

Professional Development Guide:

Module 4, Session 12

Addressing the Needs of All Students



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Modules and Sessions Table

Module	Topic	Session	Minutes	Session Date
1	Domain A: Applying Principles and Practices that Foster a Positive Culture	Intro	60	
		1	120	
		2	150	
		3	150	
2	Domain B: Applying Effective Pedagogy and Andragogy	4	120	
		5	120	
		6	165	
3	Domain C: Collecting Data to Inform Professional Learning	7	150	
		8	140	
		9	170	
4	Domain D: Planning, Implementing, and Analyzing Literacy Instruction	10	175	
		11	135	
		12	165	
		13	130	
5	Domain E: Growing Professionally	14	120	
		15	120	
6	Planning and Implementing Coaching	16	120	

Bridge to Practice Module Projects for Coaches

A Bridge to Practice project after each module will provide evidence that coaches are able to apply the knowledge and skills they developed in this course in their schools. Coaches will:

- **Module 1:** develop a principal-coach partnership agreement;
- **Module 2:** develop a needs assessment for professional development on evidence-based instructional practices and complete an **ADDIE model** for planning this professional development;
- **Module 3:** develop and describe planned implementation of a professional learning action plan;
- **Module 4:** create a video that reflects coaching to help teachers plan, implement, and analyze standards-based literacy instruction;
- **Module 5:** complete a reflection on the course, including plans for continued professional growth;
- **Module 6:** choose one teacher with whom you have seen significant growth as a result of coaching support and complete a reflection on what worked, why it worked, and which areas of growth were most evident.

A rubric is provided at the end of each module for the corresponding Bridge to Practice project.

Fundamentals of Literacy Coaching

Professional Development Modules

Module 4, Session 12

Addressing the Needs of All Students



Module	Topic	Session	Minutes	Session Date
		Intro	60	
1	Applying Principles and Practices that Foster a Positive Culture	1	120	
		2	150	
		3	150	
		4	120	
2	Applying Effective Pedagogy and Andragogy	5	120	
		6	165	
3	Collecting Data to Inform Professional Learning	7	150	
		8	140	
		9	170	
4	Planning, Implementing, and Analyzing Literacy Instruction	10	175	
		11	135	
		12	165	
		13	130	
5	Growing Professionally	14	120	
		15	120	
6	Planning and Implementing Coaching	16	120	

Bridge to Practice Projects for Coaches

- An activity designed to serve as a Bridge to Practice after each Module will provide evidence that coaches are able to apply the knowledge and skills they developed in this course in their schools. Coaches will complete the following activities:

Module 1	Develop a principal-coach partnership agreement.
Module 2	Develop a needs assessment for professional development on evidence-based instructional practices and complete an ADDIE model for planning this professional development.
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Module 6	Choose one teacher with whom you have seen significant growth as a result of coaching support and complete a reflection on what worked, why it worked, and which areas of growth were most evident.

- A rubric is provided at the end of each Module for the corresponding Bridge to Practice project.

Norms for Our Course

Cell phones
on silent



Pay attention to
self and others



Presume
positive intentions





Define and Discuss Session Goals and Content

Goals for Today

- Learn how to align instruction and intervention to a logical scope and sequence of reading skill development.
- Learn how to apply standards-aligned systematic intervention for language and literacy development.
- Learn about the stages of language and literacy development for all students.
- Learn about literacy learning processes and language development of English Language Learners and Students with Disabilities in collaboration with English for Speakers of Other Languages and Exceptional Student Education departments.
- Learn about Multi-Tiered System of Support and evidence-based practices, programs, and interventions.

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Debrief

Review of Module 4, Session 11

- Discuss **Self-Study 1** and discuss any questions or wonderings from the Comprehensive K-3 Reading Assessment Plan: Guidance for School Leaders.
- Discuss **Video 5 on Formative Assessment White Boards** and **Self-Study 2**.
- Discuss the **Analyzing Student Work Data Protocol** and how you used it with one or more teachers while completing **Self-Study 3**.
- Discuss any questions or comments regarding the last session.

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Literacy Coach Domain and Standards: Session 12

D. Knowledge of and ability to apply effective methods for planning, implementing, and analyzing standards-based literacy instruction based on the science of reading and evidence-based practices. Coaches will demonstrate their abilities in and understanding of:

2. How to align instruction and intervention to a logical scope and sequence of reading skill development.
3. The application of standards-aligned systematic instruction and intervention for language and literacy development.
4. The stages of language and literacy development for all students.
6. Literacy learning processes and language development of English Language Learners and Students with Disabilities in collaboration with English for Speakers of Other Languages and Exceptional Student Education departments.
7. Multi-Tiered System of Support and evidence-based practices, programs and interventions.

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Learn and Confirm

Aligning Instruction and Intervention to a Logical Scope and Sequence of Reading Skill Development



Video 1: Addressing the Needs of All Students presents an overview of aligning instruction and intervention to a logical scope and sequence of reading skill development.

Handout 1: Video Viewing Guide for Video 1. Watch the video, complete the viewing guide, and discuss at your tables.

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Handout 1 on next page

Handout 1: Video Viewing Guide for Video 1: Addressing the Needs of All Students – Aligning Instruction and Intervention

Directions: Watch [Video 1: Addressing the Needs of All Students: Aligning Instruction and Intervention](#) and answer the questions below.

Question	Answer
1. During which grade does phonological awareness instruction typically fade out?	
2. What is a standalone intervention?	
3. What is an embedded intervention?	
4. Why might it be helpful for struggling students to use intervention materials aligned with those used in core reading instruction?	
5. Why is it important for all intervention materials to follow a logical scope and sequence?	
6. How can coaches help ensure that literacy instruction and intervention are aligned as needed and follow a logical scope and sequence?	

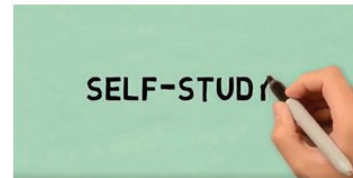
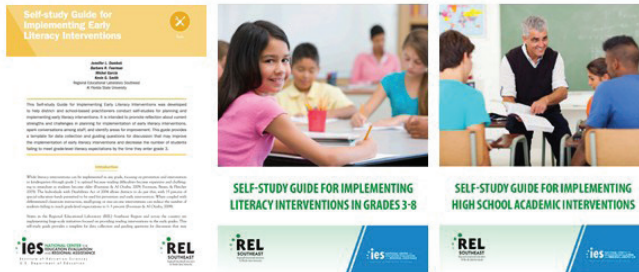
End of Handout 1

Findings of Foorman et al. (2018)



- The content of standalone & embedded interventions was similar, but it was in the differences in the core components of spelling, inferential language, and comprehension where differential effects were found.
- Embedded interventions can be as effective as standalone when well implemented.
- Advantages to embedded: cost effective; **aligned** to tier 1 classroom instruction. But, cannot be implemented straight out of the shrink-wrap package. Practitioners must (a) develop a manual that includes a scope & sequence and implementation procedures, (b) provide training; and (c) monitor for fidelity.

Self-Study Guides for Literacy/Academic Interventions



Video 2: The Self-Study Process

These REL Southeast Self-Study Guides for Literacy/Academic Interventions were developed to help district- and school-based practitioners conduct self-studies for planning and implementing literacy interventions. They are intended to promote reflection about current strengths and challenges in planning for implementation of literacy interventions, spark conversations among staff, and identify areas for improvement. These evidence-based guides provide a template for data collection and guiding questions for discussion that may improve the implementation of literacy interventions and decrease the number of students failing to meet grade-level literacy expectations.

Collaborate and Practice



SELF-STUDY GUIDE FOR IMPLEMENTING LITERACY INTERVENTIONS IN GRADES 3-8



Scoring Guide Area 7: Communication

A plan is developed and implemented to facilitate effective communication and collaboration among administrators, instructional coaches, classroom teachers, intervention teachers, parents, and guidance counselors to ensure that each student's instructional needs are met.

Circle the rating that best describes your program's implementation progress for each item.

- 1 = Important, but not feasible now
- 2 = Area to develop or improve
- 3 = Partially in place, under development
- 4 = Already in place

7.1 A plan is developed and implemented for communication and collaboration that will ensure successful startup of literacy interventions.	Implementation progress			
	1	2	3	4

Possible sources of evidence

- Documentation of faculty and staff roles and responsibilities.
- Interviews with administrators and leadership (for example, instructional coaches, response to intervention coaches, special education teachers, guidance counselors, content area teachers).
- Meeting notes from literacy intervention planning meetings.
- Memos from administrators or leadership to classroom teachers.
- Documentation of communication with parents.
- Documentation of communication with those delivering intervention during out-of-school times.

Guiding questions

- Who is responsible for organizing intervention startup (for example, identifying school personnel and community volunteers who will deliver interventions, identifying training opportunities for those delivering interventions, creating intervention schedules, ensuring timely assessment of students to determine eligibility for intervention, identifying students for intervention placement)?
- How are parents informed when a student is deemed eligible to receive literacy intervention?
- What connections have been made with educators who served students in previous school years?
- How does communication between instructors and interventionists during the school day with those delivering intervention at out-of-school times ensure alignment of instruction?

- Review **Handout 2: Scoring Guide Area 7: Communication** (from the Self-Study Guide for Implementing Literacy Interventions in Grades 3-8).
- Which possible sources of evidence and guiding questions focused on communication would be beneficial to a literacy coach in helping to ensure that literacy instruction is aligned with intervention?

Handout 2 on next page

Handout 2:

Scoring Guide Area 7: Communication

A plan is developed and implemented to facilitate effective communication and collaboration among administrators, instructional coaches, classroom teachers, intervention teachers, parents, and guidance counselors to ensure that each student's instructional needs are met.

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- 4 = Already in place

7.1 A plan is developed and implemented for communication and collaboration that will ensure successful startup of literacy interventions.	Implementation progress			
	1	2	3	4

Possible sources of evidence

- Documentation of faculty and staff roles and responsibilities.
- Interviews with administrators and leadership (for example, instructional coaches, response to intervention coaches, special education teachers, guidance counselors, content area teachers).
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- Documentation of communication with parents.
- Documentation of communication with those delivering intervention during out-of-school times.

Guiding questions

- Who is responsible for organizing intervention startup (for example, identifying school personnel and community volunteers who will deliver interventions, identifying training opportunities for those delivering interventions, creating intervention schedules, ensuring timely assessment of students to determine eligibility for intervention, identifying students for intervention placement)?
- How are parents informed when a student is deemed eligible to receive literacy intervention?
- What connections have been made with educators who served students in previous school years?
- How does communication between instructors and interventionists during the school day with those delivering intervention at out-of-school times ensure alignment of instruction?

7.2 A plan is developed that enables teachers, those delivering interventions, and parents to collaborate regularly regarding students' growth in targeted skill areas.	Implementation progress			
	1	2	3	4

Possible sources of evidence

- Interviews with classroom teachers.
- Interviews with individuals delivering interventions.
- Schedule of collaborative meetings between teachers and individuals implementing interventions.
- Schedule of conferences with parents.
- Schedule of school-sponsored parent and community literacy events.

Guiding questions

- Do teachers understand the intervention goals and progress for each student?
- What types of student work and data collected during intervention sessions are shared with classroom teachers and parents?
- How are classroom teachers using information from intervention sessions?
- What types of student work and data collected during classroom instruction are shared with individuals delivering interventions?
- How is information from classroom teachers used by interventionists?
- Who is facilitating collaborative discussions between teachers and interventionists about students' instructional needs?
- Are parents provided with resources to continue to support and build literacy skills in students while at home?

End of Handout 2

Learn and Confirm

Applying Standards-Aligned Systematic Intervention for Language and Literacy Development

FLORIDA'S B.E.S.T. STANDARDS: ENGLISH LANGUAGE ARTS



GRADE K

GRADE 1

GRADE 2

GRADE 3

Standards Map

Strand	Standard	Benchmark	Code
Foundations (F)	Learning and Applying Foundational Reading Skills	Print Concepts	F.1.1
		Phonological Awareness	F.1.2
		Phonics and Word Analysis	F.1.3
		Fluency	F.1.4
	Applying Foundational Reading Skills for Secondary Students Needing Reading Interventions	Phonological Awareness	F.2.1
		Phonics	F.2.2
		Encoding	F.2.3
		Fluency	F.2.4



Rec. 1 Oral Language



Rec. 2 Phonological Awareness



Rec. 3 Decoding and Reading Words



Rec. 4 Reading Connected Text

Figure 1: Developmental Sequence of Recommendations

These samples are from the Florida B.E.S.T Standards for Foundational Reading Skills and Secondary Reading Interventions. How do they (or your state's foundational reading standards) align with the Developmental Sequence of Recommendations from the IES/WWC Practice Guide Foundational Skills to Support Reading for Understanding?

Learn and Confirm

Applying Standards-Aligned Systematic Intervention for Language and Literacy Development



Doing What Works



Systematic Teaching in Tiers 2 and 3

- [Video 3: Systematic Teaching in Tiers 2 and 3](#) presents an overview of applying systematic intervention for language and literacy development.
- Summarize the main points of the video with your small group and discuss the role that coaches play in applying standards-aligned systematic interventions.

Learn and Confirm

The Stages of Language and Literacy Development for All Students

Reading is the integration of print and spoken language.



[Video 4: Research on Learning to Read](#)

“It is now well accepted that reading is a language-based skill.”

Kamhi & Catts, 2012, p. 1.

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What Is Language?

Language is a complex and dynamic system of conventional symbols that is used in various modes for thought and communication. Contemporary views of human language hold that:

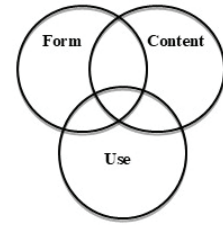
- language evolves within specific historical, social, and cultural contexts;
- language, as rule-governed behavior, is described by at least five parameters – phonologic, morphologic, syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic;
- language learning and use are determined by the interaction of biological, cognitive, psychosocial, and environmental factors; and
- effective use of language for communication requires a broad understanding of human interaction including such associated factors as nonverbal cues, motivation, and sociocultural roles.

American Speech Language and Hearing Association (ASHA, 1982)

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Parameters of Language

- **Form**
 - Phonology – knowledge of how sounds come together to form words
 - Important for phonological awareness or the ability to process, segment, blend, and manipulate sounds in words
 - Phonemes = smallest unit of sound
 - Morphemes - smallest unit of meaning
 - Free and Bound
 - Syntax - grammar, conventions for generating meaningful sentences/phrases
- **Content**
 - Semantics – knowledge of word meanings and relationships between words
 - Vocabulary knowledge – depth and breadth
- **Use**
 - Pragmatics – rules for using language in conversation/discourse in a variety of settings/contexts; higher-level language use including interpreting figurative language, idioms, sarcasm, or information not explicitly stated
 - Includes conversational, classroom, narrative, and event discourse



Bloom & Lahey, 1978

Parameters of Language			
Component	Definition	Receptive	Expressive
Phonology	Sound system of language, rules that govern sound combinations	Process sounds in words	Produce sounds in words
Semantics	Meaning of words and word combinations	Understanding word meanings & relationships	Use of word meanings & relationships
Morphology	Structure of words, construction of word forms	Understanding grammatical structure of words	Use of grammar in words
Syntax	Rule system governing order combination of words to form phrases, clauses, sentences	Understanding phrases & sentences	Use of grammar in phrases & sentences
Pragmatics	Sociolinguistic system that patterns use of language in communication	Understanding contextual language cues	Use of language in context

So, What Is Reading?

An active process in which the reader engages with text (written language) to gain information and generate meaning.

Spoken language includes cues (e.g., tone, gestures, facial expressions) that are missing from text. In written language, these meanings are often inferred from vocabulary, grammar, etc.



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Language Development and Reading Development

- Children who have trouble distinguishing between speech sounds will have trouble analyzing and linking speech to print.
- Children who have limited word knowledge
 - will have trouble understanding text, and
 - may experience difficulty decoding words not in their vocabulary.
- Children with difficulty with syntactic knowledge can have trouble gaining meaning from sentences.
- Children who have difficulty interpreting and linking sentences in discourse or conversation will have trouble understanding and recalling stories or passages.

Tunmer & Hoover, 2019

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The Simple View of Reading (Gough & Tunmer, 1986)

Word Recognition X Language Comprehension = Reading Comprehension



Word recognition and **listening comprehension** are relatively independent of each other but are both highly correlated with reading comprehension.

Look at **Handout 3** and discuss the correlation between the formula for the Simple View of Reading and Scarborough's Reading Rope.

Handout 3 on next page

Handout 3: What Literacy Leaders Need to Know

Literacy Leaders: What Do You Need to Know?

WHAT ARE THE PRIORITY READING SKILLS

Language Comprehension

- Background Knowledge (facts, concepts, etc.)
- Vocabulary (breadth, precision, links, etc.)
- Language Structures (syntax, semantics, etc.)
- Verbal Reasoning (inference, metaphor, etc.)
- Literacy Knowledge (print concepts, genres, etc.)

Word Recognition

- Phonological Awareness (syllables, phonemes, etc.)
- Decoding (alphabetic principle, spelling-sound correspondences)
- Sight Recognition (of familiar words)

Skilled Reading
Fluent execution & coordination of word recognition and text comprehension.

Increasingly Strategic

Increasingly Automatic

Scarborough, 2001

HOW TO SUPPORT TEACHERS WITH IMPLEMENTING EVIDENCE-BASED LITERACY PRACTICES

Workshops, coaching, and professional learning communities can be leveraged to provide teachers with ongoing, job-embedded support and feedback geared toward improving their practices.

HOW TO EVALUATE, PRIORITIZE, PLAN & IMPLEMENT AN EFFECTIVE READING MODEL

By creating a culture of continuous improvement, effective school leaders are always working with staff to make their multi-tiered systems of support in reading more efficient and effective for students.



The research reported here is funded by an award to the Lead for Literacy Center from the U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs (OSEP). Award #: H326L180002. The opinions expressed are those of the authors and do not represent views of OSEP or the U.S. Department of Education.

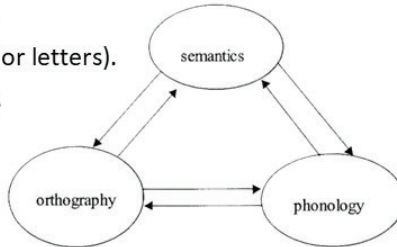
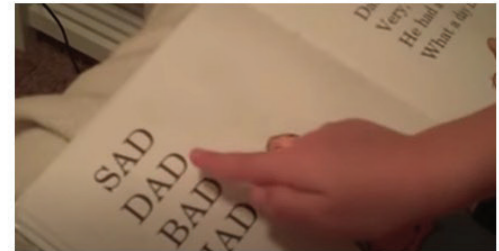
<https://leadforliteracy.org>

[Twitter.com/leadforliteracy](https://twitter.com/leadforliteracy)

[Facebook.com/leadforliteracy](https://facebook.com/leadforliteracy)

Word Recognition (code-focused skills)

- Mapping sounds to letters and blending those sounds to form words (i.e., alphabetic principle).
- Opportunities to practice decoding builds knowledge of letter sound patterns in words, increasing accuracy and fluency.
- Over time, children become less reliant on phonetic decoding.
- These skills are influenced by
 - Phonology (speech sounds).
 - Orthography (print symbols or letters).
 - Semantics (word meanings).

[Video 5: Learning to Read](#)

Word Recognition

- Word Recognition begins with understanding concepts of print, phonological awareness (building to phonemic awareness).
- Children then begin to apply the alphabetic principle and move from beginning decoding to more advanced decoding.
- Children become increasingly fluent in their ability to read words and connected text.
 - Rate, accuracy, and expression

Comprehension (meaning-focused skills)

Good readers form a mental representation of text. This involves complex, higher-level mental processing (thinking, reasoning, imagining, interpreting).

- Set a purpose for reading.
- Apply knowledge of morphology, syntax, and grammar.
- Make inferences.
- Apply vocabulary knowledge.
- Apply content and background knowledge.
- Use knowledge of text structure.
- Monitor understanding.

This process is the same whether listening to or reading text, and requires understanding at the word, sentence, and discourse levels to generate an accurate representation of text.

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Discourse Level Processes

Reading for meaning

- is dependent on listening comprehension or generating meaning from spoken words, sentences, or discourse.
- requires word, sentence, and discourse levels of understanding to generate a clear, accurate representation of text or situation model.
- requires application of foundational language skills (vocabulary, grammar).
- requires application of advanced linguistic and cognitive processing to integrate world knowledge (domain content and/or interpersonal) with information from text to generate inferences.
- is active and flexible as mental models are continually refined.
- involves determining relevant and discarding irrelevant information.
- requires knowledge of language and knowledge of the world.

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Collaborate and Practice

Reading Development (K-12)

- View videos from Kindergarten through high school.
- Consider the cognitive (thinking) and linguistic (language) skills the child is applying when reading at this age/grade.
- After viewing these videos, we will discuss the developmental progression we observe and describe this on **Handout 4**.



[Video 6: Kindergarten](#)



[Video 7: Grade 5](#)



[Video 8: High School](#)

Handout 4 on next page

Handout 4: Video Viewing Guide for Videos 6, 7, and 8: Addressing the Needs of All Students – Stages of Language and Literacy Development for All Students

Reflection Sheet for a Coaching Conversation Vignette

Directions: Watch the following three videos of reading development: [Video 6: Kindergarten](#), [Video 7: Grade 5](#), [Video 8: High School](#). Then, document the linguistic and cognitive skills observed in the videos below.

Grade Level	Linguistic Skills (such as morphology, syntax, phonetics)	Cognitive Skills (such as comprehension strategies including the use of self-correction, context clues, determining key ideas)
Kindergarten		
Grade 5		
High School		

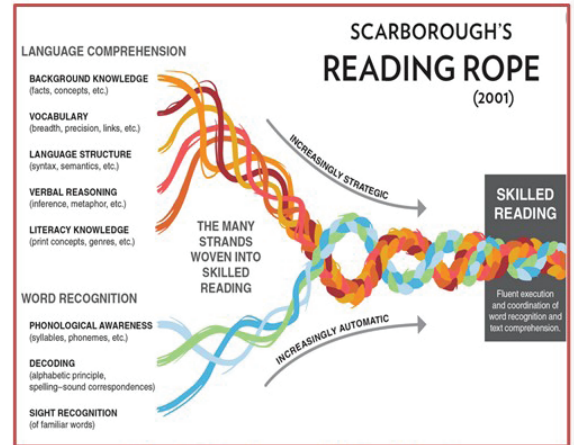
End of Handout 4

Reading Development and the Simple View of Reading

Word Recognition X Language Comprehension = Reading Comprehension
(Not so simple, is it?)

From the videos, you could see the developmental progression observed using the Simple View of Reading.

- It is important to integrate both decoding and language comprehension instruction from the start.
 - Word reading skills
 - Language comprehension skills that support listening comprehension
- As children become increasingly effective decoders, emphasis on word reading skills decreases.



Video 9: Scarborough's Reading Rope

Classifying Reading Difficulties

- When children are learning to read, reading comprehension is limited to decoding ability.
- When children become better decoders, reading comprehension is increasingly associated with how well the learner comprehends language.
- From the start, effective instruction requires practice and feedback targeting beginning, foundational skills (e.g., sound-letter correspondences, decoding, spelling) while also engaging the learner in more advanced language skills.

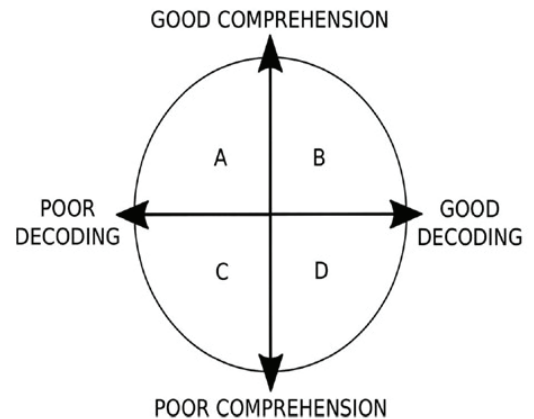


Figure 2. Classifying reading disorders within the Simple View of reading.

Dyslexia

- “...a difficulty with decoding and spelling fluency which is evident from early school years and persistent over time.” (Snowling et al., 2020 p. 507)
- This difficulty also negatively impacts academic performance.
- Can be mild, moderate or severe.



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Dyslexia Continued

- Fundamentally, dyslexia is a difficulty learning to decode and spell fluently.
 - Difficulty applying newly acquired decoding skills to novel words
- Dyslexia begins with problems in phonology that make it difficult to map sounds to graphemes (letters or letter combinations that represent a sound).
 - Learning phonological skills improves reading skills, indicating that phonological skills are causally related to reading development.
 - Problems with phonology manifest in the preschool years before children begin formal reading instruction.
- Individuals with dyslexia often have difficulties in other areas including oral language problems that can impact language comprehension.

Snowling et al., 2020

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Specific Comprehension Deficit

- Tends to be a smaller group than learners with word identification difficulties.
- Experience difficulty with reading comprehension despite average or above average decoding skills.
- Often identified later in elementary school when expectations shift from learning to read to reading to learn.

Adlof & Hogan, 2019; Catts et al., 2006

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Learn and Confirm

Literacy learning processes and language development of English Language Learners and Students With Disabilities in collaboration with English for Speakers of Other Languages and Exceptional Student Education Departments

Read **Handout 5: Effective Reading Intervention for Kids with Learning Disabilities.**

- Summarize your assigned section.
 1. Introduction
 2. Improving Word Recognition Skills: What Works?
 3. Improving Reading Comprehension Skills: What works?
 4. Evaluating Your Child's Reading Program
- Share your summary with the group.
- While others are presenting, record a non-evaluative question to ask the presenter that may lead to collaborative discussion.

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Handout 5 on next page

Handout 5: Effective Reading Intervention for Kids with Learning Disabilities

Kristin Stanberry, Lee Swanson



Research-based information and advice for sizing up reading programs and finding the right one for your child with a learning disability.

A worried mother says, “There’s so much publicity about the best programs for teaching kids to read. But my daughter has a learning disability and really struggles with reading. Will those programs help her? I can’t bear to watch her fall further behind.”

Fortunately, in recent years, several excellent, well-publicized research studies (including the [Report of the National Reading Panel](#)) have helped parents and educators understand the most effective guidelines for teaching all children to read. But, to date, the general public has heard little about research on effective reading interventions for children who have learning disabilities (LD). Until now, that is!

This article will describe the findings of a research study that will help you become a wise consumer of reading programs for kids with reading disabilities.

Research Reveals the Best Approach to Teaching Kids with LD to Read

You’ll be glad to know that, over the past 30 years, a great deal of research has been done to identify the most effective reading interventions for students with learning disabilities who struggle with word recognition and/or reading comprehension skills. Between 1996 and 1998, a group of researchers led by H. Lee Swanson, Ph.D., Professor of Educational Psychology at the University of California at Riverside, set out to synthesize (via meta-analysis) the results of 92 such research studies (all of them scientifically based). Through that analysis, Dr. Swanson identified the specific teaching methods and instruction components that proved most effective for increasing word recognition and reading comprehension skills in children and teens with LD.

Some of the findings that emerged from the meta-analysis were surprising. For example, Dr. Swanson points out, “Traditionally, one-on-one reading instruction has been considered optimal for students with LD. Yet we found that students with LD who received reading instruction in small groups (e.g., in a resource room) experienced a greater increase in skills than did students who had individual instruction.”

In this article, we’ll summarize and explain Dr. Swanson’s research findings. Then, for those of you whose kids have LD related to reading, we’ll offer practical tips for using the research findings to “size up” a particular reading program. Let’s start by looking at what the research uncovered.

A Strong Instructional Core

Dr. Swanson points out that, according to previous research reviews, sound instructional practices include: daily reviews, statements of an instructional objective, teacher presentations of new material, guided practice, independent practice, and formative evaluations (i.e., testing to ensure the child has mastered the material). These practices are at the heart of any good reading intervention program and are reflected in several of the instructional components mentioned in this article.

Improving Word Recognition Skills: What Works?

“The most important outcome of teaching word recognition,” Dr. Swanson emphasizes, “is that students learn to recognize real words, not simply sound out ‘nonsense’ words using phonics skills.”

What other terms might teachers or other professionals use to describe a child’s problem with “word recognition”?

- decoding
- phonics
- phonemic awareness
- word attack skills

Direct instruction appears the most effective approach for improving word recognition skills in students with learning disabilities. Direct instruction refers to teaching skills in an explicit, direct fashion. It involves drill/repetition/practice and can be delivered to one child or to a small group of students at the same time.

The three instruction components that proved most effective in increasing word recognition skills in students with learning disabilities are described below. Ideally, a reading program for word recognition will include all three components.

Increasing Word Recognition Skills in Students with LD

Instruction Component	Program Activities and Techniques*
Sequencing	<p>The teacher:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Breaks down the task (e.g., starts by having the child break an unknown word into separate sounds or parts they can sound out). Gradually reduces prompts or cues. Matches the difficulty level to the task and to the student. Sequences short activities (e.g., first spends 10 minutes reviewing new words from a previous lesson, then 5 minutes underlining new words in the passage, and finally 5 minutes practicing blends). Uses step-by-step prompts.
Segmentation	<p>The teacher:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Breaks down the targeted skill (e.g., identifying a speech or letter sound) into smaller units or component parts (e.g., sounding out each speech or letter sound in that word). Segments or synthesizes component parts (e.g., sounds out each phoneme in a word, then blends the sounds together).
Advanced organizers	<p>The teacher:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Directs children to look over material prior to instruction. Directs children to focus on particular information. Provides students with prior information about tasks. Tells students the objectives of instruction upfront.

* May be called “treatment description” in research studies.

Improving Reading Comprehension Skills: What Works?

The most effective approach to improving reading comprehension in students with learning disabilities appears to be a combination of direct instruction and strategy instruction. Strategy instruction means teaching students a plan (or strategy) to search for patterns in words and to identify key passages (paragraph or page) and the main idea in each. Once a student learns certain strategies, he can generalize them to other reading comprehension tasks. The instruction components found most effective for improving reading comprehension skills in students with LD are shown in the table below. Ideally, a program to improve reading comprehension should include all the components shown.

Improving Reading Comprehension in Students with LD

Instruction Component	Program Activities and Techniques*
Sequencing	<p>The teacher:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Asks questions. Encourages students to ask questions. <p>The teacher and student(s):</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Engage in dialogue.
Control difficulty of processing demands of task	<p>The teacher:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provides assistance (as needed). Gives a simplified demonstration. Sequences tasks from easy to difficult. Presents easy steps or concepts first and moves on to progressively more difficult steps or concepts (a technique called task analysis). Allows students to control the level of difficulty. <p>The activities:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Are short.
Elaboration	<p>The activities:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Provide students with additional information or explanation about concepts, steps, or procedures. Use redundant text or repetition within text.
Modeling of steps by the teacher	<p>Teacher demonstrates the processes and/or steps the students are to follow.</p>
Group instruction	<p>Instruction and/or verbal interaction takes place in a small group composed of students and teacher</p>
Strategy cues	<p>The teacher:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Reminds the students to use strategies or multiple steps. Explains steps or procedures for solving problems. <p>The activities:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Use “think aloud” models. List the benefits of strategy use or procedures.

* May be called “treatment description” in research studies.

Evaluating Your Child’s Reading Program

Now you are well-equipped with research-based guidelines on the best teaching methods for kids with reading disabilities. These guidelines will serve you well even as new reading programs become available. To evaluate the reading program used in your child’s classroom, follow these steps:

1. Ask for detailed literature on your child’s reading program. Some schools voluntarily provide information about the reading programs they use. If they don’t do this — or if you need more detail than what they provide — don’t hesitate to request it from your child’s teacher, special education teacher, resource specialist, or a school district administrator. In any school — whether public or private — it is your right to have access to such information.
2. Once you have literature on a specific reading program, locate the section(s) that describe its instruction components. Take note of where your child’s reading program “matches” and where it “misses” the instruction components recommended in this article. To document what you find, you may find our worksheets helpful.
 - o [Reading Program Evaluation: Word Recognition](#)
 - o [Reading Program Evaluation: Reading Comprehension](#)
3. Find out if the instructional model your child’s teacher uses is Direct Instruction, Strategy Instruction, or a combination approach. Some program literature states which approach a teacher should use; in other cases, it’s up to the teacher to decide. Compare the approach used to what this article describes as being most effective for addressing your child’s area of need.
4. Once you’ve evaluated your child’s reading program, you may feel satisfied that her needs are being met. If not, schedule a conference with her teacher (or her IEP team, if she has one) to present your concerns and discuss alternative solutions.

Hope and Hard Work—Not Miracles

Finally, Dr. Swanson cautions, “There is no ‘miracle cure’ for reading disabilities. Even a reading program that has all the right elements requires both student and teacher to be persistent and work steadily toward reading proficiency.”

But knowledge is power, and the findings of Dr. Swanson’s study offer parents and teachers a tremendous opportunity to evaluate and select reading interventions most likely to move kids with LD toward reading success.

End of Handout 5

Evidence-Based Practices for Meeting the Needs of English Learners

Evidence-Based Instructional Strategies for Elementary English Learner Students

Research provides insight on specific instructional strategies that should be used in every classroom to support elementary English learner students in developing their English language skills and academic content. This infographic is quick reference to the evidence-based practices that can be used daily by elementary classroom teachers to support effective instruction for their English learner students.

Teaching academic vocabulary

1. Explicitly teach academic vocabulary in the primary grades?
2. Teach content-specific academic vocabulary daily during content-area classes?
3. Sublanguage words critical for understanding the text for intensive vocabulary instruction.
4. Use a variety of instructional practices such as providing student-friendly definitions, applying academic to content, providing examples, non-examples, and concrete representations being students required to operate to show their understanding of the academic words, and providing structural opportunities for students to talk about academic words?
5. Teach students to use context clues, word parts, cognates, and dictionaries to determine the meaning of unfamiliar words?

Supporting content area learning

1. Scaffold content area learning by using videos, visuals, and graphic organizers to help students understand content?
2. Use peer and small group learning opportunities for students to talk about content area topics?
3. Use student engage in content-focused writing activities to develop academic language and writing skills?
4. Provide opportunities for students to talk and work together on writing assignments?

Using home language

1. Review academic content material in their home language?
2. Read materials in their home language?
3. Give students an oral home language to conversation to interpret new content or vocabulary?
4. Provide students with definitions of target vocabulary words in their home language?
5. Teach students to use cognates to determine the meanings of unfamiliar English words?
6. Connect new concepts and content to students' background knowledge or prior experiences?
7. Encourage English learner students to develop literacy in their home language?

Evidence-Based Instructional Strategies for Secondary English Learner Students

Research provides insight on specific instructional strategies that support English learner students in secondary grades with English language development and acquisition of academic content knowledge. This infographic supports secondary teachers in implementing effective evidence-based English language development and content area instruction for English learner students.

Integrating academic English and content-area instruction

1. Provide learning opportunities in every lesson that include reading, writing, listening, and speaking focused on their English learner students' oral reading of text for content and language?
2. Use deliberate and appropriate scaffolds, such as short videos, visuals, student-organized instruction accounts?
3. Explicitly teach academic skills such as dictionary use, note-taking, proof-reading, and use of vocabulary study cards?
4. Use multiple instruction sources (e.g., reports, songs, newspapers, cartoons, journals, videos, narrations, blogs) to model meaning of content?
5. Teach language features (nouns, verbs, adjectives, pronouns) in the context of content rather than in isolation?
6. Provide explicit and culturally relevant instruction?
7. Utilize English learner students' home languages and register to develop understanding of new or difficult concepts?

Improving writing skills

1. Deliver regular structured opportunities to develop written language skills?
2. Teach metacognitive strategies that experienced writers use to express themselves in writing explicitly?
3. Provide writing assignments anchored in content and focused on developing academic language and writing skills?
4. Create frequent opportunities for students to use written language to explain their reasoning and content inferences, justify their conclusions, and argue their perspectives?

Identifying and Meeting the Needs of English Learner Students with Disabilities

Introduction

Schools, districts, and states frequently struggle with determining whether English learner students who are struggling academically or having difficulty acquiring English language proficiency or have learning disabilities that may require special education services in addition to their English language development services. As a result, students may be misidentified as and/or receiving unnecessary and inappropriate services that are not appropriately matched to their needs. Research provides useful information that can guide relevant decision-making, help establish processes to accurately identify students, and determine appropriate services to meet the needs of English learner students identified with learning disabilities. This infographic provides practical and evidence-based practices from research that will help you more effectively address procedures for identifying, assessing, and supporting English learner students who may have learning disabilities.

What questions should be asked before an English learner student experiencing academic difficulties is referred for a special education evaluation?

What are major factors that lead to the misidentification of special education needs of English learner students?

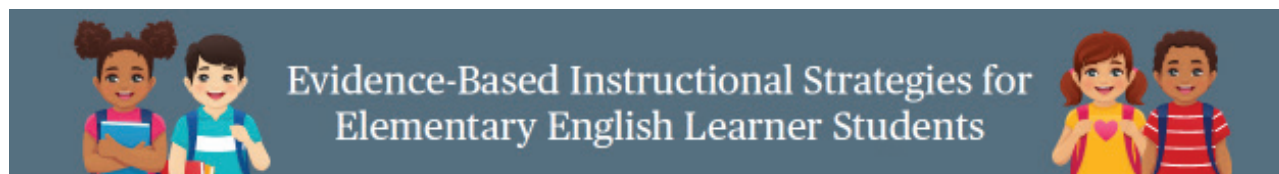
How can schools and districts address these factors and ensure consistent and accurate identification of English learner students with disabilities?

What are some actions, strategies and schools can take to best serve English learner students with disabilities?

Handouts 6, 7, and 8 are infographics containing guidance for educators in the implementation of evidence-based practices for elementary and secondary English Learner students and English Learners with disabilities. Review these infographics and consider how these practices may be carried forward in your local setting.

Handout 6 on next page

Handout 6: Evidence-Based Strategies for Elementary English Learner Students



Research provides insight into specific instructional strategies that should be used in every classroom to support elementary English learner students in developing both English language skills and academic content. This infographic is a quick reference to these evidence-based practices that can be used daily by elementary classroom teachers to support effective instruction for their English learner students.

Teaching academic vocabulary

1. Begin teaching academic vocabulary in the primary grades.¹
2. Teach content-specific academic vocabulary daily during content-area classes.^{2,3}
3. Select target words critical for understanding the text for intensive vocabulary instruction.²
4. Use a variety of instructional activities such as providing student-friendly definitions; applying definitions in context; providing examples, non-examples, and concrete representations; having students respond to questions to show their understanding of the selected words; and providing structured opportunities for students to talk about academic words.²
5. Teach students to use context clues, word parts, cognates, and dictionaries to determine the meanings of unfamiliar words.^{2,3,5,6}



Supporting content-area learning

1. Scaffold content-area learning by using videos, visuals, and graphic organizers to help students understand content.^{2,3,4,5,6,7}
2. Plan pair and small group learning opportunities for students to talk about content with peers.^{2,3}
3. Have students engage in content-focused writing activities to develop academic language and writing skills.²
4. Provide opportunities for students to talk and work together on writing assignments.²



Using home language

1. Preview and review content material in the home language.³
2. Read storybooks in the home language.³
3. Have students use their home language in conversation to interpret new content or vocabulary.²
4. Provide students with definitions of target vocabulary words in their home language.²
5. Teach students to use cognates to determine the meanings of unfamiliar English words.^{2,3,6}
6. Connect new concepts and content to students' background knowledge or prior experiences.^{3,4,6,7}
7. Support English learner students in developing literacy in their home language.⁶



Evidence-Based Instructional Strategies for Elementary English Learner Students

Assessing linguistic and academic progress

1. Screen for literacy challenges and reading problems.^{1,3}
2. Progress monitor English learner students at risk for reading problems more than three times per year.^{1,3}
3. Use available assessment information to identify English learner students who persistently struggle with specific aspects of language and literacy development.^{2,3}
4. Use performance benchmarks to adjust instruction when progress is not sufficient.¹
5. Guide instruction using formative assessment data.¹



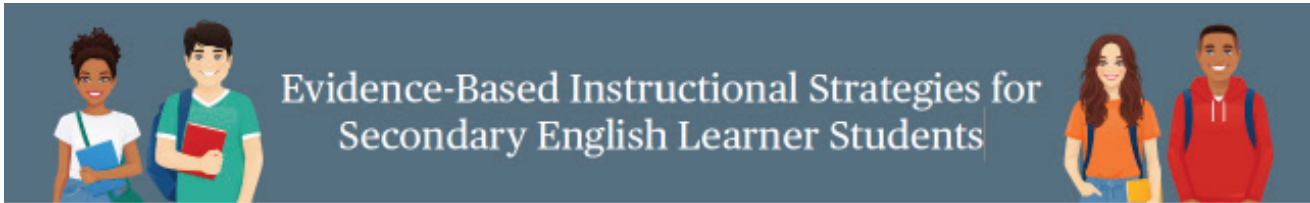
Providing or intervention to struggling English learner students

1. Provide intervention for at least 30 minutes per day in groups of no more than five or six students.^{1,2,3}
2. Configure homogeneous groups based on student English language proficiency level or target skill for intervention.^{2,4}
3. Provide teacher-led, small group, explicit instruction on the target skill.^{2,4}
4. Focus intervention on vocabulary development, listening and reading comprehension strategies, and foundational reading skills for English learner students struggling with foundational reading skills.²



- 1 Gersten, R., Baker, S.K., Shanahan, T., Linan-Thompson, S., Collins, P., & Scarcella, R. (2007). *Effective literacy and English language instruction for English learners in the elementary grades: A practice guide* (NCEE 2007-4011). National Center for Education and Evaluation and Regional Assistance, Institute of Education Sciences. U.S. Department of Education. <https://ies.ed.gov/ncee/www/PracticeGuide/6>.
- 2 Baker, S., Lesaux, N., Jayanthi, M., Dimino, J., Proctor, C.P., Morris, J., Gersten, R., Haymond, K., Kieffer, M.J., Linan-Thompson, S., & Newman-Gonchar, R. (2014). *Teaching academic content and literacy to English learners in elementary and middle school* (NCEE 2014-4012). National Center for Education and Evaluation and Regional Assistance (NCEE), Institute of Education Sciences. U.S. Department of Education. <https://ies.ed.gov/ncee/www/PracticeGuide/19>.
- 3 National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine. (2017). *Promising and effective practices for English learners in grades Pre-K to 12*. In R. Takanichi & S. Le Menestrel (Eds.) *Promoting the educational success of children and youth learning English: Promising futures*. (pp. 291-335). The National Academies Press. <https://doi.org/10.17226/24677>.
- 4 U.S. Department of Education, Office of English Language Acquisition. (2017). *English Learner Tool Kit* (2nd Rev. ed.). Office of English Language Acquisition. <http://www2.ed.gov/about/offices/list/oela/english-learner-toolkit/index.html>.
- 5 Gibson, C. (2016). Bridging English language learner achievement gaps through effective vocabulary development strategies. *English Language Teaching*, 9(9), 134-138. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/elt.v9n9p134>.
- 6 Turkan, S., Bicknell, J., & Croft, A. (2012). *Effective practices for developing literacy skills of English language learners in the English language arts classroom*. Educational Testing Service. <https://doi.org/10.1002/j.2333-8504.2012.tb02285.x>.
- 7 Neri, R., Lozano, M., Chang, S., & Herman, J. (2016). *High-Leverage Principles of Effective Instruction for English Learners. From College and Career Ready Standards to Teaching and Learning in the Classroom: A Series of Resources for Teachers*. The Center on Standards & Assessment Implementation. <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED570911.pdf>.
- 8 Richards-Tutor, C., Aceves, T., & Reese, L. (2016). *Evidence-Based Practices for English Learners* (Document No. 1C-18). University of Florida. Collaboration for Effective Educator, Development, Accountability, and Reform Center. <https://cedar.education.ufl.edu/wp-content/uploads/2016/11/EBP-for-english-learners.pdf>.

Handout 7: Evidence-Based Strategies for Secondary English Learner Students



Research provides insight on specific instructional strategies that support English learner students in secondary grades with English language development and acquisition of academic content knowledge. This infographic supports secondary teachers in implementing effective evidence-based English language development and content-area instruction for English learner students.

Integrating academic English and content-area instruction

1. Provide learning opportunities in every lesson that include reading, writing, listening, and speaking domains to help English learner students make meaning of both the content and language.^{1,3,4,5}
2. Use deliberate and appropriate scaffolds, such as short videos, visuals, and graphic organizers, to make rigorous, grade-level appropriate, standards-aligned instruction accessible.^{2,4,6,7,8}
3. Explicitly teach academic skills such as dictionary use, note-taking, pre-reading textbook chapters, and use of vocabulary study cards.³
4. Use multiple information sources (e.g., reports, songs, newspapers, pictures, manuals, videos, narratives, blogs) to make meaning of content.^{2,6}
5. Teach language features (words, sentences, discourse) in the context of content rather than in isolation.^{3,4}
6. Provide explicit and culturally relevant instruction.^{2,4,5,6}
7. Utilize English learner students' home language(s) and cognates to develop understanding of new or difficult concepts.^{5,6}



Improving writing skills

1. Deliver regular structured opportunities to develop written language skills.^{1,7,9}
2. Teach metacognitive strategies that experienced writers use to express themselves in writing explicitly.^{1,5}
3. Provide writing assignments anchored in content and focused on developing academic language and writing skills.⁷
4. Create frequent opportunities for students to use written language to explain their reasoning, make inferences, justify their conclusions, and argue their perspective.^{2,5}



Evidence-Based Instructional Strategies for Secondary English Learner Students

Developing reading skills

1. Use English learner students' home language(s), background knowledge, and future career interests to motivate and engage them in literacy learning.^{1,5}
2. Connect reading materials to English learner students' cultural background knowledge and content background knowledge.⁵
3. Teach reading in both English and the student's home language.⁵
4. Provide explicit reading comprehension strategies such as questioning, making inferences, monitoring, summarizing, visualizing, and identifying main ideas.⁶



Delivering vocabulary instruction

1. Teach commonly used words (Tier 1) and high-frequency words used across content areas (Tier 2) through explicit word study to build a base for the acquisition of low-frequency content-specific words (Tier 3).^{3,6,7,8}
2. Pre-teach a small set of academic vocabulary needed to understand the basic concepts in the lesson or unit.^{3,7,8}
3. Introduce and use vocabulary words frequently and in multiple contexts through writing, speaking, and listening activities.^{5,7,8,9}
4. Encourage students to explore multiple meanings of words and nuances in word meanings.⁹



Expanding oral English use

1. Demonstrate strong oral language models for English learner students to follow.⁵
2. Create daily opportunities for English learner students to communicate in English with teachers and English-speaking peers.^{5,7,8,9}
3. Provide learning opportunities that allow students to discuss meanings and interpretations of texts, work with peers to solve problems, develop explanations or justifications, or express their thinking.^{1,4,6,9}



Evidence-Based Instructional Strategies for Secondary English Learner Students

Providing small group instruction for students struggling with English language or literacy development

1. Provide intensive English language development instruction to newcomers.¹
2. Offer rigorous, intensive support on how language works in texts for long-term English learners who are proficient in spoken English but not yet proficient in academic English.¹
3. Provide instruction for students who struggle with foundational reading skills, including vocabulary development and listening and reading comprehension strategies.⁷
4. Design small group instruction that is targeted to students' identified needs, utilizing assessment data, English proficiency levels, cultural background knowledge, and prior schooling experiences to extend learning opportunities.^{2,5,7}



- 1 National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine. (2017). *Promising and effective practices for English learners in Grades Pre-K to 12*. In R. Takanichi & S. Le Menestrel (Eds.) *Promoting the educational success of children and youth learning English: Promising futures*. (pp. 291-335). The National Academies Press. <https://doi.org/10.17226/24677>.
- 2 U.S. Department of Education, Office of English Language Acquisition. (2017). *English Learner Tool Kit* (2nd Rev. ed.). Office of English Language Acquisition. <http://www2.ed.gov/about/offices/list/oela/english-learner-toolkit/index.html>.
- 3 Anstrom, K., DiCerbo, P., Butler, F., Katz, A., Millet, J., & Rivera, C. (2010). *A Review of the Literature on Academic English: Implications for K-12 English Language Learners*. The George Washington University Center for Equity and Excellence in Education.
- 4 Neri, R., Lozano, M., Chang, S., & Herman, J. (2016). *High-Leverage Principles of Effective Instruction for English Learners*. The Regents of the University of California.
- 5 Li, J. (2012). *Principles of Effective English Language Learner Pedagogy*. The College Board.
- 6 Turkan, S., Bicknell, J., & Croft, A. (2012). *Effective Practices for Developing Literacy Skills of English Language Learners in the English Language Arts Classroom*. Educational Testing Service.
- 7 Baker, S., Lesaux, N., Jayanthi, M., Dimino, J., Proctor, C.P., Morris, J., Gersten, R., Haymond, K., Kieffer, M.J., Linan-Thompson, S., & Newman-Gonchar, R. (2014). *Teaching academic content and literacy to English learners in elementary and middle school (NCEE 2014-4012)*. National Center for Education and Evaluation and Regional Assistance (NCEE), Institute of Education Sciences, U.S. Department of Education. http://ies.ed.gov/ncee/wwc/publications_reviews.aspx.
- 8 Hovey, K.A., Miller, R.D., Kiru, E.W., Gerzel-Short, L., Wei, Y., & Kelly, J. (2019). What's a middle school teacher to do? Five evidence-based practices to support English learners and students with learning disabilities. *Preventing School Failure*, 63(3), 220-226.
- 9 Hall, C., Roberts, G.J., Cho, E., McCulley, L.V., Carroll, M., & Vaughn, S. (2017). Reading Instruction for English Learners in the Middle Grades: A Meta-Analysis. *Education Psychology Review*, 29, 763-794.

Handout 8: Meeting the Needs of EL Students with Disabilities



Identifying and Meeting the Needs of English Learner Students with Disabilities

Introduction

Schools, districts, and states frequently struggle with determining whether English learner students who are struggling academically are having difficulty acquiring English language proficiency or have learning disabilities that may require special education services in addition to their English language development services. As a result, students may be misidentified and end up receiving instruction and interventions that are not appropriately matched to their needs. Research provides useful information that can guide educator decision-making, help establish processes to accurately identify students, and determine appropriate services to meet the needs of English learner students identified with learning disabilities. This infographic provides questions and evidence-based practices from research that will help your team develop effective procedures for identifying, assessing, and supporting English learner students who may have learning disabilities.



What questions should be asked before an English learner student experiencing academic difficulties is referred for a special education evaluation?



What are some factors that lead to the misidentification of special education needs for English learner students?



How can schools and districts address these factors and ensure consistent and appropriate identification of English learner students with disabilities?



What are some actions districts and schools can take to best serve English learner students with disabilities?



Identifying and Meeting the Needs of English Learner Students with Disabilities

What questions should be asked before an English learner student experiencing academic difficulties is referred for a special education evaluation?

1. Is the instruction the student is receiving of high quality such that they should be able to make the same academic progress as non-English learner peers?
2. How does the student's progress in developing their listening, speaking, reading, and writing skills in English compare with what is expected of other students of the same age and initial level of English proficiency?
3. Are the behaviors that are believed to indicate a learning disability normal for the child's cultural background or part of the process of their adjustment to the U.S. culture?
4. What other factors might be impacting the student's academic progress? Factors to consider include the student's socioeconomic status, previous experiences with school/limited or interrupted school experiences, fluency in their first language, and attitude toward school and/or learning English.¹



¹ Burr, E., Haas, E., & Ferriere, K. (2015). *Identifying and supporting English learner students with learning disabilities: Key issues in the literature and state practice* (REL 2015-096). U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences, National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, Regional Educational Laboratory West.



Identifying and Meeting the Needs of English Learner Students with Disabilities

What are some factors that lead to the misidentification of special education needs for English learner students?

1. Classroom teachers have a limited understanding as to why English learner students are not making adequate academic progress.¹
2. Referral processes are poorly designed or implemented.¹
3. Evaluation team members have limited knowledge of second language development and disabilities.²
4. Instructional practices are not of high quality.²
5. Intervention strategies used with English learner students who are struggling academically are weak or not appropriate for English learner students.²
6. Assessment tools are inappropriate for use with English learner students.²
7. Academic delays are believed to be the result of the child growing up with two languages instead of being identified as a possible cognitive disability.³



¹ Burr, E., Haas, E., & Ferriere, K. (2005). *Identifying and supporting English learner students with learning disabilities: Key issues in the literature and state practice* (REL 2015-086). U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences, National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, Regional Educational Laboratory West.

² U.S. Department of Education, Office of English Language Acquisition. (2007). *English Learner Toolkit* (2nd Rev. ed.). U.S. Department of Education.

³ National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine. (2007). *Promoting the educational success of children and youth learning English: Promising futures*. The National Academies Press. <https://doi.org/10.17226/24677>.





Identifying and Meeting the Needs of English Learner Students with Disabilities

How can schools and districts address these factors and ensure consistent and appropriate identification of English learner students with disabilities?

1. Include experts in second-language acquisition, learning disabilities, content, and the child's language and culture on pre-referral child study and on special education evaluation teams.^{1,3}
2. Create parent education and input opportunities that include information on the U.S. education system and the rights and responsibilities of parents of students in special education.¹
3. Hire bilingual parent liaisons who can communicate with parents in their first language, advocate for parents, and facilitate meetings with parents.¹
4. Use multiple forms of data for decision-making, such as observations of the student in different school settings (classroom, cafeteria, playground), multiple classes with different teachers, and in small group and classroom instruction and information on what the child knows and is able to do in both their home language and English.^{1,3}
5. Find out about the student's first language proficiency from their parents, through tests, and with assistance from translators.¹
6. Administer the student's special education evaluation in their native language and in the mode of communication, oral or written, that is most likely to provide the most accurate information about the student's abilities.²

1 Burr, E., Haas, E., & Ferriere, K. (2015). *Identifying and supporting English learner students with learning disabilities: Key issues in the literature and state practice* (REL 2015-086). U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences, National Center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, Regional Educational Laboratory West.

2 U.S. Department of Education, Office of English Language Acquisition. (2017). *English Learner Toolkit* (2nd Rev. ed.). U.S. Department of Education.

3 National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine. (2017). *Promoting the educational success of children and youth learning English: Promising futures*. The National Academies Press. <https://doi.org/10.17226/24677>.



Identifying and Meeting the Needs of English Learner Students with Disabilities

What are some actions districts and schools can take to best serve English learner students with disabilities?

1. Provide clear guidelines to educators in the district and schools about how to serve dually-identified students (Burr, Haas, & Ferrier, 2015).¹
2. Include participants on the IEP team who know about the student's language needs and who are experts in second language acquisition and differentiating between disabilities and English language proficiency challenges (U.S. Department of Education, Office of English Language Acquisition, 2017).²
3. Provide an interpreter for parents in IEP team meetings and have the IEP, Section 504 plan, and other related documents translated into the parent's primary language, if needed (U.S. Department of Education, Office of English Language Acquisition, 2017).²
4. Link English learner and special education data through the district or school data system to support collaboration across the programs (Burr, Haas, & Ferrier, 2015).¹

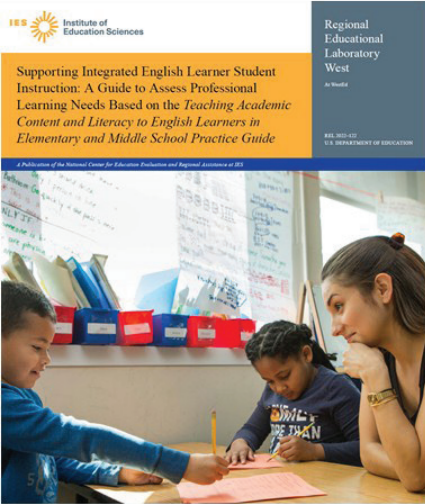


¹ Burr, E., Haas, E., & Ferriere, K. (2015). *Identifying and supporting English learner students with learning disabilities: Key issues in the literature and state practice* (REL 2015-086). U.S. Department of Education, Institute of Education Sciences, National center for Education Evaluation and Regional Assistance, Regional Educational Laboratory West.

² U.S. Department of Education, Office of English Language Acquisition. (2017). *English Learner Toolkit* (2nd Rev. ed.). Author.

Collaborate and Practice

REL West Tool: Assessing Professional Learning Needs for EL Teachers



- Review **Handout 9**.
- Work with a partner to select one or more of the resources (**Handouts 5-9**) that you feel would be helpful in your local setting.
- Develop a plan on **Handout 10** for how to use the selected resource(s) in your local setting in collaboration with ESOL and ESE Departments.

Handout 9 on next page

Handout 9: Assessing Professional Learning Needs for EL Teachers Supporting Integrated English Learner Student Instruction: A Guide to Assess Professional Learning Needs Based on the *Teaching Academic Content and Literacy to English Learners in Elementary and Middle School Practice Guide*

Lori Van Houten, Lenay Dunn, Molly Faulkner Bond, Jennifer Blitz, Reino Makkonen, and Kim Austin

This guide is designed to help district and school site leaders assess the professional learning needs of elementary school teachers to implement research-based recommendations for the instruction of English learner students. It comprises two tools—the Teacher Self-Reflection Tool and the Classroom Observation Tool—and outlines a 10-step process to help districts align their professional learning decisions with the data collected from these tools.

INTRODUCTION

The Regional Educational Laboratory West and the Region 15 Comprehensive Center developed this guide to help district and school site leaders assess the professional learning needs of elementary school teachers to implement research-based recommendations for the instruction of English learner students. It comprises two tools — the Teacher Self-Reflection Tool and the Classroom Observation Tool — and outlines a 10-step process to help districts align their professional learning decisions with the data collected from these tools.

The guide is designed to help district and school site leaders collect information about their elementary school-level teachers' confidence and competence in implementing the four research-based recommendations in the What Works Clearinghouse (WWC) Practice Guide [Teaching Academic Content and Literacy to English Learners in Elementary and Middle School](#) (English Learners Practice Guide; Baker et al., 2014). The guide helps synthesize this information so leaders can plan and make decisions about professional learning opportunities in their systems. The guide is built around a 10-step process for planning and conducting a needs assessment using the Teacher Self-Reflection Tool and Classroom Observation Tool and then aggregating and synthesizing the results to identify professional learning needs. The tools are structured around the practice guide's four research-based recommendations. The guide was developed with input and feedback from the Arizona Department of Education and English learner coordinators from districts across the state. It was also piloted by several districts in Arizona to ensure its clarity and usability.

Research supporting the guide

The [English Learners Practice Guide](#) (Baker et al., 2014) describes four research-based recommendations that apply to K–8 teaching across content areas (for example, English language arts, math, science, and social studies). If learned and implemented by teachers, the recommendations could improve the quality of instruction for English learner students.

This guide helps education leaders gather information on the implementation of the four research-based recommendations in the English Learners Practice Guide and provides guidance for identifying and prioritizing professional learning needs. While the recommendations in the practice guide are for elementary and middle school, this guide focuses on K–6 elementary classrooms because most English learner students are in these grades (Bitterman et al., 2013; McFarland et al., 2018).

The recommendations and their associated classroom practice indicators (box 1) are based on findings from 15 studies (ranging from two to six studies per recommendation), as well as on the consensus of a panel of eight experts in pedagogy, policy, and research. All the foundational studies were reviewed against WWC standards. The English Learners Practice Guide focuses on instruction for English learner students across content areas. It does not provide recommendations for classrooms where English language development is the specific focus, such as in English as a second language or English language development classes.

Box 1. Overview of recommendations from the English Learners Practice Guide

Recommendation 1. Teach a set of academic vocabulary words intensively across several days using a variety of instructional activities.

- Choose a brief, engaging piece of informational text that includes academic vocabulary as a platform for intensive academic vocabulary instruction.
- Choose a small set of academic vocabulary for in-depth instruction.
- Teach academic vocabulary in depth using multiple modalities (writing, speaking, listening).
- Teach word-learning strategies to help students independently figure out the meaning of words.

Recommendation 2. Integrate oral and written English language instruction into content-area teaching.

- Strategically use instructional tools—such as short videos, visuals, and graphic organizers—to anchor instruction and help students make sense of content.
- Explicitly teach the content-specific academic vocabulary, as well as the general academic vocabulary that supports it, during content-area instruction.
- Provide daily opportunities for students to talk about content in pairs or small groups.
- Provide writing opportunities to extend student learning and understanding of the content material.

Recommendation 3. Provide regular, structured opportunities to develop written language skills.

- Provide writing assignments that are anchored in content and focused on developing academic language as well as writing skills.
- For all writing assignments, provide language-based supports to facilitate students' entry into, and continued development of, writing.
- Use small groups or pairs to provide opportunities for students to work and talk together on varied aspects of writing.
- Assess students' writing periodically to identify instructional needs and provide positive, constructive feedback in response.

Box 1. Overview of recommendations from the English Learners Practice Guide [cont.]

Recommendation 4. Provide small-group instructional intervention to students struggling in areas of literacy and English language development.

- Use available assessment information to identify students who demonstrate persistent struggles with aspects of language and literacy development.
- Design the content of small-group instruction to target students' identified needs.
- Provide additional instruction in small groups consisting of three to five students to students struggling with language and literacy.
- For students who struggle with basic foundational reading skills, spend time not only on these skills but also on vocabulary development and listening and reading comprehension strategies.
- Provide scaffolded instruction that includes frequent opportunities for students to practice and review newly learned skills and concepts in various contexts over several lessons to ensure retention.

Source: Baker et al., 2014.

In preparing to use the guide, education leaders should review the English Learners Practice Guide to better understand the recommendations, the research on which they are based, and how they might be implemented in classrooms. Reviewing the recommendations and classroom practices in the practice guide is also valuable for the teachers who will be completing the self-reflection or who will be observed, so they have confidence that what they report on the self-reflection or demonstrate in their classroom accurately reflects their knowledge and instruction relative to the four recommendations. Suggestions for how to include a review of the practice guide before using the tools are provided later in the guide.

Table 1. Ten-step process for using the guide

Phase	Step	Key Questions
One: Planning and preparation	1. Articulate impetus and goals	Why are we using this guide? How does it fit in our state and local context? What do we hope to accomplish?
	2. Identify key stakeholders and participants	Which teachers in our system are we trying to support with this effort?
	3. Secure or establish infrastructure	How will we distribute forms and collect responses? How will we conduct observations and collect data from them? How will we ensure high rates of participation?
	4. Establish a timeline	Over what time period will we collect, synthesize, and interpret data with the guide?
	5. Prepare participants	How will we ensure that participants have the information and resources they need to understand the goals of this effort and complete their data collection?
References:	6. Administer the Teacher Self-Reflection Tool	What can we learn from teachers about their perceived proficiency in, implementation of, and professional learning needs related to the four recommendations?
	7. Review teacher self-reflection data	What did our teachers say in their reflections? What more do we need to know?
	8. Conduct targeted classroom observations	What additional information can we learn from the classroom observations?
	9. Synthesize data from the self-reflections and observations	What did we learn from the classroom observations to add to the teacher self-reflection data?
Three: Interpreting data and making decisions	10. Interpret data and determine actionable next steps	What are the implications for our system based on the data we collected? What should we do next in response to our findings?

Teacher Self-Reflection Tool

The Teacher Self-Reflection Tool asks teachers to reflect on a series of questions about their proficiency in each of the four recommendations in the English Learners Practice Guide. The tool also asks teachers to reflect on their current implementation of each recommendation and its associated practices, on any barriers or challenges they perceive in implementing the recommendations, and on what supports would be helpful for them (both professional learning and related systemic supports such as additional planning time). Teachers can complete the self-reflection in about 30 minutes. The tool can be adapted for online platforms, which might be helpful if large numbers of teachers are completing the self-reflection or teachers regularly share information or feedback on an existing online platform.

Using a digital survey platform could also save time when tabulating the results. Teachers completing the self-reflection do not need to have specialized knowledge in English learner student instruction. But their familiarity with the recommendations in the practice guide and how the recommendations are aligned with the school's or district's instructional programs will result in a more accurate reflection of teachers' professional learning needs.

Classroom Observation Tool

The Teacher Self-Reflection Tool asks teachers to reflect on a series of questions about their proficiency in each of the four recommendations in the English Learners Practice Guide. The tool also asks teachers to reflect on their current implementation of each recommendation and its associated practices, on any barriers or challenges they perceive in implementing the recommendations, and on what supports would be helpful for them (both professional learning and related systemic supports such as additional planning time). Teachers can complete the self-reflection in about 30 minutes. The tool can be adapted for online platforms, which might be helpful if large numbers of teachers are completing the self-reflection or teachers regularly share information or feedback on an existing online platform.

Using a digital survey platform could also save time when tabulating the results. Teachers completing the self-reflection do not need to have specialized knowledge in English learner student instruction. But their familiarity with the recommendations in the practice guide and how the recommendations are aligned with the school's or district's instructional programs will result in a more accurate reflection of teachers' professional learning needs.

Guide templates

In addition to the Teacher Self-Reflection Tool and Classroom Observation Tool, this guide also provides templates for each step of the process, with discussion prompts, protocols to tabulate and synthesize data from the two tools, and action planning forms. No special knowledge is required to complete the planning template for Phase One of the guide or to aggregate the results in Steps 7 and 9. However, users should be familiar with the English Learners Practice Guide recommendations and different forms of professional learning. Users should also know how to select and plan professional learning opportunities based on teachers' needs, especially for the final action planning section. Leaders who need more information on these topics could review the English Learners Practice Guide or the tools, webinars, videos, and other materials in the Resources section of this guide. The time needed to complete each template depends on the amount of data collected from the two tools, the number of people involved, and the depth of the discussion. This could range from one to eight hours. The appendix in which each tool or template can be found and a brief description of each are provided in table 2.

End of Handout 9

Handout 10: Plan for Enhancing Literacy Learning Processes and Language Development of English Language Learners and Students with Disabilities in collaboration with ESOL and ESE Departments

Directions: Consider the resources shared during this session aligned with supporting English Learners and Students with Disabilities (practice guides, infographics, guide) and develop a plan with your partner for strategically using evidence-based practices to enhance literacy learning processes and language development of English Language Learners and Students with Disabilities in collaboration with English for Speakers of Other Languages and Exceptional Student Education Departments.

Resource(s)	Plan for Implementation
1.	
2.	
3.	
4.	
5.	

End of Handout 10

Learn and Confirm

Multi-Tiered System of Support and Evidence-Based Practices, Programs, and Interventions

Assisting Students Struggling with Reading: Response to Intervention and Multi-Tier Intervention for Reading in the Primary Grades

Overview

Response to Intervention (RTI) is a comprehensive early detection and prevention strategy that identifies struggling students and assists them before they fall behind. RTI systems combine universal screening and high-quality instruction for all students with interventions targeted at struggling students.

RTI strategies are used in both reading and math instruction. For reading instruction in the primary grades (K-2), schools screen students at least once a year to identify students at risk for future reading failure.¹ Students whose screening scores indicate potential difficulties with learning to read are provided with more intensive reading interventions. Student responses to the interventions are then measured to determine whether they have made adequate progress and either (1) no longer need the intervention, (2) continue to need some intervention, or (3) need even more intensive intervention.

In RTI, the levels of interventions are conventionally referred to as "tiers." RTI is typically thought of as having three tiers, with the first tier encompassing general classroom instruction.² Some states and school districts, however, have implemented multi-tier intervention systems with more than three tiers. Within a three-tier RTI model, each tier is defined by specific characteristics:

- Tier 1 instruction is generally defined as reading instruction provided to all students in a class. Beyond this general definition, there is no clear consensus on the meaning of the term tier 1. Instead, it is variously referred to as "evidence-based reading instruction,"³ "high quality reading instruction,"⁴ or "an instructional program...with balanced, explicit, and systematic reading instruction that fosters both code-based and text-based strategies for word identification and comprehension."⁵
- Tier 2 interventions are provided only to students who demonstrate problems based on screening measures or weak progress from regular classroom instruction. In addition to general classroom instruction, tier 2 students receive supplemental, small group reading instruction aimed at building foundational reading skills.
- Tier 3 interventions are provided to students who do not progress after a reasonable amount of time with the tier 2 intervention and require more intensive assistance. Tier 3 (or, in districts with more than three tiers, tiers 3 and above) usually entails one-on-one tutoring with a mix of instructional interventions. Ongoing analysis of student performance data is critical in tier 3. Systematically collected data are used to identify successes and failures in instruction for individual students. If students still experience difficulty after receiving intensive services, they are evaluated for possible special education services.

Though a relatively new concept, RTI and multi-tier interventions are becoming increasingly common. This is attributed in

2. Johnson, Jenkins, Fretschel, and Carrs in *PREVA*, pp. 3-4.
3. Fuchs, Fuchs, and Vaughn (2008) make the case for a three-tier RTI model.

4. Vaughn and Fuchs (2006).
5. Division for Learning Disabilities (2007).
6. Volz, Swanson, Small, Farnell, and Swensky (2007).

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COMMENTARY

Rethinking Response to Intervention at Middle and High School

Lynn S. Fuchs, Douglas Fuchs, and Donald L. Compton
Vanderbilt University

In "Response to Intervention for Middle School Students With Reading Difficulties: Effects of a Primary and Secondary Intervention," Sharon Vaughn and colleagues (2010) described a study in which they provided professional development to content area teachers, with the goal of integrating vocabulary and reading comprehension instruction throughout the school day in Tier 1 (i.e., in the general education classroom). Against this enhanced instructional backdrop, the researchers randomly assigned at-risk students whom they identified based on inadequate performance on the previous year's high-stakes state reading assessment to two conditions: business-as-usual school services or a research-designed, 32- to 36-week Tier 2 reading intervention focused on decoding, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension. The researchers delivered this Tier 2 intervention in large groups (i.e., 10-15 students per group) to reflect a logistically feasible model for implementation in real schools. The instruction was conducted for nearly 100 hr per student ($SD = 23.1$) at one site and 111 hr ($SD = 11.6$) at a second site. With this ambitious randomized control trial, they examined the efficacy of a response to intervention (RTI) Tier 2 intervention at sixth grade.

Few researchers have focused on an older school-age population when studying RTI with such a well-conceptualized, comprehensive intervention. Many researchers avoid middle and high schools entirely because of the scheduling problems and compliance issues often encountered when working with adolescents. These complexities associated with middle and high school may help explain Vaughn et al.'s (2010) disappointing findings. On word-level skills, significant effects for two measures were moderated by students' incoming performance. On decoding, treatment effects were revealed only for students above the pretest mean; on spelling, only for students below the covariate mean. For fluency and comprehension measures, there were no statistically significant effects, and the Tier 2 intervention did not improve the chances of passing the high-stakes state assessment. Across measures, the median effect size was 0.16. Vaughn et al. (2010) do an admirable job of discussing and contextualizing these findings, and they clarify another factor possibly contributing to their modest results: A disproportionate number of students in the business-as-usual condition received a second

Work with a partner to read one of these Handouts (Handout 11 or 12) and summarize recommendations and any potential roadblocks and solutions on Handout 13.

Handout 11 on next page

Handout 11: Rtl and MTSS in the Primary Grades

Overview

Response to Intervention (RtI) is a comprehensive early detection and prevention strategy that identifies struggling students and assists them before they fall behind. RtI systems combine universal screening and high-quality instruction for all students with interventions targeted at struggling students.

RtI strategies are used in both reading and math instruction. For reading instruction in the primary grades (K–2), schools screen students at least once a year to identify students at risk for future reading failure.¹ Students whose screening scores indicate potential difficulties with learning to read are provided with more intensive reading interventions. Student responses to the interventions are then measured to determine whether they have made adequate progress and either (1) no longer need the intervention, (2) continue to need some intervention, or (3) need even more intensive intervention.

In RtI, the levels of interventions are conventionally referred to as “tiers.” RtI is typically thought of as having three tiers, with the first tier encompassing general classroom instruction.² Some states and school districts, however, have implemented multi-tier intervention systems with more than three tiers. Within a three-tier RtI model, each tier is defined by specific characteristics:

- Tier 1 instruction is generally defined as reading instruction provided to all students in a class. Beyond this general definition, there is no clear consensus on the meaning of the term tier 1. Instead, it is variously referred to as “evidence-based reading instruction,”³ “high quality reading instruction,”⁴ or “an instructional program...with balanced, explicit, and systematic reading instruction that fosters both code-based and text-based strategies for word identification and comprehension.”⁵
- Tier 2 interventions are provided only to students who demonstrate problems based on screening measures or weak progress from regular classroom instruction. In addition to general classroom instruction, tier 2 students receive supplemental, small group reading instruction aimed at building foundational reading skills.
- Tier 3 interventions are provided to students who do not progress after a reasonable amount of time with the tier 2 intervention and require more intensive assistance. Tier 3 (or, in districts with more than three tiers, tiers 3 and above) usually entails one-on-one tutoring with a mix of instructional interventions. Ongoing analysis of student performance data is critical in tier 3. Systematically collected data are used to identify successes and failures in instruction for individual students. If students still experience difficulty after receiving intensive services, they are evaluated for possible special education services.

¹ Johnson, Jenkins, Petscher, and Catts (in press, pp. 3–4).

² Fuchs, Fuchs, and Vaughn (2008) make the case for a three-tier RtI model.

³ Vaughn and Fuchs (2006).

⁴ Division for Learning Disabilities (2007).

⁵ Vellutino, Scanlon, Small, Fanuele, and Sweeney (2007).

Though a relatively new concept, RtI and multi-tier interventions are becoming increasingly common. This is attributed in part to the 2004 reauthorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), which encourages states to use RtI to help prevent reading difficulties and to identify students with learning disabilities.

RtI's inclusion in the 2004 reauthorization can be traced to two key reports released in 2002. First, the President's Commission on Excellence in Special Education (2002) report revealed that special education put too much emphasis on paperwork and too little on instruction.⁶ It recommended that educators put more energy into monitoring student progress in academic areas and less into monitoring paperwork and compliance with regulations.

Second, a 2002 report from the National Academy of Sciences examined the overrepresentation of students from minority subgroups in special education.⁷ This report proposed ideas for making the referral process for learning disabilities more meaningful to classroom teachers, arguing that special education "eligibility ensue when a student exhibits large differences from typical levels of performance in...[reading] and with evidence of insufficient response to high-quality interventions...in school settings."⁸ This encouraged schools to provide services to students struggling in reading within general education in the early grades before considering special education. Special education would be considered only for students who failed to respond to evidence-based interventions or interventions using what the field considers best practice.

There are two potential advantages of RtI and multi-tier intervention. Struggling students are provided with help in learning how to read early in their school careers. In the past, many students were not provided with additional assistance in reading until they were officially diagnosed with a specific learning disability, often not until grade 2 or 3.⁹ This was the practice even though longitudinal research consistently showed that students who were weak readers at the early elementary grades tended to stay weak readers in the higher grades.¹⁰

RtI also urges schools to use evidence-based practices in all tiers and to provide intensive services only to students who fail to benefit from a well-designed, evidence-based intervention. This helps to accurately determine which students possess learning disabilities in reading since only students who do not respond to high-quality reading instruction in their general education classrooms would be considered for special education. Thus, there is the possibility—and certainly the hope—that RtI will reduce inappropriate referrals to special education, especially of ethnic minority students, low-income students, and students who received weak reading instruction.¹¹ The panel also believes that RtI holds the most potential for serious ongoing collaboration between the special education community and that of general education—largely because the collaboration is based on objective data and shared understandings of the evidence.

⁶ Haager, Klingner, and Vaughn (2007).

⁷ Donovan and Cross (2002).

⁸ Cited in Haager et al. (2007, p. 5, emphasis added).

⁹ Donovan and Cross (2002); Heller, Holtzman, and Messick (1982).

¹⁰ See Cunningham and Stanovich (1997); Felton and Pepper (1995); Phillips, Norris, Osmond, and Maynard (2002); Francis, Shaywitz, Stuebing, Shaywitz, and Fletcher (1996); Juel (1988); Torgesen and Burgess (1998); Torgesen, Rashotte, and Alexander (2001).

¹¹ Donovan and Cross (2002); Heller, Holtzman, and Messick (1982).

Summary of the Recommendations

This practice guide offers five concrete recommendations for helping elementary schools implement an RtI framework to ensure that all students in the primary grades learn to read. These recommendations appear in table 2. There are many ways to orchestrate this process, and implementing this system entails involvement of school personnel at many levels: classroom teachers, special educators, school psychologists, paraprofessionals, reading coaches, specialists, and the principal. This guide provides concrete guidance on how to implement RtI; it does not describe which individuals on the team provide which services.

Table 2. Recommendations and corresponding levels of evidence

Recommendation	Level of Evidence
1. Screen all students for potential reading problems at the beginning of the year and again in the middle of the year. Regularly monitor the progress of students at risk for developing reading disabilities.	Moderate
Tier 1 intervention/general education	
2. Provide time for differentiated reading instruction for all students based on assessments of students' current reading level.	Low
Tier 2 intervention	
3. Provide intensive, systematic instruction on up to three foundational reading skills in small groups to students who score below the benchmark score on universal screening. Typically, these groups meet between three and five times a week, for 20 to 40 minutes.	Strong
4. Monitor the progress of tier 2 students at least once a month. Use these data to determine whether students still require intervention. For those students still making insufficient progress, schoolwide teams should design a tier 3 intervention plan.	Low
Tier 3 intervention	
5. Provide intensive instruction on a daily basis that promotes the development of the various components of reading proficiency to students who show minimal progress after reasonable time in tier 2 small group instruction (tier 3).	Low

Source: Authors' compilation based on text.

As part of recommendation 1, we address the problem of false positives—students whose screening scores suggest that they need additional assistance, but who would do fine without it. This is a particular problem for measures given at the beginning of kindergarten; we explain why and what is recommended. We urge that schools seriously investigate both the degree to which a screening measure correctly identifies students at risk for reading difficulties and identifies students at low risk for such difficulties.

The second recommendation addresses how educators can use assessment data to differentiate reading instruction in tier 1. For example, classroom teachers can use assessment data to determine which students require additional instruction in decoding and vocabulary and which require additional assistance only with decoding instruction. While the concept of tier 1 instruction is amorphous, based on conventional definitions, differentiated instruction is often mentioned as a critical component of tier 1.¹²

Recommendations 3 and 4 address tier 2 interventions. In recommendation 3 we suggest that tier 2 students receive small group instruction in homogeneous groups for 20 to 40 minutes, three to five days a week. This recommendation has the most research and, most importantly, a clear convergence in findings. It is not important whether a certified teacher or a paraprofessional provides the instruction. But instruction should be systematic, highly explicit, and highly interactive. We note that interventions must not focus only on phonemic awareness, decoding, and fluent reading (depending on student proficiency level) but should also include vocabulary and comprehension components.

Recommendation 4 addresses using data to monitor progress for students in tier 2 interventions. Although no studies have experimentally tested the impact of progress monitoring on outcomes in reading, we still encourage schools to monitor the progress of these students so that personnel possess information on how a student is doing in general reading proficiency and improving in specific skills. It is important to use progress-monitoring data to regroup students after six weeks. Tier 2 students who demonstrate improvement and return to tier 1 should be carefully monitored to ensure that general classroom instruction is adequate.

Recommendation 5 addresses tier 3 interventions, and we are candid about the paucity of research on effective tier 3 interventions. Tier 3 intervention is the most ambiguous component of RtI, and we did not find research on valid programs or processes. Based on the content of small-scale intervention studies and the expert opinion of the panel, we suggest, as Vellutino et al. (2007) suggest, that tier 3 reading instruction be even more intensive than tier 2. Although student reading programs should be individualized, they should be viewed as more than one-on-one instruction. In particular, in listening and reading comprehension and vocabulary development small group instruction makes sense. We also note that districts should carefully monitor the success or failure of tier 3 programs, given the paucity of available evidence.

¹² Connor, Morrison, Fishman, Schatschneider, and Underwood (2007).

End of Handout 11

Handout 12: Rethinking RtI at Middle and High School

Lynn S. Fuchs, Douglas Fuchs, and Donald L. Compton

In “Response to Intervention for Middle School Students with Reading Difficulties: Effects of a Primary and Secondary Intervention,” Sharon Vaughn and colleagues (2010) described a study in which they provided professional development to content area teachers, with the goal of integrating vocabulary and reading comprehension instruction throughout the school day in Tier 1 (i.e., in the general education classrooms). Against this enhanced instructional backdrop, the researchers randomly assigned at-risk students whom they identified based on inadequate performance on the previous year’s high-stakes state reading assessment, to two conditions: business-as-usual school services or a researcher-designed, 32- to 36-week Tier 2 reading intervention focused on decoding, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension. The researchers delivered this Tier 2 intervention in large groups (i.e., 10-15 students per group) to reflect a logistically feasible model for implementation in real schools. The instruction was conducted for nearly 100 hr per student (SD = 23.1) at one site and 111 hr (SD = 11.6) at a second site. With this ambitious randomized control trial, they examined the efficacy of a response to intervention (RTI) Tier 2 intervention at sixth grade.

Few researchers have focused on an older school-age population when studying RTI with such a well-conceptualized, comprehensive intervention. Many researchers avoid middle and high schools entirely because of the scheduling problems and compliance issues often encountered when working with adolescents. These complexities associated with middle and high school may help explain Vaughn et al.’s (2010) disappointing findings. On word-level skills, significant effects for two measures were moderated by students’ incoming performance: On decoding, treatment effects were revealed only for students above the pretest mean; on spelling, only for students below the covariate mean. For fluency and comprehension measures, there were no statistically significant effects, and the Tier 2 intervention did not improve the chances of passing the high-stakes state assessment. Across measures, the median effect size was 0.16.

Vaughn et al. (2010) do an admirable job of discussing and contextualizing these findings, and they clarify another factor possibly contributing to their modest results: A disproportionate number of students in the business-as-usual condition received a second level of prevention activities designed and implemented by their own schools (i.e., 49% of controls but only 23% of experimental students). Nevertheless, the results of the researchers’ more substantial and more carefully designed Tier 2 intervention are sobering and, in this commentary, we consider why differences between elementary versus middle and high school settings may require an alternative conceptualization of RTI at the higher grades.

The RTI Prevention Framework at the Elementary Grades

Children enter kindergarten with differing degrees of preparedness for academic learning. To address these inequities, schools must allocate resources early, as formal academic instruction begins. RTI is a framework for organizing such prevention activities. Before considering RTI at middle and high school, we summarize the typical RTI process at the elementary grades. This Elementary RTI Framework incorporates three levels of prevention services. We use the word level instead of tier to avoid widespread confusion over the term tier. The number of tiers in RTI systems ranges from 1 to 7 (Berkeley, Bender, Gregg Peaster, & Saunders, 2009), with tier referring to the sequence in which interventions are introduced. One school’s Tier 2, for example, may be identical in intensity and instructional design to another school’s Tier 5. For this reason, the term fails to communicate meaningfully about the intensity of instruction. By contrast, in our Elementary RTI Framework, every intervention (which represents a tier) is categorized within one of the prevention system’s three levels, and each level is distinctive in terms of instructional intensity.

Primary prevention comprises the instructional practices that general educators conduct: the core instructional program; classroom routines that provide opportunities for instructional differentiation; accommodations that permit access to the primary prevention program for all students; and problem-solving strategies to address motivational problems that cause some students to fail to perform the academic skills they possess. Most core programs are designed using instructional principles derived from research, but few are validated because of the challenges associated with conducting experimental studies of complex, multicomponent programs.

Secondary prevention (not to be confused with the secondary grades in middle and high schools) usually occurs as small-group tutoring, with the tutor using a validated instructional program. Secondary prevention is reserved for students at risk for serious long-term academic difficulties. Risk is identified via screening. Brief tests are administered to all students to eliminate true negatives from consideration; students who fail that universal screen receive a second stage of testing to discriminate true positives from false positives (e.g., Compton et al., in press). Conducting a second stage of screening is efficient in that schools avoid providing secondary prevention to false positive students (who would develop nicely without intervention). Secondary prevention differs from primary prevention because secondary prevention is empirically validated (whereas primary prevention is research principled) and because it relies on adult-led tutoring in groups of 2-5 students (whereas primary prevention relies primarily on whole-class instruction and sometimes peer tutoring). Secondary prevention can involve only one tier of validated tutoring program, but it can also incorporate a series of validated tutoring programs.

When validated tutoring at the secondary prevention level is implemented with fidelity, a large majority of students are expected to benefit, based on the validation research associated with the small group tutoring program. However, approximately 5% of the general population is not expected to respond and, for these students, most intensive intervention is required at the tertiary prevention level. In using the term most intensive intervention, we refer to two kinds of practices. The first involves tutoring programs that have been validated as successful for this 5% of the population. Tertiary tutoring programs rely on complex, multicomponent instructional routines and more hours of teaching over longer periods of time with lower (often 2:1; sometimes 1:1) tutor:student ratios. A second type of most intensive intervention involves individualized instruction, whereby teachers systematically experiment with different instructional components, using ongoing progress-monitoring data as the dependent variable to decide which components enhance progress. With this process, teachers inductively tailor an individualized program. In a series of randomized control trials (see Stecker, Fuchs, & Fuchs, 2005), such inductive, data-based individualization has been shown to be effective for students with learning disabilities. The greatest potential for accelerating the academic progress of most difficult-to-teach learners at the tertiary level, however, may exist for a combination of the two approaches. That is, the teacher begins with a more intensive validated tutoring program, while conducting frequent progress monitoring to tailor that program for maximal effectiveness.

Distinctions Between Elementary Versus Middle and High School

In these ways, the Elementary RTI Framework reflects three assumptions that may not apply at middle and high school. The first assumption is that screening is required to identify risk before academic deficits materialize. In the early grades, a major challenge for screening is that many scores cluster near the bottom range of the scale, creating a floor effect. This makes it difficult to distinguish between false and true positives. Consider, for example, quantity discrimination as an index of numerosity for predicting student success in learning formal school mathematics. When measured at the start of first grade, quantity discrimination accounts for 25%-63% of the variance in year-end math outcomes (e.g., Chard et al., 2005; Clarke & Shinn, 2004; Lembke & Foegen, 2006). Even so, such measures produce large percentages of false positives; children who fail the quantity discrimination screen but develop adequately without secondary prevention (e.g., Fuchs,

Fuchs, Compton, Bryant, Hamlett, & Seethaler, 2007; Seethaler & Fuchs, in press). This is problematic for Elementary RTI because serving large numbers of false positives in secondary prevention, when these students would do fine without those services, not only stresses the resources available in schools to serve students who truly need secondary prevention but also requires students who do not require secondary prevention to miss portions of the primary prevention program. Given the false positive problems, a second stage of more in-depth testing is required for student who fail the universal screen.

At middle and high school, however, academic deficits are well established. Moreover, because a greater range of performance in the academic domain can be sampled than in the elementary grades, it is easier to design middle and high school tests whereby students do not cluster near the bottom of the scale, creating meaningful distinctions among students with deficits of larger and smaller magnitudes. For these reasons, at middle and high school, it no longer makes sense to allocate scarce resources to screening for the purpose of identifying students at risk for academic failure. It makes more sense to rely on teacher nomination or existing assessment data to identify students with manifest academic difficulties, which is what Vaughn et al. (2010) did when they relied on the existing high stakes reading assessment scores to identify students who required intervention beyond the primary prevention program. In contrast to the Vaughn et al. approach, however, it may make sense to gather additional assessment data or scrutinize available data to create functional tutoring groupings with similar instructional needs and, perhaps more important, to distinguish (a) students whose academic deficits are so serious that they warrant immediate tertiary prevention from (b) students likely to succeed with secondary prevention. It is possible that the Vaughn et al. distinction between students at the benchmark “bubble” versus those who scored reliably below the benchmark score might have been useful for such purposes.

This brings us to the second Elementary RTI assumption that may not apply at middle and high school: *Determining responsiveness to less intensive levels of the prevention system is required to identify students who need more intensive services*. Academic deficits accumulate and become more dramatic and severe as students advance through school. As the Vaughn et al. (2010) study reminds us, whereas research demonstrates that validated small-group tutoring delivered in the early grades can alter the course of academic development for many children, the more serious academic deficits associated with middle and high school make large numbers of students resistant to the remedial intensity offered at secondary prevention. Torgesen et al. (2001) illustrated this with 8- to 10-year-olds with learning disabilities who already experienced severe reading deficits. Effecting meaningfully important reading improvement required much greater intensity than what is offered at secondary prevention: two 50-min sessions each day of one-to-one tutoring. And separate from the larger academic discrepancies, adolescents with longstanding serious academic problems frequently demonstrate low motivation and poor academic self-confidence (e.g., LeCompte, 1987; Phelan, Yu, & Davidson, 1994), further complicating and compromising the success of secondary prevention tutoring. Therefore, compared to the elementary grades, many more middle and high school students will be unresponsive to secondary prevention and instead will immediately require the instructional intensity available at tertiary prevention.

In this vein, it is unfortunate that middle and high school resources for secondary prevention require large instructional groupings of 10-15 students – the group size used not only by Vaughn et al. (2010) but also by the participating middle schools as they designed their own versions of secondary prevention. If the students who qualified for the Vaughn et al. study could have been served in groups approximating the typical size in elementary-grade RTI research (i.e., 2-5 students), tutors might have been able to address more effectively student motivation and academic self-confidence issues to circumvent the attendance problems Vaughn et al. encountered, thereby enhancing outcomes. In a more direct way, tutors might have been able to provide greater opportunity for responding, more meaningful corrective feedback, and a greater emphasis on student needs within smaller instructional groups.

Even with the intensity created with groups of 2-5 students, secondary prevention may be appropriate for only a subset of students, perhaps Vaughn et al.'s "bubble" students. Restricting participation in secondary prevention to students for whom the likelihood of success is good creates a better opportunity to serve this population more effectively, which in turn enhances schools' opportunity to provide appropriately intensive tertiary prevention. This is the case because when secondary prevention is offered to a mix of students, some of whom seem likely to respond and others of whom have such large deficits that secondary prevention's intensity is manifestly insufficient, a higher proportion of both subsets of students may fail to respond, thereby flooding tertiary prevention and watering down the intensity required at the tertiary level. This parallels the need for high-quality primary prevention to avoid overwhelming secondary prevention with inappropriate students and thereby decreasing the intensity available at secondary prevention. For these reasons, moving students with the greatest academic deficits directly to a well-conceptualized, most intensive tertiary prevention level may produce more reliable and substantial outcomes for both subpopulations of students.

The third questionable assumption is that *the nature of effective intervention is the same across the grades*. It is instead likely that adolescents require different instructional emphases and strategies. Consider reading. Although the word-reading difficulties associated with phonological processing deficits characterize the behavioral phenotype of children with early reading problems, adolescents with reading difficulties present a more complicated array of weaknesses, ranging from word recognition to higher order language and metacognitive skills. Shortfalls in any of these areas have been implicated as a significant contributor to comprehension failure, appreciably decreasing students' ability to use text to acquire new vocabulary, information, and knowledge. Even when concentrating specifically on reading comprehension, the traditional focus on strategy use and question answering may be inappropriate for adolescents with substantial knowledge and vocabulary deficit.

Innovation is required to address the academic needs of adolescents with serious, accumulated deficits across a range of subcomponent skills within any given academic domain. Moreover, effective intervention must be contextualized within a delivery model that motivates the adolescent, creatively engaging the peer group to support effectiveness. Without peers endorsing the importance of academic intervention, even the most sophisticated programs may prove ineffective. We are not simply suggesting the use of conventional peer-mediated approaches to intervention; instead, it may be necessary to rethink how intervention materials and procedures are fundamentally engineered and packaged to enlist the peer group's endorsement.

A Modified RTI Model at Middle and High School

This leads us to propose a modified RTI model at middle and high school. In this model, the Elementary RTI Framework is turned upside down in some critical ways. At the elementary grades, the RTI model encourages practitioners to move students to increasingly intensive levels of the prevention system when those students reveal a failure to respond to more normal or standard forms of instruction. By contrast, in the middle and high school RTI model, we believe that practitioners must place severely discrepant students immediately in the most intensive level of the RTI framework (even as they continue to participate in primary prevention to further acquire content knowledge).

In a related way, in terms of accountability for student outcomes, the measurement of "response to intervention" is critical to RTI at all grades, but in differing ways. Elementary RTI increases accountability for outcomes for the purpose of identifying and circumventing risk for academic failure. The focus, therefore, is on monitoring response to intervention for the purpose of introducing greater intensity only as needed, working hard to avoid that need. By contrast, the goal of accountability and intensity within RTI at middle and high school is to ensure that teachers view their mission as reducing and eliminating already existing, sizable academic deficits. Here, the focus is therefore on monitoring response

to intervention to determine when important academic benchmarks have been achieved for the purpose of transitioning students down the RTI pyramid in the direction of less intensive and more standard or normalized levels of the prevention system.

Conceptualizing RTI at middle and high school in this way introduces new opportunities to improve outcomes for students to overcome sizable academic deficits and restructures existing opportunities. (Although some students are already identified and served by remedial and special education services, the instructional intensity of these services often fails to meet the standards of tertiary prevention. Our argument applies to all students with academic deficits, whether or not they are served through general, remedial, or special education.)

Given the limited time remaining in these students' school careers, many older students, including those with and without identified special needs, deserve these new or restructured opportunities for decreasing academic deficiencies, with the goal of eliminating this major obstacle toward successful adult life. The outcomes of students with large academic deficits are, after all, far from satisfactory. According to the National Longitudinal Transition Study – 2 (Wagner et al., 2003), one-quarter of students with learning disabilities, who by the time they reach high school are more than 3 years below grade level in reading and math, drop out of school; in 2007, only 46% had regular paid employment within 2 years after leaving school. These sobering data should be viewed as indicating a public health crisis; it should create a sense of urgency to enhance resources at middle and high school for meaningfully intensive RTI secondary and tertiary prevention services.

Research to Support a Modified RTI Model at Middle and High School

A modified RTI model at middle and high school raises important questions that need to be addressed with programmatic research. In terms of assessment, questions include the following: Is teacher nomination an accurate means of identifying students who require services beyond primary prevention? What forms of existing data sources, such as performance on high-stakes testing or schools' benchmark assessments, might be used instead of or in combination with teacher nomination to enhance decision making? What is an accurate means for distinguishing students who require immediate tertiary prevention from those who are likely to succeed with secondary prevention? Which assessments and benchmark scores provide a reliable means for deciding when to move students from tertiary to secondary prevention – and sometimes back again? Important questions concerning intervention include the following: What is the optimal group size for secondary and for tertiary prevention to balance effectiveness and efficiency? What are effective strategies for engaging students who have experienced long histories of school failure? What are the critical academic targets for increasing the probability of successful adult life outcomes? How does the nature of effective intervention change for adolescents?

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End of Handout 12

Handout 13: Multi-Tiered System of Support and Evidence-Based Practices, Programs, and Interventions

Directions: Handout 11 contains an overview of the IES practice guide: “RtI for Reading in the Primary Grades” and Handout 12 contains an article: “Rethinking RtI at Middle and High School.” Work with a partner to read one of these documents and summarize recommendations and any potential roadblocks and solutions below.

Selected Document ___ RtI for Reading in the Primary Grades ___ Rethinking RtI at Middle and High School	
Summary:	
Potential Roadblocks	Potential Solutions

End of Handout 13

Learn and Confirm

Meeting the Needs of All Students



- [Video 10: Coach-Teacher Relationship](#) is an overview of the importance of the coach-teacher relationship from Duval County exceptional student education teacher, Denise N. Pedro.

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Reflect, Plan, and Implement

Post-Session Reflection, Planning, and Implementation

READ **Handout 14: Compelling Scientific Evidence on Reading Instruction.**

DO **Complete Self-Study 1: Compelling Scientific Evidence on Reading Instruction and Intervention.**

Be prepared to debrief at the beginning of Session 13.

WATCH [Video 11: How to Implement Effective Literacy Interventions.](#)

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Questions?



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**We have completed
Session 12**

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Handout 14: Compelling Scientific Evidence on Reading Instruction

Barbara R. Foorman, Ph.D.

A comprehensive approach to literacy encompasses reading, writing, speaking, and listening and occurs in a safe, nurturing, and culturally responsive environment. Learning to read is a continuum of knowledge and skills, beginning at birth with oral language development and progressing to the development of written language skills and knowledge of the world that continues into adulthood. To understand what quality reading instruction looks like in this comprehensive approach, compelling evidence from current science for how students learn to read and comprehend text and the implications for instruction will be presented below.

Compelling Scientific Evidence for How Students Learn to Read and Comprehend

Learning to read English requires mastery of the alphabetic principle, that is, the principle that sounds in speech (phonology) relate intentionally and conventionally to the letters of the English alphabetic writing system (i.e., orthography). In transparent orthographies such as Finnish, the orthography-to-phonology mappings are highly consistent as are the phonology-to-orthography mappings. In contrast, English has a deep orthography where awareness of the levels of phonology and awareness of meaningful units (morphology) are critical to learning to read. Phonological levels are the word, syllable, onset-rime (medial vowel and final consonant as in –at in cat), and phoneme. Phonemes are the minimal unit of sound and become apparent when distinguishing bag from sag (different in initial phoneme), bag from bat (different in the final phoneme), and bag from big (different in the medial phoneme). Morphemes are the minimal units of meaning: prefixes, suffixes (inflectional or derivational), roots (flex in flexible), and base words (which can stand alone without other morphemes). The morphophonemic nature of English becomes apparent when noticing that signal consists of the base word sign plus the suffix –al.

In spite of the depth of English orthography, researchers estimate that approximately 80% of English monosyllables can be pronounced using a relatively small set of phonics rules relating phonology and orthography (Coltheart, Rastle, Perry, Langdon, & Ziegler, 2001). In fact, rigorous reviews and meta-analyses show that explicit, systematic instruction in these alphabetic mappings (i.e., phonics instruction) significantly improves children’s reading performance (Foorman, Beyler, et al., 2016); Gersten, Newman-Gonchar, Haymond, & Dimino, 2017; National Institute for Literacy, 2008; National Institute of Child Health and Human Development, 2000; Wanzek et al., 2018). The phonics of spelling deserves explicit and systematic instruction as well because the mapping from sound-to-spelling is less consistent than that from spelling-to-sound (e.g., their, there, they’re are all homophones) and because spelling conventions must be taught (e.g., contractions, consonant doubling, changing y to i, double s at the end of some words).

Accurate decoding and encoding of words leads to high quality representations of words in memory so that they can be recognized automatically by sight (Dehaene, 2009; Perfetti, 2007; Perfetti & Stafura, 2014; Seidenberg, 2017). Such efficient recognition is critical to fluent reading of words. Additionally, knowledge of word meanings (i.e., semantics) and their grammatical function (i.e., syntax) are essential if text is to be read fluently with expression (i.e., prosody). Furthermore, the discourse (i.e., pragmatics) of written language must be learned if students are to write and comprehend text. Common discourse elements that aid in text cohesion are nominalization (where information in previous sentences is referenced by a phrase such as “this information” in subsequent sentences) and anaphora (where nouns in previous sentences are referenced subsequently by pronouns). Additional examples of discourse elements are connective words such as because, when, and however.

The comprehension of written language (i.e., reading comprehension) requires that the components of language—phonology, semantics, syntax, and pragmatics—and components of the alphabetic principle—phonemic awareness, decoding, encoding, and fluent word recognition—be activated along with background knowledge, executive function, and motivation. Research has shown the importance to reading comprehension of knowledge of and interest in the topic and the cognitive skills of attention, memory, inferencing, and comprehension monitoring (e.g., Castles, Rastle, & Nation, 2018; Rayner, Foorman, Perfetti, Petsy, & Seidenberg, 2001).

Implementing Current Scientific Evidence on Reading Instruction

Given the compelling body of evidence for how students learn to read and comprehend text, it is not surprising that there is also a compelling body of evidence on recommended instructional practices for ensuring reading proficiency. This body of evidence is summarized over the past 40 years in the What Works Clearinghouse’s seven literacy practice guides on reading and writing, covering the primary grades through adolescence and including general education and special populations. By definition, high quality reading instruction is instruction rooted in the evidence-based practices summarized in the practice guides and other systematic reviews such as meta-analyses that leads to proficient reading outcomes on standardized tests. Evidence-based practices for foundational reading skills and reading comprehension strategies are presented below.

Evidence-based foundational reading skills to be taught in the classroom and in intervention. These skills must be taught explicitly and systematically with sufficient opportunities to learn so that all primary-grade students can become proficient readers (Foorman, Beyer, et al., 2016). This likely means a 90-minute to two-hour reading block using a core reading program with whole class and small group instruction. Supplementary intervention (tier 2) instruction is recommended for students below the 30th percentile in reading on a standardized test.

- Teach students academic language skills, including the use of inferential and narrative language, and vocabulary knowledge. This can be accomplished through read-alouds by engaging students in conversations that support the use of inferencing skills, narrative language skills, complex grammatical structures, and academic vocabulary.
- Develop awareness of the segments of sounds in speech and how they link to letters. This includes teaching phonemic awareness and knowledge of letter names and sounds in kindergarten and grade 1. Explicitly and systematically teach students to segment syllables, onset-rimes, and phonemes in spoken words and how these units of sound correspond to letters. Simultaneously, teach the distinctive features of letters so that students can distinguish one letter from another. Teachers can use Elkonin sound boxes to have students demonstrate letter–sound knowledge by first moving tokens into boxes to represent one-to-one relationships such as /b/, /a/, /t/ for /bat/ and then moving letters into three boxes to represent bat.
- Teach students to decode words, analyze word parts, and write and recognize words. This means that in classroom instruction and in interventions students are taught sound-spelling patterns, frequent irregular words, and morphological elements such as prefixes and suffixes. As students are taught to decode words, teach them to encode (i.e., spell) the words so that they can recognize them quickly and use them in their writing. Teachers can use the Elkonin sound boxes described above to introduce many-to-one relationships by asking students to move multiple letters into a single box to represent one sound (e.g., b-ai-t for /bait/, sh-ou-t for /shout/, or m-igh-t for /might/) or introduce silent letters which do not have a box, such as the “silent –e in /make/ and the “silent k–“ in /knee/. To recognize frequent, irregular words (e.g., of, was, is, to), have students say the word, spell or write the word, and then say the word again. To promote a word-analysis strategy, teachers can have students circle the morphemes in multi-syllabic words (e.g., unhappiness) and underline other vowels.

To create the high-quality orthographic representations of words that leads to accurate and efficient decoding, encoding, and word recognition, prompt students to apply the word-reading strategies explicitly taught rather than having them guess at the meaning of words through the use of visual cues or context (i.e., the three cueing system).

- Ensure that each student reads connected text every day to support reading accuracy, fluency, and comprehension. Selection of text for classroom instruction will vary depending on the instructional purpose and students' reading ability. In intervention settings, select instructional-level texts that allow students to practice accurate decoding and encoding, and reread the texts to build fluency. For students with serious comprehension difficulties, select texts that are clearly written, well-organized, and ideally about topics familiar to students. Students can also be prompted to use their word-reading strategies. For less advanced readers, teachers can say "Look for parts you know," or "Sound it out. Check it! Does it make sense?" For more advanced readers, teachers can say: "You know this word part. Say this part. Now read the whole word."

Evidence-based comprehension strategies to be taught in the classroom or in intervention. The following practices are recommended from WWC practice guides and meta-analyses (e.g., Herrera, Truckenmiller, & Foorman, 2016; Pyle et al., 2017) for teaching reading comprehension in upper elementary and secondary grades:

- Provide explicit vocabulary instruction. Provide definitional and contextual information to teach word meanings. Target the domain-general and domain-specific words students will encounter in text, that occur frequently in the content, are essential to learning, and/or provide conceptual information. Provide opportunities to practice new words in a variety of contexts. Teach strategies for determining the meanings of unknown words not targeted in instruction.
- Provide explicit comprehension instruction. Teach students strategies for understanding text including summarizing, generating questions, organizing information graphically, inferential reasoning, visualizing, and monitoring comprehension. Model when and how to use comprehension strategies. Provide meaningful and extensive opportunities to practice the strategies with feedback. Organize the strategies into a reading routine for students to apply in the content areas.
- Provide opportunities for extended discussion of text. Engage students in teacher-directed discussions of text that require critical thinking and have an explicit goal. Ensure that discussion remains focused on academic content and objectives for the lesson. Encourage students to explain their thinking and support their ideas with text evidence.
- Increase student motivation and engagement in literacy learning. Build student interest for literacy learning by matching text to student interest and reading ability. Set a meaningful purpose for instruction and teach students to set learning goals. Provide opportunities for self-directed learning or student choice when appropriate. Provide opportunities for peer collaboration.

In sum, there is compelling scientific evidence on how to teach students to learn to read and comprehend text. It is essential to differentiate instruction in small groups and individual formats and in multiple tiers that include core classroom instruction, intervention, and supplemental intervention to ensure that all students become proficient readers (e.g., Coyne et al., 2016; Foorman & Wanzek, 2015). Screening for risk so that instructional goals can be set, monitoring progress so that instruction can be responsive to needs, and assessing reading outcomes to gauge the impact of instruction are all important aspects of a comprehensive assessment system. Teachers and administrators can work together to create literacy plans to successfully implement these evidence-based practices.

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End of Handout 14

Self-Study 1: Compelling Scientific Evidence on Reading Instruction and Intervention

Directions: Listen to **Video 11: How to Implement Effective Literacy Interventions** and read **Handout 14: Compelling Scientific Evidence on Reading Instruction** and summarize findings shared in each below.

Video 11: <https://drive.google.com/file/d/1qzEOgtl7mePX5VfMpNB9mQgXzMw7OlWq/view?usp=sharing>

Handout 14: <https://drive.google.com/file/d/11y-HEN7MIsfRP8AqIhThNwgGDR3TCgFh/view?usp=sharing>

Question	Answer
<p>1. What compelling scientific evidence on reading instruction was shared on Handout 14?</p>	
<p>2. What recommendations were provided in Handout 14 for implementing evidence-based reading instruction and intervention?</p>	

3. What recommendations were provided for how to implement effective literacy interventions in Video 11?