



Dyslexia: A State Guide

Introduction

The Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 (ESEA), as amended, provides States with an opportunity and flexibility to develop and adopt rigorous standards aligned with college-, career-, and community-related goals. Strengthening State standards has implications for all students—including students with disabilities, the majority of whom must master the same general education curriculum standards as their peers. Reading underpins core academic subjects and supports the development of literacy skills, including speaking, spelling, and writing ([Smith et al., 2021](#)).

Reading results from the [National Assessment of Educational Progress](#) (NAEP) highlight the critical need to develop students' ability to comprehend complex text. In 2022, NAEP reading results indicated that 33% of 4th-grade students and 31% of 8th-grade students performed at or above proficiency, a 2- and 3-percentage-point drop from 2019, respectively ([NAEP, 2024](#)). NAEP results further indicated that reading scores between 2002 and 2022 were relatively stagnant ([NAEP, 2024](#)). Although the measure of proficiency for these assessments is reading comprehension, research underscores the critical link between deriving meaning from text and a student's ability to read efficiently and accurately ([Shea & Ceperano, 2017](#)).



Improving reading proficiency requires a data-driven and evidence-based approach that considers all components of reading (e.g., phonological awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension) ([National Reading Panel, 2000](#)). Legislators, educators, researchers, families, and other stakeholders are vested in improving reading outcomes. Spurred by data from reading assessments (e.g., the NAEP and State standardized assessments) and a unified interest in improving reading outcomes, States have enacted legislation to provide support, guidance, and policy aimed at developing proficient readers.



As part of a comprehensive and multipronged approach to developing proficient readers and improving reading outcomes, 49 of 50 States have included legislative provisions for students with characteristics of dyslexia ([National Center on Improving Literacy, 2024](#)). The inclusion of dyslexia considerations in legislation stems from research. Research has placed the prevalence of dyslexia between 5% and 17% of schoolchildren ([Trafton, 2011](#)). However, research demonstrates that not all students with characteristics of dyslexia receive a dyslexia classification or qualify for services under the [Individuals with Disabilities Education Act of 2004 \(IDEA\)](#), suggesting that the number is most likely higher ([Meisinger et al., 2021](#); [Odegard et al., 2020](#)). The number of students who struggle with foundational reading acquisition may be closer to 61% ([Odegard et al., 2020](#)). This number is aligned with recent NAEP scores, which indicate that 63% of 4th-grade and 70% of 8th-grade students are below proficiency levels ([NAEP, 2024](#)). Similarly, students with dyslexia have poor reading comprehension, resulting from a deficient ability to process and integrate orthographical and phonological information to accurately and efficiently read text ([Meisinger et al., 2021](#)). These data highlight the importance for States to develop policies and procedures to appropriately provide responsive instruction and intervention, implement valid and reliable assessments, determine eligibility, and support the reading development of students with dyslexia.

Defining Dyslexia

Defining dyslexia is nuanced and often framed by common academic deficits ([Vaughn et al., 2024](#)), which may overshadow the many

strengths of students with characteristics of dyslexia. The [Eunice Kennedy Shriver National Institute of Child Health and Human Development \(NICHD\)](#) describes dyslexia as a reading disorder that entails “difficulties reading individual words and can lead to problems understanding text” (2020). Similarly, the [Mayo Clinic](#) characterizes dyslexia as a learning disability resulting from how the brain processes language and involves difficulty identifying speech sounds, connecting letter sounds to corresponding print, decoding, and encoding. Contemporary research commonly describes dyslexia as a lifelong language-based learning disability that is neurobiological in origin (e.g., [Andresen & Monsrud, 2022](#); [Snowling et al., 2020](#); and [Wolf et al., 2024](#)). Each of those descriptions is consistent with an expanded definition adopted in 2002 by the [International Dyslexia Association \(IDA\)](#), developed in collaboration with the [National Center for Learning Disabilities](#) and [NICHD](#). Several States have included the IDA definition of dyslexia in legislation and policy to support students with characteristics of dyslexia:

“Dyslexia is a specific learning disability that is neurobiological in origin. It is characterized by difficulties with accurate and/or fluent word recognition and by poor spelling and decoding abilities. These difficulties typically result from a deficit in the phonological component of language that is often unexpected in relation to other cognitive abilities and the provision of effective classroom instruction. Secondary consequences may include problems in reading comprehension and reduced reading experience that can impede growth of vocabulary and background knowledge” (2002).



Shaped by both genetic and environmental components, dyslexia transcends all races, ethnicities, socioeconomic backgrounds, and intellectual levels ([IDA, 2020](#)) and is present across world languages ([Erbeli et al., 2022](#)). Strong evidence suggests that dyslexia is inherited. It is estimated that students whose parents have dyslexia are 40% to 60% more likely to develop and share characteristics of dyslexia ([Schumacher et al., 2007](#)). Genetic factors that influence dyslexia stem from an inherited phonological deficit that affects a student's ability to hear, remember, or recall sounds in speech ([Erbeli et al., 2022](#)). Environmental factors such as socioeconomic status, home literacy environment, and family stresses shape dyslexia ([Dilnot et al., 2017](#)). Within the school context, environmental factors include cognitive demands of literacy (e.g., the length of text and difficulty of words), teaching strategies and supports (e.g., scaffolding and learning activities), and reactions of educators and peers (e.g., attitudes and beliefs), underscoring the importance of equitable instruction and supportive classroom culture for students with dyslexia ([Bazen et al., 2022](#)).

The complexity of dyslexia is shaped by its history. Multiple disciplines—including medicine, linguistics, social sciences (such as psychology), and education—have approached dyslexia from their perspectives to contribute to the research on dyslexia ([Helland, 2022](#)). Within education, [IDEA](#) recognizes dyslexia as a specific learning disability that can affect written or spoken language, including a student's ability to listen, read, write, and spell. According to the U.S. Department of Education ([ED, 2024](#)), "a specific learning disability" is the most prevalent

disability category served under IDEA. In 2021, 34.5% of students ages 5 through 21 receiving special education services were identified as having "a specific learning disability." This represents a total of 2,351,863 of the 6,815,457 students with disabilities. Although not all students with "a specific learning disability" have dyslexia, a significant number experience reading-related difficulties.

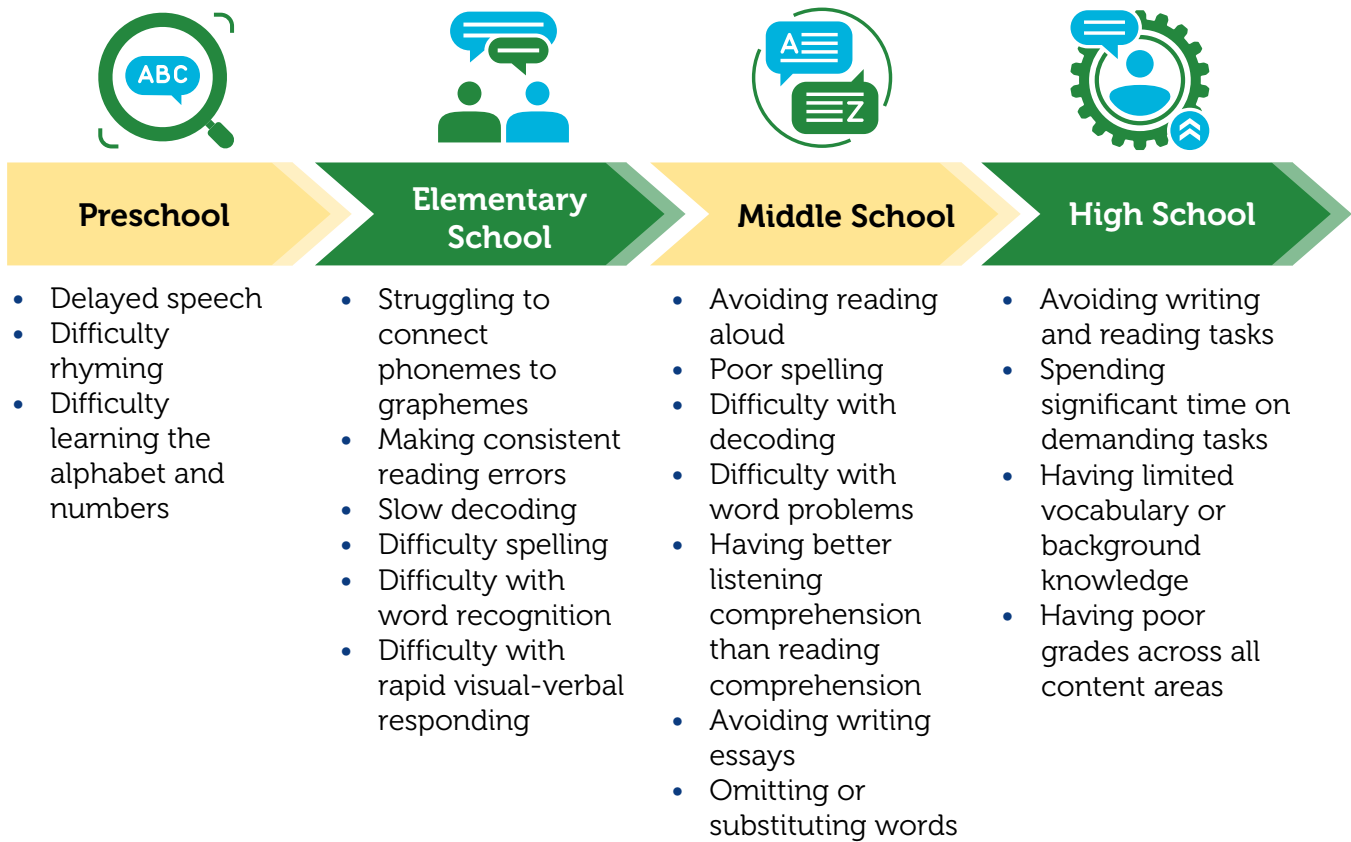
Attributes of Dyslexia

Common Characteristics

According to the [National Center on Improving Literacy](#) (NCIL), dyslexia is characterized as weaknesses in phonological processing, decoding, word recognition, oral reading fluency, and spelling. Given these weaknesses, students with dyslexia may also experience difficulty with phonemic awareness, writing, comprehension, and attention. Often, students with characteristics of dyslexia have negative experiences with reading-related tasks, leading them to choose not to read for enjoyment or to avoid reading aloud. Dyslexia may affect short-term memory, the ability to follow multistep directions, and organizational skills. Because they have challenges with reading, students with dyslexia may have low self-esteem, difficulty expressing themselves, anxiety, depression, and attention deficit, as well as exhibiting behavioral or emotional reactions ([Huang et al., 2020](#)).

Dyslexia manifests differently across grade bands. Figure 1 provides an overview of dyslexia as students progress from preschool through high school.

Figure 1: Characteristics of dyslexia across the grade bands



Understanding dyslexia requires educators to understand what dyslexia is *not*. Dyslexia is not an intellectual disability or primarily the result of a visual, hearing, or motor disability. A common misconception is that dyslexia entails the mixing up of letters or seeing letters backward. These false characterizations of dyslexia can be harmful and fail to recognize that when provided with evidence-based explicit instruction, targeted systematic instruction, and appropriate interventions and accommodations, students with dyslexia can experience academic success ([NCIL](#)).

Areas of Strength

Students with dyslexia can have many strengths. Educators can leverage these strengths to ensure students meet or exceed

rigorous grade-level standards. Students with dyslexia may excel in:

- Spatial reasoning
- Creativity
- Imagination
- Observation and curiosity
- Abstract thinking
- Three-dimensional thinking
- Reasoning
- Problem-solving
- Exhibiting empathy
- Long-term memory
- Resiliency



Federal Guidance for Dyslexia

Identification and Eligibility

[IDEA](#) recognizes dyslexia as a “specific learning disability,” which is defined as:

“a disorder in 1 or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or in using language, spoken or written, which disorder may manifest itself in the imperfect ability to listen, think, speak, read, write, spell, or do mathematical calculations ... includ[ing] such conditions as perceptual disabilities, brain injury, minimal brain dysfunction, dyslexia, and developmental aphasia” (IDEA, 2004).

IDEA further characterizes a “specific learning disability” as:

“a severe discrepancy between achievement and intellectual ability in oral expression, listening comprehension, written expression, basic reading skill, reading comprehension, mathematical calculation, or mathematical reasoning.”

According to guidance from the [Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services](#) (OSERS, 2015), the determination of whether students meet the criteria for “a specific learning disability” or any other disability category and thus are eligible for special education services must be conducted in accordance with 34 CFR sections 300.304–300.311. A local educational agency (LEA) must conduct a comprehensive assessment using multiple sources of data from a variety of assessment tools and strategies, including parent information, to evaluate eligibility for special education and related services (IDEA, 2004). Comprehensive assessment data are

Even though IDEA does not define dyslexia, there is nothing to prohibit State educational agencies (SEAs) or LEAs from using the term “dyslexia” in evaluations, eligibility determinations, or IEP documents (OSERS, 2015). For additional guidance, please review [OSERS’ “dear colleagues” letter dated October 23, 2015](#).

State Criteria for Identification and Evaluation

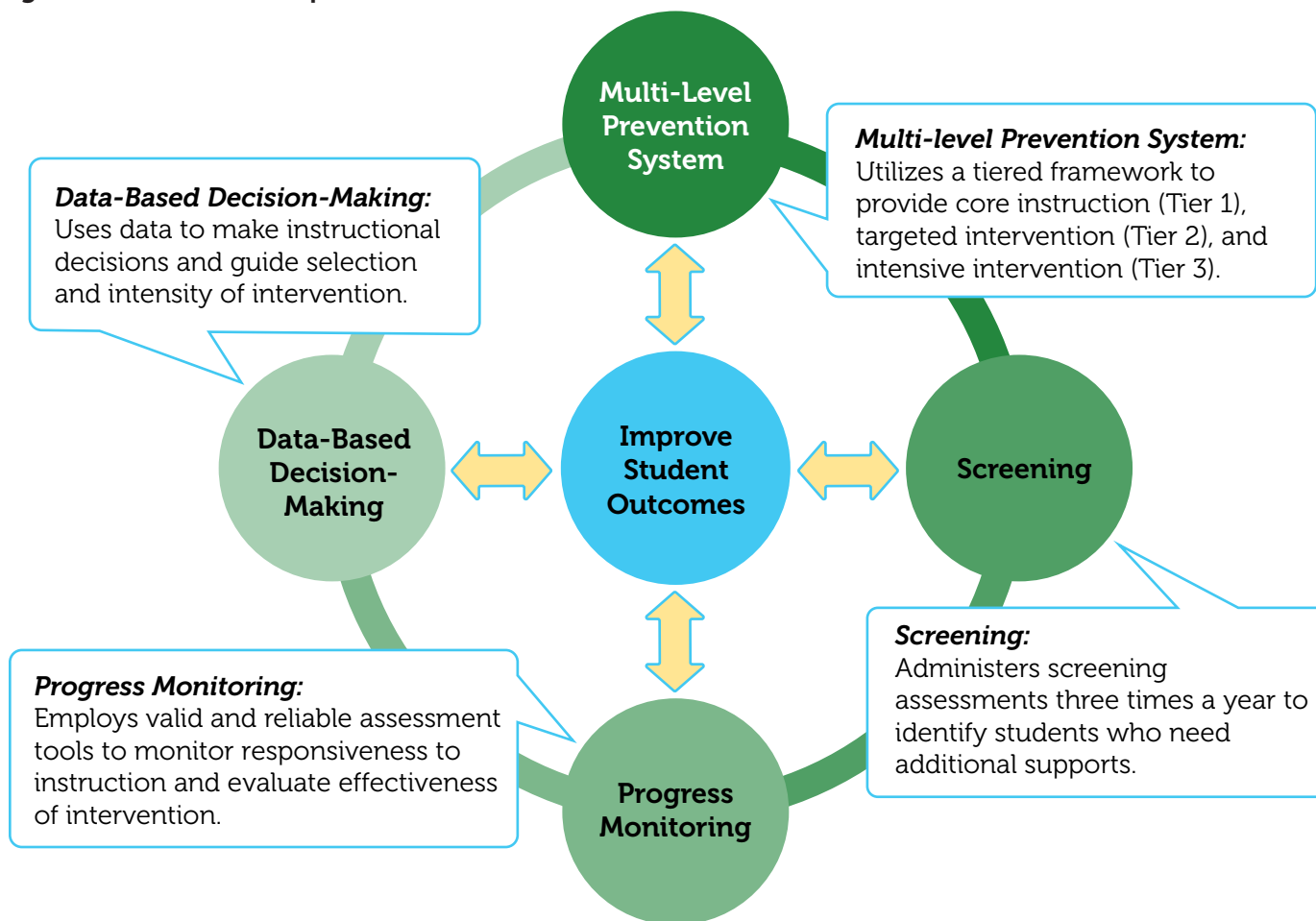
Consistent with IDEA (34 CFR 300.8[c][10]) and guidance from the [Office of Special Education Programs](#) (n.d.), States are required to adopt criteria to evaluate and identify whether a student has “a specific learning disability.” To learn more about IDEA regulations for identification of “a specific learning disability,” visit https://sites.ed.gov/idea/files/Identification_of_SLD_10-4-06.pdf.

used to establish whether a student has “a specific learning disability” and whether an individualized education program (IEP) would enable the student to participate and make progress in the general education curriculum (IDEA, 2004; OSERS, 2015).

Supporting Students With Dyslexia in a Multi-tiered System of Supports

To determine a student’s response to evidence-based instruction and intervention, States and districts can implement a multitiered system of supports (MTSS). An MTSS is a proactive and preventive problem-solving approach for providing high-quality instruction and intervention across intensifying tiers. According to the [Center on Multi-Tiered System of Supports](#), an MTSS framework includes four essential components to support students’ academic, behavioral, and emotional well-being. The four essential components of an MTSS are illustrated in Figure 2.

Figure 2: Essential components of an MTSS



When implemented with fidelity, an MTSS can be an effective framework for supporting students with dyslexia because of its orientation toward prevention and treatment (Miciak & Fletcher, 2020). Prevention begins within Tier 1, where all students receive high-quality, evidence-based core instruction designed to effectively deliver grade-level curricula to prevent learning problems. Within this tier, classroom teachers explicitly and systematically deliver foundational reading instruction using strategies and approaches responsive to all students' needs, including those with dyslexia. Coupled with evidence-based instructional strategies, Tier 1 instruction is effective as a preventive measure when it emphasizes a comprehensive literacy curriculum that is

responsive to the diverse learning needs of all students, including students with dyslexia. Data are collected using universal screening and progress monitoring and then analyzed and interpreted to determine student growth toward academic goals and identify students who appear to be struggling. This approach allows educators to provide immediate skill-targeted interventions in Tier 2. When supporting students in Tier 2, the frequency of progress monitoring and dosage of intervention and instruction are increased and act as data-driven methods for evaluating students' responses to instruction and interventions. Educators use these data to tailor interventions to match students' individual needs. If students respond positively to Tier 2 interventions, educators

can adjust the frequency and duration of the interventions to meet the students' needs. If students are not responsive to Tier 2 interventions, educators determine whether they should increase the dosage and intensify the interventions, or select and implement alternate interventions. This iterative process ensures students continue to receive targeted interventions. If warranted, educators can make recommendations for identification and evaluation for special education and related services. During Tier 3 intervention, students receive more frequent and intensive interventions that are individualized to assessed needs. Tier 3 interventions provide high levels of intensity, time, and support for children who fail to respond to Tier 1 and Tier 2 instruction, including those eligible for special education or related services.



Assessment

Educators can use multiple sources of assessment tools and strategies as part of a comprehensive approach to identifying and supporting students with dyslexia. Assessment sets a foundation for data-based decision-making and ensures that instruction and

interventions match students' needs. In addition, assessment allows educators to align instructional practices with IEP goals, monitor student progress, and provide specially designed instruction to students with dyslexia who receive special education or related services.

To learn more about dyslexia-related legislation by State—including policies for screening, intervention, and training—visit the [National Center on Improving Literacy's State of Dyslexia webpage](#).

Validity and Reliability

Assessment instruments and strategies should be valid and reliable. The reliability of an assessment considers the consistency of the assessment. The degree of instrument validity is dependent on the instrument's ability to yield similar results on different occasions and across users ([Sürücü & Maslakçi, 2020](#)). The validity of an assessment considers the extent to which the instrument measures what it is designed to measure. Assessment instruments that are valid are directly aligned with *what* the educator is attempting to measure. Implementation of the assessment should yield similar results across contexts and users ([Sürücü & Maslakçi, 2020](#)). An assessment that is valid and reliable will accurately measure a student's reading skill development. Ensuring reliability and validity of assessments for students with dyslexia is particularly important given the variation in the operational definition of dyslexia ([Andresen & Monsrud, 2022](#); [Hammill & Allen, 2020](#); [Poulsen et al., 2023](#)). Using a variety of reading and cognitive ability measures may increase the reliability and validity of assessment and identification ([Hammill & Allen, 2020](#)).



Being Culturally and Linguistically Aligned and Responsive

U.S. public schools reflect a diverse population of students from various backgrounds in terms of culture, linguistics, race, and ethnicity. Assessment practices should account for students' cultural capital and consider language, culture, and heritage. Culturally and linguistically aligned assessments ensure the appropriate identification and evaluation of all students. Assessment results may be affected by construct-irrelevant variance. Construct-irrelevant variance is an aspect of an assessment or assessment process that is not relevant to the purpose of the assessment ([American Educational Research Association, American Psychological Association \[APA\], & National Council on Measurement in Education, 2014](#)). An example of a construct-irrelevant variance is a mode of presentation that is not suitable for some students and negatively affects assessment results ([Faulkner-Bond, 2022](#)). Barriers related to construct-irrelevant variance can be reduced when the assessment takes into account the language or culture of a student (APA, 2014). Importantly, construct-irrelevant variance decreases the reliability and validity of an assessment. When assessing for language-based disabilities such as dyslexia, educators should ensure construct-irrelevant variance is limited.

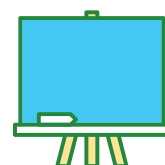
Data from the [Office of Special Education Programs](#) (OSEP) indicate that the number of multilingual students receiving special education services increased by 30% from 2012 to 2022. Additionally, data reveal that students

who are dually identified as having a disability and being English learners are placed in more restrictive environments, more likely to drop out of high school, and less likely to graduate with a regular high school diploma ([OSEP, 2022](#)). These data signal the need for educators to ensure students are appropriately assessed and identified for special education services.

Approaches to identifying English learners for special education services vary across LEAs. The [U.S. Department of Education \(2016\)](#) developed the English Learner Tool Kit to assist LEAs with developing a systematic approach to appropriately identifying, evaluating, and instructing English learners. To learn more and access the English Learner Tool Kit, visit <https://www2.ed.gov/about/offices/list/oela/english-learner-toolkit/index.html>.

Types of Assessment

Universal screeners, progress monitoring, and the use of multiple sources of data enable the early identification of students with characteristics of dyslexia. In turn, early identification of dyslexia enables immediate and targeted intervention. The use of valid and reliable assessments ensures that results are accurate. Individuals responsible for assessment should be trained on how to administer the assessment and analyze and interpret the results. Collaboration in the assessment process is recommended, as it allows educators to analyze results from their disciplinary perspectives and lend their expertise to determining instruction, intervention, and placement. Caregivers are important members of the team. They should be actively included





in the decision-making and remain informed throughout the process. Table 1 shares descriptions of types of assessments used for the identification of dyslexia.

Dyslexia Universal Screener: Universal screeners, administered schoolwide multiple times a year (e.g., in the fall, winter, and spring), are an effective and efficient tool. Although they are brief (e.g., 3-5 minutes per student), dyslexia universal screeners can provide useful data and be administered as part of other screenings. These screeners can be aligned with State standards by matching grade level text to the appropriate grade level standards for

each grade level and are designed to measure students' progress toward specific goals over the academic year. Universal screening provides school districts and individual schools with a way to identify students who may need extra support or have disabilities. Universal screeners used in primary grades can assess students' basic reading skills (i.e., phonological awareness, phonemic awareness, letter sounds, letter identification, and oral vocabulary). In upper elementary and higher grades, universal screeners can be used to assess foundational and advanced reading skills (i.e., word recognition, oral reading fluency, vocabulary acquisition, and comprehension).

Table 1. Types of assessments for the identification of dyslexia

| Type of Assessment | Description |
|------------------------------------|--|
| Dyslexia Universal Screener | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identifies students who need extra support Screens for characteristics of dyslexia Measures student progress toward a specific goal Assesses students' reading skills Is curriculum-based Is administered multiple times a year (e.g., in the fall, winter, and spring) Is brief (e.g., 3–5 minutes per student) |
| Progress Monitoring | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Determines the effectiveness of instruction or an intervention Illustrates a student's rate of improvement and informs instructional decisions Increases in frequency at each advancing tier Is collected at multiple intervals to ensure that students have time to respond to an intervention and that progress is sustained Is tied to student academic goals |
| Multiple Data Sources | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provides a comprehensive and holistic overview of a student's academic and cognitive processes Is not limited in scope |



Progress Monitoring: Progress monitoring assessments are curriculum-based measures used to determine the effectiveness of instruction or an intervention. Educators administer progress monitoring assessments at all three tiers of instruction, with increased frequency at each advancing tier. Multiple data points are collected to assess instructional performance and progress toward aligned academic goals. Data are also used to make instructional decisions—including whether and when to move students between tiers; quantify a student’s rate of improvement; and adjust the intensity of an intervention.

Multiple Data Sources: Multiple sources of data provide a comprehensive understanding of a student’s reading competency development. Table 2 lists potential data sources and competencies that can be measured to gain a holistic portrait of a student’s reading ability.

Table 2. Multiple data sources

| Data Sources |
|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Family history • Parent survey • Observation of teacher, district staff member, or caregiver(s) • Student work samples • Classroom reading assessments • Universal screening data (e.g., vision, hearing, and dyslexia) • Curriculum-based assessments • Progress monitoring • LEA-approved diagnostic assessments • Outside evaluations |

Evidence-Based Instructional Practices

Students with dyslexia respond positively to instruction that is explicit, systematic, and multimodal. Research indicates that explicit and systematic instruction that addresses both the code-based dimension of reading and writing and the meaning-based dimension improves foundational reading skills ([Al Otaiba et al., 2021](#)). The [National Reading Panel](#) (2000) synthesized decades of research confirming the significance of explicit and systematic instruction for increasing reading skill acquisition across reading components (i.e., phonemic awareness, phonics, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension). Effective reading instruction begins with explicit development of foundational skills—including phonemic awareness, speech sounds, and manipulation of letter sounds—by following a logical sequence and connecting prior learning

| Competencies to Measure |
|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Oral language (e.g., speaking and listening) • Phonological awareness (e.g., rhyming, segmentation, blending, phonemes, and rimes) • Phonics skills and letter knowledge (e.g., letter and word recognition) • Reading fluency (e.g., word reading and decoding) • Orthographic processing (e.g., spelling, word recognition, written expression) • Vocabulary • Reading comprehension • Auditory processing • Cognitive processing |



to new skill development ([Pennsylvania Department of Education, 2022](#)). In addition, phonics and decoding skills should be taught explicitly, and students with dyslexia should have ample opportunities to practice their learning. When taught the structure of language, students with dyslexia are able to apply language and letter rules to decode words effectively and efficiently ([Hall et al., 2023](#)). Research supports the use of explicit and systematic instruction for all students, including multilingual students and students with reading difficulties ([Brown-Chidsey et al., 2024](#); [Linan-Thompson et al., 2022](#)).

Explicit Instruction: Explicit instruction is a structured, systematic, and targeted approach that increases student engagement and promotes improved student outcomes ([Archer & Hughes, 2010](#)). Explicit instruction begins with setting a purpose for learning, stating the lesson objectives, and connecting what is about to be taught to prior learning (i.e., activating background knowledge) ([Colorado Department of Education, n.d.](#); [Laine et al., 1998](#)). When using explicit instruction, educators provide students with direct explanations and visual representations of abstract concepts. Educators develop students' reading skills by providing clearly articulated and concise explanations coupled with concrete representations of concepts and content. Educators provide clarity through modeling and scaffolding. Within this instructional approach, educators (1) model new skills, (2) scaffold through guided practice, and (3) provide multiple opportunities for independent practice.

Explicit instruction benefits students with dyslexia by building on their prior knowledge, following a sequence, and providing opportunities for practice and repetition. Explicit instruction in phonics improves

reading outcomes for students with dyslexia and is most effective when it is systematic and delivered with a high degree of explicitness and intensity ([Shanahan, 2021](#)).

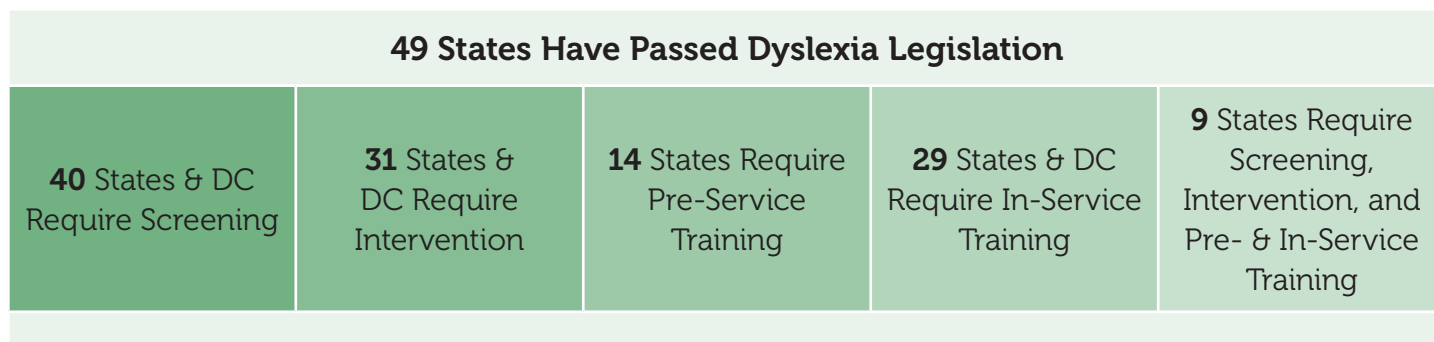
Systematic Instruction: Systematic instruction involves teaching language in a logical and progressive sequence, moving from simple to complex ([Klages et al., 2020](#)). Similar to the case with explicit instruction, lesson objectives are clearly articulated and explicitly define student behavior (i.e., what students are able to do) ([Klages et al., 2020](#)). Activities are directly linked to lesson objectives and provide students with ample opportunities to engage in practice ([Catts & Petscher, 2022](#)).



Systematic instruction benefits students with dyslexia by building foundational literacy skills ([Hall et al., 2023](#)). This approach benefits all students, including students with characteristics of dyslexia, by intentionally and explicitly teaching phonemic awareness, connecting graphemes and phonemes, and providing guided reading practice ([Hall et al., 2023](#)).

Multimodal Instruction: Multimodal instruction, also known as multisensory instruction, incorporates tactile, kinesthetic, auditory, and visual activities to actively

Figure 3. State legislation addressing dyslexia



engage students in instruction. Instruction and activities link orthography (spelling), phonology (sound), and morphology (meaning) through visual representations ([Bowers & Ramsdell, 2023](#)). Examples of multimodal strategies include using manipulatives, using sound boxes, writing letters in sand, using hand signs, making finger tapping sounds, color-coding, and drawing. Research supports the use of multimodal engagement. For example, research has shown that students who use sound boxes improve in phoneme segmentation, letter-sound skills, and spelling ([Keeseey et al., 2015](#); [DeWine & Chai, 2024](#)).

Multimodal instructional is especially beneficial for students who have dyslexia and also struggle with attention deficits. Additionally, multimodal instruction provides activities to promote long-term memorization, which is beneficial for students with dyslexia who have trouble with short-term memory recall. ([Pahor et al., 2021](#)).

State Initiatives to Address Dyslexia

As of May 2024, 49 of 50 States have enacted legislation related to dyslexia ([NCIL, 2024](#)). Legislation to advance reading outcomes for students with dyslexia varies by State in terms of whether there are requirements

for screening, intervention, or training for preservice and/or in-service educators.

To meet the needs of students with characteristics of dyslexia, some States have employed a coordinated approach by developing and implementing literacy initiatives that are student- or educator-focused. Examples of student-focused initiatives and educator-focused initiatives are provided in Figure 4.

Figure 4. Examples of student-focused initiatives and educator-focused initiatives to improve reading outcomes

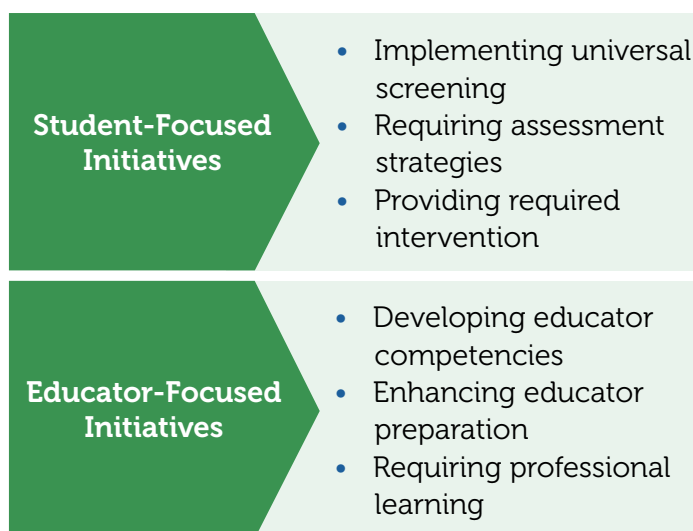
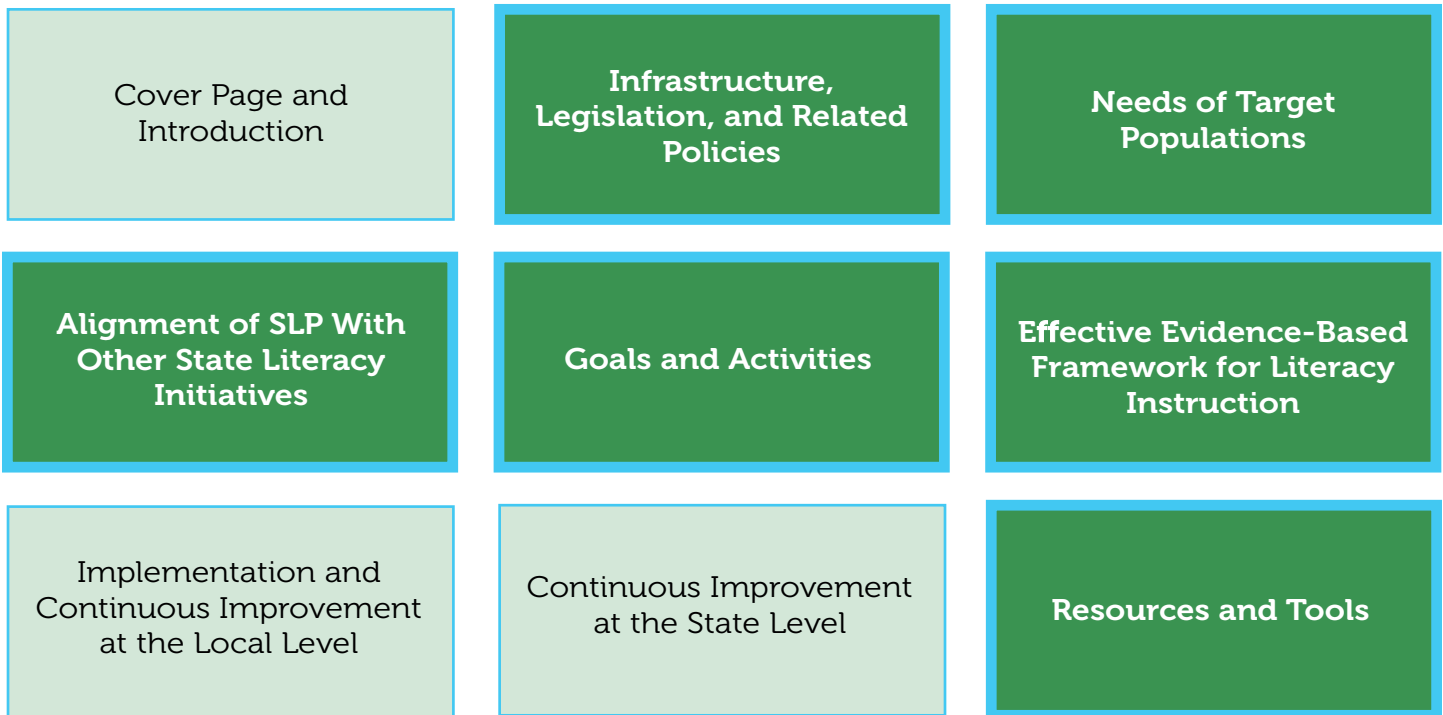


Figure 5. SLP components that could address dyslexia



Implications for State Literacy Plans

A State literacy plan (SLP) is the cornerstone of a State’s approach to comprehensive literacy instruction. The purpose of an SLP is to align State literacy initiatives, content standards, evidence-based practices, and State guidance to support teachers and student learning. States can choose to address dyslexia within their SLPs.

The Comprehensive State Literacy Development (CLSD) National Literacy Center developed a State Literacy Plan Starter Kit to be used as a guide to prepare or revise an SLP. *SLP Starter Kit Phase Two: Understanding SLP Components* provides information about each of the components. To learn more about the SLP Starter Kit and access Phase Two, please visit <https://literacycenter.ed.gov/2023-SLP/StateLiteracyPlanResources#starterkit>.

There are nine common components of an SLP. Addressing dyslexia may align with several of the components. Figure 5 illustrates the nine

components and highlights which components could address dyslexia.

Infrastructure, Legislation, and Related Policies

To address key requirements of the [ESEA](#), as amended, and [IDEA](#), SEAs can include provisions for students with characteristics of dyslexia and should demonstrate how implementation will provide equal access. State legislation and policies for students with dyslexia can be highlighted and incorporated in this component.

Needs of Target Populations

States can identify students with dyslexia as a target population within their SLPs. Within this component, States can share disaggregated data related to the performance of students with dyslexia and include how students with dyslexia are affected by their SLPs. Within this component, States can identify opportunity gaps that may affect outcomes, set goals to



provide a more equitable education, and develop strategies and activities aligned with supporting the goals.

Alignment of SLP With Other State Literacy Initiatives

States can inventory all local and statewide literacy initiatives for students with dyslexia. SLPs should align with initiatives for addressing dyslexia. Examples include the implementation of an MTSS or assessment practices. States can communicate how initiatives align to support students with dyslexia and how they could be leveraged to advance reading goals and outcomes.

Goals and Activities

Goals and activities should be included for each need identified in an SLP. Goals can be short-, mid-, or long-term, and they should be specific, measurable, achievable, relevant, time-bound, inclusive, and equitable. Once goals for students with dyslexia are identified, States should determine corresponding activities that will lead to achieving the goals.

Effective Evidence-Based Framework for Literacy Instruction

To build a comprehensive literacy framework, States can develop a theory of change and logic model to support students with dyslexia and other dyslexia-related initiatives (e.g., those related to professional learning and educator competencies). A theory of change and logic model will assist States with identifying evidence-based literacy practices and frameworks to achieve identified goals for students with dyslexia.

Resources and Tools

States should provide customizable resources and technical assistance materials for LEA use. Technical assistance materials and resources related to students with dyslexia can include practice briefs to guide instruction, fact sheets that highlight an MTSS or other key approaches to supporting students with dyslexia, and tools that support teachers in their implementation or data collection.

