks that inform social justice instruction may help inform

transformational change. The frameworks reviewed above have different purposes and foci. Therefore, connections between them are not readily made considering that educators, policy makers, curriculum makers, researchers, and others interested in the design, implementation, and assessment of high school ELA instruction for social justice most likely do not have time to independently read and analyze how various frameworks may fit together.

All challenges considered, the importance of creating culturally responsive ELA instruction that fosters critical consciousness remains critical to a truly democratic and socially just society. While this exclusion of nondominant culture is often analyzed on a larger, structural level than the classroom, the classroom is an important part of the social structure (Mercado, 2005; Roithmayr, 1999). Roithmayr (1999) explains that classrooms are spaces where social and racial power is constructed. The exclusion of student culture within the classroom (Boykin, 1983) contributes to the larger structure of schools and society as devaluing student culture. Classrooms are spaces where students encounter the social, political, and historical systems that dominate their world. Therefore, the importance of ELA instruction that promotes democracy and social justice is clear.

Future studies are needed to propel ELA instruction for democracy and social justice as the norm in high school classes. As Morrell (2003) states, "Literally, for poor and disenfranchised students, acquiring these literacies of power is a matter of life and death. The only social institutions equipped to help young women and men acquire these skills are America's schools." Additional mapping showing connections and synergies between efforts for social justice at the individual, classroom, and structural level may be helpful. At the same time, the map above shows the multiple access points to potential transformative change within current practices. The potential of individual and classroom level changes to infiltrate the system should

not trivialized within this interconnected system of design, implementation, assessment and outcomes.

Chapter 2

Designing ELA Instruction for Democracy and Social Justice

Introduction

The literacy achievement gap between nondominant students and white counterparts is unsettling for several reasons, including the gravity and persistence of the problem. Literacy encompasses the content and means to participate in democratic and civic traditions. English Language Arts (ELA) skills are imperative for the participation within democratic traditions (Morrell, 2002), such as staying informed in current events and voting. Therefore the literacy achievement gap comes with severe academic, social, economic, and civic consequences (Morrell, 2005) for nondominant youth and for democracy. The gravity of the problem notwithstanding, the problem has persisted. This persistence does not reflect a lack of attention to the problem. A wealth of research analyzes and explains both problems and solutions to the problems. This growing body of research illuminates several paths toward eliminating the achievement gap. Of course, theoretical views of the problem and solution differ, which may partly explain the persistence of the problem. This paper draws upon a wealth of available research to frame the problem and promising solutions at the level of teaching and learning within the classroom.

The paper describes a study framed by democracy, social justice, and Cultural Historical Activity Theory. Below, each of these frames are further described. Additionally, the paper takes a syncretic approach to understanding problems and solutions toward creating ELA instruction for democracy and social justice. Syncretism involves combining discrete traditions and theories for purposes of greater understanding. The study connects the wealth of theoretical knowledge to practice within an ELA classroom through the curriculum design process of a 10th grade ELA

class serving mostly nondominant youth. A syncretic frame through the process, creates spaces for investigation, analysis, and discoveries across both theory and practice.

Theoretical Framework

This paper is framed by the view that public education should foster democracy and social justice. *Democracy* means that power within society is held by the people, in a society characterized by formal equality of rights and privileges (Democracy, n.d.). *Social justice* calls for everyone to have equal economic, political and social rights and opportunities. In the case of formal schooling, a framework based in democracy and social justice necessitates everyone's right to an education that equitably prepares students to participate in US democracy. In this frame, democracy and social justice are both necessary outcomes as well as the means of education.

A framework of social justice and democracy is theoretically supported by both national and state level education policies. Most state constitutions call for equal rights to an education. The California Constitution calls: "A general diffusion of knowledge and intelligence being essential to the preservation of the rights and liberties of the people, the Legislature shall encourage by all suitable means the promotion of intellectual, scientific, moral, and agricultural improvement." (California Constitution, Article IX, Section 1 of the). The state constitution also calls for common and free schools (Section Five). At the federal level, the Fourteenth Amendment calls for Equal Protection of Laws. Such policies have been interpreted as describing education as a fundamental right, including the comparative right to basic educational equality.

While the proposition that the US educational system should promote democracy is clear, what this means in practice is less agreed upon. Therefore, an understanding of the meaning of

democracy and social justice within an ELA classroom require further specification. The following section explains ELA classroom practices along the lines of democracy and social justice through the frame of Cultural Historical Activity Theory.

Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT)

Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT) clarifies the meaning of democracy and social justice at a classroom level. CHAT describes learning and development as socio-cultural and historical phenomenon (Cole, 2010). In other words, what is learned, how it is learned, and how learning is understood is inseparable from cultural and historical context. This paper draws upon the third generation of CHAT. This section briefly summarizes the previous two iterations of CHAT, to contextualize and elucidate the current theory, as utilized in this paper.

Historical Development of CHAT

The first generation of CHAT explains that humans do not merely react with inborn reflexes to an environment (Vygotsky, 1934/1986). Rather, intentions are mediated by cultural means, including tools and signs. In other words, individuals' actions are inseparable from cultural means; society is inseparable from the production of cultural artifacts (Leont'ev, 1978; Vygotsky, 1934/1986). Culture shapes interpretation of actions and actions. Actions also shape culture; Activity is a key source of development.

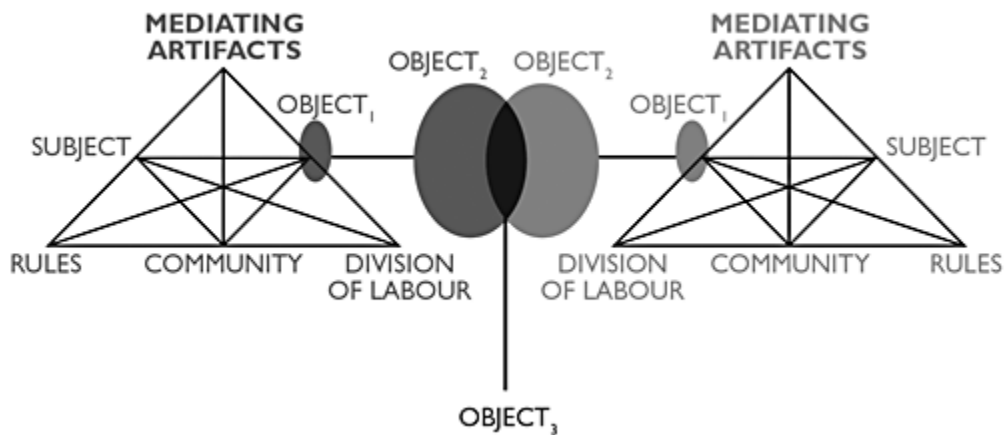
The first generation of CHAT explains this process through the description of an "activity system." This activity system includes a goal directed object and a mediating artifact (i.e., tools and signs) (Vygotsky, 1989). Vygotsky (1978) formalized the concept of mediation through a triangular model showing the connection between stimulus, response, and mediation. This model revolutionized the basic unit of human actions. "The insertion of cultural artifacts into human actions was revolutionary in that the basic unit of analysis now overcame the split between the

Cartesian individual and the untouchable societal structure. The individual could no longer be understood without his or her cultural means; and the society could no longer be understood without the agency of individuals who use and produce artifacts” (Engeström, 2001).

The second generation of CHAT complicated the "activity system" by adding rules, community, and division of labor as part of the mediation process. However, the second iteration of CHAT has been blamed for insensitivity toward diversity (Cole, 1988; Griffin & Cole, 1984). Accordingly, the third iteration of CHAT developed in response to the utility of CHAT internationally, which exposed a need for CHAT to recognition that CHAT needed to deal with insensitivity to cultural diversity (Cole, 1988; Griffin & Cole, 1984). The third generation of CHAT was developed to account for diversity in perspectives and traditions (Cole & Engeström, 1993). It include interactions between at least two activity systems to understand any one activity system (Engestrijm, Lompscher, & Riickriem, 2005). Figure 1 depicts the negotiation of meaning that takes place within the third iteration of CHAT (Engeström, 1999).

Figure 1

Negotiation of Meaning between Activity Systems (as depicted in Engeström (1999))



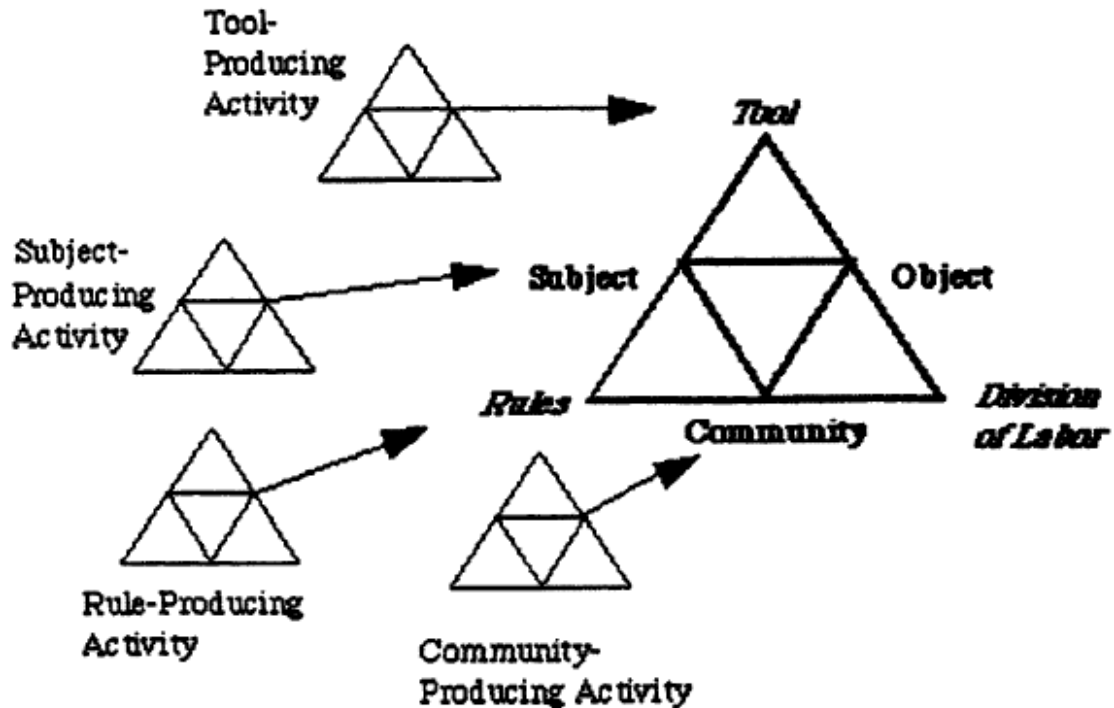
The mediating artifact, subject, and object were the three components of the first generation of CHAT. The *subject* is the agent with the ability to act within the system. The subject is driven by an *object* or goal. The object directs activity within the system. *Mediating artifacts* are tools or concepts within the system that transmit and shape experience and interpretation of the system. Mediating artifacts are dynamically shaped by culture.

Each of the larger two triangles depicted in Figure 1, represents an activity system as conceptualized in the second iteration of CHAT. Rules, community, and division of labor were added to the activity system conceptualized in the first iteration. *Rules* are the conventions and guidelines that regulate the system. The *community* refers to the social context of the system. *Division of labor* means the socially distributed or hierarchical roles of subjects. In the third generation of CHAT depicted above, activity systems interact along shared objects or goals. Each component of the activity system impacts and is impacted by all other component. Hereafter, CHAT will refer to the third generation of the theory.

Within CHAT, culture is viewed as situated and dynamic (Rogoff, 2003). CHAT frames learning as situated within social, cultural, and historical contexts (Cole & Engeström, 1993). Figure 2 illustrates how several activity systems are in play and inseparable from a given activity system. Therefore, within the context of a high school ELA classroom, culture and literacy skills of students are framed within the context of: the classroom, the structure of schooling and society, as well as from the lived experiences and array of activity systems students have been involved within across their life histories. CHAT calls attention to connections, contradictions, and synergy between in and out of school environments, between present and historical conceptions of literacy, and between the ways individuals (e.g., students, teachers) interpret meaning within a system.

Figure 2

Multiple Interacting Activity Systems Toward the Production of Meaning within a System (as shown by the Center for Research on Activity Development and Learning (2014))



Connecting CHAT, Democracy, Social Justice, and ELA classroom teaching

An understanding of how people learn is imperative to understanding whether classrooms foster learning along lines of democracy and social justice. CHAT illustrates several important points about learning with important implications for classrooms. For one, CHAT explains that meaning is made through culture and context. CHAT aligns with leading learning theory, also known as "constructivism" which explains that "people construct new knowledge and understanding based on what they already know and believe" (Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000). Learning is an active process in which new information is linked to prior knowledge to create objective realities (e.g., Bruner, 1977; Dewey, 1916; & Vygotsky, 1978). Therefore,

investigation into whether "how" meaning is made aligns with democracy and social justice within classroom activity systems is important. CHAT illustrates systems of meaning making and therefore allows for a discussion of what ways of speaking, thinking, learning, and testing are valued and built upon in classrooms.

The frame of democracy, social justice, and CHAT highlight several inequalities within typical learning environments. The need to incorporate learner knowledge, skills, attitudes, and beliefs into learning environments for successful learning is well understood (e.g., The National Research Council, 2005). Nonetheless, a failure to incorporate knowledge, skills, attitudes, and beliefs of nondominant learners into the typical learning environments is well documented (e.g., Ladson-Billings, 2006). Typical ELA instruction tends to underestimate what nondominant students are capable of (because often knowledge nondominant students bring the classroom is not understood or valued); postpone more challenging and interesting work; and deprive students of contexts for meaningful learning (Means & Knapp, 1991). Subsequently, nondominant students often receive remedial instruction, aimed to overcome their perceived deficits rather than draw out and expand upon diverse knowledge (Ladson-Billings, 2006; Gutierrez & Vossoughni, 2010).

CHAT, paired with frames of democracy and social justice, illuminates the need to create learning environments that understand, build upon, and foster diverse cultural knowledge of students. While such practices are not the norm for nondominant youth, plenty of examples exist that show the possibility and importance of learning environments. See Hinga (2014a) for an extensive list of examples. Nonetheless, the combination of our understanding of the problem paired with a wealth of ideas to solve the problem, have yet to translate into typical high school ELA practice. One obstacle toward mainstream implementation is the disconnect

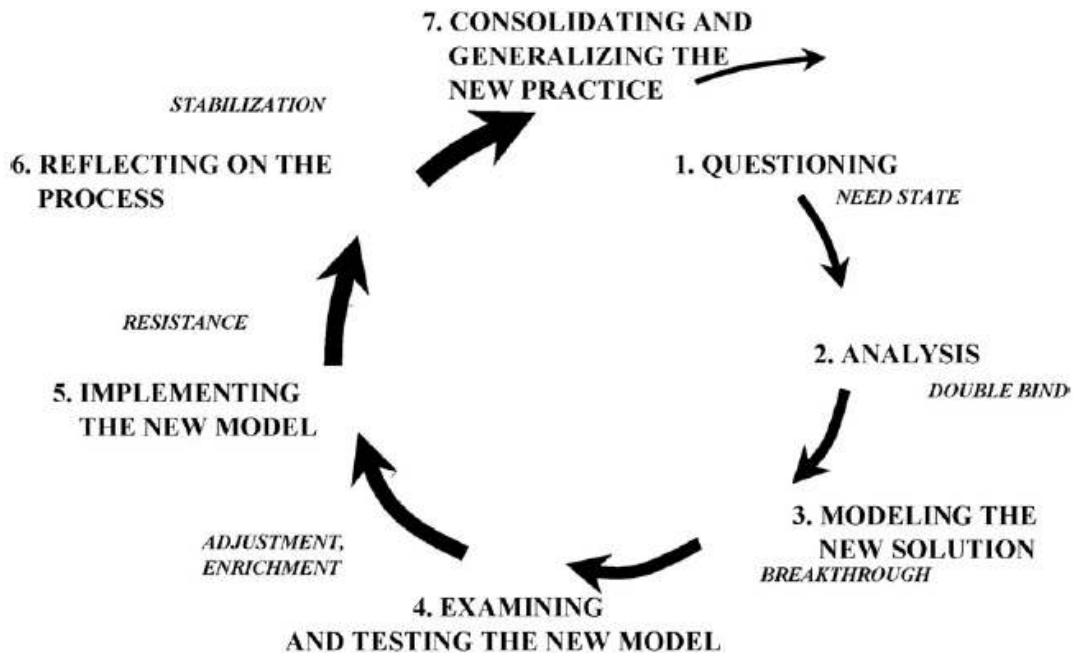
between teachers' understanding of their students assets. The current study explicitly connects theory and practice within a classroom serving nondominant youth, as a means to inform practical solutions at theoretical and practical levels.

Expansive Learning and Effective Learning Environments

Within CHAT, *expansive learning* describes the potential for participants in an activity to interpret and expand the definition and goal of an activity and act in increasingly rich ways (Engeström, 1987, 1989, 1991, 2001). In expansive learning, 'learners learn something that is not yet there' (Engestrom & Sannino 2010, p.2). Engeström (1987) developed the theory of "expansive learning" to be understood through the identification of contradictions that require resolution and documentation of the zone of proximal development that needs to be crossed to move beyond current contradictions (Engeström & Sannino, 2010). Expansive learning theory explains how contradictions and differences lead to transformation in ways of thinking. Figure 3 depicts this process. "The theory of expansive learning puts the primacy on communities as learners, on transformation and creation of culture, on horizontal movement and hybridization, and on the formation of theoretical concepts." (Engeström & Sannino, 2010 p. 74).

Figure 3

Sequential actions within an expansive learning cycle (Engestrom, 1999b, p. 384)



Utility of CHAT and the need to further understand CHAT. The utility of CHAT in this paper serves multiple purposes. For one, CHAT helps illuminate learning processes, which are integral to the design process of creating high school ELA instruction for social justice and democracy. Secondly, rapid changes and complicated puzzles facing our world make the need for expansive learning more pertinent than ever. Expansive learning is especially important in today's world as rapid changes (e.g., technological advances, global warming, and equity issues around the world) create puzzles and potential solutions not yet imaginable. Third, given the importance of CHAT, a greater understanding of the theory would be helpful toward reaching important educational goals.

Engestrom (1993) did not pose CHAT as a prepared procedure for research. However, 'Activity theory seems the richest framework for studies of context in its comprehensiveness and engagement with different issues of consciousness, intentionality, and history" (Nardi, 1996, p. 96). Additionally, extensive application of CHAT leaves several generally accepted precedents for using CHAT as an analysis tool (Jonassen & Ronrer-Murphy, 1999). Therefore, CHAT provides a helpful lens to understand dynamics of expansive learning within a classroom.

Purpose of this study

The study uses frames of CHAT, democracy, and social justice within a classroom context to fill gaps in practical and theoretical considerations toward equitable instruction.

1. Illuminating the Design Process. First, the study provides an example of how to design a high school ELA environment along the lines of democracy and social justice. There is a lack of documentation of how teachers can design democratic and socially just learning environments. While great studies document what instruction for democracy and social justice looks like in practice (e.g., Duncan-Andrade & Morrell, 2008; Morrell, 2004) the literature base currently lacks sufficient information about how teachers are able to create these learning environments (Applebee, 1989). While studies of CRP in practice highlight the importance of connecting students' home and school lives, they provide little instruction for how teachers and curriculum developers can learn about and bridge their students' home and school lives which requires a deep understanding of the background, culture, and community assets of their students.

While growing up and living within the same community as students provides a distinct advantage in terms of teachers' understanding community assets and culture of students, many teachers of African-American, Latina/o, English-language learners, and low-income students do

not come from the same communities as their students (Florio-Ruane, 1994; Gollnick & Chinn, 2002; McIntosh, 1990; Paley, 2001; Schmidt, 1999; Sleeter, 2001; Snyder, Hoffman, & Geddes, 1997). Without minimizing the need to diversify the teaching force to represent the increasingly diverse student population (Gay & Howard, 2000) it is also important to help current teachers (whether they come from their students communities or not) understand their students' community and home cultures so they can create effective, engaging, and equitable learning opportunities for students. Even if teachers have lived within the community they teach their entire lives, the generational gap between teachers and students can lead to disconnects in teachers' knowledge about his/her students and how to utilize students' lives within the classroom, especially with ever evolving literacy and technology practices of adolescents (Sacks, 1996). The proposed study will fill the gap in current literature by building upon what current literature tells us about what democratic and socially just instruction looks like in practice as well as the largely separate body of literature that documents adolescents' cultural assets that can be leveraged within a high school language arts classroom.

Additionally, this study will add to past literature by describing an intervention aimed to create democratic and socially just instruction amidst the demands of standardized district pacing guides most ELA teachers deal with in the face of the accountability era. This study's design within a classroom constrained by standardized curriculum will inform a much needed gap in knowledge about how a teacher can use democratic and socially just methods within his/her authentic classroom setting.

2. Bridging Theory and Practice. Second, the study draws upon the explicit design process to explore connections between theoretical understandings of CHAT, democracy, social justice and a public school classroom. As noted above, CHAT needs to continue to develop

conceptual tools to understand "dialogue, multiple perspectives and voices, and networks interacting in activity systems" (Daniels & Warmington, 2007). The study within a 10th grade classroom, includes students involved in diverse activity systems outside of school. Therefore, CHATs ability to account for diversity will be given prime consideration through the process as a means to understand practical and theoretical understandings of instruction for democracy and social justice.

The study meets these goals by utilizing CHAT within a Social Design Experiment (Gutiérrez & Vossoughi, 2010) and through Design Based Research (Barab & Squire, 2004). Since "design" involves the purpose and intention behind actions, more than simply learning theory is needed to understand the design process within a high school ELA classroom. A Social Design Experiment provides principles to guide the design process. Design Based Research provides a means to analyze and explain tools utilized within CHAT. Both Social Design Experiments and Design Based Research are further described below.

Social Design Experiments

Social Design Experiments (SDE) create and study expansive learning through the promotion of social justice and democracy (Gutiérrez, 2008a; Gutiérrez, Hunter, & Arzubíaga, 2009). Social Design Experiments (SDEs) are cultural historical formations, organized around equity oriented and robust learning principles, designed with and for nondominant communities to promote transformative learning (Gutiérrez, 2008a; Gutiérrez, Hunter, & Arzubíaga, 2009; Gutiérrez & Vossoughi, 2010). Social design experiments make new tools, practices, and pedagogical arrangements visible (Gutiérrez & Vossoughi, 2010).

The term "experiment" within an SDE is reclaimed and reframed away from the traditional view of experiments as predetermined processes (Gutiérrez, 2008a). SDEs are co-

designed and open systems, subject to revision, disruptions, and contradictions. SDEs rely on change within the researcher, the researcher’s methods and dispositions, the teacher, students, the community, and the broader context within which the SDE is framed (Gutiérrez & Vossoughi, 2010). Additionally, SDEs focus on broader consequences and transformative potential as goals and outcomes within the design process (Engeström, 2004). Therefore, the outcomes and specific processes of the experiment cannot be predetermined.

Gutiérrez and Vossoughi (2010) posed four principles of SDEs: *Design as re-mediating activity; contradictions; historicity; and equity*. These principles are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1

Summary of Principles of Social Design Experiment

SDE Principle	Description
Design as-remediating activity	Re-mediation is a framework for the development of rich learning ecologies, where all students can expand their repertoires of practice. This includes interrogation of historical, structural, institutional, and sociocultural structures.
Contradictions	A focus on understanding, critiquing, and addressing incongruities that constrain opportunities to develop powerful learning opportunities. Solutions to such challenges serve as learning opportunities.
Historicity	A focus on equity oriented inquiry into histories of marginalizing nondominant communities. This includes investigation into practices, policies, and embedded layers of practices and policies across time.
Equity	Insurance that interventions benefit the community they are intended to impact, from the perspective of multiple vantage points within the community. This includes asking question of: How is equity accounted for across the inquiry project? Is equity locally defined and experienced? This also requires documenting social and cognitive consequences for participants across the intervention.

Design as a re-mediating activity means the creation of learning environments with

transformative potential for all actors (including but not limited to teachers, students, and

researchers). Re-mediation provides a frame to cultivate the reorganization of systems of learning that reject deficit theorizing. Re-mediation demands the creation of environments that allow all students to share and further their expertise (Cole & Griffin, 1983; Engeström, 1991).

A focus on *contradictions* highlights the problematic tendency to dichotomize valuable versus invaluable literacy practices, top down versus bottom up projects; quantitative versus interpretive approaches to research, proximal versus distal influences; local versus global policies; the researcher versus the researched, school versus home, and dominant versus nondominant communities (Engeström, 1987; Gutiérrez, 2006; Gutiérrez, 2008a Gutiérrez & Vossoughi, 2010). A focus on *historicity* includes an investigation of school structures and literacy practices overtime and across contexts, which adds a greater perspective to static views of school structure and literacy practices (Gutiérrez, 2007; Gutiérrez & Vossoughi, 2010). This view also allows educators to situate how policies impact and can be impacted by classroom practices (Gutiérrez & Vossoughi, 2010).

CHAT can be used as an integrative road map for educational research and practice (Roth & Lee, 2007). The four principles provide a roadmap for what needs to happen, how it should happen, and how it can be measured. To date, research illuminating the design process of SDEs have been limited to out of school settings (e.g., Gutiérrez & Vossoughi, 2010). Therefore, the current paper adds to the understanding of CHAT and SDEs by illuminating the design process of an SDE within a 10th grade ELA classroom. The role of design in understanding and implementing instruction for social justice and democracy through an SDE are described in the next section.

Design Based Research and Learning from Design

Attention to the design of learning environments can provide a missing link between 1) theoretical understandings of education for social justice and democracy, 2) isolated implementation of education for social justice and democracy, and 3) typical classroom practices. Design is defined as "purpose, planning, or intention that exists or is thought to exist behind an action, fact, or material object" (Meriam-Webster Dictionary, 2014). Friedman (2003) explains that design goes hand in hand with the creation of theory because design includes solving problems, creating something new, or transforming situations to be more desirable. Therefore, the design process of curriculum provides a space to analyze how theory informs practice, how practice informs theory, and what lessons we learn about both practice and theory through this process.

Design-based research or DBR is "a systematic but flexible methodology aimed to improve educational practices through iterative analysis, design, development, and implementation, based on collaboration among researchers and practitioners in real-world settings, and leading to contextually-sensitive design principles and theories (Wang and Hannafin, 2005 p. 6). DBR is contextualized in educational settings, and keeps a focus on generalizing to guide the design process (Collins, Joseph, & Bielaczyc, 2004). DBR combines the development of solutions to practice based problems with identification of potentially generalizable design principles (Herrington, McKenney, Reeves, & Oliver, 2007). DBR methodology requires 1) collaboration with practitioners, in actual learning contexts, to address complex problems; 2) integration of known and hypothetical design principles to render possible solutions to complex problems; and 3) reflective inquiry through the process of testing and refining the design of innovative learning environments as a means to define new design

principles (Brown & Collins, 1992). DBR illuminates the importance of paying attention and learning from the design process. The field of transformative pedagogy has not yet utilized DBR. This paper illuminates the need and use for it.

Specifically, the paper utilizes DBR within a 10th grade ELA classroom that meets principles of democracy and social justice, by drawing on CHAT and SDE. SDEs articulate principles integral design component of creating such pedagogy (Gutiérrez & Vossoughi, 2010). Nonetheless, designing an SDE within a public school setting, can benefit from unpacking. Therefore, this paper pairs theoretical understandings of education and social justice, with CHAT and uses the process of an SDE to create a learning environment within a 10th grade ELA classroom along the following objectives:

Table 2

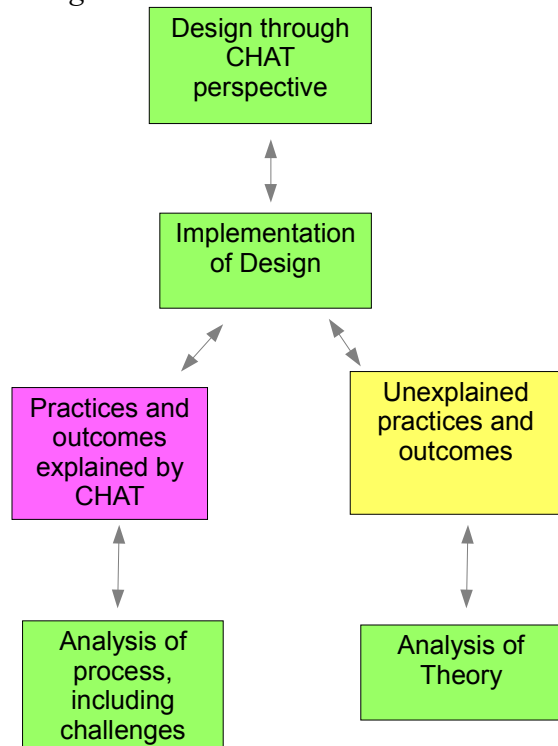
Objectives of the Social Design Experiment (SDE)

Objective	Meaning
Democracy and social justice	Everyone has a right to an education that sets them up to participate in democracy and promotes equity.
Expansive learning	Participants interpret and expand the definition and goal of an activity and respond in increasingly enriched ways
ELA Content Standards	Uniform and specific vision of what students should know and be able to do in ELA

The paper will illuminate the design process, challenges encountered through this process, and analyze how the process informs CHAT. Figure 4 depicts how the process leads to answering answers three research questions. For one, the study will document the design process as well as challenges that arise through the process. Next, contractions or gaps between CHAT literature and the design process will inform a theoretical analysis of CHAT within the context of a public school classroom.

Figure 4

Design Processes that Contradict with and Inform Theory



Research questions:

- Q1. Design process: How can high school ELA for social justice and democracy be designed within CHAT and SDE frames in line with standardized curriculum guidelines?
- Q2. Challenges: What challenges (and potential solutions) arise through the process of designing high school ELA for social justice and democracy within CHAT and SDE frames in line with standardized curriculum guidelines?
- Q3. Theory: What theoretical lessons do we learn from the process of designing high school ELA for social justice and democracy within CHAT and SDE frames in line with standardized curriculum guidelines?

Method

As described above, this paper employs a SDE and DBR. Situating a SDE as a type of Change Laboratory (Engeström, 2007) further illuminates methodology of an SDE. However, the study does not fall in line with a traditional, complete version of a Change Laboratory.

Traditionally, within a Change Laboratory, five to ten interventions take place toward the goal of a greater solution over long periods of time (Engeström, 1987). The current study was an isolated intervention. However, this study emulated a Change Laboratory in that it served as a microcosm of potentially new ways of teaching and learning through experience and experimentation (Engeström, 1987). Additionally, the study is placed within historical context and viewed in light of other studies and practices within the US school system and in informal learning environments.

Change Laboratories provide tools to understand expansive learning. Within Change Laboratories participants tend to move from individualistic positions toward more collective change agents which requires creation of new tools, rules and divisions of labor (Virkkunen, 2006b). Within a Change Laboratory, participants engage in new practices and developmental dialogues that promote “intensive, deep transformations and continuous incremental improvement” (Engeström, 2008a, p. 8 as cited in Gutiérrez & Vossoughi, 2010). There are three categories of analysis within a SDE, which are always embedded in practice. Reflection and actions allow for the examination of: 1) participants' experiences, problems, and potential solutions; 2) activities and inner contradictions; and 3) ideas and tools experimented within in practice that form the space between problems and solutions. Gutiérrez & Vossoughi (2010) demonstrate how SDEs make transparent often taken-for-granted splits between theory and practice in the context of teacher education.

The principles of SDEs, displayed in Table 1 above, guided the process. Additionally, the syncretic focus in SDEs makes explicit the need to keep an eye open for other literature and theories that explain and inform the SDE process (Gutiérrez & Vossoughi, 2010). Therefore, throughout the process several ideas, tools, literature, theories, and past research related to education for social justice and democracy were utilized when helpful. The specific process will be laid out below, within the context and setting of classroom practice.

Setting

The study took place in a 10th grade, college preparatory class, in a high school called Azalea Town High School (ATHS). For purposes of anonymity a pseudonym for the school and town are used. The community surrounding the town will be called Azalea Town through the rest of this paper. ATHS lies between two demographically distinct neighborhoods. The town on the south-western side of Azalea town is a predominately white and very affluent town. The town on the north-east side of Azalea town is predominantly Latino and low-income. Azalea Town includes over 100 thousand residents. Almost 35% of residents are White, 35% are Latino, 8% are Asian, 16% identify as other, and other ethnicities comprise less than 1% of the population. While the median household income of Azalea Town is over \$65,000, 14% of the households live below the poverty line (United States Census, 2010).

The student body at ATHS serves about 1300 students. Students are identified as 70% Hispanic or Latina/o, 25% White (not Hispanic); with Asian (\approx 2%), African American (\approx 1%), Filipino (\approx 1%), Pacific Islander (<1%) American Indian or Alaska Native (1%) students making up the rest of the study body. Demographically, 64% of the student body is labeled as “socioeconomically disadvantaged” and 38% are “English learners.”⁰ The divide in achievement and test scores lies strongly across ethnic lines at this school. While 41% of

students at ATHS scored proficient or above on the California Standardized Test of English Language Arts in 2008, 70% of White students versus 32% of Hispanic or Latino students scored at proficient or above. The school consists of slightly more males than female students (i.e., 56% versus 44%). Almost 15% of students qualify for Special Education Services.

Classroom context

The study was completed in a partnership between the lead author of this paper (hereafter referred to in the first person voice), one 10th grade ELA teacher (hereafter referred to as Miss Basil) and 58 students in two 10th grade classes at ATHS. Miss Basil is an African American female, who grew up in Azalea Town. She has a Masters in Teaching and has been teaching ELA at ATHS for eight years. During this school year, she taught five periods of 10th grade ELA. Two of these periods were honors courses, the other three were college preparatory classes. I initiated this partnership with a desire to study an SDE in the context of a public school ELA classroom serving nondominant youth. Miss Basil was referred to me as a teacher who may be interested in working with me on this project by a professor I collaborate with at a local university, who had taught Miss Basil as a Masters in Teaching student. I introduced myself to Miss Basil via email. Miss Basil responded with interest in a partnership but was not sure she could fit the study into her lesson planning. Consequently, Miss Basil and I met during the summer and agreed that I would attend class as an observer until Miss Basil may feel ready for a more full partnership. After nine weeks of observations, Miss Basil asked if I would like to help create lesson plans with her.

At that point, the SDE was implemented within period four and five. The fifty eight students enrolled in Miss Basil's fourth and fifth period college preparatory classes participated in the study described here. Thirty one students were enrolled in fourth period (28 students

identified as Latino, 4 as white, and 2 as Black). Twenty-seven students were enrolled in fifth period (22 students identified as Latino, 5 students identified as white).

The classes operated on a block schedule. Therefore, each class met three times per week. Two times per week, each class met for one hour and twenty minutes, right after lunch. Once per week, each class met for sixty minutes. On this day, one class met before lunch, the other met after lunch. I attended class each day. The class generally convened in a classroom with a desk for each student. Before the SDE, desks all faced Miss Basil. Once the SDE began, desks often moved into groups or into one large circle. After the SDE began, students worked in the library or computer lab during many class gatherings.

Measures

Field notes: I recorded daily field notes for the duration of the three month project (i.e., September 5 - December 6). I recorded notes with paper and pencil during class time and during/after discussions with Miss Basil. The notes were modeled on the Field note outline described in Gutiérrez & Vossoughi (2010). Notes include: general site observations related to the setting; narrative of activities and actions within the classroom; task-level summaries of specific activities and goals; and reflection/analysis as a way to make sense of the day's events. Field notes were typed by myself and undergraduate student researchers for analysis.

Informal discussions with students. Outside of class or during walks to and from the computer lab, I would ask students for their thoughts about certain aspects of the curriculum.

Whole class discussions with students. During class time, Miss Basil arranged for time to ask students about their thoughts about instruction, what they were learning, and what else they would like to learn or see done differently in terms of the learning environment.

Attendance. Student attendance was recorded daily.

Course assignments. A record of student assignment completion, students' assignments, and student grades was kept.

Surveys: As noted in the timeline shown in Table 3, three surveys were administered to students during class time. The surveys elicited student feedback in terms of their engagement, their suggestions for instruction, and an assessment of their learning. Additionally, students were asked to explain processes of mediation. For example, students are asked to explain how they indicate engagement versus disengagement through their actions. Asking students for help in interpretation of actions, helped Miss Basil and I understand how to interpret student actions. Therefore, we also used these surveys as a mediating tool.

Table 3

Timeline of the Design Process

Date (Duration)	Description of Event/Process
Jan. 7 - June 13 (22 weeks)	I worked with undergraduates to design and conduct ethnography of student literacies and culture within Azalea town. We also discussed how our findings could related to high school ELA curriculum.
Sept. 5 - Oct. 23 (9 weeks)	Miss Basil designed and implemented lesson plans. I observed. Students participated during class time.
October 1 (once)	Miss Basil invited me to help in lesson planning for the unit beginning October 24.
Sept. 20 (20 mins)	Survey administered to students about students thoughts about the class and ways to improve lesson planning
Oct. 15 - Oct. 23 (1 week)	Miss Basil and Briana met daily between 15 and 60 minutes to design lesson plans for the unit on
Oct. 24 - Dec. 6 (6 weeks)	Collaboration between Miss Basil, students, and I to design, implement, and assess instruction around goals of social justice and democracy
Nov. 3 (20 mins)	Survey administered to students requesting feedback in terms of their learning, engagement and thoughts related to their ELA learning environment
Dec. 6 (30 mins)	Survey administered to students requesting feedback in terms of their learning, engagement and thoughts related to their ELA learning environment

Note: Weeks and months indicate five days per week (Monday - Friday) and do not include holidays.

Analysis

The process and measures described above help answer each of the three questions posed in this paper. Answers to each of the questions above were interrelated. Analysis was guided by the Constant Comparative Method (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Additionally, the three research questions guided the analysis. To answer question one, coding was used as a tool to organize how to paint a picture of the design process. To answer question two, coding was used as a tool to organize specific challenges across the process. To answer question three, coding was used as a tool to analyze how the lessons from practice and theory inform each other.

The first step of the coding process to answer each question utilized Open Coding (Strauss, 1987). During this phase, I coded the data at the smallest level possible, in an attempt to remain true to what participants actually said or wrote. As each new code was created to describe a piece of the data, a definition of that code was created. Definitions of each code were placed in a codebook, for reference when deciding how to code each piece of data. Open coding continued until I no longer found new codes within the data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). After saturation, I started phase two of data analysis called Axial Coding, where I began looking for larger categories of themes that cut across data (Corbin & Strauss 2008; Strauss, 1987).

While topics could fit within categories of multiple questions, the findings were framed in response to the specific questions and categorized accordingly. I focused on data that revolved around one category (or axis) at a time (Strauss, 1987). This included a search for relationships and meaning between codes, families of codes, and sub-families. Lastly, I used Selective Coding

to determine main themes in the data (Strauss, 1987). This process led to looking back across all questions, theory, and practice to synthesize findings within and across questions and categories.

Findings

Answering Q1: Design process

Preparation before entering the classroom. In preparation to work in partnership with the teacher and students mentioned above, I assessed my readiness to contribute to a SDE. I used a checklist posed by Hinga (2014a) to take inventory of my preparation to work toward education for democracy and social justice. Table 4 (below) displays types of knowledge and perspectives various approaches require toward the implementation of education for social justice and democracy.

Table 4

Understandings needed to implement different types of instruction for democracy and social justice (Hinga, 2014a)

Needed knowledge/perspectives	ME	CRP	NLS	FK	CL	CYPAR	CHHLP	SDE	CM
Examination of students out of school literacies			X	X				X	X
Understanding multiple literacies			X						
View of students within the classroom as cultural resources	X	X		X	X	X	X	X	X
Understanding students cultural datasets	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Sociocultural consciousness		X							
View of literacy as political, intimate, lived and liberatory							X		
Caring for students' academic and emotional wellbeing		X							
Belief that all students can meet high academic standards	X	X						X	

Additionally, before entering the classroom, this assessment clarified my need to learn about the specific literacy practices of youth within the context of the classroom partnership listed above. Therefore, before entering the classroom partnership, I worked with a team to conduct an ethnographic case study of the community surrounding AHS, with specific attention on literary practices and funds of knowledge within the community. Specifically, I partnered with 15 undergraduate student researchers and for 22 weeks. Two thirds of the undergraduate researchers identified as Latina/os from Azalea town community or similar communities. Partnership with these students provided a Latina/os' perspective through the research process (Delgado-Bernal, 1998). Within the Azalea Town community, interviews, observations, and document analysis were gathered in an attempt to give voice to the historical context, community issues and lived experiences of the Azalea Town community. Specific attention was paid to how information we gathered could be infused into an ELA curriculum at AHS. During weekly meetings, the undergraduate research team and I discussed data collection and emerging themes from our studies. For detailed information about this process, see Hinga (2014d).

Design process within the classroom

After completing the above assessment of my readiness to enter a partnership with a teacher, I entered the 10th grade classroom with respect and willingness to learn and help when possible. The nine weeks of my participation in the classroom included only observations, field note writing, and informal discussions with students and Miss Basil. I did not contribute to lesson planning or participation in class discussions. After creating solid bonds of trust and respect during those seven weeks, the teacher and students decided to partner with me to design lesson plans aimed at meeting the criteria of a social design experiment. The more fully partnership lasted 6 weeks.

Design Process

The design process toward the SDE began two weeks prior to the six week classroom implementation of the SDE, when Miss Basil and I began discussing plans for upcoming lessons. Each day, either fourth or fifth period class, marked the end of Miss Basil's daily course load. Therefore, we discussed the design of the course between 15 and 60 minutes after Miss Basil finished teaching for the day. As a researcher, I was sensitive of Miss Basil's time and only stayed as long as she had time to engage in such a discussion. Miss Basil's passion and dedication for her students and teaching was apparent as she eagerly thought through design issues, challenges, and ideas with me each day.

Role Dynamics

My goal as a researcher was to partner with Miss Basil and the students within the constraints of the situation. I was careful not to overstep my bounds. I was aware of Miss Basil's expertise as a teacher, in terms of ELA content standards, within the context of the school setting, and her expertise with her students. Also, I kept in mind that the design process and implementation impacted Miss Basil's job, which meant her livelihood was at stake, in a way that mine was not. Also, Miss Basil had ownership of implementation of the design process, in a way that I did not, because she implemented the lesson plans. Therefore, I respected the high stakes associated with Miss Basil's position within the design process. This respect shaped conversations around the design of lesson plans. Throughout the process then, the specific processes, time used to plan, and theories we used were managed with this in mind.

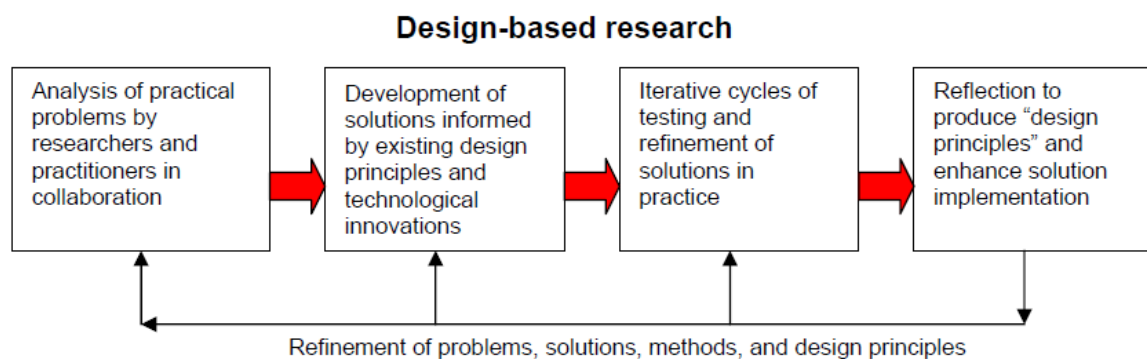
Design planning format

The design process progressed along the four interrelated steps of DBR, depicted in Figure 5: 1) Analysis of practical problems by researchers and practitioners in collaboration; 2)

Development of solutions informed by existing design principles and technological innovations; 3) Iterative cycles of testing and refinement of solutions in practice; and 4) Reflection to produce "design principles" and enhance solution implementation. A further explanation of each step within the context of the study is described below. The four principles of an SDE were utilized through the design and analysis process.

Figure 5

Process of Design-Based Research (Reeves, 2006, p. 59)



Cycle of problem posing, solution development, and design principles

DBR Step 1: Analysis of practical problems by researchers and practitioners in collaboration.

In this study, problems were posed based on a synthesis of relevant literature and in conversations with teachers, students, and specific conversations with Miss Basil. New problems arose through the process, which will be further described below. The initial discussion with Miss Basil was informed by our goal of implementing an SDE, in line with ELA content standards. We also aimed to answer the three research questioned outlined above.

DBR Step 2: Development of solutions informed by existing design principles and technological innovations.

Miss Basil and I used understanding of democracy, social justice, SDE principles, the school's pacing guide, and ELA content standards as a foundation for the design process. We first defined each of the components of the activity system of the classroom which we were designing, starting with our objectives. *Objectives*. The objectives for the SDE are displayed in Table 2 (above). The objectives align with the goals of: education for social justice and democracy; principles of SDE; and expansive learning theory; and the content standards of the ELA course. The specific ELA content standards are listed in Table 5 (below).

Table 5

Content Standards

ELA Content Standards

Analysis and Evaluation of Oral and Media Communications

Deliver persuasive arguments (including evaluation and analysis of problems/solutions and causes/effects)

Synthesize the content from several sources or works by a single author dealing with a single issue; paraphrase the ideas and connect them to other sources and related topics to demonstrate comprehension.

Extend ideas presented in primary or secondary sources through original analysis, evaluation, and elaboration.

Demonstrate use of sophisticated learning tools by following technical directions (e.g. those found with graphic calculators, specialized software programs, access guides to World Wide Websites on the Internet).

Immediately, contradictions between the objectives were apparent. Most obviously, expansive learning (which leaves objectives to be mediated during the process) contradicts with a predetermined set of objectives (in the form of a pacing guide and ELA content standards). Miss Basil and I negotiated this situation through discussions and the eventual decision that we inevitably needed start the design process from some sort of foundation - and the ELA content standards and pacing guide were part of the foundation. This discussion helped us realize that drawing upon CHAT and other theories relies on foundational knowledge. Therefore, the goal of expansive learning does not require starting without objectives, but rather, requires objectives to

be flexible and include the potential to exceed expectations. Therefore, we decided to utilize our baseline knowledge, SDE principles, and knowledge handed to us in the form of curriculum standards to shape initial goals. We also discussed how to create spaces for expansive learning, so that we were not limited by our baseline knowledge or the baseline set of objectives.

Subjects. The subjects within the activity system working toward the design process included the same subjects within the activity system of the classroom, including myself, Miss Basil, and the high school students.

Rules. The rules within the classroom were determined and made clear by Miss Basil at the beginning of the school year. According to Miss Basil's syllabus, the classes were expected to meet three R's of a community: Respect, Responsibility, and Reflection. Additionally, students were expected to: 1. Be honest and be a person of integrity. 2. Be in their seat before the bell rings. 3. Come to class prepared each day with supplies. 4. No gum, candy, food, or beverages allowed in class. Consequences for not meeting classroom expectations including a verbal warnings, detentions, and referral to administration were laid out.

Community. The community of the classroom included myself, Miss Basil, students within the classroom, students within the school, school administrators, and the greater Azalea Town Community.

Division of Labor. Within the classroom, Miss Basil acted as a facilitator of the learning process. I helped facilitate learning during working periods in the library or computer room. Students were asked for feedback on lesson plans and assignments which contributed to lesson planning. However, Miss Basil and I choose lesson plans and assignments outside of class time, without students present. Because we did not invite students to join the planning sessions outside of class time, Miss Basil planned to maintain flexibility in the implementation and assignments

to leave room for student choice, creativity, and voice through the process. Nonetheless, ultimately, students were assigned work to complete, which determined their grade in the class. Miss Basil assigned course grades. Therefore, Miss Basil held a significant position of power within the classroom.

Mediating Artifacts (Instruments, Tools, and Signs). The list of tools that helped conceptualize the intervention include several, interrelated theories. The theories of an SDE, CHAT, education for social justice and democracy were describe above. Additional theories also shed light on processes to meet the goals of the SDE. The theories are depicted in Table 6.

Table 6

List and Summary of Frameworks

Framework	Summary
Multicultural Education (ME)	Comprehensive school reform movement promoting democratic principles of social justice by fostering pluralism and social reconstruction
Culturally Relevant Pedagogy (CRP)	Pedagogy that empowers students intellectually, socially, emotionally, and politically by using cultural referents to impart knowledge, skills, and attitudes
New Literacy Studies (NLS)	The recognition of literacy as a social practice including multiple literacies that are contested in relations of power
Funds of Knowledge (FK)	Studies showing how people are competent and have knowledge, provided by their everyday experiences, that can be integrated into the design or curriculum
Critical Literacy (CL)	Instructional approach, theoretical approach and worldview aimed to inform marginalized people about how to read the word and read the world.
Critical Youth Participatory Action Research (CYPAR)	The desire to take individual and/or collective action to address an issue through cooperation and by drawing on indigenous knowledge to better understand an issue

The above theories shed light on frameworks, tools, and practice based examples for how to reach the goals of this SDE. This planning process included conversations about how lessons from any given theory may compliment the specific ELA standards. Hinga (2014a) describes

how a look across theories provides insight into how to create instruction for democracy and social justice. Therefore, multiple theories were kept in mind throughout the process and utilized when helpful.

In addition to theoretical tools, the SDE used tangible tools within the classroom, library, and computer lab including: political campaign materials from a local election; worksheets designed by Miss Basil and I; rubrics built around ELA content standards and designed by Miss Bail and I; books and other sources of information at the library; video recording devices on students' phones; paper; writing utensils; PowerPoint; newspapers; videos; desks; and chairs.

3) Iterative cycles of testing and refinement of solutions in practice.

The discussions described above between Miss Basil and I set the foundation for lesson plans during Phase 2. The general class activities during Phase 2 are listed below.

- Introduction of Phase2, including my role and the role of the students as co-designers in the learning process
- Discuss and complete assignment about validity of information sources through the investigation of local political campaign materials
- Watch and discuss second presidential candidate debate
- Research political arguments (and counter-arguments) of interest in the library (computers available)
- Discuss validity and credibility of sources of information
- Watch and discuss video by Howard Zinn on "A People's History of the United States" which provides a critical perspective on records of history
- Watch YouTube videos of marginalized voices and revisit student conceptions of what sources and whose perspectives make a source valid and credible
- Choose a group and topic of interest for persuasive project
- Research topic in the computer lab and library
- Create persuasive presentation for the class
- Student presentations
- Reflection on Phase 2

4) Reflection to produce "design principles" and enhance solution implementation.

Transparency, through field notes, reflections, and open discussions about processes allowed for a continual check on whether the implementation met goals of the SDE and how the process could be improved. This allowed for sharing about how to improve the curriculum between students, Miss Basil, me, and anyone else interested in the process. Throughout the process, Miss Basil and I facilitated student engagement with surveys, classroom discussions, and informal conversations to gain student perspectives on their learning environment.

Q 2: Challenges

Through the processes described above, several points of tension and challenges emerged. These challenges and attempted solutions are summarized below.

Student involvement in the design process. Implementing democratic and social justice processes takes time that is not arranged for with typical school settings, including the setting of this SDE. For one, democratic and social justice processes require student participation in the design process of curriculum. However, typical classroom time does not typically allot for this process. Class time is traditionally considered the time to implement curriculum, not design it. On the other hand, asking students to participate in the design process outside of school would not fairly include all students, since many students have obligations outside of class.

To navigate this challenge, we limited student participation in the design process to the surveys and discussions listed above. Also, student participation in the design process was integrated as a mutual learning process during class time, with the view that student participation was necessary and beneficial toward the creation of a more effective and equitable curriculum. Ultimately, Miss Basil and I spent the bulk of time designing curriculum without students present. The process may benefit from deeper inclusion of students. Documentation and

assessment of different ways to partner with students in the design process, within the context of the public school system, will inform best practices of design.

Connecting Theory and Practice. An SDE requires connections between theory and practice, however schools do not typically provide time or structure to make such connections. Typical public school teachers, including Miss Basil, are swamped with responsibilities within and after school. Miss Basil has a strong passion for educating her students and dedicated much personal time to her students. However, before I partnered with Miss Basil, none of this time was dedicated to deliberately bridging theory and practice. Rather, she spent time with lesson planning, attending school events, and teacher meetings.

Within this study, Miss Basil and I navigated this time constraint by doubling the workforce (i.e., I joined Miss Basil's design process). As a doctoral student engaged in theory, I would bring theory to Miss Basil and the students for discussion. This process allowed Miss Basil, the students, and I to make connections between theory and practice together. However, similar partnerships between teachers, students, and researchers are not the norm in typical public school classrooms. Therefore, time and resource constraints mean that connections between theory and practice are not systematically realistic within typical classrooms at this point.

Flexibility and Multiplicity of Directions. Additionally, SDEs demand more of the teachers' time than typical instruction because expansive learning leads to different paths within each class period. Partnering with students within a classroom to create curriculum and shape the design of activities, means that activities and discussions within different classes will look differently across classroom periods. For example, conversations and the direction class periods took differed during Phase 2 between Period 4 and Period 5. Whereas, during Phase 1, offshoots

from the curriculum did not affect the direction a class period took because the dominating goal was to keep in line with curriculum guidelines and the pacing guide, rather than also keeping in mind expansive learning.

While the benefits of expansive learning are evident, the challenges of keeping up with expansive learning within the current public school structure, also become clear. SDEs open the need for different design processes for each class period which takes more of a teacher's time than traditional planning processes. Teachers do not currently have time to make five to seven different lesson plans, to keep up with the different directions each of their five to seven class periods take. Additionally, teachers within expansive learning would need to keep track of (either through memory or through documentation) differences between classes, to continually facilitate expansive learning within each class. This is a constraint on time and energy, and demands a lot of one person.

Invitation to Critical Analysis and Discussion. Historically, students within this partnership had been accustomed to the role of recipients in terms of rules, curriculum and assessments. Students had been taught that there is one right answer and they should find that answer. Students had not been taught to think about how to run a classroom differently. Therefore, processes to democratically include students in the design process did not organically occur the moment the teacher and I asked students to be part of the design process.

Looking historically at students' involvement in school and speaking with students about how to understand the validity of a source of information, Miss Basil and I understood students to have an understanding of validity that did not include a critical of whose knowledge was represented. Therefore, Miss Basil and I planned to set the precedent that students' critical thoughts and experiences were welcome within this ELA classroom.

For one, students needed more experience and skills thinking through how to provide critical feedback. As a tool to more fully include students within the design process, toward the beginning of Phase 2 Miss Basil facilitated an introduction to critical perspective taking, which students were not previously familiar. Miss Basil also showed a film by Howard Zen, about the importance of taking into account marginalized historical perspectives. Finally, Miss Basil showed a series of YouTube clips created by youth with critical perspectives from marginalized communities, to highlight marginalized perspectives. Such videos and discussions were meant to validate critical and marginalized perspectives in the classroom and provide examples of ways students in the classroom could use their own voices to dismantle traditional sources of validity. Additionally, Miss Basil and I worked with students to change the physical set up of the classroom to facilitate discussion by shifting desks into a circular format. This set up contradicted the typical set up which facilitated a one way transfusion of information from teacher to students. Starting discussions with pair shares and smaller group discussions before entire class discussions also helped facilitate discussion.

Throughout the short partnership, students' responses to request for feedback related to their learning environment expanded from more superficial feedback (e.g., responses to the first survey included responses like "the class would be more engaging if Miss Basil used brighter colors in power points") to deeper feedback about classroom processes (e.g., "Miss Basil should allow more time for students to work with each other"). Still, invitations to share their honest ideas were so unfamiliar to students, that eliciting authentic participation in conversations about curriculum within a six week challenge remained a challenge. A deeper, sustained process of democratic involvement of student perspective in the design process would likely lead to greater expansion of student contribution to the design process.

Democratic Mediation. Another important challenge through the process was whether we were asking for student feedback in a way that allowed for students' genuine thoughts to shine through. CHAT allowed us to think through differences in interpreting feedback. The process of mediation is inherently bound in social and cultural context. Therefore, the tools we use to create understandings in classrooms must be very sensitive to differences in perceptions within and across individuals. For example, eliciting student participation in the design process through survey responses may not appropriately convey the array of knowledge a student is willing and able to share. More sophisticated tools for mediation and understanding who drives mediation are needed. The current study drew upon literature describing the importance of reflecting upon "whose voices are valued" across all processes. This challenge will further be analyzed in section Q3 below.

Discomfort and Fear. While the acknowledgement of power and politics is a required component of education for social justice and democracy, Miss Basil was justifiably hesitant to acknowledge politics within her classroom. In the past, Miss Basil had been warned against such practices. During a class discussion related to *House on Mango Street* with her honor's students in a previous year, a parent sent Miss Basil a livid message calling her "racist against white people" for facilitating a discussion that led to a conversation about the marginalization of people of color within our country. This issue was brought to the principle, who asked Miss Basil to "tread lightly." This experience scared Miss Basil, left her feeling like she had done something wrong, and kept her discussions away from "issues related to politics or race" in the future. As an African-American woman growing up in this community, Miss Basil has experienced much racism and discrimination, but she kept acknowledgement of these issues outside of school walls, as a means to keep her job, "keep the peace", and continue to work with the students she loves.

Miss Basil shared this story with me about one month into my participation as an observer in her classroom. This helped me understand how Miss Basil's history of activities led her to "tread lightly" and not stir the waters around issues of inequity and justice, that she is passionate about and wished she could educate her students about. I, of course, wanted Miss Basil to keep her job. Additionally, I shared Miss Basil's fear of "causing too much trouble" in the classroom because I had struggled to find a teacher/school willing to partner with me to complete my dissertation study. Therefore, Miss Basil and I worked cautiously to implement the SDE without finding ourselves in trouble. I also kept in mind that the stakes for Miss Basil were much higher than mine, since her job was on the line. Accordingly, I made sure to respect Miss Basil's judgment and never push beyond what she felt comfortable with in terms of implementation. The solidarity between Miss Basil and I helped Miss Basil facilitate the acknowledgement power, politics, and injustice. Nonetheless, the challenge posed by a need to "tread lightly" and not bring up "politics" in the classroom shows the deeply seated notion that education is not considered political. This problem was bigger than a three month partnership would solve, therefore this situation is further taken up in the section describing findings for Q3: Theory.

Q 3: Theory

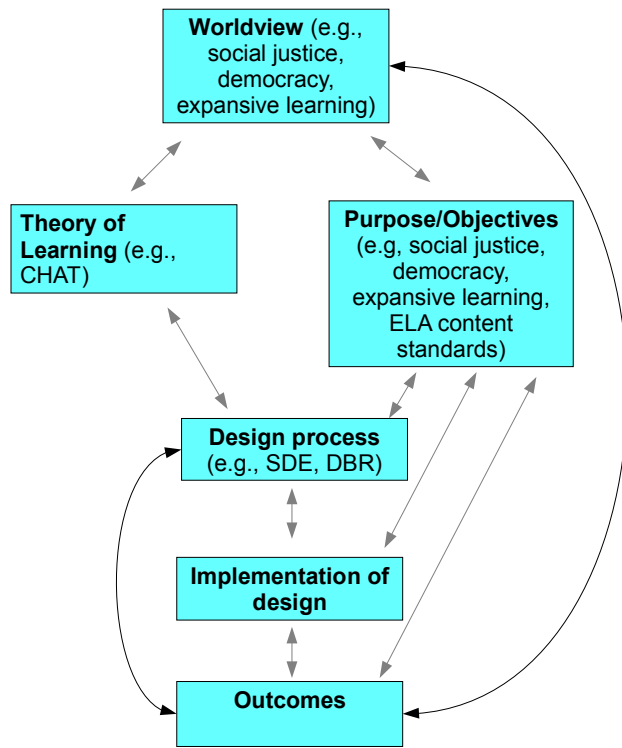
Across categories of the contradictions and challenges listed above, broader themes of challenges emerged to shed light on larger theoretical considerations. This section crosses between theoretical and practice based understandings to analyze, learn from, and add to our understanding of CHAT as a tool to promote democracy and social justice in ELA instruction.

A Model to Situate CHAT within Educational Practice

The design process illuminated a need to better understand how CHAT fits into the context of schooling. As described by Engeström (1987), CHAT is a theory of development rather than an analysis tool. Therefore, the way CHAT is situated into the design process for social justice, democracy, and expansive learning was unclear. At the abstract level of planning, using CHAT to inform this study seemed helpful. However, while planning concrete curriculum, Miss Basil and I questioned how fit within the design process CHAT and how CHAT deals with diversity (Cole & Engeström, 1993). A figure helped situate CHAT in the design process. Figure 6 depicts the conceptual model that explains how CHAT fit into the design process utilized in this paper. Rather than being the only theory at work through the process, CHAT was a part of the theoretical system, informed by and informing other theories, practices, and processes at play.

Figure 6

Broader Lens of the Design Process



This model describes how placing CHAT within a syncretic model, provides tools to deal with diversity that do not solely come from within CHAT. Rather, tools to account for diversity may come from other frameworks, that when paired with CHAT, illuminates how to effectively foster diversity in a classroom.

Whether acknowledged or not, a particular worldview creates the lens through which learning environments are created. In this case, the worldview of social justice and democracy set up a need to understand learning from a perspective where everyone has a possibility to participate and succeed. CHAT fits as a learning theory within this worldview, as it explains that the culture and experiences of each person differ. Understanding the social context of learning allows for an understanding of the need to create learning environments that recognize and foster

diversity through the learning process. Therefore, CHAT also illuminates why failure to recognize and foster diversity leads to practices that privilege certain types of knowledge over other.

Before articulating this model, the way that CHAT fit within the design process were not entirely clear. Thus, questions of how CHAT effectively dealt with diversity or could foster social justice and democracy were left unanswered. This model helped Miss Basil, the students, and I conceptualize CHAT as part of the process to understand and foster the diverse ways students learn within and outside the classroom. Also, the transparency provided by this model created transparency in the analysis of how CHAT fit within the framework of social justice, democracy, and expansive learning.

Learning from the Failure of Expansive Learning

The design process exposed how expansive learning within the school system is blocked by power dynamics. For example, Miss Basil's historical attempts to discuss race and politics in her classroom caused alarm in parents and school administrators. In theory, the contradiction between Miss Basil's acknowledgement of politics in the classroom versus typical practices, through the lens of CHAT, opens potential for expansive learning. However, parents and administrators immediately shut down Miss Basil's efforts to contradict current schooling processes. Within the expansive learning framework, Miss Basil's actions were not considered a viable contradiction for consideration toward evolution in schooling processes. Rather, Miss Basil's actions were considered "wrong." Accordingly, mediation was substituted by acceptance of the status quo without room for contradictions to be considered nor for expansive learning to take place. The "wrong action" was discarded and the system resumed as usual.

Several other examples of the obstruction of expansive learning also occurred. During Phase2, students displayed many strengths and academic talents not previously realized by Miss Basil. Many students exposed their critical thinking skills, engagement, and expertise in technology in ways that exceeded Miss Basil's expectations during the research process and presentations. See Hinga (2014c) for a full description. The talents and expertise of students contradicted previously held expectations of these students. In theory, since Miss Basil's expectations of students were exceeded by students' demonstration of expertise, a space for students and Miss Basil to work toward greater goals and expectations opened. However, after our partnership concluded, Miss Basil reported going back to following curriculum guidelines. The contradictions did not lead to changes in Miss Basil's teaching after I left the classroom.

The failure of expansive learning could be explained by failure of the school structure to support expansive learning. The pacing guide, curriculum, content standards, and assessments in place that did not leave flexibility for expansive learning. Miss Basil was not prepared to proceed using a SDE without additional time or support. Such examples shows that current resources and classroom structure did not support the process of contradictions (between the regular curriculum or between expectations of students) to lead to expansive learning within or across the classroom setting.

Figure 7 depicts how typical schooling processes do not provide space for contradictions to lead to expansive learning across the system.

Figure 7

Shunting Expansive Learning

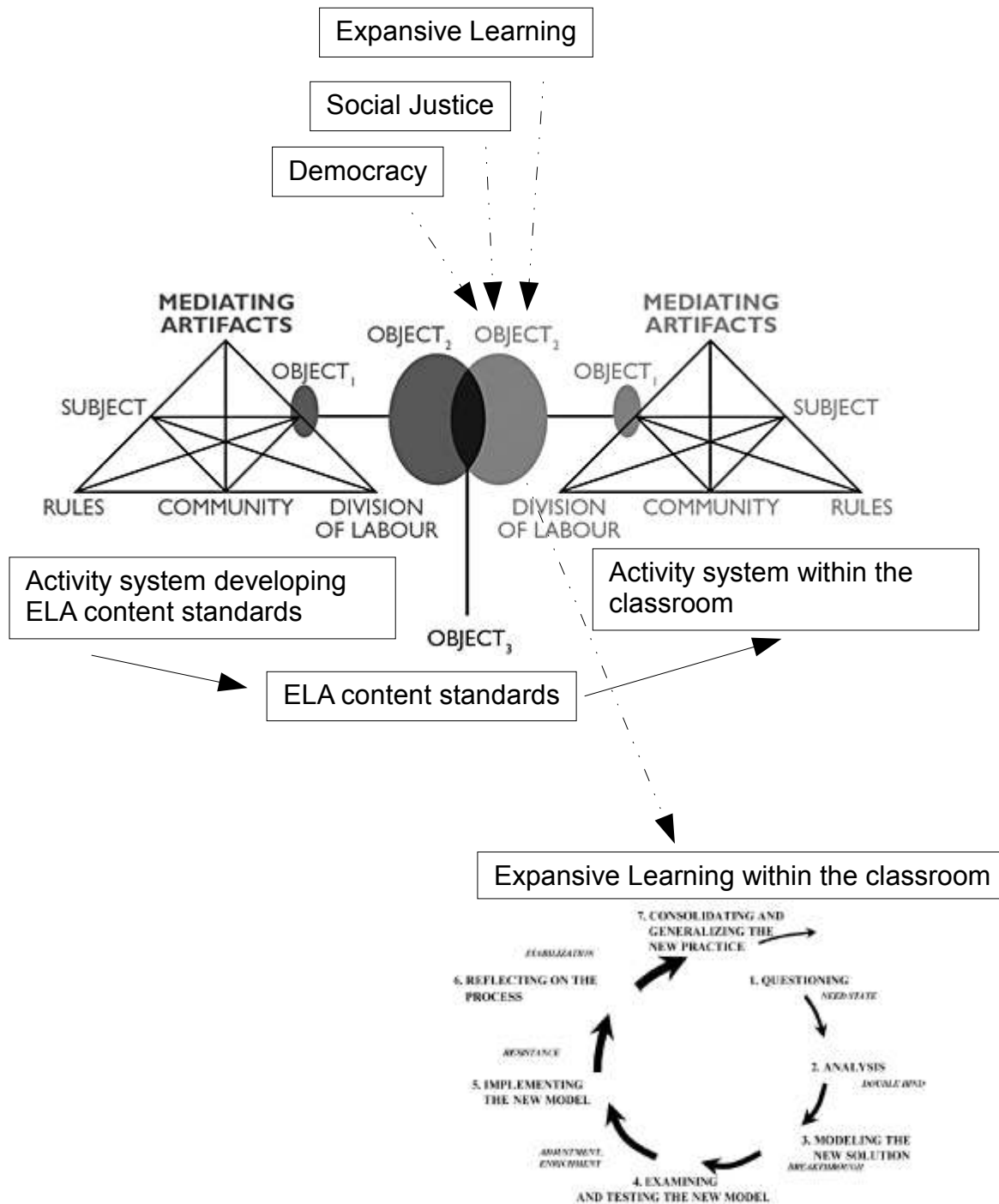


Figure 6 depicts how expansive learning is shunted by power and politics that keep processes within the educational system flowing from only one direction (into classrooms). As depicted in this figure, occurrences of expansive learning that happen within classrooms, are limited to the activity system within the classroom and do not have space to impact processes that determine what is taught in the classroom. As in the case of Miss Basil being shut down from changing practices within the classroom, limits on expansive learning beyond the classroom, lead to limits on expansive learning within the classroom as well.

This finding additionally brings up a contradiction between CHAT which describes expansive learning as a natural process (Engeström, 1999) and the failure of expansive learning to occur within this school system. Illumination of this contradiction opens a space to discuss an expanded understanding of CHAT. Importantly, CHAT fails to explain how and why expansive learning does not occur, like the failure of expansive learning within the US school system.

Engeström and Sannino (2010) describe expansive learning with an emphasis on transformation and creation of culture in communities of learners, rather than a process that transmits and preserves culture (pg. 2). The school structure encountered in this study is not expansive because culture is being preserved and transmitted through the current schooling structure. Engeström (1999) describes expansive learning as "multivoiced formation" of theoretical space, without a fixed structure. This dynamic creates developmental possibilities and the enhancement of individual's capacities (Haug, 1985). However, within the school system, even when multivoiced formations occur, the norm (e.g., predetermined standards) is assumed to be correct so that contradictions within the system do not lead to changes or expanded possibilities within or across the system.

Engeström and Sannino (2010) argue against a need to implement policy to make expansive learning happen. Specifically, they say "expansive learning takes place because historically evolving contradictions in activity systems, lead to conflicts and double binds that trigger new kinds of actions among the actors. In this sense, expansive learning is a historical reality rather than an outcome of a designed policy." (pg. 18). I do not contradict Engeström and Sannino's (2010) position on this argument. Sometimes, expansive learning takes place naturally. However, how and why people learn is impacted by policy, because policy is part of context and power. CHAT's lack of attention to context and power fails to explain a major component of how people learn across contexts and across power dynamics within contexts.

More specifically, CHAT fails to explain processes of *why* learning occurs in some instances and not others and *how* some contradictions lead to transformation while others are shunned. This failure of CHAT to explain the *why* and *how* of learning contradicts Engeström's (2001) conception of an effective learning theory. According to Engeström, (2001), "Any theory of learning must answer at least four central questions: (1) Who are the subjects of learning, how are they defined and located? (2) Why do they learn, what makes them make the effort? (3) What do they learn, what are the contents? and (4) How do they learn?" (pg. 133). The second (i.e., *why*) and fourth (i.e., *how*) questions are not properly accounted for by CHAT.

The contradiction between what the theory claims to explain and the lack of explanation accounted for within the current study, lead to an expanded discussion for how CHAT and theories of power may be matched to further explain the *how* and *why* of learning. Therefore, I argue that technically Engeström and Sannino (2010) are right that policy is not *needed* to *make expansive learning happen*. Rather, policy (and other determinants of context) direct *why* and *how* expansive learning occurs. Disregard of policy and context mean that the theory fails to

explain why and how learning occurs within the reality of differing contexts and power dynamics.

Accounting for Power in Expansive Learning

The shortcomings in CHAT to account for context and power, do not undermine the importance of CHAT as a theory of learning and development. On the contrary, CHAT authors have encouraged further investigation into how CHAT explains learning and development across diverse contexts. The SDE and DBR process provided principles, processes, and created transparency to deconstruct power and privileged knowledge related to learning and development in the classroom setting. CHAT explains how contradictions lead to mediation and development. Therefore, a pattern of contradictions to typical practices that did not lead to expansive learning became notable.

The dismissal of contradictions to typical practices can be explained by Foucault's ideas about power (Foucault, 1991). Foucault describes power as producing reality, domains of objects, and rituals of truth (Foucault 1991, p. 194). In other words, norms become so embedded in our perceptions that they promote imprisonment of thinking. Within this view, punishment is not needed because people are disciplined to confine themselves to normalcy. This view of power can explain why parents reacted against Miss Basil's teaching practices that did not fit within norms of typical teaching practices. This explains why the principal sided with the parents. Also, this explains why Miss Basil abandoned any attempt to discuss race or power within her classroom. She accepted the criticisms and the norms, without a need for arguments or punishment.

Foucault is helpful to understand why contradictions are dismissed as "wrong." However, Foucault does not lay out a specific target to fight against, within the context of schooling nor

does his theory guide actions along lines of democracy, social justice, or expansive learning. Rather, Foucault blames the elusive force of "power" and urges a fight against power (or any type of conformity) through any means. Nonetheless, understanding power and the need to deconstruct power through the deconstruction of accepted norms within classrooms provides an important foundation to understand and discuss the potential for expansive learning within designed learning environments.

Additionally, a look across theories that more specifically target power leading to marginalization of nondominant students illuminates points of tension that can lead toward practice based solutions. For example, Critical Race Theory (CRT) and Latina/Latino Critical Race Theory (LatCrit) describes how power perpetuates racial and/or ethnic and gender subordination (Fay, 1987; Delgado & Stefancic, 1994; Tierney, 1993). The goal of CRT is to explore ways in which racial thinking operates to create injustices in society (Flores, 2000). LatCrit has similar goals but it also includes the exploration of language, ethnicity, class, culture and identity (among others) as avenues through which injustices form (Espinoza, 1990; Garcia, 1995; Hernández-Truyol, 1997; Martinez, 1994; Montoya, 1994; Valdes, 1996). Solorzano and Bernal (2001) argue that together, CRT and LatCrit synergistically challenge educational theory and practices that marginalize Chicana and Chicano students (Bell, 1992, 1995; Crenshaw, "Critical Race Theory in Education," 1998; Delgado, 1989; Espinoza, 1990; Matsuda, 1989; Matsuda, Lawrence, Delgado, & Crenshaw, 1993; Montoya, 1994; Olivas, 1990). LatCrit is conceptualized as a theory of "antissubordination" that aims to link theory with practice ("Fact Sheet: LatCrit," 2000).

Pairing Foucault's ideas of power, CRT and LatCrit and other theories of power and marginalization with CHAT, within the context of designed learning environments, opens a space

for expansive learning across theory and practice. The design process described in this study did not include enough iterations or time to determine how to best navigate structures of power to foster expansive learning, democracy, and social justice across the educational system.

Nonetheless, the process illuminated theoretical ideas and contradictions between practice and theory that can be further explored in future studies.

Inherent Dilemma between Efficiency, Predictability, and Expansive Possibility

A consistent challenge within this study was the contradiction between differing goals of the SDE. The goals of social justice, democracy, and learning along the lines of CHAT are not entirely in line with meeting ELA content standards and keeping in line with the standardized pacing guide. Table 7 lays out a description of contradictions between the goals.

Table 7

Synergy and Contradictions between ELA Content Standards versus Democracy, Social Justice, and Expansive Learning

	ELA Content standards	
	Synergy	Contradictions
Democracy and Social Justice	Proficiency in ELA content standards needed to participate in democratic traditions (e.g., voting)	Standards are not created in the classroom. The use of these standards has been shown to perpetuate pattern of inequality. Standards validate and build upon mainstream traditions.
Expansive learning	ELA Standards provide a foundation of accepted knowledge to build expansively upon. Additionally, the declaration of knowledge provides a way to discuss their advantages and disadvantages.	Standards create a system where there are particularly accepted ways of thinking and answers, which tend to dismiss other ways of thinking and answers, so contradictions needed to lead to expansive learning can be dismissed as wrong.

As depicted on Table 6, social justice and democracy call for fair access to education and fair educational assessment. This means the learning environments need to fairly build on the knowledge and skill sets diverse students bring the classroom. Following a standardized pacing

guide does not lend itself to opportunities for all students to build upon their own knowledge, because students' diverse knowledge sets are not standardized. However, on the other hand, the standardized knowledge sets represent academic literacy skills students need to participate in democratic traditions within the United States. Therefore, academic literacy should also not be dismissed. Similar contradictions exist in relation to Expansive Learning. Standardized knowledge allows for a base of knowledge to be expanded upon. Without this base, classrooms would be reinventing the wheel each moment and therefore likely not moving forward with knowledge expansion. Nonetheless, a normative definition of what "knowledge" should look like, creates a system that dismisses expansive knowledge that does not fit within standardized conceptions.

The contradictions and synergies open up a needed discussion about the need to build upon historically accumulated bodies of understandings, about social justice, democracy, and learning versus the tendency that building upon current conceptions of knowledge has to perpetuate systematic inequalities (e.g., where the powerful stay in power and the marginalized are labeled as inferior, which predicts failure and creates stigmas). In other words, as long as there are standardized notions of knowledge, those standards will not only be used to predict who will "succeed" within the given system, the norms themselves will play a role in determining who "succeeds" because such norms are not only used to assess current learning or predict future success, the tests cement what acceptable knowledge means and therefore become passports and further validation of the normative standards.

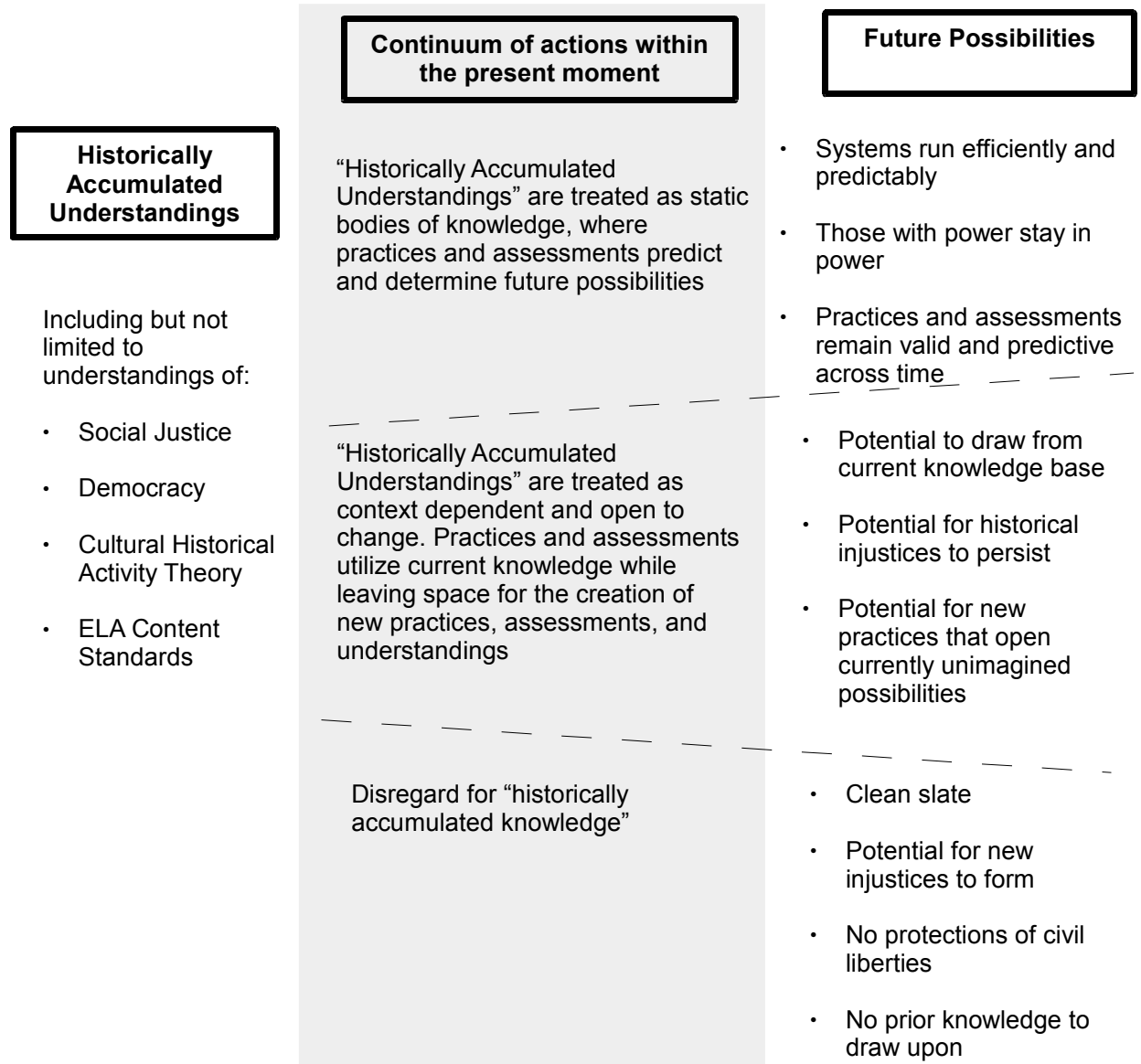
Continuing to use such standards seems comfortable because it allows for accurate prediction of the future, a future which looks very much like the present, because these standards

determine what the future will look like. While the standards are typically discussed as a tool to assess equality, they end up perpetuating inequality as the status quo.

This predicament does not simply call for the disregard of standards, however. Realistically, standards and foundations of accepted knowledge create foundations of understanding, including foundations of understanding the importance of social justice and democracy. Figure 7 (below) depicts a spectrum of how the utility of foundational knowledge acts to either perpetuate current trends, while the other end of the spectrum would put us into an unknown state of chaos. Therefore, it seems that being aware of foundational knowledge, while creating spaces to expand upon accepted knowledge seems like a hopeful means to creating new possibilities, without losing the our current knowledge base.

Figure 7

Spectrum toward Predicting Future Possibilities



Discussion

Implications

The SDE approach taken in this paper is explicitly critical and hopeful. The approach is hopeful because rather than only point to problems, the intervention poses solutions for how to

design robust, meaningful, and transformative learning environments within a typical 10th grade ELA course serving mostly low-income students by drawing upon several lines of work within ELA research that promote empowering and transformative learning environments. The hopeful approach does not however, minimize problems encountered through the process. The mix between hopeful and critical allows for a practical guide for how to pose such interventions in the future, as well as a guide for what needs to change before sustainable interventions can be the norm. Utility of the SDE allows for a thorough investigation of the practical assets and gaps within current theories which helps explain the gap between what we know to theoretically promise democracy and social justice versus what happens in typical classrooms.

The process of writing this paper illuminated the difficulty of articulating the design process within a paper. There are many components that feed into the design, so articulating each ingredient is impossible. Painting a vivid enough picture to inform others interesting in learning from the design process proved difficult. This paper does provide a cookbook set of steps or ingredients to follow. Instead, it provides an example of how DBR and SDE principles can inform the design process toward democratic and socially just ELA instruction. While this process will not look the same across contexts, examples of the process help paint a picture of possibilities of this type of work. Just as Ladson-Billings (2006) notes the importance of continuing to elucidate examples of Culturally Relevant Pedagogy in practice, the importance of elucidating processes of designing instruction for democracy and social justice can inform others who want to create such learning environments. Examples of the design process will help inform teachers about ways to create learning environments that build on the diverse and unique assets their students bring to the classroom.

This study also points out the importance of creating transparency of viewing the design process through wide lens, which includes a larger worldview, clear theories of learning, and specific processes. This broad framing illuminates dynamics of power within the design process. The need for CHAT to account for diversity and cross cultural contexts may be satisfied by pairing CHAT with other explanatory frameworks. This lens is particularly important within high school classrooms, where diversity in literacy practices, diversity in viewpoints, and many other forms of diversity exist. Within the current state of education, where nondominant students' views, culture, and languages are marginalized, there may not be a chance for expansive learning to happen.

Considerations

Specific process of the study are unlikely to occur in a typical classroom. The study required expertise, time, and resources of a researcher in addition to time to connect practices, processes, and experience to the research and theoretical community. Questions about how this may be accomplished within the constraints of a typical classroom remain. Perhaps even more fruitful questions would ask what structures need to be in place to foster SDEs, DBR, democratic, socially just, and expansive learning environments in classrooms.

Future Directions

This study shows the importance of "infiltrating" a change in pedagogy through many dimensions or at different levels. CHAT is a helpful frame for this discussion, because it provides a way to discuss multiple levels of influence on an activity system. CHAT frames multiple activity systems as impacting each other. Because much change is needed, looking at how to insert change at different levels and thinking through the kind of change that needs to happen in a synergistic way is helpful. CHAT, SDE, and Expansive Learning models and theories create

transparency that can continue to illuminate processes within learning environments.

Transparency afforded by CHAT and the conceptual model can lead to our understanding of what can and needs to change within the educational system. All teachers likely say they want the best for their students. Transparency about what this means is important. Transparency about the negotiation of how to create learning environments that foster success is important. For example, helping teachers see their assumptions is one important step. Having models once they do see their assumptions and articulate their worldviews is another important step. Then having design processes in place is helpful. There is a need to infiltrate the system to make change happen multidirectionally across many levels.

There are many steps that need to be taken before this type of teaching takes real strides. Making sure that teachers have the critical consciousness is absolutely integral and the foundation for any of this. That is why most studies have showed the critical consciousness as the critical component and the worldview as being what these pedagogies are about. I do not mean to take away from this. I am simply trying to push the conversation forward and come at a different angle into how this type of teaching can start infiltrating the schools. We have teachers in schools that do not have this consciousness. Maybe engaging teachers in the practice of using funds of knowledge of their students will expand teachers' views of the capabilities of their students.

Future studies of CHAT and expansive learning may benefit by considering the conceptual framework provided in Figure 5 above. Creating transparency in the theories and worldviews that frame processes is an important step to connecting theory with practice. Additionally, analyzing CHAT where directionality and power are analyzed across activity systems will shed light on processes that lead to expansive learning within educational systems.

Social network analysis may be a helpful way to conduct such analysis across systems. Social network analysis investigates relational aspects of structures (Scott, 1992) including types of linkages among actors, subgroups of individuals, and entire networks (Wasserman & Faust, 1994).

More studies focusing on the design of learning environments will continue to provide insight into theory, practice, and other potential implementation of expansive learning. While there are many components that contribute to the creation of learning environments, such as the worldview of teachers and the structure of schooling, studies illuminating how spaces of equity and expansive learning can be created are transformative for two main reasons.

Perhaps above all, a focus on the design of equitable and expansive learning environments, highlights several obstacles across systems that need to be addressed for more comprehensive design processes to take shape. Challenges as well as attempted solutions to the challenges across more studies, will shed light on where best to focus efforts toward transformation in educational systems. Additionally, continued studies of expansive learning outside of the school system (e.g., studies of expansive learning provided by the UCLinks program) will provide insight into possibilities of learning not yet envisioned within public school walls. This will provide a model for ideal design processes. Additionally, this will provide a model from which to pose helpful contradictions to learn from, when compared to attempts to implement SDEs within school walls. Additionally, SDEs, founded in practice based social change, create spaces of transformation for all involved, whether within or outside school walls. Students, teachers, researchers, and structures are shaped by multidirectionally through such efforts.

Connecting theory and practice toward the goal of social justice and democracy allows for insight into both theory and practice. This discussion and future work requires activity, thought, discussion, and plans that cross lines between universities, theory, and communities. Navigating knowledge found at each level proves challenging and promising. All the while, the right systems need to be in place to support democratic sharing of information, socially just chances of success, and spaces where diversity and contradictions are not shunned and labeled for remediation, but valued as the promise of expansive learning. Our current system lacks expansive learning that has taken us beyond the cycle of failure for nondominant students. We need to account for power and explicitly connect theory to practice to understand how to create systems that will transform the cycle of persistent inequality, into truly expansive learning, along lines of democracy and social justice.

Chapter 3

Reframing Literacy Instruction away from Promoting Norms toward Centering Student Success

Introduction

“It is not overstating matters to claim that eliminating the academic literacy achievement gap is a core component of developing a vibrant and inclusive multicultural democracy. Only an empowered, engaged, and literate citizenry can form the foundation of an equitable and inclusive society” (Morrell, 2002, p. 1). However, rates of academic literacy, academic engagement, and subsequent preparation for civic agency tend to be low for nondominant students (i.e., low-income and ethnic minority students) (OECD, 2004; National Center for Education Statistics, 1999; Suarez-Orosco, 2009). Many nondominant students do not experience English Language Arts (ELA) instruction that foster high levels of academic literacy, engagement or agency (Gay, 2010). Instead, nondominant students often receive remedial education, aimed to overcome their perceived deficits (Gutierrez & Vossoughii, 2010), often limited to drilling basic skills and absent of opportunities for deep learning, engagement, or empowerment (Ladson-Billings, 2006).

Alternatively, an increasing body of literature displays how literacy instruction, when designed to foster students’ diverse assets and engage students in authentic learning opportunities leads to promising possibilities (e.g., Gutierrez & Vossoughii, 2010; Ladson-Billings, 2014; Morrell, 2008). Several bodies of literature contribute to an understanding of ELA instruction that fosters and builds upon the expertise nondominant students bring the classroom, including: Multicultural Education (ME); Culturally Relevant Pedagogy (CRP); New Literacy Studies (NLS); Funds of Knowledge (FK); Critical Literacy (CL); Critical Youth Participatory Action Research (CYPAR); Critical Hip Hope Languages (CHHL); and Cultural Modeling (CM). See

Hinga (2014a) for a summary of each framework. This paper draws upon theoretical and practice based lessons of the named literature, organized within the form of a social design experiment. A Social design experiments (SDEs) are “cultural historical formations designed to promote transformative learning for adults and children—are organized around expansive notions of learning and mediated praxis and provide new tools and practices for envisioning new pedagogical arrangements, especially for students from nondominant communities” (Gutiérrez & Vossoughi, 2010). SDEs are further described below. The paper illuminates an exploratory comparison of standardized ELA instruction within versus an SDE within a 10th grade classroom serving nondominant students. The following section contextualizes the need to reframe typical instruction to foster student success rather than normative failure.

Background

Even though “empowered, engaged, and literate” are three prerequisites to an informed, multicultural democracy (Morrell, 2002), *empowering, engaging, and effective* are terms rarely used to describe the educational environment for nondominant adolescents. Instead, school systems have often been described as alienating, marginalizing and ineffective for ethnic minority youth (e.g., Calmore, 1992; Dimitriadis & Kamberelis, 2006). The alienation and marginalization has been attributed to *deficit* theorizing which blames the underachievement of nondominant youth on the cultural “deficits” of nondominant students, their families, and their communities (Bishop, 2001; Gonzalez, 1995; Irvine & York, 1993; Moll, Amanti, Neff, & Gonzalez, 1992; Solorzano & Yosso, 2000). Within this view, nondominant students are in need of cultural rehabilitation in order to succeed academically and socially (Kretovics & Nussel, 1994; Persell, 1977).

Placing the blame of school failure on “deficits” in nondominant students’ culture by reasoning that their culture is lacking compared to students who have traditionally fared better in school, has led to “culturally deprived schools” (Ryan, 1972) in which students’ cultures are not valued or built upon in the learning process. When nondominant students’ culture is treated as a deficit which must be overcome for nondominant students to succeed, these students are not provided with the same chances for learning, engagement, or empowerment as white, middle, class White students (Moll & Diaz, 1987). The impact of typical instruction on low levels of academic literacy achievement, academic engagement, empowerment for nondominant youth are discussed in the following sections.

Low Normative Academic Literacy Rates

Low levels of academic literacy achievement for nondominant students in the US are a well-known problem (Darling-Hammond, 1998; Jencks & Phillips, 1998). Among all 12th graders in the US, only 38% read at or above proficiently as measured by National Assessment of Progress in ELA (National Center for Education Statistics (2010). The low academic literacy rates are pronounced among African-Americans and Latina/o 12th graders who tend to read at the same level as White eighth-grade students (Office of Vocational and Adult Education, 2002). The low rates of academic literacy, especially for nondominant adolescents, calls for increased attention to adolescent academic literacy and the search for effective ELA instruction for nondominant adolescents (Biancarosa & Snow, 2003). The following paragraphs describe how typical ELA instruction contributes to low rates of academic literacy for nondominant students because typical instruction fails to create opportunities for these students to use their experiential knowledge in the learning process.

“People construct new knowledge and understanding based on what they already know and believe” (Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000). This theory, known as *constructivism*, defines learning as an active process in which new information is linked to prior knowledge to create objective realities (e.g., Bruner, 1977; Dewey, 1916; & Vygotsky, 1978). Consequently, the need to incorporate learner knowledge, skills, attitudes, and beliefs into learning environments for successful learning is well understood (e.g., The National Research Council, 2005). Nonetheless, typical ELA instruction often fails to incorporate the background knowledge of nondominant students. The disconnect between the culture of US schooling and nondominant culture can be seen in many aspects of the US school system including what knowledge is taught, how knowledge is taught, and how knowledge is tested (Lee, 2004). This disconnect creates unequal learning opportunities for nondominant students because instruction that builds upon only one set of cultural and social experiences is not neutral and unfairly positions a certain group of individuals (i.e., middle income, White students) to succeed (Moll, 1972).

The importance of socio-cultural context, including the importance of helping students make connections between their background knowledge and new learning (e.g., Bruner, 1977; Dewey, 1916; & Vygotsky, 1978) is especially transparent in ELA. The traditional concept of literacy as the ability to read and write has greatly expanded over the half century (Meyer & Rose, 1999) but classroom practice has not kept up with our understanding of literacy (Snow & Biancarosa, 2003). Despite improvements in our understandings of literacy as a practice embedded in sociocultural context (Alverman, 2002; Gee, 1996; Lankshear & Knobel, 2006; New London Group, 1996; Scribner & Cole, 1981; Street, 1984; Warshauer, 2002) between 1971 and 2004, the ELA instruction has not changed to reflect this knowledge (Biancarosa &

Snow, 2006). Most high school ELA teachers continue to treat literacy as an objective set of rules with little regard to sociocultural context (Snow & Biancarosa, 2006). In accordance, academic literacy rates of seventeen year-olds in the US have not improved during this time period (NCES, 2004). The following paragraphs describe how traditional practices of teaching ELA as an objective set of rules are particularly ineffective for teaching nondominant students academic literacy.

A popular model of teaching, known as the *transmission* model or *teacher centered* teaching (e.g., Goodlad 1984; Sirotnik 1983; Ramirez, 1991) fails to incorporate diverse students' background knowledge into the learning process. Teacher centered approaches to ELA instruction means teachers attempt to impart knowledge on their students through lecture and repetition (Tishman, Jay, & Perkins, 1993). In transmission models, teachers most often fail to direct instruction in a way that allows nondominant students to build new learning on prior knowledge (Auerbach, 1995; Cummins, 1989; Flores, Cousin, & Diaz, 1991; Giroux & McLaren, 1986; Quartz & TEP Research Group, 2003). However, transmission models of teaching prevail in classes with nondominant students because these students tend to be viewed as lacking necessary background knowledge and therefore “need” academic knowledge imposed on them through direct instruction (Anyon, 1988; Diaz et al., 1986; Moll, 1986; Oaks, 1986). Because the background knowledge of nondominant students is not valued, it is excluded from instruction; therefore, teachers make learning less accessible to nondominant students (Gay, 2000; Ladson-Billings, 1999; Moll & Gonzalez, 2004; Sleeter, 2005; Tharp, Estrada, Dalton, & Yamauchi, 2000).

Even in cases when teachers do not consciously want to exclude the background knowledge of their students in the learning process, disconnects between student and teacher

culture hinders the ability of teachers to include diverse students' background knowledge in ELA instruction. In many cases, teachers fail to present material in a way that allows students from other cultural backgrounds to use their background knowledge because they are unfamiliar with diverse student background knowledge (Michaels, 1981). The largely homogeneous teaching force in light of an increasingly diverse student population leads to disconnections between teaching practices and student cultural knowledge of nondominant students (Florio-Ruane, 1994; Gollnick & Chinn, 2002; McIntosh, 1990; Paley, 2001; Schmidt, 1999; Sleeter, 2001; Snyder, Hoffman, & Geddes, 1997). For example, in 2005, while 43% of students in urban schools belonged to nondominant groups, 86% of all teachers were European American (Gay & Howard, 2000). Teachers tend to know more about students with similar backgrounds as themselves and therefore even when they try to connect the curriculum to students' lives, their instruction tends to give white, middle-class students greater opportunities to make connections with course material (McCarthy, 1997). Additionally, teachers with different backgrounds than their students have different discourse patterns than their students which can lead to gaps in effective communication (Phillips, 1971; Michaels, 1981). Therefore, students with different background experiences and discourse patterns than their teacher (e.g., nondominant students and low-income students) often do not interpret their teachers' transmission of information the way the teacher intends (Delpit, 1996).

These examples represent how the cultural, linguistic, and social knowledge traditionally possessed by African-American, Latino/a, English language learners, and economically poor students are often marginalized as tools for learning in school, including high school ELA classrooms (Johannessen, 2004). The disconnect between nondominant culture and school culture explains learning advantages for students from a White, middle class backgrounds as

compared to nondominant backgrounds. Even though learning is increasingly understood to be mediated through context, language, and culture (Au, 1998; Bruner, 1986; Cole & Scribner, 1981; Cummins, 1986; Edwards, 2004; Edwards, Pleasants, & Franklin, 1999; Goldenberg, 1987; Heath, 1983; Jacob, 1992; Lave; 1977; Lave, Murtaugh, & de la Rocha, 1984; Nieto, 1999; Payne, DeVol & Smith, 2000; Schmidt, 1998; Schmidt, 1999; Scribner, 1984; Stigler & Baranes, 1989; Trueba, Jacobs, & Kirton, 1990) schools consistently fail to create opportunities for students from nondominant backgrounds to connect their contexts, language and cultures to classroom learning (Au, 1993; Banks, 1994; Boykin, 1978; Boykin, 1984; Delpit, 1996; Foster, 1994; Gay, 2000; Hilliard, 2001; Howard, 2001; Irvine, 1990; Ladson-Billings, 1994; Ladson-Billings, 1995; Lee, Spencer, & Harpalani, 2003; Lessow-Hurley, 1986; Moll, 1992; Nieto, 1999; Pai & Adler, 1997; Purcell-Gates, L'Allier, & Smith, 1995; Sleeter, 2001; WalkerDalhouse & Dalhouse, 2001). The implications of instructional failure to integrate background knowledge of nondominant students reach beyond learning outcomes. The following sections describe how the failure to integrate the culture of nondominant students in ELA class also leads to low levels of academic engagement and empowerment.

Low Normative Engagement

Instructional practices that marginalize the knowledge and culture of nondominant students in the classroom not only lead to poor learning outcomes but also lead to disengagement for the nondominant adolescents (Fordham & Ogbu, 1986). Within the current educational system, students from nondominant backgrounds suffer from lower academic engagement than White students because of meaningless instruction and lower rationalized incentives to succeed (Orfield & Lee, 2005; Steinberg et al. 1996). Meaningless instruction and low realistic

incentives for academic success hinder opportunities for student engagement (as defined above as students connection to what goes on in their classes (Steinberg, 1996)).

For one, nondominant students are often faced with meaningless instruction (Means & Knapp, 1991). The deficit view of nondominant student culture leads to what Freire (1993) referred to as the “banking model of education” where knowledge is deposited into students rather than students being invited as active members of the learning process. The reason teachers tend to use banking or transmission models (as described above) with nondominant students is because they feel these students’ experiences hinder the learning process and therefore need to be replaced with teacher deposited information (Freire, 1993). Within these models the teacher’s voice, perspective and culture represent truth within in the classroom (Tishman, Jay, & Perkins, 1993). A review of critiques of typical, transmission models of teaching determine that such approaches tend to: 1) underestimate what students are capable of doing; 2) postpone more challenging and interesting work for too long (often, indefinitely); and 3) deprive students of contexts for meaningful or motivation for learning (Means & Knapp, 1991, pp. 283-284). Low expectations, lack of challenges, and lack of meaningful learning opportunities place nondominant students at risk of grave disengagement (Means & Knapp, 1991).

Secondly, the exclusion of nondominant low-income students’ cultures within the classroom creates dichotomies between school success and acceptance of their community (Fordham & Ogbu, 1986; MacLeod, 1987; Nieto, 1996; Valenzuela, 1999; Willis, 1977). According to the theory of resistance, students may choose not to succeed in school because within the current societal structure school success can be viewed as “acting White” and turning their back on their culture and their community (MacLeod, 1995; Solorzano & Bernal, 2001). Nondominant students’ resistance to academic success (MacLeod, 1995) is especially prominent

for high school students (i.e., the population of interest within this study). In high school, nondominant students tend to develop a rational position for not succeeding in school (Sperbell, 1997). Nondominant students see fewer returns to schooling since academic success means turning their back on their community with little hope for economic mobility (Fordham & Ogbu, 1986; Ogbu, 1997). While some nondominant students may choose to work hard in school to prove the system is wrong, others choose to stay loyal to the community and fail the system that fails them (Fordham, 1996).

While this exclusion of nondominant student culture is often analyzed on a larger, structural level than the classroom, the classroom is an important part of the social structure (Mercado, 2005; Roithmayr, 1999). Roithmayr (1999) explains that classrooms are spaces where social and racial power is constructed. The exclusion of student culture within the classroom (Boykin, 1983) contributes to the larger structure of schools and society as devaluing student culture. Disengagement in school caused by meaningless curriculum, low expectations, dichotomization between school success and community loyalty, and low perceived returns of schooling is often manifested through low cognitive investment and failure to complete assignments, attend class, and participate in class; these behaviors lead to failure in courses and eventual school dropout in serious cases (Finn, 1989, 1992; Rumberger, 2004).

Low Normative Agency

The causes of low engagement in ELA classes for nondominant students are similar to the obstacles toward civic agency caused by ELA instruction. Agency requires the provision of opportunities and resources for individuals to draw from their strengths and to take control of their lives (Friere, 1970; Horton, 1989). Excluding students' cultural assets within the classroom fails to help students realize and mobilize their cultural strengths as tools to control their lives.

The wealth of cultural assets (Moll & Gonzales, 1986) and multiple literacy expertise (Alvermann, 2001, Mahiri, 2008) of dominant students bring to the classroom are typically considered deficits within ELA instruction practices (Moll & Gonzales, 1986). This inhibits students from understanding the value of their cultural assets as tools to take control of their lives. Further, the exclusion of students' culture and multiple literacies within the classroom eliminates the opportunity within ELA classrooms for students to critically analyze and produce texts that would empower them in their lives as citizens and human beings.

A second reason typical ELA instruction fails to support nondominant students' civic agency is through the devaluation of these students' culture and the culture of their community. In some cases, results of this deficit view lead to degrading categorizations of nondominant students' cultures as deficient (Boykin, 1983; Sue & Padilla, 1986; Trueba, 1989; Walker, 1987). For example, Latina/o students (the population of interest in the current study) have been referred to by terms such as "linguistically handicapped," "culturally and linguistically deprived," and "semilingual," and "at-risk" students (Flores, 1982, 1992). Even though almost all Latina/o students who learn English at school are bilingual (i.e., they know Spanish and English) (Zentella, 2005) the assets of knowing two languages are ignored by schools. Instead, bilingualism tends to be viewed as a deficit and an obstruction toward learning (Delgado-Bernal, 2002; Gándara, Rumberger, Maxwell-Jolly, & Callahan, 2003). This deficit view of student language and culture is reflected in ELA classrooms which exclude nondominant students' background language and cultural experiences leading to feelings of alienation from the learning process (e.g., Anyon, 1981; Brophy, 1987; Covington, 1984; Cummins, 1986; Giroux, 1984; Greene & Abt-Perkins; 2003; Igoa, 1995; Fine, 1991; Ladson-Billings, 1994; Nieto, 1992; Ogbu & Matute-Bianchi, 1986; Schmidt, 1998; Schmidt, 2002; Thomas, 1980; Weinstein, 1984).

During adolescence, individuals become more aware of their identity and try to define themselves in relation to their environment (Erikson, 1970). The implicit and explicit message that nondominant students' culture is deficient fails to help students recognize the potential power in their cultural and linguistic assets. Therefore, deficit view of student culture inhibits ELA classrooms from helping students to value their culture as an asset and tool for civic agency.

The grim picture painted by this literature review for nondominant adolescent students, illuminates a grave need for instructional change within ELA classes if the goal of democratic and social justice can be met. Fortunately, for as long as the oppressive conditions have existed, powerful individuals and communities interested in social justice have searched for solutions to this problem. The following section highlights such promising instruction.

The Promise of Reframing Instruction to Center Student Strengths

The bleak description of typical ELA instruction starkly contrasts with the hopeful possibilities of instruction explicitly aimed to sustain student culture and authentically engage students in the learning process (Hinga, 2014a). Two components of such pedagogy are cultural relevance and critical pedagogy. Cultural relevance means the creation of spaces that are respectful of all students' cultures and assisting students in forming positive cultural identities (Ladson-Billings, 1995). This includes the fostering of students many assets and out of school literacies (e.g., Mahiri, 2008).

One group of terms focuses on inclusion of students' diverse cultures to create equitable learning opportunities: culturally appropriate (Au & Jordan, 1981); culturally congruent (Mohatt, & Erickson, 1981); culturally responsive (Au & Jordan, 1981; Cazden & Leggett, 1981; Erickson & Mohatt, 1982); and culturally compatible (Jordan, 1985; Vogt, Jordan, & Tharp, 1987).

Another group of terms includes pedagogical approaches focused on helping students reach critical consciousness: critical pedagogy (e.g., Freire, & Macedo, 1999; Giroux, 1983) and critical literacy (e.g., Friere, 1970; McLaren, 1989). Overall, education for social justice and democracy must help students develop “dynamic or synergistic relationship between home/community culture and school culture” (Ladson-Billings, 1995, p. 467). Cultural responsiveness requires learning environments to on the diverse cultural assets students bring to class and establishing strong ties between instruction and children’s out of school lives. Siwatu (2007) points out that there is general agreement among culturally responsive pedagogues (i.e., the terms listed above) insofar as they call for educators to facilitate learning environments that respect student culture and help students to maintain their own culture while navigating in the mainstream culture. However, Gay (2000) clarifies that not all of the pedagogies listed above have an explicit focus on critical challenging and confrontation of social injustice. Education for democracy and social justice is explicitly critical and confronts injustices (Gay; 2000).

Critical consciousness means the critique societal inequalities and to confront oppressive social conditions (e.g., Aronowitz & Giroux, 1991; McLaren, 1989; Ladson-Billings, 1995). The explicit focus on critical consciousness in ELA can be understood to align with critical literacy pedagogy (Morrison, Robins, & Rose, 2008). Critical literacy fulfills the aspect of critical consciousness in a powerful way. As Morrell (2008) explains, critical literacy is two times an asset model of instruction because it: 1) “Provides pedagogy and curricula that lend immediate relevance to school in the lives of urban youth” and 2) “works to break the cycle of disinvestment of human capital in urban communities by creating graduates who recognize their potential agency to improve urban centers, rather than seeing them as places to escape” (p.7). Critical literacy/critical consciousness, empowers students with tools they can use to transform

their lives and the injustice within society (Morrison, Robins, & Rose, 2008). In these ways, instruction for democracy and social justice provides a hopeful solution to the problems of disengagement, disempowerment and low academic literacy achievement by nondominant youth in the US school system. The current paper utilizes a Social Design Experiment (described below) to create and study the impact of 10th grade ELA instruction that draws upon current literature of effective and equitable practices for nondominant youth described in this section.

Social Design Experiments

In contrast to typical practices, a wealth of literature and isolated instances of promising practices show the promise of education for social justice and democracy (Hinga, 2014a). This study draws upon such theory and practice in the form of a Social Design Experiment. Social Design Experiment (SDE) create and study change within the frame of CHAT to promote social justice instruction (Gutiérrez, 2008a; Gutiérrez, Hunter, & Arzubiaga, 2009). Social Design Experiments (SDEs) are cultural historical formations, organized around equity oriented and robust learning principles, designed with and for nondominant communities to promote transformative learning (Gutiérrez, 2008a; Gutiérrez, Hunter, & Arzubiaga, 2009; Gutiérrez & Vossoughi, 2010). Social design experiments also make tools, practices, and pedagogical arrangements visible (Gutiérrez & Vossoughi, 2010).

The term "experiment" within an SDE is reclaimed and reframed away from the traditional view of experiments as predetermined processes (Gutiérrez, 2008a). In contrast to prescribed concepts of experiments, SDEs are co-designed and open systems that are subject to revision, disruptions, and contradictions. SDE rely upon change within the researcher, the researcher's methods and dispositions, the teacher, students, the community, and the broader context within which the SDE is framed (Gutiérrez & Vossoughi, 2010). Additionally, SDEs

focus on broader consequences and transformative potential as goals and outcomes within the design process (Engeström, 2004). Therefore, the outcomes and specific processes of the experiment cannot be predetermined.

Gutiérrez & Vossoughi (2010) posed four principles of SDEs: *Design as re-mediating activity; contradictions; historicity; and equity*. These principles are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1

Summary of Principles of Social Design Experiment

SDE Principle	Description
Design as-remediating activity	Re-mediation is a framework for the development of rich learning ecologies, where all students can expand their repertoires of practice for teachers, students, researchers, and the greater community. This includes interrogation of historical, structural, institutional, and sociocultural structures.
Contradictions	A focus on understanding, critiquing, and addressing incongruities that constrain opportunities to develop powerful learning opportunities. Solutions to such challenges serve as learning opportunities.
Historicity	A focus on equity oriented inquiry into histories of marginalizing nondominant communities. This includes investigation into practices, policies, and embedded layers of practices and policies across time.
Equity	Insurance that interventions benefit the community they are intended to impact, from the perspective of multiple vantage points within the community. This includes asking question of: How is equity accounted for across the inquiry project? Is equity locally defined and experienced? This also requires documenting social and cognitive consequences for participants across the intervention.

Design as a re-mediating activity means the creation of learning environments with

transformative potential for all actors (including but not limited to teachers, students, and

researchers). Re-mediation provides a frame to cultivate the reorganization of systems of

learning that reject deficit theorizing and instead, demands the creation of environments that

allow all students to share and further their expertise (Cole & Griffin, 1983; Engeström, 1991). A

focus on *contradictions* highlights the problematic tendency to dichotomize valuable versus invaluable literacy practices, top down versus bottom up projects; quantitative versus interpretive approaches to research, proximal versus distal influences; local versus global policies; the researcher versus the researched, school versus home, and dominant versus nondominant communities (Engeström, 1987; Gutiérrez, 2006; Gutiérrez, 2008a Gutiérrez & Vossoughi, 2010). A focus on *historicity* includes an investigation of school structures and literacy practices overtime and across contexts, which adds a greater perspective to static views of school structure and literacy practices (Gutiérrez, 2007; Gutiérrez & Vossoughi, 2010). This view also allows educators to situate how these policies impact and can be impacted by their own practices (Gutiérrez & Vossoughi, 2010).

The four principles provide a clear roadmap for what needs to happen, how it should happen, and how it can be measured. SDEs have been shown to promote powerful learning opportunities and transformative learning in out of school settings. However, the current literature base lacks evaluations of such learning environments within the constraints of a public school classroom, compared to typical instruction.

A lack of evaluations of SDE within the school day poses one obstacle toward broader scale acceptance and implementation. This study is not meant to devalue past ethnographic or theoretical SDE which has blazed the trail and will continue to contribute to pedagogy for social justice. Instead, the current study aims to provide an additional look at effects SDE on student outcomes within a high school ELA classroom, controlling for teacher effects. Therefore, this study uses a comparative-case study design, of different types of teaching, to evaluate the effects of SDE by answering the following question:

Question

How does student development compare between a 10th grade ELA class taught using standardized instruction versus instruction aimed at creating a SDE?

Methods

The study employed action research, with the conception of research as an instrument for social change (Carspecken, 1996; Kincheloe & McLaren, 1998; Morrell, 2008). The purpose of the study was to create a situated understanding of student development across instructional contexts in a 10th grade ELA classroom.

Context: The study took place in a 10th grade, college preparatory class, in a high school called Azalea Town High School (ATHS). For purposes of anonymity a pseudonym for the school and town were used. The community surrounding the town will be called Azalea Town through the rest of this paper. ATHS lies between two demographically distinct neighborhoods. The town on the south-western side of Azalea town is a predominately white and very affluent town. The town on the north-east side of Azalea town is predominantly Latino and low-income. Azalea Town includes over 100 thousand residents. Almost 35% of residents are White, 35% are Latino, 8% are Asian, 16% identify as other, and other ethnicities comprise less than 1% of the population. While the median household income of Azalea Town is over \$65,000, 14% of the households live below the poverty line (United States Census, 2010).

The student body at ATHS serves about 1300 students. Students are identified as 70% Hispanic or Latina/o, 25% White (not Hispanic); with Asian (\approx 2%), African American (\approx 1%), Filipino (\approx 1%), Pacific Islander (<1%) American Indian or Alaska Native (1%) students making up the rest of the study body. Demographically, 64% of the student body is labeled as “socioeconomically disadvantaged” and 38% are “English learners.” The divide in achievement

and test scores lies strongly across ethnic lines at this school. While 41% of students at ATHS scored proficient or above on the California Standardized Test of English Language Arts in 2008, 70% of White students versus 32% of Hispanic or Latino students scored at proficient or above. The school consists of slightly more males than female students (i.e., 56% versus 44%). Almost 15% of students qualify for Special Education Services.

Participants: The study was completed in a partnership between the lead author of this paper (hereafter referred to in the first person voice), one 10th grade ELA teacher (hereafter referred to as Miss Basil) and 58 students in two 10th grade classes at ATHS. Miss Basil is an African American female, who grew up in Azalea Town. She has a Masters in Teaching and has been teaching ELA at ATHS for eight years. During this school year, she taught five periods of 10th grade ELA. Two of these periods were honors courses, the other three were college preparatory classes. The fifty eight students enrolled in Miss Basil's fourth and fifth period college preparatory classes participated in the study described here. Thirty one students were enrolled in fourth period (28 students identified as Latino, 4 as white, and 2 as Black). Twenty-seven students were enrolled in fifth period (22 students identified as Latino, 5 students identified as white).

Research Team: In addition to the classroom-based partnership, I worked with four undergraduate student researchers, for 22 weeks (i.e., two academic quarters) to organize and analyze data. The four students included: one freshman Latino male, who completed high school near the ATHS; two senior Latina females from largely Latina/o communities, and one, senior Asian American female. Working with students closer to the age of the high school students, some of whom were able to provide a Latina/os' perspectives in the research (Delgado-Bernal, 1998).

Reflexivity: Throughout the process, in line with SDE principles, I reflected on my position as a researcher and partner in the design of the classroom, and examined my conceptions and perceptions of classroom experiences. This type of reflection is further described in Gutiérrez & Vossoughi (2010). Transparent use of theories was used to guide decision making through the design process and analysis of data (Gutiérrez, 2006; Gutiérrez & Orellana, 2006). I also continually checked in with students and Miss Basil to ask if the process was beneficial to their community of practice.

Process: I initiated the classroom-based partnership through an introductory email to Miss Basil. I was provided Miss Basil's contact information by a professor who had taught Miss Basil as a Masters in Teaching student. Miss Basil responded with interest in a partnership, however, she also expressed uncertainty a how she could fit my ideas of democracy and social justice into her lesson planning.

Miss Basil and I met during the summer, before classes started. Miss Basil welcomed me into the classroom as an observer and potential collaborator down the line. The classroom portion of the study lasted three months, from early September through early December. This classroom time is separated into two phases. Phase 1 includes the nine weeks of classroom time where I was only an observer within the classroom. Phase 2 includes the following six weeks of class time where lessons I helped to design were implemented.

Throughout the three months, I attended Miss Basil's fourth and fifth period classes. Classes at ATHS operated on a block schedule. Therefore, each class met three times per week. Two times per week, each class met for one hour and twenty minutes, right after lunch. Once per week, each class met for sixty minutes. On this day, one class met before lunch, the other met after lunch.

During Phase 1, I attended class as an observer only. I collected field notes during class time and wrote notes about informal conversations I engaged in with Miss Basil and/or students. I did not contribute to lesson planning or participate in class discussions during this phase.

Phase 2 began after bonds of trust and respect were built within the partnership. During Phase 2, Miss Basil and students partnered with me to design and implement lesson plans aimed at meeting ELA standards and in line with democracy and social justice. See Table 2 (below) for explicit goals of Phase 2. The process of planning for Phase 2 began two weeks prior. Each day, Miss Basil and I discussed lesson plans and results of classroom implementation between 15 and 60 minutes after Miss Basil finished teaching for the day. Surveys and discussions with students also contributed to the planning and evaluation process. I recorded fieldnotes throughout this process. See Hinga (2014b) for more complete details of the design process.

Table 2

Objectives of the Social Design Experiment (SDE)

Objective	Meaning
Democracy and social justice	Everyone has a right to an education that sets them up to participate in democracy and promotes equity.
Expansive learning	Participants interpret and expand the definition and goal of an activity and respond in increasingly enriched ways
ELA Content Standards	Uniform and specific vision of what students should know and be able to do in ELA

Classroom Setting. Each class period convened in an ATHS classroom with a desk for each student. During Phase 1, all desks faced Miss Basil at the front of the classroom. During Phase 2, after meeting in this classroom, we often moved to the library or computer lab. When in the classroom, desks were often moved into groups of students facing each other, or in a large circle for a class discussion.

Measures

Several instruments were used to investigate differences in student development across Phase 1 and Phase 2. Each measure is described below. Through the lens of CHAT, each measure can only be understood within the context of the entire class experience as well as historical context. Therefore, interactions between measures and contexts will additionally be considered and discussed below. Though the collection of data and data analysis, a syncretic frame allowed for a look toward practical instances and theories outside of previously considered categories. The following sections describe preset categorizations of measures, updates on instruments and measures throughout the process, and interactions between measures.

Field notes. I recorded daily fieldnotes with paper and pencil during class time and during/after discussions with Miss Basil. The notes were modeled on the Fieldnote outline included in the Appendix of Gutiérrez & Vossoughi (2010). Notes include: general site observations related to the setting; narrative of activities and actions within the classroom; task-level summaries of specific activities and goals; and reflection/analysis as a way to make sense of the day's events. Field notes were typed by myself and undergraduate student researchers for analysis.

Surveys. As noted in Appendix A, three surveys were administered to students during class time. The surveys asked for feedback in terms of their learning and engagement. Additionally, students were asked to explain how engagement could best be interpreted by Miss Basil or myself. For example, students are asked to explain how they indicate engagement versus disengagement through their actions.

Course Assignments. Assignment completion and student grades on assignments were recorded throughout the study. Student grades were determined by Miss Basil based on

California Standards of ELA. Additionally, the content of student assignments was available for analysis.

Analysis

Measures gathered during Phase 1 and Phase 2 were compared. In line with CHAT, each measure helped us understand the development of students and the changing community within the classroom (Gutiérrez, 2007). The Constant Comparative Method guided qualitative analysis (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) of data. The first step involved Open Coding (Strauss, 1987). During this phase, I swept through the data and coded meaning at the smallest level possible, in an attempt to remain true to what participants said or wrote. As each new code was created to describe a piece of the data, I created a definition for each code in a codebook. Open coding continued until I no longer found new codes within the data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

After saturation, I started phase two of data analysis called Axial Coding, where I begin looking for larger categories of themes that cut across data (Corbin & Strauss 2008; Strauss, 1987). I focused on data that revolved around one category (or axis) at a time (Strauss, 1987). I focused on understanding student development and community dynamics along lines of academic literacy, engagement, and agency. I searched for relationships and meaning between codes. Lastly, I used Selective Coding to determine main themes in the data (Strauss, 1987). Throughout each of these steps, CHAT and the research question provided a clear focus (Lincoln & Guba, 1985) for the analysis. At the same time, a syncretic lens was also used to notice and seek understanding about practices not yet understood.

Through the second and third stages of coding, findings were checked across the measures listed above. I lead analysis, because I had the most dedicated time for this. During the initial stages of analysis, I met twice per week with the team of undergraduate researchers to

discuss the first step of coding the data. I relayed our understanding of codes to Miss Basil and the high school students for feedback and suggestions through casual conversations outside of class time.

Findings

Expanded Learning, Participation, and Engagement

Learning, within the frame of CHAT is understood in terms of expanded participation within the activity system of the classroom. During Phase 2, as compared to Phase 1, an expansion in participation bloomed with the affordance of more invitations to participate. During Phase 1, students tended to work silently and individually on assignments. More time was spent listening to the teacher, reading, copying information from the board or working on worksheets. In contrast, during Phase #2, students spent more time engaged in discussion, collaborating within groups, and using computers.

Of course these differences do not represent a comparison across similar conditions. Therefore, there is not a "normative" delineation of student development across the same measures. However, the allowance for an expanded presentation of student knowledge is notable in itself and should be considered across all findings described below. Notably, the below sections describe how the comparison across several measures during Phase 1 and Phase 2 paints a rich picture of improvement on ELA measures, increased student interest and engagement, greater sense of empowerment, and greater passion for class work. The combination of such growth lends itself to expanded notions of students' ability and expanded notions of schooling.

Expanded Understanding of ELA class. The increase in engagement and empowerment may be traced to the broadened relationship between ELA and students' lives, during Phase 2 as compared to Phase 1. Students' perceptions of how their ELA course was relevant to their life

changed based on their expanded notion of what ELA could entail and how ELA was relevant to their lives at the end of Phase 2. At the end of the third week of school (i.e., toward the beginning of Phase 1), students were asked "Is what you learn in this English class relevant to your life outside of school?" in a survey. Students' open ended responses to the questions are summarized in Table 3.

Table 3

Student Perceptions of Course Relevance

How is this course relevant to your life out of school	# (%) students
Grammar	19
Vocabulary	9
Job	6
Spoken Communication	6
Future Career	6
Future Schooling	4
Transfer to other high school classes	3
Written communication	3
Organizational skills	2
Computer use	1
Relevant for everything	1
To write music	1
Ideas to expand my mind	1

The majority of student responses to the question represent a rote understanding of the importance of ELA in students' lives. It was not that students did not see how rote learning in school was relevant to their lives outside of school. Rather, their conceptions of this relationship were largely limited to relations through grammar, vocabulary, spoken communication, and technical skills for future endeavors. While one student mentioned the use of ELA to expand his mind, the rest of the responses did not reach beyond technical relationships to the outside world.

The contrast between these responses and responses after Phase 2, reveal an expanded notion of the role of ELA in students' lives. .

Table 4 summarizes student responses to the survey question "What are the most valuable things you have learned so far in this English class?" asked at the end of the first semester (i.e., after Phase 2). The question asked for open ended responses. By the end of Phase 2, students reported several valuable lessons from their ELA course, outside of technical lessons their answers were limited to in Phase 1. For example, students not only noted their ELA course as valuable because of academic literacy skills they learned, but they valued learning the importance of their own agency, hard work, responsibility, and they valued the sense of community formed in their classroom. Some students also valued learning about issues important to their communities, the need to consider multiple perspectives, and improved self-confidence. The contrast between ideas of how their ELA course is relevant and meaningful to their lives, marks a distinct expansion in the ways students viewed their ELA course after Phase 2 as compared to Phase 1.

Table 4

Students' Reported Most Valuable Learning Experiences in their ELA course after Phase 2

Most valuable learning experience	# of students
Academic literacy skills	12
The importance and capability of individual voice and agency	9
Importance of hard work and responsibility	5
Sense of community	5
An understanding of important issues	4
An understanding of the need to consider multiple perspectives	3
Self confidence	2
Organizational skills	1

Learning that ELA class can be engaging

Students' expanded notion of ELA as meaningful to their lives was particularly illustrated at the beginning of Phase 2, when students were asked to choose a topic that interested them to focus on for their persuasive project. A contradiction seemed to arise for some students, who did not see "their interests" and "school projects" as related. This occurred during the first day in the computer lab, where students were given class time to choose a topic and begin their research into this topic. A few students made light of the idea that they would complete an assignment based on something that interested them. To them, this was an oxymoron. This space of contradiction opened a space of expansion in the ways these students, Miss Basil, and I experienced this ELA class.

Two young men in particular, Nathan and Alejandro, shared their views of how their interests seemed contradictory to anything related to school. During our time in the computer lab, these two young men sat for most of the period using internet search engines as well as their own brains to list topics for their research project. They searched online using keywords such as: "research topic ideas" and "ideas for persuasive essays." Results from such searches did not spark their interest. They considered choosing a topic they were not interested in, so they could move forward. However, I continually checked in with and encouraged them not to settle for something they did not care about. I asked them to think through what they were interested in and topics they were passionate about, even if they did not see these topics are relevant to school in any way.

This led Nathan and Alejandro to telling me, "We would like to be at school less...so how about we choose the topic of having a shorter school day." They also mentioned topics they found online such as "DDT" and "Gap year." I supported any topic they mentioned but always

asked, "Why do you think that is a good idea? What interests you in the topic? How about you look at research into the pros and cons of this topic and see if this is something you care about?" Their answers to these questions or brief research into any of these topics did not spur their interest. They continued to brainstorm.

Eventually, I asked Nathan and Alejandro about what political topics they originally chose to research during Phase 2. On the day of that assignment, Nathan let me know that he chose the "death penalty" as a topic because his uncle was killed by the death penalty. Nathan had a clear emotional distain for the death penalty. I did not want to push Nathan into choosing this topic but I wanted to bring it to his consciousness in case it was something he would like to further research. After casually asking this and letting the young men share their topics, I left them to further brainstorming.

By the next time I visited their group, Nathan and Alejandro chose to complete their research project on the death penalty. It is possible that Nathan may have been hesitant to choose a topic he felt so strongly about in class, but eventually Nathan and Alejandro saw a chance to research something they were passionate about and deeply engaged in the material. Their passion spurred much research into the topic, including the racist implications of who has been put to death in the United States. During the presentation, the young men powerfully shared several statistics from memory, to make an argument against the death penalty. The class clapped loudly after the presentation, in admiration and support.

After the completion of research presentations during Phase 2, Miss Basil facilitated a class discussion to reflect on the project. During this discussion, Nathan volunteered to answer Miss Basil's question about whether this topic felt like work by saying "I like that we can pick something we are passionate about and that interested us." Describing his class topic as

something he is passionate about and interested in, marks a sharp contrast between his previous reluctance toward the belief that a school topic could be interesting.

During this group discussion, other students also mentioned feeling passionate about their projects. Since passion is such a strong word, all students' were probed about their passion for their final project. On the post-survey students were asked if they felt "passionate about the issue they chose for their research project." Thirty eight of forty- one (93%) students answered affirmatively. One student, Aliah, said that the allowance to choose a topic that was relevant and important to her, and that she was passionate about, made working on the project come naturally. Another student, Cary, described her desire to research and present on gay rights because her brother is gay and "it hurts me to see that he is gay and he does not have the rights that straight people do." Overall, students described rich, meaningful feelings associated with their project and their topics. Descriptions of school work as interesting, natural, and a source of passion is at odds with typical descriptions of school as only relevant within school walls.

Improved Grades and Assignment Completion. While the sample size and nature of the comparison does lend itself to tests of statistical significance, differences between completion and grades on project assignments are notable. Students received higher scores along ELA standards during Phase 2 compared to Phase 1. Table 6 displays such differences. During Phase 1, students were assigned to write two essays which are included as Assignment 1A and Assignment 1B in Table 5. These essays were chosen as a comparison to the final project in Phase 2 because they involved time outside of class and required work across several class periods. Other assignments are not listed because they were limited to answering questions about literature or writing word definitions, rather than coming up with original work.

Improvement in grades represents improved demonstrations of ELA content standards across Phase 1 versus Phase 2. While the specific content standards varied across assignments, each grading rubric was created by the teacher, in line with ELA content standards. Therefore, the improvement from an average grade of 77% and 78% in Phase 1 (on Assignment 1A and 1B respectively) to an average grade of 91% in Phase 2, represents greater demonstrations of content standards covered during each Phase. Additionally, in contrast to the assignments in Phase 1, where 81% of students turned in the first assignment and 71% of students completed the second assignment, every student completed the project assignment assigned during Phase 2.

Table 5

Comparison of Writing Assignments across Phase 1 and 2

	Phase 1		Phase 2
	Assignment 1A	Assignment 1B	Assignment 2A
% turned in	82%	71%	100%
# turned in	50/56	40/56	58/58
Average grade	78%	77%	91%
Grade range	13 (65%) to 20 (100%)	12 (60%) to 19 (95%)	39 (78%) - 48 (96%)
Total possible points	20	20	50
# eligible students	56	56	58

Of course, there are several possible explanations for differences in grades and assignment completion. For example, the assignment in Phase 2 was worth more points, and may be speculated to be completed at a greater rate for this reasons. However, the improved grades and assignment completion align with improvements in interest, engagement, and passion.

The following example demonstrates for at least one student, the decision to complete the assignment had nothing to do with grades. For Sandra, assignment completion explicitly transcended a focus on grades. Rather, Sandra was soon leaving ATHS to attend a correctional program, therefore completion of the project did not matter toward her grades, since she would be starting from scratch at her new program. Sandra had previously failed to turn in multiple assignments in both her ELA course as well as other courses she was enrolled in. Despite the increased time investment required to complete the final project for Phase 1, Sandra came to class and presented her project with her partner. When I asked her why she went through the effort to present, even though her grade did not matter, she said that she worked hard on the topic, she felt strongly about her argument, and she wanted to share her research with the class. Subsequent sections further describe student expression of interest, engagement, and empowerment through participation in Phase 2 that transcend a focus on grades.

Increased Time Investment. Another possible explanation for increased assignment completion of Assignment 2A (during Phase 2) could be the amount of time required for completion. If Assignment 2A was easily completed, the increased percentage of students turning in the assignment would not be as notable. However, 24 out of 40 (i.e., 60%) of students who completed a survey, reported spending more time on Assignment 2B than on other projects throughout the course.

Students' reports of increased time spent on the project corroborated with observed accounts of students' time to complete Assignment 2A. Most students chose to stay after class, come in before school, or stay after school to work on Assignment 2A. Additionally, several groups asked me to work with them during these times. One student in particular, Anthony,

demonstrated an increased time investment that was not expected based on his historical participation at ATHS.

Anthony, asked me to come in before school to help him with Assignment 2A, which focused on racism and discrimination. When I let Miss Basil know that I planned to meet Anthony before school to work with him, she told me to call Anthony's parents to make sure Anthony would actually show up. Miss Basil wanted to save me from coming to ATHS before the start of school in the likely case (as she thought) that Anthony would not show up. However, I chose to respect Anthony's agreement with me, rather than involve his parents. Anthony arrived an hour before school, as the only student in the halls with me, to work through his project.

Over the course of the project, Anthony shared several personal stories with me of how racism affected his life. He explained that he felt validated to learn that people specifically research racism. He found solace in knowing that others are invested in illuminating and working against problems of racism in our society. He also met me in Miss Basil's class, while Miss Basil worked through her lunch break on other work, during one lunch period. After this meeting, Miss Basil let me know she was blown away by the high levels of thinking and articulation Anthony demonstrated through our discussions. Such an example shows that historical accounts of student engagement in school are partially a product of the school environment. Anthony is known by most teachers as a student who is "disengaged in school" and "not particularly bright." When provided a context to pursue a topic of his choice, Anthony demonstrated a passion toward learning, large time investments, and high level thinking skills.

The increase in time spent on the project, by Anthony and most others, lead to further questions about what lead to greater time investment for students. Students who spent more time on the final assignment provided the reasons for their increased time investment on Assignment

2A, as displayed in Table 6. Students reported interest and caring in their project topics, a desire to produce a quality final product, feeling a sense of being pushed to think, motivation to present in front of the class and share their perspectives, and the belief that the project was fun and exciting.

Table 6

<i>Reasons Students Spent More Time on the Final Project</i>	
Reasons students spent more time on final project	# students
<i>Reasons that suggest engagement with the project</i>	
Interest in learning more about a particular topic	6
Wanted a quality final product	5
Cared about the topic	3
Thought evoking	2
Motivated by presentation to class	1
Desire to convince the class	1
Rare Chance to express own voice to class	1
The project was fun	1
The project was important to me	1
<i>Logistical reasons</i>	
Research is time consuming	5
Time consuming to schedule with group members	3
This was the first project	1
Did not have competition with other courses	1
Difficult to blend ideas of group mates - differing views	1

One student explained that he spent more time on the project "because this project was the best one yet because it hit me real good and I started thinking." Another student said "I put a lot of thinking into this and I also learned some interesting things." Such descriptions of student time investment in material align with their time investment, as well as desire to share their findings with the class. For example, one student said "I wanted to make a point. I wanted to convince my class mates on why The Dream Act is a good thing." Another student said, "I felt it (my topic) was a big problem and I wanted to express it as best as I could." Such responses point

to investment in the project for reasons deeper than earning a grade or to going through the motions of school. The following section further describes differences in student interest in course assignments between Phase 1 and Phase 2.

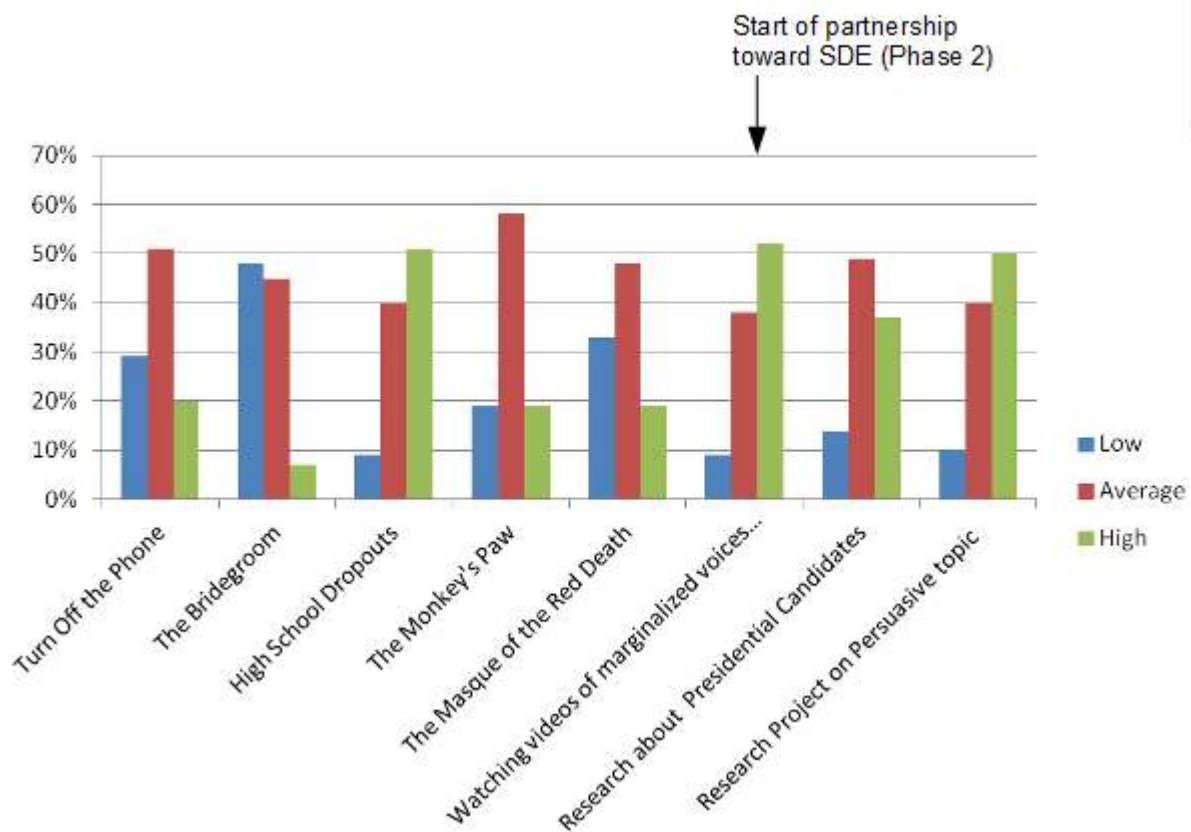
Increased Interest. The above measures of learning and engagement can be further understood in light of students' reports of higher interest in assignments during Phase 2 than Phase 1. During Phase 1, the "Turn Off the Phone Unit" involved reading two news articles about cell phone use and writing an opinion paper about the points of view. Twelve students (29%) reported low interest, twenty-one (51%) of students reported average interest, and eight students (20%) reported high interest in this activity. "The Bridegroom" involved reading a poem by Alexander Pushkin, answering short questions about the story and writing a short essay. Twenty students (48%) reported low interest, nineteen (45%) of students reported average interest, and three students (7%) reported high interest in this activity. "High School Dropouts" involved reading two short articles about the high school dropout crisis and answering one of three essay prompts related to the high school dropout problem. Four students (9%) reported low interest, seventeen (40%) of students reported average interest, and twenty-two students (51%) reported high interest in this activity. "The Monkey's Paw" involved reading a story and answering questions about content in the story. Nine students (19%) reported low interest, twenty-five (58%) of students reported average interest, and nine students (19%) reported high interest in this activity. "The Masque of the Red Death" involved reading a story and answering questions about content in the story. Fourteen students (33%) reported low interest, twenty (48%) of students reported average interest, and eight students (19%) reported high interest in this activity.

When Phase 2 began, the first activity involved watching videos of marginalized voices (i.e., a description of why history should be told from different perspectives by Howard Zinn)

and completing a worksheet on the use of rhetorical devices. Four students (9%) reported low interest, sixteen (38%) of students reported average interest, and twenty-two students (52%) reported high interest in this activity. In relation to the research about presidential candidates lead to six students: (14%) reported low interest, twenty-one (49%) of students reported average interest, and sixteen students (37%) reported high interest in this activity. In relation to the final research project on a persuasive topic chosen by students lead to four students: (10%) reported low interest, seventeen (40%) of students reported average interest, and twenty-one students (50%) reported high interest in this activity. See Figure 1 below.

Figure 1

Student Interest in Course Assignments



Increased Excitement and Energy

On the second day of Phase 2, one young man, Juan, entered the classroom early and asked Miss Basil if they would discuss the presidential debate today in class, since they watched it during the previous class period. When Miss Basil answered positively, Juan said "Nice!" Before Phase 2, students did not typically ask Miss Basil about what they would be doing during the class period. This question marks a new type of anticipation about the class and a thought process indicating a desire for certain activities.

Field notes also indicated that the class increased in volume during Phase 2 compared to Phase 1. One day, as students were in the midst of a full group discussion about the topics they chose, Jorge asked Miss Basil "Remember when you used to say we were too quiet?" Miss Basil responded with a smile which demonstrated her happiness with students' eager participation in the class.

Energy through Incorporation of Home Culture

In contrast to Phase 1, Phase 2 explicitly valued and integrated students' culture, out of school knowledge, and community needs within the classroom. This integration brought an intense energy into the classroom and seemed to increase the feeling of closeness within the classroom. On the first day of Phase 2, when the (at the time) current presidential campaign provided an introduction to the unit on persuasion and rhetorical devices, students were asked for their foundational information about the presidential candidates. One student, Roger, described that his family was upset with Romney for saying he was from Mexico to try to earn votes. When Miss Basil asked what source of information Roger used for this information, the class murmured their collective assumption that they believed it was a Spanish station. Roger confirmed the assumption, stating that his source came from a news source on the Spanish

station his parents watched. The class laughed loudly at this information, in a way that seemed they did not believe it was something appropriate to say within the classroom. However, Miss Basil assured the class that Spanish channels were not less credible than English channels. That it is important to be aware of different sources of information and think about the perspectives of different sources. The class looked surprised but also validated to hear that the Spanish station was something they could discuss during class. About a week later, when students were assigned to gather their own research about issues important to them, Miss Basil specifically mentioned "El Piolin" and other Spanish news sources as potential sources of information. The class again laughed. The volume of laughter indicated a very high energy in the class, which sharply contrasted with typically very silent class time (i.e., either through Miss Basil's instructional time or silent work time for students) during most of Phase 1.

A Focus on Social Justice and Democracy

Student interest and participation in class activities are key signs of democratic and socially just practices in schools, because we know these are integral keys to student learning. However, social justice and democracy, through the frame of this paper should also be outcomes of instruction. The following section describes an increase in a students' perceptions of their own knowledge and agency to engage in democratic processes after Phase 2.

Increased Capacity to Engage in Democracy. Students reported greater levels of empowerment through capacity to become involved within their communities as a result of participating in Phase 2. Thirty five out of forty-one students (85%) reported feeling more informed about how to get involved with a political issue and to make after participation in Phase 2. Thirty-three of forty-two students (79%) reporting believing their voice is important to solving issues important to their community. Thirty-eight of forty-six students (82%) reported believing

their community is important to solving issues important to their community. Additional components of social justice and democracy are further described below, in sections that cross boundaries between learning, engagement, and empowerment.

Community Building. A stronger sense of community emerged within the classroom during Phase 2 than during Phase 1. When asked on the post-survey if students "felt closer to any students in the class" after the final project, just over half (52%) answered "yes." As a follow up response, reasons for the increased closeness included an increased familiarity with students, a greater understanding of students' passions, improved understanding of classmates' perspectives, more chances to talk, and shared personal stories. A full list of responses are presented in Table.

7.

Table 7

Reasons Students Felt Closer to Classmates after their Research Projects

Reason	# students
Grew to know classmate(s) better	10
Understand what classmates' interests/passions	4
Understand classmates points of view	3
Chance to talk more	3
Shared personal stories	2
Had fun with classmates	1
Built a friendship	1
Found out about similar interests/passions	1
Worked as a team	1
Produced a good project together	1

Additionally, a sense of community emerged based on the teamwork involved during Phase 2 in addition to the vulnerability associated with discussing and presenting on topics important to the lives of youth in the class. Students had faced many inequalities through their lives that do not tend to be acknowledged by standardized curriculums. Such hardships were not

acknowledged during Phase 1 of this study. Three examples a strengthened sense of community in the classroom.

First, during Phase 2, during a group presentations on immigration, Maria, started to cry as she shared that her dad had been deported. As she cried, students within her group gave her a hug. Additionally, before Miss Basil could share words of comfort, one male student, Jorge showed support from his seat. In front of the whole class, without asking for permission to speak, he told a story of how deportation affected his family, including the fact that his mother was deported and not allowed back into the US to even attend his brother's funeral during the previous year. He ended his story by saying "I understand how you feel."

For context, Jorge was a student that recently decided to come back to school after gang involvement and time in the juvenile justice system. His actions throughout this study demonstrate that he is an incredibly smart leader. Through my entire involvement within the classroom, Jorge had a clear grace and charm that he shared with the class. However, the history of his involvement at AHS was marked by a perceived lack of investment and he was labeled as a troubled ex-gang member. Clearly, as shown in this example, Jorge had capacity to utilize his life experiences and knowledge for the good of the community. During Phase 2, he particularly shined as a leader and a community builder. His leadership in this case, comforted Maria, and helped her feel power to continue with her presentation.

Secondly, group presentations also connected one particularly isolated student to the class. Brittany chose to work alone on the final project in Phase 2 (as well as on all projects through the course). Brittany shared with me that she felt isolated in the class. She was the only African American female student in the class. She also lived in a group home and spent her free time with others that lived in the group home. She was not allowed to stay after school, because

she needed to take her ride home. Upon noticing her isolation, I asked if she wanted me to connect her with other students along her same interests. She thanked me, but quietly let me know that she would rather work alone. Therefore, the final project did not yield friendships for her as intended. However, the class presentation created a space for the class to show their support for her.

Brittany presented on the wide-spread problem and effects of child abuse. Brittany spent extensive time on her project. She presented detailed research and statistics about the number of children affected by child abuse. She showed heart wrenching pictures of the effects of abuse. Through her power-point presentation, she played emotional music to further represent the gravity of the problem. She drew the class into her argument in a powerful way. While Brittany did not ever say that she was a victim of abuse, she mentioned the number of children that end up in foster care because of this problem. She also mentioned the prevalence of abuse among foster children. As a child in the foster system herself, a line could be drawn to connect Brittany very personally to this problem. At the end of her presentation, students immediately showed support for Brittany through loud clapping and cheering after the conclusion of her presentation. Additionally, before Miss Basil could ask Brittany questions, classmates rose their hand so they could share that they did not know about this problem and were sad to hear about these statistics. One student mentioned that music Brittany chose for her presentation helped make her point about the problem. The feeling of emotional support in the classroom was strong. Brittany seemed to feel this support and validation through her body posture.

Phase 2 also nurtured stronger connections between Miss Basil and her students. During Phase 2 Miss Basil shared personal stories in the classroom, which created more personal connections and understanding between Miss Basil and students. This sharing also seemed to set

the precedent for future discussions of race and inequality. For example, toward the beginning of Phase 2, Miss Basil shared personal experiences with prejudice and stereotypes as an African American growing up within the town the students' lived. Students intently listened any time Miss Basil shared such stories. Through her sharing, Miss Basil articulated a clear understanding of students' experiences and validated their struggles based on their shared experiences as nondominant individuals in our society. In casual conversations with me, several students mentioned that they experienced racial stereotyping similar to the stories Miss Basil shared with the class. Antonio also mentioned that such stories helped him feel comfortable choosing a topic as sensitive as racism for his final project. He appreciated that Miss Basil understood the kind of stereotypes he consistently experienced as a young man of color. He also appreciated the opportunity to discuss such topics in class. During the end of group reflection on Phase 2, several students mentioned their interest in learning about other's topics and learning about individual stories.

Expansive Cycle of Expectations, Engagement, and Empowerment

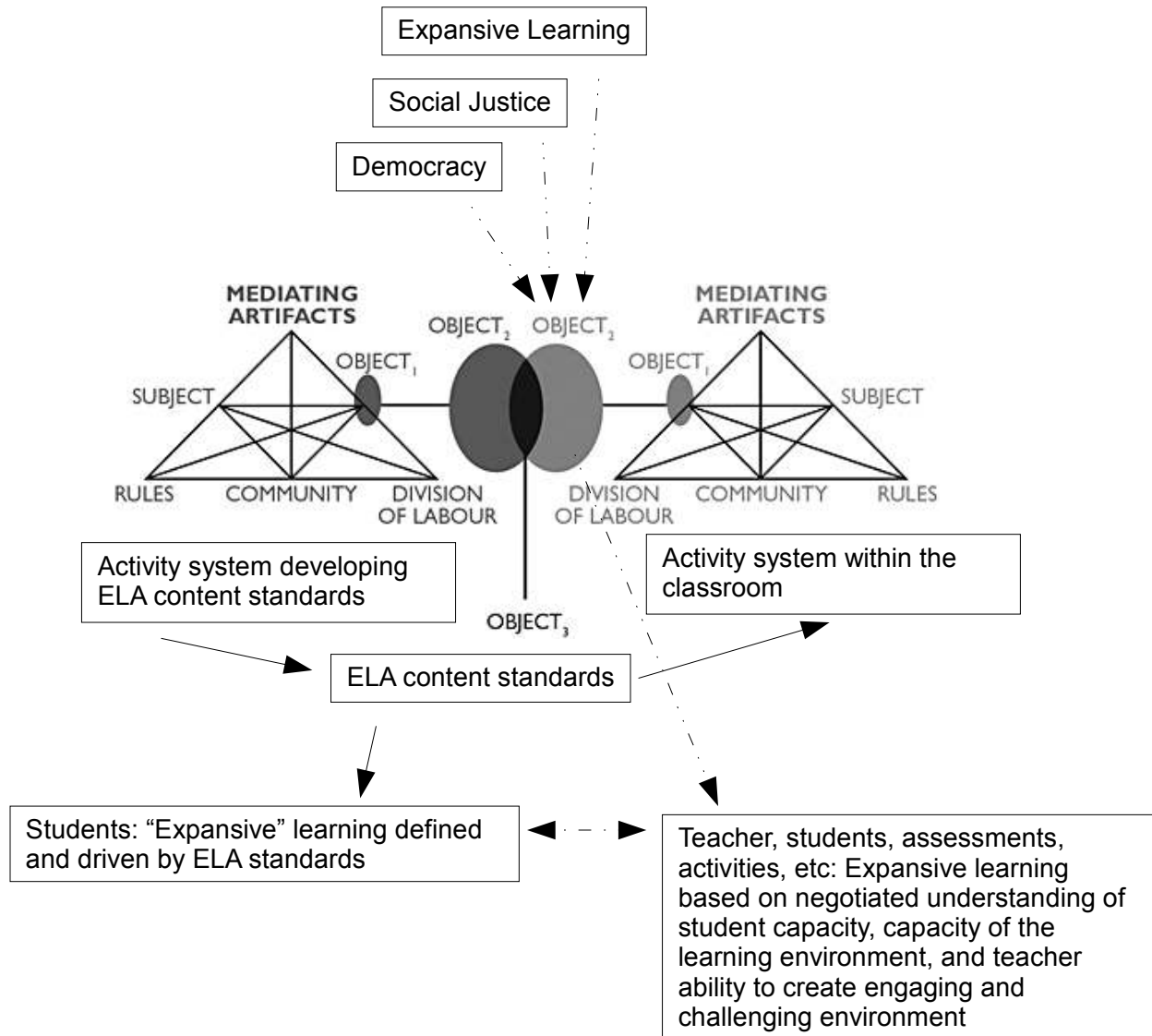
During the group discussion after students finished their final products during Phase 2, Miss Basil told me that she now felt pressure for the rest of the year to engage and challenge students. She noted that now her expectations of the students were higher and students' expectations of the course were higher. She noted that before, she was afraid to ask for too much out of students academically. She did not want to frustrate them or set them up for failure. For example, Miss Basil said that across the school, teachers assigned minimal homework, because they did not think students would complete assignments. However, after students excelled in these high level projects, Miss Basil said that she now knows the high level of literacy and technology that students are capable of. She noted, for example, that creating videos is a difficult

task that did not realize students had an expertise in. She was impressed by the organization and presentation of material through videos and the ways students worked through multiple iterations of trouble shooting to solve problems and produce well-polished, persuasive products. Based on her new perceptions of students, Miss Basil raised her expectations for students.

Through the frame of CHAT, expansive learning denotes an evolution in repertoires of practice and understanding. Through Phase 2, Miss Basil, the students, and I expanded notions about each other's capabilities. These expanded understandings were made possible through open ended assignments and through the welcoming of students' culture, ideas, and experiences. Figure 2 depicts the difference between notions of expansive learning between Phase 1 and Phase 2. During Phase 1, ELA content standards and the standardized pacing guide determined what was valued in the classroom. Whereas, during Phase 2, Miss Basil created an environment open to exploration of students' assets and ideas. Negotiated understandings during Phase 2 lead to higher levels of participation, interest, engagement, and expectations among students, Miss Basil, and I.

Figure 2

Comparison of Opportunities for Expansive Learning between Phase 1 and Phase 2



Discussion

Implications

Expanded repertoires of participation, engagement, passion, and expectations during classroom instruction aimed to promote social justice and democracy illuminate promising

possibilities that were not imagined during typical instruction. The promise of effective instruction aligns with past literature showing that students need the right environment to succeed. (e.g., Moll & Gonzalez, 2001). The comparative nature of this study allowed for a clear evaluation of how important the learning environment is to promoting student achievement.

Additionally, while Miss Basil was not the focus of the study, findings revealed a notably expanded understanding of students' assets and capabilities through the SDE. As Ladson-Billings (1993) notes, critical consciousness and high expectations for students are prerequisites toward Culturally Responsive Pedagogy. In the same way, it can be argued that critical consciousness and high expectations are prerequisites of implementation of democratic and socially just ELA instruction. Miss Basil already had high levels of critical consciousness. Through her participation in the SDE, she noted exposure to student assets she did not previously realize. This shows that helping teachers create environments that promote student assets, through the form of an SDE, is an important tool toward preparing teachers with high expectations. In other words, this study shows steps that can be taken to improve expectations (and possibly other previously considered prerequisites) for a teacher to implement effective pedagogy. The findings actually align with Lave and Wenger's (1991) apprenticeship model of learning, where exposure and practice lead to expertise. In this way, students (i.e., future or current teachers) can be exposed to promising practices through practice to develop requisite worldviews of students. This has important implications for teacher education programs. Specifically, programs interested in fostering social justice and democracy through teacher education may need to seek opportunities for training through SDEs with effective teachers. It may not be enough to tell teachers about nondominant students' assets, teachers may need help to expose these assets to open a cycle of expanded notions of students.

Phase 2 only lasted 6 weeks. This is not enough time to draw conclusions about students' expansive learning in terms of academic literacy. However, expansive learning across students' engagement with ELA became clear and shows promise for possibilities toward further expansive learning. Specifically, the following expansive processes were set into motion during Phase 2: Miss Basil's view of students' expertise and potential was expanded; students started to view their ELA class as a space that was intricately related to their lives and in which they could actively pursue their interests; and a sense of community was built in the classroom. As Morrell (2003) notes, students need reasons to engage in ELA classrooms before the development of academic or professional literacies can take place. "Students need a reason to read the book" (Morrell, 2003). This study shows that students can see reasons "to read the book" and engage in the classroom within the right context. An SDE is an effective tool to start this process toward inviting nondominant students into the learning process.

Considerations.

It is important to note the resources and time required to complete this study exceed typical ELA classroom resources. The SDE was designed and implemented in partnership with a willing teacher, willing students, and a PhD student with time to engage in the SDE design process. Therefore, the study is not meant to be representative of the typical classroom experience. However, the study shows ways that promising pedagogy can be infused into the regular school day. Additionally, the logistics and resources needed to implement this pedagogy inform possible reform needs to make such pedagogy possible.

Future Studies

The current study was limited in time in scope. Future studies should continue to investigate how to measure the impacts of SDEs within public school classrooms. SDE

principles highlight the importance of measuring actions and practices to understand development. Rather than simply using written tests to measure development, measures of effectiveness need to account for expansion across entire activity systems. In the case of this study, expanded ways of thinking about ELA and expanded expectations of students were evident. This expansion was measured through several time intensive tools, such as field notes and surveys. Further investment in the conceptualization of how to best measure expansive learning are needed. Namely, measure of expansive learning that capture democratic and socially just practices are needed to inform discussions at the school, state, and national level about curriculum and assessment reform.

Additionally, strides need to be taken systematically, so that expansive learning processes within classrooms are not isolated within classrooms. Rather, expansive learning requires opportunities for expansive learning across activity systems, including (but not limited to) school systems, systems of testing and curriculum development, and discipline systems. Therefore, future studies should look across systems within schools and the larger educational community to figure out how expansive learning within classrooms translates to learning across systems.

Lastly, this study shows the importance of working with and learning from youth and teachers toward educational reform. Youth are redefining what literacy is (Morrell, 2003). Teachers are in the trenches working with the contexts they are dealt to educate our youth. Rather than ignore or reject what we do not understand, as educators and researchers, we need to engage with students and teacher to learn with them and move toward new understandings and possibilities of democracy and social justice in ELA instruction together.

Chapter 4

Conclusion

This dissertation highlights a significant and growing wealth of theoretical and practical knowledge available to situate, design, implement, and assess education for democracy and social justice. CHAT in conjunction with frames of social justice and democracy illuminate how development and learning are conceptualized and fostered within and educational systems, including classrooms. In the first paper, the review of theories that shed light on the creation of ELA instruction for democracy and social justice instruction illuminates a wealth of information for educators to use. Continuing to look across such theories will illuminate potential synergies, lessons, and gaps we need to fill in order to move toward systematic implementation of instruction for democracy and social justice in public classrooms.

In the second paper, a focus on the design process points out the importance of design-based research to understand how theories can work together to inform practice and how practice can inform theories. This paper also illuminates promises and limitations within Cultural Historical Activity Theory, when paired with lenses that illuminate power and politics within classrooms, toward the creation of education for social justice and democracy. Specifically, theories of expansive learning within CHAT describe how expansive learning and transformation occurs through interactions between contradicting views. Illuminating whose views are invited into the conversation toward the design, implementation, and assessment of learning environments sheds light on whose views will shape these processes. Therefore, for education reach the goal of a truly democratic and socially just system, activity systems must foster the sharing of perspectives across nondominant communities, not just as a top down approach from those already in power.

Lastly, the third paper illuminates several benefits of transformative education that were not recognized as benefits before the start of the process. Social design experiments within public school classrooms provide a helpful tool to illuminate contradictions, possibilities, and challenges toward sustainable education for education and social justice. Such practice based approaches, also become part of the solution to the problem as even small spaces provide spaces of promise and possibility that we may not imagine to grow.

Together, these studies illuminate the importance of creating spaces of education for social justice and democracy, due to the possibilities that it creates and the possibility of such studies to lead to innovative thinking and better outcomes for current students and for the system as whole. Transparency of processes and frameworks rings clear as a necessity to recognizing spaces of promise and obstacles toward truly transformative education. CHAT when paired with frameworks focused on democratic and socially just practices and processes illuminates possibilities and problems within current systems in terms of expansive learning.

In short, there is a clear contradiction between ideals of meritocracy, democracy, and social justice, espoused by our country and the systematic perpetuation of marginalization and oppression of nondominant people within the country. The study sheds light on the need for a greater understanding of how contradictions are negotiated within and across activity systems. We need to continue to create spaces of true partnerships and syncretic relationships between students, teachers, researchers, practice, theory, and the larger educational systems. Connections between theory and practice, founded in principles of democracy and social justice, can continue to provide theoretical and practice based explanations and possibilities not yet imagined.

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Appendix A

Timeline of the SDE Process

Date (Duration)	Description of Event/Process
Jan. 7 - June 13 (22 weeks)	I worked with undergraduates to design and conduct ethnography of student literacies and culture within Azalea town. We also discussed how our findings could related to high school ELA curriculum.
Sept. 5 - Oct. 23 (9 weeks)	Miss Basil designed and implemented lesson plans. I observed. Students participated during class time.
October 1 (once)	Miss Basil invited me to help in lesson planning for the unit beginning October 24.
Sept. 20 (20 mins)	Survey administered to students about students thoughts about the class and ways to improve lesson planning
Oct. 15 - Oct. 23 (1 week)	Miss Basil and Briana met daily between 15 and 60 minutes to design lesson plans for the unit on
Oct. 24 - Dec. 6 (6 weeks)	Collaboration between Miss Basil, students, and I to design, implement, and assess instruction around goals of social justice and democracy
Nov. 3 (20 mins)	Survey administered to students requesting feedback in terms of their learning, engagement and thoughts related to their ELA learning environment
Dec. 6 (30 mins)	Survey administered to students requesting feedback in terms of their learning, engagement and thoughts related to their ELA learning environment

Note: Weeks and months indicate five days per week (Monday - Friday) and do not include holidays.

Appendix B

Grading Rubric for Final Assignment of Phase 2

Final Assignment: Persuasion/Rhetorical Devices Rubric

CCR Writing/Speaking Standards 6-12 – Write/deliver arguments to support claims in an analysis of substantive topics using valid reasoning and relevant and sufficient evidence.

8	7	6	Introduce precise claim(s), distinguish the claim(s) from alternate or opposing claims, and create an organization that establishes clear relationships among claim(s), counterclaims, reasons, and evidence
8	7	6	Develop claim(s) and counterclaims fairly, supplying evidence for each while pointing the strengths and limitations of both in a manner that anticipates the audience’s knowledge level and concerns
8	7	6	Use words, phrases, and rhetorical devices to link ideas and evidence effectively
8	7	6	Establish and maintain a consistent tone and style
8	7	6	Provide a concluding statement or section that follows from and supports the argument presented
8	7	6	The assignment has been carefully proofread and contains correct spelling, punctuation, capitalization, and proper citation of resources (give credit to the source of any information you quote or reference). Proper formatting is evident, if applicable.