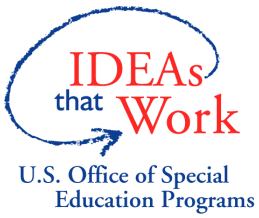

Responsiveness-to-Intervention Symposium

December 4-5, 2003 • Kansas City, Missouri

The National Research Center on Learning Disabilities, a collaborative project of staff at Vanderbilt University and the University of Kansas, sponsored this two-day symposium focusing on responsiveness-to-intervention (RTI) issues.

The symposium was made possible by the support of the U.S. Department of Education Office of Special Education Programs. Renee Bradley, Project Officer. Opinions expressed herein are those of the authors and do not necessarily represent the position of the U.S. Department of Education.

The Three Tier Model for Identifying Learning Disabilities: Critical Program Features and System Issues

Joseph F. Kovaleski

Indiana University of Pennsylvania

When citing materials presented during the symposium, please use the following: "Kovaleski, J. F.(2003, December). *The Three Tier Model of Idetifying Learning Disabilities: Critical Program Features and System Issues.* Paper presented at the National Research Center on Learning Disabilities Responsiveness-to-Intervention Symposium, Kansas City, MO."

Abstract

This paper was invited as a response to articles by Grimes and Kurns (2003), Kamps and Greenwood (2003), and McMaster, Fuchs, Fuchs, & Compton (2003), regarding implementation of interventions in the first and second tiers of a three-tier model of identifying learning disabilities. This model, in which response to intervention (RtI) is assessed within a dual discrepancy approach for determining eligibility for special education, is discussed in terms of its historic basis in public special education law. A teaming process to support group-based interventions in general education in Tier One is proposed. Interventions in Tier Two are discussed in terms of the essential features of operating problem-solving teams and/or implementing standard protocol treatments for groups of students. The necessary system changes that will need to occur to realize a fully functioning three-tier assessment and intervention model are considered.

Kovaleski, J. F.(2003, December). *The Three Tier Model of Idetifying Learning Disabilities: Critical Program Features and System Issues.* Paper presented at the National Research Center on Learning Disabilities Responsiveness-to-Intervention Symposium, Kansas City, MO

The Three Tier Model for Identifying Learning Disabilities: Critical Program Features and System Issues

Historical Seeds of the Three Tier Model

Concerns about the procedures for identifying students with learning disabilities (LD) began immediately with the passage of the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (EHA; PL 94-142) in 1975. Within six years of the introduction of EHA Regulations, researchers had identified a number of problems with the procedures that had been codified as regulations for identifying LD (Ysseldyke, et al., 1983). A central issue has been the concern that the regulated ability-achievement discrepancy approach leads to the determination of special education eligibility for some students whose academic deficiencies are a result of a lack of effective instructional practices rather than a verifiable disability.

It is notable that legislators have not been unaware of this controversy. Indeed, even the original (and still current) language of the 1977 EHA Regulations reflects this concern:

> A team may determine that a child has a specific learning disability if (1) The child does not achieve commensurate with his or her age and ability levels in one or more of the areas listed in paragraph (a)(2) of this section, *if provided with learning experiences appropriate for the child's age and ability levels* [italics added] (§300.541)…. A team may determine that a child has a specific learning disability if … there is a severe discrepancy between achievement and ability *that is not correctable without special education and related services* [italics added] (§300.543).

While the italicized phrases are often overlooked in practice, they appear to reflect an early understanding that students who are not provided with appropriate and effective instruction might look like students with learning disabilities. These regulations indicate that even students who display ability-achievement discrepancies may not be deemed eligible for special education if their deficiencies can be corrected without specially designed instruction (i.e., they can be corrected in general education).

In reauthorizing the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) in 1997, Congress apparently understood that these sentiments were being ignored on a national level. In the proceedings leading to the reauthorization, the House Committee noted the following:

> The Committee intends that professionals, who are involved in the evaluation of a child, give serious consideration at the conclusion of the evaluation process to other factors that might be affecting a child's performance. There are substantial numbers of children who are likely to be identified as disabled because they have not previously received proper academic support. Such a child often is identified as learning disabled, because the child has not been taught, in an appropriate or effective manner for the child, the core

Kovaleski, J. F.(2003, December). *The Three Tier Model of Idetifying Learning Disabilities: Critical Program Features and System Issues.* Paper presented at the National Research Center on Learning Disabilities Responsiveness-to-Intervention Symposium, Kansas City, MO.

> skill of reading….The Committee believes this provision will lead to fewer children being improperly included in special education programs where their actual educational difficulties stem from another cause and that this will lead schools to focus greater attention on these subjects in the early grades (US House of Representatives, 1997).

These concerns led to the new requirement in 1997 that "a child shall not be determined to be a child with a disability if the determinant factor for such determination is lack of instruction in reading or math …" (IDEA §614[b][5]). While this provision should have driven school evaluation teams to ensure that students had been carefully taught with evidence-based instructional practices, it is believed that practitioners at the local level have neither understood the full ramifications of this requirement nor have they implemented specific procedures for making this determination.

It is with this historic backdrop that Congress is now considering even more specific language that would clearly articulate to local education agencies (LEAs) its apparently long-held desire that evaluation teams distinguish students with verifiable learning disabilities from those who are deficient because of the failure of schools to instruct all students effectively, especially in the primary grades. The currently proposed language would not require an LEA to utilize an ability-achievement discrepancy approach, and would allow for a consideration of the student's response to intervention (RtI) as part of a comprehensive evaluation for special education eligibility. The RtI approach has been recommended not merely to revise the procedures for the identification of LD, but also to embed the identification process within the context of the provision of scientifically based instruction to all children (President's Commission on Excellence in Special Education, 2002).

The RtI approach has been conceptualized as a dual-discrepancy model (Fuchs, 1995; Fuchs & Fuchs, 1998), in which the student needs to not only be deficient in critical academic skills, but also show a low rate of learning in response to effective instructional practices. This determination would occur within the context of three tiers:

1. Tier One: School-wide screening and group intervention.
2. Tier Two: Identification of individual students who fail to respond to Tier One interventions, along with the provision of individually tailored interventions.
3. Tier Three: Long-term programming for students who fail to respond to Tier Two interventions (e.g., special education).

This movement to establish effective instructional practices for students who may be otherwise referred for special education is properly contextualized by the contemporaneous national implementation of the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act. As Grimes and Kurns (2003) indicated, the focus of all schools is now on the academic attainments of all students, not just those who are very deficient. The IDEA and NCLB laws can be seen as complementary efforts to establish effective instructional practices and significantly improved outcomes for all children.

The potential passage of the new special education provisions regarding LD begs the question of how schools will implement procedures for determining RtI. It is clear that if specific procedures are not promulgated, the RtI option will be ignored, as was the requirement to determine if a lack of instruction was a determinant factor in the

student's assessed academic deficiency. In conceptualizing these procedures, a number of issues emerge. First, there seems to be a lack of clarity about what exactly is to occur in Tier One. In this paper, a proposal for what might optimally be accomplished in Tier One will be offered.

Second, Tier Two has been conceptualized as involving either the development of interventions targeted to an individual student through a team-based problem-solving process or interventions for groups of students based on standard protocols (Fuchs, Mock, Morgan, & Young, 2003). Grimes and Kurns (2003) have articulated a viable problem-solving model that has been in operation in the Heartland Area Education Agency. The "Iowa Model" articulates many of the critical features of the problem solving process that would support Tier Two interventions, and is particularly helpful in understanding the nexus between Tiers Two and Three, as students are considered for eligibility for special education based on information gathered in the first two tiers. Alternatively, McMaster et al. (2003) and Kamps and Greenwood (2003) described implementations of the standard protocol approach. An important issue with both of these approaches is the types of procedures and organizational changes that will need to be in place to ensure that scientifically based instructional practices can be brought to scale in general education. In this paper, essential procedural, logistic, and systemic factors regarding both school-based problem-solving teams and the implementation of formalized, protocol-like approaches will be discussed.

Essential Features of Tier One

In Tier One of the three-tier model, all of the students at a grade level are assessed to determine which ones have not developed the benchmark skills that are requisite for that grade and time of year. The Dynamic Indicators of Early Literacy Skills (DIBELS) approach (Good & Kaminski, 2002) has been widely advanced as a model procedure for this screening function, because it precisely identifies which students in the primary grades have not acquired the essential early reading skills that are necessary for success at the next level of instruction. The task of the school at this point is to upgrade its efforts at whole-group instruction to intervene effectively with the deficient students. This process is not the same as providing a fundamentally sound instructional program for all students, although such a program is clearly implicit in these school reform efforts. Rather, the challenge at Tier One is to further differentiate an already effective curriculum for students who are lacking the necessary precursor skills for success at the current level. Because of the substantial effort required to adapt the instructional program for struggling students, it is reasonable to believe that problem-solving teaming should be introduced at this stage to support efforts to differentiate instruction. Schmoker (1999) has articulated a related process that may well serve as a model for effective teaming at this stage. In Schmoker's process, teams of grade-level teachers work from district-wide data (e.g., results of standardized group tests) to identify students not meeting various standards, set goals for the entire group, and brainstorm class-wide instructional plans that are intended to close the gap. Using this process as a framework, the following steps for Tier One teaming can be envisioned:

1. Procedures are put in place for assessing the entire grade level on a set of critical skills that are directly linked to state standards (e.g.,

DIBELS) and are assessed on a regular basis (e.g., quarterly).
2. The resulting data are managed in such a way that user-friendly data summaries are produced.
3. A team consisting of all teachers at a grade level, other support personnel (e.g., remedial specialists, school psychologists, etc.), and the school principal meet on a quarterly basis to review the data summaries.
4. Students categorized as deficient according to pre-set cut scores are identified, and measurable goals are set for the entire group of students for the next check point. For example, the team may project that there will be an increase from 50% to 75% of students demonstrating proficiency on the benchmark by the next quarter.
5. The team brainstorms a set of instructional changes that are intended to address the needs of the deficient students in the context of continual progress for the entire group. It should be noted that these changes should consistent with the procedures in place in a school that has established a foundational instructional program that is scientifically based and is producing positive outcomes for large percentages of students. In schools that have not adopted such building-wide effective practices, these brainstormed ideas may serve as initial attempts to move toward more effective class-wide and school-wide practices.
6. The team strategizes what supports need to be in place during the intervening quarter so that the brainstormed strategies can be implemented with sufficient fidelity in each classroom. For example, teachers might schedule time to observe each other in implementing the new strategy; or a specialist might model the strategy in the classroom.
7. Teachers implement the new strategies.
8. The team reconvenes at the end of the quarter to review the progress of all students.

In Tier One, the focus is on making large-scale changes to the instruction for entire groups of students, with a particular focus on how these changes are affecting the deficient students. Specialists are available for instructional design and transitory supports, but do not provide remedial services. The principal is actively involved in supervising and supporting the process, in order to monitor the effects of the process on the overall mission of the school to achieve its adequate yearly progress (AYP) targets that are required by NCLB.

In a school that uses this teaming process at Tier One within an already established effective foundational instructional program, three benefits can be imagined: (a) The ability of teachers to differentiate for and succeed with larger numbers of students should improve; (b) a set of non-responders to effective, supported instruction should be identified for further intervention in Tier Two; and (3) limited remedial resources can be reserved for students with more significant or intractable problems in Tiers Two and Three.

Essential Features of Tier Two

There appear to be differing opinions about what should happen during the second tier of the three-tier model. There is consensus that this stage is designated for students who fail to make acceptable progress in Tier One. It is notable that, to date, Tier One in-

terventions have not been in place in many of the large-scale programs that have provided these secondary (Tier Two) interventions. It is likely that assisting more students in the general education program in Tier One will have impact on how Tier Two operates. While there is not yet a research base on how these two processes would interact, it is reasonable to predict a set of issues that are likely to emerge in the implementation of Tier Two interventions. Two particular issues emerge. First, what are the essential features of a team-based problem-solving process that would support effective Tier Two interventions for individual students in the general education classroom? Second, are there students who need more intensive and longer-term interventions that are delivered in group formats outside of the general education classroom using a standard protocol approach? In considering these questions, it is necessary to address implications for the organization of other remedial (non-special) education programs that are typically operated in schools.

School-based problem solving teams. The extant models for delivering secondary interventions for individual students are based in school-based problem-solving team models. Examples include Pennsylvania's Instructional Support Teams (ISTs; Kovaleski Gickling, Morrow, & Swank, 1999), Instructional Consultation Teams (Rosenfield and Gravois, 1999), and the Iowa Model (Grimes and Kurns, 2003). All of these approaches focus on a team of teachers and specialists consulting with classroom teachers on individual students through a problem-solving process. The goal is to craft adaptations to the instructional program in the general education classroom that are intended to resolve the "problem" presented by the target student, while having a positive impact on the instructional program for all students.

Based on experiences with the statewide implementation of ISTs in Pennsylvania, Kovaleski (2002) articulated a number of "best practice" features that should be in place in operating school-based problem-solving teams. These features can be conceptualized as additions to a basic teacher assistance team (TAT) approach that was the pioneering effort in this area (Chalfant, Pysh, & Moultrie, 1979). In the TAT model, a team of teachers identified the problem, set a measurable goal, brainstormed solutions, made recommendations to the classroom teacher, and reconvened to determine the effects of the intervention.

Kovaleski, J. F.(2003, December). *The Three Tier Model of Idetifying Learning Disabilities: Critical Program Features and System Issues.* Paper presented at the National Research Center on Learning Disabilities Responsiveness-to-Intervention Symposium, Kansas City, MO.

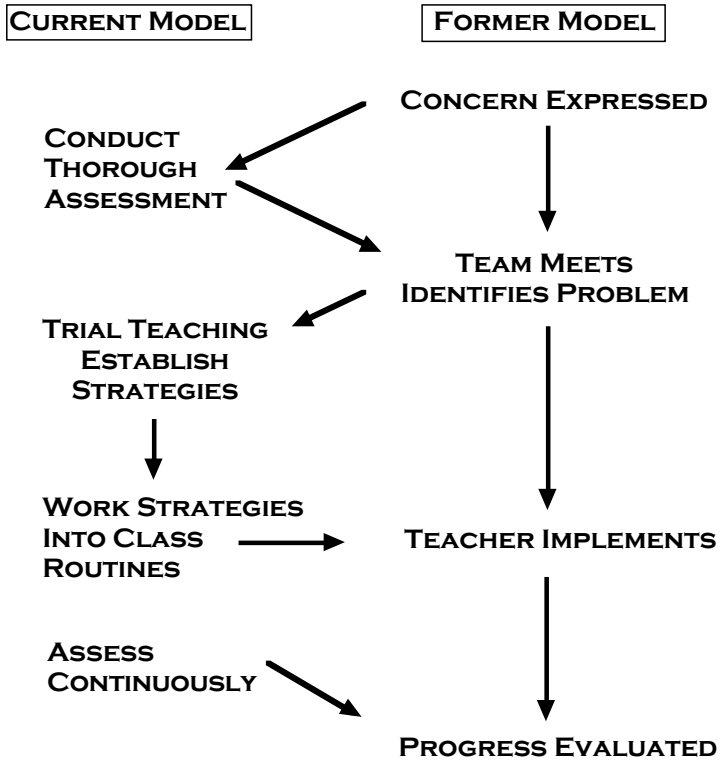

Figure 1. Addition of program features in the current problem-solving teaming model with original features of former teacher assistance team model.

As indicated in Figure 1, a number of special functions need to be added to the (former) TAT model to increase the effectiveness of the problem-solving process. These features include using curriculum-based assessment (Gickling & Thompson, 1985) to assist in problem identification, and curriculum-based measurement (Shinn, 2002) for ongoing progress monitoring and evaluation of the effectiveness of the intervention. Additionally, Kovaleski (2002) noted that it is critical that a team member work in a collaborative, peer-coaching format to establish the intervention in the general education classroom. This procedure is designed to eliminate the common problem of teams creating useful solutions, but failing to achieve treatment fidelity in the classroom (Flugum & Reschly, 1994). By actively working with the target student in the classroom during the early stages of the intervention, the consulting team member, who is knowledgeable about the delivery of the suggested strategy, can determine the effectiveness of the intervention, while modeling it for the classroom teacher. It is presumed that such "hands-on" assistance will alleviate teacher "resistance" to the intervention that is commonly reported in teams that use only verbal consultation techniques.

Another unique process feature identified by Kovaleski (2002) is the procedure of having the consulting team member work with the classroom teacher to embed the successful intervention into the daily

classroom routine. As the consulting team member fades out of the intervention, the classroom teacher takes full responsibility for the ongoing implementation. When the strategy is used in a whole- or small-group format, there is a presumed greater likelihood for the intervention to continue beyond the time limits of the support process. There is also the potential that the successful intervention will have impact on other non-target students who may have similar needs.

As "pre-referral" teams become Tier Two problem-solving teams, it is believed that these process features will be especially needed in establishing effective procedures on a system-wide basis.

Group-based interventions outside the regular classroom. It is well established that the school-based problem-solving team process is effective with large groups of students, but falls short of resolving the difficulties faced by all students served by the model. For example, Hartman and Fay (1996) found that 85% of students served by ISTs in Pennsylvania were not referred for evaluation for special education. The referral rate figure of 15% corresponds closely to the number of students identified by Grimes and Kurns (2003) and Kamps and Greenwood (2003) as needing secondary interventions. (Again, it is unknown if this percentage might be lower in a system that had viable Tier One and Tier Two programs in place.)

Just who these students might be may be conceptualized by considering the two dimensions of the dual-discrepancy model -- level of performance and rate of learning (Fuchs, 2003). Students who are identified for support but who are at or near the typical class-wide performance level with a typical rate of learning may be able to be served by simple consultation with the classroom teacher or by a school-based problem solving team. This group would include students who display behavior or performance problems in the classroom, but who have otherwise average academic functioning levels. Similarly, team-based support for the classroom teacher might well suffice for students who at or near typical academic performance levels, but who are displaying a lower rate of learning. These problems are probably transient in that the students would have had to have near typical learning rates in previous grades to be at or near typical performance in the current grade. Their current slower rate of learning may be a function of needing to learn new and more complex material or a result of some environmental event that may have an impact on school performance (e.g., divorce, death of a parent).

The 15-20% of students who fail to respond to in-class interventions developed through problem-solving teams undoubtedly require remedial services outside of the general education classroom. These students can be conceptualized as having significantly lower levels of performance than their grade-level peers. A number of authors (Fuchs et al.. 2003; Vaughn & Fuchs, 2003; Vaughn, Linan-Thompson, & Hickman, 2003) have suggested that these students need a short-term course of pull-out intervention that is based on a standard protocol of empirically validated instructional treatments. McMaster et al. (2003) suggested that such interventions need to be "special-education-like," including immediate corrective feedback, mastery of content before moving to the next lesson, more time on activities that are especially difficult, more opportunities to respond, fewer transitions, setting goals and monitoring progress, and the development of a special relationship with a tutor. While these authors suggested that progress for such students may require

one-to-one tutoring, others have had success with small groups of three to six students (Kamps & Greenwood, 2003; Vaughn et al., 2003).

While there appears to be a consensus that the intervention for these students needs to be intensive and research-based, the length of these interventions seem less clear. Vaughn and Fuchs (2003) suggest that these types of secondary interventions be of fixed duration (e.g., 10 to 15 weeks). Students who display accelerated rates of learning during this period, and in fact, close the gap in performance level with their non-struggling peers are cycled back to the general education classroom. Students who display consistently low rates of progress during these intensive interventions would be referred to Tier Three for consideration for special education.

A pragmatic issue about this scenario is simply whether this is enough time to make a defendable decision about special education eligibility. It is conceivable that students who have experienced a lack of effective instruction because of poor curricular and instructional approaches or because of situational factors like frequent family location changes may be so far behind that they will require more than one year to make enough progress to be adequately taught without an intensive pull-out program. This situation would particularly pertain to many urban schools in which large percentages of students are well below proficiency levels. It also pertains to students who are identified as being deficient beyond the primary grades. From roughly fourth grade on, it is difficult for general education programs to meet the needs of students who have very deficient proficiency levels.

Two alternatives to this dilemma can be suggested. First, students who display low performance and low rates of learning after a time-limited course of intensive, standard-protocol intervention could be identified as eligible and provided with a special education program. This approach would likely increase the numbers of students in special education, especially in school districts that have large numbers of students below basic academic levels. This problem may be somewhat offset if special education were understood to be a transient service. That is, as students' rates of learning accelerated, and the gap between performance levels closed, students could be exited from special education. Unfortunately, historic trends would have to be reversed in this scenario, because most students who enter special education programs never exit.

A second alternative is to provide special-education-like interventions for extended periods of time (e.g., up to two years) without identification of the student as eligible for special education. In 1989, a number of national organizations envisioned such a process in the "Right without Labels" (RWL) position paper (National Association of School Psychologists, 2002). The RWL concept allowed for the provision of special education services for a limited time during which parental due process rights were protected, but the student was not identified as eligible for special education. The RWL process would enable school teams to gather multiple assessments of the student's level and rate of learning over a longer period of time. By doing so, it is imagined that the reliability and validity of the eligibility decision would be improved, while avoiding the "wait to fail" aspect of the current procedures (President's Commission on Excellence in Special Education, 2002).

Whether LEAs will want to utilize special education teachers in providing direct instructional services for students who

are not identified as having disabilities will undoubtedly be a controversial topic. Given special education funding levels in many LEAs, it may be necessary to reserve special education teachers for those students who display low levels of proficiency and low rates of learning over extended periods of time. These intractable students may require the type of adaptations to curriculum, instruction, planning, and materials that have (or should be) provided in a fully realized special education program. The other obvious functionaries at this stage are remedial teachers and specialists who are already providing longer-term interventions for students. Considering the implementation of standard-protocol interventions may be synonymous with restructuring these services to ensure that scientifically based instruction is being used.

Regardless of who provides these services, it is likely that, at a building level, it will be necessary for school principals to reconceptualize available remedial resources into a more seamless system. It has long been acknowledged that "(t)he principal reports that growing numbers of children with problems are being referred to her office, possibly because the existing specialized programs have been organized into a set of little 'boxes' that leave many children 'falling through the cracks'" (Reynolds, Wang, & Walberg, 1987, p. 392). To eliminate this fragmentation of services, it will be necessary to take a more flexible approach to service delivery. Kamps and Greenwood (2003) provided an excellent set of organizational factors that will have to be changed to realize intensive Tier Two interventions, including "special and general educators pooling resources … creative/flexible scheduling to allocate sufficient time to small group instruction … creative uses of personnel resources i.e., many people teaching reading groups … [and] flexibility providing curriculum changes to support key early literacy skills; staff support for increased use of phonics-driven curriculum for larger numbers of students (p.11)."

These considerations reflect well the extent of the restructuring that will need to occur at the building level. Rather than assignments according to job title (e.g., remedial reading teacher, Title I teacher, etc.), all professional staff who do not teach grade-level general education classes could be deployed as a "literacy team," whose mission is to provide assessment and interventions that are directly targeted to students' needs. These services may be transitory, short-term periods of standard-protocol interventions, or longer-term special-education-like services. To accomplish this blending of roles and services, the traditional barriers that have existed across specialists in the schools will need to be broken down. Currently, different specialists (e.g., remedial reading vs. special education) read different journals, attend different conferences, often have different terminology, and frequently have different beliefs about how to teach. There needs to be a consensus at the LEA level about what works from a scientifically based perspective, followed by cross-training for all specialists in a common set of evidence-based techniques. Only when all specialists are fully trained in these procedures can they be deployed flexibly to meet students' needs. Ideally, specialist should be considered to be fungible, so that any available specialist can step in to provide the types of pull-out or push-in services that are needed for an individual or group of students.

The Need for Leadership

The nation's schools stand at yet another crossroads. On the one hand, there now exists a set of instructional procedures

that have been amply demonstrated through empirical research to bring large groups of children to acceptable levels of literacy (Denton, Vaughn, & Fletcher, 2003). There is now a federal law (i.e., NCLB) that appears to require that these practices are used. The proposed changes to IDEA that would encourage a different approach to identifying learning disabilities through an RtI method is consistent with these movements. Using an RtI approach would likely have the intended indirect consequence of encouraging teachers to use these scientifically based practices, which should simultaneously reduce the numbers of students who are significantly below proficiency levels, and correspondingly reduce or level the number of students in special education.

On the other hand, to accomplish these goals will require a rethinking of how schools are operated and how educational knowledge is used at the local level. The categorical system of different specialists delivering different instructional programs based on theoretical rather than research-based models needs to give way to coherent remedial services that are directly targeted to students' needs and are flexible enough to change as these needs change. School officials (superintendents, curriculum directors, special education directors, and building principals) need to understand educational research and put in place foundational instructional programs that are evidence-based. One would hope that the emergence of consistent research findings would have ended the various educational "wars" (i.e., reading, mathematics), but they have not. Consequently, at the LEA level, school leaders need to embrace a skeptical and rigorous posture to make the changes that are needed for all students to succeed.

References

Chalfant, J. C., Pysh, M. V. & Moultrie, R. (1979). Teacher assistance teams: A model for within-building problem solving. *Learning Disabilities Quarterly, 2,* 85-95.

Denton, C. A., Vaughn, S., & Fletcher, J. M., (2003). Bringing research-based practice in reading intervention to scale. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice, 18(3),* 201-211.

Flugum, K. R., & Reschly, D. J. (1994). Prereferral interventions: Quality indices and outcomes. *Journal of School Psychology, 32 (1)*, 1-14.

Fuchs, D., & Fuchs, L. S. (1998). Treatment validity: A unifying concept for reconceptualizing the identification of learning disabilities. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice,13,* 204-219.

Fuchs, D., Mock, D., Morgan, P. L., & Young, C. L. (2003). Responsiveness-to-intervention: Definitions, evidence, and implications for the learning disabilities construct. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice, 18(3),* 157-171.

Fuchs, L.S. (1995). Curriculum-based measurement and eligibility decision making: An emphasis on treatment validity and growth. Paper presented at the Workshop on Alternatives to IQ Testing. Washington, DC: National Academy of Sciences.

Kovaleski, J. F.(2003, December). *The Three Tier Model of Idetifying Learning Disabilities: Critical Program Features and System Issues.* Paper presented at the National Research Center on Learning Disabilities Responsiveness-to-Intervention Symposium, Kansas City, MO.

Fuchs, L. S. (2003). Assessing intervention responsiveness: Conceptual and technical issues. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice, 18(3),* 172-186.

Gickling, E.E. & Thompson, V. P. (1985). A personal view of curriculum-based assessment. *Exceptional Children, 52*, 205-218.

Good, R. H., and Kaminski, R. A. (2002). *Dynamic indicators of basic early literacy skills (6th edition)*. Eugene, OR: Institute for the Development of Educational Achievement.

Grimes, J., & Kurns, S. (2003). An intervention-based system for addressing NCLB and IDEA expectations: A multiple tiered model to ensure every child learns. Paper presented at the Responsiveness to Intervention Symposium sponsored by the National Research Center on Learning Disabilities, Kansas City, MO.

Hartman, W.T., & Fay, T.A. (1996). Cost-effectiveness of instructional support teams in Pennsylvania. *Journal of Education Finance, 21 (4),* 555-580.

H.R. Rep. No. 105-95, 105th Cong., 1st Session. (1997).

Individuals with Disabilities Education Act. (1999). 34 C.F.R. 300 (Regulations), Regulations Implementing IDEA (1997), *Federal Register, 64(48),* March 12, 1999.

Kamps, D. M., & Greenwood, C. R. (2003). Formulating secondary level reading interventions. Paper presented at the Responsiveness to Intervention Symposium sponsored by the National Research Center on Learning Disabilities, Kansas City, MO.

Kovaleski, J.F. (2002). Best practices in operating prereferral intervention teams. In Thomas, A. & Grimes, J. (Eds.), *Best practices in school psychology IV* (pp. 645-656). Washington, DC: National Association of School Psychologists.

Kovaleski, J. F., Gickling, E. E., Morrow, H., & Swank, P. (1999). High versus low implementation of instructional support teams: A case for maintaining program fidelity. *Remedial and Special Education, 20*, 170-183

McMaster, K. L., Fuchs, D., Fuchs, L. S., & Compton, D. L. (2003). Responding to nonresponders: An experimental field trial of identification and intervention models. Paper presented at the Responsiveness to Intervention Symposium sponsored by the National Research Center on Learning Disabilities, Kansas City, MO.

National Association of School Psychologists. (2002). Position statement on rights without labels. In Thomas, A. & Grimes, J. (Eds.), *Best practices in school psychology IV* (1735-1737). Washington, DC: Author.

No Child Left Behind Act of 2001. Pub. L. No. 107-110, 115 Stat. 1425 (2001).

President's Commission on Excellence in Special Education. (2002). *A new era: Revitalizing special education for children and their families*. Washington, DC: Author.

Reynolds, M.C., Wang, M.C., & Walberg, H.J. (1987). The necessary restructuring of special and regular education. *Exceptional Children, 53*, 391-398.

Rosenfield, S. A., & Gravois, T. A. (1996). *Instructional consultation teams: Collaborating for change*. New York: Gilford.

Schmoker, M. (1999). *Results: The key to continuous school improvement*. Al-

exandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Shinn, M. R. (2002). Best practices in using curriculum-based measurement in a problem-solving model. In Thomas, A. & Grimes, J. (Eds*.), Best practices in school psychology, IV* (pp. 671-697).Washington, DC: National Association of School Psychologists.

Vaughn, S., & Fuchs, L. S. (2003). Redefining learning disabilities as inadequate response to instruction: The promise and potential pitfalls. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice, 18(3),* 137-146.

Vaughn, S., Linan-Thompson, S., & Hickman, P. (2003). Response to instruction as a means of identifying students with reading/learning disabilities. *Exceptional Children, 69,* 391-409.

Ysseldyke, J.E., Thurlow, M.L., Graden, J., Wesson, C., Algozzine, B., & Deno, S. (1983). Generalizations from five years of research on assessment and decision making. *Exceptional Education Quarterly, 4*, 75-94.