2

Special Programs for Educational Success

RTI, Special Education, and ELL

*A human being is not attaining his full
heights until he is educated.*

Horace Mann

As discussed in Chapter 1, today's schools exist in an era of multiple mandates as well as an increased understanding of how people learn. Consequently, schools and districts focus their attention on programs that meet the educational needs of their particular community of students. Largely, their decisions on what programs to include and the schedule that will accommodate those programs may be directed by the economic condition of the district and the teachers' contract language. Those decisions require the scheduling committee to seriously consider the chosen programs before a schedule can be developed.

Numerous programs to be considered meet the needs of students requiring specialized action plans: response to intervention (RTI) and

credit recovery for struggling students; special education for academically challenged students; English-language learning (ELL) for language-challenged students; career and technical education (CTE) and work study for those in career academies or pathways; gifted and talented, including Advanced Placement (AP) for the high-achieving student; and International Baccalaureate (IB) for those schools seeking a more rigorous curricular offering.

Once the curricular programs are determined, logistical issues need to be considered. In some cases, this requires the schedule to accommodate student absences from the school campus to pursue programs like CTE. In other instances, students with physical limitations may need additional time to move within the school complex, necessitating the scheduler to place sequential classes in close proximity.

RESPONSE TO INTERVENTION ■

One of today's most far-reaching mandates that contribute to the need for change arises from the 2004 reauthorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act: Response to Intervention (RTI). In 1975, Congress passed the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA). Intended to address the needs of all students, IDEA seemed to cause a rise in the identified special education population with a disproportionate number of those students coming from minority groups (Brown-Chidsey, 2007, p. 40). Consequently, the reauthorization of IDEA in 2004 included RTI that introduced a different method for identifying students in need of interventions.

Previously, the IQ discrepancy model determined the need for interventions. If a large discrepancy was noted between the student's school performance and intellectual ability, the student was recommended for special intervention services. Often this identification did not occur until after the student was deeply mired in failure and may have led to a special education placement without intervention strategies applied first.

Although it was originally initiated to address special education and reading development issues, the more contemporary intent of RTI is on general education reform in which the needs of all students are continually assessed. The requisite for interventions is determined through a composite of factors that describe student progress: classroom observation through ongoing formative assessment, looking at student work, Measures of Academic Progress (MAP) and other comprehensive tests, and state tests. Therefore, the result of RTI is not primarily to reduce the number of special education students but to address need for support. As more RTI principles and interventions occur, the numbers in special education should decrease (National Association of State Directors of Special Education [NASDSE], 2008). Samuels (2011) indicates this decrease is true and has been occurring since 2005. Samuels cites Alexa E. Posny, assistant secretary overseeing the U.S. Department of Education's Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services, as indicating that RTI has not changed special education but rather has changed education itself and will continue doing so (Samuels, 2011).

The RTI premise encourages interventions at the earliest evidence of student struggles and failure. Brown-Chidsey (2007) compares the new

method to that of medical prevention. Medical prevention includes three stages: Primary intervention seeks to stop a pernicious outcome from occurring; secondary intervention addresses the problem at first signs of symptoms; tertiary intervention takes action after the problem surfaces. Applied to education, this method emerges as the process and levels identified in RTI (Brown-Chidsey, 2007, p. 40).

To address the needs of all students, RTI uses a three-tier diagram (see Figure 2.1). Tier 1 includes 80%–90% of students; Tier 2 consists of 10%–15% of students to receive intervention in small groups; Tier 3 comprises the 1%–5% of the student body that requires intensive interventions perhaps on an individual basis (Howell, Patton, & Deiotte, 2008, p. 11; Protheroe, 2011, pp. 2–3).

Howell et al. (2008, p. 24) describe Tier 1 as the "lynchpin" for change. They contend that effective instruction and consistent behavior management need to be hallmarks of Tier 1 teaching. In their view, effective instruction addresses the needs of 80%–90% of students in the classroom. Without this occurring, Tiers 2 and 3 will be overwhelmed in numbers (Howell et al., 2008, p. 60). The minutes allotted for class periods influence the degree to which intensive and effective instruction can take place. When lessons are scaffolded and instruction is built on prior knowledge, students progress through a series of learning engagements that include formative assessment. Due to the time essential for deep processing, this lesson plan format is more likely to occur in an extended-time class period (see Chapter 10). Bransford, Brown, and Cocking (2000, p. 58) affirm that students need time to process information and that instruction cannot be rushed.

Figure 2.1 RTI Tiers and Population Percentages
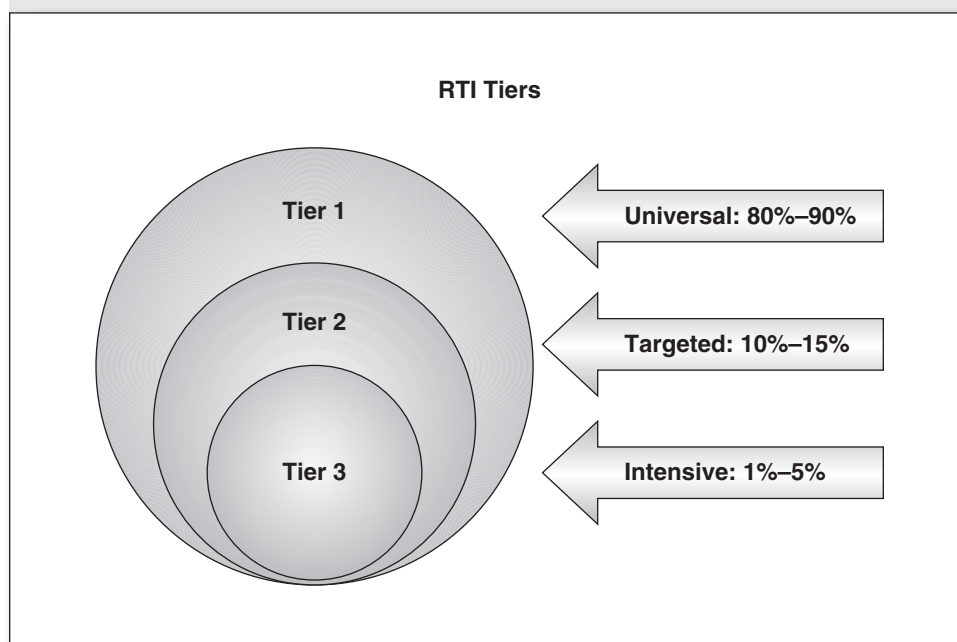
Source: Adapted from Howell et al., 2008.

One strategy that meets this prescription appears in Chapter 10: the lesson plan prototype. It describes the process for scaffolding instruction in incremental steps or engagements. When it is used effectively, students are continually and actively engaged, which often eliminates disruptive behaviors. The lesson plan also encourages depth of instruction to meet the needs of the 80%–90% of students who have met grade-level expectations.

Tier 1 interventions take many forms. Differentiation is one that aids the teacher to meet varied student needs in the classroom. One of the most beneficial teacher-focused strategies is looking at student work (LASW). When collaborative groups of teachers review samples of student work, evaluate the work with a rubric, and discuss their findings, they have a greater understanding of where student learning gaps may be. In other words, the connection between the intended curriculum, the delivered curriculum, and the learned curriculum becomes more apparent.

David Allen, a Harvard Project Zero researcher and one of the authors of *Looking Together at Student Work: A Companion Guide to Assessing Student Learning* (Blythe, Allen, & Powell, 1999, 2008), maintains that the process allows teachers to monitor their own teaching and to uncover reasons for students' levels of achievement in assignments. Allen emphasizes the importance of professional dialogue: "Time with colleagues spent in focused inquiry about teaching and learning is a necessity, not a luxury" (interviewed in *Education World,* 2000).

Consequently, to incorporate the components of an effective Tier 1, time for planning needs to be allocated. Allen recommends an hour or more a week for collaborating teams to meet on a regular basis (*Education World,* 2000). Finding the time to honor this step requires creativity by the school leadership. Some possibilities exist within the daily school schedule, after school, and in place of or included in faculty meetings, team/department plan time, or redirected professional development time.

The schedule in Table 2.1 shows how, in a Day 1/Day 2 schedule, an opportunity becomes apparent for teachers to meet with their interdisciplinary team and their departmental team. For example, by placing LASW on the agenda of both meeting formats, teachers gain a horizontal grasp of students' achievement in a particular subject area as well as in integrated/interdisciplinary subjects. Further, if the departmental meetings are able to cross grade levels, a vertical perspective of student work is revealed.

Table 2.1 Team and Department Meetings in a Secondary School Schedule

	Day 1				Day 2			
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
English	TM/P	01	02	03	DM/P	04	05	06
Math	TM/P	01	02	03	04	DM/P	05	06
Science	TM/P	01	02	03	04	05	DM/P	06
Social Studies	TM/P	01	02	03	04	05	06	DM/P
Special Ed	TM/P							

From a student's perspective, Tier 2 instructional success depends on the frequency, intensity, and duration of instruction (Howell et al., 2008, p. 68). Although this process in the most effective format begins in first grade, students requiring this level of intervention are diagnosed in the middle grades as well. Howell et al. (2008, p. 8) assert that students who are two or more years behind their peers usually fail to catch up to their on-grade peers. Therefore, secondary interventions become essential.

In a regular school day, those students who have been identified as needing Tier 2 interventions are scheduled for additional instruction. NASDSE (2008, p. 34) recommends a core reading block of 90 minutes plus 30-minute daily supplements. Prior to actualizing a Tier 2 program, teachers discuss the instructional practices that were most and least effective. In that way, different strategies can be employed in the intervention to avoid a plateau experience for the targeted student's needs (Buffum, Mattos, & Webber, 2010, p. 15). As evidence of progress emerges, the time allotted for interventions diminishes. Once students have shown sufficient progress, they move into Tier 1 status. If no progress is noted, reevaluation takes place (Brown-Chidsey, 2007, p. 41).

While placement is determined through a sifting of multiple criteria such as MAP, standardized tests, past performance, and attendance, progress in the identified tiers appears most emphatically through examining student work by the intervention team. Intervention teams typically consist of literacy and mathematics specialists as well as special education teachers. This intervention team then works in conjunction with the student's interdisciplinary team. Therefore, a functioning schedule provides time for teacher collaboration and student assignments for interventions.

Besides allowing for sufficient time periods for the tiered interventions, the successful schedule accommodates fluidity so that students can move between the tiers as data indicate. Some Tier 2 interventions might take place in a well-differentiated core classroom. Other forms of teaching and learning take place in the flex period of a school schedule. The design of the flex period meets multiple needs: RTI, gifted and talented, band, special study, and intense interest classes. Two interdisciplinary schedules that include a flex period appear in Tables 2.2 and 2.3.

Table 2.2 Interdisciplinary Team With Flex Period: High School or Middle School

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
English	H-01	01	02	03	04	Flex-Advisory	TM	Plan
Social Studies	01	H-01	02	03	04	Flex-Advisory	TM	Plan
Math	M8-01	M8-02	ALG I-01	M8-03	ALG I-02	Flex-Advisory	TM	Plan
Science	01	02	03	H-01	04	Flex-Advisory	TM	Plan
Spanish	I-01	I-02	II-01	I-03	II-02	Flex-Advisory	TM	Plan
Special Education	ICS	ICS	ICS	ICS	ICS	Flex-Advisory	TM	Plan

In Table 2.2, the same teachers have the same students for the same time periods. Therefore, they are free to flex the schedule further as needed. Periods 1–5 can be compressed to create a longer period of time for the flex period. Student needs and their RTI placement during the flex period are discussed at a team or small learning community (SLC) meeting. Sometimes the teachers on the team are assigned to provide the necessary intervention instruction. In that case, the student does not have to leave the team area, and the team can operate independently from the rest of the school. When students stay within their team for RTI, they can more easily move in and out of the subject matter intervention experiences offered without complicating their schedule. If it is necessary for students to leave the team area to meet with students from other teams for the intervention experience, the cohort schedules need to coincide. In this schedule, ICS refers to the in-class support given by the special education teacher.

Table 2.3 illustrates a flex period for a K–8 or Grades 6, 7, and 8 middle school structure. The teachers in Table 2.3 are licensed in two content areas. The intervention period occurs during the same period so that students may be grouped and regrouped for maximum fluidity. The special education teacher co-teaches (CT) with the regular education teacher.

Fluidity is important so that students are not locked into an intervention time when it is no longer needed. In Table 2.4, a middle school student is scheduled for one quarter of Tier 2 interventions outside of the core team

Table 2.3   Interdisciplinary Team With Flex Period: K–8 School

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
ELA/SS	RLA 01	RLA 01	SS 01	TM	Flex/ Advisory	RLA 02	RLA 02	SS 02	Plan
Math/ Science	M 02	M 02	Sci 02	TM	Flex/ Advisory	M 01	M 01	Sci 01	Plan
Sp Ed CT	CT	CT	CT	TM	Flex/ Advisory	CT	CT	CT	Plan

Table 2.4   Middle School Student Schedule With Tier 2 Intervention Period

Period	Course
1	English
2	Social Studies
3	Math
4	Lunch
5	Science
6	Spanish
7	PE/Band
8	Q1: Tier 2 Interventions; Q2: Art; Q3: Tech; Q4: FCS

schedule. The remaining three quarters are scheduled for exploratory courses. If, however, the student needs an additional intervention, the exploratory course (art, technology, or family consumer science) gives way to the intervention. Team meetings are the key for managing student placement and progress within the three tiers.

Tier 3 interventions are the most intense. If all Tier 1 and Tier 2 interventions have been implemented and the student continues to struggle, a comprehensive reevaluation of the student's educational history takes place. The results may indicate that the student is a true candidate for special education services. But the results may also indicate that a different format or curriculum for interventions will serve the student better (Brown-Chidsey, 2007, p. 41; Howell et al., 2008, p. 68).

To meet student needs and promote student success in Tier 3, NASDSE (2008, p. 34) recommends 90 minutes of intervention-supportive instruction in addition to core instruction. At this level, the additional instruction is provided for an individual student or a small group of students. In a high school, a student's schedule could have a period designated for Tier 3 interventions.

The schedule in Table 2.5 does not include 90 minutes of intervention time but does allow the student to have one elective as well as a daily intervention period. Period 4 in Table 2.5 is designated in the school schedule as an intervention period and can accommodate more than one student. Care needs to be taken to keep the group at the recommended small instructional level. Depending on the student's progress, the student can be assigned to that period for a semester or a year.

Table 2.5   High School Student Schedule With Tier 3 Intervention Period

Period	Course
1	English 10
2	Social Studies 10
3	Geometry
4	Tier 3
5	Lunch
6	Spanish II
7	Biology
8	Art II

The elements in the above discussion of RTI directly require an operative schedule. Without a well-designed schedule, the identified levels of intervention cannot be provided effectively. A first step in building the schedule includes a close look at the mission/vision statement of the school/district. A positive correlation between the statement and RTI principles and beliefs should be apparent. Because of that correlation, the schedule ensures all supplemental and incidental instruction can be and is provided to all students in need of this form of instruction (NASDSE, 2008, p. 12).

Different scheduling frameworks are available to meet the requirements of the program format adopted by individual schools and districts. Besides the sample schedules included in this chapter, Chapters 4, 5, and 6 provide a wide variety of schedule frameworks from which to choose for RTI interventions.

SPECIAL EDUCATION   ■

Since the reauthorization of IDEA in 2004, the form and format of special education instruction has assumed a dramatically different face. Rather than isolating or grouping special education students in a self-contained classroom, IDEA directs schools to place students in the least restrictive environment. Within that environment, the special education services provide supports so that students can be successful within the general curriculum whenever possible. This premise that all students can learn echoes the RTI goal of meeting the needs of all students.

Weber (2009, p. 729) affirms that IDEA is the backbone of special education law. Consequently, it is of importance for schedulers to know the seven basic concepts of IDEA that may impact building a schedule.

1. Zero exclusion: All children, regardless of conditions, are entitled to an education.

2. Free public education: Districts are obliged to adapt education to the needs of the child.

3. Related services: Any necessary services beyond ordinary classroom instruction are provided, including supports of materials, adaptations, or aides.

4. Least restrictive environment: Children with disabilities are to receive the same educational opportunities as children without disabilities.

5. Free education: No charges for services are to be given to parents of the child receiving them.

6. Parental rights: Parents are to be involved in the decisions about the services their child is to receive.

7. Individualized Education Plan (IEP): This document lays out the goals for the child and the specific educational and related services that will be provided.

Eligibility for special services has become a focus for discussion. Concerns include the administration of IQ tests and the discrepancy model. Both have been held responsible for the disproportionate number of minority students in special education. Intending to eliminate any cultural biases, the more scientific and research-based process promoted by RTI addresses individual students' levels of success with a variety of testing instruments. In fact, some researchers maintain that some previously identified students had simply been deprived of adequate classroom instruction (Harry & Klingner, 2006, cited in Harry & Klingner, 2007; Weber, 2009, p. 730).

According to the provisions in IDEA, the first placement to be considered for any child is the regular classroom. For the special education student, that placement is often an inclusion placement. The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development (ASCD, 2011) *Lexicon of Learning* defines inclusion as the practice of educating all children in the same classroom, including children with physical, mental, and developmental disabilities. An aide or special assistant is frequently assigned to the classroom or a specific child. If the school is fully inclusive, all children follow the same schedules, including field trips, extracurricular activities, and assemblies (ASCD, 2011). When schools have procedures in place to meet the needs of their heterogeneously grouped students, inclusion merges seamlessly into place. Villa and Thousand (2003, p. 20) suggest some of the best practices that well serve inclusive classrooms: transdisciplinary teaming, block scheduling, multi-age grouping, looping, positive behavior support and discipline approaches, de-tracking, and school-within-a-school family configurations of students and teachers. Each of their suggestions requires scheduling considerations.

The different needs of students require different teaching models. If students are assigned aides or paraprofessionals, those persons should be perceived as a part of the team rather than attached only to a particular student. Citing the National Center on Educational Restructuring and Inclusion (1995), Villa and Thousand (2003, p. 22) name five models:

- Consultation: Support personnel who care for a particular student's needs allow the general educator to teach all students in the class.
- Parallel teaching: Support personnel such as special education teachers, psychologists, or speech therapists circulate the classroom with the general education teacher to meet different heterogeneous sections of the class.
- Supportive teaching: The general education teacher leads the instruction, while support personnel rotate among the students.
- Complementary teaching: The support person performs tasks within the classroom that complement the instruction (e.g., note taking on a whiteboard).
- Co-teaching: Support personnel co-teach with the general education teacher. See Tables 2.6, 2.7, and 2.8.

Schedules are created to accommodate these models as well as the logistics they present. The National Education Association (NEA) recommends a capacity mark of 28 students per inclusion class and that no more than 25% of the students in the class need special education or accommodation for a learning disability (Hines, 2001). If schools use co-teachers as defined by Villa and Thousand (2003), following this recommendation would require the hiring of additional faculty. The use of co-teachers does, however, meet the requirements of No Child Left Behind (NCLB) and IDEA as long as both teachers are highly qualified in their respective areas. Little and Dieker (2009) present case studies of co-teaching in a Kansas City, Missouri, middle school and a Milwaukee, Wisconsin, high school. In both schools, using a co-teaching model, student achievement increased significantly. The authors maintain that the success of these schools arose from the schools' diligence in providing "planning, continued

Table 2.6 Two Regular Education Teachers, One Special Education Co-Teacher

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
English/ Social Studies	TM	Reading 01	*LA 01	*SS 01	Lunch	Plan	Flex	LA 02	SS 02
Math/ Science	TM	* Reading 02	Math 02	Sci 02	Lunch	Plan	Flex	*Math 01	*Sci 01
Special Education Co-taught	TM	*Co-taught	*Co-taught	*Co-taught	Lunch	Plan	Flex	*Co-taught	*Co-taught

skill development, instruction that is tailored to students' learning and behavioral needs, resource support (including planning time), and continual progress monitoring" (Little & Dieker, 2009, p. 46).

In Table 2.6, the asterisk implies a co-taught class. All teachers teach reading; the special education teacher co-teaches reading with the math/ science teacher. In Periods 3 and 4, the special education teacher co-teaches with the English/social studies teacher. In Periods 8 and 9, the special education teacher co-teaches with the math/science teacher. During the team meeting, teachers coordinate the RTI program plus the details of the co-teaching process. All students are in exploratory or encore classes in Periods 1 and 6.

Table 2.7 has two special education teachers operating on a continuum basis: One is completely responsible for co-taught classes; the other is responsible for replacement classes as well as some co-taught classes. The replacement classes in the resource room meet the needs of the students whose IEPs require specialized small group instruction beyond the general classroom. To fully implement the planning and decision making for

Table 2.7 Four Regular Education Teachers, Two Special Education Co-Teachers

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
English	*Read	*01	*02	03	04	Flex/ Advisory	TM	Plan
Social Studies	Read	01	*02	03	04	Flex/ Advisory	TM	Plan
Math	Read	Alg 01	Math 01	*Math 02	*Math 02	Flex/ Advisory	TM	Plan
Science	Read	01	02	03	*04	Flex/ Advisory	TM	Plan
Sp. Ed. Co-taught	*CT Read	*CT Eng.	*CT Eng.	*CT Math	*CT Math	Flex/ Advisory	TM	Plan
Sp. Ed. Replacement	Read Replace	Eng. Replace	*CT SS	Math Replace	*CT Sci	Resource Room	TM	Plan

Tiers 1 and 2, special education co-teaching, and resource room referrals, team plan time is essential. In this schedule, lunch is a module of time rather than a full period.

High schools as well as middle schools benefit from schedules that focus on the needs of their special education population. Table 2.8 illustrates how a freshman academy merges two teams to form one educational family. By combining the teams, cross-teaming can occur without losing the necessary opportunities for personalization within the team. This limited cross-teaming model provides balance by staying within the 25% special education representation within the classes. The fluidity of the schedule accommodates the needs of the student in special education, regular education, and honors or gifted education. Whenever a student with an IEP has an individualized schedule based on details within the IEP, the schedule provides opportunities for advanced students to take honors English and science.

Table 2.8   Freshman Academy With Special Education Co-Taught and Replacement

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
9A	English	H-01	*01	02	TM	Plan	Flex	03	04
	SS	* 01	02	03	TM	Plan	Flex	*04	05
	Math	Alg. 01	Geo. 01	*Alg. 02	TM	Plan	Flex	Geo. 02	*Alg. 03
	Science	* 01	02	H-01	TM	Plan	Flex	*03	04
	Spanish	I-01	I-02	II-01	TM	Plan	Flex	I-03	II-02
	Sp. Ed. CT	CT SS	CT Eng.	CT Alg.	TM	Plan	Flex	CT SS	CT Alg.
	Sp. Ed. CT/ Replace.	CT Sci.	Repl. Eng.	Repl. Math	TM	Resource Room	Flex	CT Sci.	Plan
9B	English	H -02	05 X	06	TM	Plan	Flex	07	08
	SS	06	07	08	TM	Plan	Flex	09	10
	Math	Alg. 04	Geo. 03	Alg. O5 X	TM	Plan	Flex	Alg. 06	Geo. 04
	Science	05	06	H-02	TM	Plan	Flex	07	08
	Spanish	II-03	I-04	I-05	TM	Plan	Flex	II-04	I-06

A continuum of instruction appears during the same period in three forms: a replacement section, a co-taught section, and a regular education section with no support services. During Periods 4 and 5, a sufficient number of electives and other required courses must be available for students in both freshman academy teams, 9A and 9B. Foreign language students can take Spanish I or II. Period 6 allows multiple frameworks for Tiers 2 and 3 as well as use of the resource room. If a student is not taking Spanish, the resource room can be used in Period 5.

Periods 2 and 3 on Team 9B are designated (X) as regular sections of English and algebra in which students receiving special education may be enrolled if they do not require support in those subjects. Creating a schedule with these various frameworks contributes to the fluidity necessary to meet the multiple needs of diverse populations.

In order to monitor the number of students receiving special education co-taught in regular education classrooms, a separate course number is assigned. Table 2.9 illustrates how two different course numbers can be assigned to the same class so that the 25% recommendation is met.

Table 2.9   Computer Encoding of Co-Taught Classes

Period 3	Mrs. Smith	Capacity—25 seats
Course 3417	Section-01	18 seats—regular education
Course 3419	Section-01	7 seats—special education inclusion

Some classes will not require separate special education course numbers to provide the least restrictive environment. In middle school, those classes could be physical education, art, choir, band, and family and consumer science. At the high school level, physical education, art, band, choir, agricultural electives, or career pathway courses may be openly scheduled so that students who need special education have opportunities similar to those for students on the regular education track.

As indicated in the discussion of RTI, today's approach to meeting the needs of all students requires meticulous planning of the schedule. Directed by the mission/vision statement, the construction of the schedule should have a positive impact on student achievement as well as provide fluid placement of classes. In Chapter 9, a conflict matrix technique guides the de-tracking process so that student placement is least restrictive and spread over the greatest number of sections of a course.

ENGLISH-LANGUAGE LEARNER PROGRAMS ■

IDEA addresses the needs of another population: the English-language learner (ELL). Like students receiving RTI and special education, ELL students are a heterogeneous group whose English language deficiencies arise from many factors: They may be children of new immigrants; long-term English learners who have been in American schools since kindergarten but who have not received adequate English-language instruction; students whose education is interrupted as families follow agricultural work; transnational students who return to their native countries for a period of time and then return to the United States; students who have been moved into general education classes but are not proficient in the four domains of language (reading, writing, speaking, and listening); and refugee children. Even the new immigrants have subgroups: Some students who have strong academic backgrounds need to learn academic English rather than core concepts; others have had interrupted education

in their native countries or inadequate educational experiences (Calderon, Slavin, & Sanchez, 2011, pp. 104–106).

ELL students represent 11% of the students in the K–12 population. Of these, 80% are Spanish speakers (Plank, 2011, p. 20). This group of students represents the fastest-growing student population today (see Batalova & McHugh, 2010; Plank, 2011, p. 20).

Although many states have established forms of English language acquisition in their school systems, many more are experiencing an influx for which they are unprepared. The literature identifies conflicting theories and reveals inconsistent identification and instruction of ELL students. Depending on the geographic area and school district formulating the intervention programs, even the title by which these students are identified changes. Some of the alphabet soup in which the programs are mired include ELL, EL, LEP, ESL, ELD, and ESOL. The variety of titles alone can muddy the communication between the ELL specialist and the rest of the school or district personnel.

Rossell (2004–2005, p. 32) identifies six different approaches to meet the needs of the ELL students:

- Structured immersion, or sheltered English immersion, a self-contained classroom of ELL students in which nearly all instruction is given in English (The terms *structured* and *sheltered* are often interchanged in the literature.)
- ESL pullout programs supplementing mainstream classroom instruction with a focus on developing English skills within a small group
- Mainstream instructon with no supports, referred to by Rossell as sink or swim
- Transitional bilingual education that begins instruction and literacy in the student's native language but emphasizes the development of English language skills
- Two-way bilingual or two-way immersion delivered to a class of native English speakers and non-English speakers, using two languages
- Bilingual maintenance programs that place equal emphasis on developing English proficiency and maintaining students' primary language

Rossell (2004–2005) indicates that she has listed the programs in hierarchal order from what she believes to be the most effective to the least effective. She indicates, however, that determining the effectiveness of any of the implemented programs is difficult if not impossible. Statistical records do not specifically describe the variations of each program in their academic achievement reports. Some of the programs have elements of several formats, depending on the class makeup and the existence of differing approaches to ELL in the same school (Rossell, 2004–2005, p. 34).

Districts need to identify the programs that best meet the needs of their populations. Recently, however, voters in five states were presented with initiatives on the education of ELL students: California, Arizona, Massachusetts, Oregon, and Colorado. In California, Arizona, and Massachusetts, the intiative became law. That law states that ELL students will be

taught in structured (also referred to as sheltered) English immersion classes. In these classes, all instruction is completed in English. After one year, students are placed in mainstream and sheltered classes with support and timelines to improve proficiency. Proponents of this format maintain that students learn English more quickly when immersed in it alone.

Clark (2009) rejects the double labeling of the *structured* program, which is often referred to as *sheltered.* He attributes the term *structured English immersion* (SEI) to Keith Baker and Adriana de Kanter (1983) who first described the intense immersion of students into learning the English language (Clark, 2009, p. 43). When members of the Arizona English Language Learners Task Force began developing their program and curriculum, they discovered that many educators did not share a similar definition of SEI. Some believed it to be submersion, the sink-or-swim process described by Rossell; others thought it to be the same as sheltered or specially designed academic instruction in English, or SDAIE. Sheltered instruction uses various strategies to help students of intermediate or higher language proficiency to access grade-level material (Clark, 2009, p. 44). Much of today's literature uses the terms *sheltered* and *structured* interchangeably, leading to misunderstandings through lack of a common reference.

Table 2.10 illustrates a high school student's schedule in which the student is placed in some structured classes and a heterogenous physical education class. By meeting prerequisites, the student is placed in non-structured Spanish II and Art II.

Table 2.10   High School Structured ELL Instruction With Electives

Period	Class
1	Structured English
2	Structured Social Studies
3	Structured Algebra I
4	Structured Science
5	Lunch
6	Physical Education
7	Spanish II
8	Art II

Clark (2009) makes a case for this emerging form of instruction, implying that teachers can maximize instruction if delivered in English and adapted to the level appropriate for the students. To highlight the program's efficacy, he presents the ideal framework for SEI:

1. A significant amount of the school day is dedicated to teaching English language. Students are grouped by level of proficiency. In Arizona, students receive English instruction 4 hours daily; in Massachusetts, the minimum is 2 hours, 30 minutes.

2. Learning the English language is the focus of instruction. While the academic content supports the instruction, it is subordinate to the learning of language.

3. Teachers are to speak, read, and write in English only.

4. English is taught as a foreign language.

5. Discrete grammar skills are focal points with 25% of the teaching time devoted to learning verbs and tenses.

6. Rigorous timelines exist for exiting the program (Clark, 2009, pp. 44–45).

In some cases, a student may be placed in an intense reading and language arts program for as many as three periods per day with no electives other than physical education (see Table 2.11).

Table 2.11   High School Structured ELL Instruction With PE Elective

Period	Class
1	Intense Structured Reading and Language Arts
2	
3	
4	Lunch
5	Structured Algebra I
6	Structured Biology
7	Structured Social Studies
8	Physical Education and Health

Schools that have implemented SEI as originally defined report improved levels of student achievement.

Opponents of SEI suggest that while students may learn English as their second language, the content that they are to learn at their grade level has been "watered down" (Thomas & Collier, 2003, p. 62). Advocating a bilingual approach, Thomas and Collier (2003) contend that bilingual programs honor the student's culture and native language while providing the student with the tools for second-language proficiency. Through the use of both languages, students receive enriched content instruction with support in their first language while learning another (Thomas & Collier, 2003, p. 63). The authors present two forms of bilingual instruction: one- and two-way.

One-way instruction encompasses bilingual immersion in which instruction occurs in two languages for speakers of one language. In Canada, using both French and English, teachers instruct only English speakers (Thomas & Collier, 2003, p. 61). Two-way instruction occurs in a class composed of ELL students and native English speakers and is taught in both languages. Its purpose is to "provide cognitive stimulus of schooling two languages" and present a rich mainstream curriculum for both

(Thomas & Collier, 2003, p. 61). Thomas and Collier (2003, pp. 62–63) suggest recommendations for effective delivery of bilingual instruction that will promote student achievement:

1. A minimum of six years of instruction must occur before the student achieves parity with the average native speaker.

2. Instruction must focus on the core curriculum.

3. High-quality language arts instruction occurs in both languages and is taught in thematic units.

4. A separation exists between the two languages during instruction, and no translation or repetition is provided in the other language.

5. Non-English instruction occurs 50% of the time for most levels except for 90% of the time in early grades.

Table 2.12   High School Dual-Immersion Student Schedule

Period	Class
1	Social Studies
2	English 10
3	Physical Education
4	Algebra I
5	Lunch
6	Spanish II
7	Biology
8	Chorus

In the bilingual student schedule, all core classes are to be taught in two languages (see Table 2.12). The physical education and chorus classes are in English. The division of the language instruction may be applied in three different ways:

1. Time: Instruction in each language can occur during half-day, alternate-day, or alternate-week intervals.

2. Content: The subject matter determines which language will be used (e.g., Spanish for math, science, and social studies; English for literacy).

3. Staff: Two teachers co-teach with one being fluent in the majority language and the other in the minority language. Class work is done in the language spoken by the teacher instructing (Hadi-Tabassum, 2004–2005, p. 51).

Besides the three models specifically presented, a hybrid model is suggested: the cluster model. This model combines aspects of SEI and

bilingual. Content teachers are trained in the theories of second-language acquisition and the methods to teach the English language. The class contains 25%–33% ELL students; the remainder are native English speakers. Content mastery and skills are taught in English while aides may explain the instruction in the student's native language. Students may use their native language to clarify any part of instruction (Rance-Roney, 2009, p. 35). Calderon and colleagues (2011, p. 107) conclude that the ultimate determination of a successful program is the quality of the instruction that occurs within it.

Placement of ELL students is subject to the part of IDEA referred to as the exclusionary clause. Prior to the student's placement, schools need to determine if the student has had sufficient opportunity to learn, including instruction in a language that the student understands. If the exclusionary clause applies, additional testing must take place with a realization that the test results may be influenced by levels of language proficiency (Klingner & Artiles, 2003, p. 68). For instance, a student who has a solid academic background in his own language may not have sufficient language proficiency to be able to test at his academic ability level. This student needs a program or schedule different from that assigned to the student who has little academic background (Rance-Roney, 2009, p. 37).

Plank (2011) reaffirms the concern about how students' language difficulties skew testing and assessment of academic program effectiveness. Without language proficiency, students are unable to demonstrate their academic ability when tested. Often their scores are unfairly depressed, causing misplacement within the program and the use of incorrect instructional content and strategies. Plank (2011, p. 21) further suggests that the testing results that determine Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) are misconstrued.

ELL programs are often fluid with students moving in and out as they enter the school or gain language proficiency. Therefore, the students with higher proficiency may no longer be in the program when the testing takes place, allowing the scores of the students with lower proficiency to determine the basis of the testing scores. The NCLB report focuses on the program but not the individual students, so the program appears to lack progress. Unfortunately, no long-term study of students is employed to determine the true success of the program in the form of graduation rates, college access, or other forms of success data (Plank, 2011, p. 21).

When the challenges for scheduling RTI and special education are mixed with those of ELL, the scheduling committee needs to seek frameworks that best accommodate all stakeholders. As with students in special education, appropriate testing practices identify student needs, which eventually translate into detail of the student's schedule. The student schedule in Table 2.13 places the student in structured ELL classes in the morning and provides an opportunity for a resource room experience and mainstreamed math and science in the afternoon.

Where possible, district and school leaders should consider the prevailing culture of the community and have the freedom to choose the program that best fits: SEI, bilingual, or some other format (Mora, 2009, p. 19). They need to avoid the "implementation gap" described by Garcia, Jensen, and Scribner (2009, p. 12). That gap persists in areas where a mismatch exists between what is done and what works. Whatever program is chosen, the curriculum should be viable with a detailed developmental sequence for learning the English language in social and academic

Table 2.13   Middle School Structured ELL With Special Education Resource Room

Period	Class
1	Structured English and Social Studies
2	
3	
4	Physical Education
5	Lunch
6	Resource Room
7	Math 8
8	Science 8

contexts. Further, allocating time is essential: Students must have adequate time in which to learn the language, and teachers or cross-curricular team members need to have adequate time for planning and discussing student progress (Rance-Roney, 2009, p. 35).

SUMMARIZING SPECIAL PROGRAMS ■
FOR EDUCATIONAL SUCCESS:
THE IDEA EFFECT

The Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act of 2004 impacts the educational programs of students who require interventions, generally referred to as RTI; special education services as modified instruction to meet students at their learning level; and ELL students who need some level of instruction in the English language. In order to meet these demands, the scheduling committee must create a schedule that is as inclusive as possible, looking at each student as an individual who contributes to the whole of the school culture. The master school schedule should enable the student to be placed in the variety of experiences required by that student. Some students may require a combination of services (e.g., RTI and ELL or special education and ELL). Therefore, an effective schedule demands to be flexible and fluid. The schedule should be sensitive to the students who are able to move from one tier of RTI to another, to the students who move through the levels of English proficiency at varying rates, and to the students who move from special education to fully inclusive or mainstreamed classes.

Challenges exist for the success of contemporary educational experiences. In an unsettled social and economic climate, the educational family has been given the mission to educate and socialize today's youth for success in the present and for the future. In order to fulfill that mandate, schools need to take to heart the words of Horace Mann and nourish their educational programs so that each student is educated and attains full height as a human being.