

TWO DELIVERY MODELS OF INCLUSIVE PRACTICES FOR ELLS IN A MIDWEST SCHOOL DISTRICT

Lishu Yin, PhD

ABSTRACT

The study examined how the instructional delivery models in inclusion programs were specifically implemented for Grades 1-3 English Language Learners (ELLs) at 2 elementary schools in a large Midwest inner-city school district. The nature of the 2 delivery models was diagrammed and explained respectively. Interview, observation data, and relevant documents were analyzed through the use of a comparative matrix. Themes and trends were developed: (a) collaboration between the classroom teachers and resource teachers; (b) scheduling; (c) reading instruction, curricular, and instruction time; (d) workload for classroom teachers and the resource teachers; (e) use of paraprofessionals; (f) assessment of students' ongoing progress; and (g) strengths and challenges of the implemented models as described by the teachers. The findings indicated that the participating teachers were very positive about their inclusion models even though the two models were distinctively different. The results signify that inclusion can work for ELLs, but it is difficult for one classroom teacher to accomplish the job. Collaboration is the key to the success of inclusive practices.

KEY WORDS: collaboration, delivery model, inclusion, ELL, ESL, team-teaching, co-teaching

According to the National Clearing House for English Language Acquisition (2011), in the U.S. public school system, the enrollment of English Language Learners (ELLs) from Pre-K through Grade 12 increased 51% over a 10-year period from the 1998-1999 school year to the 2008–2009 school year. The reported enrollment of ELLs from Pre-K to Grade 12 for the 1998–1999 school year was 3,540,673, whereas there were 5,346,673 ELLs enrolled in the 2008–2009 school year. The number of ELLs in 2008–2009 was 11% of the total enrollment in public schools.

Educational decisions made regarding English language learners (ELLs) will have a remarkable impact on their futures (William, 2001). According to Ma (2002), no comprehensive strategies have been developed to address the academic needs of ELLs sufficiently. Additionally, findings from previous research have not suggested how to best address the achievement problems of ELLs. Moreover, Ma pointed out that research had denoted that the achievement gaps were widening between native English speakers and ELLs. Furthermore, he emphasized that who made the decision was not nearly as important as what worked for ELLs.

The goal of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 is to close the achievement gap. According to Miller (2003), the U.S. Department of Education set specific requirements that states and districts needed to meet in educating ELLs in Title III of No Child Left Behind. The main goals of Title III were to “help ensure that limited English proficient (LEP) children attain English proficiency” and “develop high levels of academic competence in

English” (U.S. Department of Education, 2003, p.5). Therefore, the U.S. Secretary of Education, Margaret Spelling, stated, "Our schools must be prepared to measure what English language learners know and to teach them effectively, with proven instructional methods” (U.S. Department of Education, 2006).

Across the United States, ELLs are placed in different educational programs. Pullout programs have been used for many years to serve struggling readers including English language learners. The Council of the Great City Schools (Antunez, 2003) investigated the characteristics of ELLs in 58 member districts. The responses from 36 districts (62%) indicated the number of ELLs was increasing. Sheltered English as a Second Language was identified as the most commonly offered program for ELLs and the pullout program was the second for these states. Inclusion programs have gradually begun to replace pullout programs in some states (Byrnes, Kiger, & Manning, 1997). Zehr (2006) reported that inclusion programs had replaced the pullout programs at all elementary schools in St. Paul, Minnesota.

Cummins (1984) pointed out that there were many similarities in instructional needs between special education (SPED) and ELLs. Inclusion has been adopted for Chapter 1 programs for some time (Anstrom, 1995). Although some of the instructional planning prepared for the SPED students might have been suitable and transferrable for ELLs (Cummins, 1984; Harper & Platt, 1998; Honigsfeld & Dove, 2008), whether they would benefit from inclusion programs still needed to be examined (Harper & Platt, 1998). Few studies on the implementation of specific inclusion models for ELLs were located. Therefore, the findings of the studies on struggling readers and SPED students in inclusion programs were also used to identify the issues and trends in the inclusion of ELLs.

The types of curriculum and instruction that should be used for ELLs in inclusion programs have remained a focus of discussion for researchers for many years (Anstrom, 1997; Chamot & O’Malley, 1987; Harklau, 1994; Harper & de Jone, 2004; Mohan, 1986; Snow, Met, & Genesee, 1989; Stainback & Stainback, 1984; Watts-Taffe & Truscott, 2000). Stainback and Stainback (1996) remarked that in the mainstream classroom, curricula needed to be accommodating, flexible, and challenging to all students. Besides agreeing with Stainback and Stainback, Watts-Taffe and Truscott (2000) mentioned the importance of scaffolding, strong discussion, and vocabulary discussion in helping the language development of ELLs in an inclusive setting.

Findings from the previous studies on teachers’ attitudes toward inclusion programs for ELLs indicated both positive and negative sides (Honigsfeld & Dove, 2010; Layzer, 2000; Penfield, 1987; Schmidt, 2000; Youngs

& Youngs, 1999). Fuchs and Fuchs (1998) stated that both resource teachers and mainstream teachers were not prepared for inclusion programs. Additionally, inclusion programs created new challenges for classroom teachers (Penfield, 1987; Youngs & Youngs, 1999). Students, however, were not prepared to be in the mainstream classrooms and, as a result, effective learning did not take place (Youngs & Youngs, 1999). In two case studies, Wade (2000a & 2000b) reported problems occurred in schools that tried to include ELLs in mainstream classrooms. Resource teachers became frustrated because they were either used as paraprofessionals working with students in the corner of a room or had to be “friendly, bouncy, but not pushy...to deal with classroom teachers with delicacy, tact, and flattery” (Wade, 2000b, p. 212).

Some findings of the previous studies demonstrated the effectiveness of inclusion programs on reading progress of struggling readers was inconclusive (Baker, Wang, & Walberg, 1994/1995; McLeskey & Waldron, 1996; Smelter & Rasch, 1995; Yatvin, 1995; Yin & Hare, 2009; Zigmond & Baker, 1996; Zigmond & Jenkins, 1995). Suggestions and recommendations for improving inclusion programs in previous studies cover the following major areas: (a) collaboration and team teaching (Clair, 1993; Elliot & McKinney, 1998; Fattig & Taylor, 2007; Friend, M., 2008; Honigsfeld & Dove, 2008, 2010; Stainback & Stainback, 1996; Wertheimer & Honigsfeld, 2000; Youngs & Youngs, 1999; Zehr, 2006); (b) modified curriculum and instruction (Anstrom, 1997; DeLeeuw & Stannard, 2000; Harklau, 1994a; Harper & Platt, 1998; Stainback & Stainback, 1996; Watts-Taffe & Truscott, 2000); and (c) inclusion of paraprofessionals in the classroom (Elliott & McKenney, 1998; Honigsfeld & Dove, 2010). According to DeLeeuw and Stannard (2000), Zerh (2006), and Honigsfeld & Dove (2008, 2010), team teaching and working together were the key elements in the success of inclusion programs. Honigsfeld and Dove (2010) offered specific collaboration and co-teaching principles and strategies as well as co-teaching models for inclusion programs for ELLs. They profiled the co-teaching models between the classroom teachers and English as a Second Language (ESL) specialists. In a three-year urban case study of York-Barr, Ghere, and Sommerness (2007) on an inclusion program for Grades 1 and 2 at a Midwest elementary school in which 50% of students were identified as ELLs and 5% as special education, in the second year of the study, co-teaching relationships were observed to be positive and productive. The ELLs’ achievement in reading and math was considerable as a result of co-teaching between the general classroom teachers and the resource teachers. Yet, to date, little research has been conducted to investigate how inclusion models are implemented for ELLs in general educational community.

The purpose of this research was to examine how the instructional delivery models in inclusion programs were specifically implemented for Grades one to three ELLs at two elementary schools in a large Midwest inner-city school district in fall, 2006. Strengths and challenges of each model as described by teachers were compared. Additionally, teacher frustrations and struggles in each model were examined.

The study addressed the following questions: (a) what is the nature of the specific inclusion models teachers at two schools in one Midwest district adopted? (b) what are the teachers' perspectives about the strengths and challenges of their specific models? and (c) what are the teachers' frustrations and struggles in each delivery model?

The school district where the study was conducted has no official definitions for inclusion and pullout. Therefore, the definitions from the literature were used for the purpose of this study. Inclusion is the practice of serving students with special needs completely within the general educational setting (Ferguson, 1995; Stainback & Stainback, 1984; Turnbull, Turnbull, Shank, & Leal, 1995). Pullout for ELLs is a program that ELLs are "pulled out" of regular, mainstream classrooms for special instruction in English as a second language (Colorin Colorado, 2011).

METHOD

Employing the qualitative method, the researcher observed the participating teachers and their classrooms, and interviewed them in both structured and semi-structured ways. Relevant documents were also collected. Data from both interviews and observations were used to determine the differences in implementation of each model.

Procedure

After the researcher received the approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB) for this research in August, 2005, a research proposal was turned into the Research Review Committee of the public school district where the study was to be conducted. Upon the approval granted by the Research Review Committee, the researcher contacted the Department of English as a Second Language Office of the school district. The ESL office recommended the school sites and participants. Then a letter was sent to the principals of the school sites. After they granted access to their schools, a letter was sent to the participating teachers to explain the purpose of the project and

what the researcher was going to do with them. A consent form was sent to each teacher to sign and returned with their permission.

Table 1 *Demographic Information of Participating Teachers and Sites*

School Site	Co-teaching team							Students served	
	Classroom Teachers					Resource teachers	Para-professional	ELL	st. n./ each room
	Grade	Teacher	ESL endorsement	Years of teaching exp.	Years of teaching ELLs				
Indiana Elementary	1st	Ms. Lydia	Yes	A total of 25 yrs, with 16 yrs. in SPED	7	1 Title I reading resource teacher with ESL endorsement	1	15	17
	1st	Ms. Emily	Yes	5	5			1	14
Isabella Elementary	2nd	Ms. Debbie	Yes	8	7	1 SPED Teacher & 1 Title I Reading Teacher	1 is shared by both teachers	5	17
	3rd	Ms. Elisa	Yes	A total of 25 yrs., with 18 yrs. in SPED	6			3	11

Participating sites and teachers

In order to “understand the problem and the research question” (Creswell, 2003, p.185), the researcher intended to examine the inclusion models that the administrators at each school recognized. The administrators from two inner-city schools with a large population of ELLs at the same school district highly recommended the participating teachers to the researcher. Therefore, two classroom teachers were purposefully selected respectively from these two different schools to observe and interview. Table 1 presents the demographic information on the participating teachers and classrooms. The average number of the four classroom teachers’ years of teaching experience was about 16, and the average number of years working with ELLs was six. Of the four teachers, two had previous teaching experiences in special education. All of them participated in professional development and received ESL endorsement after they started to work with ELLs. They also received training on guided reading

provided by the school district. The paraprofessionals involved in the co-teaching team received training on working with ELLs once a month provided by the district office. All the names used in this study for the participating sites, participating teachers, their collaborating partners, and their paraprofessionals were pseudonyms.

Data collection

In the second week of October, 2006, the researcher was at the research sites for a week making observations, conducting interviews, and collecting related documents. The protocols were developed based on the arguments from the related studies on inclusion programs and models. The researcher observed each teacher for about five hours on a regular school day focusing on the reading and language block. During the observation, the researcher was engaged in extended conversation with the teacher whenever it was possible for the teachers. The researcher interviewed each teacher for about 45 to 50 minutes during her planning time, and also had semi-structured interview with some of them during their lunch time. Due to the fact that the researcher lived in another city, follow-up phone interviews and email correspondence for clarification were conducted as well. All the interviews were recorded and transcribed. With the permission of the participating teachers, the researcher collected relevant documents such as daily schedules and students' work.

Data analysis

The interview and observation data were analyzed through the use of a comparative matrix, and themes and trends were developed. According to Merriam (1998), "categories and subcategories (or properties) are most commonly constructed through the constant comparative method of data analysis" (p. 179). The transcription of each interview and data from each observation were categorized and subcategorized. The contents of the categories and subcategories across the two sites were compared and contrasted, and the trends and themes were determined. Seven aspects were developed and categorized: (a) collaboration between the classroom teachers and the resource teachers; (b) scheduling; (c) reading instruction, curricular, and instruction time; (d) workload for the classroom teachers and resource teachers; (e) use of paraprofessionals; (f) assessment of students' ongoing progress; and (h) strengths and challenges of the implemented models from the perspectives of the teachers.

RESULTS

The nature of the two delivery models

Two classrooms from inclusion programs from each site were observed at Isabella Elementary and Indiana Elementary respectively. The two inclusion models adopted by the participating teachers were distinctively different from each other. At both sites, the participating teachers developed a close collaboration relationship and team taught on a daily basis, yet how they worked together was quite different.

Site one: Indiana Elementary

Indiana Elementary was opened in 1999 and the building was renovated in 2002. In the 2006-2007 school year, the student enrollment from Grades Pre-K to six was 246. Of these, 180 who were qualified for ESL service spoke Spanish or Sudanese. About 94% of students were eligible for discounted or free lunch. At Indiana, all students from Grade Pre-K to three were mainstreamed. The Title I reading specialist worked with the classroom teachers and pulled out students for intensive work on reading skills during the reading and language arts block. Teachers at the same grade level collaborated with each other.

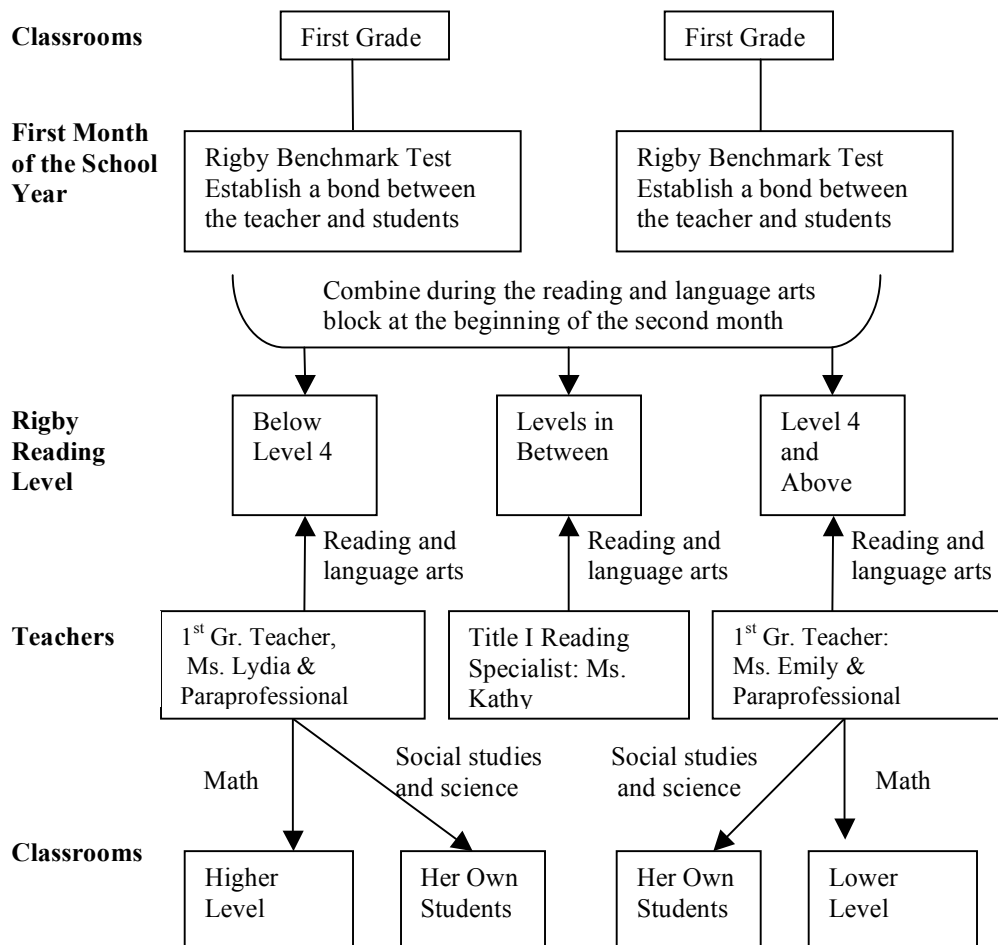
At Indiana, Ms. Lydia was one of the two first grade teachers. She had been a first grade teacher for seven years. This was the second year she collaborated with the other first grade teacher, Ms. Emily, and the Title I reading specialist, Ms. Kathy. Before that, she did inclusion alone. Ms. Lydia had 17 first graders, 15 of them were ELLs. Ms. Emily had 17 first graders, 14 of them were ELLs. Ms. Lydia and Ms. Emily each had a full-time paraprofessional in their own rooms. This year, Ms. Lydia had a student teacher. Most of the time, she had a student teacher in her room.

In the first month of the school year, Ms. Lydia and Ms. Emily kept their own students in their own rooms. Because the school used Rigby guided reading for primary grades, they gave the Rigby Benchmark Reading Pretest to each student and planned guided reading lessons for all the reading levels for their own students for the first month. Another reason for them to keep their own students for the first month was to establish a bond between the students and their own teachers because they wanted to help their students have an easy transition from the kindergarten to the first grade. Beginning with the second month, Ms. Lydia and Ms. Emily combined their students for a two hour reading and language arts block every morning from 9:30 to 11:30am. Based on their Rigby guided reading levels, the students were divided into three big groups: (a) reading levels below level four; (b) reading levels

in between; and (c) level four and up. Ms. Lydia took the struggling readers who could not read on grade level in her room and Ms. Emily took the students in the high end group in her room while Ms. Kathy, the Title I reading specialist worked with the students that were in between and prepared them for Ms. Emily’s group in her resource room.

The two classroom teachers and the resource teacher met weekly for an hour and planned the lessons together, and they also talked informally on a daily basis. The two classrooms were right next to each other. In their own rooms, they broke the students into small groups for individualized and differentiated instruction in reading, writing, and language arts. All students were taught at their instructional levels. In both classrooms, the paraprofessionals led small groups and the two classroom teachers wrote the lesson plans for their paraprofessionals.

Figure 1 Inclusion Model/Indiana Elementary



Due to the classroom space, the resource teacher took the students out to her own room in the same building. The three teachers used Rigby Benchmark Test to assess their students' progress on a regular basis. Ms. Kathy sent students from her group to Ms. Emily's group whenever a student could read at level four, and at the same time, she pulled out students from Ms. Lydia's room when the student was ready for her group.

Ms. Lydia and Ms. Emily collaborated in teaching math in small groups, too. Ms. Lydia took the students at higher levels while Ms. Emily worked with students at lower levels during the math session. They did social studies and science in the afternoon in their own rooms with the help of their own paraprofessionals. Figure 1 presents the model at Indiana.

Site two: Isabella Elementary

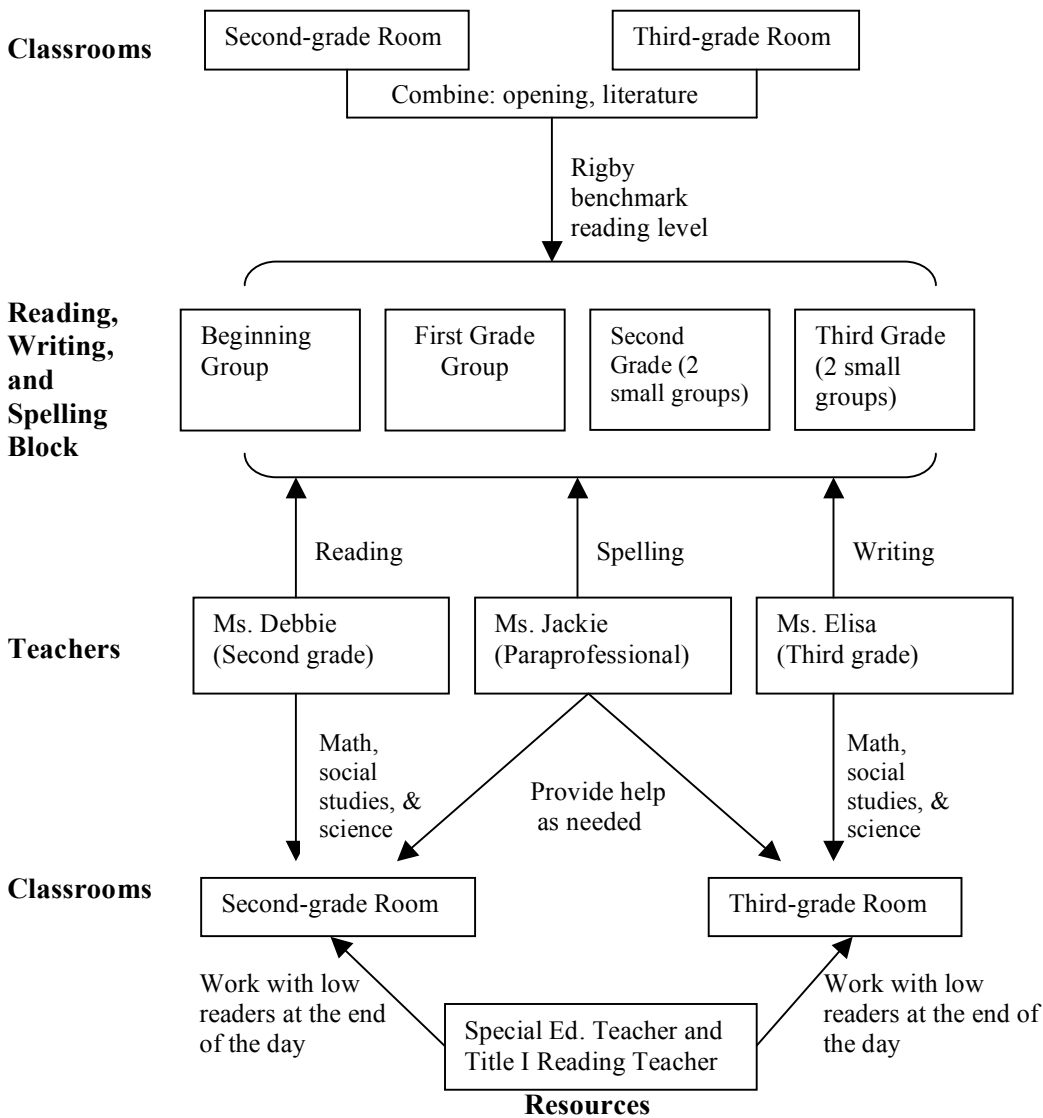
Isabella Elementary was opened in 2002 in the downtown of the city in order to accommodate the growing population in the area. The school used a big old warehouse and divided it into many school rooms as classrooms. In 2004, the school moved into a new two story building. In the 2006-2007 school year, the total population was 650 from Grades Pre-K to six, and 248 of them were qualified for ESL services. The languages spoken were Spanish and Sudanese. About 88% of students were eligible for discounted or free lunch. At Isabella, students from Grades PreK to three were mainstreamed for all subjects. The Title I reading teachers and special education teachers went to classrooms to provide service to the students. Some teachers at the school collaborated with another teacher from the same grade level, and some with another teacher from another grade level, while some others did full inclusion alone.

At Isabella, Ms. Elisa was one of the five third grade teachers, and she had collaborated with one of the five second grade teachers, Ms. Debbie, for six and a half years. The school administrators arranged their classrooms right next to each other. Both of them shared one paraprofessional, Ms. Jackie. Ms. Elisa had 11 third graders with three ELLs, and Ms. Debbie had 17 second graders with five ELLs. This year, neither Ms. Elisa nor Ms. Debbie had any ELL newcomers.

From the very beginning of the school year, they combined students from both classrooms. The students started their first day of school in Ms. Elisa's third grade classroom. Every day, they were together to do the opening of the school, reading, writing, language arts, spelling, and literature. At the beginning of the school year, each student took the Rigby Benchmark Pretest. Rigby guided reading was adopted for the primary grades at Isabella. Their reading levels varied from the first grade to the eighth grade level. Based on their Benchmark reading levels,

the students were divided into the following four groups: (a) one third grade level group; (b) one second grade level group; (c) one first grade group; and (d) one group at the very beginning level. The two large groups of the third grade level and the second grade level were split into 4 small groups. Altogether students were assigned to six reading groups. They blocked three hours (two in the morning and one in the afternoon) at the same time every day to do the reading, writing, and spelling block. Each group received about 25 minutes direct instruction from the teacher and 25 minutes independent working time under the supervision of the teacher, so students actually had at least 50 minutes reading, 50 minutes writing, and 50 minutes spelling daily.

Figure 2 Inclusion model /Isabella Elementary.



Ms. Elisa, Ms. Debbie, and Ms. Jackie met weekly for an hour to plan together. Ms. Elisa led writing groups, while Ms. Debbie led guided reading groups, and Ms. Jackie led spelling groups. The school administrators blocked the same time slot for PE, music, arts, and library for both classes. In the afternoon after the one hour reading block, Ms. Elisa and Ms. Debbie did math, social studies, and science in their own rooms. The school resource teachers went to their rooms to provide services. Ms. Jackie assisted them as needed. Figure 2 illustrates the model observed at Isabella.

Differences and similarities of two inclusion models

Differences and similarities are found in the two inclusion models. The major differences were as follows: (a) the Isabella model used full inclusion, whereas the Indiana model incorporated pullout during the two-hour reading/writing/language arts block time, but the pullout in reality is part of the inclusion because all the students were working on the same subjects at different levels; (b) at Isabella, two teachers from two close grade levels collaborated, but at Indiana, two teachers from the same grade level collaborated with the reading resource teacher during their reading block time; (c) at Isabella, teachers divided the teaching responsibilities by subject area—each teacher only taught one subject to all students during the block time. However, they differentiated the levels and scaffolded the teaching materials. At Indiana, the teachers divided the teaching responsibilities according to their students' reading levels: one teacher took the struggling readers, the other took the students with high reading levels, and the resource teacher took the students in between the two levels. All teachers taught reading, writing, language arts, and spelling during the block and differentiated instruction based on students' needs; (d) at Isabella, with second and third grade students, the reading block was three hours, and during the three hours, reading, writing, and spelling were taught as separate subjects; at Indiana, with just first-grade students, the reading block was two hours, and reading, writing, and language arts were integrated; and (e) at Isabella, the students from two classes were put together on the first day of school to establish a bond with the teachers with whom they were going to work, whereas at Indiana, the students from two classes were put together one month after school started after they had established the bond with their own teachers. According to the teachers at Indiana, their first graders needed more time to make a smooth transition from the kindergarten to the first grade.

Although the percentage of ELLs was different, with 39 at Isabella and 75 at Indiana, similarities were observed between these two models: (a) at both sites, the guided reading approach and Rigby reading materials were

used for reading instruction; (b) paraprofessionals participated in the weekly planning meeting and led spelling groups during the block time; (c) the students were instructed at their instructional levels and not exposed to the regular grade level reading materials until they were ready for them; (d) ELLs were placed in groups with native speakers; and (e) the school administrators blocked their reading/writing/language arts period every day at the same time.

Strengths and challenges

The study findings demonstrated the strengths of the inclusion models as follows:

1. As a result of the collaboration between teachers, every student's needs were met, and there was no gap in students' reading instruction between classroom teachers and the Title I reading specialist. Ms. Lydia stated, "We can meet the needs of all kids--the kids are on grade level and above the grade level, and the kids below the grade level, so everybody's needs are met. No kids are left behind. Because of the pressure of getting kids on grade level, I think a very good part our model is that the reading specialist can take those high kids in my group and just go, go, go, get them on grade level. Last year, we had a lot of kids on grade level."
2. Students worked at their instructional levels in small groups.
3. Teachers did not have to worry about curriculum misalignment.
4. The same assessment tool was used to monitor students' progress on an ongoing basis.
5. Scheduling became simple. Classroom teachers and resource teachers did not have to spend much time and energy figuring out when to see the student and how long they were able to see the student. They did not have to consider the problems of scheduling conflicts.
6. Teachers' workload decreased relatively. The participants felt their workload decreased as they only planned reading, writing, and language arts for their own group of students or planned for one subject such as writing, reading, or language arts at different levels. One participant felt the workload was "evened out."

The results clearly indicate that without collaboration between classroom teachers and resource teachers, it is hard for either model to work out successfully. However, the challenges collaboration brings are noticeable as well. According to the participants, it took them a lot of effort to figure out a way that worked for both their students and them. Even though the model used at Isabella had remained the same for the last couple of years, the students changed and so did the curricula for some subjects, such as the new spelling curriculum. Thus, every school year is new and challenging for them. They had to make accommodation to continue their collaboration in order to implement their model appropriately and effectively.

One of the challenges participants at both inclusion models faced was that they had to find the "right person" to work with. They strongly believed that having "the same work ethic" and "a certain personality" played an important role in a healthy co-teaching relationship. In addition, one participant pointed out that collaboration

with another teacher was kind of “like a marriage, we have to work on it.” Moreover, they needed to make a commitment to what was being implemented. Ms. Elisa commented,

Sometimes we might have to quit doing other things, we have a set time when we meet once a week for an hour to plan and touch base to see where we are, to see where the kids are academically or behaviorally. The paraprofessional’s suggestions and opinions are also received the same respect.

Furthermore, sometimes the number of students in small groups became fairly large as when the students’ reading and math levels moved up, the students were moved to the next level group. The number of the students in each group fluctuated as the students made progress and the teachers needed to regroup students accordingly.

Frustrations and struggles

None of the participating teachers believed that they could do inclusion without collaborating and co-teaching with another teacher and the resource teachers. Besides the difficulty of finding “the right person” to work with, at the initial stage of collaboration, they had to spend tremendous amounts of time figuring out a model that was practical, applicable, and effective, which also required them to be flexible and willing to make changes in order to meet the needs of their students. Ms. Lydia at Indiana remarked,

The whole picture is that you have to have teachers who are highly motivated to try to make it work and make sure the students will success, so they can try to figure out something that will work out for the students. In our model, we all work very hard, and we both are very committed to it. We were so desperate to find out the way. Collaboration, you know, is a big thing.

Ms. Elisa at Isabella noted,

You have to be willing to. We are not isolated, you know there are some teachers who still think that teaching is isolated and they don’t want to share kids, they don’t want to share rooms. You have to be willing to, it’s kind of like marriage, you are not alone. If somebody really wants to work with other people, and willing to share ideas, share their resources, and share their personal space, their rooms, they can work together wonderfully, just to break up their own kingdoms. I know it doesn’t work for all people. I think it can work, in what we are doing here; nothing will work out without collaboration.

The participating teachers were very positive about their models, yet they understood there was no perfect model. They could be frustrated when the small groups tended to become large and they had to regroup the students again to keep the groups small or when the noise in their rooms tended to be distracting due to many small groups going on at the same time. After all, they learned to cope with their frustrations because their goal was to meet the needs of all students and help them succeed. As Ms. Lydia said, “Whatever it takes.....” Apparently, the

participants' desire to help ELLs and all students succeed, their willingness to collaborate, and their commitment to make it work helped them overcome their struggles and frustrations.

DISCUSSION

The findings show that ELLs placed in two inclusion models was instructed in small groups (Carter, 1984) during reading instruction time, depending on the students' instructional levels. This result is consistent with the findings of Faltis (1993) and Begoray (2001). However, in the current study, the first-grade students received shorter guided reading instruction time than the second- and third-grade students.

Unlike the findings of many previous studies (Layzer, 2000; McLesky & Waldron, 1996; Wade, 2000a), the results of this study found that the participating teachers were very positive about their inclusion models even though the two models were quite different, which is in agreement with the study of Honigsfeld and Dove (2010). The results confirm the recommendations of team teaching and instruction in small group settings from previous studies (DeLeeuw & Stannard, 2000; Elliot & McKenney, 1998; Honigsfeld & Dove, 2008, 2010; Wertheimer & Honigsfeld, 2000; York-Barr, Ghere & Sommerness, 2007).

In this study, instead of collaboration between ESL specialists with classroom teachers (Honigsfeld & Dove, 2008), two classroom teachers either at the same grade level or different grade levels team taught. In one model, the school reading specialist was part of the team. The findings suggest that it is difficult for one classroom teacher to implement an inclusion model because the students in one room are at various academic levels. Team teaching is an effective way to include all the students in the room; at the same time, each student's needs could be met, which is in agreement with the study of York-Barr, Ghere & Sommerness (2007) and the recommendations made by Honigsfeld & Dove (2008, 2010). The participating teachers in both inclusion models used different strategies and practices to facilitate students' learning such as whole-class instruction, small-group strategies, individual instruction, group and individual conferencing, and independent learning, which were suggested by Wertheimer and Honigsfeld (2000) and Honigsfeld and Dove (2008, 2010). In this study, both teachers and the reading specialist modified their instruction and curriculum according to the students' instructional levels, which echoed the research of Anstrom, 1997; DeLeeuw & Stannard, 2000; Harklau, 1994; Harper & Platt, 1998; Stainback & Stainback, 1996; Watts-Taffe & Truscott, 2000. Paraprofessionals were part of the collaboration team, which confirmed the suggestions made by Elliot & Mckenny (1998) and Honigsfeld & Dove (2010).

In terms of the support the participants received from their administrators, it was apparent that their administrators created “physical and virtual spaces that support the collaborative team’s planning and instruction for ELLs” (Honigsfeld and Dove, 2010, p.147) by blocking the special time and reading/language arts time as well as provided the needed physical facilities such as the arrangement of the classrooms for the collaborating teachers. Regarding the teachers’ workload in this study, the participating teachers did not feel that their workload increased because of collaboration. At one school, a classroom teacher even felt her workload decreased because she only needed to plan for the struggling readers for both classrooms. The resource teachers went to the classrooms to work with ELLs and students with special needs. Therefore, scheduling was not difficult for the participating teachers in this study. As a result, the disruptions caused by students going in and out of classroom were decreased (Elovitz, 2002).

The findings of this study strongly indicate that inclusion can work for ELLs and confirmed principles and strategies recommended by Honigsfeld and Dove (2010), but it is difficult for one classroom teacher to accomplish this job. The results signify that team teaching plays an important role in closing the achievement gap (Zehr, 2006, Honigsfeld & Dove, 2008, 2010). Collaboration is the key to the success of inclusion programs, but it is impossible to make it happen overnight, which echoes the study of York-Barr, Ghore and Sommerness (2007) and Honigsfeld and Dove (2010) in terms of building up knowledge that assisted and promoted collaboration as well as assigned personnel strategically.

Teachers are individuals, and their mindsets about teaching have been shaped by their personal educational backgrounds, the training they received, their teaching experiences, and their individual personalities. No doubt, change takes time, but being open-minded toward collaboration and co-teaching can help speed up the process. In order to meet the diverse needs of ELLs and all students, more collaboration between classroom teachers and resource teachers is needed; without collaboration and effective communication, the academic and social needs of students are hard to be reached.

As long as inclusion programs are implemented, argument about their effectiveness, strengths, challenges, and weakness will continue. No perfect model has been identified for ELLs and learners with special needs. Schooling is constantly changing and students are changing as well (McLesky & Waldron, 1996), therefore, there is no perfect model or program formula for a certain school to follow. Classroom teachers and resource teachers need

to collaborate and work together to help their ELLs and all students succeed. Regardless of a particular model, meeting every student's needs should be the goal, and this goal is reachable.

Recommendations for inclusive practices

1. For school and district with a large population of ELLs, administrators should provide training to the in-service teachers on inclusive practices, specifically, on how to implement a model.
2. Administrators should provide all possible support and encourage teachers to team teach and offer them the freedom in terms of how a model should be implemented.
3. Administrators should provide training to paraprofessionals regularly so that they could assist both classroom and resource teachers in a more effective way.
4. Clari (1993), William (2001), and Youngs and Youngs (2001) pointed out that the curricula of the teacher preparation programs at the college levels need to incorporate the needs of the public schools into their mandatory courses. Based on the findings of this study, university and colleges should offer courses that cover inclusive practices for ELLs so that the prospective teachers could be better prepared for the challenges of working with diverse learners.

Limitation of the study

The perspectives of the participating teachers of the two delivery models for ELLs at two elementary schools were investigated at an in-depth level and their voices about implementation of their model were heard. Although the participants were positive about their inclusive practices and believed their model worked well for their students, descriptive data are needed to explain the gain in students' academic achievement. Therefore, a study on the ELLs' improvement in inclusion models is recommended to further and deepen the study.

LISHU YIN had taught ESL/EFL from K-12 to college level for 16 years before she joined in the College of Education of Columbia International University. She holds a PhD in Curriculum and Instruction and a MA in Teaching English as a Second Language.

REFERENCES

- Anstrom, K. (1995). New directions for Chapter 1/Title 1. *Directions in Language and Education*, 1(7), 3–14.
- Anstrom, K. (1997). *Academic achievement for secondary language minority students: Standards, measures, and promising practices*. Washington, DC: Office of Bilingual Education and Minority Language Affairs (ED). (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED417596)
- Antunez, B. (2003) *English language learners in the great city schools: Survey results on students, language and programs*. DC: Council of the Great City Schools. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 479473)
- Baker, E. T., Wang, M. C., & Walberg, H. J. (1994/1995). The effects of inclusion on learning. *Educational Leadership*, 52(4), 33–35.
- Begoray, D. (2001). The literacy groups project: Investigating the use of reading recovery techniques with small groups of grade 2 students. *Alberta Journal of Educational Research*, 47(2), 141–155.
- Byrnes, D. H., Kiger, G., & Manning, M. L. (1997). Teachers' attitudes about language diversity. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 13(6), 637–644.
- Carter, L. F. (1984). The sustaining effects study of compensatory and elementary education. *Educational Researcher*, 13(7), 4–13
- Clair, N. (1993, April). *ESL teacher educators and teachers: Insights from classroom teachers with language-minority students*. Paper presented at the 27th annual meeting of the Teachers of English to Speakers of Other Languages, Atlanta, GA.
- Chamot, A. U., & O'Malley, J. M. (1987). The cognitive academic language learning approach: A bridge to the mainstream. *TESOL Quarterly*, 21(2), 227–249.
- Colorin Colorado (2011). *Glossary*. Retrieved from <http://www.colorincolorado.org/glossary/>
- Creswell, J. (2003). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches*. 2nd ed. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Cummins, J. (1984). *Bilingualism and SPED: Issues in assessment and pedagogy*. San Diego, CA: College-Hill Press.
- DeLeeuw, H., & Stannard, S. (2000). Young learners: Merrily down the mainstream. *American Language Review*, 4(2). Retrieved March 31, 2006, from <http://www.languagemagazine.com/internetedition/ma00/leeuw.html>

- Elliott, D., & McKenney, M. (1998). Four inclusion models that work. *TEACHING Exceptional Children*, 30(4), 54–58.
- Elovitz, L. (2002). Let's cut out all those classroom interruptions. *Principal*, 81(5), 57–58.
- Faltis, C. J. (1993). *Joinfostering: Adapting teaching strategies for the multilingual classroom*. New York: Macmillan Publishing Company.
- Fattig, M.L., & Taylor, M.T. (2007). *Collaboration, lesson design, and classroom management, grades 5-12*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Ferguson, D. L. (1995). The real challenge of inclusion. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 77(4), 281–287.
- Friend, M. (2008). *Co-teach! A handbook for creating and sustaining classroom partnerships in inclusive schools*. Greensboro, NC: Marilyn Friend Inc.
- Fuchs, D., & Fuchs, L. S. (1998). Competing visions for educating students with disabilities: Inclusion versus full inclusion. *Childhood Education*, 74(5), 309–316.
- Harklau, L. (1994). ESL versus mainstream classes: Contrasting L2 learning environment. *TESOL Quarterly*, 28(2), 241–272.
- Harper, C., & de Jong, E. (2004). Misconceptions about teaching English language learners. *Journal of Adolescent and Adult Literacy*, 48(2), 152–162.
- Harper, C., & Platt, E. (1998). Full inclusion for secondary school ESOL students: Some concerns from Florida. *TESOL Journal*, 7(5), 30–36.
- Honigsfeld, A. & Dove, M. (2008). Co-teaching in the ESL classroom. *The Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin*, 74(2), 8-14
- Honigsfeld, A. & Dove, M. (2010). *Collaboration and co-teaching: Strategies for English learners*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin.
- Layzer, C. (2000, March). *Who's afraid of bilingual learners? The role of teachers' attitudes and beliefs*. Paper presented at the Annual Spring Conference of the National Council of Teachers of English, New York, NY.
- Ma, J. (2002). *What works for the children? What we know and don't know about bilingual education*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard Civil Rights Project. (ERIC Document reproduction Service No.467092)
- McLesky, J., & Waldron, N.L. (1996). Response to questions teachers and administrators frequently ask about inclusive school programs. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 78(2), 150–156.

- Merriam, S. (1998). *Qualitative research and case study application in education*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Miller, K. (2003). *English language learners and the No Child Left Behind Act*. Washington, DC: Department of Education. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. 482752)
- Mohan, B. A. (1986). *Language and content*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- National Clearing House for English Language Acquisition (2011). The growing numbers of English learners students. Retrieved from http://www.ncele.gwu.edu/files/uploads/9/growingLEP_0809.pdf
- Penfield, J. (1987). ESL: The regular classroom teacher's perspective. *TESOL Quarterly*, 21(1), 21–39.
- Schmidt, M.A. (2000). Teachers' attitudes toward ESL students and programs. In S. E. Wade (Ed.), *Preparing teachers for inclusive education: Case pedagogies and curricula for teacher educators* (pp. 121–128). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Snow, M. A., Met, M., & Genesee, F. (1989). A conceptual framework for the integration of language and content in second/foreign language instruction. *TESOL Quarterly*, 23(2), 201–207.
- Snow, M. A., Met, M., & Genesee, F. (1992). Language minority students in multicultural classrooms. In A. Richard-Amato & M. A. Snow (Eds.), *The multicultural classroom* (pp. 5–15). White Plains, NY: Longman.
- Smelter, R., & Rasch, B. W. (1995). The times, they are a-changing'. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 76(6), 484–485.
- Stainback, W., & Stainback, S. (1984). A rationale for the merger of special and regular education. *Exceptional Children*, 51(2), 102–111.
- Stainback, W., & Stainback, S. (1996). Learning together in inclusive classrooms. *TEACHING Exceptional children*, 28(3), 14–19.
- Turnbull, A.P., Turnbull, H.R., Shank, M., & Leal, D. (1995). *Exceptional lives: Special education in today's schools*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Merrill/Prentice Hall.
- U.S. Department of Education (2003). Office of English Language Acquisition, Language Enhancement, and Academic Achievement for Limited English Proficient Students. Non-regulatory guidance on the Title III state formula grant program: Part II: Standards, assessment, and accountability, Elementary and Secondary Education Act, as amended by the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001.
- U.S. Department of Education (2006). Secretary Spellings announces final limited English proficiency regulations. Retrieved from <http://www2.ed.gov/print/news/pressreleases/2006/09/09132006a.html>

- Wade, S. E. (2000a). Case 13: Inclusion for all? Dilemmas of a school's move toward inclusion. In S. E. Wade, (Ed.). *Inclusive education: A case book and readings for prospective and practicing teachers* (pp.195–202). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Wade, S. E. (2000b). Case 14: Conflicts in collaboration. In S. E. Wade, (Ed.). *Inclusive education: A case book and readings for prospective and practicing teachers* (pp. 203–212). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Watts-Taffe, S., & Truscott, D. M. (2000). Using what we know about language and literacy development for ESL students in the mainstream classroom. *Language Arts*, 77(3), 258–265.
- Wertheimer, C., & Honigsfeld, A. (2000). Preparing ESL students to meet the new standards. *TESOL Journal*, 9(1), 23–28.
- William, J. (2001). Classroom conversations: Opportunities to learn for ESL students in mainstream classrooms. *Reading Teacher*, 54(8), 750–757.
- Yatvin, J. (1995). Flawed assumptions. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 76(6), 482–484.
- Yin, L. & Hare, D. (2010). Pullout or inclusion: A longitudinal study of reading achievement of English language learners in grades 1 and 2. *Journal of School Connections*, 2(1), 75-79
- York-Barr, J., Ghere, G., & Sommerness, J. (2007). Collaborative teaching to increase ELL student learning: a three-year urban elementary case study. *Journal of Education for Students Placed at Risk*, 12(3), 301-335.
- Youngs, G. A., Jr., & Youngs, G. S. (1999). Mainstream teachers' perceptions of the advantages and disadvantages of teaching ESL students. *MinnTESOL/WITESOL Journal*, 16, 15–29.
- Zehr, M. (2006). Team-teaching helps close language gap. *Education Week*. 26(14), 26-29.
- Zigmond, N., & Baker, J. (1996). Full inclusion for students with learning disabilities for students with learning disabilities: Too much of a good thing? *Theory Into Practice*, 35, 26–34.
- Zigmond, N., & Jenkins, J. (1995). Special education in restructured schools. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 76(5), 531–540.