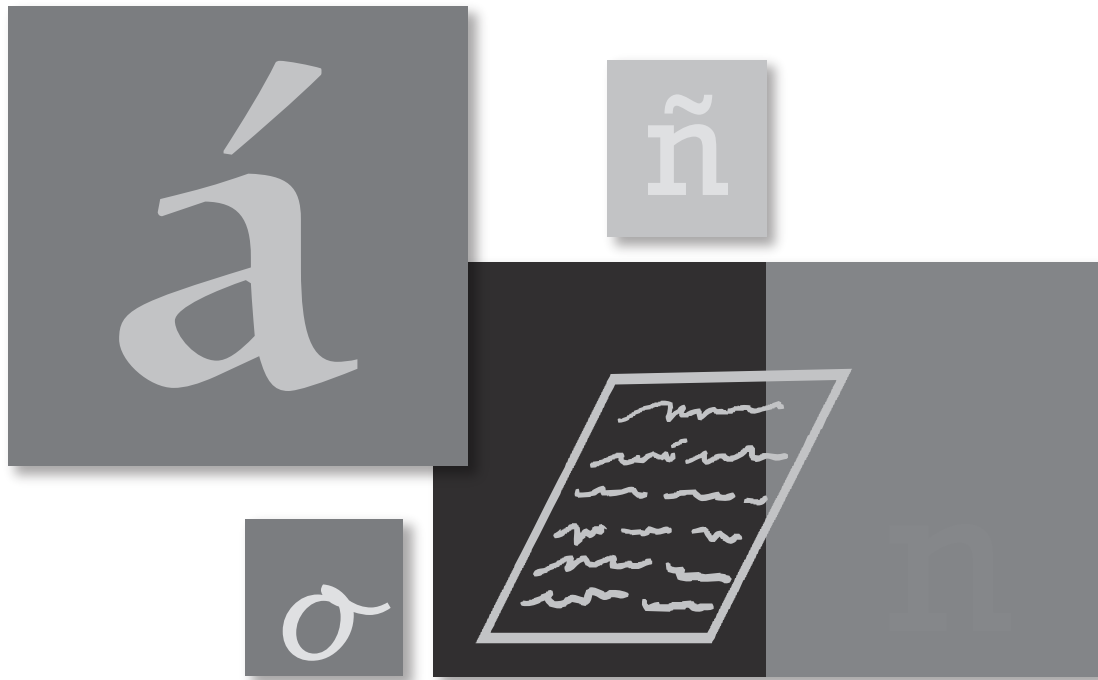# WM

Woodcock-Muñoz™
Language Survey–Revised
nu Normative Update

Interpretive Supplement:
Instructional Interventions for
English Language Learners Related to the
Woodcock-Muñoz Language Survey–Revised
Normative Update

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Overview

The Report of the National Literacy Panel on Language-Minority Children and Youth (August & Shanahan, 2006) noted that accurate assessments are essential for determining the proficiency levels of language-minority students so that instruction can be tailored to meet their identified needs. The *Instructional Interventions Program for the Woodcock-Muñoz Language Survey–Revised Normative Update* (IIP/WMLS-R NU) (Schrank, Alvarado, Wendling, & Woodcock, 2009) is a computer software scoring and interpretive program that links student performance on the *Woodcock-Muñoz Language Survey–Revised Normative Update* (WMLS-R NU) (Woodcock, Muñoz-Sandoval, Ruef, & Alvarado, 2005, 2009) with specific evidence-based educational interventions. Whereas the WMLS-R NU helps educators develop an understanding of a student's language proficiency levels, the IIP/WMLS-R NU includes a bank of targeted, evidence-based instructional interventions to meet the student's specific language learning needs. From the bank of identified interventions, evaluators or teachers can select the most appropriate interventions for each student.

The instructional interventions and recommendations available in the IIP/WMLS-R NU are designed to help facilitate attainment of many language-learning objectives and standards across the domains of speaking, listening, reading, and writing. Although the WMLS-R NU and the IIP/WMLS-R NU are often used with English language learners (ELLs), both tools can be used with native speakers of English to assess and determine interventions for the student's language learning needs.

This interpretive supplement to the IIP/WMLS-R NU includes three related topics. The supplement begins with a discussion of how the WMLS-R NU measures the construct of cognitive-academic language proficiency, or CALP. The next section of the supplement documents the sources of evidence for the instructional interventions that are available in the IIP/WMLS-R NU. The remainder of the supplement is a discussion and rationale for use of the evidence-based instructional interventions contained in the IIP/WMLS-R NU. Appendix A is a sample comprehensive report from the IIP/WMLS-R NU. This sample report contains instructional interventions for a 7-year, 9-month-old male whose first language is Spanish. This student was administered both the WMLS-R NU English Form A and the Spanish Form.

The WMLS-R NU and Measurement of Cognitive-Academic Language Proficiency (CALP)

The WMLS-R NU includes seven tests for measuring proficiency in oral language, reading, and writing. The seven tests include Test 1: Picture Vocabulary, Test 2: Verbal Analogies, Test 3: Letter-Word Identification, Test 4: Dictation, Test 5: Understanding Directions, Test 6: Story Recall, and Test 7: Passage Comprehension. Different combinations of tests form clusters for interpretive purposes, including, among others, Oral Language, Reading, and Writing. Table 1 outlines the tests and clusters available in the WMLS-R NU.

Table 1.
Tests and Clusters Available in the WMLS-R NU

WMLS-R Tests	Academic Language Clusters										
	Oral Language	Reading-Writing	Broad English Ability	Listening	Oral Expression	Reading	Writing	Language Comprehension	Applied Language Proficiency	Oral Language–Total	Broad English Ability–Total
1. Picture Vocabulary	■		■		■					■	■
2. Verbal Analogies	■		■	■						■	■
3. Letter-Word Identification		■	■			■					■
4. Dictation		■	■				■		■		■
5. Understanding Directions				■					■	■	■
6. Story Recall					■			■	■	■	■
7. Passage Comprehension						■		■	■		■

The WMLS-R NU has two forms in English and one form in Spanish. Many students identified as ELLs speak Spanish (about 70% of all ELLs in the United States), and administering the WMLS-R NU Spanish form to these students, in conjunction with the English form, provides information on the student's relative proficiency in each language. For Spanish-speaking ELLs, this is an important protocol because determination of native language proficiency in Spanish often provides a good prognostic indicator of future English literacy development (August & Shanahan, 2006; Genesee, Lindholm-Leary, Saunders, & Christian, 2006). Also, comparative language information can be useful for determining whether content-instruction should be delivered in English or Spanish. Even when English is determined to be the primary language of instruction—or if English instruction is the only option—dual-language ability assessment with the WMLS-R can provide important information about whether the student has acquired (in either language) foundational phonological knowledge, academic vocabulary, or reading comprehension strategies. This is important for evaluators to know because many literacy skills learned in Spanish can be effectively applied and transferred to learning English (Bialystok, Luk, & Kwan, 2005; August, Calderón, & Carlo, 2002; August & Shanahan, 2006; Cunningham & Graham, 2000; Riches & Genesee, 2006).

Distinguishing CALP from BICS

The WMLS-R NU provides measures of CALP, a construct initially formalized by Cummins (1984). Cummins distinguished the construct of CALP from basic interpersonal communication skills (BICS). BICS typically develop more naturally and within a context of immediate goals and familiar patterns of events; this form of conversational proficiency can be developed outside of formal schooling. For example, some ELLs are able to manipulate the English language sufficiently to communicate and respond to simple questions but are not able to understand the language used in content learning; such students demonstrate the use of BICS but are lacking in CALP. Their language-learning needs may not be immediately obvious to a teacher until the task requirements necessitate the use of academic language.

In contrast to BICS, CALP is defined as the language proficiency of academic situations that emerges and becomes distinctive with formal schooling. For example, the construct of CALP includes words that are not typically a part of everyday conversation and are usually learned in academic settings only—words such as *analyze*, *contrast*, *therefore*, or *examine*. CALP is further defined by literary skills involving conceptual-linguistic knowledge that occurs in the context of semantics, abstractions, and context-reduced linguistic forms, such as the ability to reason with words. Limitations in CALP are directly related to difficulties in academic learning (Frances, Rivera, Lesaux, Kieffer, & Rivera, 2006).

How the WMLS-R NU Measures CALP

It is difficult to understand a word or concept without any conceptualization of it, and many ELL students lack adequate background and the vocabulary knowledge that is required for academic learning. In the WMLS-R NU, Test 1: Picture Vocabulary provides an index of a student's level of background knowledge. In this test, the student is required to recognize an object and retrieve a name for the object from his or her store of vocabulary knowledge. Test 2: Verbal Analogies is a verbal reasoning task that requires the student to analyze the relationship between the words in the first part of the analogy and then to map (or project) that structure onto the second part of the analogy. The task requires the student to access his or her knowledge of words and their meanings.

Background and vocabulary knowledge are major factors in reading comprehension (Bernhardt, 2005; Duran, O'Connor, & Smith, 1998) because without this knowledge, students are unable to build the mental representations that must occur during the process of understanding text while it is being read. Gersten, Fuchs, Williams, and Baker (2001) found that many students do not understand what they read because they have difficulty producing a mental representation of the information that is provided by the text. Test 7: Passage Comprehension, measures the students' ability to derive meaning from a passage through building mental representations that correspond to the words and sentences they are reading.

Background and vocabulary knowledge is also required to comprehend the key elements of an orally presented story in Test 6: Story Recall. Speaking ability is needed to complete the task requirements. In this test, the student must "recode" his or her mental representations by retelling the story in his or her own words.

In Test 5: Understanding Directions, the student must use listening skills to comprehend a series of oral commands and create a mental representation of the string of commands so that he or she can point, in sequence, to the specified objects in a picture. This is a language comprehension task that requires mapping of one instruction onto another, a type of working memory task that is often required in academic learning.

In Test 3: Letter-Word Identification, the student must be able to access one of two routes to reading words (Humphreys & Evett, 1985). If the student cannot automatically recognize the visual word form and pronounce the word, he or she may be able to access the component phonemes of the word to articulate a pronunciation. The first route to reading words is based on a well-developed vocabulary base and reading decoding skills. The second route to reading is based on the ability to access words from the sounds (phonemes) associated with the printed graphemes and then say the sounds smoothly as a whole word.

Similarly, Test 4: Dictation measures knowledge of how to encode spoken words into their written forms. The spelling tasks can be solved by retrieval of whole-word orthography (if the word is contained in the student's lexicon) or by translation of phonemic segments into graphemic units. This test also evaluates knowledge of writing conventions and applying lexical information and details of word forms, such as correct punctuation and capitalization rules. Since words are made up of units of sound (phonemes), as well as units of meaning (morphemes), evaluating a student's ability to spell these elements contributes to an understanding of his or her stored word knowledge.

In Table 2, each of the WMLS-R NU tests is linked to the construct of CALP via a specification of the academic tasks and cognitive processes[1] that are required in that test. This is an important specification because the information about cognitive processing provides a conceptual guide to the types of interventions that may increase competency in related academic tasks. As articulated by Wong, Harris, Butler, and Graham (2003, p. 392), "An implication, borne out in research, is that student performance should improve when teachers structure instruction and academic work to cue effective processing." Based on this model, the instructional interventions included in the IIP/WMLS-R NU are intended to help develop cognitive-academic language proficiency—the type of language ability required for academic success.

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[1] In Table 2, citations refer to classic and contemporary cognitive and neuroscience information-processing research that supports the specification of the cognitive processes required for each type of academic task.

Table 2.

Cognitive-Academic Language Processes (CALP) Measured by the WMLS-R NU Tests

Test	Academic Task	Cognitive Processes
Test 1: Picture Vocabulary	Identifying and naming a picture of an object	Recognizing objects (Marr, 1982); access and retrieval of object names (Gazzaniga, Irvy, & Mangun, 1998)
Test 2: Verbal Analogies	Listening to three words of an analogy and then completing the analogy with an appropriate fourth word	Semantic access (Caplan, 1992; Gazzaniga et al., 1998); analysis of the relationship between words by induction of the structure for the first part of the analogy and then mapping (or projecting) that structure onto the second part of the analogy (Gentner & Markman, 1997); mental activation of closely related words (Gazzaniga et al., 1998)
Test 3: Letter-Word Identification	Identifying and pronouncing single letters and words	Analysis and detection of letter features (Gibson, 1965; McClelland & Rumelhart, 1981); automatic recognition of visual word forms (Ashcraft, 1995; Caplan, 1992); and/or phonological access to pronunciations associated with visual word forms (Coltheart, 1978)
Test 4: Dictation	Writing letter names and producing correct spellings; applying correct punctuation and capitalization rules	Access to and application of knowledge of orthography of word forms by mapping whole-word phonology onto whole-word orthography by translating phonological segments into graphemic units or by activating spellings of words from the semantic lexicon; access to and application of lexical information and details of word forms (Caplan, 1992; Hotopf, 1980; Gazzaniga et al., 1998; Ashcraft, 1995)
Test 5: Understanding Directions	Listening to a series of oral commands and pointing, in correct sequence, to specified objects in a picture	Mapping a series of sequential directions onto a mental structure under construction and maintaining the sequence in immediate awareness until a new directive changes the sequence (Gernsbacher, 1990, 1991, 1997)
Test 6: Story Recall	Listening to a connected passage and then orally recalling the elements of the passage	Comprehending and remembering the principal components of a story by constructing mental representations (Anderson, 1976, 1985; Kintsch, 1974) and by recoding in the student's own words (Miller, 1956)
Test 7: Passage Comprehension	Silently reading a written passage and completing the passage with a single word	Deriving meaning from a passage through building mental representations based on concepts from background and word knowledge. The meaning of the passage is held in awareness as the passage is read. As more elements are added to the passage, they are also added to the mental representation via mapping (Ashcraft, 1995; Zhou & Black, 2000). The task is solved through inference (Klin, 1995), the process by which the reader determines the referents of words and ideas, draws connections between concepts (Clark, 1977), and derives a conclusion from the passage

Evidence Bases for the Instructional Interventions Program

The interventions for ELLs in the IIP/WMLS-R NU are based on several recent, well-respected, and comprehensive sources of research evidence. A few deserve specific mention. The first is entitled *Developing Literacy in Second-Language Learners: Report of the National Literacy Panel on Language-Minority Children and Youth* (August & Shanahan, 2006). The August and Shanahan findings and recommendations are validated by another independent research team that published *Educating English Language Learners: A Synthesis of Research Evidence* (Genesee, Lindholm-Leary, Saunders, & Christian, 2006). Major programming implications of recent research with elementary school-aged students are articulated in the U.S. Department of Education's Institute of Educational Sciences (IES) Practice Guide entitled *Effective Literacy and English Language Instruction for English Learners in the Elementary Grades* (Gersten et al., 2007). For adolescent ELLs, the programming implications and recommendations are outlined in a report to the Carnegie Corporation by Short and Fitzsimmons (2007) entitled *Double the Work: Challenges and Solutions to Acquiring Language and Academic Literacy for Adolescent English Language Learners*. Analysis of these primary research reviews and policy statements led to many other sources of practical and validated instructional interventions.

The IIP/WMLS-R NU focuses on evidenced-based instructional interventions that have been demonstrated to be beneficial for ELL students. The corpus of research on instructional interventions for ELLs, however, is relatively recent and there are many areas of instructional focus that deserve further study. Consequently, the IIP/WMLS-R NU also includes many applicable instructional interventions obtained from research with native English speaking students. Many evidence-based interventions obtained from research with native speakers of English will apply to ELLs (Frances, Rivera, Lesaux, Kieffer, & Rivera, 2006) when appropriately incorporated within a comprehensive, systematic, and intensive program of English language development for ELLs. As stated by Genesee et al. (2006, p. 205), "a program that is enriched, consistent, and provides a challenging curriculum is also endorsed by research on factors associated with effective programs for ELLs."

Table 3 is an outline of the broad categories of IIP/WMLS-R NU interventions that are based on evidence from the education of ELLs. Similarly, Table 4 is an outline of the broad categories of interventions available in the IIP/WMLS-R NU that are based on evidence from the education of native speakers of English. In total, the IIP/WMLS-R NU provides more than 200 interventions that have been aligned with the cognitive-academic processes measured by the WMLS-R NU tests and clusters.

	Category of Intervention	Source of Evidence
Table 3. *IIP/WMLS-R NU Instructional* *Interventions Based on* *Evidence from the Education* *of English Language Learners*	Provide intensive daily English language development instruction	Gersten et al., 2007; Graves & Fitzgerald, 2006; Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007; Graves, 2006; August, 2003; Echevarria, Vogt, & Short, 2008
	Provide explicit vocabulary instruction	Gersten et al., 2007; Perez, 1981; Rousseau et al., 1993; Diamond & Gutlohn, 2006; Avila & Sadoski, 1996; McLaughlin et al., 2000; Ulanoff & Pucci, 1999; Carlo et al., 2004; Vaughn-Shavuo, 1990; Stahl & Nagy, 2006; National Reading Panel, 2000
	Link oral language instruction to real-life experiences	Garcia & Godina, 2004; Short, 1999; Echevarria, Short, & Powers, 2006; Schleppegrell, Achugar, & Orteíza, 2004; Gersten et al., 2007; Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007
	Develop oral language proficiency as part of content requirements	Short & Fitsimmons, 2007; Genesse et al., 2006; August, 2002; Echevarria et al., 2006; Gersten et al., 2007; Echevarria et al., 2008; Short, 1999
	Build and activate background knowledge	Bernhardt, 2005; Gonzalez et al., 1993; Moje et al., 2004; Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007; Marzano, 2004
	Connect instruction to prior knowledge	Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007; Duran et al., 1988; Garcia & Godina, 2004; Short, 1999
	Academic word list/link vocabulary to classroom instruction	Gersten et al., 2007; Coxhead, 2000
	Repetition/variation of key words	Echevarria et al., 2008; Cary, 1997; Marzano, 2004; National Reading Panel, 2000; Stahl, 2005
	Focused, academic discussions	Cary, 1997; Gersten et al., 2007; Krashen, 2002; Crawford, 2002; Graves & Fitzgerald, 2002; Marzano, 2004; Stahl & Nagy, 2006
	Spanish language literacy transfers to English	August et al., 2002; Bialystok, Luk, & Kwan, 2005; Cunningham & Graham, 2000; August & Shanahan, 2006; Riches & Genesee, 2006
	Organizing instruction around a theme	Short & Fitzsimmons, 2006; Echevarria et al., 2006; Garcia & Godina, 2004; Cary, 1997; Schleppegrell et al., 2004; Short, 1999
	Use interactive learning environments	Gersten et al., 2007; Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007; Padron, 1992; Calderón et al., 1998; Fayden, 1997; Klingner & Vaughn, 1996, 2000; Doherty et al., 2003
	Joint-productive activities	Gersten et al., 2007; Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007
	Promote extensive speaking and writing	Gersten et al., 2007
	Multimedia instructional projects	Kim & Kamil, 2004; Warschauer, Grant, Del Real, & Rosseau, 2004; Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007
	Specialized curricula and restructured materials	Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007; National Reading Panel, 2000; Echevarria et al., 2008
	Leverage native language for teaching and learning	Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007; August et al., 2002; Bialystok et. al., 2005; Cummins, 2002; August & Shanahan, 2006; Garcia, 2002; Thomas & Collier, 2001; Gumperz, Cook-Gumperz, & Szymanski, 1999
	Use cognates and structural analysis to find meanings of unfamiliar English words	Gersten et al, 2007; Diamond & Gutlohn, 2006; August, 2003; August et al., 2005; Echevarria et al., 2008

Table 3. (continued)

IIP/WMLS-R NU Instructional Interventions Based on Evidence from the Education of English Language Learners

Category of Intervention	Source of Evidence
Show what is meant	Cary, 1997; Crawford, 2002
Act out action words	Cary, 1997; Crawford, 2002
Total physical response	Cary, 1997; Crawford, 2002
Use simple sentence structures	Echevarria et al., 2008
Reinforce concepts with hands-on learning	Echevarria et al., 2008
Provide clear instructions for task requirements	Echevarria et al., 2008 ; Kamil, 2004
Provide concrete content objectives	Echevarria et al., 2008
Language practice strategies (e.g., repeating new words as they are introduced)	Echevarria et al., 2008
Use gestures to accompany oral communication	Echevarria et al., 2008
Identify unknown words by reading aloud	Echevarria et al., 2008 ; Ulanoff & Pucci, 1999
Model correct language use	Cary, 1997
Model the thinking, reading, writing, process	Cary, 1997; Garcia, 2002; Klinger & Vaughn, 1996; Fayden, 1997
Select key words from content/text material	Ruddell, 2005; Farstrup & Samuels, 2002; Krashen, 2002; National Reading Panel, 2000; August et al., 2005; Avila & Sadoski, 1996
Word attack techniques (root words, etc.)	August, 2003; Echevarria et al., 2008; Garcia & Godina, 2004; Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007; Graves, 2006; Bernhardt, 2005; Denti & Guerin, 2004
Word walls	Cunningham, 2004
Preview/contextualize key vocabulary words	Gersten et al., 2007; Beck, Perfetti, & McKeown, 1982; Graves & Fitzgerald, 2006; Echevarria et al., 2008; Blachowicz & Fisher, 2000; Biemiller, 2005; Ulanoff & Pucci, 1999; Echevarria et al., 2006; Stahl & Nagy, 2006
Word sorts	Bear, Invernizzi, Templeton, & Johnson, 2007
Academic word list/link vocabulary to instruction	Gersten et al., 2007; Coxhead, 2000
Bilingual reference materials	Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007; Krashen, 2002; Echevarria et al., 2008
Concept definition map for new vocabulary and concepts	Buehl, 2001; Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007
Graphic organizers	Barton, Heidama, & Jordon, 2002; Echevarria et al., 2008
Integrated instruction in oral language, reading, & writing	August & Shanahan, 2006; Gersten et al., 2007; Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007; Genessee et al., 2006; August, 2002; Echevarria et al., 2006
Keyword method	Avila & Sadoski, 1996
Word preview/review	Ulanoff & Pucci, 1999
Phonological awareness and phonics	Gersten et al., 2007; Gunn, Biglan, Smolkowski, & Ary, 2000, 2002; August & Shanahan, 2006; Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007; Kramer, Schell, & Rubison, 1983
Explicit instruction in consonants	Gersten et al., 2007; Bear, Templeton, Helman, & Baren, 2002
Use a reading intervention program	Gersten et al., 2007; Gunn et al., 2002; Gunn et al., 2000
Oral reading fluency interventions	De la Colina, Parker, Hasbrouck, & Lara-Alecia, 2001; Denton, 2000
Predictable texts	Cary, 1997; Cummins, 2002; Crawford, 2002

Table 3. (continued)

Category of Intervention	Source of Evidence
High interest, low reading difficulty supplemental texts	Hornberger, 2003
Shared reading	Crawford, 2002; Graves & Fitzgerald, 2002; Fayden, 1997
Oral reading	De la Colina et al., 2001; Denton, 2000
Reading comprehension strategies	Bean, 1982; Bernhardt, 2005; Cary, 1997; Denti & Guerin, 2004; Garcia & Godina, 2004; Palinscar & Brown, 1984, 1985; Paris, Cross, & Lipson, 1984; Shames, 1998; Swicegood, 1990; Biemiller, 2005; Echevarria et al., 2006; Stahl & Nagy, 2006; Jimenez, Garcia, & Pearson, 1996
Reciprocal teaching	Hernandez, 1991; Valdés, 1999; Villasenor, 2003
Language experience approach	Vaughn-Shavuo, 1990
Daily writing practice	Echevarria et al., 2008
Frequent writing practice using words from reading	Echevarria et al., 2008
Comparison of spelling inventories	Bear et al., 2002
Brainstorming and clustering	Bermúdez & Prater, 1990
Specific instruction in the writing processes	Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007; Franken & Haslett, 1999; Gómez, Parker, Lara-Alecio, & Gómez, 1996; Prater & Bermúdez, 1993; Sengupta, 2000
Development of literacy outside of school	Moje et al., 2004; Orellana, Reynolds, Dorner, & Meza, 2003; Elley, 1991; Tsang, 1996; Tudor & Hafiz, 1989; Schon, Hopkins, & Davis, 1982; Schon, Hopkins, & Vojir, 1984, 1985

Table 3. (continued)

IIP/WMLS-R NU Instructional Interventions Based on Evidence from the Education of English Language Learners

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Table 4.

IIP/WMLS-R NU Instructional Interventions Based on Evidence from the Education of Native Speakers of English

Category of Intervention	Source of Evidence
Text talks	Beck & McKeown, 2001
Intentional, explicit word instruction	Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2002; Graves, Juel, &Graves, 2004; National Reading Panel, 2000
Independent word learning strategies	Anglin, 1993; Baumann, Edwards, Boland, Olejnik, & Kame'enui, 2003; Baumann, Kame'enui, & Ash, 2003; Blachowicz & Fisher, 2000; Carlisle, 2004; Graves, 2000; National Reading Panel, 2000
Development of word consciousness	Anderson & Nagy, 1992; Graves & Watts-Taffe, 2002; Nagy & Scott, 2000
Computerized vocabulary development programs	Davidson, Elcock, & Noyes, 1996
Independent reading for vocabulary development	Cunningham & Stanovich, 1991; Herman, Anderson, Pearson, & Nagy, 1987; National Reading Panel, 2000; Stahl, 1999; Anderson, 1996; Mastropieri, Leinart, & Scruggs, 1999; Anderson, Wilson, & Fielding, 1988
Semantic feature analysis; semantic maps	Sinatra, Berg, & Dunn, 1985; Johnson & Pearson, 1984; Pittelman, Heimlich, Berglund, & French, 1991; Anders & Bos, 1986
Activities for listening and following directions	Galda & Cullinan, 1991; Leung & Pikulsky, 1990; Clay, 1991
Modifying the listening environment	Hardiman, 2003
Opportunities to hear and practice using language	Moats, 2001; Hart & Risley, 1995
Use of an explicit, systematic, phonics program	Ehri, 1991; National Reading Panel, 2000; Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998

Table 4. (continued)	Category of Intervention	Source of Evidence
IIP/WMLS-R NU Instructional Interventions Based on Evidence from the Education of Native Speakers of English	Instruction in orthography	Moats, 2005; Templeton & Bear, 1992
	Instruction in morphology	Anglin, 1993; Baumann, Edwards, et al., 2003; Baumann, Kame'enui, & Ash, 2003; Blachowicz & Fisher, 2000; Carlisle, 2004; Carlisle & Stone, 2005; Graves, 2000; National Reading Panel, 2000
	Use of multisensory/multimodal techniques	Carreker, 2005; Fernald, 1943
	Teaching spellings of common irregular words	Moats, 2005
	Encouraging independent reading	Taylor, Frye, & Marayama, 1990; Anderson, Hiebert, Scott, & Wilkinson, 1985
	Teaching use of computer spell checker	MacArthur, Ferretti, Okolo, Cavalier, 2001
	Word recognition strategies: word walls	Brabham & Villaume, 2001
	Word recognition strategies: flow lists	McCoy & Prehm, 1987
	Graphosyllabic instruction	Bhattacharya & Ehri, 2004
	Repeated reading	Begeny & Martens, 2006; Meyer & Felton, 1999; O'Shea, Sindelar, & O'Shea, 1985; Rashotte & Torgeson, 1985; Samuels, 1979, 1985
	Passage previewing	Shany & Biemiller, 1995
	Assisted reading	Shany & Biemiller, 1995
	Practicing words in isolation	Levy, Abello, & Lysynchuk, 1997
	Activating prior knowledge for reading comprehension	National Reading Panel, 2000; Ogle, 1986
	Graphic organizers	Marzano, Pikering, & Pollock, 2001; Gardill & Jitendra, 1999; Berkowitz, 1986
	Reading comprehension: self-monitoring strategies	Brown & Palinscar, 1985; Babbs, 1984; Klinger & Vaughn, 1998; National Reading Panel, 2000
	Reading comprehension: memory and imagery strategies	Gambrell & Jawitz, 1993; Mastropieri & Scruggs, 1988; Peters & Levin, 1986
	Reading comprehension: cognitive strategy instruction	Trabasso & Bouchard, 2002; Wong & Jones, 1982; Schumaker, Deshler, Alley, Warner, & Denton, 1982
	Reading comprehension: reciprocal teaching	Palinscar & Brown, 1984
	Spelling instruction: multisensory techniques	Carreker, 2005; National Reading Panel, 2000; Ehri, 1998
	Spelling: direct instruction	Edwards, 2003; Gordon, Vaughn, & Schumm, 1993; Graham, 1983
	Frequent writing practice	Berninger et al., 1998; Moats, 1995
	Write-Say method	Kearney & Drabman, 2001
	Add-a-word spelling program	McLaughlin, Reiter, Mabee, & Byram, 1991; Schermerhorn & McLaughlin, 1997
	Spelling: use of group contingencies	Popkin & Skinner, 2003; Shapiro & Goldberg, 1986; Truchlicka, McLaughlin, & Swain, 1998
	Proofreading strategies	Lanham, 1992; Hillocks & Smith, 1991; Lane & Lange, 1993
	Peer editing	Stoddard & MacArthur, 1993
	Computer technology for writing	MacArthur et al., 2001

Instructional Interventions in the IIP/WMLS-R NU

The IIP/WMLS-R NU contains a large pool of instructional interventions that have been validated for use with ELLs and many additional interventions that have been validated with native speakers of English. The following sections provide a broad overview of the evidence-based instructional interventions in the IIP/WMLS-R NU. The overview of the interventions is broadly separated into two categories: oral language development and literacy development.

Oral Language Development Interventions

By definition, an ELL is a student who is developing proficiency in English, particularly academic English. In order to succeed academically, a student who is an ELL must learn the language of the classroom at the same time he or she must master academic content (Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007). Five or more years of intensive, daily English language instruction may be required for ELLs to develop a level of academic language proficiency that is comparable to that of native-language speaking peers (Collier, 1987; Cummins, 1979; Lindholm & Aclan, 1991). Consequently, development of academic language proficiency should be a primary instructional objective for every ELL, regardless of whether the student has a formal designation to receive support services and even, in many cases, if the student has been identified as having sufficient English proficiency for participation in English-only instruction without specialized support.

Development of academic language proficiency

Gersten et al. (2007, p. 5) emphasize "the importance of intensive, interactive English language development instruction for all English learners. This instruction needs to focus on developing academic language (i.e., the decontextualized language of schools, the language of academic discourse, of texts, and of formal argument."

Gersten and colleagues strongly recommend that elementary school teachers of ELLs provide high-quality vocabulary instruction throughout the school day, teaching essential content words in depth. Understanding of common words, phrases, and expressions (everyday words that native language speakers may already know) that an ELL student has not yet learned are important language features that need to be addressed. Engaging, interactive vocabulary instruction that emphasizes "student friendly" definitions may provide the most benefit (Carlo et al., 2004; Perez, 1981; Rousseau et al., 1993).

A primary theme from Short and Fitzsimmons's (2007) report is that secondary school academic courses for adolescent ELLs should address language-development needs as well as content-knowledge requirements. Because many traditional instructional methods used in high schools, such as lectures and worksheets, may not be effective for adolescent ELLs (Tharp, Estrada, Dalton, & Yamauchi, 2000), Short and Fitzsimmons (2007) set forth a number of instructional principles and evidence-based interventions for adolescent ELLs. Their report suggests that ELL students will make greater gains in learning when instruction is based on real-life experiences or is thematic in nature (Echevarria, Short, & Powers, 2006; Garcia & Godina, 2004; Schleppegrell et al., 2004; Short, 1999). Joint-productive activities (Gersten, et al., 2007; Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007) provide adolescent ELLs with

opportunities to (1) promote oral language use and (2) facilitate literacy development in the context of social interaction.

To facilitate the development of academic language proficiency, a number of interventions articulated in the IIP/WMLS-R NU recommend that instruction for ELLs and students with limited language proficiency should consistently focus on academic language requirements in conjunction with their content learning needs. The term *sheltered instruction* is used to refer to content-area instruction for ELLs where language development objectives are articulated for every lesson, identifying the essential vocabulary that is needed for understanding (Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007). In addition, the IIP/WMLS-R NU recommends basing academic instruction on real-life experiences and connecting instruction to the student's background knowledge.

Vocabulary development and background knowledge

In the IIP/WMLS-R NU, several interventions involve connecting current instruction to prior knowledge or building background knowledge (Bernhardt, 2005; Gonzalez et al., 1993; Moje et al., 2004; Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007; Duran et al., 1988; Garcia & Godina, 2004; Short, 1999; Marzano, 2004). For example, an important instructional intervention for ELLs involves developing a connection between the topic of instruction and what the learner already knows (Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007). This is sometimes referred to as "activating prior knowledge." Activating what a student already knows from personal experience, prior schooling, or family history will aid comprehension of current tasks (Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007; Bernhardt, 2005; Marzano, 2004; August & Shanahan, 2006; Echevarria et al., 2006). Research evidence also shows that when students are encouraged to relate their background knowledge to the material being studied (Gonzalez, et al., 1993; Moje et al., 2004), the students become more engaged in learning. Teachers can help a student activate prior knowledge by asking questions such as, "What do you remember or know about _____?" Some ways to help build background knowledge (when little or none exists) include introducing new topics with short video clips, demonstrations, or field experiences.

Because all language-based learning is dependent on vocabulary knowledge (Baker, Simmons, and Kame'enui, 1998), a strong and constantly growing lexicon (vocabulary) is necessary for academic learning. Knowledge of words and their meanings is fundamental to reading comprehension and understanding classroom instructors who teach content (August, Carlo, Dressler, & Snow 2005; Graves, 1986; 2000; 2006; Graves and Fitzgerald, 2002). Fortunately, there are many available evidence-based interventions that are intended to develop background knowledge and vocabulary.

Vocabulary development often requires explicit interventions, such as word sorts (Bear et al., 2007), concept definition maps (Buehl, 2001; Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007), and use of graphic organizers (Barton et al., 2002; Echevarria et al., 2008). One intervention in the IIP/WMLS-R NU suggests that teachers use a basic vocabulary word list (such as the Dale-Chall list of basic vocabulary words) to select target words for the learner (Dale, 1965; Diamond & Gutlohn, 2006). Gersten and colleagues (2007) recommend that school districts develop districtwide lists of essential words for vocabulary instruction, drawing words from the district's core reading program and from other textbooks used in key curriculum areas. These lists of essential vocabulary words are particularly important for ELLs. A number of interventions based on the need to learn essential vocabulary words are included in the IIP/WMLS-R NU.

Students also can be taught strategies to remember words, such as orally repeating a word that is new to them (Echevarria et al., 2008). An ELL requires repeated exposure to key words needed for learning (Stahl, 2005). The words should be used repeatedly and in a

variety of ways. Paraphrasing and repetition of key words by a teacher or peer can enhance the student's understanding of the word and contribute to concept development (Cary, 1997; Echevarria et al., 2008; Marzano, 2004). Students also can orally repeat words that are new as a learning strategy (Echevarria et al., 2008).

Demonstrations, use of gestures, pictures, and visuals also can be used to help ELL students understand and remember words (Cary, 1997; Crawford, 2002; Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007; Marzano, 2004). For students with very limited English language proficiency, reinforcing words or concepts with hands-on learning and use of simple sentence structures helps reduce the impact of language on learning (Echevarria et al., 2008). Using audio books and following along with a written text provides students with a model for word pronunciation and exposes the students to a greater number and variety of words (Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007).

Leveraging learning through use of the native language

Research suggests a relationship between first- and second-language proficiencies. Oral language proficiency in the student's native language provides an advantage in developing English oral language proficiency (Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007; August et al., 2002; Bialystok et al., 2005; Cummins, 2002; August & Shanahan, 2006; Garcia, 2002; Thomas & Collier, 2001).

An example of an intervention that accesses first language knowledge is to ask the student if an unknown word is similar to a related word in his or her first language. This helps develop cognate awareness, which is an important strategy in language development for ELLs (August et al., 2005; Diamond & Gutlohn, 2006; Gersten et al., 2007).

Another intervention that utilizes the student's native language is explaining a difficult concept or idea to an ELL in his or her native language. This intervention not only helps the student to understand the concept, but also helps him or her make connections between the native language and English words and their meanings (Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007; Cummins, 2002; Garcia, 2002; Thomas & Collier, 2001). Often, students with the same first language can explain the concepts or words to each other (Gumperz et al., 1999).

Formal academic instruction in the ELL's first language has been shown to provide an advantage in developing second language oral language proficiency and literacy (Thomas and Collier, 2001; August et al., 2002, Garcia, 2002; Cummins, 2002). Within the last two to three decades, research on the education of ELLs has yielded some important instructional insights. Thomas and Collier (2001) demonstrated that bilingually schooled students outperformed comparable monolingually schooled students in academic achievement after 4 to 7 years of dual-language schooling that included native language instruction. However, native language programs of only 1 to 3 years in duration yielded poor results. Thomas & Collier suggested that the minimum length of time it takes to reach grade-level performance in English as the second language is 4 years. Other studies also have found that students who are ELLs and do not receive assistance from either ESL or bilingual programs have higher dropout rates (Curiel, Rosenthal, & Richeck, 1986; Theobald, 2003). Artiles, Rueda, Salazar, and Higareda (2005) reported that ELLs in English immersion classrooms were almost three times more likely to be identified as learning disabled than ELLs in bilingual education. These studies suggest that native language instruction should be an important consideration for ELLs.[2]

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[2] Unfortunately, some states prohibit or restrict native language instruction. IIP/WMLS-R NU evaluators who prefer to have native language instruction recommendations excluded from the report can elect to do so by selecting "Exclude Language of Instruction Statements" as a report option.

Use of interactive learning environments

Gersten et al. (2007) recommend that use of interactive learning environments of no fewer than 90 minutes each week be specified as part of an ELL's program of instruction. One of the most consistent research findings is that interactive learning environments provide ELLs with opportunities to practice their communication skills using the vocabulary and concepts of instructional focus (Gersten, et al., 2007; Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007; Padron, 1992; Calderón et al., 1998; Fayden, 1997; Klingner and Vaughn, 1996; 2000; Doherty et al., 2003). To effectively implement an interactive learning environment, teachers must provide opportunities for students to work together on academic tasks, using English as the language of communication. In this environment, ELLs have the opportunity to use English to communicate their needs and thoughts, clarify their ideas, and explain their understanding of the academic material (Cary, 1997; Krashen, 2002; Crawford, 2002; Graves & Fitzgerald, 2002; Marzano, 2004; Stahl & Nagy, 2006).

Many instructional interventions in the IIP/WMLS-R NU were written to emphasize the importance of interactive learning environments. Interactive learning environments strategically engage one or more learners with one or more mature speakers, readers, and/or writers. Students of differing language ability levels work together on academic tasks in a structured fashion, practicing and extending the language objectives introduced or taught by the teacher. The less proficient students learn from more experienced students, first as observers of the more literate students and subsequently by internalizing the academic behaviors that were demonstrated.

Discussion groups can be formed for specific assignments and purposes (Gersten et al., 2007), including discussions centered on the meanings of specific words or phrases (Cary, 1997). Interactive learning environments also help promote a culture of literacy among ELLs (Hudelson, 1994) through use of social interaction and guided instruction to facilitate learning.

Synopsis of Additional Oral Language Development Interventions Based on Evidence From the Education of Native Speakers of English

In the WMLS-R NU, there are many additional evidenced-based oral language development interventions that were obtained from research with native speakers of English. For example, a text talk (Beck & McKeown, 2001) is an approach to reading text aloud and encouraging students to talk about what is read. Intentional explicit word instruction involves the direct teaching of synonyms, antonyms, and multiple-meaning words (Graves et al., 2004; Beck, McKeown, & Kucan, 2002; National Reading Panel, 2000). Teaching of independent word-learning strategies such as identification and use of context clues, use of a dictionary and other reference tools, and direct instruction in morphology are also effective (Carlisle, 2004; Baumann, Edwards et al., 2003; Baumann, Kame'enui, & Ash, 2003; Blachowicz & Fisher, 2000; Graves, 2000; National Reading Panel, 2000; Anglin, 1993). Activities designed to develop word consciousness (Graves & Watts-Taffe, 2002; Nagy & Scott, 2000; Anderson & Nagy, 1992) and that use well-supervised computer programs (Davidson et al., 1996) are also useful.

For students who have developed some proficiency in English, possible vocabulary-building interventions include increased time spent reading at the student's independent reading level (Cunningham & Stanovich, 1991; Herman et al., 1987), reading for different purposes (National Reading Panel, 2000; Stahl, 1999; Anderson, 1996), semantic feature analysis (Pittelman et al., 1991; Anders & Bos, 1986), and semantic maps (Sinatra et al., 1985; Johnson & Pearson, 1984). For those students who have developed reading ability

in English, incidental word learning will develop in relationship to the amount of time a student spends reading (Mastropieri et al., 1999; Cunningham & Stanovich, 1991; Anderson et al., 1988). Reading for different purposes and at different levels of difficulty exposes the student to new words that he or she would never encounter in oral language alone and helps create connections between words (National Reading Panel, 2000; Stahl, 1999; Anderson, 1996).

Academic competency is not merely a matter of completing reading and writing assignments; it involves the integration of related cognitive processes such as listening and verbal reasoning. The WMLS-R NU is comprised of tests that include listening and verbal reasoning; concomitantly, the IIP/WMLS-R NU includes related interventions when proficiency is low in these important aspects of CALP. For example, possible evidence-based interventions for listening include opportunities to practice listening and following directions (Galda & Cullinan, 1991; Leung & Pikulski, 1990), echo activities (Clay, 1991), and modify the listening environment (Hardiman, 2003). For a young child, games such as Simon Says or Follow the Leader are enjoyable ways to develop listening abilities. These games are particularly useful because they require a motor response that demonstrates whether or not the child is following the directions. Verbal reasoning abilities are further developed through opportunities to hear and practice using language (Moats, 2001; Hart & Risley, 1995) by being engaged in the verbal interaction of the classroom.

Literacy Development Interventions

Reading and writing are mutually reinforcing skill domains for ELLs, just as they are for native English speakers (August, 2002; Echevarria et al., 2006). In this section, the term *literacy* is used to align with the findings and recommendations of the report of the National Literacy Panel on language-minority children and youth (August & Shanahan, 2006).

Integration of reading, writing, and oral language instruction

Oral language development lays the groundwork for reading and writing. In turn, reading helps develop writing skills and writing helps develop reading skills. Research indicates that achievement is often higher in both areas when reading and writing are taught together (Tierney & Shanahan, 1991). For these reasons, it may be important to consider integrated instruction in oral language, reading, and writing when planning an instructional program for ELLs (August, 2002; Echevarria et al., 2006; Genesee et al., 2006; Gersten, et al., 2007; Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007).

A confluence of research evidence (August & Shanahan, 2006; Echevarria et al., 2006; Genessee et al., 2006; Gersten et al., 2007; Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007) suggests that ELLs benefit most from the integration of reading, writing, and oral language instruction across all curriculum domains. For example, knowledge of words and their meanings is associated with reading comprehension ability. For ELLs, explicit (direct) daily vocabulary instruction, integrated in all parts of the curriculum, has been demonstrated to increase reading comprehension ability (Gersten, et al., 2007; Pardon, 1992; Perez; 1981; Rousseau et al., 1993; McLaughlin et al., 2000).

Direct instruction in interactive learning environments

It is well documented that interactive learning environments positively influence the reading vocabulary level, reading comprehension ability, and writing skills of ELLs (Calderón et al., 1998; Echevarria, 1996: Padron, 1992; Fayden, 1997; Klingner & Vaughn, 1996; 2000; Doherty et al., 2003). However, research based on ELLs also has shown that direct

instruction approaches and interactive learning environments can be combined effectively (Genesee et al., 2006; Padron, 1992; Doherty et al., 2003; Goldenberg, 1992; Saunders & Goldenberg, 1999). As stated by Genesee et al. (2006, p. 140), "Presenting direct instruction in interactive learning environments ensures that it is meaningful, contextualized, and individualized." Direct instruction appears to be particularly useful for teaching word- and text-level language skills (Genesee et al., 2006). Examples of the direct instruction approach include the keyword method (Avila & Sadoski (1996) and the word preview/review method (Ulanoff & Pucci, 1999).

Small group interventions recommended for at-risk students

Gersten et al. (2007) strongly recommend the provision of intensive, small-group, direct-instruction interventions for elementary-aged students who are at risk for developing reading problems (Gunn et al., 2000; Gunn et al., 2002). The areas of focus could include, depending on each learner's individual needs, phonological awareness, phonics, reading fluency, vocabulary, and reading comprehension interventions. For students who enter first grade with weak prereading skills, the program of interventions should be implemented for at least 30 minutes in small, homogenous groups of three to six students (Gersten et al., 2007).

Beginning literacy instruction with phonemic awareness and phonics

If an ELL has not already learned to read or write in any language, it is important to begin literacy instruction with phonemic awareness and phonics (August & Shanahan, 2006). This instruction can occur in either the student's native language[3] or in English (Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007). Young Spanish speakers who are learning to read in English may benefit from phonemic awareness interventions that target certain English language phonemes that are not present in Spanish (Kramer et al., 1983). For example, the following English consonants exist in Spanish and their pronunciation is generally similar: /b/, /k/, /s/, /f/, /g/, /h/, /m/, /n/, /p/, /t/, /x/, /y/, and /ch/. The following English consonant sounds, however, do not exist in Spanish or sound significantly different and thus may cause difficulty for native Spanish speakers: /d/, /j/, /r/, /v/, /z/, /sh/, /th/ (as in "thin"), /zh/, /ng/, the beginning and ending blends with /s/, and ending blends with /r/ (Bear et al., 2002).

Reading comprehension strategies

Like many of their native English-speaking peers, ELL students may need specific instruction in reading comprehension strategies (Bean, 1982; Bernhardt, 2005; Denti & Guerin, 2004; Garcia & Godina, 2004; Palincsar & Brown, 1984, 1985; Paris et al., 1984; Shames, 1998; Swicegood, 1990). Effective reading comprehension interventions include developing and connecting background knowledge to reading material and preteaching key vocabulary words (Biemiller, 2005; Echevarria et al., 2006; Stahl & Nagy, 2006; Jimenez et al., 1996). Reciprocal teaching also has been shown to enhance reading comprehension of ELLs (Hernandez, 1991).

Adolescent ELLs may need to be specifically taught active reading processes (Garcia & Godina, 2004; Valdés, 1999; Villasenor, 2003; Fitzgerald, 1995; Baker, 2004) such as passage previewing; making predictions, inferences, or conclusions; and paraphrasing content.

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[3] Research suggests that first language literacy is likely to transfer to second language literacy (August et al., 2002; Bialystok, et al., 2005; Cunningham & Graham, 2000, August & Shanahan, 2006; Riches & Genesee, 2006). This transfer is referred to as cross-language transfer of skills and knowledge. First language reading skill appears to provide a deep conceptual and linguistic proficiency that is strongly related to the development of literacy in the second language.

It is important to note, however, that if reading comprehension strategies are sufficiently acquired and applied in a student's native language, they often transfer to English (August, 2002; Riches & Genessee, 2006). Also, for adolescent ELLs with low levels of English reading ability, high-interest, low-reading-difficulty supplemental textbooks are beneficial accommodations (Hornberger, 2003).

A language experience approach to reading and writing

For an ELL who is already fluent in English oral language ability but is limited in reading ability, a language experience approach may be a beneficial supplement to direct reading instruction (Vaughn-Shavuo, 1990). In this type of intervention, the student might tell a story or relate an experience. The teacher or more advanced student would write a narrative about the story. Together, the student and teacher or more advanced student would edit and revise the story, as appropriate. Then the student would be asked to read his or her own text. The teacher would collect several stories authored by the student over time and help him or her create a book. The student would be asked to reread the book frequently.

Teaching spelling

Differences between English and Spanish spelling patterns can pose a difficulty for some ELLs. A comparison of spelling inventories administered in each language can provide valuable information (Bear et al., 2002). The words in spelling inventories are typically selected to assess critical aspects of the orthography. For example, an English-language spelling inventory may begin with CVC (consonent-vowel-consonent) words such as *can* to test the short *a* sound and the /k/ and /n/ consonant sounds, *let* to test the short *e* sound and the /l/ and /t/ consonant sounds, and *fish* to test the short *i* sound and the /f/ and /sh/ sounds. By comparing spelling inventories administered in both English and Spanish, insights are gained about the student's knowledge in each of the languages and if he or she is incorrectly applying the linguistic structure of Spanish-to-English spellings. For example, if the student spells *cook* as *cuk*, then the teacher might deduce that the student is using the Spanish vowel sound to spell a word in English. This specific information can be used to review the differences between any English and Spanish phoneme-grapheme correspondences that the student may have confused in the English spelling inventory.

Structuring writing for ELLs

Bermúdez and Prater (1990) showed how the use of brainstorming and clustering could help ELL students develop better writing skills. Specific instruction in the writing processes also may need to be taught explicitly, including the brainstorming, drafting, editing, and publishing phases (Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007). Well-structured writing programs, emphasizing the phases of the writing process (brainstorming, drafting, revising, editing, and proofreading) have been shown to be of benefit to ELL students (Franken & Haslett, 1999; Gómez et al., 1996; Prater & Bermúdez, 1993; Sengupta, 2000).

Literacy development outside of the classroom

Finally, research has shown that literacy can be facilitated outside of the classroom setting. For example, ELL students develop literacy skills when they paraphrase, interpret, and translate English-language materials for family members. They also increase their English literacy by using the Internet, reading magazines and books for pleasure, and sending e-mails to friends (Moje et al., 2004; Orellana et al., 2003). Encouraging ELL students to read English language materials outside of school has a positive effect on reading achievement (Elley, 1991; Tsang, 1996; Tudor and Hafiz, 1989; Schon et al., 1982; Schon et al., 1984, 1985).

Synopsis of Additional Literacy Interventions Based on Evidence From the Education of Native Speakers of English

In the IIP/WMLS-R NU, many additional literacy development interventions are available based on evidence of efficacy from studies with native speakers of English. For example, use of an explicit, systematic, synthetic phonics program has proven to produce the largest gains for readers with poor decoding skills (National Reading Panel, 2000; Snow et al., 1998). These programs begin instruction at the phoneme level, teaching students to first manipulate the sounds (phonemes) in words during oral activities that build phonemic awareness. Later, they are taught associations between phonemes and the written letter or letters that represent them (graphemes). At this stage, they begin blending the sounds represented by letters in order to read phonetically regular words segmenting the sounds in order to write them. These programs also have been validated with ELLs (Gersten et al., 2007; Gunn et al., 2000; Gunn et al., 2002; August & Shanahan, 2006; Short & Fitzsimmons, 2007; Kramer et al., 1983).

Some related interventions include explicit, systematic instruction in phonics (National Reading Panel, 2000; Ehri, 1991), orthography (Moats, 2005; Templeton & Bear, 1992), and morphology (Anglin, 1993; Baumann, Edwards et al., 2003; Baumann, Kame'enui, & Ash, 2003; Blachowicz & Fisher, 2000; Carlisle, 2004; Carlisle & Stone, 2005; Graves, 2000; National Reading Panel, 2000); use of multisensory techniques (Carreker, 2005; Fernald, 1943); teaching common irregular words (Moats, 2005); providing frequent practice (Bridge, Winograd, & Haley, 1983); encouraging independent reading (Taylor et al., 1990; Anderson et al., 1985); and teaching use of computer spell checker (MacArthur et al., 2001).

Intentional explicit word instruction can be supplemented with word recognition strategies such as word walls (Brabham & Villaume, 2001), flow lists (McCoy and Prehm, 1987), word banks, flash cards, and games to help students develop the ability to recognize and decode words quickly. For example, a word wall might present five high-frequency words that the student needs to learn. The teacher engages the student in activities, both planned and unplanned, that use the words on the wall. This intervention helps build word recognition, word analysis skills, and vocabulary and serves as a spelling reference.

Teaching a student how to analyze the syllables within words (i.e., graphosyllabic instruction) may result in improved reading and spelling performance (Bhattacharya & Ehri, 2004). This method of instruction requires students to analyze the graphosyllabic makeup of words through a five-step process and provides corrective feedback. First, students read target words aloud, they are supplied with the word if they get it incorrect, and then they repeat the word again. Next, students would provide the meaning of the target word and would receive corrective feedback as needed. Students are then instructed to divide a word's pronunciation into its syllables by raising a finger with each beat and then announcing the number of beats (e.g., "ta-ble has two beats"). Then students would decode words by blending syllables.

Fluency-building interventions include repeated reading (Begeny & Martens, 2006; Meyer & Felton, 1999; O'Shea et al., 1985; Rashotte & Torgeson, 1985; Samuels, 1979, 1985), passage previewing, assisted reading (Shany & Biemiller, 1995), and practicing words in isolation (Levy et al., 1997). Reading fluency interventions also have been demonstrated to be beneficial for ELLs (De la Colina et al., 2001; Denton, 2000). These interventions may be beneficial for use with individual students or small group instructional programs. For example, in repeated reading, the student would read a short passage several times until he or she can read at an appropriate fluency level (or reading rate). In assisted reading, the student reads aloud while an accomplished reader follows along silently. If the student makes an error, the helping reader corrects his or her error. Allowing the student to orally

practice new words in isolation prior to reading the words in connected text also may increase his or her fluency while reading.

Reading comprehension is a complex cognitive process that requires intentional interaction between the reader and the text-to-construct meaning (Durkin, 1993). Various interventions to increase the capacity to perform the complex process of reading comprehension include activating the reader's prior knowledge (National Reading Panel, 2000; Ogle, 1986), use of graphic organizers (Marzano et al., 2001; Gardill & Jitendra, 1999; Berkowitz, 1986), self-monitoring strategies (National Reading Panel, 2000; Brown & Palincsar, 1985; Babbs, 1984; Klingner & Vaughn, 1998), and memory and imagery strategies (Gambrell & Jawitz, 1993; Mastropieri & Scruggs, 1998, Peters & Levin, 1986). Similiar reading comprehension interventions have been validated with ELLs (Bean, 1982; Bernhardt, 2005; Cary, 1997; Denti & Guerin, 2004; Garcia & Godina, 2004; Palincsar & Brown, 1984, 1985; Paris et al., 1984; Shames, 1998; Swicegood, 1990; Biemiller, 2005; Echevarria et al., 2006; Stahl and Nagy, 2006; Jimenez et al., 1996).

For example, linking new facts to prior knowledge about the topic increases inferential comprehension. Using a series of questions, the teacher activates the student's prior knowledge and then models making predictions using a think-aloud approach. Also, teaching the student to use graphic organizers will allow him or her to identify and analyze significant components of a text by mapping them out. Incorporating self-monitoring strategies will help the student recognize and resolve any comprehension errors as they arise. Various memory strategies that implement mental imagery are recommended for enhancing comprehension. One strategy requires the student to summarize the central idea of a passage as a "keyword" and then to make a mental picture of that keyword (Levin, Levin, Glasman, and Nordwall, 1992). The student also uses mental imagery to connect related ideas to the keyword.

Cognitive strategy instruction has been demonstrated to increase reading comprehension. Such strategies encourage active, self-regulated, and intentional reading (Trabasso & Bouchard, 2002). One example of a self-monitoring strategy is the five-step self-questioning technique that may be taught directly to students across multiple days to improve the comprehension of what is read (Wong & Jones, 1982). The five questions/self-statements, which apply to chunks of text and may be placed on a note card for use as a prompt, include the following:

1) What are you studying this passage for?
2) Find the main idea(s) in the paragraph and underline it/them.
3) Think of a question about the main idea you have underlined. Remember what a good question should be like.
4) Learn the answer to your question.
5) Always look back at the questions and answers to see how each successive question and answer provides you with more information. Another example of a reading comprehension intervention is *Multipass*, a meta-cognitive approach that a student can learn to use to better comprehend textbook content (Schumaker et al., 1982).

A reading comprehension intervention that combines strategy instruction and cooperative learning is reciprocal teaching (Palincsar & Brown, 1984). Reciprocal teaching uses small groups to help students develop critical thinking skills through reading, including setting a purpose for reading, reading for meaning, and self-monitoring of understanding. Specific comprehension strategies are taught, including generating questions, summarizing, requesting clarification, and predicting upcoming information. A teacher models the use of

a strategy and then gradually releases responsibility to students to model the same strategy to others in the group.

In the IIP/WMLS-R NU, some additional interventions for spelling include use of multisensory techniques (Carreker, 2005); use of explicit, systematic phonics instruction (National Reading Panel, 2000; Ehri, 1998); direct instruction (Edwards, 2003; Gordon et al., 1993; Graham, 1983); providing frequent practice (Berninger, et al., 1998; Moats, 1995); teaching common irregular words (Moats, 2005); encouraging independent reading (Taylor et al., 1990; Anderson et al., 1985); the Write-Say method (Kearney and Drabman, 2001) the Add-A-Word spelling program (McLaughlin et al., 1991; Schermerhorn & McLaughlin, 1997); and use of group contingencies (Popkin & Skinner, 2003; Shapiro & Goldberg, 1986; Truchlicka et al., 1998).

Additional interventions for improving writing ability include strategies for proofreading (Lanham, 1992; Hillocks & Smith, 1991); peer editing (Stoddard & MacArthur, 1993), and use of technology (MacArthur et al., 2001). For example, proofreading strategies include taking a break after completing the writing before proofreading, reading the work aloud, reading through the work slowly, reading line-by-line covering the other text with a hand or a card, and looking for only one type of error at a time. Another intervention is to have the student circle every punctuation mark in a passage. This forces him or her to look at each punctuation mark and evaluate whether or not it is correct (Lane & Lange, 1993).

Summary

The *Instructional Interventions Program for the WMLS-R NU* (IIP/WMLS-R NU) was developed to link individualized, evidence-based instructional interventions to language proficiency levels as measured by the WMLS-R NU. The evidence-based instructional interventions included in the program are built on a model of cognitive-academic language proficiency (CALP), meaning that the focus of the interventions is on increasing oral language, reading, and writing competence in academic settings. The CALP model guided the selection of interventions intended to develop the deeper, more complex cognitive and linguistic processes that are involved in academic learning.

The primary interventions included in the IIP/WMLS-R NU are based on several widely respected sources of evidence from studies with English Language Learners (ELLs). Additional interventions are based primarily on evidence from studies with native speakers of English, although some of the additional interventions have been validated for use with both ELLs and native speakers of English. Together, this pool of evidenced-based interventions is intended to help educators articulate an appropriate educational plan for an ELL that will facilitate the development of the oral language, reading and writing skills needed for academic success.

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Appendix A

Sample Comprehensive Report

COMPREHENSIVE REPORT OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TESTING

Name: Garcia, Pablo
Date of Birth: 09/17/2001
Country of Birth: Mexico
Age: 7 years, 9 months
Sex: M
Dates of Testing:
    06/05/2009 (English)
    06/05/2009 (Spanish)

School: Friendship Elementary
Grade: 2.9
Examiners:
    Fredrick A. Schrank
    Cris Alvarado

TESTS ADMINISTERED

Pablo was administered a set of tests from the *Woodcock-Muñoz Language Survey–Revised, Normative Update* (WMLS-R NU) English Form A and Spanish Form.

LANGUAGE EXPOSURE AND USE QUESTIONNAIRE

Pablo has been in this country for 6 months. He was born in Mexico.

Pablo's first language is Spanish. At home, he speaks Spanish. Others in his home speak Spanish. In informal social situations, Pablo speaks Spanish. In the classroom, Pablo speaks English about 75% of the time and Spanish about 25% of the time. He has been exposed to academic instruction in English at school for 1 month.

TEST SESSION OBSERVATIONS

Pablo's conversational proficiency seemed very limited for his grade level. He was cooperative throughout the examination; his activity level seemed typical for his grade. During the examination, he seemed attentive to the tasks, but at times he appeared tense or worried. He responded very slowly and hesitantly to test questions. He generally persisted with difficult tasks.

ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TESTING

Woodcock-Muñoz Language Survey–Revised, Normative Update, English Form A
Norms based on grade 2.9

TABLE OF SCORES

Test/CLUSTER	W	GE	CALP Level	RPI	PR	SS (68% Band)	AE
Picture Vocabulary	473	K.4	-	57/90	12	82(77-88)	5-9
Verbal Analogies	466	K.8	-	42/90	8	78(73-84)	6-1
Letter-Word Identification	364	K.4	-	0/90	<0.1	52(48-55)	5-8
Dictation	377	<1.2	-	0/90	<0.1	24(17-30)	<6-6
Understanding Directions	463	<K.0	-	32/90	0.4	60(53-66)	5-0
Story Recall	485	<K.0	-	73/90	1	67(55-79)	4-6
Passage Comprehension	403	<K.4	-	0/90	<0.1	34(25-42)	<5-8
Test/CLUSTER	W	GE	CALP Level	RPI	PR	SS (68% Band)	AE

ORAL LANGUAGE	469	K.7	limited	50/90	9	80(76-83)	5-11
ORAL LANGUAGE-TOTAL	472	K.2	limited	51/90	3	71(67-75)	5-6
READING-WRITING	370	<K.0	negligible	0/90	<0.1	38(35-41)	5-2
BROAD ENG ABIL	420	K.1	negligible	1/90	<0.1	33(30-37)	5-4
BROAD ENG ABIL-TTL	433	<K.0	negligible	2/90	<0.1	40(37-43)	5-3
LISTENING	465	K.3	limited	37/90	2	70(65-74)	5-7
ORAL EXPRESSION	479	K.0	limited	65/90	6	77(72-82)	5-4
READING	383	K.3	negligible	0/90	<0.1	38(34-42)	5-7
WRITING	377	<K.0	negligible	0/90	<0.1	24(17-30)	4-7
LANGUAGE COMP	444	<K.0	v limited	5/90	<0.1	37(29-45)	5-0
APP LANG PROF	432	<K.0	negligible	2/90	<0.1	30(26-35)	4-9

Oral Language–Total is a broad measure of language competency, including listening and speaking skills, language development, verbal reasoning, and language comprehension. Pablo demonstrated limited English oral language ability (Level 3). His performance is comparable to that of the average student in grade K.2. The point at which Pablo will find English oral language tasks quite easy is below the median for students in grade K.0. Similar tasks above the grade 1.5 level will be quite difficult for him.

Broad English Ability–Total is a broad sample of listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills, including language comprehension abilities. Pablo demonstrated negligible broad English ability (Level 1). His performance is below the median for students in grade K.0. Broad language tasks above the grade K.6 level will be quite difficult for Pablo. However, inspection of his test scores shows significant variability in language performance. Performance on the writing test was significantly lower than performance on the vocabulary test.

Listening (primarily receptive language skills) measures listening ability, comprehension, and linguistic competency. Pablo demonstrated limited listening ability in English (Level 3). His performance is comparable to that of the average student in grade K.3. The point at which Pablo will find listening tasks quite easy is below the median for students in grade K.0. Similar tasks above the grade 1.2 level will be quite difficult for him.

Oral Expression (primarily expressive language skills) measures expressive vocabulary, language comprehension and development, and meaningful memory. Pablo demonstrated limited English oral expression ability (Level 3). His performance is comparable to that of the average student in grade K.0. The point at which Pablo will find English oral expression tasks quite easy is below the median for students in grade K.0. Similar tasks above the grade 2.0 level will be quite difficult for him.

Reading measures letter and word identification skills and the ability to comprehend written passages while reading. Pablo demonstrated negligible English reading ability (Level 1). His performance is comparable to that of the average student in grade K.3. The point at which Pablo will find English reading tasks quite easy is below the median for students in grade K.0. Similar tasks above the grade K.6 level will be quite difficult for him.

Writing measures spelling, punctuation, capitalization, and word usage. Pablo demonstrated negligible English writing ability (Level 1). His performance is below the median for students in grade K.0.

Language Comprehension is a combined measure of listening and reading comprehension abilities. Pablo demonstrated very limited English language comprehension (Level 2). His performance is below the median for students in grade K.0. Language comprehension tasks above the grade K.6 level will be quite difficult for Pablo.

Applied Language Proficiency is an index of the proficiency with which Pablo can effectively apply listening, speaking, reading, writing, and comprehension abilities. Pablo's ability to apply language skills in English is negligible (Level 1). His applied language proficiency is below the median for students in grade K.0. Applied language tasks above the grade K.2 level will be quite difficult for Pablo. However, inspection of his test scores shows significant variability in performance. Performance on the writing test was significantly lower than performance on the Story Recall test.

SUMMARY OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

When compared to others at his grade level, Pablo's Listening and Oral Expression skills are limited (Level 3). His Language Comprehension skills are very limited (Level 2). His Writing and Reading skills are negligible (Level 1).

Overall, Pablo's *Oral Language–Total* skills are limited (Level 3). His *Applied Language Proficiency* (the ability to apply listening, speaking, reading, writing, and comprehension abilities in English) is negligible (Level 1). His *Reading-Writing* skills are negligible (Level 1). Pablo's *Broad English Ability–Total* is negligible (Level 1).

INSTRUCTIONAL RECOMMENDATIONS & INTERVENTIONS BASED ON ASSESSMENT IN ENGLISH

Pablo is a second language learner who is developing his oral language proficiency in English. Daily oral English language instruction may be beneficial until Pablo achieves sufficient proficiency in English for academic purposes.

Pablo will probably benefit the most from oral language instruction that is presented within the early to late kindergarten range.

Pablo may benefit from phonemic awareness instruction, including the particular English-language phonemes and combinations of phonemes that are not present in Spanish, such as "sh."

Oral language instruction should be closely linked to real-life experiences. Relevant content- or theme-based instructional modules will provide Pablo with a foundation for oral language development in English.

Pablo may require explicit instruction in basic vocabulary words. Use an English Language Learner basic word list or a basic vocabulary word list (such as the Dale-Chall list of basic vocabulary words) to select target words for Pablo. On a weekly basis, conduct a short self-assessment activity with Pablo. First, preselect a number of words for each assessment activity, perhaps 25 to 50 words per session. Intentionally target the words that likely will be used in the classroom. During the assessment, read each word to Pablo, asking him to rate his knowledge of the word using the following system:

  (1) I have never heard the word before—holds up one finger
  (2) I have heard the word before—holds up two fingers
  (3) I think I know what the word means—holds up three fingers
  (4) I know what the word means—holds up four fingers.

Check off each word as it is read to Pablo. Record the 1, 2, 3, or 4 after the word on the list. Develop and implement an instructional plan for teaching any word rated with a 1 or 2 (target words for instruction). Teach Pablo at least two new words each day. Reinforce words rated 3 through repeated exposures of the word in different contexts (oral discourse, reading, and writing assignments). Select reading materials that use the vocabulary words that were explicitly taught. Repeat the assessment activity weekly with newly selected words. Periodically review words that were taught explicitly.

Use an academic word list to select important words to increase Pablo's vocabulary for academic purposes. Pablo's teacher should deliberately use the selected words in classroom instruction or conversation, linking the vocabulary to classroom content objectives. Words learned from this list will reinforce the meanings of many related English words.

Key vocabulary words should be previewed and contextualized with Pablo prior to formally introducing them in a lesson. This requires introducing key terms before a lesson is taught so that Pablo will have an understanding of the term before it is used in the context of the lesson. Define each word in terms that Pablo can understand. A limited number of words should be included in each activity, and the words selected should be the key words needed for an upcoming lesson. Review of the vocabulary words after an instructional activity may also increase vocabulary development.

Pablo may benefit from clear instructions, presented in a step-by-step manner, for assignments and class activities. Demonstrations or modeling of task requirements may also be helpful. Oral directions for assignments should be accompanied by written directions so that Pablo may refer to them at a later time.

As Pablo encounters new English words or phrases, make a note of the vocabulary and deliberately present the word or phrase at different times and contexts. Pablo likely will need to encounter the word or phrase about 12 to 15 times before he knows it well enough to be part of his lexicon.

Provide Pablo with frequent opportunities to engage in structured, supported, academic discussions.

Academic instruction in Spanish may be beneficial for Pablo. Second language learners, such as Pablo, who develop a strong foundation of oral and literacy skills in their native language often experience increased success in English oral language, reading, and writing. Maintaining and developing Pablo's native language skills while adding English skills (an additive learning environment) allows Pablo to have immediate, full, and sustained access to the core curriculum through first language instruction while he develops English language skills. Development of proficiency in English as a second language is a lengthy process that typically takes 5 to 7 years for many children. Providing access to the core curriculum in Spanish while Pablo is learning English may facilitate his academic growth.

Organizing Pablo's vocabulary instruction by theme allows for repetition of vocabulary and may facilitate learning. For example, Pablo's teacher might use "apples" as a theme in reading, math, and science. Pablo might be taught the vocabulary *apple*, *core*, *seeds*, *stem*, *half*, and *quarter*. As Pablo's teacher reads stories about apples aloud, the teacher could also use apples to explain the concepts of half and quarter or use the seeds of apples to explain plant and tree growth.

Model good pronunciation, grammar, and word usage for Pablo. When Pablo makes a pronunciation, grammar, or usage error, reaffirm Pablo's idea(s) and then say the mispronounced or misused word correctly and in context.

Knowledge of words, their meanings, and the ability to reason using words is important for comprehension and problem solving. Actively involving Pablo in vocabulary-rich learning activities may increase Pablo's level of word knowledge.

Reading aloud to Pablo is a helpful activity for vocabulary development. Select books that include new vocabulary words for Pablo. While reading, pause and explain any words that may negatively affect comprehension. After reading the books, discuss the new words and their meanings more fully.

Develop word consciousness in Pablo by playing with words and stimulating his interest in words, their meanings, and their origins. Word games can provide enjoyment and motivation. For example, provide Pablo with a word and ask him to list all of the words he can think of with a similar meaning (e.g., synonyms). Or, provide Pablo with a series of words on cards and two categories like transportation and foods. Pablo files the word cards into the appropriate category.

Pablo may benefit from a rich environment that provides numerous opportunities and exposure to language. Opportunities for role playing, sharing time, and hands-on activities with new, interesting vocabulary may help Pablo acquire new vocabulary and incorporate these words into his speaking vocabulary. Provide frequent exposure and practice with new words.

Use text talks to engage Pablo in a dialogue about a story that was read and the names of things (objects) in the story. Make connections between new words and known words and experiences already known. Explain the meanings of new words by paraphrasing using known words.

Encourage parents to discuss with Pablo events that occurred during the day and to ask and answer questions.

Incidental word learning through reading will depend on the amount of time Pablo spends reading. Reading for different purposes will expose Pablo to new vocabulary, idioms, sentence structure, sentence openers, and sentence length.

Explicit teaching of specific words and names of things (objects) may improve Pablo's vocabulary. This type of instruction may help Pablo to develop knowledge of high-utility words and key vocabulary. Provide opportunities to use new words in a variety of contexts; provide repeated and multiple exposures to new words.

Provide opportunities for Pablo to practice listening and following directions. Play games such as "Simon Says" or "Follow the Leader" to help develop listening skills. Pablo's motor response can demonstrate whether he is following the directions. Another activity is to have Pablo draw a picture following oral directions. For example, the teacher might say, "Draw a house on your paper. Draw a tree next to the house." Gradually increase the difficulty of the directions. Another example of a game to increase Pablo's language comprehension is a "yes-no" game. Ask Pablo a variety of questions that can be answered yes or no.

Ask Pablo to repeat words, phrases, or sentences. As Pablo demonstrates success, increase the number of words presented or the sentence length. Using games, such as "I Went to the Market," may help develop Pablo's ability to listen and remember. The adult starts the game by saying, "I went to the market and got (insert one or two items, e.g., milk)." Then Pablo repeats what was stated and adds an item to the list. Alternate turns back and forth until someone makes a mistake.

Barrier games are a motivating way to practice listening, following directions, or giving directions. A barrier is placed between two people. One person gives directions, and the other person follows the instructions. Tasks may include drawing pictures or designs, building objects, writing information, or finding a location on a map. Roles can then be reversed so both people get practice giving and receiving directions.

Modifying the listening environment may help Pablo to understand and follow directions. Provide preferential seating; a quiet, structured study area; and more time for Pablo to respond.

Multimodality instruction may assist Pablo in understanding and remembering what is said in the classroom. Directions can be given using both visual and verbal cues simultaneously. For example, the teacher might write the steps on the board while explaining each step or demonstrate each step while describing it verbally. Instruction can be supported with visuals such as pictures, charts, graphs, graphic organizers, or videos.

Reading aloud to Pablo is a helpful activity. Encourage him to interact with the story by pointing to objects in the pictures, guessing what might happen next, or retelling his favorite part. To further develop Pablo's expressive language skills, after reading a story, have him retell the main ideas in his own words.

Pablo's teachers should make efforts to help him activate prior knowledge and apply it to the lessons being taught. Activating what he already knows from family history, prior schooling, or personal experience will aid comprehension of current academic tasks.

Direct vocabulary instruction may facilitate certain aspects of Pablo's ability to understand oral discourse. Target words that signal sequence (e.g., *first*, *next*, *finally*) or spatial orientation (e.g., *before*, *after*, *below*, *above*). Provide practice following directions using these terms. In addition, teach Pablo words that signify relationships between words, such as pronouns, conjunctions, and synonyms.

Pablo will probably gain the most from reading instruction presented within the early to middle kindergarten range.

Pablo may benefit from direct, focused, small group instruction in reading for at least 30 minutes each day. The instructional program should provide multiple opportunities for Pablo to read both words and sentences orally and respond to questions. Pablo should receive clear feedback from the teacher when he makes an error.

Developing Pablo's native language literacy may subsequently be beneficial for developing literacy in English.

Encourage Pablo's family to provide native-language literacy experiences at home by reading native-language books, newspapers, and magazines. Literacy knowledge in Pablo's native language may ultimately contribute to enhanced literacy development in English.

Listening to stories read aloud by the teacher is a good way to enrich vocabulary and introduce comprehension skills such as the main idea or cause and effect relationships.

Writing instruction that is presented within the early kindergarten level is appropriate for Pablo.

Pablo likely will benefit from joint-productive activities that involve small groups of students working collaboratively. The joint activities can result in either tangible work products or intangible instructional objectives. Collaborative written or oral reports, concept maps, and math problems are examples of tangible work products. Intangible instructional objectives might include idea or concept development and understandings that elicit higher-level thinking.

Reading, writing, and oral language skill development is mutually reinforcing. Pablo likely will benefit from integrated instruction in reading, writing, listening, and speaking across all curriculum domains. Oral language development activities should not be sacrificed for greater emphasis on reading and writing.

SPANISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY TESTING

Woodcock-Muñoz Language Survey–Revised, Normative Update, Spanish Form
Norms based on grade 2.9

TABLE OF SCORES (Spanish)

Test/CLUSTER	W	GE	CALP Level	RPI	PR	SS (68% Band)	AE
Vocabulario sobre dibujos	483	1.8	–	79/90	30	92(88-97)	7-1
Analogías verbales	482	2.2	–	81/90	34	94(89-99)	7-6
Ident de letras y palabras	430	1.9	–	13/90	12	83(79-86)	7-2
Dictado	464	1.9	–	48/90	16	85(81-90)	7-3
Comp de indicaciones	479	1.3	–	72/90	13	83(75-92)	6-8
Rememoración de cuentos	495	2.7	–	89/90	46	98(85-112)	8-0
Comprensión de textos	443	1.2	–	6/90	1	65(59-71)	6-6
LENGUAJE ORAL	482	2.0	lmtd to flu	81/90	32	93(89-96)	7-4
LENGUAJE ORAL-TOTAL	485	1.9	fluent	82/90	26	90(87-94)	7-2
LECTURA-ESCRITURA	447	1.9	limited	27/90	13	83(80-86)	7-3
AMP HAB ESPAÑOL	465	1.9	limited	55/90	10	81(78-84)	7-3
AMP HAB ESPAÑOL-TTL	468	1.7	limited	54/90	8	79(77-82)	7-0
HAB PARA ESCUCHAR	481	1.8	lmtd to flu	77/90	24	89(84-94)	7-2
EXPRESIÓN ORAL	489	2.0	fluent	85/90	33	93(88-98)	7-4
LECTURA	437	1.6	v limited	9/90	4	73(69-77)	6-10
ESCRITURA	464	1.9	limited	48/90	16	85(81-90)	7-3
COMP DE LENG	469	1.3	limited	43/90	2	70(64-76)	6-7
PROF LENG APLICADO	470	1.5	limited	52/90	6	77(73-80)	6-10

Lenguaje oral–Total is a broad measure of language competency, including listening and speaking skills, language development, verbal reasoning, and language comprehension. Pablo demonstrated fluent Spanish oral language ability (Level 4). His performance is comparable to that of the average student in grade 1.9. Oral language tasks below the grade K.6 level will be quite easy for Pablo; those above the grade 3.6 level will be quite difficult for him.

Amplia habilidad en español–Total is a broad sample of listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills, including language comprehension abilities. Pablo demonstrated limited broad Spanish ability (Level 3). His performance is comparable to that of the average student in grade 1.7. Broad language tasks below the grade 1.2 level will be quite easy for Pablo; those above the grade 2.3 level will be quite difficult for him.

Habilidad para escuchar (primarily receptive language skills) measures listening ability, comprehension, and linguistic competency. Pablo demonstrated limited to fluent listening ability in Spanish (Level 3-4). His performance is comparable to that of the average student in grade 1.8. Listening tasks below the grade K.9 level will be quite easy for Pablo; those above the grade 3.1 level will be quite difficult for him.

Expresión oral (primarily expressive language skills) measures expressive vocabulary, language comprehension and development, and meaningful memory. Pablo demonstrated fluent Spanish oral expression ability (Level 4). His performance is comparable to that of the average student in grade 2.0. Oral expression tasks below the grade K.0 level will be quite easy for Pablo; those above the grade 4.4 level will be quite difficult for him.

Lectura measures letter identification skills and the ability to comprehend written passages while reading. Pablo demonstrated very limited Spanish reading ability (Level 2). His performance is comparable to that of the average student in grade 1.6. Reading tasks below the grade 1.3 level will be quite easy for Pablo; those above the grade 1.8 level will be quite difficult for him.

Escritura measures spelling, punctuation, capitalization, and word usage. Pablo demonstrated limited Spanish writing ability (Level 3). His performance is comparable to that of the average student in grade 1.9. Writing tasks below the grade 1.6 level will be quite easy for Pablo; those above the grade 2.3 level will be quite difficult for him.

Comprensión de lenguaje is a combined measure of listening and reading comprehension abilities. Pablo demonstrated limited Spanish language comprehension ability (Level 3). His performance is comparable to that of the average student in grade 1.3. Language comprehension tasks below the grade K.9 level will be quite easy for Pablo; those above the grade 1.8 level will be quite difficult for him.

Proficiencia en el lenguaje aplicado is an index of the proficiency with which Pablo can effectively apply listening, speaking, reading, writing, and comprehension abilities. Pablo's ability to apply language skills in Spanish is limited (Level 3). His applied language proficiency is comparable to that of the average student in grade 1.5. Applied language tasks below the grade 1.1 level will be quite easy for Pablo; those above the grade 2.1 level will be quite difficult for him.

SUMMARY OF SPANISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

When compared to others at his grade level, Pablo's Oral Expression skills are fluent (Level 4). His Listening skills are limited to fluent (Level 3–4). His Language Comprehension and Writing skills are limited (Level 3). His Reading skills are very limited (Level 2).

Overall, Pablo's *Oral Language–Total* skills are fluent (Level 4). His *Applied Language Proficiency* (the ability to apply listening, speaking, reading, writing, and comprehension abilities in English) is limited (Level 3). His *Broad English Ability–Total* is limited (Level 3). Pablo's *Reading-Writing* skills are limited (Level 3).

INSTRUCTIONAL RECOMMENDATIONS & INTERVENTIONS BASED ON ASSESSMENT IN SPANISH

Pablo will probably benefit the most from Spanish oral language instruction that is presented within the early first grade to late second grade range.

Relevant content- or theme-based instructional modules will provide Pablo with a foundation for oral language development in Spanish. Engage Pablo in meaningful conversation using increasingly higher levels of Spanish vocabulary words.

Spanish vocabulary words should be previewed and contextualized with Pablo prior to formally introducing them in a lesson. This requires introducing key terms before a lesson is taught so that Pablo will have an understanding of the term before it is used in the context of the lesson. A limited number of words should be included in each activity, and the words selected should be the key words needed for comprehending an upcoming lesson. Review of the vocabulary words after an instructional activity may also reinforce vocabulary development.

As Pablo encounters a new Spanish word or phrase, make a note of the vocabulary and deliberately present it at different times and contexts. Pablo likely will need to encounter the word or phrase about 12 to 15 times before he knows it well enough to be part of his lexicon.

Repetition and multiple exposures to vocabulary items are important. Pablo should be given vocabulary items in many contexts.

Connecting current instruction to what Pablo already knows and then explicitly discussing how that knowledge applies to the topic at hand will make maximum use of his prior knowledge in new learning. Help Pablo build a bridge from previous learning to new learning by asking him questions such as "What do you remember or know about _____?"

Pablo will probably gain the most from Spanish reading instruction presented within the middle to late first grade range.

Writing instruction in Spanish that is presented within the late first grade to early second grade level is appropriate for Pablo.

Modeling the "thinking, reading, and writing" process in front of Pablo may help him later with his own reading and writing. For example, Pablo's teacher may say, in Spanish, "I need to remember that your music class today is at 2:30 P.M. and not at the usual time." Then the teacher writes on the chalkboard, while simultaneously reading aloud, "Para hoy, la clase de música será a las 2:30 de la tarde." Note that the benefits of modeling the thinking, reading, and writing process may not become evident until much later, but Pablo may begin to internalize these processes.

COMPARATIVE LANGUAGE INDEXES (Spanish compared to English)

BROAD ABILITY 54/2   ORAL LANGUAGE 82/51   READING-WRITING 27/0

For his grade level, Pablo performs overall language proficiency tasks with 54% success in Spanish and with 2% success in English. On parallel oral language tasks, Pablo performs with 82% success in Spanish and with 51% success in English. On parallel reading-writing tasks, Pablo performs with 27% success in Spanish and with 0% success in English.

Pablo's performance on the oral language tests of the WMLS-R NU suggests that he is stronger in Spanish, although his Spanish skills fall between the limited and fluent ranges. Academic content instruction in Spanish may be beneficial for Pablo. Instructional support with scaffold instruction may be necessary for Pablo to understand academic content that is delivered in English. In addition, explicit (clearly defined) and meaningful English oral language development interventions are recommended.