
Segregated Programs Versus Integrated Comprehensive Service Delivery for All Learners

Assessing the Differences

ELISE FRATTURA AND COLLEEN A. CAPPER

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this article is to address the principles of a comprehensive whole-school restructuring to serve not only students with disabilities educated in inclusive environments but also all learners who have been labeled to receive services from federally mandated programs, such as special education, limited English, at risk, or Title I. The number of students who qualify for such services is growing. Unfortunately, these students often spend the largest part of their day leaving their classroom to receive special instruction, resulting in a disconnected and fragmented day. We address the outcomes of traditional programs and the underlying principles necessary to support inclusive services versus creating segregated programs. The principles are classified into four categories: core principles, location of services, curriculum and instruction, and funding and policy.

IN THE PAST DECADE, THE RESEARCH LITERATURE ON inclusive education has significantly increased (Peterson & Hittle, 2003). Most of this literature has focused its unit of analysis at the classroom site—for example, on the social and academic outcomes of integrated education (Peterson & Hittle, 2003; Rea, McLaughlin, & Walther-Thomas, 2002), collaborative teaching arrangements (Thousand, Villa, & Nevin, 2002), the role of paraprofessionals (Doyle, 2002), the inclusion of students with disabilities in district and state assessments (Thurlow, Elliott, & Ysseldyke, 1998), or ways to

integrate curriculum (Rainforth & Kuglemass, 2003). Others have offered a conceptual and ideological analysis of the literature in support of and against inclusive education (Brantlinger, 1997). However, the literature that focuses specifically on the role of school leaders with students who typically struggle (Riehl, 2000) or on the organizational, structural, and cultural conditions necessary for inclusion is significantly less comprehensive. Even book-length works whose title suggests a focus on whole school restructuring to serve students (Sailor, 2002) do not address the school or district level organizational and structural implementation intricacies of serving students in heterogeneous classrooms. The aforementioned literature focuses primarily on students with disability labels and does not take into account how providing services for students with disability labels is similar to and different from addressing the needs of other students who may struggle in school; such as those students for whom English is not the primary language; students considered "at risk"; students considered gifted; or students with lower reading levels. Exceptions to this include works by Burrello, Lashley, and Beatty (2000), Capper, Frattura, and Keyes (2000), and McLeskey and Waldron (2000).

The recent comprehensive school reform (CSR) models, by design, come closest to taking such a whole school approach to raise the academic achievement of all students (Boman, Hewes, Overman, & Brown, 2003). However, CSR continues to not set standards for integrated comprehensive

services. Although the literature explains how lower achieving students can experience academic success, it does not articulate how students with disability labels have experienced similar success, nor do we know from this literature to what extent students with disabilities are included in heterogeneous class environments in these models of reform. Furthermore, none of the CSR models take disability as a focus.

The purpose of this article is to address this gap in the literature by taking each school as the unit of analysis and focusing on specific school level organizational conditions necessary for schools to deliver what we call *integrated comprehensive services (ICS)* in heterogeneous environments for all learners. *Integrated* environments are the settings that all students—regardless of need or legislative eligibility—access throughout their day in school and nonschool settings. That is, in these settings (e.g., classroom, playground, library, field trips), students with a variety of needs and gifts learn together in both small and large groups. *Comprehensive services* refers to the array of services and supports centered on a differentiated curriculum and instruction that all students receive to ensure academic and behavioral success. By all learners, we mean especially those learners who have been labeled to receive services, such as students labeled with a disability or labeled “at risk,” “gifted,” “poor reader,” or English language learner (ELL). We will first address why changes in service delivery are vitally necessary, pointing to the current status of special education, including the growing incidence of students labeled with disabilities, the historically poor school and postschool outcomes of special education efforts, and the enormous outlay of financial and other resources into activities with such poor outcomes (Oakes, 2000). We then describe the differences between providing programs for students and bringing services to students via ICS and the principles that should guide the delivery of educational services to all students. What we mean by *service delivery* are the ways in which students are provided with educational services, including curriculum, instruction, assessments, and any additional supportive services that are necessary for the student to be successful in heterogeneous learning environments.

OUTCOMES OF SEGREGATED PROGRAMS

The number of students labeled with a disability has increased 151% since 1989 (Ysseldyke, 2001). Moreover, students of color are significantly overidentified for and overrepresented in special education (Donovan & Cross, 2002; Hosp & Reschly, 2002; Losen & Orfield, 2002; *Quality Counts*, 2004; Zhang & Katsiyannis, 2002). Unfortunately, these students often spend the largest part of their day leaving their classroom to receive special instruction, resulting in a disconnected and fragmented school day (Capper, Frattura, & Keyes, 2000). Moreover, these special programs have failed to result in high student achievement, as measured by postschool out-

comes or standardized scores. For example, in the United States, despite extensive efforts at providing special education for more than 25 years since the implementation of federal disability law, 22% of students with disability labels have failed to complete high school, compared to 9% of students without labels (National Organization on Disability, 2000).

Equally alarming are the poor long-term outcomes of these special education efforts. For example, according to a study by Blackorby and Wagner (1996), “nearly 1 in 5 youth with disabilities out of school 3 to 5 years still was not employed and was not looking for work” (pp. 402–403), whereas 69% of students from the general population over that same period of time found employment. After providing special education to students for at least 18 years in public schools—and in many cases for 21 years as mandated by the special education law—these school and postschool outcomes are indeed dismal.

Not only are the special education outcomes dismal, but the amount of money that educators have put forth to support these failing efforts is staggering. Special programs costs 130% more than general education. That is, if a school district spends \$5,000 per student, then each student labeled for special programs costs that district \$11,500 (Odden & Picus, 2000). In the 1999–2000 school year, “the 50 states and the District of Columbia spent approximately \$50 billion on special education services, amounting to \$8,080 per special education student” (Chambers, Parrish, & Harr, 2002, p. v). In comparison, in 1998, total instructional expenditures for students at the elementary and middle school level who were served in the general education classroom was \$3,920 (Chambers, Parrish, Lieberman, & Wolman, 1998).

On a related point, the more students are served in more restrictive, segregated placements, the higher the cost of their education. For example, Capper, Frattura, and Keyes (2000) noted that

If we serve students with disability labels 25%–60% outside the regular class, then the cost for this education increases to \$5,122. If we provide a program for these students in a separate public facility, like many charter and alternative schools, then the cost increases to \$6,399 per student. (pp. 7–8)

That is, the data are clear that the more students are segregated from their peers for instruction, the more costly that instruction. The reason for this is that “a separate program means that students often require separate space, separate materials and infrastructure, a separate teacher, and an administrator not only to manage the program but also to spend time and money on organizing the program (Capper, Frattura, & Keyes, 2000, p. 7).

Similarly, during the 2000–2001 school year, 10,900 public alternative schools and programs for so-called “at-risk” students were in operation, and 59% of these programs

were housed in a separate facility. Districts with high percentages of students of color and low-income students tended to have higher enrollments in alternative schools (National Center on Education Statistics, 2002, p. 33). Moreover, educators spend an inordinate amount of time and resources deciding exactly for which program a student may qualify. In the Verona (Wisconsin) school district in 1999, "it cost more than \$2,000 to evaluate one student to determine eligibility for special education. [In this case,] a district of 4,500 students averages 225 (5%) evaluations per year for a total of \$443,713 spent on evaluations alone" (Capper, Frattura, & Keyes, 2000, p. 7).

According to the U.S. Department of Education (2000), "Slightly under half [of students with disability labels] between the ages of six and seventeen are served in general education settings with their [typical] peers for more than 89% of their school day . . . and the number of students served in general education classrooms is increasing each year" (cited in Causton-Theoharis, 2003, p. 7), due in part to the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) of 1997, which created "a legal presumption in favor of [general education] placement" (Huefner, 2000, p. 242; Causton-Theoharis, 2003). Research has suggested that educating students in these general education environments results in higher academic achievement and more positive social outcomes for students with and without disability labels (McLeskey & Waldron, 2000; Peterson & Hittie, 2003, pp. 37-39; Rea, McLaughlin, & Walther-Thomas, 2002), not to mention that it is the most cost-effective way to educate students.

Although more of these students are being educated in heterogeneous educational environments than in previous years, increasingly, students who are being labeled at risk are being placed in segregated alternative classrooms and schools

compared to previous years; many students are not served in their neighborhood schools (i.e., the school they would attend if they did not have the disability or other separate program label) and spend large parts of their days out of the general education classroom. These practices are not only failing to meet the needs of these students by resulting in significantly high percentages dropping out of school or not achieving employment after secondary education, but these practices exact an exorbitant financial toll on schools and school districts.

BRINGING SERVICES TO STUDENTS

To overcome these costly, dismal outcomes of segregated programs, school leaders (principals, school-based steering committees, site councils, etc.) must focus their efforts on preventing student struggle and must change how students who struggle are educated. In so doing, fewer students will be inappropriately labeled with disability or at-risk labels, and more of these students will be educated in heterogeneous learning environments, resulting in higher student achievement and more promising postschool outcomes.

Placing students in special programs is quite the opposite of providing services to or with students (i.e., ICS). The two approaches differ in four primary ways, defined here as *cornerstones* of integrated comprehensive services. Those four cornerstones are presented in Figure 1.

THE FOUR CORNERSTONES OF ICS

In our work with educators across the country and with our students, we also hear persistent assumptions about the fac-

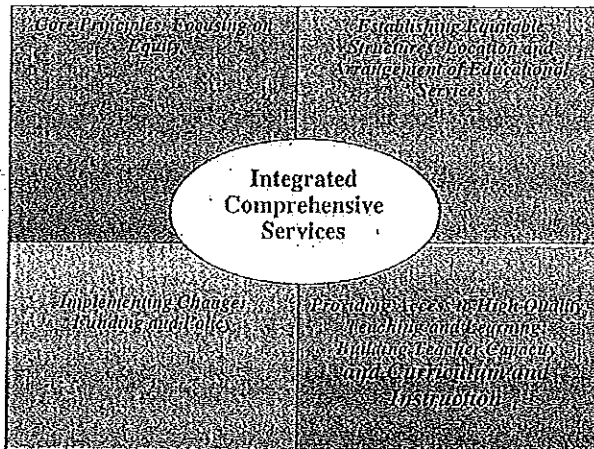


FIGURE 1. Four cornerstones of ICS.

OASD
Review of Programs and Services to Students with Disabilities
REPORT – August 2011

tors that inhibit change toward ICS. As we describe the differences between special programs and ICS, we also identify these assumptions and describe the evidence-based practices that refute these assumptions.

Core Principles

One core principle of segregated special programs is that students do not receive help for their learning needs until after they have failed in some way. This practice is analogous to parking an ambulance at the bottom of a cliff to assist people who fall off the cliff. Special programs are like the ambulance at the bottom of the cliff. Students are placed in them after they fail academically, socially, or behaviorally.

In contrast, with ICS, the primary aim of teaching and learning in the school is the *prevention* of student failure. Referring again to the analogy, ICS works at the top of the cliff, setting up supports not only to prevent students from falling off the cliff, but to prevent them from nearing the edge of the cliff in the first place. It is astounding to us that so few educational practices are considered preventative. One activity we conduct in our classes is to have students write out on newsprint their response to the following question: "What happens in your school or classroom when a student struggles, academically, socially, or behaviorally? What are all the practices in place to address this?" Invariably, students easily list an entire conglomeration of "ambulances," numbering usually a dozen items even in small schools and districts. The list includes items such as homework club, learning centers, peer tutors, adult volunteers, Title I reading, Reading Recovery, school within a school, small-group tutoring, Saturday morning remedial club, summer school, calling parents, in and out of school suspension, and the list goes on. Then we ask our students to list all the actions their school or district takes to prevent student academic or behavioral failure or struggling in the first place. This question is usually followed by several minutes of quiet, as such efforts do not readily come to students' minds. Finally, students will list a few practices such as focused, intensive reading instruction in the early grades or differentiating instruction.

According to Deschenes, Cuban, and Tyack (2001), historically, public schools have dealt with student failure in similar ways—by blaming the student. With ICS, the onus of student failure is on the school, and any student failure is viewed as something that is askew in the educational system. The way educators frame student failure (i.e., whether student failure is seen as a student or a systems issue) is the pivotal point of all the remaining assumptions and practices in schools.

As such, the primary aim of ICS is the prevention of student failure, and student failure is prevented by building teacher capacity to be able to teach to a range of diverse student strengths and needs—a second core principle. Every single decision about service delivery must be premised on the question to what extent that decision will increase the capac-

ity of all teachers to teach to a range of students' diverse learning needs. Segregated special programs, by definition, diminish teacher capacity. When the same student or group of students are routinely removed from the classroom to receive instruction elsewhere, the classroom teacher is released from the responsibility of learning how to teach not only those students, but all future students with similar needs over the rest of that teacher's career. At the same time, students with and without special needs are denied the opportunity to learn and work with each other, and the students who leave the room are denied a sense of belonging in the classroom.

A third core principle of separate programs is that their efforts do not address individual student needs. Instead, students are made to fit yet another program. Even the language that is used often reflects this idea. That is, we use language such as "We need to program for this student," "We held a meeting to program for this student," "We can place the student in the CD program," "That school houses the ED program." Finding students to fit into a program is a supreme irony of programs that are created under the assumption that students do *not* fit into general education, and hence they need something unique and individual—only to be required to fit into yet another program. A persistent assumption with this principle is that it is administratively easier to plug a student into an existing program than to creatively plan how to best meet a student's academic or behavioral needs (both of which are mandated in special education legislation).

When educators in a school have made significant progress toward restructuring based on ICS principles, one practical way to avoid placing students in prepackaged programs and to meet individual student needs can take place in Individualized Education Program (IEP) meetings. In these meetings, practitioners who are working toward dismantling segregated programs and moving to ICS have found it helpful to assume that *no* separate programs exist in their schools. They ask themselves the question, "If no such program existed, how would we best meet this student's needs? And how can that decision ultimately build teacher capacity?"

In addition to the core principles that distinguish ICS from segregated programs, these two different models of service delivery also differ from each other based on location (i.e., where students are taught), curriculum and instruction, staff roles, and funding. We discuss these next.

Establishing Equitable Structures

Location—where students are physically placed to learn—is a central distinction between segregated programs and ICS. Under a segregated program model, educators believe that the primary reason for student failure is the student him- or herself, that students cannot be helped until they fail and receive a label of some sort (e.g., at risk, disability, poor reader), and that the student is then best placed into a separate program that is removed from the core teaching and learning of the school. These beliefs and practices then require students to be

separated from their peers by requiring students either to leave the general education classroom to attend a pullout program or to attend a school not in their neighborhood or a school they would not attend if they did not have a special label.

Furthermore, students with a particular label are clustered in a classroom or program in numbers greater than their proportion in the school. In the case of students with disabilities, typically, a special education teacher is assigned to support the students in this classroom and perhaps two to three other classrooms where students with disabilities are clustered. In one of the high schools we studied, students considered "at risk" were all placed in the same "transition" English and "transition" Math classes in their freshman year, taught by a "transition" teacher in a "transition" room. For ELL students, the students are often clustered together and assigned a bilingual or English as a second language (ESL) teacher for nearly their entire day.

The problem with clustering students is that often special education or student services staff are assigned to the students with labels in these classrooms. Although the special education or student services staff may assist other students in the classroom without labels, his or her primary role is student support. That is, in a segregated, clustering arrangement, the primary goal is student support, not building the teaching capacity of general education teachers to teach to a range of students. The result of such an arrangement is increased dependency. Students with labels and the general education teacher become increasingly dependent on the student services staff. Including students with their peers is dependent on the presence of student services staff. In nearly every situation we have studied, when (e.g., because of budget cuts) student services staff time in these classrooms must be reduced, general education teachers claim that they cannot fully meet the needs of students with labels in their classrooms. This occurs especially in coteaching models, where a special education and general education teacher are assigned to coteach a class or course together—arguably one of the most common and most expensive practices in schools today.

In addition to educator convenience, segregated practices persist because many educators believe that it is more cost effective for educators to cluster students with similar labels in particular classrooms or particular schools. Research cited previously in this article has refuted this belief. Moreover, this particular administrative arrangement makes little sense with the current federal support for cross-categorical services. Now, state departments of education are issuing special education teaching licenses for teachers to be able to teach across categories, because these teachers are expected to be able to teach to a range of student needs. Thus, school districts can no longer use the argument that only particular teachers can provide particular support for particular students.

Moreover, with segregated programs, educators persistently assume that they can only provide individual attention and support to students with labels in a setting or situation

separate from those students' peers. Reasons for this assumption include several arguments—for example, that a middle school student would feel embarrassed to receive speech articulation training in front of his or her peers, or that if elementary students require intensive reading instruction, then this instruction requires a separate setting, like a Title I or Reading Recovery room. Educators reason that this saves students embarrassment about reading in front of their more able peers and that a separate room cuts down on classroom distractions. To be sure, it may be appropriate at times, when a student requiring speech articulation skills could benefit from individual instruction outside of the classroom that does not disrupt his or her school day. At the same time, when schools and classrooms function with teams of diverse educators in support of flexible groupings, a student's need for one-on-one instruction is part of the general movement of the day and does not force the student to be the only student exiting the classroom, for example, during a science class. In the reading example, at the elementary level, successful teachers are able to meet the individual needs of students without those students needing to be pulled from an integrated environment.

At the middle school and high school level, when teachers are faced with students with low reading levels, at times, these students may need intensive reading instruction separate from their peers. The use of a computer-assisted reading program such as *Read 180*, is one such example. However, based on ICS principles, students choose to access this course or class and are not unilaterally placed in it. Moreover, students who receive this instruction do so not by virtue of their label (e.g., all "at-risk" students assigned to the course, or all "LD" students assigned); rather, a heterogeneous group of students receives the instruction based on need, not label. More important, rather than this same group of students being assigned to other classes together (e.g., they are all assigned to take the same science class), these students are not grouped together for any other part of the school day.

Referring again to a high school example, educators have argued that placing all the students "at risk" in language arts together in a freshman "transition" English class will allow the teacher to use curriculum materials suited to the reading levels of these students and, in so doing, raise the English achievement of these students, enabling them to be integrated with their peers after their freshman year. Aside from the fact that we have yet to find special programs that collect sufficient outcome data, teachers in highly successful schools in the context of ICS are able to teach language arts and other subjects to a range of different learners in heterogeneous classrooms (Jorgensen, 1998).

Ironically, under segregated program assumptions, we have seen inclusive practices evolve into another segregated program—that is, the segregation of inclusion. Segregated inclusion happens when students with disabilities are disproportionately assigned to or clustered in particular classrooms. For example, in a school with four third-grade classrooms, students with disabilities are clustered into one or two of

these classrooms, in numbers that result in a higher percentage of students with disabilities in these classrooms than their overall percentage in the school. Educators have argued that these practices are legitimate, because it then becomes more convenient for special education staff to support students across fewer classrooms. We have witnessed educators in these schools calling these particular classrooms "the inclusive classrooms" or "inclusion programs" and the students with disabilities in these classrooms "inclusion" students. In so doing, these classrooms and students, in the guise of inclusion, inherit yet another set of labels. Educators reason that if a practice is more convenient for staff, then students will receive higher quality services in these segregated arrangements. In the schools we have studied, unfortunately, although clustering students may be more convenient for staff, this model does not build teacher capacity. That is, although the "inclusion" and "transition" teachers increase their capacity to teach to a range of students, all the *other* teachers in the school are "off the hook," with no incentive to gain these skills, resulting in higher costs and less effectiveness in the long run.

In contrast, under ICS, all students attend their neighborhood school, or the school they would attend if they did not have a label. This is a basic civil right. Students do not have to leave their peers in their classroom, school, or district to participate in a curriculum and instruction that meets their learning needs. All students are then afforded a rich schedule of flexible, small-group and large-group instruction based on learning needs, interests, and content areas. With ICS at the district level, particular schools would not be designated "the ESL school" or "the school that all the elementary students with severe disabilities attend" or "the middle school that houses the students with severe challenging behaviors." At the school level, ICS does not preclude students with labels from being clustered in particular classrooms, but only to the extent that the number of these students in any one classroom does not represent a higher percentage than found in the school. Accordingly, with ICS, a school does not have rooms labeled the "resource room," the "LD room," the "CD room," the "ESL room," or even the "at-risk room." With ICS, students are flexibly grouped based on the individual needs of the group of learners in the particular classroom and grade.

Accordingly, with ICS, *all* students' learning takes place in heterogeneous environments. This means that students are never grouped by similar characteristics in the same way all the time. Teachers use flexible grouping patterns throughout the day, depending on the instructional content and student needs. Hence, when a group of students travels on a field trip, it should not just be students with disabilities or students who are "at risk" who are attending. Nor should it just be students without labels attending. The leader will look at any situation and always ask if there is a mix of students involved and, if not, why not?

Under ICS, students are placed in classes according to their natural proportions in the school. For example, if ELL

students constitute 20% of the students in a school, then any classroom in the school (e.g., special education) should be composed of no more than 20% of ELL students. If students with disabilities represent 15% of the school population, then no classroom should have more than 15% of its students labeled with a disability. Likewise, using these same numbers and the principle of natural proportions, at least 20% of the student council, 20% of the band and other extracurricular programs, and 20% of the advanced placement courses or gifted programs should be composed of ELL students, and 15% of these same curricular and extracurricular areas should be composed of students with disabilities. To further illustrate, in one of the integrated middle schools we studied, students who were ELLs were clustered in two of the four seventh- and eighth-grade classrooms. However, the percentage of ELL students in these classrooms was less than their percentage in the school. In the high school example, students in need of additional support are dispersed amongst the freshman English classes. When students are placed in natural proportions, it sets the expectation that all school staff be able to teach a range of students. The goal of support staff becomes initially to support students in these settings, but ultimately to build the general educator capacity to teach to a range of students. Over time, one goal of support staff is to fade their involvement in the classroom, because the general classroom teacher has strengthened her or his teaching and learning strategies to meet a range of student needs.

We cannot overemphasize the critical role that location—where students are placed—plays in ICS. As long as segregated settings, classrooms, courses, and schools exist, educators will find reasons to place students in these settings. With segregated programs, these settings reinforce negative assumptions about students and teaching and learning, and not only does this model not build teacher capacity, it breeds teacher and student dependency. Even more important, segregated programs are the most expensive and least effective way to serve students. ICS becomes a proactive means to break the vicious cycle of negative beliefs that then require segregated programs that in turn reinforce negative assumptions and beliefs. When the core principles of ICS suggest that the system needs to adapt to the student, that the primary aim of teaching and learning is the prevention of student failure, that the aim of all educators is to build teacher capacity, and that all services must be grounded in the core teaching and learning of the school, then students must be educated alongside their peers in integrated environments. Student location dictates teacher location, and the location of teachers and students in integrated environments lays the groundwork for all the other aspects of ICS.

Building Teacher Capacity and Curriculum and Instruction

Location. Educator roles in segregated programs are based on teacher specialization and student labels. In segre-

gated programs, staff adhere to their professional, expert roles, which limits adult learning opportunities and professional growth. Moreover, when structures isolate students, they also isolate educators. When educators are isolated from each other, they do not share knowledge and expertise with each other, precluding the development of teacher expertise across a range of learners. For example, in one of the urban high schools we studied, the support staff in a program model were comfortable teaching segregated math and adapted language arts classes, but they were hesitant to provide support in general education classes in science and math, because they were unsure about their ability to do so. Therefore, students with special needs were placed in segregated math classes due to the teaching abilities of staff and denied a rich curriculum in the general education math content classes. In turn, the students performed quite poorly on the math section of the statewide accountability assessment.

A persistent assumption that fuels this adherence to expert roles is the belief that certification in a specialty area means that an educator possesses highly specialized, "magical," esoteric skills that no one else can ever learn. Professional associations and professional accrediting or certification bodies reinforce this expert view (Skritic, 1995). For example, in segregated programs, a social worker can be the only person who conducts personal history reviews with students and makes contacts with families, and no other staff person volunteers or is assigned to share in those duties. Likewise, in segregated programs, a middle school guidance counselor provides career guidance to individuals and groups of students, facilitates support groups for students, and meets individually with students with various problems. Rarely do other staff members share these duties.

In segregated programs, if other staff not certified in these areas assumed some of these duties, the social worker or guidance counselor would view these persons as undermining the professionalism of their careers and perhaps even threatening his or her job security. With these assigned duties, neither the social worker nor the guidance counselor is involved in the core curriculum and instruction of the school. In this context, professional development is often targeted to particular staff (e.g., all special education staff), whereas other staff are excused, which further segregates staff from each other and prevents the sharing of expertise.

In contrast, with ICS, in one of the middle schools we studied, the principal drastically changed the roles and responsibilities of the guidance counselors and school social workers. One guidance counselor was assigned to support the sixth grade, and the other was assigned to support the eighth grade, whereas the social worker was assigned to support the seventh grade. The role of the guidance counselors and the social worker changed to include the following tasks: making home visits; sharing door duty; readmitting students; representing on all special education team meetings; supporting staff; collecting and disseminating data on achievement, attendance, and behavior; handling all special education re-

evaluations; teaching units on identity (e.g., race, ethnicity) and bullying; coordinating interns; and coordinating mentoring with local high school students. These roles and shared expertise, tied to the core curriculum and instruction, stand in great contrast to what typically occurs in segregated programs.

Location is where students are assigned and how staff roles are inextricably linked. In segregated programs, the limited expertise of staff contributes to where students are placed, and where students are placed limits the expertise of staff. All students require small- and large-group instruction, and, at times, one-on-one instruction for a student with more severe needs. However, rather than expecting students with educational or behavioral needs to leave the classroom to receive instruction, ICS requires educators to share their knowledge across disciplines (special education, at risk, bilingual, Title I reading, etc.) with their peers and with the students they teach in a range of educational environments.

As such, with ICS, staff roles pivot on developing teacher capacity to teach a range of learners in their classrooms. Given that only 21% of teachers feel well prepared to address the needs of labeled students (U.S. Department of Education, 2000), building teacher capacity becomes the primary goal in ICS. All staff development and all decisions about service delivery are aimed toward building staff capacity to work with a range of student needs.

Curriculum and Instruction. In segregated programs, the curriculum and instruction are separate from the core teaching and learning in the school. For some programs, at one end of the spectrum, it is assumed that the curriculum and instruction have not succeeded with a student; hence, the student needs an entirely different curriculum and instruction. Again, the assumption made is that the school curriculum does not need to change, that it works for most students, and that there is something inherently different about some students who need something entirely different. Moreover, this principle assumes that staff are incapable of teaching to a range of students, that schools are incapable of changing to meet student needs, and that students are more alike than different. Segregated programs also assume that students need to be identified and labeled to access a curriculum that meets their needs. In so doing, these programs deny students access to a content-rich curriculum, which in turn negatively affects student achievement and results in poor performance on standardized assessments. Instruction is based on the classroom majority rather than on individual needs. Alternative schools—whether within schools or out of school buildings—are often created on this assumption. Students who receive "specialized" math, English, or other academic subjects in resource rooms or in classrooms tracked for this purpose are also supported by this assumption.

At the other end of the spectrum in special programs, special education staff assist students who struggle by helping them learn the general education curriculum, but this

learning takes place outside the general education classroom—in resource rooms, study centers, or study halls. It could be argued that these practices are not separate from the core teaching and learning of the school. However, again, these practices typically do not build teacher capacity to teach to a range of students. Although students are assisted, support staff typically do not share ideas with classroom teachers, who then do not learn new strategies that would prevent their students from needing additional assistance in the first place. Students are then denied access to a content-rich curriculum. In contrast, in ICS, students receive their instruction with their peers in large and small, flexible, heterogeneous groups in integrated school and community settings and are supported to do so. As such, ICS is seamlessly tied to and grounded in the core curriculum and instruction of the school.

In ICS, the curriculum and instruction are built on a culturally relevant (see Ladson-Billings, 1995) and differentiated curriculum (Tomlinson, 2001). *Culturally relevant* means that the curriculum addresses the various families, cultures, races, and ethnicities of students in the classroom not as an added component but seamlessly woven into the curriculum. *Differentiated curriculum* is designed to address a range of learner needs and achievement levels. Such curriculum is developed under the principle of universal access (Bremer, Clapper, Hitchcock, Hall, & Kachgal, 2002). *Universal access* means that a lesson is initially designed for a range of learner needs in the classroom—rather than developing a lesson or curriculum and then deciding as an afterthought how students with different learning needs may access the curriculum. With these curriculum principles, students do not have to qualify or be labeled to receive access to a rich and engaging curriculum.

Implementing Change

In segregated programs, separate funding sources are accessed, and policies are written to support each program for each eligibility area, causing replication of services and soaring costs. These policies and programs are focused on fixing student deficits. Often, these policies are compliance driven and not quality driven, meeting the letter of many nondiscrimination regulations but never attaining the spirit in which these regulations were written. As discussed previously, separate programs are costly due to the cost involved in identifying students and the duplication of staff and materials between schools and programs and across programs.

Educators persistently assume that particular funds or resources cannot be commingled, thus reinforcing the creation of segregated programs. For example, in one of the high schools we studied, educators established a learning center that any student could access throughout the day to receive additional support. The center included processes to enable teachers who assisted in the center to provide feedback to students' teachers on effective strategies to assist students in the classroom and to provide suggestions for curriculum changes

to reduce the number of students who accessed the center. However, the principal was concerned that because students with disability labels also accessed the center, this practice in some way violated special education law or the use of special education funds (which it did not). Hence, he dismantled this service and, in its place, established a separate support program for students with disabilities.

With ICS, funding sources and policies are merged, with a focus on the prevention of student struggle. Resource reallocation forms the basis of funding decisions (Odden & Archibald, 2001). That is, a school leader takes into account sources of funding at the federal, state, district, and school levels (e.g., minority student achievement, gifted and talented, alcohol and other drug abuse, special education, Title I, at risk, bilingual, special education) and then combines these funds in such a way as to best serve students in heterogeneous learning environments. Staff are also viewed as resources, staff skills and expertise are considered, and staff are assigned to students and classrooms based on ICS core principles.

SUMMARY

To summarize, segregated programs result in some students receiving support, while others do not. With segregated programs, those students who need the most routine, structure, and consistency in their day experience the most disruptions when placed in separate programs, become fringe members of their classroom community, and miss valuable instructional time when traveling to and from separate programs. Once in these programs, students are denied access to a rich and engaging curriculum that could boost their academic achievement. Segregated programs inadvertently blame and label students and marginalize and track students of color and low-income students. Segregated programs prevent the sharing of knowledge and skills by educators, prevent any particular educator from being accountable to these students, and enable educators not to change their practices. The programs themselves and the identification of students for these programs are quite costly.

In contrast, the principles and practices of ICS contribute to five nonnegotiable requirements for service delivery: least restrictive, least intrusive, least disruptive, least expensive, and least enabling. These five nonnegotiable points refer to location, or where students are placed, the curriculum and instruction they experience, and the role of educators in their lives.

All students should have the opportunity to attend their neighborhood school (or the school of their choice in school choice programs) and be placed in heterogeneous classrooms at their grade level alongside their peers. This placement is the least restrictive, least intrusive, and least disruptive in their daily lives; encourages independence in learning and not being overhelped (i.e., least enabling); and ultimately is the least expensive. The curriculum and instruction that students

receive in these environments should address their learning needs and, at the same time, open the window to a rich, creative, nonrestrictive learning experience. With ICS, their individual learning needs are met; they are met in the least intrusive, most respectful, and least disruptive way; and they are challenged to reach their maximum learning potential (i.e., least enabling). A curriculum and instruction that bears these four nonnegotiable characteristics is ultimately the least expensive option as well.

Finally, with ICS, educators themselves move out of segregated, restrictive teaching environments and provide high-quality curriculum and instruction in ways that tap each learner's gifts (i.e., least intrusive and least disruptive), that foster student self esteem, and that encourage the student's positive sense of self as a learner (i.e., most enabling). Again, educators engaged in teaching this way save district resources that can be reallocated to the benefit of all in the school community.

Given the high cost of special education in times of budget crises and the dismal outcomes of segregated programs, educators can no longer ethically justify segregated service delivery. Continuing to label students and place them in segregated programs is indefensible. This is particularly so when these programs are not effective academically and socially and draw resources away from other effective practices. Supported by research, ICS can meet the needs of all students. The core principles, combined with the indisputable importance of location, the curriculum, and the way educators move out of their traditional roles—all supported by the creative reallocation of resources—can pave the way to educational success for all students. ■

ELISE FRATTURA is an assistant professor in the Department of Exceptional Education and Educational Administration and associate dean for the School of Education at the University of Wisconsin–Milwaukee. She spent 5 years as a public high school teacher and 13 years as a district student services and special education administrator. While working as a school practitioner, she also served as an adjunct lecturer at the University of Wisconsin–Madison, teaching courses related to diversity in elementary and secondary administration of services for all learners. Currently, she is teaching courses in administration of student services, organizational leadership, and special education law. Dr. Frattura researches and publishes in the area of nondiscrimination law, integrated comprehensive services for all learners, and the theoretical underpinnings of educational segregation. In addition, Dr. Frattura works with school districts across the country to assist in the movement from programs to services for all learners. She also co-authored, *Meeting the Needs of All Learners: How Leaders Go Beyond Inclusion* in 2000, with Dr. Capper. COLLEEN A. CAPPER is professor in the Department of Educational Leadership and Policy Analysis at the University of Wisconsin–Madison. For the past 17 years, she has written or co-written five books (published or in press) and many chapters and refereed journal articles all related to the intersection of educational leadership and equity. Her most recent book addresses the intersection of educational leadership, spirituality, and social justice (co-written with Michael Dantley, Corwin Press). Prior to her work at Madison, she served as a special education teacher, administrator of special programs, and founding director of a nonprofit agency for preschool children and adults with disabilities in the Appalachian region of southeastern Kentucky. She works with individuals in school districts, nonprofit, and for profit agencies across the country on ways to integrate social justice, equity, and spirituality into their daily work. Address: Elise Frattura,

2400 East Hartford Ave., Enderis Hall, Room 583, School of Education, University of Wisconsin–Milwaukee, WI 53201; e-mail: frattura@uwm.edu.

REFERENCES

- Blackorby, J., & Wagner, M. (1996). Longitudinal postschool outcomes of youth with disabilities: Findings from the National Longitudinal Transition Study. *Exceptional Children, 62*, 399–413.
- Borman, G. D., Hewes, O. M., Overman, L. T., & Brown, S. (2003). Comprehensive school reform and achievement: A meta-analysis. *Review of Educational Research, 73*, 125–230.
- Branlinger, E. (1997). Using ideology: Cases of nonrecognition of the politics of research and practice in special education. *Review of Educational Research, 67*, 425–459.
- Bremer, C. D., Clapper, A. T., Hitchcock, C., Hall, T., & Kachgal, M. (2002). *Universal design: A strategy to support students' access to the general education curriculum* (Vol. 1, Issue 3). Minneapolis: National Center on Secondary Education and Transition.
- Burrello, L. C., Lashley, C., & Beatty, E. E. (2000). *Educating all students together: How school leaders create unified systems*. Newbury Park, CA: Corwin Press.
- Capper, C. A., Frattura, E., & Keyes, M. W. (2000). *Meeting the needs of students of all abilities: How leaders go beyond inclusion*. Newbury Park, CA: Corwin Press.
- Causton-Theoharis, J. N. (2003). Increasing interactions between students with severe disabilities and their peers via paraprofessional training. *Dissertation Abstracts International, 64*(8), 2839A. (UMI No. 3101362)
- Chambers, J. G., Parrish, T., & Harr, J. (2002). *What are states spending on special education services in the United States, 1999–2000?* (Advance Report No. 1, Special Education Expenditure Project; SBEP). Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education.
- Chambers, J. G., Parrish, T. B., Lieberman, J. C., & Wolman, J. M. (1998). *What are we spending on special education in the US?* (CSEF Brief No. 8). Palo Alto, CA: Center for Special Education Finance.
- Deschenes, S., Cuban, L., & Tyack, D. (2001). Mismatch: Historical perspectives on schools and students who don't fit them. *Teachers College Record, 103*, 525–537.
- Donovan, M. S., & Cross, C. T. (2002). *Minority students in special and gifted education*. Washington, DC: National Academy Press.
- Doyle, M. B. (2002). *The paraprofessionals guide to the inclusive classroom: Working as a team* (2nd ed.). Baltimore: Brookes.
- Hosp, J. L., & Reschly, D. J. (2002). Predictors of restrictiveness of placement for African-American and Caucasian students. *Exceptional Children, 68*, 225–238.
- Huefner, D. (2000). *Getting Comfortable with Special Education Law: A Framework for Working with Children with Disabilities*. MA: Christopher-Gordon.
- Jorgensen, C. M. (Ed.). (1998). *Restructuring high schools for all students: Taking inclusion to the next level*. Baltimore: Brookes.
- Ladson-Billings, G. (1995). Toward a theory of culturally relevant pedagogy. *American Educational Research Journal, 32*, 465–491.
- Losen, D. J., & Orfield, G. (Eds.). (2002). *Racial inequality in special education*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard Education Press.
- McLeskey, J., & Waldron, N. L. (2000). *Inclusive schools in action: Making differences ordinary*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Curriculum Development.
- National Center for Education Statistics. (2002). *The Nation's Report Card: Reading Highlights 2002*. Institute of Educational Sciences, U.S. Department of Education. Washington, DC: Author. Retrieved August 13, 2006, from http://nces.ed.gov/programs/quaterly/vol_5/5_2/q3_1.asp
- National Organization on Disability. (2000). *2000 NOD/Harris survey of Americans with disabilities*. Washington, DC: Author. Retrieved September 1, 2004, from <http://www.nod.org/content.cfm?id=1076&educ>
- Oakes, J. (2000). *Teaching to change the world*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

- Odden, A., & Archibald, S. (2001). *Reallocating resources: How to boost student achievement without asking for more*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Odden, A., & Ficus, L. (2000). *School finance: A policy perspective* (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.
- Peterson, J. M., & Hittle, M. M. (2003). *Inclusive teaching: Creating effective schools for all children*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Quality counts. (2004). *Education Week*, 23(7).
- Raloforth, B., & Kuglemass, J. W. (2003). *Curriculum and instruction for all learners: Blending systematic and constructivist approaches in inclusive elementary schools*. Baltimore: Brookes.
- Rea, P. J., McLaughlin, V. L., & Walther-Thomas, C. (2002). Outcomes for students with learning disabilities in inclusive and pullout programs. *Exceptional Children*, 68, 203-223.
- Riehl, C. J. (2000). The principal's role in creating inclusive schools for diverse students: A review of normative, empirical, critical literature on the practice of educational administration. *Review of Educational Research*, 70, 55-81.
- Sailor, W. (Ed.). (2002). *Whole school success and inclusive education: Building partnerships for learning, achievement, and accountability*. New York: National Professional Resources.
- Skate, T. M. (Ed.). (1995). *Disability and democracy: Reconstructing (special) education for postmodernity*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Tomlinson, C. (2001). *How to differentiate instruction in mixed-ability classrooms* (2nd ed.). Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Thousand, J. S., Villa, R. A., & Nevin, A. (2002). *Creativity and collaborative learning: The practical guide to empowering students, teachers, and families* (2nd ed.). Baltimore: Brookes.
- Thurlow, M. L., Elliot, J. L., & Ysseldyke, J. E. (1998). *Testing students with disabilities: Practical strategies for complying with district and state requirements*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- U.S. Department of Education. (2000). *To assure the free public education of all children with disabilities. Twenty-second annual report to Congress on the implementation of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act*. Washington DC: Author.
- Wisconsin Department of Public Instruction. (1996). *Special education index*. Retrieved November 8, 2002 from <http://www.dpi.state.wi.us/dpi/dlse/teen/tntopics.html>
- Ysseldyke, J. (2001). Reflections on a career: 25 years of research on assessment and instruction decision making. *Exceptional Children*, 67, 295-309.
- Zhang, D., & Katsiyannis, A. (2002). Minority representation in special education. *Remedial and Special Education*, 23, 180-187.

Making a Difference

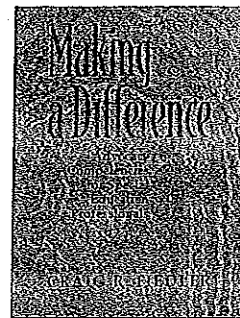
Advocacy Competencies for Special-Education Professionals

Craig R. Fiedler

The only single comprehensive source on the role and responsibility of special education professionals as advocates for children with disabilities. Most preservice educational programs cover the topic of advocacy only cursorily, leaving many to enter the field without the knowledge and skills necessary for effective advocacy. This highly specialized text fills this training void by presenting the competencies, dispositions, knowledge, and skills necessary to become an effective advocate. Preservice and inservice educators are introduced to topics such as ethical disposition, special education law, dispute resolution mechanisms, interpersonal communication skills, collaboration skills, and conflict resolution skills. In addition, numerous vignettes and case studies throughout help readers connect text concepts to real-life issues. Compassionate and informative, this text helps special education professionals learn how to make a difference in the educational lives of children with disabilities.

#11579, softcover
ISBN 0-205-30629-2

258 pages, 2000
\$36.00

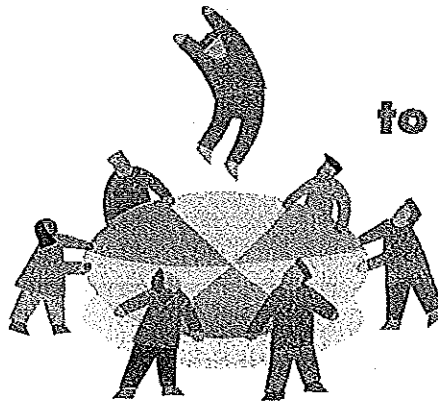


PRO-ED, Inc. • 8700 Shoal Creek Blvd • Austin, Texas 78757-6897 • ph 800/897-3202 or 512/451-3246 • fax 800/EXPROED • All PRO-ED products are sold on a 30-day approval
Shipping and handling: U.S. add 10%, Canada add 15%, others add 20%

Appendix C

Frattura.qxd 1/30/2007 4:30 PM Page 16

Collaboration



New Teacher Teams to Support Integrated Comprehensive Services

Elise M. Frattura • Colleen A. Capper

Most educators agree that students with disabilities should spend as much time as possible in the general education classroom. However, this expectation frustrates many educators because they do not receive support in ways that ensure the success of students. This article describes an integrated comprehensive service (ICS) delivery model that uses four teams to provide educator support for the benefit of all students in general education.

Our extensive research and practice with an ICS delivery model over the past 12 years—in 10 different schools, at the elementary, middle, and high school levels and located in rural, suburban, and urban districts—indicates that educators need to rethink the team structures in their schools to implement and sustain ICS (see box, “What Is an Integrated Comprehensive Service Delivery Model?”). These new team structures are necessary because research suggests that sustaining inclusive practices over time is difficult. For example, in their 4-year-long study of a middle school, Sindelar, Shearer, Yendol-Hoppey, and Liebert (2006) focused on the sustainability of inclusive education. The study indicated that changes in leadership, teacher turnover, and changes in state and district assessment policies resulted in failure to sustain inclusion. Those

changes, in turn, led to a reduction of resources and philosophical commitment to inclusion.

Our research and practice suggests that sustaining ICS is possible when teachers are full participants in school decisions through membership in four specific teams. Three of these teams are at the school level: a planning team, a service delivery team, and a grade-level design team; the fourth team, the districtwide service delivery team, functions at the district level. These teams engage in

- Shared decision making, that is, providing opportunities that allow individuals in the school community to be involved in implementation decisions.
- Staff design, that is, strategically assigning teachers and staff to students and classes in ways that build teacher capacity and maximize student learning.
- Student support, that is, strategically assigning students to classes in ways that do not segregate them, that maximize students’ opportunities to learn in heterogeneous groups, and that create the conditions for optimal student learning.

Educators frequently focus on instruction and curriculum and assume

that they do not have control over structure, policy, or procedures. The work of these four teams disrupts this assumption. In this article, we first briefly describe each team. Then, in the following sections, for each team, we delineate team goals, team membership, steps that the team can take to implement ICS, and ways to evaluate their efforts.

The Teams

Overview

In schools with shared leadership, a schoolwide team—often known as a school learning team, site council, school planning team, shared decision-making team, or educational planning committee—frequently functions as an oversight committee for many school decisions. In this article, we use the term *school planning team*. In a school with shared decision making, such a team must be one of the essential teams that deals with the entire school. The school planning team is primarily responsible for collecting student-performance data and school-specific data, as well as setting annual or long-term goals for school improvement.

The second key decision-making team for initiating and implementing ICS is the school’s service delivery team. This team functions as an off-

shoot of the school planning team specifically to analyze and redesign the way that services are offered. The service delivery team is also responsible for identifying the necessary changes in school and district-based policy and procedures for implementing ICS.

The third type of key decision-making team consists of grade-level design teams. These teams include teams of teachers at each grade level who are responsible for setting up the specific staff design for each grade level, as well as the instructional and curricular services for that grade level.

The districtwide service delivery team represents the fourth key decision-making team. This team's primary function is to ensure that service delivery is consistent across the district. The team's primary responsibility is to share information from the individual school teams to develop consistency and fluidity across the district for all students. For example, the team may want to confirm that a child moving from fifth to sixth grade is able to maintain services that are similar to those in the fifth grade and are based on his or her individualized service plan (ISP) or individualized education program (IEP). This team is the glue that holds the service delivery model together in Grades K-12.

A primary consideration for all four teams is team membership. The teams must represent a broad range of individuals who typically support students who struggle in the school. Such individuals might include the English as a Second Language (ESL) teacher, an at-risk teacher, Title I staff, and special education teachers. In addition, team membership should ensure that teams consist of individuals who are demographically representative of the proportion of culturally and linguistically diverse people in the school and district. That is, all the teams should include the same proportion of students of a specific minority group as the proportion of members of that minority group in the school and in the district. Obviously, for example, if only 1% of the students are culturally and linguistically diverse, then 1% of the committee membership should be culturally and linguistically diverse. When teams—for example, the

What Is an Integrated Comprehensive Service Delivery Model?

An integrated comprehensive service (ICS) delivery model is a model that organizes professional staff by the needs of each learner instead of clustering learners by label (Frattura & Capper, in press). An ICS model does not assign staff members to a unit or program and place them in separate classrooms. Instead, support staff and general education teachers work collaboratively to bring appropriate instructional supports to each child in integrated school and community environments. This model thereby establishes an integrated home base in support of belonging for all learners (Frattura & Capper).

The word *integrated* refers to the environments that all students, regardless of need or legislative eligibility, access throughout their day in school and nonschool settings. That is, in integrated environments, students with a variety of needs and gifts learn together in both small and large groupings that are flexible in nature. A school that uses an ICS delivery model has no spaces that are designated only for those students with disabilities.

The term *comprehensive* refers to the array of services and supports, in addition to a differentiated curriculum and instruction, that accommodate the various learning needs of children to ensure their success in school. ICS results in the sharing of resources and choreographed services on the basis of the needs, strengths, and interests of each learner.

school planning team—include community members or families, these community members and families should represent the cultural, linguistic, and income diversity of the school and district. To encourage families or community members to participate, schools should consider providing transportation, child care, and language interpreters if needed (Lopez, 2003).

All four of these teams must set ground rules for discussion and decisions. In addition, the teams must all decide in what ways and how frequently they will communicate the progress of the team with the other three teams and with other school personnel. Further, the teams must decide how they will receive specific feedback from the other three teams and from other school personnel about their work.

School Planning Team

As previously mentioned, the school planning team is responsible for collecting and analyzing student data, as well as school-specific data. Frattura and Capper (in press) suggests a set of questions that can guide the evaluation of services for students. The school planning team can facilitate this evaluation. Team membership must include representatives from all stakeholders of the school community, including the school administrator, teachers, parents, stu-

dents, other staff, and community members. A school planning team typically does the following (Conzemius & O'Neil, 2001):

- Focuses on student learning at the site.
- Serves as a forum for diverse perspectives from the school, home, and community to ensure the exchange of a variety of viewpoints.
- Provides participatory shared decision making at each site to create the individual school's structure and culture (within the district mission).
- Promotes communication among parents, community members, professional and support personnel, students, and administrators.

The school planning team can be responsible for curricular, instructional, and personnel budgets and can then make difficult decisions in support of the school and district mission. Often, a school planning team analyzes students' scores, discusses areas of concern and resolution, and then creates comprehensive school goals.

While the school planning team is addressing the goals on the basis of the data analysis, it can define and evaluate progress. The other three teams will also have their own goals and evalua-

7. The school service delivery team then moves on to the final step, which is to develop a plan for achieving the new service delivery model. At this point, the decision-making needs to move to the grade-level design teams that will be responsible for turning the vision into reality.

Limiting the model by using
a financial formula can also
limit recommendations.

The school service delivery team meets as often as necessary at the beginning of the change process but may reduce its meeting schedule when the grade-level design teams begin their work. The school service delivery team is then primarily responsible for evaluation activities and may reconvene to discuss feedback or major concerns regarding the efficacy of the model. In so doing, the members of the school service delivery team should examine what is working and what is not and determine options for creative solutions without reverting back to an old model of segregating children. To prevent the marginalization of any child, all educators have a responsibility to educate the next generation of children together—structurally, symbolically, and academically. Therefore, the pendulum must not swing back to segregation. Nonetheless, we cannot discount the possibility of strife in the process. Change is difficult, and there will be times when teachers and administrators need support from the school service delivery team members.

Grade-Level Design Teams

As previously discussed, most school service delivery teams provide recommendations that result in a grade-based model of service delivery. For example, one team of teachers and staff may work with a range of learners at 8th grade and other teams may work with a range of learners at 10th and 11th grade. If grade level is the primary basis for school structure, structuring the sup-

port model by grades makes sense. If the school uses a structure that consists of small learning academies, then providing services that are based on the academy structure makes more sense. Either way, it is not logical to continue a model by specialization (ED, LD, at risk, English language learners [ELL], Title I, etc.) in a school that uses a structure by grades, houses, academies, or some other configuration. Educators should therefore avoid configuring support in a manner that makes particular teachers responsible for groups of labeled students across grades; that is, the school should not configure support so that one teacher is responsible for all students with the ED label across three, four, or more grades. That practice disconnects teacher specializations and the graded structures of schools and results in fragmentation and failure-based programs.

A primary responsibility of the grade-level design teams is to assign students and staff in ways that support ICS principles. The school planning team completes the ICS analysis; but the school service delivery and grade-level design teams develop, implement, and evaluate the service delivery design. These latter two teams are the ones that bring the vision to life. The school service delivery team suggests to the grade-level design teams possible ways of supporting students. The grade-level design teams are responsible for the actual implementation. These grade-level design teams make big schools small, make large numbers of students individuals, and minimize such bureaucratic measures as programming students en masse or clustering students by label or by statutory regulations.

The grade-level design teams should include all individuals who are assigned to a specific grade level or have volunteered at that level to provide service to students with disabilities, students who speak English as a second language, students who are deemed at risk of failing to complete school, and other students. Each grade-level design team must include the general educators, special educators, at-risk teachers, ESL teachers, and other teachers assigned to the grade-level team by the process that the

school service delivery team has completed. In addition, school social workers, guidance counselors, the school psychologist, teachers of gifted and talented students, speech and language pathologists, and other support may focus on particular grade levels for a variety of reasons. For example, guidance counselors may become part of a grade-level design team and provide service only to students at that particular grade level, or a speech and language clinician might be assigned to a kindergarten–first grade cluster, since the language needs are high in those two grades. The grade-level design team specifies the role of these personnel, but the role should include direct support to students in heterogeneous groups. Finally, a representative of the school service delivery team should serve on each grade-level design team as a liaison between the two teams.

The goals of the grade-level design teams are to meet the individual needs of each learner, from children with mild learning disabilities or third-year ESL students to students with severe and profound cognitive disabilities or extreme behavioral challenges caused by mental illness, as well as children with average or above-average abilities and skills. These teams therefore strategically assign staff to courses and classrooms and place students to ensure that students are not segregated and to maximize student learning.

The grade-level design teams have three additional functions. First, they must determine the professional development that is necessary to build the ability of teachers to teach a range of learners in their classrooms. Second, they must help staff include planning time in their work days and weeks so that staff members can collaborate to meet student needs. Third, they must help secure the resources to carry out these first two functions. A representative of each grade-level design team then takes the professional development, planning time, and resource needs to the school service delivery team, which can then coordinate professional development and planning time, as well as obtain resources for

tion strategies that they will share with the school planning team.

School Service Delivery Team

The school service delivery team consists of teachers and administrators whose primary focus is to assess how services are being offered to and for all learners. The primary responsibility of the school service delivery team is to assess the quality of ICS on an ongoing basis, with emphasis on equity, structure of services, access to high-quality teaching and learning, and development of appropriate funding mechanisms and policies (Frattura & Capper, in press).

Services and programs provided within the school form the basis for membership on the school service delivery team. The team needs a representative from each unit, grade level, department, or academy to give voice to all stakeholders and to represent all children in the school. In addition, teachers representing the different programs offered in the school (e.g., ESL, Title I, at risk) should constitute the remainder of the teacher leaders on the committee. As many studies confirm, the participation of the school administrator is essential to the operations of the team (Fullan, 1999). The school administrator should be an equal member of the team, with little or no veto power but with the opportunity to use his or her skills of persuasion. In many schools that have functioning school service delivery teams, the districtwide administrator for student services and special education and the director of curriculum and instruction may participate as equal members of the team. These individuals often have the ability to obtain and reallocate resources to assist in the movement from programs to services; for example, they can facilitate the commingling of funds in support of all learners. The school service delivery team should not have more than 10 to 12 members, primarily so that all members can participate in decisions. Individuals on the team should have strong opinions about educational services for all learners.

The goals of the school service delivery team are simple:

18 ■ COUNCIL FOR EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN

- To better meet the needs of each learner in a comprehensive manner in integrated school and community environments.
- To take a clear look at the structural barriers to providing the most comprehensive integrated services possible and to reconstruct a model of service delivery that will provide students with minimal fragmentation within the school day.
- To attend to any symbolic and procedural practices that perpetuate the division between the haves and the have-nots, for example, field trips, school ceremonies, and banquets.

Seven specific steps and processes help this team achieve its goals:

1. The team must have the opportunity to discuss what integrated comprehensive services are and what they are not. They may want to share readings about ideas related to ICS (see Peterson & Hittie, 2003, for a comprehensive list of research in support of ICS). The team can then reflect and think about what it means to move toward ICS for all learners and decide by consensus what moving toward ICS could mean.
2. All team members must agree about the importance of adopting a philosophy of ICS. Many school teams make decisions concerning the core principles of ICS without reaching a consensus. Unless teams make such decisions by consensus, they default to a traditional structure of programs and compliance-driven policy that undermines growth and education for students who require additional services. The team should not force change. If team members cannot generate enough interest in ICS at the school, they should continue to ask such questions as the following:
 - Why do the children who have the least ability to generalize have the most fragmented schedules?
 - Could we do more for all learners if we worked together instead of in our own separate silos?
 - When we say all learners, do we really mean *all*?
3. The team next draws a picture describing how the school currently meets the needs of children who are challenged—or the needs of children who challenge how we teach. That is, they draw a picture of the school's current program delivery model. This picture should address the question: What programs are currently in place for students who struggle in our school? The picture of this current delivery model must be as detailed as possible.
4. The team uses the information developed in the preceding steps to conduct a gap analysis. The team compares the current service delivery model with the principles of ICS and evidenced-based practices. The team can then determine the locations of any gaps between what ICS entails and what is currently happening with the service delivery picture in the school.
5. Participants then list current practices in their school that focus on prevention and determine whether these practices are comprehensive, integrated, and effective enough to build success for every learner. If these practices align with the ICS principles, then the school should continue these practices in the new service delivery model.
6. The team members brainstorm their vision and hopes for service delivery in their school, basing these visions and hopes on the principles of ICS. Team members then draw a picture of the future service delivery model on large paper. They list this vision and these hopes without considering any budgetary concerns, since such concerns can limit recommendations. Although every district has budget limitations, administrators and facilitators are often able to creatively address financial concerns to support an ICS model by commingling funds or by reallocating them. Limiting the model by using a financial formula can also limit recommendations. Often staff members find that drawing the picture of the new model is difficult and instead use a table or diagram to outline it.

tion strategies that they will share with the school planning team.

School Service Delivery Team

The school service delivery team consists of teachers and administrators

- To better meet the needs of each learner in a comprehensive manner in integrated school and community environments.
 - To take a clear look at the structural barriers to providing the most com-
3. The team next draws a picture describing how the school currently meets the needs of children who are challenged—or the needs of children who challenge how we teach. That is, they draw a picture of the school's

- and general educators need to develop the curriculum and assessment for each section of the day.
8. Each grade-level design team should meet at least weekly to evaluate its efforts, including determining how the support is working and discussing where more support may be necessary. Teams at one grade level may need to meet with teams at other grade levels if they cannot work out the necessary small-group or individual support within their grade level. Such meetings can help give students full support across their grade levels (horizontally) and throughout all the grades (vertically).
 9. If the school service delivery team has recommended that grade-level design teams follow their students to the next grade and return to their original grade in the third year (called *looping*), then teams should begin planning for the next school year in February by using the steps outlined in the preceding paragraphs and by using feedback obtained from data analysis.
 10. Grade-level design teams frequently collect student achievement data as a prime determinant of their success. They also work with the school service delivery team to obtain feedback that shows how parents, students, and staff experience the evolving changes of the service delivery structure for all learners. In addition, they update the school service delivery team on their progress and any concerns that they should take to the school planning team.

Districtwide Service Delivery Team

Students may receive services in an elementary school that meets their individual needs (such as time in the day for sensory integration or inclusion with peers for most of the day). However, when these students advance to the next grade level or school, their IEP or IEP may change because the staff has designed a model that cannot meet those individual needs. Educators at every school must be responsible for

developing a service delivery model that meets the needs of every possible student. When implementing ICS, districts should therefore institute a districtwide service delivery team to work through issues that may affect the district as a whole.

The districtwide service delivery team should include a representative from each school service delivery team throughout the district. In addition, the district director of special education or student services and the district director of instruction should also be team members.

Educators at every school must be responsible for developing a service delivery model that meets the needs of every possible student.

The goal of the districtwide service delivery team is to "take care of the whole." That is, the districtwide team is responsible for clarifying differences across school service delivery teams and working toward developing a continuous model for kindergarten through 12th grade throughout the district. Students then do not need to fit into different models that each individual school develops.

Districtwide service delivery teams typically meet four times each year. After the team clarifies areas of need or concern, the team sets its agenda and moves forward. At times, the team may ask staff or administrators to join it so that the team can obtain more detailed information regarding a specific concern. An example might be determining how an elementary school uses a sensory room and how such a room might work at the middle school level.

The districtwide service delivery team monitors the status of service delivery at each school. The members of the school service delivery team on the districtwide committee use the ICS evaluations to assess their progress toward ICS.

Final Thoughts

If ICS is to become a reality in schools, educators need to be deliberate about decision making and team structures. ICS moves far beyond typical team structures in schools; it can use general education-based grade-level teams, department teams, or strategic planning teams. In addition, team structures that support ICS also move beyond typical special education teams. Such structures can use prereferral intervention teams and special education evaluation teams. The simple structure and function of the three school-based teams and the district-level service delivery team described in this article can transform how decisions are made, who is involved in the decisions, how the school uses its resources, how it assigns teachers, and how it serves students. This transformation can move far beyond compliance—it can result in a high-quality education for every student in the school.

References

- Conzemius, A., & O'Neil, J. (2001). *Building shared responsibility for student learning*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Frattura, E., & Capper, C. (In press). *Leading for social justice: Transforming schools for all learners*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Fullan, M. (1999). *Change forces: The sequel*. Philadelphia: Falmer.
- Lopez, G. R. (2003). The value of hard work: Lessons on parent involvement from an (im)migrant household. *Harvard Educational Review*, 71, 416-437.
- Peterson, M., & Hattie, M. M. (2003). *Inclusive teaching: Creating effective schools for all learners*. San Francisco: Allyn & Bacon.
- Sindelar, P., Shearer, D., Yendol-Hoppey, D., & Liebert, T. (2006). The sustainability of inclusive school reform. *Exceptional Children*, 72, 317-331.
- Elise M. Frattura (CEC WI Federation), Associate Dean, School of Education, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee. Colleen A. Capper (CEC WI Federation), Professor, School of Education, University of Wisconsin-Madison.

Address correspondence to Elise M. Frattura, School of Education, University of Wisconsin-Milwaukee, Milwaukee, WI (e-mail: frattura@uwm.edu).

TEACHING Exceptional Children, Vol. 39, No. 4, pp. 16-21.

Copyright 2007 CEC.

Appendix D

Students with Severe Disabilities and Best Practice

Chapter from Frattura, E. & Capper, C. (2007) *Leading for Social Justices: Transforming Schools for All Learners*

Providing Access to High-Quality Teaching and Learning Students Who Significantly Challenge Our Teaching

We have found that students in our courses and educators with whom we work agree with the principles and practices of ICS, until our attention turns to students who significantly challenge our teaching such as those with severe physical and cognitive challenges. At that point, heads shake, utterances are mumbled out of our range of hearing, while others outright take us to task and argue that students who significantly challenge our teaching should not be part of the ICS conversation. Even educators who claim to work in so-called “inclusive” schools argue that their schools are inclusive, even though some of their students are segregated from their peers for the majority of the school day.

Durtschi’s (2005) study of elementary school principals in one Midwestern state illustrates our point. These principals were positive about inclusion in general (86.3%), and 98.9% stated that they “support including students in general education classrooms.” However, these same principals drew the line for students with severe disabilities. Nearly one-third (31%) of these principals supported separate schools or classrooms for students with severe/profound disabilities. More than half of the principals (56.6%) would oppose a law that required students with severe disabilities to be integrated with general education students. More than 10% (12.8%) believed that students with severe disabilities are too impaired to benefit from the activities of a regular school. In short, most educators agree with inclusive practices but only for particular students in particular ways—a clear contradiction to inclusion (Chin & Capper, 1999).

Who are these students with severe disabilities? We draw from Dr. Lou Brown throughout this chapter, as he was one of the first educators to assist families and school personnel in developing appropriate services for students with significant disabilities in integrated school and community environments. Since then, others have supported his concepts through universal access to curriculum, and “least harmful” assumptions (Donnellan, 1984). In 1988, Brown explained that students who comprise the lowest intellectually functioning 1% of a particular chronological age are referred to as significantly disabled. Often such measures of intellectual functioning are used to categorize people and make assumptions about their needs. The phrase “significant or severe disabilities” should signify particular direct instructional strategies for individual students. Instead, the label “severe disabilities” is used to isolate and categorize students into subgroups of people who are denied rights and privileges.

For the past 20 years, many educators have been involved in a shift to provide an integrated education for students with severe disabilities. If we define success by the number of students with a range of disabilities attending general education schools, we have been reasonably successful at

96% (U.S. Department of Education, 2002). What this statistic does not address, however, is that although more students with a range of disabilities are provided an education in public schools, students who significantly challenge our teaching continue to be placed in segregated environments or are not allowed to attend their neighborhood school or school of choice. In this chapter, we examine the current state of education for students with severe disabilities and principles in support of integrated education for these students.

Current State of Education for Students With Severe Disabilities

We know from research conducted over 20 years ago that students with severe disabilities need instruction in four domains (community, vocational, recreational, and domestic), and that this instruction should occur in the natural environment (the environment the activity naturally occurs within for individuals without disabilities) or setting (Brown, 1988). Though students with severe disabilities are included in public schools more often today, we see educators engage in five practices that severely diminish the potential of these students.

First, many educators continue to believe that these students need to be warehoused in the “special room” down the hall. Often, directors of student services and special education are actually relieved when they have enough students with a particular label—for example, autism—that they can then cluster these students in one classroom in a building with extra space, or better yet, in someone else’s school.

Relatedly, educators point with pride at their special classrooms with a washing machine and other home furnishings constructed just for students with severe disabilities. We know, however, from research that students with severe disabilities cannot take skills learned in segregated environments, like these classrooms, and generalize these skills to other environments (Brown et al., 1983).

Third, schools continue to provide separate busses or transportation for students with severe disabilities and take these students in isolated groups on community field trips. When we place people with severe disabilities in groups with others who are only like themselves, we take away their individual identities and dignity and deprive students without disability labels the opportunity to learn with and develop friendships with students of all abilities.

Fourth, because it is sometimes difficult to plan individual employment opportunities for students with severe disabilities, schools are resorting to teaching vocational skills to these students as a clustered group within their buildings. We have heard educators claim they are engaged in inclusive practices while also explaining they are preparing these students for segregated vocational sites after high school. This practice again points to a contradiction in inclusion. Moreover, often these students are asked to complete vocational tasks that would be demeaning for a peer without a disability to complete. In so doing, we elicit pity for these students that in turn undermines their dignity and self-respect.

Finally, if a student with severe challenges is included in the general education classroom, he or she is often assigned an individual teaching assistant, and then the child’s education becomes the responsibility of the teaching assistant and general education classroom teacher, neither of whom may have seen the child’s individualized educational plan, or may not be able to implement that plan. These ineffective, unethical practices are initiated and continue because they are

administratively convenient or philosophically supported without regard for the quality of life of the individual student. None of these five practices aligns with the principles of ICS.

Principles and Practice in Support of Integrated Education for Students With Severe Disabilities

Research and practice has shown that it is possible to educate children with severe disabilities in the schools and classrooms they would attend if not disabled. Here we describe 11 principles and practices that educators must consider to support an integrated education for students with severe disabilities: neighborhood schools, integrated classrooms, age-appropriate placements and activities, non-school and community environments, partial participation, natural proportions, functional skills, prioritization of skills to be learned, student/family preferences, opportunities for real work, and determining an appropriate education.

Neighborhood Schools

Years ago, we wrote that students should attend their home or neighborhood schools, or those schools that they would attend if not disabled (Brown et al., 1989) for three reasons. First, being able to attend one's home school is a basic civil right and is of benefit to all students. Students cannot learn to be comfortable with peers who may appear different from them if they do not interact with each other on a daily basis. Students will not learn compassion and the ability to make decisions that include all people if they are not in proximity to all people.

Second, in their neighborhood school, students with severe intellectual disabilities may receive community-based functional instruction in the environments where their families live. This will increase their opportunities for using these skills in their natural environments.

Third, when children with severe intellectual disabilities attend the school they would attend if not disabled, they have opportunities to interact with and form friendships with the same peers and families that they will interact with in their own neighborhoods. The students and their families become part of the larger school and neighborhood family network and the associated social activities. For example, if they play with and go to school with their neighborhood peers, it is more likely these peers will invite students with severe disabilities to birthday parties and other peer functions. Relatedly, attending their home school keeps families together. It is a travesty when one child in the family walks up the block to school, and the other child must wait for a little yellow school bus to pick him up and take him to a school away from his home.

Integrated Classrooms

Within their home schools, students with severe intellectual disabilities must be based or enrolled in regular education classrooms (Brown et al., 1989) with peers of similar age. This type of situation is not extreme or radical if the goals for the students with severe disabilities are clear, and if natural and artificial supports are clearly articulated and provided. We now know that such placements do not adversely affect non-disabled students (Peterson & Hittie, 2003) and can in fact benefit all students.

Age-Appropriate Placements and Activities

Students with significant disabilities also need to be placed in age appropriate situations and activities for their learning (Brown et al., 1979). That is, if a student is 15 years old, but functioning at a 3-year-old level, this student needs to be placed with and engaged in similar activities to other 15-year-old students. Too often, we see high school-aged students with severe disabilities placed in classrooms at the elementary or middle school level out of administrative convenience. Or, as another example, we have seen middle or elementary school-aged students with severe disabilities placed at the high school level when school administrators attempt to group all students with severe disabilities in their school district together. These students are placed in this age-inappropriate settings out of administrative convenience, not student need. It is important for students with significant disabilities to be educated with their same-aged peers for three reasons.

First, all students have a basic civil right, regardless of the severity of their disability, to be educated with same-aged peers. Second, we can use the activities of same-age peers as a benchmark for teaching content for students with significant disabilities. For example, if 15-year-old students are using an iPod music device, then perhaps learning to use an iPod music device would become a means to achieve IEP goals for the 15-year-old with severe disabilities. As another example, if students from the high school forensics club raise funds by selling concessions at a basketball game, then a high school student with significant disabilities could participate as well, again completing tasks tied to his or her IEP goals. In contrast, having a group of high school students, all with disabilities, running the high school concession stand would not be in agreement with ICS principles, because this activity is not integrated with students with and without disabilities. In addition, the number of students with disabilities participating in this activity at one time (in this example, 100% of the students involved are labeled with a disability) is not a natural proportion of students with disabilities. The number of students with disabilities actually participating should not exceed the percentage of those same students in the entire school.

Third, being placed in age-appropriate environments can foster true friendships between students with and without disability labels. These friendships can be nurtured both within the school and in the students' neighborhoods.

Brown et al. (1979) discusses four interrelated hypotheses that often prevent instruction that is age appropriate. First, the mental age and chronological age discrepancy hypothesis—that is, educators presumably determine a child's mental age and then teach to that instead of the individual's chronological age. If, however, we teach the skills appropriate for a 3-year-old to a student who has a 3-year-old mental age, but who is 18 years old chronologically, we will deny that individual a lifetime of opportunities to belong because there will not be enough time for that student to "catch up" to an 18-year-old skill level.

A second hypothesis that prevents age-appropriate instruction is the earlier stage hypothesis—that is, educators believe that they must teach skills to students with severe disabilities at a slower pace and in a sequential order based on the developmental milestones of typical learners. Again, however, if educators teach an 18-year-old student with a mental age of 3, based on this hypothesis, it will take them over 60 years to teach this student, and the student may never proceed beyond the mental age of 5. Therefore, educators must target skills that students with intellectual disabilities need and teach them in a way that these students can acquire these skills within a reasonable time frame.

A third hypothesis that mitigates against age-appropriate teaching is the “Not ready for” hypothesis. This hypothesis assumes that we need to wait to teach particular skills until the student is mentally ready. However, if we wait to teach functional skills to a person with severe disabilities until we deem them capable by mental age standards, it will never happen.

Finally, the artificial approximation hypothesis suggests that educators teach approximations of a skill out of the context of the activity and the appropriate environment. For example, if we teach someone to cross a street in a classroom using artificial stop and go lights and then expect the student to be able to generalize the approximations to a four-lane automated walk signal in the real world, we are placing that individual in harm’s way. Not only have we wasted the student’s time, we have also denied him or her the opportunity to learn in the natural environment.

Non-School and Community Environments

When educators understand that students with severe disabilities must be fully considered in the ICS process, they often assume we mean that these students must spend 100% of their day within the general education classroom, regardless of their age or needs. In fact, ICS does require that students with severe disabilities spend 100% of their day in integrated education environments, but these environments include both school and non-school settings.

Brown et al. (1983) agree that serving students with significant disabilities in age-appropriate regular schools and classes they would attend if not disabled is necessary but not totally sufficient for an effective education. Their education must also include access to integrated vocational, domestic, recreation/leisure, and general community environments. Brown and colleagues contend that it is necessary to take into consideration the learning needs of the student to determine the balance between non-school activities and instruction in the child’s home school. As with all students, those with significant disabilities require direct, individualized, longitudinal, comprehensive, and systematic instruction in a wide variety of integrated environments.

Brown et al. (1991) delineate factors to consider when determining time spent in regular education classrooms and elsewhere. First, the number of environments in which a student with severe disabilities spends time should be similar to the number of environments in which a non-disabled peer spends time. These learning environments must provide a range of different learning opportunities and stimuli, increasing the probability for skill acquisition with minimal support.

Second, the chronological age of the student is important to determine how much time should be available for instruction, how much the student has to learn, and where are the most appropriate environments and sub-environments for the student to learn specific activities and skills. In general, the older the child, the more time the students should spend learning functional skills in the environments those skills actually occur such as in the community.

Hence, students with severe disabilities may learn in a general education classroom some of the time, but will learn in integrated environments with typical peers 100% of the time. Additional factors to consider when deciding how much learning should occur in school and non-school environments are the skills a student can learn; the amount of time the student has to learn them; and the student’s ability to generalize, recoup, and retain information. These factors will help determine specifically what skills, activities, and environments will maximize the student’s independence.

Usually, concrete, practical skills can be taught more effectively in a non-school environment than in a school environment. However, community-based instruction must not be confined to occasional field trips. When students with severe disabilities participate in a range of different field trips per week with little to no attention to particular skill learning, then these trips are not of value. Community-based instruction is an individually choreographed instructional technique to teach skills that are necessary for the student to be as independent as possible as an adult.

Therefore, educators need to provide a balanced school and community schedule for a student with significant disabilities. The older the individual, and the less they generalize, recoup, and transfer information, the more opportunities they must have to receive instruction in the environments in which those activities actually occur. That is, a student at the elementary level with a significant disability may spend a large part of their day in the general education classroom with instruction in the community included as part of the typical third-grade curriculum and its community service projects. As the student gets older, the student receives an increasing amount of instruction in the community—for example, during the last periods of the day, three days a week, with a student without disabilities, perhaps as part of a community service project.

To illustrate, we offer the case of Miguel, a high school student with severe disabilities. Miguel is on the ninth-grade support teacher's caseload. The grade-level support teacher and IEP team will examine the individual needs of Miguel, and determine the skills he must learn to be independent and what skills and activities are the most important for students in ninth grade to know. Given the age of Miguel and the amount of time he has remaining in school, the staff may determine that Miguel will require community instruction in the areas of banking, food prep, shopping, housecleaning, and public transportation. Other information about Miguel includes the fact that, he likes U.S. History, especially information on wars.

Therefore, Miguel's weekly schedule will include community instruction in the morning at an off-campus job site, completing food prep with one other student with whom he rides the city bus and then returns to school for lunch and U.S. History. During the morning community instruction time, on Mondays, Miguel receives instruction for shopping and banking. On Tuesdays, he receives instruction in housekeeping at his own house. On Wednesdays and Fridays, he will visit the local health club to exercise and learn new lifelong health habits with a non-disabled high school student involved in community service and one other student with mild disabilities.

During the time Miguel is in history class, the general educator and grade-level support staff will develop universal access to the curriculum—that is, the history curriculum will address the range of learner skills in the classroom. Then, if necessary, adaptations may be made to address Miguel's more specific needs. For example, the instructional arrangements, the lesson format, teaching strategies, curricular and social goals specific to the lesson, the instructional materials, the level of natural supports, the supervision arrangements, and the physical and social aspects of the classroom can all be designed to support the specific needs of Miguel (Udvari-Solner & Thousand, 1995).

Partial Participation

Sometimes, a student with a severe disability may not be able to fully participate in an activity with peers who do not have a disability label. For this reason, educators may exclude the student with

severe disabilities from the activity. However, the principle of partial participation suggests that though a student with severe disabilities may not be able to fully participate in an activity, he or she may be able to partially participate, thus allowing the student to be included.

The ability to partially participate (Meyer, Peck, & Brown, 1991) in chronological age-appropriate environments and activities is educationally more advantageous than exclusion from such environments and activities. Students with severe disabilities, regardless of their degrees of dependence or levels of functioning, should be supported to partially participate in a wide range of school and non-school environments and activities. The kinds and degrees of partial participation should be increased through direct and systematic instruction. Partial participation in school and non-school environments and activities will result in a student learning more skills and thus gaining greater independence. Systematic, coordinated, and longitudinal efforts must be initiated at a young age to prepare students with severe disabilities for partial participation in as many environments and activities as possible with chronological age-appropriate, non-disabled peers.

Natural Proportions

As we defined the term in Chapter 1, “natural proportion” means that the numbers of students of a particular label or need in any school setting should reflect the numbers of such students in the overall school setting. Students with severe intellectual needs comprise about 1% of the school population (Brown et al., 1988). Therefore, we need to be cognizant of how many students with severe disabilities are clustered into one environment and ensure that no more than 1% of that setting is composed of these students. Typically, if students with severe disabilities are not railroaded into institutions or “clustered educational placements,” the proportions of students with and without disabilities will maintain a natural balance. When such a natural balance occurs, people are treated, viewed, and respected as individuals and not as a group of people to be circumvented and denied privilege (Brown, Udvari-Solner, Long, Davis, & Jorgensen, 1990).

Functional Skills

It is reasonable to expect that students with intellectual disabilities will acquire fewer skills during an educational career than approximately 97% of their chronological-age peers. If such a relatively limited number of skills are to be learned, it seems prudent that a reasonable proportion of these should be “functional.” Functional skills are those that someone else would have to do for the individual with a disability if he or she could not complete the activity on his or her own. For example, if a student with disabilities does not learn to open the door to the school, the chances are that someone else will need to assist. If a person with significant disabilities does not learn to wash the dishes, someone else will have to wash the dishes. However, if a person with significant disabilities does not learn the capitals of all the states, the chances are that no one else will have to learn the capitals for him or her. When considering what skills to teach, it is important to balance functional skills with the individual’s interest, with the social importance of the skill, and with the preparation for adulthood, as well as the recreational significance of the skill. For example, if an individual does not swim, the chances are that no one else will have to swim for him or her; however, the individual with the disability will gain much from the physical activity of swimming for lifelong fitness.

Prioritization of Skills to Be Learned

Students with significant disabilities learn less than 99% of their peers, recoup less, retain less, and generalize less. Therefore, educators must consider three factors when deciding which skills to teach students with severe disabilities that will result in as much adult independence as possible. First, educators need to consider the number of skills that should be taught. Brown et al. (1983) state that there are thousands of skills that can be acquired by others that either cannot be acquired by students with severe intellectual disabilities or are extremely cost-inefficient when the return for educational investment is considered. Completing long-division worksheets and memorizing multiplication tables or the presidents of the United States are a few examples. Therefore, it is essential to look at the skills that will assist children with significant disabilities to be productive members of society and help them as they become young adults to be as independent as possible in the community, home, workplace, and when recreating. When teaching a child with severe disabilities, the complexity of such skills must be minimized to increase independence.

A second consideration for teaching skills is the number and kinds of opportunities a student will have to learn these skills. For example, making eggplant parmesan may be a wonderful skill to have, but if the individual does not know how to make a sandwich for lunch, the Teen Living class that teaches how to cook gourmet dishes may not be the most appropriate use of the student's time. However, if in fact the high school foods class is teaching survival cooking skills and the student has the opportunity to make everyday foods in an integrated class, during instruction in a domestic environment, and at home in the evening, the chances of acquiring the skills for those specific activities have now tripled in probability due to the increase in opportunities. Students with severe disabilities must be provided opportunities to repeatedly practice these skills in natural environments with meaningful performance criteria. Repeated practice is important, as a student might not recoup a skill that was learned if it is used infrequently.

Accordingly, Brown (1988) cautions teachers about "time-determined progressions" or unit instructional practices. That is, educators may decide, for example, that in February, student will learn grocery shopping skills. However, students with severe disabilities may need teaching related to grocery shopping to occur over a period of 3–5 years and at regular intervals throughout the year. This instruction can progress from the most basic shopping patterns (following a picture list), to higher-order experiences of developing a picture grocery list based on the items necessary for the projected meals for the week, to staying within a weekly budget based on the individual's earnings.

A third consideration involves practicing the skill in the natural environment in which the skill is needed. If we do not ensure such practice, we are expecting students who have the least ability to generalize, to generalize across many different environments. The worse case example of this is teaching a student to practice a skill in the isolation of the classroom, and then expecting that student to be able to use that skill in a completely different natural environment. To repeat, the skills being taught must enhance the student's functioning within the school, home, community, work, and recreational environments.

Student and Family Preferences

Students with intellectual disabilities, like all students, are less successful at learning skills they are not interested in than they are in learning skills in which they have a high level of interest. Given the

importance of the desire to learn and its relationship to motivation and determination, students with severe disabilities and their families must have an opportunity to be involved in the decisions about what skills the students will learn based on the students' preferences.

Opportunities for Real Work

Educators often opt to place students with significant disabilities into segregated work crews or segregated enclaves with other students with significant disabilities to acquire work experience and vocational skills. Brown (1988) rejects these practices, and instead insists on the importance of placing students with significant disabilities in work situations that reflect the natural proportions concept. Thus, enclaves and crews are unnecessarily restrictive. Thus, when supporting students with disabilities at community vocational sites, it is imperative to attend to natural proportions. As we previously discussed, because approximately 1% of the individuals in society could be labeled with severe intellectual disabilities, student learning environments, including vocational environments, should have a similar proportion of individuals with severe disabilities. In addition, these environments require the presence of students without disability labels—that is, an individual without a disability should be within sight, hearing, and touch of a person with a significant disability for the vocational environment to be defined as an integrated one.

Determining the Most Appropriate Education

To determine the most appropriate education for students with significant disabilities, Brown et al. (1983) suggest using the ecological inventory and discrepancy analysis strategy. This inventory and strategy can assist teachers, students, and parents to develop instructional goals, and to determine the most appropriate skills, activities, and environments for students to reach those goals.

First, educators determine the activities and skills that a same-age, non-disabled peer would be learning, as well as the environments where the same-age, non-disabled peer would be learning these skills. These skill areas focus on five curricular domains: school, vocational, community, recreational, and domestic.

Second, educators then determine if the child with significant disabilities can perform any of these skills independently. That is, the educator determines the discrepancies between the skills and activities that a child without a disability is able to do and those that a child with a disability is capable of completing. Then, the educator makes recommendations as to which skills, activities, and environments will be the primary focus for that particular time period. Appropriate academic and functional objectives can then be determined that are pertinent to the recommendations. It is essential during this process to keep in mind the current and future learning environments that the individual will function within (Brown et al., 1983).

Conclusion

In schools and districts where the educational leaders believe in and implement Integrated Comprehensive Services, students with severe disabilities are educated in the same classrooms, schools, and community environments where they would be educated if not disabled. We have heard administrators say, "We actually do Integrated Comprehensive Services in our district." Then

we ask, “Do you have students with severe disabilities on the general education teachers’ caseloads at the grade level to receive a range of individualized integrated instruction?” Most often, administrators respond by saying, “Oh, well, we don’t do it for our students with severe disabilities—they go to a special school or are clustered into special classes in schools around our district.” If students with severe disabilities are segregated, then educators are only perpetuating the notion that some students meet our criteria for belonging and other students clearly do not.

Some educators claim that they base their decision to segregate particular students on those students’ “individual needs,” when in fact the decision is based on the degree of educator creativity and willingness to do what it takes to include students based on the principles described in this chapter. For example, we have witnessed students who have been placed in a segregated, self-contained classroom all day, in a school that is not their home school, and the educators in this district claim the decisions are based on the students’ needs. When the family of one of these students moved to a different district that practiced ICS, this student attended the home school and received a balance of integrated school and community instruction. As this example shows, it is not the extent of a student’s disability or individual student needs that should determine the degree to which a student will be educated with his or her peers, but rather it is educator creativity and will. If we want to provide integrated school and community instruction for a student with severe disabilities, we will. We cannot claim to be “inclusive” or claim to be practicing ICS when in fact we draw the line to only include particular students at particular times. We must move beyond denying the civil rights of students with severe disabilities. We must walk our talk, and this means putting into practice the principles in this chapter to ensure that literally every single student in the school community, including students with severe disabilities, are full participating members of that school community.

Appendix E

Reflective Planning Framework for Differentiating Instruction

- Step 1: Determine how each child learns and document based on specific content (Silver)
- Step 2: Identify key concepts, standards, guiding principles or essential questions, and desired outcomes.
Sample reflective question: *What do I want students to know (e.g., concepts, facts, vocabulary words) and understand (e.g. generalizations, links with prior knowledge or experiences) at the end of this unit.*
- Step 3: Differentiate levels of student understanding
Sample reflective questions: *Given the core concepts, relevant applications, key generalizations, and critical skills that I want all students to learn, how can I extend the knowledge and skills for those students ready to move further? How can I ensure that students needing a more basic level also receive enriching opportunities to learn about the key concepts?*
- Step 4: If relevant to your particular context, identify which essential standards might interface with the unit or topical area.
Sample reflective questions: *In context of the intended learning from this unit, how can I blend district objectives and/or state standards?*
- Step 5: Determine which skills are important for the students to learn, review, and apply.
Sample reflective questions: *What do I want students to be able to do at the end of this unit? What new skills will students need to learn for this unit? What opportunities are present for students to review and apply skills they have already learned?*
- Step 6: Select product options that will encourage students to apply their learning from the unit as well as integrating the knowledge and skills from the unit previous knowledge and experiences.
Sample reflective questions: *What kinds of products will allow students to demonstrate what they have learned relative to the key concepts, principles or questions? What products would show integration and applications? How can individual student strengths be used to guide demonstrations? How might student choice be incorporate into product selection? In what ways can students best share what they have learned?*
- Step 7: Select formative and summative assessment approaches that can be used throughout the unit to provide helpful feedback to both students and staff.
Sample reflective questions: *How can I best assess what students already know about the topic? What kinds of feedback do I want throughout the unit to help me determine the effectiveness of lessons and activities? How can I best design assessment tools that will be sensitive to varied levels of student proficiency? How can I actively involve students in self-assessment?*
- Step 8: Given the range of student needs, abilities, strengths, and experiences, determine how students can best learn about the identified concepts, principles, or essential questions.
Sample reflective questions: *What activities can be used that will maximize student strengths, interest, abilities, and experiences? What do students already know about this topic? What additional support needs will some of the students have? How can the activities best accommodate those additional support needs? How best can I group students for the activities in this unit?*

OASD
 Review of Programs and Services to Students with Disabilities
 REPORT – August 2011

Adapted from York-Barr, Sommers, Ghere, Montie (2006). Reflective Practice to Improve Schools

Stage I: Student Learning Style: Math

(Refresher Reference: So Each May Learn – Harvey Silver)

Step 1:

Student	Interest	Learning Styles	Assessment Needs
1.			
2.			
3.			
4.			
5.			
6.			
7.			
8.			
9.			
10.			
11.			
12.			
13.			
14.			
15.			
16.			
17.			
18.			
19.			
20.			
21.			
22.			
23.			
24.			
25.			
26.			
27.			
28.			
29.			

Stage II Desired Results	
Step 2: Standard: <i>Relevant goals – (e.g., content standards, course or program objectives, learning outcomes) will this plan address.</i>	
Step 3: Students will Understand: 1. <i>What are the big ideas</i> 2. <i>What specific understandings about them are desired</i> 3. <i>What misunderstandings are predictable?</i>	Step 4: Essential Standards: 1. <i>What proactive questions will foster inquiry, understanding, and transfer of learning?</i>
Step 5: Students will know: 2. <i>What key knowledge and skills will students acquire as a result if this unit?</i> 3. <i>What should they eventually be able to do as a result of such knowledge and skill?</i>	Step 6: Students will be able to: 4. <i>What key knowledge and skills will students acquire as a result if this unit?</i> 5. <i>What should they eventually be able to do as a result of such knowledge and skill?</i>
Stage III: Assessment Evidence	
Step 7: Performance Task: 1. <i>Through what authentic performance tasks will students demonstrate the desired understandings?</i> 2. <i>By what criteria will performances of understanding be judged</i>	Step 7: Other Evidence: <i>Through what other evidence (e.g., quizzes, tests, academic prompts, observations, homework, journals) will students demonstrate achievement of the desired results?</i> <i>How will students reflect upon and self-assess their learning?</i>
Stage IV: Learning Plans for Heterogeneous Flexible Groupings	
Step 8: Learning Plans <i>Based on the needs of the learners in your class how will you group students?</i> <i>What learning experiences and instruction will enable students to achieve the desired results?</i> <i>How will the design:</i> <i>W= Help students know Where the unit is going and What is expected? Hel the teacher know Where the students are coming from (prior knowledge, interests)/</i> <i>H= Hook all students and Hold their interests?</i> <i>E= Equip students help them Experience the key ideas and Explore the issues (Use grade band content standards)?R= Provide opportunities to Rethink and Revise their understandings and work?</i> <i>E=Allow students to Evaluate their work and its implications</i> <i>T= Be tailored (personalized) to the different needs, interests, and abilities of learners?</i> <i>O= Be Organized to maximize initial and sustained engagement as well as effective learning?</i>	

Adapted from Understanding by Design

Stage II: Desired Results	
Step 2: Standard:	
Step 3: Students will Understand:	Step 4: Essential Standards:
Step 5: Students will know:	Step 6: Students will be able to:
Stage III: Assessment Evidence	
Step 7: Performance Task:	Step 7: Other Evidence:
Stage IV: Learning Plans for Heterogeneous Flexible Groupings	
Step 8: Learning Plans (See cloud unit as an example).	

