1

Collaboration for Language and Literacy Learning

Three Challenges

ELAINE R. SILLIMAN
LOUISE C. WILKINSON

The purpose of this book is conveyed well by a general education teacher who has a student with disabilities in her classroom for part of the day:

> Are there any benefits to teaching students with disabilities in my general education class? . . . The advantage of having additional adults working alongside . . . very often a special education teacher and/or a specialist, such as a speech–language pathologist . . . is that those additional staff members are available to work with other students with special needs, not just with the special education student(s). General education teachers can then offer individualized help to other students in need of a little extra attention. General education teachers are also able to receive specialized professional development to learn strategies and techniques that work well with both special education and general education students. ("A Teacher's Perspective on the Reauthorization of IDEA," 2003)

As this teacher implies, key stakeholders in the education of children, regardless of their areas of expertise or roles as practitioner or researcher, must communicate and collaborate more effectively across disciplinary and professional boundaries to achieve a common goal. The goal to attain involves doing what's right for all students by narrowing the literacy

achievement gap for those whose diversity and socioeconomic status and/or language learning difficulties put them at increased risk for chronic academic failure.

This book provides a strong foundation for both teachers and speech–language pathologists who work with children learning to become literate in English as a first or second language. It includes the perspectives of researchers with well-established bodies of original research on the development of effective practices in literacy education and language intervention. It is unfortunate that while both perspectives—the educational and the clinical—are integral to a comprehensive approach to language and literacy learning, they have not informed each other in systematic ways. This volume brings together both perspectives to focus on the core contents of literacy: Word recognition, oral and reading comprehension, writing, and spelling.

The gulf between researcher viewpoints also appears at the professional level. From a practical perspective, classroom teachers, who are versed in the teaching of literacy, and speech–language pathologists, who are professionally prepared in the components of spoken language, have remained separated from one another in the educational setting. For example, in spite of the fact that the 1997 reauthorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) specified that services were to be provided in the least restrictive environment possible, federal data show that, nationally, speech–language pathologists were "providing 82.8% of their services in special education settings, such as resource rooms for students with speech–language impairments" (U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs, 2002a, p. III-7). Most services are provided for students with language and/or articulation impairments.

One reason for this continued separation is the broad variation among states in their policy changes and disability criteria for such categories as specific learning disabilities and speech–language impairment (U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs, 2002b). These variations often promote fragmentation of services and rigid professional boundaries (Silliman, Butler, & Wallach, 2002). In other words, regular and special education are considered to be two different systems without common bonds. A second reason for the divide stems in large part from federal and state education laws and regulations, including Title I, that differentiate elementary and secondary education from special education and related services. However, the current federal and state commitments to standards-based educational reform impacts both classroom teachers and speech–language pathologists. As a result, rich opportunities are available to bridge the divide in innovative ways through collaboration with the goal of narrowing the achievement gap for all students.

In the first part of the 21st century, the catchphrase for educational reform is the implementation of scientifically based practices, or evidence-based practices, as these practices have emerged from the considerable research on learning to read and the prevention of reading failure in children at risk (Snow, Burns, & Griffin, 1998; National Reading Panel, 2000). For the first time, the inclusion of scientifically based practices in the elementary education reading curriculum is now federal educational policy as reflected in the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB; 2002). Educational policy results from the social translation of scientific knowledge into politically approved practices that then shape how federal monies and technical assistance are allocated (Lo Bianco, 2001). President George W. Bush articulated the policy vision of NCLB when he signed this far-reaching legislation into law in January 2002:

> Too many children in America are segregated by low expectation, illiteracy, and self-doubt. In a constantly changing world that is demanding increasingly complex skills from its workforce, children are literally being left behind. It doesn't have to be this way. . . . In America, no child should be left behind. (Bush, 2002)

There can be little argument with a vision of educational equity that seeks to "make educational excellence the rule" (Haycock & Wiener, 2003, p. 5), including educational excellence for students covered under the current provisions of IDEA (President's Commission on Excellence in Special Education, 2002). However, few topics provoke as much controversy as do the subjects of educational reform and the stress on results as found in the concept of accountability in NCLB. It is also likely that the NCLB notion of accountability will transform the identification procedures and instructional practices of a reauthorized IDEA, still in progress as of this writing.[1] Based on Senate bill S. 1248 (U.S. Senate Health, Education, Labor, and Pensions Committee, 2003; hereafter referred to as the U.S. Senate HELP Committee), the most significant changes will align IDEA with the NCLB accountability system in order for a united accountability structure to exist. In addition, three themes from the President's Commission on Excellence in Special Education (2002) are incorporated into the amended IDEA bill: (1) a focus on results, not on process; (2) shifting from a model of "wait to fail" to a model of prevention; and (3) considering children with disabilities as general education children first. A prevention model emphasizing early identification might not require the demonstration of a severe discrepancy between IQ and achievement to determine eligibility. Instead, identification could take place in the classroom through a process of children's responses to scientific, research-based intervention (for a fuller discussion of the response-to-instruction model, see Silliman, Wilkinson, and Brea-Spahn, 2004). The aim is to reduce unnecessary referrals to special

education for learning disabilities for children whose struggles to read may be the product of inadequate experiences with emerging literacy experiences combined with inadequate educational opportunities.

It seems that, over the past three decades, U.S. education has been in a perpetual cycle of reform, with one set of "best practices" quickly replaced by another set of "best practices." It is no wonder that many practitioners, whether classroom teachers in regular or special education or speech–language pathologists, feel confused, if not dismayed, by the constant change in the meaning of and evidence for "best practices" (Gersten, 2001). In this chapter we address three challenges to the adoption of best practices: (1) the lack of clarity in the meaning and scope of NCLB for all students, including those with disabilities, and the educators responsible for them; (2) the proper role of accommodations for students with special needs in the high-stakes assessment required for aligning IDEA with NCLB; and (3) the establishment of workable criteria for highly qualified general education and special education teachers.

Following this discussion of challenges to cross-disciplinary collaboration, we then present an overview of the book's chapters, relating them to possible avenues for collaboration between teachers and speech–language pathologists in implementing best practices in literacy. It should be noted that the linguistic distinction between "teacher" and "speech–language pathologist" reflects to some extent the discord between the educational frames of teachers and the clinical frames of speech–language pathologists (Duchan, 2004), who frequently do not view themselves as teachers. We make clear here that this conflict in frames is not one we support, since the educational versus clinical distinction in the school setting is often an arbitrary, rather than a substantive, division.

THREE CHALLENGES TO COLLABORATION

Challenge 1: Learning to Live with NCLB

The Basis of Reform: The NCLB Act and Title I

NCLB, or Public Law 107-110, is a significant reform of the federal Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA), initially passed in 1965. The nucleus of this far-reaching law requires states to assure that all grade-3 students, *including students with disabilities*, will read proficiently no later than the 2013–2014 school year (NCLB, 2002). By 2005–2006, states must start annual testing of students in grades 3–8 in reading (or language arts) and mathematics, and these tests must be aligned with state standards. Grade-3 science assessments are to begin by the 2007–2008 school year. Moreover, representative samples of students in grades 4 and 8 across states must now participate in biennial reading and mathematics assessments of

the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) if states are to continue receiving Title I funds (NCLB, 2002).[2] The NAEP serves as a national benchmark of state standards, assessments, and student achievement outcomes (for a more complete discussion of NCLB–NAEP issues, see Silliman et al., 2004).

Currently, Title I funds affect approximately 12.5 million students enrolled in public (and private) schools, primarily those in grades 1–6 (U.S. Department of Education, Office of Elementary and Secondary Education, 2002). Funds may be allocated for the improvement of instructional programs in two situations: (1) for schoolwide programs that serve all children when at least 40% of the enrolled students are from poor families, and (2) as targeted assistance in schools whose poverty rate is below 40% or when schools select not to operate a schoolwide program (U.S. Department of Education, Office of Elementary and Secondary Education, 2002). Therefore, the financial risks are high for states and local education agencies if they do not show adequate evidence of progress toward meeting literacy goals since schools can lose federal funding provided under the Title I section of the ESEA.

Under NCLB, Title I funds are intended to help children who are failing, or who are most at risk for failing, to meet high academic standards for literacy. Those eligible for services include children who are economically disadvantaged who have disabilities, who are English language learners (ELLs), or whose families are migrants or homeless, among others. Children from low-income groups or who are ELLs are more susceptible to multiple risk factors that are associated with literacy learning difficulties. These risk factors include mother's education being less than high school, living in a single-parent household, living in a family receiving welfare benefits, or having parents whose primary language is other than English (U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2001). Moreover, the proportion of first-time kindergartners with two or more risk indicators is three times greater for Hispanic children and four times greater for African American children than for their Caucasian peers (U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics, 2003a, 2003b). These two groups of children also tend to be referred to special education in proportions greater than their representation in the school-age population,[3] especially for a specific learning disability, emotional/behavioral disturbance, or mental retardation (President's Commission on Excellence in Special Education, 2002; U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs, 2002a). Of note, Title I funds may be used to *coordinate* or *supplement* other services required by law for these same groups of children, including children already covered under IDEA, who meet eligibility requirements for Title I funds (see NCLB, 2002, Section 1115 b[3]). Title I also incorporates two other new federally

supported reading programs: Early Reading First, which is designed to increase the quality of preschool education, and Reading First, which is dedicated to improving reading achievement in kindergarten through grade 3.

The Cornerstones of NCLB

As summarized in Table 1.1, NCLB is built on four cornerstones: (1) increasing accountability for student outcomes, (2) expanding parental choices when Title I schools consistently fail in their efforts to improve, (3) emphasizing learning to read by improving teacher quality and relying on scientifically based research for reading programs, and (4) allowing more flexibility to states and local school districts in how federal grants are spent to meet the NCLB goals. Bloomfield and Cooper (2003) describe these keystones as the *federalization* of education whereby the federal government, not individual states, is now setting educational standards; the *standardization* of curriculum, assessment, and accountability; and *privatization*. National standardization results from a comparison of student performance on the required NAEP with state test results "to see whether the states are 'dumbing down' their test results [to attain high proficiency percentages] to look better on national comparisons" (Bloomfield & Cooper, 2003, p. 8). "Privatization" refers to the opening of public education to the private sector. Included under this domain would be private providers who offer supplementary educational services; charter schools, which are publicly funded but managed on a for-profit or a nonprofit business model; and the use of vouchers as tuition aid for low-income children to attend religious or secular private schools.

TABLE 1.1 The Four Cornerstones of the No Child Left Behind Act

Cornerstone	How operationalized
Increased accountability	Assess outcomes via adequate yearly progress (AYP)—results matter.
Increased choices for parents and students in Title I schools	Identify schools "in need of improvement"—unsuccessful corrective actions after 2 years lead to options for supplemental services and school choice.
Putting reading first	Employ only highly qualified teachers; offer reading programs based on proven scientific research—quality of instruction and evidence-based practices are essential.
Expanded flexibility at the state and local school levels	Manage Reading First grants in ways that will meet goals—financial/technical resources matter.

As might be expected, after 2 years of implementation, NCLB is experiencing a backlash from many in the educational community. At best, some members of the public press give a mixed grade to NCLB (e.g., Allen, 2004). The education press reports that, in implementing the grant funds from the Reading First Initiative, the commercial reading programs that states have selected tend to be the same ones, which raise the danger of a single instructional approach (Manzo, 2004). In general, criticisms of NCLB focus on the interpretation of "adequate yearly progress" (AYP) and the meaning of schools in need of improvement, accommodations for students with disabilities in this era of high-stakes assessment, and the highly qualified teachers provision of the Reading First Initiative.

Adequate Yearly Progress and Identification of Schools in Need of Improvement

AYP means that specific goals must be set for student learning, assessments must be conducted to measure whether students enrolled in the school for *one academic year* are attaining these goals, and, as a consequence, educators are held responsible for raising student achievement in reading and math for all students (Haycock & Wiener, 2003). Included under the term "all" are the four subgroups of students cited earlier: the economically disadvantaged, those from the major racial and ethnic groups, those who have disabilities, and those who are ELL. To assure that schools are not masking the performance of the four subgroups through relying on average school performance, NCLB requires that not only must school scores be reported as a whole, but also that the scores for the four subgroups must be disaggregated, or separated, for reporting purposes.

Adequate Yearly Progress and High-Stakes Assessment. Figure 1.1 outlines the AYP process, which obliges states to set goals—for example, in reading—and to measure whether individual schools and students in these schools are meeting those goals. AYP is premised on high-stakes testing for schools and students. For example, a requirement is that 95% of students in a school must take the assessments. In 2003 six states (Delaware, Florida, Louisiana, New Jersey, North Carolina, and Texas) were using high-stakes tests to determine *both* grade promotion and graduation from high school with a diploma (Thompson & Thurlow, 2003; Wasburn-Moses, 2003). By 2008, 28 states will mandate a high-school exit examination for a diploma (Goertz & Duffy, 2003). Cochran-Smith (2000) describes high-stakes tests as analogous to gambling in a poker game:

> The term is used to indicate the potential for both great losses and great wins when one makes the choice to play at the big-money table . . . [but]

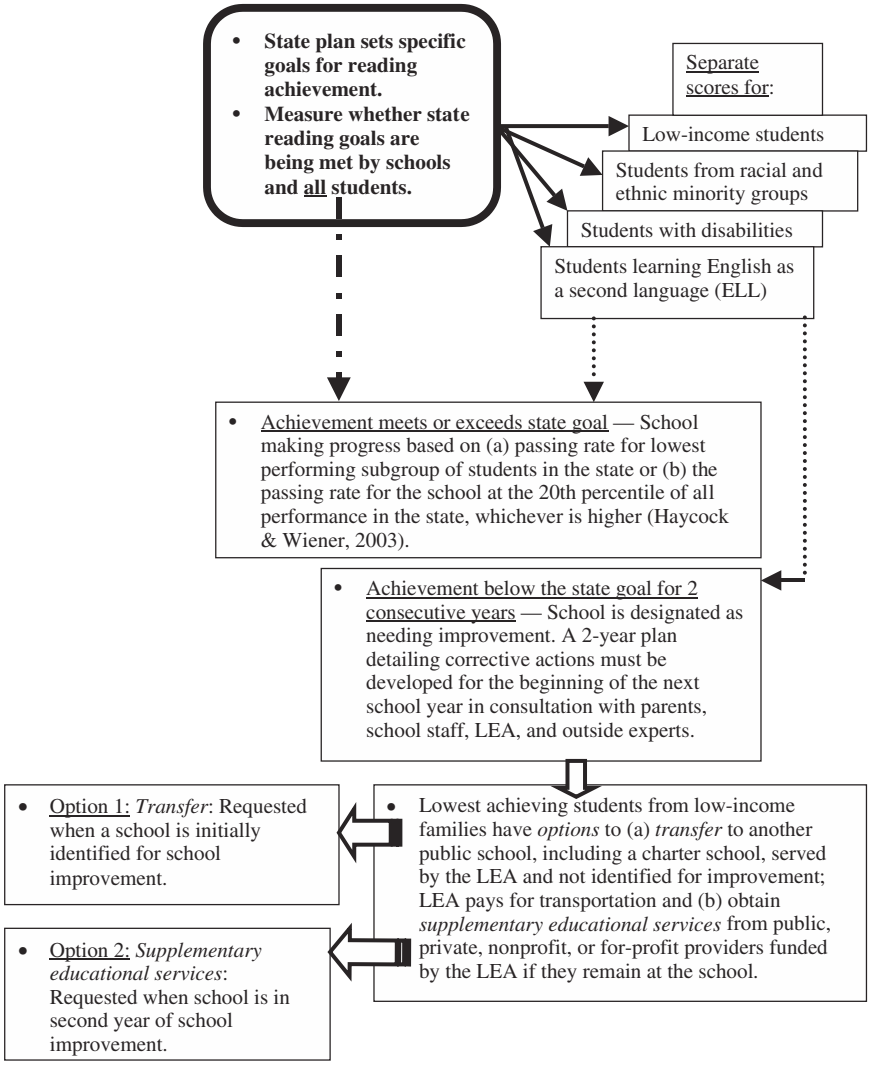

FIGURE 1.1. Process for determining adequate yearly progress for Title I schools under the No Child Left Behind Act (2002). (LEA, Local Education Agency).

> test takers caught in the high-stakes national testing movement have had no choice about whether they will play in the big-money game, a game that is rigged from the start in favor of teachers and students from suburban and other highly resourced communities. (p. 269)

Similarly, Thurlow and Johnson (2000) criticize high-stakes tests for students with disabilities The concern is that, since the reauthorization of IDEA in 1997, students with disabilities must participate in assessments that, generally, are not designed for those receiving a variety of special education services and do not necessarily reflect what these students know and can do. On the other hand, nonparticipation in state- and district-mandated assessments could lead to other unintended consequences for these students, such as being granted an alternate diploma rather than a standard high-school diploma that then limits their postsecondary choices.

Supplementary Educational Services. When a school does not meet AYP criteria for 2 consecutive years, then the school is designated as "needing improvement." At this point, while the school develops a plan to raise achievement, one option becomes available to all low-income students and parents: transfer to another public school within the district that is making AYP, with transportation paid by the Local Education Agency (LEA). A second option becomes operative for students from low-income families when schools are at the end of their second year of school improvement: to obtain supplementary educational services from a state-approved list of public or private providers, with the services also paid for by the LEA, again, up to a certain limit (U.S. Department of Education, Office of Innovation and Improvement, 2003). Public providers can include public schools (including charter schools), LEAs, and educational service agencies. Private providers, consistent with the privatization principle ((Bloomfield & Cooper, 2003), may include faith-based organizations and private businesses, such as private tutoring services or, in the case of speech–language services, private practitioners who meet a state's criteria for approval as a provider (U.S. Department of Education, Office of Innovation and Improvement, 2003).

Supplementary educational services can consist of such academic assistance as "tutoring, remediation, and other educational interventions" (U.S. Department of Education, Office of Innovation and Improvement, 2003, p. 39) that are consistent with the LEA's content and instruction, are aligned with the state's academic standards, are research-based, and are provided outside the regular school day. For students with disabilities, the NCLB regulations, finalized in December 2002, specified that parents must be supplied with names of *some* approved providers (whether public or private) who can offer necessary accommodations for the child, but neither the State Education

Agency (SEA) nor the LEA were obligated to offer assistance with accommodations for the provision of supplementary educational services. In contrast, according to the regulations, ELL students receiving supplementary educational services must also have language assistance linked with the supplementary services; otherwise the LEA must offer language assistance. Of interest for school specialists, such as speech–language pathologists and learning disability specialists, public schools may provide supplemental educational services to students at risk of failing the state's academic achievement standards but who are not low income; however, there are restrictions on how Title I funds may be used in this situation. In other cases that involve students with disabilities or ELL students, the LEA can be a provider if parents request direct services from the LEA. The qualification is that "LEAs are not permitted merely to assign those students whose parents request assistance to a district- or school-administered program" (U.S. Department of Education, Office of Innovation and Improvement, 2003, p. 26).

Adequate Yearly Progress Myths. A final comment on AYP pertains to two myths surrounding the concept (Haycock & Wiener, 2003). First, contrary to the interpretation of the public and the press, NCLB does not require that states identify schools as "failing." It requires that schools be identified for improvement in certain areas where there have been chronic problems in achievement for certain groups of students, such as persistent reading failure. Despite this fine point in the law, most likely, the public perception, as well as the perceptions of educational staff and their students, is that the "needing improvement" designation does mean failure. Second, the perception exists that AYP means that schools must improve test scores every year to avoid being labeled as needing improvement. Haycock and Wiener (2003) point out that AYP refers to "*adequate* yearly progress" and not "*annual* yearly progress." However, what AYP means actually depends on individual state definitions. The result is wide disparities among states in the meaning of reading proficiency. For example, one state improvement plan requires that 50% of students must be proficient readers in 2004. In 2003, the school improved significantly, raising the percentage of proficient students from 40% to 55%, but in 2004 the proficiency percent declined slightly to 52%. In this example, according to Haycock and Wiener (2003), the school will not be designated as needing improvement because the 2004 score remained above the state's 50% target. However, if the school does not meet the 50% target for 2 consecutive years, then it would be identified as needing improvement.[4]

Summary: The Accountability Challenge Is Here to Stay. Concerns about the AYP requirement focus on two aspects (Keegan, Orr, & Jones, 2002). One set of criticisms focuses on the absence of consensus about the mean-

ing of "adequate," much less "proficient," a controversy that is linked to high-stakes assessments and "mismatches between what is taught and what is tested" (Committee on Assessment in Support of Instruction and Learning of the National Research Council, 2003, p. 17). The outcome of high-stakes assessments then becomes one where teachers concentrate less on students' meaningful learning and more on strategies for "learning the test." For example, in preparing for the 10th-grade state test in writing, a Florida high school student who enjoys creative writing nevertheless indicated that she would use the mechanical writing formula she had been taught to pass the essay test—that is, five paragraphs that make three points with the use of the transitional connectives *first*, *next*, and *in conclusion* (Catalanello, 2004). A second form of disapproval pertains to the questionable use of assessment for the dual purposes of accountability at the district and state levels and determining instructional outcomes at the classroom level (Committee on Assessment in Support of Instruction and Learning of the National Research Council, 2003; Keegan et al., 2002).

Regardless of the trepidations expressed and the multiple policy clarifications still needed, districts and states are now being held accountable for the achievement of all students, and there are serious consequences if state-mandated standards are not met over a 5-year period of improvement. These consequences can include the withholding of Title I funds or the restructuring of the school, which may include changing the school's governance or appointing a trustee to administer LEA affairs instead of a superintendent and school board (NCLB, 2002). The bottom line and the challenge for all professional stakeholders serving children is that AYP means "Process is not enough; it's results that count" (Keegan et al., 2002, p. 2). However, over the long term, students' perspectives on this new accountability challenge might be captured best in this tale from Delpit (2003):

> The 100 year old man lies on his deathbed, contemplating his long life. . . . He has lived a good life—there have been good times and bad times but he has accomplished much that he is proud of. . . . One of his favorite grandsons looks into his eyes and asks, "Grandpa, is there anything you regret in your life?" The old man closes his eyes. Just when his family thinks he has drifted off to sleep, he opens them again and says with an expression of deep, wistful longing, "Son, I just really wish with all my heart that I would have scored higher on the state-mandated achievement tests." (p. 14)

Challenge 2: Learning to Reconcile IDEA with NCLB: Accommodations and High-Stakes Assessment

Since the 1997 IDEA reauthorization, students with disabilities must be included in the assessment programs of states and districts, with the

results of their performance reported separately from general education students. NCLB (2002) added the new stipulation that states were now accountable for the AYP of students receiving special education services who had individualized education plans (IEPs). For example, the requirement that 95% of students in a school must participate in the testing programs for reading also applies to students with IEPs, as well as to students who are ELL and have attended school in the United States for 3 consecutive years. In other words, 95% of these two student groups must participate (see note 4). The bar has been set high. NCLB requires that, by 2013–2014, 100% of students in a state, including students with disabilities, are to meet state proficiency standards in reading and math (Ralabate & Foley, 2003). Moreover, the amended IDEA bill (U.S. Senate HELP Committee, 2003) makes clear that a critical aspect of reauthorization is holding states, districts, and schools accountable for the AYP of students with significant disabilities.

According to an analysis of state data by *Education Week* (2004) for the 2002–2003 school year, the participation rates for students with IEPs in grade-4 reading tests ranged from a low of 48% in California (which reported only 2001–2002 data) to a high of 100% in five states (Delaware, Kansas, Maryland, Massachusetts, and Nebraska). However, two major issues impacting on the validity of participation rates are that not all states administer assessments to students in grades 4, 8, and 12, and states differ in how they determine participation rates when students require accommodations. Topics often not well understood concern distinctions between "standard accommodations" and "modifications" and the relationship of alternate assessments to the AYP accountability standard.

What Are Allowable Testing Accommodations under IDEA for Accountability?

There are three ways in which students with disabilities can participate in state assessments (Lehr & Thurlow, 2003). First, they can participate *without accommodations*. In 2002–2003, according to the *Education Week* (2004) analysis, only 10 states reported that students participated without accommodations. Second, they can participate *with accommodations*, a situation that occurred in all 50 states and the District of Columbia in 2002–2003. Third, they can participate in *alternate assessments* when accommodations are not sufficient to allow participation in general assessments. Alternate assessments were administered in 48 states and the District of Columbia in 2002–2003 (*Education Week*, 2004). Thus, the vast majority of students with IEPs require accommodations to participate in high-stakes testing or the substitute alternate assessments. It should be noted that NCLB (2002) regulations, as well as the amended IDEA bill (U.S. Senate HELP Committee,

2003), specify that, at the state, district, and school levels, alternate assessments must be an integral part of state standards and assessment programs, must be constructed so that scores are generated in reading and math, and must meet the AYP requirements.

Testing accommodations are defined as minor changes made to the test setting, the timing of the test, its presentation format, or the response mode (Minnesota Department of Education, 2003) to "help students show what they know on assessments without being impeded by their disability" (Elliott, McKevitt, & Kettler, 2002, p. 154). Standard accommodations are not supposed to alter the nature of the content being assessed and therefore compromise the reliability, validity, or security of the test (Minnesota Department of Education, 2003). Instead, accommodations are intended to provide access to the content in order to equalize the opportunities for students to display what they know. While marked disparities are evident among state policies in permissible, or standard, accommodations, the most frequently used accommodations involve the presentation format. These include extended time or additional breaks, reading aloud the directions or questions to a student, student dictation of answers to a scribe, and small-group or individual testing (Lehr & Thurlow, 2003; Wasburn-Moses, 2003). It is the responsibility of IEP teams to select the appropriate accommodations for students and to familiarize students with these accommodations during actual instruction *before testing* (Ralabate & Foley, 2003; Thurlow & Johnson, 2000). Furthermore, accommodations must be selected in accord with state or district guidelines and, under the assessment provisions of IDEA, detailed in the student's IEP (Elliot et al., 2002). Nonetheless, there appear to be broad variations across a state's school districts in the extent to which IEPs contain detailed documentation on curriculum and instructional accommodations, much less the degree to which these accommodations are then explicitly linked to testing accommodations at the appropriate time (Shriner & Destefano, 2003). In 2002–2003, all states and the District of Columbia reported that in their large-scale assessments they included students who participated without accommodations or with standard accommodations (*Education Week*, 2004). However, as noted earlier, not all states report their data by grade (4, 8, and 12).

What Are Testing Modifications versus Accommodations?

In contrast to the minor adjustments that characterize accommodations, *modifications* involve changes to the content of a test that then alter what the test assesses (Elliott et al., 2002). For example, modification may occur when the IEP team establishes a lower passing score for an individual student on the state accountability measure (Minnesota Department of Education, 2003), which then may invalidate the test. In 2002–2003, 26 states

and the District of Columbia reported that students took their state assessments with modifications (*Education Week*, 2004). However, across states, the boundary between an accommodation and a modification is often controversial because acceptable modifications in one state may not be suitable as a standard accommodation in another state (Lehr & Thurlow, 2003).

Another controversy concerns specific testing accommodations that may influence the validity of test scores for students with disabilities. For example, there is little research to provide guidance on whether the test scores of students with disabilities in the standard conditions (no accommodations) differ in their magnitude from the scores of students who have test directions and questions read aloud to them as an accommodation (Elliot et al., 2002). Thus, the absence of this information makes it difficult to interpret state reading proficiency rates for students with disabilities. To illustrate this point, an analysis of state reading proficiency rates for 2002–2003 (*Education Week*, 2004) indicated a major achievement gap in reading proficiency of at least 30 percentage points between students with and without disabilities in grades 4, 8, and 12. However, these data are not further separated by students who participated in testing without accommodations contrasted with those who required accommodations (and what type of accommodation), or even separated by disability category. Moreover, the proportion of low-income ELL or African American students with disabilities who read below proficiency levels was also unreported.

Prior to the 1997 IDEA, students with disabilities who required accommodations were often excluded from state or district assessments because their inclusion lowered overall school performance. As Thurlow and Johnson (2000) comment, exclusion was frequently translated into lower expectations and reduced access to the general education curriculum. There can be little debate that, regardless of the language and literacy problems that children have, all should be challenged in academic, social, and linguistic discourse domains with the expectation that they can learn. But, at this point in time, the consequences of high-stakes assessments for students with disabilities under a realigned IDEA remain speculative relative to such critical issues as further limiting or enlarging their access to educational opportunities, the use of test scores for either retention or promotion, and the awarding or denial of a high-school diploma (Thurlow & Johnson, 2000).

How Will Alternate Assessments Become Part of an Integrated IDEA–NCLB Accountability System?

The answer to the alignment issue is that it will not come easily. Alternate assessments were initially instituted under the 1997 IDEA with implementation required by 2000; therefore, in advance of the passage of NCLB, most

states had alternate assessments in place, although there remain wide disparities in the extent to which states have validated their alternate assessment standards or even implemented a standards-based approach. These new standards cannot be geared to functional skills, with some exceptions, but must be aligned with state academic content standards in reading and math (Lehr & Thurlow, 2003).

Forms and Functions of Alternate Assessments. Approximately 20% of students with disabilities, or about 2% of the total student population, are not able to participate in high-stakes assessments (Thurlow & Johnson, 2000). Typically, these are students with the most severe cognitive disabilities.[5] However, under a new NCLB regulation, for Title I, this term refers to students whose intellectual functioning and adaptive behavior are –3 standard deviations or more below the mean. In other circumstances, states can individually define the meaning of "students with the most significant cognitive disabilities," a potentially confusing situation since a severe cognitive disability is not one of the 13 disability categories in IDEA. Thus, state definitions can encompass any of the existing 13 disability categories, including speech or language disability (American Speech–Language–Hearing Association, ASHA; 2004). A major concern is that states and LEAs will interpret this regulation as referring to mental retardation only, with the result that "low-performing" students will be misclassified as severely cognitively disabled and placed in educational programs well below their potential (Olson, 2003). Regardless, the scores of students who take alternate assessments must be reported separately from the scores of students who participate in the large-scale assessments with or without accommodations (Ralabate & Foley, 2003).

The most common form of alternate assessment across states is the portfolio, or body-of-evidence, approach (Thompson & Thurlow, 2003). Less commonly used are rating scales or checklists and an analysis of progress on the IEP goals and objectives that usually requires a body of evidence on student performance. The latter type of assessment meets the twin goals of documenting IEP progress and the purpose for assessment, such as whether the student has met graduation requirements (Lehr & Thurlow, 2003; Thurlow & Johnson, 2000). Thompson and Thurlow (2003) report that, based on state special education outcomes, alternate assessments are most often independently scored by trained teachers from outside the student's district or by the test developer contractor.

Out-of-Level Assessments. Related to alternate assessments is the issue of out-of-level testing for those students with disabilities who are not participating in grade-level curriculum. This form of assessment entails administrating a test at a grade level typically below the student's grade level

(Minnema & Thurlow, 2003). Instead, measures are designed for students' instructional level. State reporting practices tend not to provide the specific standards for determining AYP under this type of assessment (Olson, 2003). As a consequence, clear results from out-of-level assessments are not available and it remains questionable at the current time whether these students are included in accountability data (Minnema & Thurlow, 2003).

Summary: Meeting the Accommodations and Alternate Assessment Challenge. Accommodations are an everyday event in the regular education classroom as a way to provide temporary assistance to individual children, such as giving a child more time to finish reading assignments (Carlisle & Rice, 2002). In contrast, students with disabilities often require a variety of accommodations that are not short term.

The challenge confronting many is how to align the diverse individual needs of students with disabilities, some of whom may not even be able to participate in alternate assessments, with the NCLB accountability standards. As a starting point for resolving this concern, Thurlow and Johnson (2000) suggest that better collaboration among regular and special educators in policy decisions, such as joint decision making about the long-term social consequences of different diploma options, might result in only 1–2% of students with disabilities requiring alternate assessments at any grade level, in contrast with the current 20% who need alternate assessments. Collaborative involvement in policy decisions about the educational improvement of all students also has two added advantages that Roach, Salisbury, and McGregor (2002) articulate. One is that practitioners are assisted to understand the motivations and impact of policy on practice from the classroom to the district level. The second benefit of collaboration among all key stakeholders is the meshing of multiple perspectives that can result in the shared frame of reference critical to achieve if standards-based practices are to enhance the quality of learning outcomes for all students.

Challenge 3: Learning to Implement Evidence-Based Practices Well—The Highly Qualified Teacher Dilemma

Reading Instruction and the Quality Problem

A major cornerstone of NCLB (see Table 1.1) is that improved instruction in reading is premised on highly qualified teachers who are skilled in implementing evidence-based education. According to Whitehurst (2002), evidence-based education results when decisions about the delivery of reading instruction are the product of well-developed professional judgment integrated with the best available scientific evidence for effective practices.

NCLB requires that, by 2005–2006, states must have highly qualified teachers in every classroom who can deliver evidence-based education, a mandate that also applies to teachers in charter schools. This provision of the law stems from the long-standing concern that low-income students in Title I elementary, middle, and high schools are more likely to be taught by general education teachers who are less experienced and do not have certification in the core academic subjects that they are teaching (U.S. Department of Education, 2003b). (The 12 core academic subjects are listed in Table 1.2.) The Title I section of NCLB largely leaves to states the task of developing their own definitions of "highly qualified" as long as these definitions include (1) at least a bachelor's degree, (2) full state certification or licensure (which can be obtained through alternate routes), and (3) a rigorous method for assessing an individual's subject knowledge and teaching skills in the content area. The methods for demonstrating content knowledge in the case of experienced teachers may include a combination of experience, college course work, professional development, or other measures that a state determines (Education Trust, 2003).[6] Each state submitted plans to the U.S. Department of Education on September 1, 2003, specifying how they would meet the "highly qualified" provision.

The option for experienced teachers to demonstrate content knowledge in forms other than a college/university specialty or the passing of a test is known as the "High Objective Uniform State Standard of Evaluation" (the HOUSSE provision) (Education Trust, 2003—the Education Trust is an independent, nonprofit organization whose mission is to work for the high academic achievement of all students). The concern expressed in the Education Trust analysis is that states have interpreted this provision for objective assessment as meaning almost any kind of demonstration resulting in a "HOUSSE of cards" (p. 7). For example, some states permit teachers to self-assess their content knowledge as an acceptable process for demonstrating content knowledge, while others allow veteran teachers to meet the content knowledge standard through obtaining a satisfactory score on their annual performance evaluations.

TABLE 1.2. The 12 Core Content Areas in the No Child Left Behind Act

• Reading	• Civics
• Language arts	• Government
• English	• Economics
• Mathematics	• Arts
• Science	• History
• Foreign languages	• Geography

What Do *Teachers Need to Know to Teach Reading Well?* In addition to the state plan for meeting the highly qualified requirement, each state also had to provide a statewide baseline on the percentage of classrooms currently taught by highly qualified teachers and separately detail the same information for high-poverty (Title I) schools. In an analysis of these state data by the Education Trust (2003), the information submitted was found to be less than reliable. For example, a number of states had not yet defined "highly qualified," and only two states (Colorado and Tennessee) incorporated measures of student progress in their procedures for evaluating whether current teachers were highly qualified. One state even designated the dubious categories of "fully highly qualified" and "interim highly qualified."

The contentious part of the highly qualified requirement is neither the degree nor the certification requirements, but the elusive definition of teaching quality (Cochran-Smith, 2003; Education Trust, 2003). One source of difficulty in defining "quality" in literacy instruction is attributed to teacher education curricula. For example, Berninger and Richards (2002) describe teacher education as atheoretical because its primary focus is "different instructional options from which to select" (p. 304), not the conceptual frameworks consistent with the factors known to facilitate positive literacy outcomes for individual children. Others (e.g., McCutchen & Berninger, 1999; Moats & Lyon, 1996) express concern that, while mastery of content, or domain, knowledge is expected for the teaching of high-school mathematics and English, research is missing on the specialized content knowledge elementary teachers actually need for attaining expertise in classroom reading instruction (Moats & Foorman, 2003).

The absence of research on the disciplinary knowledge base that supports best practices in reading instruction is not a trivial oversight (McCutchen et al., 2002). The expectation is that, nationwide, teachers will implement evidence-based instruction in their teaching of reading. To illustrate this expectation, the findings of the National Reading Panel (2000) have been repackaged for and distributed to many elementary teachers as a framework for implementing evidence-based instruction in phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and text comprehension (Armbruster, Lehr, & Osborn, 2003). However, Moats and Foorman (2003) challenge whether this framework can be translated into and sustained as effective practices crafted to meet the needs of all children unless teachers possess explicit metalinguistic knowledge of the conceptual relationships between language and reading. In other words, are credentials, experience, and professional development activities as measures of highly qualified teachers equivalent to having strong content knowledge in the subject domain to be taught (Education Trust, 2003)?

The Scope of the "Highly Qualified" Problem. Moats and Foorman (2003) designed and refined a teacher knowledge survey instrument intended to access teachers' awareness of domains and concepts crucial for understanding reading development in kindergarten to grade 3. Results showed that too many kindergarten- to grade-4 teachers who worked in high-poverty urban schools did not know that diagraphs (letter combinations) in English orthography often represented a single phoneme as found in a word like *chip*. Only 16% were able to select from four choices that *tacked* was only one syllable (vs. the foils *peaches*, *able*, *quiet*, and *higher*), and only 7% could select *anxiety* as a word without a prefix, root, or suffix from four other choices (*prevalidate*, *subtraction*, *returnable*, and *unhistorical*). Overall, only one-third of teachers showed the high level of metalinguistic content knowledge about basic concepts and relationships in phonology, morphology, syntax, and orthography necessary for the effective teaching of reading, writing, and spelling.

These significant knowledge gaps indicate that for evidence-based instruction to achieve positive outcomes at least four systemic changes must co-occur:

- Extensive restructuring of elementary teacher education in reading (Berninger & Richards, 2002).
- Intensive, ongoing professional development experiences that include the analysis of children's work, such as the analysis of error patterns in oral reading and spelling (McCutchen et al., 2002).
- At the school level, "informed instructional leaders who can press a well-articulated [reading] initiative for several years" (Foorman & Moats, 2004, p. 58).
- Ongoing consultative assistance for teachers and other educational staff to support their transfer of new knowledge into informed practices that are sustained (Case, Speece, & Malloy, 2003).

Without these systems in place, too many teachers will continue to be less than qualified to diagnose children's decoding and comprehension needs appropriately and, further, unprepared to assist a diverse array of children with the differentiated instruction that might help them succeed.

The Special Educator and the Speech–Language Pathologist: Are They Highly Qualified?

The NCLB–IDEA Dilemma. A challenge for both special educators and speech–language pathologists is how their status will be defined in an alignment of IDEA's general definition of qualified personnel with the NCLB standards for the highly qualified. Under NCLB (2002) and its regulations, special

education (and related services) are not explicitly identified as a core subject academic area; however, as the National Education Association points out (Ralabate & Foley, 2003), almost "all special education teachers either teach or support instruction in one or more core academic areas" (p. IV-3). Because of the wide variability among states in their standards for teacher certification, it remains blurry whether or not special educators or related service staff, such as speech–language pathologists, who work in Title I schools meet the highly qualified provision of NCLB even if they meet state requirements for teacher certification or professional licensing (see also note 6).

However, at least two predicaments are unique to school-based speech–language pathologists. First, IDEA 1997 contains a "highly qualified" provision wherein states are obliged to recognize the highest standards in the state that apply to a specific profession or discipline. In the case of speech–language pathologists, the entry-level degree for the profession, as regulated by the national ASHA standards, is the master's degree combined with 1-year of supervised professional experience and the passing of a national examination. This higher standard is recognized by many states for employment in the public schools. Whether this longstanding provision will be retained, modified, or eliminated in the 2004 reauthorization of IDEA is unknown at this time (Snyder, 2003).

The second quandary pertains to variances among states in their education regulations. Although IDEA considers speech–language pathology services a related service, in a number of states speech–language services are defined as a special education service. In those states, a speech–language pathologist may function as a classroom teacher of children with language impairment, team-teach with another special educator in a classroom, or provide auxiliary support in a related service role. Because of this flexibility in role assignments, a few states have attempted to reconcile the IDEA–NCLB dilemma in their HOUSSE process for "not new" teachers. One illustration comes from the Florida Department of Education (2002). Speech–language pathologists will have to meet the highly qualified requirement if they are the "teacher of record" for a core academic subject (see Table 1.2). The designation as "highly qualified" in this situation is through credentialing. This may include a state-issued professional license in speech–language pathology or a state Educator Certificate in Speech–Language Impaired in combination with the other NCLB requirements for highly qualified. In contrast, the HOUSSE processes of other states do not mention either speech–language pathologists or special education teachers.

Because of this marked disparity among states in their regulations for the delivery of speech–language services, it can be expected that the reconciliation of NCLB provisions with IDEA provisions about "highly qualified" will be a rocky road. To redress the gap between the two laws, the U.S. Senate HELP Committee's (2003) version of a reauthorized IDEA

mandates that, by the end of the 2006–2007 school year, all special education teachers teaching in elementary, middle, and high schools must be highly qualified. This same bill also weakens somewhat the highest qualified standard for related service personnel, as just discussed, but retains its basic elements (Snyder, 2003).

The Federal Government's Road to Developing Quality Indicators for Special Education and Speech–Language Services. On the second anniversary of NCLB, a *New York Times* editorial ("Leaving Some Children Behind," 2004) sounded a clarion call for teachers who know how to teach children, particularly those with learning- or language-related disabilities. So a key question is the quality of those educators who are responsible for students with disabilities.

To begin the long process of answering this question, as well as illuminating issues related to retention and attrition, the U.S. Department of Education commissioned an exploratory study, *The Study of Personnel Needs in Special Education* (SPeNSE; Carlson, Brauen, Klein, Schroll, & Westat, 2002).[7] Five quality indicators were identified and built into an interview process that involved 8,061 service providers, including 510 speech–language pathologists who provided direct service to students with disabilities. These indicators of individuals' quality were (1) teaching experience; (2) credentials, especially level of certification; (3) self-efficacy; (4) professionalism (e.g., the number of journals read, professional association memberships, etc.); and (5) selected classroom practices that exemplified best practices in teaching reading. In addition, demographic characteristics were included as a quality indicator for the "workforce as a whole . . . because of pervasive differences in the demographics of students and their teachers" (Carlson, Lee, Schroll, Klein, & Westat, 2002, p. 3).

The limitations of an interview process dependent on self-reports are well known. Moreover, the SPeNSE design, in delving into the meaning of quality, did not include the critical outcome variable of student achievement. However, the next step is testing the validity of the teacher quality model relative to how characteristics of language arts teachers are associated with the academic achievement of students with disabilities (U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs, 2002a). A concern is that the SPeNSE factors are global indicators only in contrast with the teacher knowledge focus of Moats and Foorman (2003), which attempted to pinpoint specific linguistic content essential for implementing effective reading instruction. Moreover, as the SPeNSE report (Carlson, Brauen, et al., 2002) acknowledges, unraveling discussions of teacher quality from discussions of teacher quantity become highly complex, particularly for special education teachers, due to the serious nationwide shortage of qualified individuals, estimated at over 12,000 vacant positions. These shortages then result in less-

qualified individuals being hired. Contrary to expectations, there appears to be a minimal shortage of school-based speech–language pathologists on a nationwide basis (U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs, 2002a). Given these caveats, the quality indicator profiles, summarized in Table 1.3, provide two kinds of snapshots. One is the characteristics of a nationally drawn representative sample of special educators and speech–language pathologists; the other suggests how these data may be used ultimately to formulate new educational policies for students with disabilities.

- First, both groups were demographically similar—that is, primarily white, suburban, middle class, and female (Carlson, Lee, et al., 2002)—a profile that differed considerably from the diverse student population served. As a group, speech–language pathologists were more demographically homogeneous than the special education group.
- Second, both groups were also similar in terms of their years of teaching experience. But school-based speech–language pathologists are an aging group with the largest cohort in this sample aged 45 or older (U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs, 2002a). The SPeNSE data show that, while there is a mild shortage of qualified speech–language pathologists nationwide, retirements in the next 15 years will provoke major shortages. The rate of younger individuals entering the profession is insufficient to meet future needs (U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs, 2002a).
- Third, approximately 59% of special educators have a master's degree, contrasted with 87% of speech-language pathologists. From an educational and credentialing perspective, the U.S. Department of Education describes speech–language pathologists as being "highly qualified for their positions" (U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs, 2002a, p. III-13), an evaluation due in part to the fact that ASHA certification or a state professional license depends on the passing of a national examination. In contrast, not all states require testing for certification as a special education teacher. The problem with less-qualified teachers is particularly acute for the teaching of students with emotional disabilities.
- Fourth, the special educators and speech–language pathologists in this sample were similar in their sense of self-efficacy. Both groups saw themselves as competent relative to managing their job responsibilities and in their understanding of factors that contributed to a positive school climate. Both articulated similar gaps in their knowledge. For speech–language pathologists, knowledge gaps were broader for those with 6 or more years of experience. Those with less than 6 years of experience were more likely to believe that their academic and clinical preparation prepared

them to plan accommodations for students with cultural and linguistic diversity, translate research into useable practices, and use technology for intervention purposes (U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs, 2002a).

- Finally, a common theme for the attrition of special educators was a sense of powerlessness in not being able to meet the complicated needs of children with multiple disabilities. For speech–language pathologists, caseload size combined with the complexity of serving students in many different disability categories fueled their desire to leave. The average median caseload of speech–language pathologists is 53 students (ASHA, 2000), which exceeds the recommended ASHA *maximum* caseload of 40 students. Moreover, some state educational policies (e.g., Arizona, Colorado, Florida, Ohio, and Texas, among others) allow 100 or more students on a caseload (ASHA, 2000). To retain qualified speech–language pathologists and to reduce their attrition, the U.S. Department of Education suggests that caseloads be limited to 46 or fewer students (U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs, 2002a), consistent with the ASHA (2000) recommendation.

The Three Challenges: Some Conclusions

Three challenges to collaboration in the new world of standards-based education for all students have been dissected. One challenge is learning how to deal with the "high-stakes" accountability provisions of NCLB for students covered by Title I. Becoming informed about educational policies at federal and state levels and how policies are actually implemented at the local level is essential to meet this challenge. At the same time, it is equally vital to deal more responsively with the second challenge: meeting the accountability requirements of a revised IDEA for students with language and literacy learning problems who require accommodations or alternate assessments. The third challenge is equally as complex as the first two. Practitioners, including speech–language pathologists, must focus on developing a rich conceptual knowledge base about the central relationships between language and literacy learning if evidence-based practices are to be implemented in a manner that will explicitly connect students' learning with the quality of that learning.

Without question, the roles, responsibilities, and practices of speech–language pathologists have expanded into the literacy domain (ASHA, 2001). However, just as it is apparent that too many elementary education teachers (and, perhaps, special education teachers) do not have sufficient metalinguistic knowledge about the linguistic and discourse systems that support reading, writing, and spelling, at the same time it cannot be presumed that the depth of this same body of knowledge is sufficiently rich

TABLE 1.3. Quality Indicator Profiles of Special Educators and School-Based Speech–Language Pathologists

Profile	Special educators	Speech–language pathologists
Demographic characteristics	• 85% female • 86% white • Mean age: 43 years	• 96% female • 94% white • Mean age: 43 years
Average teaching experience	• 14.3 years	• 14 years
Highest-level degree held	• Master's degree—59%	• Master's degree—87%[a]
Credentials	• 92% fully certified for main teaching assignment • Certification test required—58% • 10% serving students with emotional disturbances held an emergency certificate, twice the rate of any other group	• 92% held the state professional license • 86% held a teaching certificate • 71% held the ASHA Certificate of Clinical Competence[b] • 3% were working under an emergency certificate
Self-efficacy • Perceptions of competence	• Planning effective lessons, monitoring progress, and modifying instruction accordingly	• Interpreting results of standardized measures, planning effective services, using appropriate clinical skills, monitoring student progress, and modifying instruction accordingly

• Perceptions of needs	• Accommodating learning needs of culturally and linguistically diverse students, applying research findings to address instructional problems, and using technologically based instruction	• Accommodating language learning needs of culturally and linguistically diverse students, applying research findings to address problems in service delivery, using technologically based instruction, and supervising paraprofessionals
• Perceptions of school climate and support from colleagues and administrators	• Associated with attitudes toward manageability of the assigned workload and intent to remain in teaching	• Positive attitudes associated with manageability of workload and intent to stay in the profession
• Most cited reason for wanting to leave profession as soon as possible	• Attrition related to teaching of students with four or more different primary disabilities	• Attrition related to caseload size, including caseloads with six or more different disabilities represented

Note. Based on Carlson, Brauen, Klein, Schroll, and Westat (2002) and U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs (2002a).

[a]A total of 36 states require at least a master's degree for employment; seven states allow employment with a bachelor's degree without a requirement that a master's degree must be obtained within a specified period of time (Alabama, Arizona, Nevada, New York, Pennsylvania, South Carolina, and Tennessee) (U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs, 2002a).

[b]The greater the years of experience, the less likely it is that a speech–language pathologist holds the ASHA Certificate of Clinical Competence (U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs, 2002a).

across all speech–language pathologists in order for them to take on new collaborative roles in literacy education under both Title I of NCLB and IDEA. To maximize the quality of the knowledge base and its realization in evidence-based instruction that alters students' performance in positive directions, at least three changes merit consideration.

1. We need to refocus graduate education content in language learning and impairment. Traditionally, the curriculum in this domain focuses on the components and dimensions of spoken language development alone. It becomes essential for an enriched knowledge base that the spoken domain be interconnected *with* emerging literacy and the subsequent development of reading, writing, and spelling abilities. Also, it is unknown how many graduate programs in communication sciences and disorders provide students with an in-depth understanding of applied linguistics and its applications to the analysis of children's strengths and needs in learning the language of schooling.
2. Shift the emphasis of continuing professional development activities from the passive " 'sit and get' stand-alone workshops" (Klingner, Ahwee, Pionieta, & Menedez, 2003, p. 411) to active learning embedded in policy-related goals. The aim is to create collaborative opportunities for teachers, speech–language pathologists, and researchers to forge a community of problem solvers who can craft strategies for translating research into sustainable literacy-related practices that will eventually result in large-scale classroom change for at-risk students and those with disabilities. This process of translation, infusion, and maintenance as made evident in improved student performance is referred to as "scaling up," or sustainability, and currently is a major focal point of research in literacy education and learning disabilities (e.g., Cutter, Palincsar, & Magnusson, 2002; Denton, Vaughn, & Fletcher, 2003; Foorman & Moats, 2004; Gersten & Dimino, 2001; Klingner et al., 2003). The sustainability of research-based practices has yet to be addressed systematically in language impairment.
3. Finally, encourage changes in attitudes at state and local levels about the new roles and responsibilities of speech–language pathologists that will enhance their identity as valued members of the school community who are visibly supported by administrators and the full teaching staff (U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs, 2002a). Retention of the most highly qualified speech–language specialists is dependent not only on reduced caseloads but also on increased flexibility in the design of service delivery models that can meet the individualized language and literacy needs of students who are most at risk for being left behind.

CHAPTER ORGANIZATION

The contributors to this volume are literacy educators, special educators, and speech–language pathologists who are well known for their research and publications in language and literacy learning. The volume's aim is to provide access to the differing disciplinary perspectives on the evidence-based practices that should guide preprofessional and professional education, as well as professional collaboration in educational environments.

All of the chapters blend the theoretical and the applied. Each chapter includes a statement and definition of the topic within the general domain of language and literacy learning, an overview of the existing research literature pertinent to the work presented, a summary of an original piece of research that includes illustrations from real case materials, and, finally, some practical recommendations regarding the assessment and instruction of individual students who are struggling to master English reading, writing, and spelling.

Challenges and Choices in the New Educational Landscape

Continuing Part I, Geraldine P. Wallach and Barbara J. Ehren in Chapter 2 address classroom collaboration. They present a decision-making framework for speech–language pathologists to create collaborative modes of instruction and intervention through designing curriculum relevant therapy. This decision-making process is accompanied by practical examples for producing positive outcomes.

Word Recognition and Reading Comprehension: Perspectives on Instructional and Intervention Practices

Next, Part II focuses on the complex interactions between word recognition and reading comprehension. In Chapter 3, Ronald B. Gillam and Brenda K. Gorman take a language-based view of information processing in their dynamic systems perspective of word recognition and text interpretation. Their premise is that reading is a complex dynamic system in which a variety of linguistic and discourse knowledge reciprocally interacts with processing units and the reader's language and real-world experiences. The dynamic systems model is then related to collaborative assessment and intervention.

In Chapter 4, Gary A. Troia, also taking a language-based view, concentrates on the ways in which empirically validated instructional practices for word recognition can build high-quality reading programs. The contributions of the speech–language pathologist's knowledge base to building collaborative reading programs are highlighted throughout the chapter. Also described in depth are instructional guidelines for the teaching of phonological awareness, grapheme–phoneme correspondences, and decoding skills.

The next three chapters shift the focus to reading comprehension. In Chapter 5, Christina Pennington Whitaker, Linda B. Gambrell, and Lesley Mandel Morrow introduce the literacy perspective that text comprehension entails continuous interactions among the reader, the text to be understood, and the social context of the reading activity. They then present a brief history of comprehension assessment and instruction that, in the past several years, culminated in national reports identifying the key features of exemplary comprehension instruction. Rich examples are then offered concerning how exemplary teachers in grades 1 and 4 foster reading comprehension and vocabulary learning.

In Chapter 6, Michael Pressley and Katherine Hilden extend the literacy viewpoint through a description of the stakeholders and the instructional components that must be blended into a common frame in order for comprehension strategy instruction to become an integral part of a reading curriculum at every grade level. This description serves as a backdrop for a detailed review of the research on comprehension strategies instruction. The case made is that transactional strategies instruction, combined with decoding and vocabulary instruction and the promotion of worthwhile world knowledge, yield the best outcomes.

Next, in Chapter 7, Mavis L. Donahue and Sharon K. Foster take readers into new territory in reading comprehension. Using a fictional story whose understanding depends on the detection of incongruities, they built the argument that individual differences in narrative reading comprehension are not a simple result of whether mastery of decoding, fluency, vocabulary, or even sentence types has been attained. Instead, narrative text comprehension is approached as social decision making, requiring the ability to infer and integrate multiple social perspectives. Donahue and Foster draw on examples of individual differences among middle- and high-school students with language learning difficulties who read the same fictional story but arrived at differing conclusions depending on whether they relied on text-based information or their personal storehouse of social scripts. Guidelines are then suggested for collaboration on interpreting patterns of student responses and for analyzing the social information-processing demands of written texts.

Writing and Spelling: Perspectives on Instructional and Intervention Practices

Part III focuses on writing and spelling. In Chapter 8, Carol Sue Englert and Kailonnie Dunsmore ground their argument on the writing process from a Vygotskian perspective and the role of the instructional dialogue in marshalling the potential of the inclusion classroom as a learning environment for children with language and learning disabilities. Their grade-1 inclusion classroom, cotaught by a regular education teacher and a special education teacher, is part of the LEAP (Literacy Environments for Accelerated Progress) project. Four principles guide instruction: (1) situated language activity (the acquisition of the language of schooling in the authentic context of the academic curriculum), (2) apprenticeship in learning, (3) teacher scaffolding of the child's zone of proximal development, and (4) developing instructional talk as a mediational tool to support the process of writing. The telling case of Joseph, a child with a language learning disability, is highlighted over the course of several months as he is supported to discover the functions of writing tools and approach writing as a problem solving activity.

Bonnie D. Singer and Anthony S. Bashir, in Chapter 9, shift readers in the next chapter to a clinical perspective in their description of the EmPOWER™ approach to expository writing in middle-school students with language learning disabilities. In their research review on the writing abilities of these students, the authors point out that their chronic problems with planning, organizing, producing, and revising written text cannot be separated from their difficulties with language production. The EmPOWER approach is intended to foster the explicit dialogue that students need to have with themselves in order to manage, regulate, and write expository text in a consistent way. The approach, described in detail, is also designed for collaboration between teachers and speech–language pathologists.

The final two chapters concentrate on spelling, a major reason why many children chronically struggle with writing. While some may view the orthography of English spelling as chaotic and irregular and its function as primarily mechanical, Shane Templeton, in Chapter 10, encases spelling in a broader literacy frame. The analysis of students' spellings is a window into their lexicon and offers rich opportunities to examine the foundations of literacy knowledge. In other words, a student's pattern of spelling errors provides information on his or her lexical access of phonological, orthographic, and morphological structures and indexes the student's knowledge of word structure. Following a description of the layers of information that spellings represent and the associated phases of spelling development, two cases are presented as the prelude to effec-

tive word study instruction. Principles of word study are outlined as a guide for the active engagement of any student in instruction.

Taking a perspective that complements Shane Templeton, in Chapter 11 Kenn Apel, Julie J. Masterson, and Pam Hart approach spelling from a language-based standpoint and describe the multiple linguistic factors that influence spelling development. In this framework, children employ multiple strategies and different kinds of linguistic knowledge at varying points in their development to expand their spelling knowledge. Following a review of spelling instruction approaches, the multiple-linguistic-factor model is outlined as the focus of classroom-based spelling instruction. The authors conclude with future instructional and research challenges for an integrated approach with students, the integration of spelling into the curriculum, and the integration of professional expertise, including the linguistic expertise of the speech–language pathologist, into evidence-based spelling practices.

Part IV brings the book to a close concentrating on the integration of educational and clinical practices. In Chapter 12, Elaine R. Silliman, Louise C. Wilkinson, and Robin L. Danzak frame the book's themes through the story of Betsy, a student with a language learning disability. Likening her voyage through school from the preschool years through high school graduation to the Humpty Dumpty tale, the aim is to bring to life the voice of a youngster with a fractured language-processing system whose multiple strengths in language and literacy were never adequately understood by the many school-based professionals with whom she interacted. Her story crystallizes the major point of this vollume. There are significant long-lasting effects for students with language learning difficulties when the integration of educational and clinical practices is undervalued and a shared perspective does not exist on what really "counts" as meaningful language and literacy learning.

NOTES

1. Congressional action on IDEA, initially scheduled for reauthorization in 2002, is not expected until the fall of 2004 at the earliest.

2. Under the Title I provisions of NCLB, Congress authorized that eligible local education agencies receive approximately $13 billion in fiscal year 2002, $16 billion in fiscal year 2003, and an estimated $18.5 billion for fiscal year 2004 (NCLB, 2002). However, the funds actually appropriated were approximately $6 billion short of the amount Congress authorized when NCLB was passed ("School Reform Left Behind," 2004).

3. According to data from the U.S. Department of Education, National Center on Education Statistics (2003a, 2003b), in 2000 African American students and Hispanic students each comprised 17% of the school-age population; how-

ever, the rate of growth for the two groups differed considerably from 1972 to 2000. The African American school-age population increased by 2%, while the Hispanic school-age population increased by 11%. In the 10-year period from 1990 to 2000, the numbers of ELL students rose from 2.1 million to more than 3.7 million (U.S. Department of Education, 2003a).

4. In response to criticism from school boards on the NCLB policy for determining participation rates in testing, Rod Paige, Secretary of the U.S. Department of Education, modified this policy on March 29, 2004. States can now average participation rates over 3 years as the basis for meeting the AYP standard. A 2- or 3-year average must still meet or exceed the requirement that at least 95 percent of all students in a school participated in assessment.

5. Effective January 8, 2004, the Office of Elementary and Secondary Education of the U.S. Department of Education issued new final regulations for students with the most severe cognitive disabilities. According to an analysis by the American Speech–Language–Hearing Association (ASHA; 2004), the new regulation sets a 1% cap on the number of students in a school district having the most severe cognitive disabilities who, on alternate assessments, can score as proficient or advanced based on the development of alternate assessment standards. In other words, the 1% cap pertains to alternate assessment standards, not grade-level standards, that can be included in the determination of AYP. Proficient and advanced scores obtained on alternate assessments that are grounded to grade-level standards can be counted in the AYP calculations.

6. On March 15, 2004, Secretary Paige announced new flexibility provisions for teachers in small, rural, and isolated areas who often teach multiple subjects. Also special educators who do not teach core subjects or who only provide consultation, such as for curricula adaptations, will not be required to demonstrate subject matter competency in those subjects. For further information, see: http://www.ed.gov/news/pressreleases/2004/03/03152004.html

7. The SPeNSE report (Carlson, Brauen, et al., 2002) also comprises a portion of the *Twenty-Fourth Annual Report to Congress on the Implementation of the Individuals with Disabilities Act* (U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs, 2002a), which was not released until September 2003.

REFERENCES

Allen, M. (2004, January 9). Bush's education plan gets mixed grades on anniversary. *Washington Post*, p. A9. Retrieved January 15, 2004, from http://www.washingtonpost.com.

American Speech–Language–Hearing Association. (2000). *2000 Schools Survey*. Rockville, MD: Author.

American Speech–Language–Hearing Association. (2001). Roles and responsibilities of speech–language pathologists with respect to reading and writing in children and adolescents (Position statement, Executive Summary of Guidelines, Technical Report). In *ASHA Supplement 21* (pp. 17–27). Rockville, MD: Author.

American Speech–Language–Hearing Association. (2004, January 12). Analysis of ED's 1% rule for students with the most significant cognitive disabilities.

Retrieved February 5, 2004, from http://www.asha.org/about/legislation-advocacy/federal/nclb/.

Armbuster, B. B., Lehr, F., & Osborn, J. (2003). *Put reading first: The research building blocks for teaching children to read* (2nd ed.). Washington, DC: Partnership for Reading. Retrieved February 2, 2004, from http://www.nifl.gov/nifl/publications.html.

Berninger, V. W., & Richards, T. L. (2002). *Brain literacy for educators and psychologists*. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Bloomfield, D. C., & Cooper, B. S. (2003). NCLB: A new role for the federal government: An overview of the most sweeping federal education law since 1965. *T. H. E. Journal*, *30*(Suppl. 10), 6–32.

Bush, G. W. (2002, January 8). *No Child Left Behind framework*. Retrieved August 12, 2003, from http://www.ed.gov/nclb.

Carlisle, J. F., & Rice, M. S. (2002). *Improving reading comprehension: Research-based principles and practices*. Baltimore: York Press.

Carlson, E., Brauen, M., Klein, S., Schroll, K., & Westat, S. W. (2002, July). *Study of personnel needs in special education: Key findings*. Washington, DC: U. S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs. Retrieved May 2, 2003, from http://www.ed.gov/about/offices/list/osers/osep/index.html.

Carlson, E., Lee, H., Schroll, K., Klein, S., & Westat, S. W. (2002, August). *SPeNSE final report: Methods*. Washington, DC: U. S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs. Retrieved May 2, 2003, from http://www.ed.gov/about/offices/list/osers/osep/index.html.

Case, L. P., Speece, D. L., & Molloy, D. E. (2003). The validity of a response-to-instruction paradigm to identify reading disabilities: A longitudinal analysis of individual differences and contextual factors. *School Psychology Review*, *32*, 557–582.

Catalanello, R. (2004, February 1). Kicking "FCAT essay" habit. *St. Petersburg* (FL) *Times*, pp. 1A, 14A.

Cochran-Smith, M. (2000). Gambling on the future. *Journal of Teacher Education*, *51*, 259–261.

Cochran-Smith, M. (2003). Teaching quality matters. *Journal of Teacher Education*, *54*, 95–98.

Committee on Assessment in Support of Instruction and Learning of the National Research Council. (2003). *Assessment in support of instruction and learning: Bridging the gap between large-scale and classroom assessment*. Washington, DC: National Academies Press.

Cutter, J., Palincsar, A. S., & Magnusson, S. J. (2002). Supporting inclusion through case-based vignette conversations. *Learning Disabilities Research and Practice*, *17*, 186–200.

Delpit, L. (2003). Educators as "seed people" growing a new future. *Educational Researcher*, *7*(32), 14–21.

Denton, C. A., Vaughn, S., & Fletcher, J. M. (2003). Bringing research-based practice in reading intervention to scale. *Learning Disabilities Research and Practice*, *18*, 201–211.

Duchan, J. F. (2004). *Frame work in language and literacy: How theory informs practice*. New York: Guilford Press.

Education Trust. (2003, December). *Telling the whole truth* (*or not*) *about highly qualified teachers: New state data*. Retrieved January 10, 2004, from http://www2.edtrust.org.

Education Week. (2004, January 8). Quality counts 2004. *Education Week*, *23*(17). Retrieved January 15, 2004, from http://www.edweek.org/sreports/qc04/article.cfm?slug=17test.h23.

Elliott, S. N., McKevitt, B. C., & Kettler, R. J. (2002). Testing accommodations research and decision making: The case of "good" scores being highly valued but difficult to achieve for all students. *Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development*, *35*, 153–166.

Florida Department of Education. (2002, October 4). *No child left behind—Highly qualified teacher requirements*. Retrieved February 6, 2004, from http://info.fldoe.org/dscgi/ds.py/Get/File-718/NCLB-HQ Option Chart-Rev2.pdf.

Foorman, B. R., & Moats, L. C. (2004). Conditions for sustaining research-based practices in early reading instruction. *Remedial and Special Education*, *25*, 51–60.

Gersten, R. (2001). Sorting out the roles of research in the improvement of practice. *Learning Disabilities Research and Practice*, *16*, 45–50.

Gersten, R., & Dimino, J. (2001). The realities of translating research into classroom practice. *Learning Disabilities Research and Practice*, *16*, 120–130.

Goertz, M., & Duffy, M. (2003). Mapping the landscape of high-stakes testing and accountability programs. *Theory into Practice*, *42*(1), 4–11.

Haycock, K., & Wiener, R. (2003, April 4). *Adequate yearly progress under NCLB*. Paper presented at the National Center on Education and the Economy Policy Forum: Implementing the No Child Left Behind Act. Retrieved January 10, 2004, from http://www2.edtrust.org.

Keegan, L. G., Orr, B. J., & Jones, B. J. (2002, February 13). *Adequate yearly progress: Results, not process*. Paper presented at the 2002 conference Will No Child Truly Be Left Behind?: The Challenges of Making the Law Work, sponsored by the Thomas B. Fordham Foundation. Retrieved May 9, 2003, from http://www.edexcellence.net/NCLBconference/NCLBconferenceindex.html.

Klingner, J. K., Ahwee, S., Pionieta, P., & Menedez, R. (2003). Barriers and facilitators in scaling up research-based practices. *Exceptional Children*, *69*, 411–429.

Leaving Some Children Behind. (2004, January 27). *New York Times*, p. A26.

Lehr, C., & Thurlow, M. (2003, October). *Putting it all together: Including students with disabilities in assessment and accountability systems* (Policy Directions No. 16). Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, National Center on Educational Outcomes. Retrieved January 29, 2004, from http://education.umn.edu/nceo/.

Lo Bianco, J. (2001). Policy literacy. *Language and Education*, *15*(2–3), 212–227.

Manzo, K. K. (2004, February 4). Reading programs bear similarities across the states. *Education Week*, *23*(21). Retrieved February 4, 2003, from http://www.edweek.org.

McCutchen, D., & Berninger, V. W. (1999). Those who *know*, teach well: Helping teachers master literacy-related subject-matter knowledge. *Learning Disabilities Research and Practice*, *14*, 215–226.

McCutchen, D., Harry, D. R., Cunningham, A. E., Cox, S., Sidman, S., & Covill, A. E. (2002). Reading teachers' knowledge of children's literature and English phononogy. *Annals of Dyslexia*, *52*, 207–228.

Minnema, J., & Thurlow, M. (2003). *Reporting out-of-level test scores: Are these students included in accountability programs?* (Out-of-Level Testing Report 10). Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, National Center on Educational Outcomes. Retreived February 6, 2004, from http://education.umn.edu/nceo.

Minnesota Department of Education. (2003, December 2). *Accommodations and modifications for students with special needs on Minnesota statewide assessments*. Retrieved January 29, 2004, from http://education.state.mn.us/stellent/groups/public/documents/translated content/pub_041416.pdf.

Moats, L. C., & Foorman, B. R. (2003). Measuring teachers' content knowledge of language and reading. *Annals of Dyslexia*, *53*, 23–45.

Moats, L. C., & Lyon, G. R. (1996). Wanted: Teachers with knowledge of language. *Topics in Language Disorders*, *16*(2), 73–86.

National Reading Panel. (2000). *Teaching children to read*. Bethesda, MD: Department of Health and Human Services, NICHD Clearinghouse.

No Child Left Behind Act of 2001. (2002, January 8). *Bill summary and status for the 107th Congress*. Retrieved January 15, 2004, from http://thomas.loc.gov.

No Child Left Behind Act: Title I: Improving the Academic Achievement of the Disadvantaged. (2002, November 26). *Summary of final regulations*. Retrieved January 17, 2004, from http://www.ed.gov/programs/titleiparta/index.html#reg.

Olson, L. (2003, November 19). Delay on special education rules prompt concern. *Education Week*, pp. 23, 25. Retrieved February 12, 2004, from http://www.edweek.org.

President's Commission on Excellence in Special Education. (2002, July). *A new era: Revitalizing special education for children and their families*. Retrieved July 12, 2002, from http://www.ed.gov/inits/commissionsboards/whspecialeducation/index.html.

Ralabate, P., & Foley, B. (2003, May). *IDEA and ESEA: Intersection of access and outcomes*. Retrieved February 5, 2004, from the National Education Association website: http://www.nea.org/specialed/ideaeseaintersection.html.

Roach, V., Salisbury, C., & McGregor, G. (2002). Applications of a policy framework to evaluate and promote large-scale change. *Exceptional Children*, *68*, 451–464.

School Reform Left Behind. (2004, January 10). *New York Times*, p. A30.

Shriner, J. G., & Destefano, L. (2003). Participation and accommodations in state assessments: The role of individualized educational programs. *Exceptional Children*, *69*, 147–161.

Silliman, E. R., Butler, K. G., & Wallach, G. P. (2002). The time has come to talk of many things. In K. G. Butler & E. R. Silliman (Eds.), *Speaking, reading, and*

writing in children with language and learning disabilities: New paradigms in research and practice (pp. 3–25). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Silliman, E. R., Wilkinson, L. C., & Brea-Spahn, M. R. (2004). Policy and practice imperatives for language and literacy learning. In C. A. Stone, E. R. Silliman, B. J. Ehren, & K. Apel (Eds.), *Handbook on language and literacy: Development and disorders* (pp. 97–129). New York: Guilford Press.

Snow, C. E., Burns, M. S., & Griffin, P. (Eds.). (1998). *Preventing reading difficulties in young children*. Washington, DC: National Academies Press.

Snyder, N. (2003, June 19). *Side-by-side comparison of personnel standards language in current IDEA law, H. R. 1350, and S. 1248*. Retrieved February 12, 2004, from http://www.asha.org/about/legislation-advocacy/federal/IDEA.

A Teacher's Perspective on the Reauthorization of IDEA. (2003, December 30). Message posted to http://pub60.ezboard.com/fourchildrenleftbehindfrm2.

Thompson, S., & Thurlow, M. (2003, December). *2003 state special education outcomes: Marching on*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, National Center on Educational Outcomes. Retrieved January 19, 2004, from http://education.umn.edu/nceo.

Thurlow, M. L., & Johnson, D. R. (2000). High-stakes testing of students with disabilities. *Journal of Teacher Education*, *51*, 305–314.

U.S. Department of Education. (2003a). *NCLB desktop reference*. Retrieved February 6, 2004, from http://www.ed.gov/admins/lead/account/nclbreference/page_pg17.html?exp=0.

U.S. Department of Education. (2003b, October 8). High school leadership summit. Retrieved February 6, 2004, from http://www.ed.gov/searchResults.jhtml#SeeAlso.

U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. (2001). *Entering kindergarten: A portrait of American children when they begin school* (NCES 2001-035). Retrieved February 1, 2001, from http://nces.ed.gov.

U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. (2003a). *Status and trends in the education of Hispanics* (NCES 2003-008). Retrieved April 15, 2003, from http://nces.ed.gov.

U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistics. (2003b). *Status and trends in the education of blacks* (NCES 2003-034). Retrieved October 14, 2003, from http://nces.ed.gov.

U.S. Department of Education, Office of Elementary and Secondary Education. (2002, November 26). Title I, Part A Program, Purpose. Retrieved January 17, 2004, from http://www.ed.gov/programs/titleiparta/index.html.

U.S. Department of Education, Office of Innovation and Improvement. (2003, August 22). *No Child Left Behind: Supplemental education services—Nonregulatory guidance*. Retrieved January 19, 2004, from http://www.ed.gov/policy/elsec/guid/suppsvcsguid.doc.

U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs. (2002a). Twenty-fourth annual report to Congress on the implementation of the Individuals with Disabilities Act. Retrieved September 25, 2003, from http://www.ed.gov/about/reports/annual/osep/2002/index.html.

U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs. (2002b,

October). *IDEA Part B data fact sheet: Child count*. Retrieved May 15, 2003, from http://www.ed.gov/OSERS.

U.S. Senate Health, Education, Labor, and Pensions Committee. (2003, November). *Title I—Amendments to the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act* (Senate Reports 108-185). Retrieved January 30, 2004, from http://thomas.loc.gov/.

Wasburn-Moses, L. (2003). What every special educator should know about high-stakes testing. *Teaching Exception Children*, *35*(4), 12–15.

Whitehurst, G. J. (2002, October). *Evidence-based education* (*EBE*). Presentation at the Conference on Student Achievement and School Accountability sponsored by the U.S. Department of Education, Office of Elementary and Secondary Education. Retrieved February 6, 2004, from http://www.ed.gov/admins/lead/account/sasaconference02.html.

Guilford Publications
72 Spring Street
New York, NY 10012
212-431-9800
800-365-7006
www.guilford.com