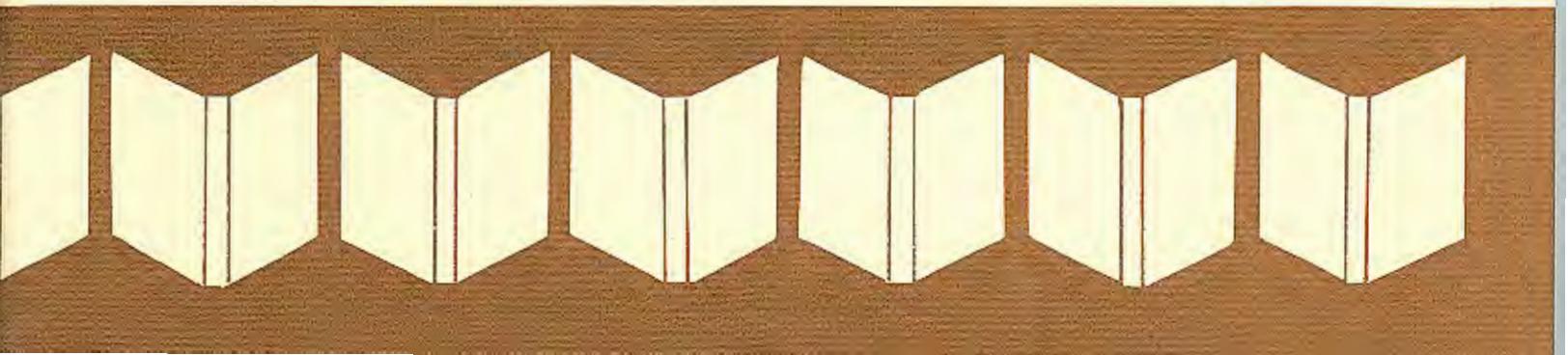


ISSN 0146-9282

spring
1978

educational considerations

published at kansas state university college of education



This publication is sponsored by the Dean's Grant, Kansas State University and supported by the Department of Personnel Preparation, BEH, HEW (Grant #G00-75-00516). The opinions expressed, however, are those of the authors and no endorsement by HEW is implied.

Viewpoint

Understanding the exceptional child

The education of exceptional children in the "regular classroom is the pressing issue challenging education. Many trends and programs have swept through the institution of education without disturbing the established "truths." Perhaps, the most far reaching changes are embodied in PL 94-142. The new law's (PL 94-142) requirements for extensive and early identification, full service program alternatives, due process guarantees, non-discriminatory testing and evaluation assurances and regular parent or guardian involvement are perplexing and extensive.

The list of requirements continues with stipulations for maintenance of programs and procedures for comprehensive personnel development including in-service training, a guarantee of confidentiality of data and information, special education offered in the least restrictive alternative, surrogate parents for children who have no known parent or guardian and the right of all handicapped children to a free, appropriate public education, at no cost to parents or guardian.

These educational assurances to children and their parents cannot be considered a trend, and no longer can it be viewed as a movement. They are now mandates. The potential impact of the compliance requirements may modify educational traditions, existing services and sanctities more than any other recent challenges and inventions.

Teaching and administrative skills, long neglected, but now crucial to the effectiveness of responsible education must be developed and practiced. Communication skills become increasingly important and necessary. People from a variety of disciplines will be required to function as a team. Parents, and perhaps children, will become members of a working team. They will have a great deal to learn about communicating their personal experiences and expectations for their children.

The attitude of school personnel towards exceptional children is the cornerstone to offering an education in the least restrictive alternative. A teacher that feels little responsibility to an exceptional student placed in his/her classroom will probably not be supportive of the student nor will he/she model a level of acceptance to other class members.

If PL 94-142 is implemented only to meet the "letter of the law," then the potentially good aspects for education will be largely missed. Individual educational plans that will be most helpful in meeting student's needs will demand considerable attention and time. The development of the Individualized Education Plan (IEP) has the potential of being a constructive effort promoting a relationship among core people who support a student's efforts and achievement. If this joint effort is less than successful, the intent and support will be undermined.

The opportunity for education to become personal and relevant is here. As educators, we shall soon know if we have the necessary commitment to a better education for all children. Educators must accept and work with shared decision making. Building administrators will have new responsibilities and more meetings to facilitate.

The responsibilities of all who are part of the teaching and support team may need to be established or clarified. Seldom will the major responsibility of education of an identified exceptional child rest with only one person. General and special education will need to interface, accepting supportive assistance from other resources. If any member of the team presumes to have greater expertise or feels they carry more responsibility in managing the educational program, barriers and breakdowns are likely to occur.

An appreciation by the teachers for individual differences and abilities will forecast the success of the educational placement of the student. Compliance of programs and procedures can be legislated, but attitudes can seldom be altered by command. Positive teacher attitude may be facilitated by requiring introductory courses that provide awareness of children with a variety of characteristics, abilities and needs. Such courses should be offered early in pre-service educational programs. Other measures should be taken to train future and present teachers in curriculum and management strategies that assure attention to individual needs.

The notion that classrooms will be primarily for homogeneous groups can no longer be promoted. Greater appreciation and understanding for differences in people can begin with the acknowledging and accepting of differences in children and their needs in the educational setting.

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Educational Considerations is published three times yearly in fall, winter and spring. Editorial offices are at the College of Education, Holton Hall, Kansas State University, Manhattan, Kansas 66506. Correspondence about manuscripts and reviews should be addressed to the Editor. Unsolicited manuscripts should be accompanied by a self-addressed envelope with sufficient postage to insure its return. No remuneration is offered for accepted articles or other material submitted.

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Printed in the United States of America.

educational considerations



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Meeting the special needs of exceptional children is a responsibility to be shared by all educators.

Mainstreaming: Issues and answers

by Bill R. Wagon seller and Donald F. McHenry



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Since the early nineteenth hundreds, most of the classes established for special education students in the United States have been segregated, self-contained classes designed for children in specific categorical classifications, i.e.: mentally retarded, emotionally disturbed or learning disabled. These were the students that also were affected by the compulsory attendance law that stated their education was complete after they reached 16 years of age, or had completed the eighth grade.

In the last decade the need to bridge the gap between regular education and special education has been emphasized by both researchers and court litigations. Teaching handicapped and non-handicapped children together in the same classroom is the greatest challenge that faces both regular and special educators as we look to the future.

The term "mainstreaming" refers to the integration of students with special needs into a resource room, while remaining as much a part of the regular school program as possible. Mainstreaming involves focusing on a student's specific needs and abilities rather than on categorical labels such as "educationally handicapped," "learning disabled" or "mentally retarded." The specifics of a mainstreaming program are to provide the student with effective, appropriate instruction without depriving the student of the social and personal benefits of the regular classroom.

It is difficult to avoid not being a proponent for the mainstreaming concept after considering the implications of the Education for all Handicapped Children Act of 1975 (P.L. 94-142). This law, and the guaranteed civil rights law of Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, both include the right to equality of educational opportunity not confined to those labeled bright or normal.

The most important words in this provision are "appropriate" and "least restrictive environment." It is a misconception to assume that least restrictive environment automatically means that all handicapped students will be mainstreamed. For some students, the least restrictive environment could indeed be a combination of the regular classroom and resource room for periods of varied times and activities. For other children, the least restrictive environment may be a self-contained program.

Each individual student covered by the law is to have an individualized written instructional plan designed for his or her special education needs. This plan must be reevaluated on at least an annual basis by appropriate professional personnel and the parents or guardian of the child. The program should be developed so as to integrate the child into the regular classroom or regular school activities as much as possible. Students for whom integrated programs are not appropriate must be provided an educational plan requiring full time placement in a resource room or self-contained classroom.

The major problem with educators accepting mainstreaming or the resource room concept is that there has never been a clear understanding of what either concept means. Most school districts have made their own interpretations, and these interpretations have often been more in favor of administration, and not necessarily in the best interest of the special education pupils.

The resource room model has been developed for children requiring special education support, but who also

need "regular" education if their "self" concept, as well as other social and emotional aspects of a child, are to develop normally. The primary goal of the resource room is to provide the kind of instructional support to both the child and his teacher that makes it feasible for the child to return to the regular class. The authors see mainstreaming as a treatment approach for special education students, and the resource room concept as the place where the special education training will be conducted. The child, no matter what the disability or problem, should never be placed in the resource room over three or four hours a day. If the child needs more than the recommended three or four hours, he or she should be in a self-contained classroom. It is essential that the overall emphasis of the program be on experiencing success.

Since the nineteen-sixties there has been strong support from educators to move from teaching special education students by categorical label, to mainstreaming special education with individualized programming. Advocates of mainstreaming do not believe that teachers can teach by labels. Therefore, teachers and psychologists must be responsible for evaluating each child, finding his or her individual strengths and weaknesses and developing a comprehensive and effective individual educational plan from those findings.

Chaffin (1974) listed the following factors that have contributed to school districts changing their delivery system for educating mildly and moderately retarded children.

1. The equivocal results of research dealing with the effectiveness of special classes for the mildly retarded.
2. The recognition that many of the diagnostic instruments used for identifying retarded children were culturally biased, which often resulted in inappropriate diagnosis and placement of children into special classes for the retarded.
3. The realization on the part of special educators that the effects of "labeling" a child may be more debilitating than the diagnosed handicapped.
4. Court litigation in special education related to placement practices and the rights of children to appropriate educational treatment.

Other leaders in the field that have stated similar positions are Dunn, 1968; Dunn, 1973; Tilley, 1970; Kalstoe, 1972; Hammill and Wiederholt, 1972. Hammill and Wiederholt (1972) listed some procedures and policies that were classified as acceptable in earlier years, but have been reviewed and later reclassified as being "controversial." The points in question are in regard to the placement of children with learning and behavioral disorders: 1.) The use of the traditional psycho-medical disability classification system, with its heavy emphasis on "diagnosis" and "labeling," 2.) The criteria employed by school personnel to designate children as handicapped, and 3.) The use of the special class as the only or primary vehicle for providing services to the handicapped. Because of these and other difficulties in classifying children with learning and behavior problems into distinct categories, teachers are confronted with an unfair share of the responsibility for the individual child's education. The teacher is trained to write individual education programs, but is not trained to teach according to the unknown qualities denoted by labels or categories.

We have reviewed the problems of self-contained classrooms, categorical classification, reification and the basic elements of the current law requiring the least restrictive, appropriate environment. We must now examine some of the shortcomings of mainstreaming, and specific ways that local school districts can provide a more effective and appropriate program for more children.

Shortcomings:

1. Programs are based on the number of students instead of instructional and programming needs.
2. Little consistency exists between evaluation, monitoring and programming between special education teachers and regular classroom teachers.
3. Little consistency exists between special educational programs in the same district.
4. There is a lack of comprehensive information in the cumulative records.
5. Out-of-state or district information is often lacking.
6. Evaluation procedures and responsibilities are unclear.
7. There is a lack of sufficient funds to support the program needs; i.e.: physical plant, materials, equipment and consumables.
8. Little sharing or distribution of materials exists for flexibility of levels, and for better meeting the needs of changing enrollments.
9. No prerogative is established for appropriate parental involvement.
10. No release time is allotted for the observing and updating of programs for methods, materials, etc.
11. Identification is seldom individually determined, but rather is often based on norms, percentages, and comparative analysis.
12. Once referred—**always** identified, labeled and placed. Large numbers are programmed for reading programs, speech, special education, etc.
13. Administrators are held accountable for pupil counts in respect to funding, release time and materials. "For numbers and not severity."
14. Little in-service is held on the part of regular educators or administrators for special education.
15. Few supportive personnel for regular and special education teachers are provided; i.e.: grade school counselors, consultants, paraprofessionals, etc.
16. No communication is provided on ancillary programs or community resources as alternatives for referrals.
17. No release time is provided for special education teachers to view programs in higher grades.
18. No planned time or structure for open lines of communication between staff, administrators, and parents is provided.

The authors do not mean to suggest that there are any instant formulas for resolving the shortcomings listed. However, all are resolvable with a cooperative effort on the part of all educators. Solutions to these problems tend to fall into four basic areas: 1.) Training; 2.) Organization; 3.) Communication; and 4.) Support. Let's look at each of these in detail.

Training:

It is apparent that a lot of misinformation and individual interpretation exists at all levels regarding the concept of mainstreaming. Teacher training institutions must adjust to meet the new emphasis in special education, but so must local education agencies in the form of preservice and inservice programs. Administrators, special and regular teachers, ancillary personnel and parents must all become adequately informed as to the roles, responsibilities, and changing emphasis of special education. General coursework in special education should become a requirement for recertification for both teachers and administrators. In addition, incentive programs should be implemented for parent training and to promote their increased involvement in the educational process. A significant part of personnel training should include release time and opportunities to visit and observe other programs and approaches used in the field.

Organization:

The organizational structure and policies of special services to children must maintain an element of flexibility if the emphasis of the program is to be on the individual. There must be a willingness to modify methods, materials and levels of placement according to changing needs. Opportunities for sharing and exchanging both materials and ideas is essential for an effective program. At the same time, it is important to maintain written long and short term objectives, with well defined time lines and specific support services required, as a means of insuring steady, significant progress. Procedures for monitoring and evaluating progress must be well established, with clearly established responsibilities for the assignment of grades.

Communication:

It has been said that it is impossible to not communicate. Though this may be true, much of the communication occurring in education is either a result of chance, or becomes engulfed in "hidden agendas" and/or barriers to the effective sharing of information. Planned conferences, programmed lunches and newsletters can all facilitate improved communication and awareness. Specific times should be designated for the purpose of

reviewing student progress by all persons involved with the student, including the parents. Administrators, staff and parents must all communicate openly for optimum program effectiveness.

Support:

Providing appropriate, comprehensive educational services requires more than an individual effort by a few teachers. Supportive personnel are an essential part of any educational program. Elementary level counselors, educational consultants, media specialists, diagnosticians and paraprofessionals all contribute significantly to a well balanced approach to providing special student services. Support personnel can assume a greater role in the implementation of informal and formal standardized remediation techniques. Teachers also need to be informed as to the community resources available which might provide alternatives or additional support to the special education program. Perhaps the most critical problem is that of financial support. Sufficient funds are necessary to support program needs at all levels. Districts need to review their priorities, and attempt to lend maximum financial support to providing appropriate, equal education to all students. Funding, as well as staff assignments, might be better allotted by using a "weighted" FTE, based upon the degree of severity in determining the numbers in a special education class. In addition, federal funds are still readily available for financing special projects in special education. Parents, and other special interest groups, can be extremely helpful in gaining support for special programs.

Meeting the special needs of exceptional children is a responsibility to be shared by all educators. Mainstreaming should be viewed as nothing more than an administrative arrangement designed to provide the least restrictive and most appropriate program possible to meet the individual needs of these children.

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Teachers should be taught to expect behavioral and emotional variety and deviance in their regular classrooms

Providing education for emotionally disturbed children in the least restrictive environment

by Robert H. Zabel



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Probably no children are less welcome in regular educational classrooms than those who present behavioral and emotional disorders. In the past, where public school programs have been provided for such children, they have generally involved separation of the disturbing child from the regular program into special self-contained classes, resource rooms or home bound instruction (Schultz, Hirshoren, Manton & Henderson, 1971).

For a number of years, concern has been expressed by some educators regarding the efficacy, as well as the ethical issues, involved in educating children who are mildly mentally retarded in segregated programs (Dunn, 1968; Goldstein, Moss & Jordan, 1965), since most research conducted in this vein has failed to demonstrate significant, stable academic and social gains for children in these programs.

Most studies that have examined educational interventions for emotionally disturbed/behavior disordered children have not evaluated the efficacy of entire programs, but have concentrated on the effectiveness of particular methods or techniques (Zabel and Wood, 1977). However, the few comparative studies involving entire programs have also generally not substantiated the long-term efficacy of either resource rooms (Glavin, 1974) or special self-contained classes (Quay, Werry, McQueen & Sprague, 1966; O'Leary and Schneider, 1977) for producing either academic or behavioral gains.

There is also some evidence that "spontaneous" improvement or remission of symptoms occurs over time with as many as 2/3 of children who are considered emotionally disturbed (Glavin, 1972; Vaac, 1972; Zax, Cowen, Rappaport, Beach and Laird, 1968).

In addition to growing educational and ethical concern about the appropriateness of different educational settings for exceptional children, including the emotionally disturbed, the recent Education of All Handicapped Children Act (1975) adds legal and financial pressures from the federal level to provide appropriate education of exceptional children in the least restrictive settings. For several years, the Bureau for Education of the Handicapped has sought to encourage less restrictive education, as evidenced in their financial support of the so-called Dean's Projects intended to promote the development of teacher-training programs emphasizing preparation for "mainstreaming" handicapped children.

Even with legal and financial promotion, however, the question remains of just what constitutes appropriate and least restrictive education for emotionally disturbed children. A recent comprehensive (guide) bibliography on

"mainstreaming" did not include any references dealing with disturbed children (Peterson, 1976). While much has been published regarding conceptual concerns and implementation of mainstream programs for children with other handicaps, the first collection of articles addressing mainstreaming of emotionally disturbed children has only recently been published (Pappanikou and Paul, 1977). The issue of least restrictive and appropriate education for emotionally disturbed/behavior disordered children involves a number of sub-questions, including:

- Who are emotionally disturbed children?
- How many disturbed children are in the schools?
- What kinds of programs should be provided?
- What types of training and support should teachers receive?

Defining emotional disturbance

No instrument has yet been devised to accurately determine the existence of emotional or behavioral problems, and it is unlikely that any ever will be. Some handicapping conditions (e.g., visual, auditory, and orthopedic handicaps) can be partly determined on the basis of physical or physiological measures. For others (e.g., mental retardation, learning disabilities) there are diagnostic instruments purported to objectively indicate something about general ability and/or particular learning patterns of children. As inappropriate as some of these measures may sometimes be for educational planning, at least they provide a systematic means for diagnosing the handicapping condition. In determining emotional disturbance, on the other hand, diagnosis is based largely upon judgment. It is a normative decision.

Widely differing theories regarding the nature of disturbance have been proposed (Rhodes and Tracy, 1974). Some view disturbance as representing underlying biophysical or psychological dysfunctions. Others ignore underlying pathology and concentrate on the form of behavior itself, how it is learned and why it is socially deviant. In addition, ecological analyses of emotional disturbance, postulating a clash between "culture bearers" and "culture violators" resulting in alienation, have been presented as an additional interpretation of disturbance. These major theoretical interpretations of emotional disturbance have also been challenged by "counter theorists" who analyze the "illusion of normality" (Rhodes, 1977).

It seems justified to view emotional disturbance as taking many forms, perhaps as varied as the individuals and settings involved. Essentially, it may indicate the perception by one person of another person's deviance. In school settings, this usually means the perception of disturbance in a child by school authorities (teachers, administrators, psychologists, etc.).

Incidence of emotional disturbance

Like defining disturbance, estimates of incidence rates in school-aged populations are difficult to pin down. Schultz, et al. (1971) reported that state education directors' estimates range from .05 to 15 percent, with the modal value (in 15 states) being 2 percent and overall distribution of estimates at about 2.5-3.0 percent. 2 percent is also the widely cited figure of the United States Office of Education (Mackie, 1969; Froomkin, 1972).

However, there is apparently little basis for these estimates other than "expert opinion" (Wood and Zabel, 1978), and several field studies which have been based largely upon teacher judgments of disturbance have yielded considerably higher rates. For example, studies involving elementary-aged populations have yielded estimates of 22 percent (Stennett, 1966), 28 percent (Rubin and Balow, 1971), and 24 percent (Salvia, Schultz and Chapin, 1974). In a study involving students in Kindergarten through grade 12, Kelly, Bullock and Dykes (1977) found that teachers identified 20 percent as behavior disordered.

What can one make of these apparent disparities between incidence estimates ranging from 1.2 to 28 percent? A partial answer may be suggested in a report of the Joint Commission on Mental Health of Children (1969) which discussed emotional disturbance on a continuum of severity. The Commission estimated that 0.67 percent of the child population are psychotic, 2-3 percent are "severely disturbed," and another 8-10 percent are afflicted with emotional problems calling for specialized services.

This type of estimate, based upon severity of disturbance may be related to the low "official" incidence figures and the higher teacher estimates cited above. A number of interpretations may be offered concerning the differences between experts and teachers in estimating the prevalence of behavior problems. One interpretation might be that teachers are less tolerant of problem behavior than administrators or clinicians. A related, though perhaps more reasonable, interpretation is that teachers have more contact with groups of children than either clinicians or school administrators and are thus exposed to more problem behavior (Wood and Zabel, 1978). Of course, measurement procedures used in screening studies can also strongly influence incidence estimates (Salvia, et al, 1974).

There is evidence that different teachers view emotional disturbance differently. Balow and Rubin (1977) found that 58 percent of a sample of 370 students in a longitudinal study were classified as behavior problems by at least one teacher during six consecutive years of screening, yet only 3 percent were rated behavior problems by all six teachers. Apparently, over the years, all teachers do not view the same children as problems, yet the above studies do indicate that each year teachers see a large percentage of their students as behavior problems.

Provision of programs for disturbed children

While teachers view as many as 20-30 percent of their students as problems, a much smaller number—probably nearer the low incidence figures of 2-3 percent—can be viewed as serious, chronic problems requiring specialized interventions in more restrictive educational settings such as residential schools, self-contained classes or even resource rooms. In some cases, with proper programming and support, even some of these more disturbed children can be maintained in regular programs (Moller, 1964).

Obviously, the majority of disturbing children should remain in regular classrooms with regular teachers and typical peer models. It is unreasonable and unjustified to segregate 20-30 percent of the school-aged population into special programs. Indeed, paying too close attention to

possibly transient problem behavior may actually cause them to persist and intensify.

Does this mean that nothing should be done with the large number of troublesome children remaining in regular programs? No, it should not be assumed that, because children in this category do not present chronic kinds of disturbances or because their behavior does not concern every teacher, the issue should be ignored. Some kinds of support should be provided for teachers to help them deal with the problem behavior.

Support for regular classroom teachers

Support for teachers in dealing with disturbing behavior could take a variety of forms. Because of the apparent size of the problem; and since it is a major source of teachers' concern, it is important to provide services in both pre-service and in-service teacher training.

In teacher-training programs, for instance, teachers should be taught to expect behavioral and emotional variety and deviance in their regular classrooms. Developmental perspectives, including study of behavioral deviations from normal patterns of development should be an explicit part of training teachers for "mainstream" education. Efforts should also be made to arrange practicum experiences in "mainstream" programs that include children with a variety of exceptionalities.

Regular classroom teachers should also be taught that, for most problem behavior, highly specialized training is not required. Research (cited above) has generally shown regular programs to be as beneficial for emotionally disturbed children as separate special programs. Regular class teachers should be taught that teachers who are good managers of emotionally disturbed children are usually those who are good managers of typical children (Kounin, Frielsen and Norton, 1966; Kounin and Abradovic, 1968). They should also be aware that emotional disturbance is not contagious. There is no evidence that the presence of an emotionally disturbed child in a class has a detrimental effect on the behavior of non-disturbed students (Saunders, 1971).

Both pre- and in-service training for regular classroom teachers should emphasize behavior management skills. These need not be especially complex, sophisticated, or time consuming but rather emphasize basic classroom and group management techniques of a nonintrusive nature that have been shown to have an impact on the efficient operation of classrooms. Examples of such techniques are the "antiseptic manipulation of surface behaviors" outlined by Redl and Wineman (1952) which include specific procedures for defusing potentially troublesome behavior in ways that are also therapeutic. Kounin (1970) has described some related types of teacher behaviors, such as "with-it-ness" (ways of communicating the teacher's awareness of what is going on in the classroom, "group alerting" (keeping students alert and on-task), and "slowdowns and smoothness" (initiation and maintenance of the class's movement). Techniques such as these are fundamental to successful management of groups of children and probably contribute more to a positive classroom atmosphere and improvements in problem behavior than much of the more complicated, intrusive programming requiring specialized training.

In addition to pre- and in-service training considerations, regular teachers working with disturbed children in their classes could benefit from actual day-to-day assistance to deal with the children's disturbing

behavior as well as the stress they themselves experience. A possible vehicle for providing this kind of support could be resource teachers serving as consultants. These persons would be able to assist teachers with specific management problems by actively observing, collecting data, monitoring behavioral programs, providing advice regarding modifications in materials and curriculum, as well as offering support, encouragement and perhaps "time out" relief to teachers by directly assisting in classroom programs.

It may be that the individual who could successfully fulfill the demands of such a role would be an exceptional person. It may also be that the role could be jointly filled by a team of personnel who already operate in schools. Principals, counselors and resource room teachers often may jointly have the skills to effectively provide support for regular classroom teachers dealing with emotionally disturbing children.

Conclusions

A large percentage of the school-aged population is viewed by teachers as presenting emotional and behavioral problems. Even when these behaviors are transient and characteristic of normal developmental stresses, they can cause anxiety and problems of classroom management for regular classroom teachers. It is clearly inappropriate to provide special educational programs for most of these children, at least in terms of special educational placements, yet it is also unreasonable to assume that the disturbing behavior perceived by teachers in regular classrooms is not a real problem. Consequently, efforts should be made to provide teachers with the expectation for behavioral and emotional deviance in their regular classrooms, to provide instruction in basic methods of classroom management, and most importantly, to provide continuous, accessible support for regular teachers in dealing with day-to-day classroom problems.

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The author feels that more research is needed in this area.

Integrating handicapped and nonhandicapped preschool children: Issues in program development

by Mary Kay Zabel



Mary Kay Zabel is currently teaching courses for Kansas State University in the area of Emotional Disturbance. She completed a Ph.D. in Educational Psychology at the University of Minnesota in 1977. Her major area of interest is early childhood special education.

Concern for the educational situation of pre-school children with special needs was evident in this country as early as 1930. In that year the White House Conference on Children, convened by President Hoover, issued a 'Children's Charter,' outlining the aims and goals held by the Conference. These included:

XIII. For every child who is blind, deaf, crippled or otherwise physically handicapped, and for the child who is mentally handicapped, such measures as will early discover and diagnose his handicap, provide care and treatment, and so train him that he may become an asset to society rather than a liability . . .

XIV. For every child who is in conflict with society the right to be dealt with intelligently as society's charge, not society's outcast . . .

Provision was also made for young children in our society:

VIII. For every child a school which is safe from hazards, sanitary, properly equipped, lighted and ventilated. For younger children nursery schools and kindergartens to supplement home care.

(The Story of the White House Conferences on Children and Youth, pp. 10-12.)

Although it has taken some time, programs are now coming into being which combine these three objectives and attempt to serve the handicapped preschool child.

Many state legislatures have mandated programs for handicapped young children, and the Handicapped Children's Early Educational Assistance Act of 1968 provided a major boost for early education, but the major push for educating exceptional pre-schoolers came from Head Start.

Handicapped children were accepted into Head Start classrooms beginning in 1965, when the federal program was launched as part of the "War on Poverty." Until 1973, however, these children represented less than 5 percent of Head Start's total enrollment. Enrollment of pre-schoolers needing special education and other special services was mandated by the 1972 amendments to Head Start legislation (P.L. 92-424) which required "that not less than 10 percentum of the total enrollment opportunities in

the Nation . . . shall be available for handicapped children" (Klein and Randolph, 1974). This requirement marked the beginning of the application of mainstreaming to early childhood education (Nazzaro, 1974; Cohen, 1975; Bogdan, 1976; Garfunkel, 1976), and by 1973, 29,000 handicapped children joined Head Start classes. While the wisdom of this Congressional mandate has been questioned (Bogdan, 1976), the fact remains that this legislation brought great numbers of handicapped children in contact with their non-handicapped peers.

Of course, Head Start programs have not been the only preschools to integrate normal and handicapped children. Numerous programs have been reported in the literature, including those of Winkelstein, et. al. (1974) and Bricker and Bricker (1973; 1976) integrating retarded children; Pollack and Ernst (1973) and Strattner (1974) for hearing impaired or deaf children; and Lewis (1973) for various disabilities.

In addition to already existing programs, passage of PL 94-142, with its pre-school program incentive will no doubt result in the formation of more programs integrating handicapped and non-handicapped pre-school children.

Two reasons often presented in support of non-segregated programs for handicapped young children are, first, that early exposure to handicapped children will foster tolerance and acceptance by both the non-handicapped young children and their parents (Bricker and Bricker, 1976; Wolfensberger, 1972), and second, that the presence of non-handicapped peer models will contribute to the learning of young handicapped children. (Bricker and Bricker, 1976; Allen, 1974) Both of these rationales seem sound and sensible on the surface, but if they are to be used as reasons for creating mainstream programs, they must be examined critically.

Attitude studies

It is often assumed by special educators that early exposure to handicapped individuals will do much to alleviate fear and prejudice in non-handicapped individuals. One argument often presented to support the establishment of mainstream programs is that such programs will acquaint normal children with those who are handicapped. The assumption is that this early experience will make the non-handicapped group more tolerant and accepting, both as children and as adults. This is certainly a worthy goal, but there is very little research to support it. Studies examining change in attitude are fairly rare in education, and sociological studies tend to concentrate on the handicapped as a minority group.

One of the few studies even attempting to define the attitudes children have about other "exceptional" children was conducted by Billings in 1963. She used 54 randomly selected elementary school children, 18 each from first, third and sixth grade. Two projective techniques were administered to each of the subjects in an effort to identify existing attitudes (and to explore possible factors influencing their development) toward crippled children. Analysis of the data from these two instruments indicated that responses fell into two well-defined classifications; 1) social responses indicating acceptance or rejection of the crippled person and 2) value responses, indicating a judgment of the crippled person such as "He is no good" or "She can't do anything", etc.

Two of Billings' hypotheses were supported: 1) At-

titudes of noncrippled children toward crippled children are significantly more unfavorable than their attitudes toward noncrippled children; and 2) Attitudes toward crippled children are a function of the grade level (age) of the child holding the attitudes. In relation to this second hypotheses, the data revealed that the number of unfavorable responses increased as the children got older. The difference between the number of unfavorable responses at grade 1 and grade 6 was significant, ($p < .05$).

The third hypothesis Billings tested was not supported by the findings. She suggested that attitudes toward crippled children are a function of the social-emotional adjustment of the child holding the attitudes—i.e., children rated as well adjusted by their teachers are more favorable in their responses. Rather than finding a positive relationship between these two variables, however, inspection of the data revealed a significant negative relationship ($p < .01$). That is, the students judged to be high in adjustment were the same students who were most unfavorable in their attitudes toward crippled children. Little difference was found between the favorable and the unfavorable attitudes of the children who rated low in adjustment.

While there are some methodological difficulties with this study (lack of control of previous contact with a crippled person, reliability of instruments) these findings are especially relevant for early childhood educators. Since Billings found a definite decline with age in the tolerance of normal children for physically handicapped peers, perhaps there is a need to support and reinforce the tolerance shown by the younger sample. Perhaps the most valuable findings of this study are the data showing that children do have unfavorable attitudes about handicapped (crippled) children, and that these attitudes decline with age.

Rapier, Adelson, Carey & Croke (1972) attempted to measure change in the attitude of 142 children (grades 3, 4, 5) toward physically handicapped children. A group administered rating scale which contained twenty pairs of polar adjectives describing children's characteristics was given. The children were asked to respond to one of three verbal categories, e.g., don't need help, need help, need lots of help. The children were specifically directed to circle one of the three phrases in each row "that best tells about physically handicapped children". The scale was administered to the children by the classroom teachers in June, before the opening of an orthopedically handicapped unit on the elementary school's grounds. The rating scale was readministered about one year later to the same children who were then in grades 4, 5, and 6. At that time, all of these classrooms had had at least one orthopedically handicapped child integrated into the classroom for part of most of the day during the year. Also, the non-handicapped children had observed or had contact with handicapped children on the playground and in the auditorium for school events and programs.

There was a shift in attitudes among non-handicapped children after a year of integrated school experience. They perceived handicapped children as not as weak, not in need of as much attention, and more curious than they originally thought. Before integration, 34 percent of the non-handicapped children thought orthopedically handicapped children needed lots of help, but after integration only 20 percent continued to maintain that attitude. As the authors point out, it should be noted that on some of the items the majority of the non-

handicapped children had positive attitudes before integration; and there was no evidence that contact with handicapped children diminished those attitudes.

The major drawback to this study may be found in the nature of the instrument. By using only a self-report system, the experimenters may have been getting what the children knew they wanted to hear. Still, the Rapier study represents one of very few attempts to deal with evaluation of attitude change, and it is important to note that some change was measured, even though some children may have had only minimal contact with the exceptional children.

The handicapped children in both of these studies were of normal intelligence and had obvious physical handicaps. Mainstream preschool programs, however, usually contain children who are mentally retarded, hearing impaired, emotionally disturbed or multiply handicapped. Research is needed on the changes in attitude prompted by exposure to these types of children whose handicap is often more difficult for the preschool child to understand and accept.

Peer modeling studies

A second consideration often cited in the defense of mainstream programs in general, and especially at the preschool level, is the availability of normal peer models.

Research conducted in the area of social learning theory by Bandura and others (Bandura and Walters, 1963; Bandura and Rosenthal, 1966; Walters and Thomas, 1963) has demonstrated that human beings do learn by observing models. Furthermore, one learns most from a model who closely resembles oneself—or a peer model. The availability of normal models for handicapped preschool children could be a strong argument in favor of creating mainstream programs. Instead of segregating handicapped preschoolers so that their only models are other handicapped children.

Studies investigating the amount of interaction between handicapped and non-handicapped children in integrated settings have been reviewed by Snyder, Appoloni and Cooke (1977). Such studies have been conducted with retarded, behavior disordered and disadvantaged pre-school groups. The authors conclude that the research with pre-school groups is consistent with that of older elementary groups which indicates that integrated settings do not necessarily result in increased cross group imitation and social interaction between the handicapped and non-handicapped children (Snyder, Appoloni and Cooke, 1977).

One study which attempted to assess the amount of peer imitation by handicapped and non-handicapped preschoolers was conducted by Peterson, Peterson and Scriven (1977). Their handicapped population showed "serious developmental delay" and all the children involved in the study attended an integrated preschool. A series of tasks was taught to the first child, then the next child learned it from him, and so on through the class. Findings indicated that both non-handicapped and handicapped children were more likely to imitate a non-handicapped peer than a handicapped one, and the authors' hypothesis, that non-handicapped children constitute the most effective models for both non-handicapped and handicapped pre-schoolers, was supported.

In this study, however, the task was specifically taught to the first child, and other children were told to learn it from the child modeling it for them. This supports

a point made by Snyder, Appoloni and Cooke, as well as several other researchers. In order for peer imitation to be a successful learning tool for handicapped pre-schoolers, systematic teaching and reinforcement must accompany it. As Bricker and Bricker (1976) emphasize, Bandura's research has indicated that children are more likely to imitate behavior that produces observable reinforcing environmental events. The teacher must structure the situation so that such reinforcing events are immediate and obvious. It is not enough to put handicapped and non-handicapped children together in the same room and hope for imitation of desired behaviors.

K.E. Allen (1974) in a discussion of the Model Preschool in the Experimental Education Unit of the Child Development and Mental Retardation Center at the University of Washington describes the case of Julie, a 4 year-old girl who entered the program with delayed motor responses, infantile speech patterns and an extensive repertoire of inappropriate, maladaptive social behaviors. During the early days of Julie's enrollment in the integrated preschool program, no sign of improvement was noted, but when a systematic behavior modification program was set up, she acquired new behavioral skills and was able to interact with the other children successfully. Simple exposure to normal peers was not enough to overcome her behavioral disability, but when exposure to normal peers was coupled with a systematic remedial program, progress was noted.

Discussion

The two main arguments for early childhood mainstream programs—increased tolerance by the normal peers and positive models for the handicapped children—seem to be "common sense" reasons for establishing integrated programs. However, little research data has been presented to clearly define these advantages. While the Rapier study shows an increase in positive statements about physically handicapped children after interaction with them, the Billings study indicates that systematic teaching and reinforcement may be necessary to maintain those attitudes.

The peer interaction and modeling studies cited above emphasize the importance of having specially trained teachers to deal with both the handicapped and non-handicapped children in the integrated classes, since if each group is to benefit from the presence of the other, systematic teaching of peer imitation will be necessary.

If educators are to convince their colleagues and the public at large that mainstreaming is a beneficial way to educate the majority of handicapped and non-handicapped young children, there must be research evidence clearly showing this. Relying on assumptions that "seem like good ideas" will simply not do. Evaluation is necessary at all levels and steps of any mainstreaming program and we should begin with a serious evaluation of the proposed benefits of the program itself.

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Our schools cannot afford to invest time and money in redundant programs that have little real-world value.

Finding a main stream for the gifted

by Myrliss Hershey



Myrliss Hershey, assistant professor, is program developer for the area of gifted and talented at Kansas State University. She has been a classroom teacher in the areas of elementary grades 4-6, elementary and high school vocal music, hard of hearing and self-contained gifted classes. Dr. Hershey also was an elementary school counselor. Higher education experiences include Assistant Professor in Elementary Education, Friends University, Wichita, Kansas; and adjunct instructor in gifted education, Emporia Kansas State University. She directed a Title III E.S.E.A. project, Positive Self-Image. She received her Ph.D. from Kansas State University.

The phrase "least restrictive environment," sine qua non of the mainstreaming movement takes on an inverse connotation when applied to the gifted exceptional student. Historically the term referred to the need to alleviate some of the restrictions inherent in segregated classes for the mentally handicapped. It was postulated that educably handicapped students would benefit from the stimulation of a heterogeneous classroom. For gifted students a regular classroom may constitute a restrictive environment. Gifted students often work at "keeping behind" so they will not appear too different from their age-mates. A "less restrictive" environment would be one in which the gifted student would be challenged by content in keeping with his ability and one in which she could interact with intellectual peers.

As school districts are asked (mandated in Kansas) to add programs for the gifted to their special education priority lists the expedient temptation to apply program guidelines appropriate for the mentally handicapped to students who are environmentally handicapped must be countered before costly mistakes are made. Program provisions for the long-neglected minority of gifted students desperately need the protection of the special education umbrella; but if forced to operate under the regulatory processes appropriate for other special education students, programs for the gifted could be stifled before they flourish.

Traditionally gifted students have been swimming upstream **IN** the mainstream. According to a recent Office of Education report only one in 20 gifted students have had the benefit of discernible curricular adjustments appropriate to their ability. If these children of promise are to receive their rightful share of exceptional children subsidies, concerted effort is necessary to build bridges of communication between special and general educators. Common semantic ground—refreshed by streams mainly untainted by traditional biases—should be established.

Program planning for the gifted was given dramatic impetus in Kansas by House Bill 1672 which included gifted students in a special education mandate effective July, 1979. By this date state approved programs for the gifted necessitate the hiring of personnel certified in gifted education. A number of gifted education prototypes have been piloted in Kansas the past few years providing accessible "fishbowls" to observe the effectiveness of a

variety of program adjustments for gifted students. The following observations are presented as an attempt to cut through some prevailing myths and to clarify assumptions that might block meaningful program development for this highly educable minority.

Assumption: Status conscious parents will insist that their children be included in programs for the gifted, whether or not they qualify.

Observation: Parents have not been "storming the gates" to get their children into programs for the gifted. On the contrary there have been many reports of parental surprise when their children have been selected for special program provisions and oftentimes a reluctance to have them segregated from age-mates.

Assumption: Programs for the gifted will not be accepted by communities with strong egalitarian values.

Observation: Low profile programs with minimum use of labels have been received with no visible furor. These programs emphasize "matching students' needs with the purpose and objectives of the program." Problems of non-acceptance have appeared in situations where students have been selected for special programs on the exclusive basis of test scores with little or no input from classroom teachers, parents or students regarding specific individual needs. In such instances a backlash of resentment may fall on the students so selected.

Assumption: Students placed in programs for the gifted become snobbish—"effete elite."

Observation: Much to the contrary interaction with intellectual peers has a leveling effect along with cognitive stimulation. Programs which emphasize personal value clarification and social responsibility along with intellectual challenge encourage high level altruistic thinking.

Certain concerns emerge along with positive observations. There is evidence of need for clarification regarding the: a) mechanics and contingencies of state funding for gifted programs; b) interpretation of criteria for state approved programs; c) appropriateness of Individual Edu-

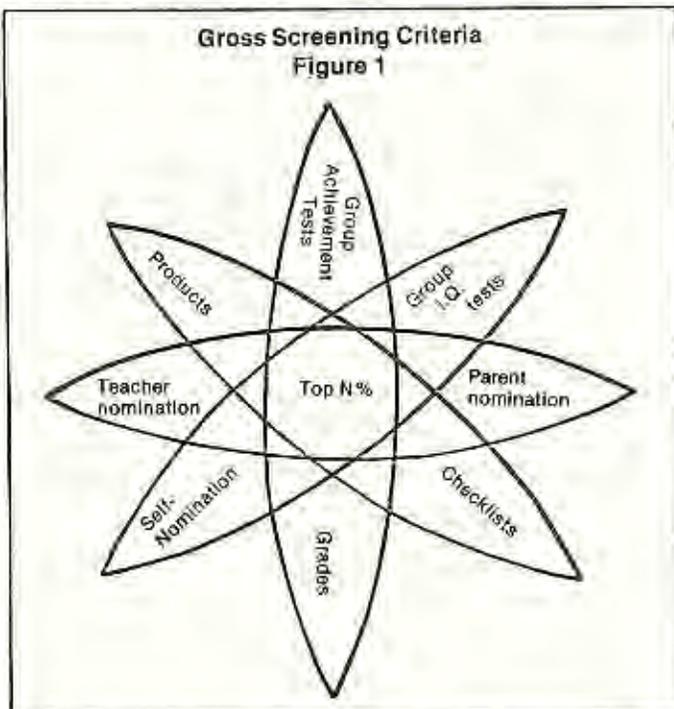
catlonal Plans for gifted students; d) role of the regular classroom teacher in program planning.

On the basis of the aforementioned observations and concerns the following guidelines are offered to help offset possible disparities and incongruencies in program planning for the gifted. The suggestions are within the limits of the Kansas state plan and national program planning parameters.

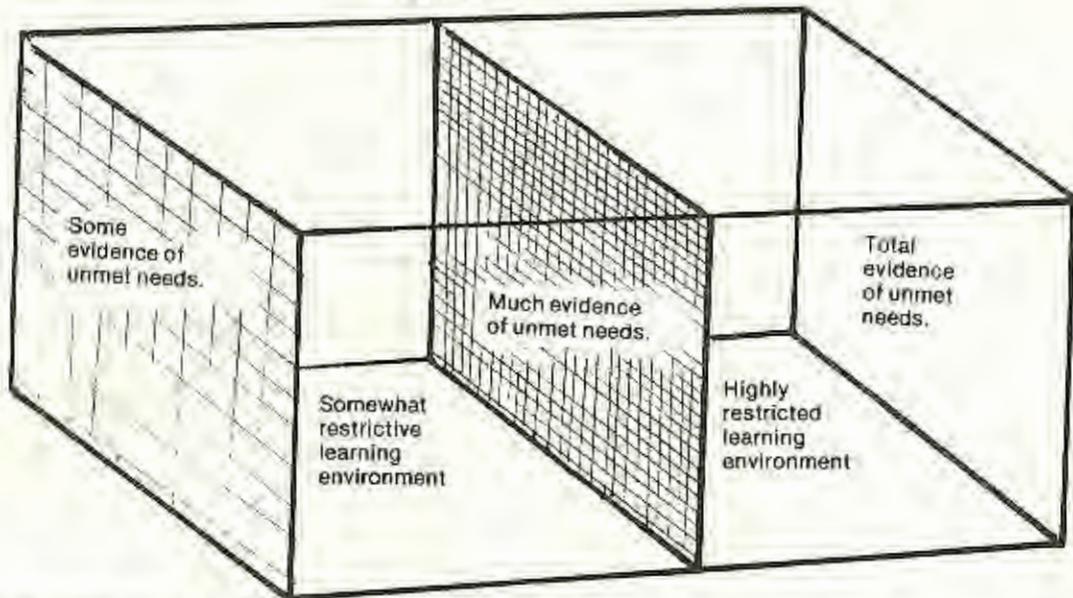
It is suggested that:

1. Students selected for full staffing and Individual Educational plans not exceed 1-2 percent of the population of a given attendance center.
2. A comprehensive screening process be utilized to nominate students for a "reservoir." (See Figure 1) This process is detailed by Gowan.'
3. The gifted education program coordinator or certified designate interview the students who constitute the top 5 percent of the grossly screened population to determine which students should be referred for full staffing. Criteria for this fine screening process would be outlined carefully and congruent with the purpose of locally determined goals and objectives. (See Figure 2)
4. Parents of students referred for full staffing would be notified in keeping with due process procedures.
5. A full staffing would determine which students would become the type III population i.e. the beneficiaries of Individual educational planning. (Figure 3)
6. Students so selected would be provided special educational services and be subject to the regulations of due process. ("Special services" might include alternatives such as off campus options during school time.)
7. Students who received multiple nominations in the gross screening process but were not referred for full staffing would constitute a type II population.
8. The coordinator or certified designate would work closely with general education personnel (particularly the regular classroom teachers) to insure consistent efforts to meet the educational needs of these students. Gifted education personnel would schedule such options as seminars (to allow peer interaction), mentorship provisions, flexible "pull-out" alternatives, cluster grouping, etc. It is imperative that the classroom teachers have a feeling of ownership in the proceedings.
9. Students who received a nomination for special programming but were not a part of the finely screened group would constitute a type I population. Certified gifted education personnel would periodically review the learning situations of these students. If there is evidence of unmet needs as a result of the classroom situation restricting the child's gifted potential, the student would be reconsidered for placement in a type II situation or referred for a full staffing and possible type III placement.

Gross Screening Criteria
Figure 1



Fine Screening Criteria
Figure 2



Certified gifted education personnel would observe and interview students who were in the top N% (usual cut-off is 5%) of the grossly screened population in a given attendance center. The top 1-2% would be recommended for full staffing and individual educational plans.

10. Type I students would have occasional opportunities to self-select into some of the programs offered for the type II population.
11. Gifted education personnel would be encouraged to offer periodic opportunities for the total school population to self-select areas of interest which might give clues to special talents e.g. educational fairs, smorgasbord minicourses, after school interest groups, etc. Such endeavors would be invaluable for observing talented potential of students not readily identified by traditional measures.

If the intent of the preceding suggestions would be considered in program planning for the gifted, it is proposed that:

The unwieldy and largely unnecessary procedure of staffing an inordinately large population of students would be mitigated.

Patrons would be satisfied that educational needs of their "gifted" children would be met. There would be no need to tell parents their children are **NOT** gifted. Demanding parents would be assured that the gifted education coordinator (or certified designate) would work with regular classroom teachers to meet the educational needs of the students.

Students selected for full staffing would be those who are definitively restricted by the regular classroom learning environment. There would be little room for doubt regarding the unique learning needs of these students.

Individual Educational Plans for the type III population would insure the provision of the least

restrictive environment for this professionally identified highly gifted student.

While the type III population would be under the direct jurisdiction of special education for funding purposes, there would be no particular need or reason to differentiate publicly the degrees of service in terms of labels.

Regular classroom teachers would undoubtedly admit their inability (time-wise and/or otherwise) to meet the educational needs of the type III population. General educators would, hereby, be freed to devote more time to provide a less restrictive learning environment for the type I and II populations.

Gifted education personnel would work closely with general education personnel thus providing an important communication link with special education in an area of exceptionality that **MUST** function symbiotically in order to make any sense out of the educational milieu.

By placing responsibility for final screening cut-offs in the hands of certified gifted education personnel, concerns about restrictive interpretations of individual educational planning would be alleviated. Personnel recommended for full gifted education certification must have demonstrated their ability to use wise judgment in working with parents, colleagues, administrators and students.

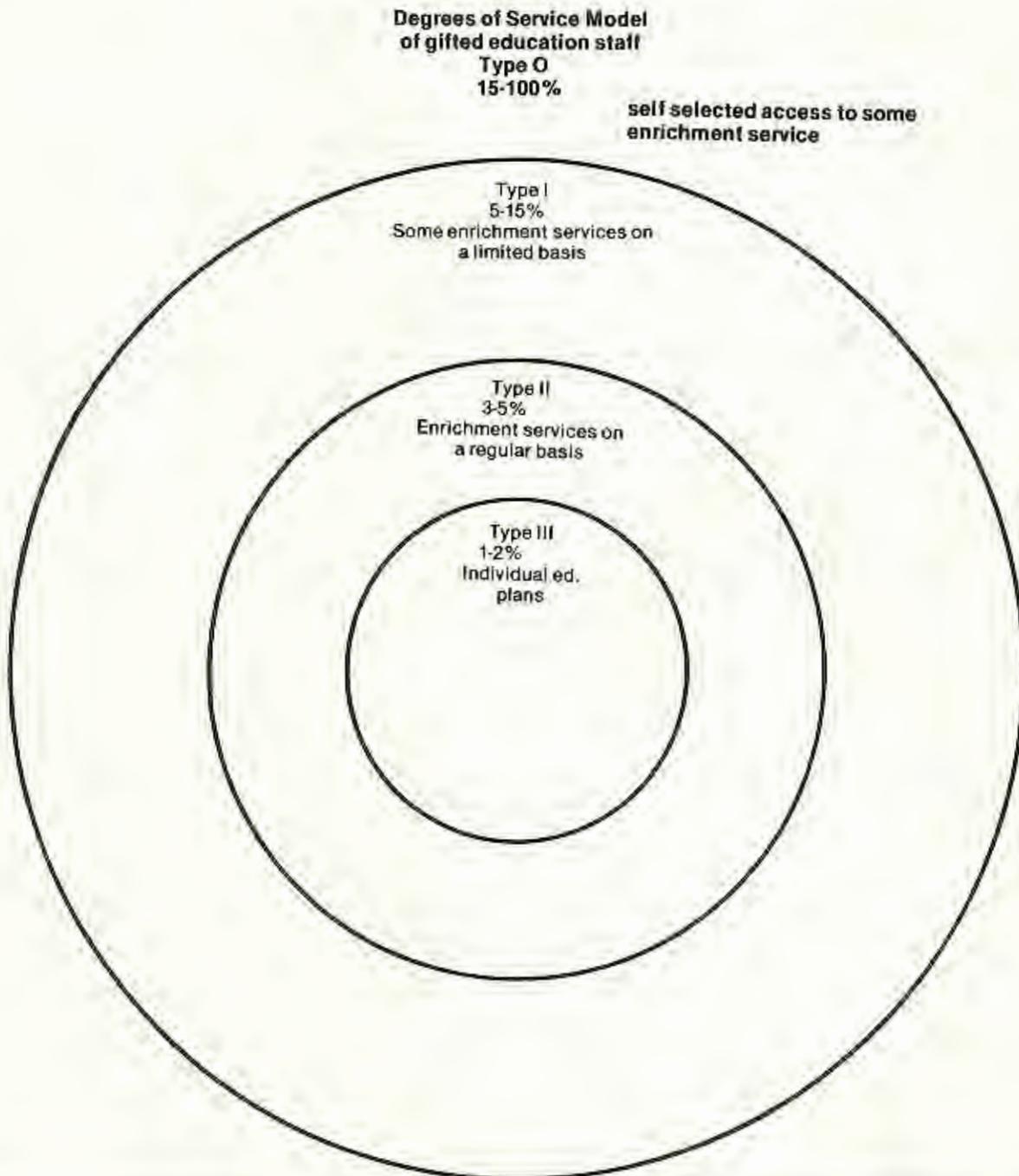
There will be omnipresent need for concerned educators and lay people to monitor special programs for the gifted, elicit feedback from staff and students, and revise procedures when they obviously hinder meaningful program implementation.

Our schools cannot afford to invest time and money in redundant programs that have little real-world value. If wisely handled, however, investment in the least restrictive education of a priceless natural resource—the minds of our ablest—should pay great dividends.

Notes

1. John C. Gowan and E. Paul Torrance, *Educating the Ablest*, Itasca, Illinois: F.E. Peacock Publishers, 1971.
2. Joseph Renzulli, *The Enrichment Triad Model: A Guide for Developing Defensible Programs for the Gifted and Talented*, Weathersfield, Connecticut: Creative Learning Press, 1977.

Figure 3.
This model correlates with Renzulli's Enrichment Triad Model of Type I, II and III curricular format.²



The authors believe that the issues addressed in this article will strongly impact the shape of integrated education in the future

Implications for teacher education as adult development

by V. Lois Erickson and
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"... Character begins to form
at the first pinch of anxiety about ourselves..."

Yevgeny Yevtushenko
There's Something I Often Notice

Introduction

Throughout history major 'discoveries' can be identified which have instigated that 'first pinch of anxiety about ourselves' and triggered the growth of character. Freud reviewed some of these anxiety producers and their impact on the collective consciousness (Erikson, 1974). He identified the following 'disturbers of mankind's' sleep' and the resulting effects on the ego:

- Copernicus' discovery that the earth was not the center of the solar system as disturbing our sense of centrality,
- Darwin's theory of evolution as disturbing our sense of originality,
- Freud's own discovery of the unconscious as disturbing our sense of choice, and
- Einstein's concepts of relativity in the physical world as disturbing our sense of certainty.

We would add to this list the discovery within the last two decades of minorities, women and the handicapped as persons—as another disturber, that has jammed the prevailing sense of justice.

* We can only assume that he meant 'womankind's' sleep was also disturbed.

The predominant conflict around the concept of justice that currently haunts our educational settings is the issue of mainstream education. The collective ego of the public is being forced to recognize that more just ways of educating handicapped students must be found. And, that students in regular classes also need to experience a more complex view of humanity. The incorporation of the handicapped child into the regular classroom addresses these issues.

The remainder of this paper will be presented in three sections: interpretations of the justice issue will be examined through current mainstream literature; the theoretical perspective of Lawrence Kohlberg for viewing conceptions of justice will be summarized; and a description will be given of a developmental teacher training program as one model for facilitating the adult growth process.

Conceptualizing the problem: Excerpts from mainstream literature

The human rights movement, then, can be viewed as the most recent disturber of the 'collective consciousness' of humankind, and mainstream education as the most recent manifestation of the movement. In reviewing mainstream literature, we found that the common sociological interpretation of how norms of society are formed seemed to offer a helpful conceptual base for understanding the norms on justice. This interpretation would claim that people tend to organize their social lives through common norms that the majority follow, and that these norms determine how the majority define and conceptualize issues of justice. In the mainstreaming case, the particular norms that are now being challenged include the acceptance of homogeneous educational en-

vironments and the separation of handicapped children from the mainstream. Inherent in these norms is a devaluing of diversity. Morton and Hull (1976, p. 37) speak to the challenging of these norms:

"This is a yeasty time, a time of change for all involved in education. Educators, parents, children alike have an opportunity to foster and nurture movement towards a society that values people in all their diversity. But to find a philosophy of living which respects diversity along with the ability to implement it in the classroom is an unusual happening. The mainstream does not generally enjoy a happy reputation even for normal children. Moreover, respect for diversity is not an attitude encouraged by many public school systems. For the most part public schools are saturated with norm-oriented attitudes and with exclusionary tactics which spell trouble for children and even more trouble for their parents.

"To be sure, school systems cannot be accused of original sin; they merely reflect what the mainstream society believes, and we are a norm-oriented society much threatened by people who are different. Any newspaper will offer documentation of daily resistance to the heterogeneous grouping of people. If we cannot homogenize, if we cannot redesign people who do not conform, we will reach into our arsenal of exclusionary tactics and see to it that they are removed . . ."

Along with the strong questioning of the norms which have shaped our educational systems, we must also step back and ask, "Where have these norms taken us . . . What are the outcomes of such education?" Kenneth Keniston (1975, pp. 36-37) writes:

"Lately we have been accomplishing what I call the intellectualization of the child. I believe we are witnessing a growing emphasis upon the child as a brain; upon the cultivation of narrowly defined cognitive skills and abilities; and, above all, upon the creation, through our preschools and schools, a race of children whose values and progress are judged primarily by their capacity to do well on tests of intelligence, reading readiness or school achievement . . . We measure the success of schools, not by the human beings they promote, but by increases in reading scores . . . physical vitality, emotional caring, resourcefulness and moral commitment in the child are undercut."

Keniston's concern for "the human beings they promote" leads us to the most basic question, "What is the purpose of education?" In a thought-provoking paper, "Desegregation and Mainstreaming: A Case of *deja vu*," Chester Oden, Jr. (1976, p. 56), writes:

"Education is more than reading, writing and arithmetic; education is preparation for life. Students need more than facts and problem-solving skills; they need to know how to lead full and useful lives in a complex world. In a nation made up of a variety of races and nationalities, that means learning how to live and work with people of different skin colors and cultural backgrounds. If one accepts this broad view of education, one cannot imagine a worse way of undertaking it than in a classroom segregated by race, national origin, or handicappedness. Segregated classrooms deny millions of Americans the op-

portunity to become acquainted with the minority child whose future they share.

"A major objective for American public school education should be to provide multiple experiences for all children."

Surely, such multiple experiences through mainstreaming should lead to an education that promotes a deeper understanding of humanity. Morton and Hull (1976, p. 37) state:

"If we are asked to define what we feel is the goal of mainstreaming, we suggest that it should be a way of living that engenders respect for and acceptance of differences."

But, this "respect for and acceptance of differences" must first be a part of the maturity of adult educators.

In an insightful introductory statement to his book, **Shared Responsibility for Handicapped Students: Advocacy and Programming**, Philip H. Mann (1976, p. 9) writes:

"A measure of our professionalism as educators is our ability to serve children in a way that will not detract from their rights and dignity. Parenthetical to this involvement is society's need for specific services and the development of a relevant body of knowledge that relates to these expressed needs. Our professional responsibility then is to provide these services to individuals at every level of society in order to uplift mankind to a higher level of existence."

What this "higher level of existence" can mean will be determined by our perspective of the moral issues and how these issues are operationalized. New questioning and new information has brought us to a point in our history in which we are able to advance our ability to serve children. When we are able to incorporate more diversified and complex information into our decision making processes, we are then capable of making decisions which take into account the needs and rights of more individuals. We are then capable of acting in a more just way. Let us now examine a perspective which offers a means for conceptualizing the developmental growth of justice.

A theoretical base for examining issues of mainstream education

Michael Scriven declares in his challenging paper "Some Issues in the Logic and Ethics of Mainstreaming" (1976, p. 64), that ". . . prejudice is the problem, and it is a moral problem." Dr. Scriven sees the necessity but also the complexity of teacher training in the area of ethics if mainstream education is to be accepted. Education on moral issues requires a sound theoretical base, and the right of the handicapped to an equal education and the responsibility of educators to provide for this equality needs to be examined within a moral philosophy.

Recognizing that theoretical positions on the process of moral development range across biological, psychoanalytic, social learning and developmental perspectives—the authors of this paper have deliberately chosen a cognitive-developmental approach to viewing mainstream education issues because the structure of this paradigm seems to best deal with the complexity of the issues.

Dr. Lawrence Kohlberg (1969), a philosopher/psychologist/educator at Harvard University, has researched cognitive-developmental stages of moral reasoning which

build upon the earlier work of John Dewey and Jean Piaget. Dr. Kohlberg concludes that the principle of justice is the most essential structure of morality, and that the core of justice is the distribution of rights and duties regulated by concepts of equality and reciprocity. By probing the reasoning of persons in cross-cultural samples on issues involving moral dilemmas, Dr. Kohlberg has identified six stages of moral reasoning. His stages and their relationship to justice in mainstream education are interpreted by the authors of this article in Figure 1.*

*Acknowledgement is given to Philip Schaffer, Ph.D., University of Minnesota, 1974 for the pictorial diagrams of each stage.

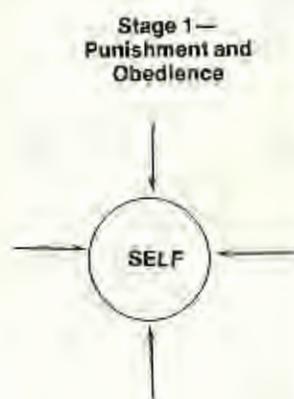
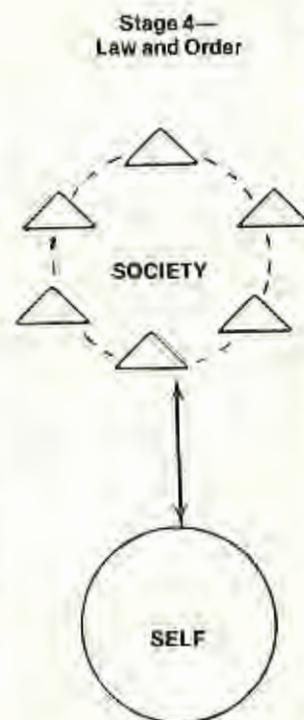
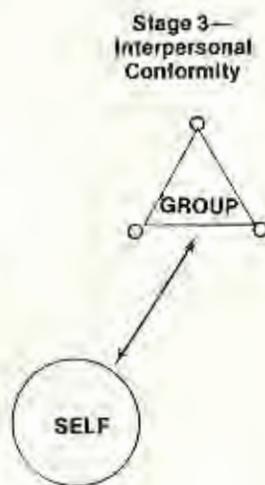
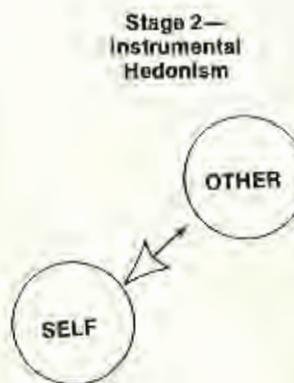


Figure 1.
**Kohlberg's Stages of Moral
Development as They Relate
to Mainstream Education**

At the first stage of moral reasoning, the understanding of concepts of justice is limited to concern about the self. Fear of punishment dominates one's motives; actions are judged in terms of their physical consequences. This early stage of reasoning is difficult to apply to justice in mainstreaming, although an example might be a person extending help to a crippled or deformed person out of a perceived fear of punishment based on the fear of differences (examples in *Notre-Dame De Paris*, *The Pigman*).

The second stage of moral reasoning offers some advance over Stage 1 in that the person perceives the other as a separate person having claims of his or her own. However, the basic motive is to satisfy one's own needs, and justice to another is only extended if some trade-off seems possible. Manipulation and exploitation are dominant motives and some people continue to reason at this stage across their life span. In relation to mainstream education, an example of this reasoning is sometimes heard on the district level: "We'll mainstream the handicapped because we need the federal dollars it brings into the school system." Or, on an individual teacher level: "I'll go along with mainstreaming since it appears to be the only way I can keep my job." (exam-



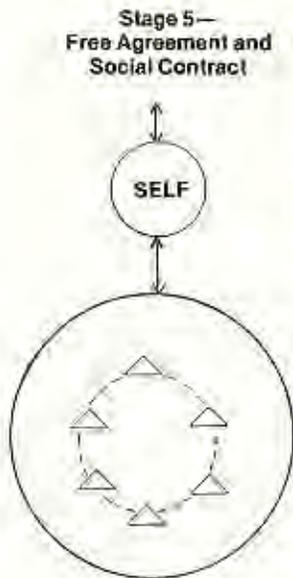
ple/final statement in "To The World's Grapepickers upon Entering the Vineyards" . . . "In short, let's get the crop out or we will all be looking for jobs.")

Conformity to in-group norms is the dominant motive for extending justice at stage three. This is an advance over stage two in that mutuality and concern is extended to other people without "keeping tally." However, the other people are limited to peer groups with whom one feels affection or sameness. Thus, justice is only extended to those who are like oneself in some way, and the motive is to be perceived as a 'nice person,' to be accepted by the group. For mainstream education this means making moral decisions in accordance with the strongest stimulus. If the dominant teacher group or peer group is supportive of mainstreaming, so is the individual; if the forces are against mainstreaming, so is the individual. (example: the reasoning of the teacher in the classroom who wants to see only reflections of herself, who is most comfortable with those offering mirror images of the self—in the article "Mirror, Mirror on the Wall," by James Reussing, 1976.)

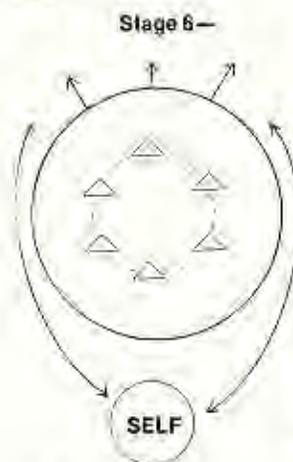
A major shift in the conception of justice occurs at Stage 4. Fairness is extended to persons across society without the condition of sameness or of personal affection. The primary motive, however, is for order, and the focus is on preserving society (not just obeying, as in Stage 1). For mainstream education this means extending justice within the interpretation of existing laws. Educators may express the willingness to participate in mainstream education because, "We have no choice, the law says so." (example: the passage of Public Law 94-142 is important because it uplifts mankind from moral reasoning at stages 1, 2, 3 and requires that a higher form of justice be extended. While this does not

guarantee people will act in accordance with the law because of principle, it is a step forward in bringing about more just behavior.)

At the fifth stage of moral reasoning, a person recognizes that justice cannot be determined by considering only one's own needs, or even the existing customs or laws. There are no legal absolutes—changes in the laws need to be made democratically as new insights on justice are acquired. The U.S. Constitution is written in Stage 5 terms. Where law is not affected, what is right is a matter of personal agreement between persons. However, values and rights like life and liberty are upheld regardless of majority opinion. In mainstream education, those persons who have taken leadership to change the laws and to implement a more just schooling because of the inherent rights of the handicapped, are conceptualizing at this stage of reasoning.



However, conflicts of rights between the needs of 'regular' and 'special education' children become apparent at this stage, and can best be resolved within stage 5 and 6 philosophy. (example: see Mann and Chitwood, "Law and Mainstreaming: Letter and Spirit," 1976, pp. 220-229).



Persons reasoning at Stage 6 maintain the validity of moral principles and have a sense of personal commitment to them. Their principles deal with universal principles of justice: equality of human rights and respect for the dignity of human beings as individual persons. The golden rule, "Do unto others as you would have them do unto you" is such a universal principle. In relation to mainstream education, it is recognized that persons are ends in themselves and must be treated as such.

A profound description of a stage 6 conception of humanity and the restrictions we all face in reaching this perspective is given in a quotation by Albert Einstein (1972):

"A human being is a part of the whole, called by us the "Universe," a part limited in time and space. He experiences himself, his thoughts and feelings as something separated from the rest—a kind of op-

tical delusion of his consciousness. This delusion is a kind of prison for us, restricting us to our personal desires and to affection for a few persons nearest to us. Our task must be to free ourselves from this prison by widening our circle of compassion to embrace all living creatures and the whole of nature in its beauty. Nobody is able to achieve this completely, but the striving for such achievement is in itself a part of the liberation and a foundation for inner security."

Teacher Education as Adult Education: The Minnesota Project.†

Long ago, John Dewey claimed that true education is development, and that development can be the aim of education. The philosophical theories of John Dewey and the psychological theories of Jean Piaget, Lawrence Kohlberg, Jane Loevinger, David Hunt and others on stages of developmental maturity have offered a sound base of intellectual heft for the curriculum and staff development work in the Developmental Education Program at the University of Minnesota. Our early work in this program (1972-1976) focused on developing classroom curricula and instructional methods that would deliberately promote psychological maturity in adolescents.

Significant growth in such areas as ego maturity, moral reasoning, empathy and communication skills has been repeatedly found in pre and post test data on the experimental classes developed by the professors and graduate students in our program in collegiality with public school teachers (see Erickson, 1977; Bernier and Rustad, 1977; as examples). During this research and development work on curriculums for adolescents, we came to fully realize that if teachers are to become psychological educators who deliberately promote the development of their pupils we need to first ask, "what stage of development does the teacher/researcher need to attain?" The BEH Dean's Grant (1975-1977) has provided the opportunity to explore this question and to try out a program for deliberately promoting conceptual, ego, and moral maturity with adult teachers.

The focus of the Minnesota developmental education program is on *how* a person processes information and makes meaning of his/her experience. Thus, education is seen as more than learning a set of behaviors and skills. True education, in the John Dewey sense, must involve a repatterning or restructuring of one's thinking such that an increase in the complexity, differentiation and integration of the conceptual process, ethical reasoning, or, ego itself, results. To teach in a way that promotes this kind of restructuring is a *methode clinique* which likely goes back to Socrates.

To capture the main ingredients of developmental teaching in the Minnesota program, we need to examine the concepts of structural organization, developmental sequence and interactionism.**

†The authors wish to acknowledge Co-Director, Dr. Norman A. Sprinthall, and the numerous other staff members who have contributed to the Developmental Education Program during the years of research and development work on which this section is based.

**Appreciation is extended to Dr. James Rest, a colleague in the College of Education, U. of Minnesota, for his initial conceptualization of these ingredients.

**This data was collected and reported by Joseph Bernier, see unpublished Ph.D. thesis, 1976.

a) Structural Organization: If we want to develop educational programs that deliberately promote maturity we must begin by focusing on **how** the person thinks—what stimuli they attend to, how these are organized into categories, how decisions are processed. The mode of thinking that was dominant in the two teacher education groups that we have worked with during the past two years was a stage 3/4 conformity/conscientious thinking and stage 4 conscientious thought. This means the teachers tended to still use some conventional other-directed conformity as a basis for moral judgment, and still had some conformity-based ego integration which accepts stereotypes, normative behavior, displays little differentiation in feelings, and does not yet master conceptual patterning. To plan a staff development program which stretches thinking, which triggers growth, we considered the characteristics of the next stage of maturity as a deliberate educational goal.

b) Developmental Sequence: If we know what a higher form of development is, we know the goals of learning. If we know the qualities of the next stage of growth, we can then match or 'constructively mismatch' curriculum experiences to help persons organize concepts at the next higher stage. The concept of growth is not value free. In the staff development with teachers, we set goals characteristic of the stage 4 conscientious ego and moral structures, and stage 5 autonomous and principled reasoning (Loevinger, 1976). Persons at stage 4 see life as presenting choices, they have a strong sense of responsibility, a conception of privileges, rights, and of justice and fairness. Self-evaluated standards, differentiated feelings, and concerns for communications are all characteristics of persons at this stage. At the autonomous and principled stage (5) we add the respect for autonomy of others, toleration for ambiguity, broad scope objectivity and a sense of self-fulfillment and self in the social context.

c) Interactionalism: Curriculum experiences to promote growth need to consider the John Dewey theory of how cumulative growth can occur. Dewey viewed the person **within** the environment and believed it is this interaction which changes the structure of thinking. In the teachers' workshops, we made use of this interactionalism through three 'new R's'—role-taking, genuine responsibility and rigorous reflection. Brief summaries of these focus areas follow.

The teachers learned theory on role-taking and then practiced using empathy in perspective-taking sessions until they could accurately identify both content and feelings in communication with others. Multiple theories of developmental growth and related developmental curriculum models were then presented to the participants. After extensive presentations on connecting theory to practice, the teachers took responsibility for contracting the development of curriculum mini-units, based on these theories, that would deliberately promote psychological growth in the pupils in their own classrooms. This field-based curriculum try-out phase was supervised on-site by graduate teaching assistants in the program. Seminar sessions were held daily during the summer workshops and also weekly during the field-based phase to actively promote reflection and restructuring on this learning. In these seminar sessions a strong focus was placed on self-growth, and adult development theories were employed as we helped each other map out and experience the change process.

The results of the first year five-week summer workshop and fall practicum* (N=25 inservice teachers) indicated that significant changes occurred in empathy as measured by content and feeling responses to a videotaped "client" ($p < .0001$, two tail). Also, significant changes were found on the percentage of principled thought of the participants as measured by the Rest Defining Issues Test (an objective measure of Kohlbergian moral reasoning) ($p < .01$, two tail). On the Loevinger ego measure no growth changes were measurable.

Results on the second year five-week summer workshop and fall practicum** (N=37 teachers) again provided evidence for growth. Significant change was found in response to the video tape empathy test ($p < .001$), and an analysis of the Rest test showed significant gain in principled moral thinking ($p < .02$, one tail). In addition, change on the Hunt conceptual test was significant ($p < .01$, one tail). Again, no significant growth was measured on the Loevinger ego test, a finding consistent with the theoretical position on the stability of the construct. No pre to post changes were found on the control group on these measures.

An additional study†, an in-depth case study analysis of the teaching behavior of five of these teachers, was also carried out during the past year. The teachers' conceptual, moral and ego scores were explored in this study in relationship to their scores on rating scales on their teaching practice. Strong trends were identified between the level of facilitative teaching used over a wide range of classroom situations and the level of developmental reasoning of the five observed teachers.

Maynard C. Reynolds and Jack W. Birch in their recent book, **Exceptional Children in America's Regular Schools** (1977), propose twelve dimensions on which regular classroom teachers could examine their accommodation of exceptional children on qualitatively sequenced rating scales. These twelve dimensions of accommodation include: space and facilities arrangements; teaching-learning settings; teaching and learning materials; classroom management and communication; cooperativeness of the social environment; appreciation of cultural and socio-economic differences; sharing of the control and responsibility of the school environment; individualization of learning time; evaluation of progress. The scales on these twelve dimensions provide an excellent behavioral rating of expressed concern for mainstream education. It would also appear that the qualitatively sequenced responses on each dimension would relate to qualitatively different levels of developmental maturity. Thus, theoretically, a teacher who has a high level of complexity, differentiation and integration in his/her personality structure is more likely to score higher on the Reynolds/Birch accommodation scales than is a teacher who displays little differentiation and who blindly accepts stereotypes and normative standards. A future study* researching this relationship between accommodation scores and developmental maturity scores could provide important evidence for the link between maturity of reasoning and maturity of teaching behavior in mainstream education.

**This data was collected and reported by Sharon N. Oja, see unpublished Ph.D. thesis, 1977.

†See unpublished Ph.D. thesis, Carol E. Withrall, 1978.

*This research is in an exploratory phase and data will be collected by the authors of this paper, spring, 1978.

Summary and Closing Notes

The focus in this paper on mainstream education has been on the underlying core issue of justice. Perspectives of the concept of justice from current mainstream literature were reviewed, Lawrence Kohlberg's theoretical position on the developmental process of moral problem-solving was summarized, and research and development from the University of Minnesota Developmental Education Program were presented.

The perspectives in this paper offer a preliminary attempt to conceptualize the relationship between justice and mainstreaming. It is our hope that the ideas put forth may stimulate new thinking for the reader, create that 'pinch of anxiety,' and bring us closer to working through some of the issues challenging us today through the mainstreaming movement.

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Cooperation between general and special educators is essential for mainstreaming to work.

Competencies needed by school counselors in order to facilitate mainstreaming

by Pamela V. Cochrane



Pamela Cochrane, assistant professor in Education, College of Charleston has been the project administrator for the development of Mainstream Programs in the College of Education, University of Florida, Dean's Project. Her public school experience includes classroom teaching of the emotionally disturbed, learning disabled and being a psychometrist. Dr. Cochrane's conference participation and publications are largely concerned with successful mainstreaming of the exceptional student in public schools.

One of the principle themes inherent in the concept of mainstreaming is cooperation between general and special educators (Caster, 1975; Kaufman, Gottlieb, Agard, & Kukic, 1975). Without this cooperation and coordination of effort, educators will not attain the ultimate goal of mainstreaming: providing an appropriate education for exceptional children in the most conducive environment. Educators must assume joint responsibility for exceptional children being educated in public schools.

School counselors are in a unique position to contribute to the success of mainstreaming. Their training and experience provide them with specific competencies that relate directly to the facilitation of this process: knowledge of development psychology, interpersonal relationships, communication, counseling and consulting techniques (Cochrane and Marini, 1977a & b). However, mastery of additional competencies not usually included in counselor education training sequences would enable counselors to take a leadership role in the mainstreaming process. This article suggests competencies that could be included in traditional pre-service and in-service training sequences that would enable counselors to make significant contributions to the education of exceptional students. (Deno, 1970).

The suggested competencies were developed by the author while director of the University of Florida Dean's Project. Extensive interviews with elementary school counselors in the field, and with counselor education and special education faculty were conducted before and during the initial development. In the spring of 1977, the final list of competencies was mailed to 220 faculty in public and private universities, half of which had Dean's Projects, and half of which did not. The faculty were asked to report their "opinion of the degree of mastery of each competency necessary for the elementary school counselor to facilitate mainstreaming in his/her school." The rating scale that was used was:

5. Mastery of the competency is absolutely essential for success.
4. The competency is needed at a rather high skill level.

3. The competency is needed at an average level.
2. The competency is useful but not essential
1. The competency is not needed.

Responses were received from 136 faculty members from every state in the nation (70 from counselor education faculty from universities without Dean's Projects; 66 from Dean's Project personnel). The modal response on all but five of the competencies was "5," that mastery is essential. The modal response for competencies 1.1, 1.2, 2.2 and 3.1 was "4," that competency is needed at a rather high level.

Specific competencies

1. School Law/State Regulations

The elementary school counselor should have knowledge of:

- 1.1 federal, state and district regulations relating to exceptional student programs.
- 1.2 federal, state and district regulations relating to the identification of exceptional students.
- 1.3 federal, state and district regulations relating to the placement of exceptional students in the least restrictive environment.
- 1.4 due process as it relates to exceptional students.
- 1.5 his/her responsibility relating to confidentiality of exceptional students' school records.
- 1.6 the principles and practice of nondiscriminatory testing.

In order to act effectively in the mainstreaming process, elementary school counselors must have knowledge of school law, both federal and state, and state and district regulations that relate directly to exceptional child programs as well as the identification and placement of exceptional students. This knowledge enables counselors to effectively meet the needs of exceptional children within the parameters specified by the laws and regulations, and helps ensure that mandated special services are provided by individual districts. Specific emphasis should be placed on Public Law 94-142, the Education of All Handicapped Act of 1975, as it relates to and effects local special education programs.

The counselor also should have specific knowledge of the due process procedures that are followed in order to protect the rights of students. These procedures may vary from district to district, but will be fundamentally similar to the procedures outlined in PL 94-142. In order to further protect the rights of students, the counselor should be aware of the regulations relating to the confidentiality of student records.

Nondiscriminatory testing is also mandated by PL 94-142, and because of the role the counselor may play in the testing procedure, s/he must be aware of the implications of the use of tests judged by some to discriminate against ethnic and racial minorities. This issue may not be resolved in the near future, but counselors should know the arguments for and against the use of standardized tests for the placement of students in special education programs.

2. Identification and Placement of Exceptional Students

The elementary school counselor:

- 2.1 has knowledge of the characteristics of exceptional students.

- 2.2 has knowledge of the definition of each area of exceptionality accepted for use in his/her district.
- 2.3 can initiate and/or implement the use of appropriate instruments for screening for exceptional students.
- 2.4 has knowledge of, and can implement the referral process accepted for use in his/her district.
- 2.5 knows the procedure recommended in his/her district for the placement (staffing) of referred students.
- 2.6 is aware of and can assemble all assessment data pertinent to the placement (staffing) decisions about referred students.
- 2.7 can interpret the assessment data for members of the placement committee, including parents.
- 2.8 has knowledge of the continuum of services available to exceptional students and the least restrictive environment appropriate for placement of individual students.

Eligibility for special education services is contingent upon accurate and prompt identification of those students who are in need of special services. In order to identify exceptional students the counselor must possess reasonable knowledge of the characteristics of exceptional students as well as the definition of each area of exceptionality. This knowledge will facilitate the counselor's full participation in all aspects of the special education program.

Screening for exceptional students and subsequent referral for possible special education services can be implemented by the counselor. Both procedures may be district specific, but can still be presented to school counselors on a general basis. The procedures used to reach placement decisions will also vary from district to district, but will have basic similarities that are mandated by P.L. 94-142.

The personnel responsible for placement decisions should be presented with as much information as possible that is relevant to that decision. Because of the school counselor's familiarity with students in his/her school(s), it is logical that s/he assume partial responsibility for collecting that data. Also, the counselor will further insure appropriate placement if s/he is able to successfully interpret this data to everyone, including parents, who take part in the placement process.

Counselors also need to be aware of the continuum of services available to exceptional children and the least restrictive environment appropriate for the placement of individual students. This knowledge is essential if mainstreaming is to be successfully implemented in a school district.

3. Organization and Delivery of Services

The elementary school counselor:

- 3.1 can provide assistance in the design of individual education programs as mandated by P.L. 94-142.
- 3.2 can provide assistance in the implementation of individualized education programs.
- 3.3 can facilitate formal and informal communication between school personnel responsible for mainstreamed exceptional students.

- 3.4 can provide teachers with affective intervention skills for interaction with exceptional students.
- 3.5 can use appropriate counseling techniques with individuals and groups of exceptional students in a continuum of educational settings.
- 3.6 can use appropriate counseling techniques with parents and families of exceptional students.
- 3.7 can serve as a referral source to community agencies that provide services to exceptional students and their families.
- 3.8 has knowledge of and can implement the district recommended procedure for review, re-assignment and dismissal of exceptional students.

School counselors can apply many of their traditional skills in the organization and delivery of services to exceptional students. Of the competencies listed in this section, the only ones that provide a new role deal with the design and implementation of individual education programs (IEP's) as mandated by P.L. 94-142. The components of the IEP's could be coordinated by counselors, and success could be insured by the maintenance of a formal or informal system of communication between all personnel responsible for mainstreamed exceptional students. This communication is absolutely essential when more than one professional is responsible for individual students.

Counselors can share their affective intervention skills with teachers who work with exceptional students, as well as use these skills on a one-to-one and small group basis with exceptional students. The affective domain is the area that school counselors are traditionally prepared to concentrate on, and this concentration should be extended to include all the students in the schools.

Counselors are also in a position to work effectively with parents and families of exceptional students. This can be accomplished by direct counseling with the parents and families, or by referral to appropriate community agencies.

The final competency deals with periodic review of the placement of exceptional students. Yearly review is mandated by P.L. 94-142, and counselors can insure that this is completed as scheduled.

Conclusions and implications

The State of Florida has been the vanguard in the development of a state-wide elementary school counselor program, and because of this the competencies listed

here were developed for use with this professional group. Many states have not taken this approach, and in those states there will be very few elementary school counselors. However, with few modifications this same list of competencies can be used to develop pre-service and in-service training components for middle and secondary school counselors.

There are several approaches that could be taken to enable pre- and in-service counselors to attain mastery of these competencies. A traditional one semester course could be developed and offered that would cover all the material suggested. Another approach that would increase flexibility is the development of modules and components that present the same information. Modules could be integrated into already existing courses, or could be used as a complete training sequence. The inherent flexibility of modularization would enable students to proceed at their own pace and to pursue individual interests.

It is probable that counselor education training programs already enable mastery of some of the competencies listed here. The list could be used to identify specific program deficits, and action could be taken to remedy this deficit. Any measure taken to enable school counselors to assume a leadership role in the mainstreaming process will further help to insure its success. The responsibility for the success of mainstreaming rests with educators, and not with the children. The sooner we face this responsibility and marshal our resources, the sooner we will be able to provide a truly appropriate education to all children in the mainstream of education.

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The problem of identifying SLD children was addressed by federal legislation in 1975.

Who has specific learning disabilities?

by Norma J. Dyck



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The newest and largest category to receive help from special educators has become known as Specific Learning Disabilities (SLD). The term is confusing to many people because it is less descriptive than other categorical terms such as Visually Handicapped or Hearing Impaired.

Professionals who translate the term loosely may wish to include anyone having difficulty learning in a typical school situation. To these individuals, incidence figures of SLD could be as high as 15 to 20 percent of the school age population. Other practitioners argue that the educational needs of children with minor learning problems are not really special and should be met by general educators. These professionals believe a more realistic incidence figure of SLD would be two to three percent of school age students.

The problem of identifying SLD children was addressed in the landmark federal legislation of 1975—PL 94-142. The law directed the commissioner of education to study the issue and to develop procedures for evaluating children with SLD. After many months of study that included public hearings in six major cities and consultations with specialists from many disciplines, the commissioner published final regulations effective in 1978. (*Federal Register*, Dec. 29, 1977).

These regulations specify the procedures for evaluation and guidelines for making SLD placement decisions. The decision for placement must be made by the members of a multidisciplinary team. The team members must look for data that will support the placement of SLD. The decision will be based on subjective and objective analysis of data. The new guidelines are welcomed as giving some direction for future decisions but are disappointing to those individuals who were looking for formulas or objective criteria.

Why are SLD children so difficult to identify? There is only one identifying characteristic of SLD on which all authorities agree i.e., the student is not achieving up to estimated potential. In addition, it is generally accepted that the learning problem must not primarily be the result of another handicapping condition such as mental retardation, hearing impairment, etc. Such a determination

may seem simple to make, but any experienced diagnostician will affirm that current tests are not sensitive enough to easily yield such precise information. In every case the diagnostician must interpret data, some of which is quite subjective.

In the early period of special education, emphasis was placed on a medical cause in identifying students requiring special services. Whenever a medical practitioner identified a disabling factor such as blindness or deafness, it was obvious such a case must be given special attention. But as special education services expanded, more mildly handicapped children began to be included. Their inclusion was usually based on psychological rather than medical information. These mildly handicapped children were usually called Educable Mentally Retarded on the basis of an IQ score.

During the 1960's groups of parents in communities throughout the country began to lobby for services for their children who were also handicapped in the school situation but could not qualify for special education because their IQ scores were normal or above.

Some of these children had been given medical labels, i.e., Brain Injured, Dyslexic, Neurologically Handicapped, etc. When schools finally began to serve these children, such medical terminology was neither helpful nor appropriate. With time, medical terms were abandoned and the term Specific Learning Disabilities became widely accepted in the United States. The word "Specific" implied the student had problems in only certain aspects of learning rather than a general deficiency, as in the case of mental retardation.

Many SLD children have difficulty with reading but some are troubled by other areas such as math or verbal expression. The learning problems are frequently accompanied by behavior problems such as hyperactivity, distractibility or impulsiveness. In some ways the SLD child might function like a child labeled mentally retarded, in other ways he may resemble the emotionally disturbed child. Often overlooked are SLD students with some areas decidedly gifted. This variance is typical of SLD children yet precisely the element that makes identification difficult because no two SLD children have identical profiles of strengths and weaknesses.

How can SLD children be identified? Until more precise measures can be developed, the guidelines provided by USOE (*Federal Register*, Dec. 29, 1977) will be helpful. According to these guidelines SLD is defined as follows:

Specific learning disability means a disorder in one or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or in using language, spoken or written, which may manifest itself in imperfect ability to listen, think, speak, read, write, spell or to do mathematical calculations. The term includes such conditions as perceptual handicaps, brain injury, minimal brain dysfunction, dyslexia and developmental aphasia. The term does not include children who have learning problems which are primarily the result of visual, hearing, or motor handicaps, of mental retardation, of emotional disturbance, or of environmental, cultural or economic disadvantage.

The regulations further specify criteria for determining a specific learning disability as:

- (a) 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, when provided with learning experiences appropriate for the child's age and ability levels; and

2. The team finds that a child has a severe discrepancy between achievement and the intellectual ability in one or more of the following areas:
- (i) Oral expression;
 - (ii) Listening comprehension;
 - (iii) Written expression;
 - (iv) Basic reading skill;
 - (v) Reading comprehension;
 - (vi) Mathematics calculation; or
 - (vii) Mathematics reasoning.
- (b) The team may not identify a child as having a specific learning disability if the severe discrepancy between ability and achievement is primarily the result of:
1. A visual, hearing or motor handicap;
 2. Mental retardation;
 3. Emotional disturbance; or
 4. Environmental, cultural or economic disadvantage.

The determination for placement is made by a multidisciplinary team the same as is required for all other handicapping conditions (*Federal Register*, Aug. 23, 1977). The team must consist of at least a supervisor of special education, the child's teacher and his parents. In addition, for SLD candidates, the new regulations specify that the team must include the child's regular class teacher and one person qualified to conduct individual diagnostic examinations of children, such as a school psychologist.

Another element unique to the area of SLD is the requirement to observe the child in the regular class setting. The regulations (*Federal Register*, Dec. 29, 1977) state:

- a. At least one team member other than the child's regular teacher shall observe the child's academic performance in the regular classroom setting.
- b. In the case of a child of less than school age or out of school, a team member shall observe the child in an environment appropriate for a child of that age.

The diagnostic team must prepare a written report of the results of the evaluation. The report must document the basis of determining SLD, a record of observed behavior and other relevant findings. Each team member must certify in writing his or her agreement with the report. If one member does not agree with the consensus of the team, he or she must submit a separate statement.

The regulations also removed a two percent limit on the number of children that could be served in a SLD program. This limit was specified in the law (PL 94-142) to avoid the potential problem of a loose interpretation of the definition which would result in placing too many children in SLD programs for purposes of receiving federal funds. Since the new regulations will help to control the potential problem, the two percent cap was lifted.

How will the regulations affect public schools? For many schools, no changes will be needed. Some school districts have established clear procedures and guidelines

for placement that are consistent with the new regulations. Other school districts will need to reconsider their present practices and develop a system to effectively meet the new requirements. For example, it is a common practice for school psychologists to make placement decisions without consulting other people concerned about the child, such as the classroom teacher or the learning disabilities teacher. Such a practice cannot continue. It is not acceptable for any person alone to make a placement decision. It is imperative for school staffs to find the time for all team members to meet and discuss the data collectively. Staffings present problems of time, scheduling and communication that must be addressed.

If placement teams are to function effectively, all members must know what to look for. This knowledge may need to be imparted through inservice training, especially for regular class teachers and administrators. They will need to know how to determine the presence of a discrepancy between achievement and potential. They should know how to identify a specific disability rather than a general learning problem. They will need to understand characteristics of other handicapping conditions which cannot be included in the SLD group. If team members are not knowledgeable, they will simply rubber stamp the opinions of one or two people. Such a practice will not be in the best interest of the child nor will it reflect the intent of the law. This issue calls for inservice and pre-service training for school staffs.

Diagnostic team members may need to improve their skills in making classroom observations. If the observation period is not designed to pinpoint specific behaviors, the time may not be well spent. The diagnostician will need to have a clear purpose for observation and a systematic method of recording observed behavior. Other factors will need to be considered such as the time of day selected for observation and communication with the classroom teacher.

There is a need for more research to study the whole area of SLD. This need is recognized and supported by the Bureau of Education for the Handicapped. However, until such time as research can give more definitive information, the federal guidelines are an important step towards providing some consistency. The regulations are not as precise as some professionals had hoped for. But they are responsive to the varied views of professionals throughout the United States. Considering the current state of the art, these guidelines may best serve American children for the time being.

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Mainstreaming is becoming one of the most visible and controversial issues in educational discussion today.

An operational approach to mainstreaming —making it work

by Gary A. Livingston



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With the signing into law of PL 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act, a new era has emerged in public education. Associated with this apparent educational metamorphosis is a renewed interest in providing handicapped children a myriad of experiences within the more normal constructs of our educational system. This effort of course, addresses very specifically the intent of the law in mandating appropriate educational opportunities, least restrictive educational alternatives and individualized educational programs for all handicapped children.

As implied, mainstreaming is becoming one of the most visible and controversial issues in educational discussion today. School districts across the country are inevitably suffering from growing and modification pains experienced in their efforts to meet these newly mandated requirements.

In reviewing current literature, very little has been written about the actual development and implementation of an appropriate mainstreaming model. Generally, the literature has been descriptive of theoretical frameworks and has addressed administrative implications regarding rights and responsibilities as major issues, rather than practical implementation.

With this in mind, the critical issue becomes one of establishing a viable process for reintegrating handicapped children into regular educational programs. Due to the complexity and practical implications involved in this process, a systemic model for mainstreaming is necessary. Therefore, the purpose of this paper is to propose a practical guide describing a procedural system for safeguarding the re-entry of handicapped children into more normal educational experiences.

The operational paradigm and descriptive narrative presented in this paper is an effort to more concretely formulate a procedural system for the mainstreaming

process. More importantly, it attempts to describe and establish safeguards, emphasizing the essential function of inter-program communication and cooperation (special and regular ed.), to ensure more appropriate educational programs for handicapped students.

As depicted in figure 1., the responsibility for implementing an appropriate educational plan for a handicapped child is that of the special education teacher. Therefore, any initial mainstreaming attempt becomes the responsibility of that special education teacher. In addition, the special class teacher is responsible for augmenting a cooperative communication arrangement with regular educational programs, and especially with those regular curricular experiences determined appropriate for that special student.

However, prior to any actual mainstreaming endeavor, three pre-implementation issues need to be addressed. Initially, the special teacher is responsible for assessing the regular classroom to determine the student skill expectations and behavioral standards necessary for an exceptional child to successfully participate in this regular class experience. Secondly, the special teacher is responsible for developing an open four-way communication process. This should involve the special teacher, regular class teacher, building principal and the parents, in an effort to identify appropriate procedural arrangements and safeguards for reintegrating the special student into the proposed regular classroom experience. Thirdly, appropriate assessment of the special student's strengths and weaknesses must be accomplished. With this information compiled, direct application of educational intervention strategies can be implemented within the special classroom. Specifically, these efforts will attempt to strengthen those learning skills identified as deficient, and to improve to a level commensurate with those required for successful reintegration into the proposed regular class.

Having completed the three preliminary responsibilities, communication must occur between the regular teacher, special education teacher, and building principal to approve and implement the proposed mainstreaming experience.

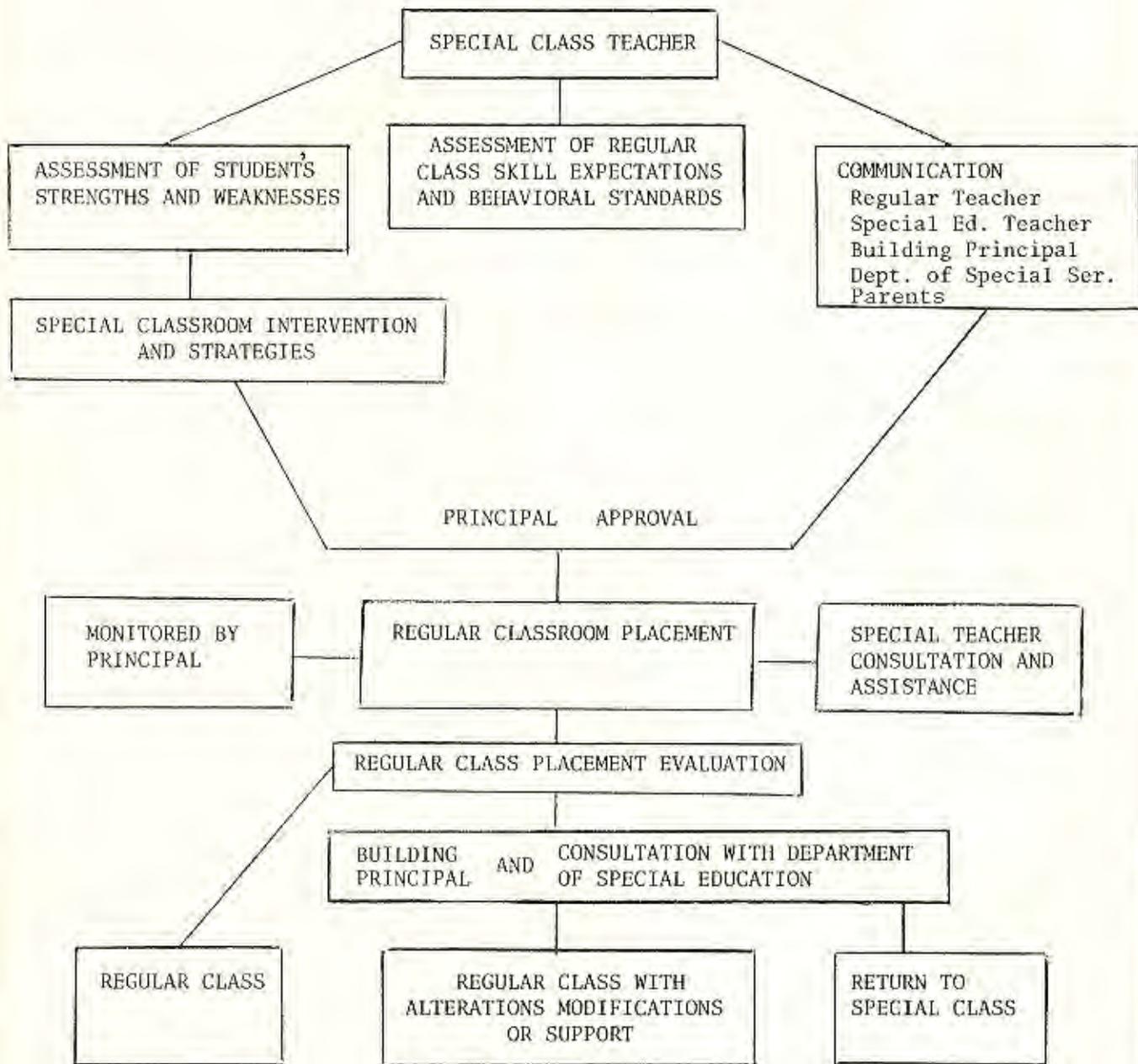
As the mainstreaming endeavor is implemented, it then becomes the responsibility of the special teacher to make a commitment to assist and support the regular classroom program. Often, student skill deficiencies do not present themselves in the isolated special class situation, but may be identified within the context of the regular class. In addition, the building principal, as the administrator of the total school program, would be responsible for monitoring the mainstreaming effort, and for assuring the continuity and appropriateness of this regular class experience in meeting the handicapped student's educational needs.

Ongoing evaluation of the regular class placement is essential. If discrepancies do arise, initial action should be taken cooperatively between the special and regular class teachers to see if, in fact, within the regular class specific alterations, modifications or support strategies could be implemented to maintain the special student in the regular program. If however, these efforts are not successful, then by mutual consent and cooperation the exceptional child could be returned to the special class.

If for some reason, this return process does break down, the building administrator should be consulted. As the building administrator, it would then be his responsibility to make a decision, based on information provided at a building level staffing, as to whether the mainstreaming effort would continue, would be altered, or would be terminated. The building principal may wish to involve assistance from special service staff, on a consultative basis, to augment this decision process.

In summary, any successful mainstreaming attempt must be a cooperative effort involving high level communications between the special teacher, the regular teacher, building administrator and the parents. This four-way communication cycle should provide the vehicle for providing appropriate experiences for special children in the regular class. However, no special student should remain in a regular class, when he cannot materially benefit from such a program. A determination has to be made, whether in fact, the regular class or the special class, for this particular student, is a more restrictive educational environment.

FIGURE 1.
 MAINSTREAMING FLOW CHART
 A PROCEDURAL ARRANGEMENT



An efficient funding method should provide for maximum flexibility in programming at the district level.

Mainstreaming: Implications for special education funding

by Nelda H. Cambron



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In the area of special education, the question of programming has been highlighted in recent years with the emphasis on mainstreaming. Programming and funding provisions are so interrelated that, depending on the funding formula implemented, the types of services provided for the handicapped can be either expanded or contracted. An efficient funding method should provide for maximum flexibility in programming at the district level. This is not always the situation as evidenced by requirements in some states for establishment of self-contained classrooms to qualify for state funds for exceptional children.

The history of programming for the handicapped has been dominated by the self-contained special class. At the beginning of the 1970s almost four million children were receiving special education in the United States. The primary mode of delivery for these special services up until that time had been the self-contained class. In the early 1970s a major change in programming was begun with the movement away from special classes for children with mild or moderate handicaps toward the integration of these children into regular classes. Due to legislation, litigation and the concern of educational specialists, delivery systems are no longer limited to a choice between the self-contained special class and the self-contained regular class. At the present time, a number of viable alternatives can be found between these two extremes. However, in too many instances a funding method can thwart a district's effort to provide a broad continuum of services.

Equal educational opportunity for exceptional children is no longer expressed merely in terms of a free public education but also that a child is entitled to an education appropriate to his or her needs. Providing an appropriate education, or an education in the least restrictive environment, is a growing concern voiced not only by

the courts but expressed in state and federal statutes. Public Law 94-142, which provides increased federal funds for special education, requires that states provide procedural safeguards to assure, "that, to the maximum extent appropriate, handicapped children . . . are educated with children who are not handicapped, and that special classes, separate schooling or other removal of handicapped children from the regular educational environment occurs only when the nature or severity of the handicap is such that education in regular classes with the use of supplementary aids and services cannot be achieved satisfactorily." With widespread concern and mandates for mainstreaming, it becomes apparent that states must have funding mechanisms which encourage, or at least do not inhibit, the establishment of alternative delivery systems.

Funding Methods

The funding formulas adopted for allocating state funds to the local districts vary widely among the states. The types of reimbursement have been categorized in a number of ways. For the purposes of this paper, they are grouped into four categories: (1) unit, (2) pupil, (3) percentage reimbursement and (4) excess cost. Each formula is briefly identified to provide a perspective for examining funding programs for the handicapped.

Unit. States employing unit formulas distribute a fixed amount to districts for classroom, administrative or transportation units. Most frequently payments are a predetermined flat amount for each unit designated. Classroom units may be expressed as a certain pupil/teacher ratio. Calculations would then be made by dividing the total number of handicapped pupils by the designated classroom size. Class sizes may vary for different categories of exceptionality or may simply be the same for all categories. A variation of the unit method is the weighted classroom unit. The special classroom units are weighted against the regular classroom units (e.g., \$5,000 per regular classroom plus \$2,000 for approved special education classrooms).

Pupil. Pupil formulas can be classified as either straight sum or weighted. Under the straight sum, an amount in addition to the regular per pupil amount would be allocated per handicapped pupil. This amount could vary with the handicapping condition or simply involve a flat amount regardless of category. Under a weighted pupil formula, the local district is reimbursed on the basis of a multiple of the regular per pupil allocation. Florida has the most extensive weighted formula employing 15 special education categories ranging in value from 2.30 to 15.00 (Florida Statutes, Ch. 236). Several other states employ weighted formulas, however, utilizing fewer categories.

Percentage Reimbursement. Under a percentage reimbursement formula, a predetermined percentage of the costs incurred is reimbursed by the state. The percentage of reimbursement spans the gamut from very low to 100 percent, from personnel only to full program. States may impose a ceiling on the amount which is reimbursable or reimburse on total of state approved costs.

Excess Cost. A number of states have adopted the excess cost approach to funding. This formula necessitates determining the amount by which special education expenditures exceed expenditures for the regular child. These costs can be either partially or fully funded by the state.

Efficiency in Funding

In selecting a particular procedure for funding special education programs, consideration should be given to problem areas which may be encountered. Certain formulas have inherent weaknesses which may interfere with the effectiveness or efficiency of a program if compensation is not made for them. This is especially true when considering the issue of mainstreaming. Data are limited at this point to measure the efficiency of current financing provisions; however, there are identifiable problem areas which can result in a lack of efficiency. Two of these issues are addressed here—programming and average cost funding. Prior to discussing these, however, a few of the general issues whose impact must be considered in evaluating or selecting a funding method are enumerated.

First, funding for special education programs more adequately meets the needs of students when the variation in program cost is recognized. When a unit or a flat pupil allocation is employed, there is no consideration of this cost variation. However, recognition of the cost variation may create fiscal incentives for incorrect placement. For example, under a weighted pupil formula there may be an advantage to placing a child in a higher cost category. A related issue centers around the question of the appropriate class size for a handicapping condition. This is difficult to control in a formula unless a limit is placed on class size. Under the unit system, class size may be increased to lower per pupil cost. With the weighted pupil system, larger classes generate additional funds without a commensurate increase in operational cost. Another issue, related to the placement question, is labeling of students. This is necessitated by the very nature of many funding systems. To identify costs whether under a pupil, unit, percentage reimbursement or excess cost method, in many cases means tracking the child to a particular category. Avoiding the problem of labeling thus appears to be incompatible with many funding mechanisms. Finally, systems involving approved programs or approved special education costs (such as percentage reimbursement or excess cost) encounter the problem of determining just what is an appropriate program. An expectation of such funding would be a requirement for a high level of standardization in programs or delivery systems from the state level to ensure comparability among districts. Therefore, potential danger exists for inflexible programming. These are only a few of the broader issues of which policy makers should be aware in funding special education programs.

Programming. Provisions for educating the handicapped in the "least restrictive environment" is a state consideration in allocating funds. Although a state may not mandate and specifically fund a number of alternative delivery systems, at a minimum it should ensure that the formula does not restrict the decision making of the districts in this area.

The question a district must ask then is which delivery systems should be provided for effective programming. M.C. Reynolds (1962) proposed a framework of delivery systems in the 1960s which has been recommended procedurally by many state departments of education. These services for public schools span the range from complete retention in the regular class to segregation in the special class. Recognition is provided for the fact that some handicapped children can remain in regular classes with minor support services. This can be a

form of indirect service where a consultant advises or assists the regular teacher or direct service where an itinerant teacher provides additional instruction to the child in the regular classroom setting. As the problems of a child become more severe or complex, more restrictive placement is required such as the resource room, part-time special class, or full-time special class. For the more restrictive delivery systems, greater resources and specialized personnel are needed; and, thus, the programs become more expensive.

Florida is one of the states recommending a typology similar to that of Reynolds; however, an examination of the existing delivery systems revealed only two primary systems—the self-contained classroom and the resource room (Cambron, 1976). This practice can be traced to the method of implementation of the formula. Funds are earned through student contact which means that delivery systems with no contact or minimum contact between a teacher and student cannot generate sufficient funds to cover the operational costs. With the exception of services from the resource room, supplemental services provided for the handicapped child enrolled in the regular classroom must be funded at the local district level without state assistance.

The unit formula for reimbursement suffers from a similar weakness, especially in funding instructional units. Too often full-time placement in a program is required. When only special classes are funded, funds necessary for mainstreaming costs are usually not available. Under percentage reimbursement, the district may be tempted to place children in the least expensive program; this in turn reduces the options for placement. The same situation may exist for excess cost formulas depending on the ceiling level. Although when 100 percent reimbursement of excess costs is provided, maximum flexibility should exist unless the state has imposed narrow programming decisions with relation to which expenditures qualify for reimbursement.

Average Cost Funding. The formulas identified involve an averaging of costs (unless 100 percent of actual expenditures are reimbursed). An amount reflecting an average cost is normally established. States utilizing weighted pupil units for specified handicapping conditions may establish an index or cost factor for exceptional categories based on a state-wide or national average. This average does not reflect varying costs associated with severity of handicap or costs incurred at the individual district level. This is true of the other formulas when an "average" amount is established on a unit basis or as a percentage of reimbursement.

The question must then be asked, "Can individual needs be effectively met with average funding?" Costs of programs increase with the severity of handicap due to greater resource inputs. In looking at a hypothetical example, assume that there are three levels of severity in an educable mentally retarded program, with the levels being mild, moderate and severe. If varying costs, in addition to the regular program cost, are attached per pupil such as \$300 (mild), \$500 (moderate) and \$1,000 (severe), an average per pupil cost of \$600 is obtained. All districts then regardless of severity of children will receive \$600 per pupil, which may result in underfunding of some districts and overfunding of others. Districts with a large number of severely handicapped children will find themselves maximizing class sizes to decrease per pupil cost, failing to provide ancillary services and administration,

and placing children inappropriately to increase funds. Researchers who have been involved in cost analysis studies emphasize that average costs derived from studies do not reflect the individual district costs. One of the reasons attributed to the variation in program costs among districts is the use of alternative delivery systems with varying resource inputs. Aggregations at the state level have only provided for averages by exceptional categories with no recognition of the cost variation connected with delivery systems. Thus, funding is based on this average which may unduly restrict program decision making.

Cost of Mainstreaming

Researchers have recognized that programming is crucial in determining the costs in special education. In fact, several researchers have admonished that "if funding is to reflect costs, the states' method of reimbursement to local districts must take into account the costs of specific program alternatives" (Bernstein, Hartman, Kirt & Marshall, 1974, p. 16). Others have noted that "the magnitude of the differentials in educational cost are inextricably linked to the type of delivery system used in providing the various educational programs" (Rossmiller & Moran, 1973, p. 67).

Even though there has been substantial interest in the cost of alternative delivery systems, very little research has been conducted to delineate these costs. Most of the studies have investigated the differential cost between the regular program and exceptional program areas. These studies have indicated that exceptional programs often vary in cost from one and one-half to four times the cost of regular programs depending on the program area, severity of impairment and resources involved (Rossmiller, Hale, & Frohreich, 1970; Institute for Educational Finance, 1974). If the mainstreaming concept is to be incorporated directly into funding methods, a similar empirical base is needed to formulate recommended funding levels. The author was recently involved in a comprehensive school finance study in the state of West Virginia in which delivery system costs were examined to provide such a base for that state (Educational Finance and Research Institute, 1977). Some of the results from the study are briefly summarized below.

In the West Virginia study, all program areas in the 55 school districts were examined using state-level expenditure and enrollment data. For the area of special education, 11 categories of exceptionalities and three delivery systems were identified. The three delivery systems employed were the self-contained classroom, resource room, and itinerant teacher. A full-time equivalency (FTE)* cost and cost index were determined for each category and for each delivery system within the category. For example, in the educable mentally retarded program (EMR), the program cost index was 1.93 which means that on a total program basis it costs 1.93 times the basic program cost (elementary) to provide services for EMR students. In breaking out the delivery systems within this program, the following ratios were found: self-contained 1.74, resource room 2.15, itinerant teacher 5.25. Although on an FTE basis the resource room and itinerant teacher delivery systems have a much higher index, on a per pupil basis the cost is considerably smaller (e.g., the resource room index of 2.15 with an average FTE enrollment of 10.25 would be reduced to 1.58 on a per pupil basis since the average number of students actually

served was 20.50). Each program was examined in a similar manner. Over all program areas, cost indices for delivery systems were: self-contained 1.90, resource room 2.11 and itinerant teacher 8.03. The very high index for the itinerant teacher was attributed to low caseloads in the disorders of communication category. Even though this study only examined three alternatives at the state level, it demonstrates that these costs are obtainable, that variations in cost of delivery systems are substantial enough to warrant recognition and that further investigation is needed with a broader array of alternatives at the district level.

Conclusions

On a limited basis, several states have recognized the varying cost of delivery systems through their provisions for severity of handicapping conditions. For instance, Florida has identified three special programs as having full-time and part-time students. Cost factors are assigned to each with the full-time program designated as a special self-contained class and the part-time program as a resource room (Florida Statutes, Ch. 236). The New Mexico system goes further by specifically identifying four delivery systems and assigning cost factors to these (New Mexico Statutes, Ch. 8). The four found in New Mexico are: itinerant teacher, resource room, self-contained (moderate), and self-contained (severe). Even though other states do not integrate the funding and program alternatives, several who require reimbursement of approved program costs suggest program alternatives which reflect severity.

It is feasible to integrate the costs of mainstreaming into existing formulas. This would mean under a unit formula that the units to be funded would be alternative programming arrangements. For instance, using the Reynolds' framework for a model, instead of just teacher units, units would be designated for itinerant teachers, resource room teachers and so forth. Under a weighted pupil formula, weights might be assigned, instead of on a categorical basis, on a delivery system basis. Percentage reimbursement and excess cost would involve establishing approved program costs on the basis of delivery systems.

Incorporating delivery systems into funding models would provide for greater efficiency in several ways. First, flexibility would be provided in programming. The various program alternatives would allow for placement in an environment which would more closely meet the needs of

the handicapped child. Second, the problem of labeling and the resulting stigmatization could be avoided with this method. The funding formula, in and of itself, would not necessitate categorization. Research indicates that program resource inputs vary with severity, therefore, resource rooms or other alternatives with similar pupil/teacher ratios would also have similar costs. For funding purposes a cost could be attached to the delivery systems rather than particular exceptional categories. Finally, allocations would be more aligned with costs. An average cost would still be employed, however, the average would more closely reflect actual costs since severity is considered.

Note

¹Full time equivalency was defined as membership of 25 hours per week in a program.

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Unless change can occur in a manner which alters previously held attitudes toward colleges of education, little is gained.

Mainstreaming colleges of education: an opinion

by Edward L. Meyen



Edward L. Meyen is chairman of the Special Education Department at the University of Kansas. He has published extensively in the area of curriculum and instructional planning for exceptional children. He is the senior developer of the Instructional Based Appraisal System which is a systematic approach to the implementation of the IEP requirement of PL 94-142. His most recent publication is an introductory text on exceptional children and youth. Dr. Meyen has served as a consultant to several federal and state agencies. He is a frequent participant at conferences on programmatic and personnel training implications of PL 94-142. His experience includes public schools and state educational agencies. He has also served on the faculties of the University of Iowa, University of Missouri-Columbia and the University of Kansas.

Colleges of education throughout the country are responding to the mainstreaming movement. For the most part, they are attempting to identify the competencies required of the regular classroom teacher to effectively teach handicapped children "mainstreamed" into their classrooms. Once identified, there is an attempt to integrate the teaching of those competencies into the regular teacher training program or through separate modules or courses designed as an option. It is too early to determine whether or not this approach will be effective. Certainly, at first observation it appears to be appropriate. At least, a purposeful response is occurring. But under careful scrutiny such efforts may prove to be totally insufficient.

In the realm of speculation, let us compare the circumstances in the public schools with those in colleges of education as they pertain to mainstreaming or, more specifically, to implementing the principles embedded in PL 94-142.

The public schools are being asked to:

- ... shift instructional responsibility for the handicapped child from the special education to the regular classroom teacher except where the seriousness of the child's handicap warrants more "restrictive" alternatives.
- ... reallocate financial resources to accommodate the costs incurred in providing an appropriate education for all handicapped children and youth.
- ... alter their organizational structure in order to meet the detailed and highly structured due-process requirements.
- ... implement an approach to individualized instruction for the handicapped which goes beyond what they have been able to do for nonhandicapped students.
- ... involve their consumers, i.e., parents in instructional planning for the handicapped.
- ... change the assigned roles of staff members to assure compliance with the requirements and procedural requirements of PL 94-142.
- ... add one more major responsibility to the many "leadership" roles of the building principal.

Much like the public schools, colleges of education are also facing a set of demands related to the "mainstreaming issue." An examination of the existing climate in both settings reveals a number of similarities. Descriptive quotations from the perspective of local schools and colleges of education are used to contrast the circumstances in the two settings.

1. *"I already have 30 students—I don't have time to work with handicapped students and also at the same time meet the needs of my other students."*

2. "They have been doing well in our program of special classes—why change?"
3. "The cost of inservice training and providing support services will be exorbitant. State aid is already insufficient and our local property tax base is overtaxed.
4. "I am confident that most of my teachers, given the necessary support can do a good job with handicapped children, but it is not going to be easy to convince a third-grade teacher with 25 years of experience to accept "advice," "consultation," or "assistance" from a young specialist who may have little experience regardless of her training."
5. "To effectively mainstream handicapped children will require a major expenditure of administrative energy. I am not sure we are up to it. We are still struggling with the racial integration, bussing issues, and competency-based testing."
1. "I already have more content to teach in my courses than I can cover."
2. "Why not either require a special education course or design a new course instead of integrating the teaching of special techniques and skills into the regular teaching program?"
3. "Universities are currently in a period of austerity. Inflation frequently exceeds increased appropriations. Colleges of education are experiencing enrollment drops and the internal reallocation of resources. We cannot afford to hire new faculty or to establish needed resources for teacher training."
4. "Justified or not, there is a certain suspicion held of special education faculty members by professors from other departments. For the most part, these feelings relate to the federal support special education departments have received and the benefit this support has brought them while other departments have experienced difficulties.
5. "Certainly it is important to be responsive to the personnel needs of local districts and changes on our

part will be necessary but . . . we have just completed the process of adjusting salaries due to inequities over the years; we are still faced with affirmative action problems because ethnic groups are underrepresented on our faculties and among our students, we are being told by the University that teachers are in over-supply and that we should be cutting back some programs and the public in general is telling us to guarantee them competent teachers. So . . ."

These comments are obviously contrived, but they are not fictitious. They do describe a general set of parallel conditions which exist in the public schools and in colleges of education. But there is a difference. The public schools really do not have a choice. Not only must they change, but they must do so within a specified time regardless of other concurrent demands for change being experienced by them.

The responses by the public schools have been varied, but there have been responses. The operational responses toward meeting the requirements of PL 94-142 are highly visible. Certainly, the responses are influenced by the enforcement nature of the law and the role of SEA's and the U.S. Office of Education in the evaluation process. The point is that in the face of having to make major changes within the restrictions of a specific time line and in the context of a less than enthusiastic climate, changes are occurring.

Whereas colleges of education may eventually become conspicuous by their failure to change, they are under no mandate to implement specific changes in teacher education which are analogous to those faced by the public schools. *This is not to suggest that changes in teacher education are not essential; they are. But the probability of change is dependent on leadership and not assured as a result of enforceable mandates such as those which exist for local schools.*

The purpose of this article is not to argue for the same level and type of change on the part of colleges of education that is being required of the public schools because of PL 94-142 in the name of "mainstreaming." Certainly, there are changes which ought to occur in the preparation of teachers and administrators as a result of PL 94-142 and some changes will occur in most, if not all colleges of education. But will the changes be sufficient? Not only sufficient to meet the requirements of PL 94-142, but sufficient to satisfy the critics of teacher education generally. Perceptions of colleges of education may vary from campus to campus, but there are many common themes. For example, they are often accused of accepting poorer students and rewarding them with higher grades, overproducing and adding to employment problems, not practicing what they preach "teach", being rigid in their structuring of course requirements and unresponsive to contemporary critical issues. There are even some consumers who believe that school districts should train their own teachers. Regardless of the validity of these perspectives, for those who hold them such perceptions represent reality.

The point to be made is that there may be an advantage in capitalizing on the conditions created by PL 94-142 as a basis for more pervasive change within colleges of education which can address the full array of concerns in teacher education. For example, PL 94-142 is a unique piece of educational legislation; it mandates very specific practices, it represents a statement of public policy, it has received high visibility, and above all the impact of legislation affects individuals from all walks of life. There is also a sophisticated advocacy force emerging to insure close monitoring of its implementation. These conditions give rise to expectations of teacher education, hopefully, this means colleges of education. Why not capitalize on the expectancy of PL 94-142 and initiate visible changes which may be under the guise of responding to the "mainstream" issue but which could create a better set of circumstances in which to deal with the broader perceptions previously cited.

Regardless of the achievements that may occur in a college of education, it seems that they are rarely acknowledged or at least they continue to be overshadowed by the prevailing traditional perspectives. Not only does this operate at the program level, but it tends to be a generalized situation. For example, the **Phi Beta Kappa** does not cancel out the student who transfers into education after not being admitted to another field, the outstanding professor does not cancel out the professor who continues to perpetuate the teaching of outmoded content, nor does the progress in developing performance based programs alter the "education" course image of teacher training.

While it would be naive to suggest that reorganizing colleges of education would result in their becoming more responsive or alter their status in the reallocation process within their parent institutions, reorganization may be a necessary condition or context for more purposeful change. In other words, it may require a highly visible effort in order for change in colleges of education to be believable. This is not a criticism of existing colleges of education, it is an observation of the status which appears to have been acquired by colleges of education. Thus, it may not be enough to pursue change related to issues such as mainstreaming, proficiency testing, performance-based training, etc. within the present context. It may be that to fully actualize the benefit of change will require a major overt effort involving reorganization of administrative structure. Restructuring would not be the goal, rather it would serve as the context in which other changes could occur. Thus, the agenda would need to be carefully planned.

For the sake of discussion, let us look at the question of organization. It could be argued that the typical structure which involves departments of administration, counseling, educational psychology, special education, etc. is no longer compatible with the mission of colleges of education or that the structure restricts the responsiveness of colleges of education. The present situation in many cases has nurtured the evolution of miniature self-contained colleges of education under the guise of departments. In many ways, this occurrence serves administrative needs better than the needs of faculty members and/or students. One option would be to organize from the perspective of function, i.e., teaching, evaluation, technology, development and school organization. Using

teaching as an example, you would include in this department faculty members with primary responsibility for teaching methods-type skills. An organizational model which brings faculty together based on their instructional mission would not minimize their need to affiliate with their colleagues in the discipline domain, e.g., special education, educational psychology, elementary education, etc. but that could be accomplished through another level of organization.

A structure with this orientation would have certain advantages. For example such an organization:

- ... Breaks down the emerging practice of departments becoming "self-contained" miniature colleges of education.
- ... Allows for the grouping of faculty talent by their teaching mission; for example, it may be unreasonable to expect to have faculty with strong methods skills in every traditional department.
- ... Enhances the capability for preparing teachers to teach most children.
- ... Encourages decisions on replacement to be made on the need for specific teaching talent in the college rather than in a department.
- ... Provides more flexibility in exigency situations in that emphasis is shifted from traditional department design to programs.
- ... Maximizes investments in instructional resources for teacher training. Presently each traditional department advocates for its own instructional resources and thus causes instructional resources to be dispersed.
- ... Could have the effect of encouraging better research or at least encouraging research which address problems which are less parochial.
- ... Makes visible the emphasis on teaching potential teachers to teach. At the same time, it makes visible the need for resources.

Space does not permit an extensive discussion on potential organizational variations. For purposes of this article, such a discussion is not necessary. The intent of this article has been to suggest that the mainstreaming issue could be used as a vehicle by colleges of education to address a wider array of needed changes. Perceptions commonly held of colleges of education must be dealt with in an almost exaggerated manner if the change is to be acknowledged. The author has argued that programmatic changes will probably not be sufficient unless they are couched in the more visible context of changes in the organizational structure. At the same time, changes in the organizational structure alone would not be sufficient.

The general tenor of attitudes among consumers and the public constituency in general dictates that those who want to be responsive to needed changes in education must deal with a set of political realities beyond the substantive nature of what needs to be changed. Unless change can occur in a manner which alters previously held attitudes toward colleges of education, little is gained. As educators we can argue that those attitudes are dated or unjustified, but the fact remains that for those who hold them they represent reality.

Central to integration is the idea of moving the student as soon as possible to a less restrictive setting as far along the continuum as appropriate.

Beyond mainstreaming to least restrictive environment

by Ernest E. Singletary and Gary D. Collings



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The purpose of this article is to briefly review the current practice of mainstreaming and to consider the more futuristic and workable alternative of least restrictive environment. A model of least restrictive environment will be proposed.

Past and Current Approaches

Special education has served handicapped youngsters through the alternatives depicted in the hierarchy of services model by Reynolds (1962) and reported in Kirk (1972). The services include: hospitals and treatment centers, hospital school, residential school, special day school, full-time special class, part-time class, regular classroom plus resource room service, regular classroom with supplemental teaching or treatment, regular classroom with consultation and most problems handled in regular classrooms. The self-contained class setting has been used and abused the most of all these alternatives.

Mainstreaming

The topic of mainstreaming is one of the most frequently reported subjects in the literature since 1970. Jordan (1974) describes mainstreaming as a "program of enrolling and teaching exceptional children in regular classes for the majority of the school day." Martin (1974) raised the issue of "attitudes, fears, anxieties and possibly over rejection, which may face handicapped children, not just from their schoolmates, but from the adults in the schools." Zemanek (1977) related that "if educators are to attain the goals of individualization and normalization, they cannot ignore the potential that mainstreaming offers."

Casper (1975) broached the question of "What is Mainstreaming?" According to his work, mainstreaming is:

- providing the most appropriate education for each child in the least restrictive setting.
- looking at the educational needs of children instead of clinical or diagnostic labels such as mentally handicapped, learning disabled, physically handicapped, hearing impaired or gifted.

- looking for and creating alternatives that will help general educators serve children with learning or adjustment problems in the regular setting.
- some approaches being used to help achieve this are consulting teachers, methods and materials specialist, itinerant teachers and resource room teachers.
- uniting the skills of general education and special education so that all children may have equal educational opportunity.

Mainstreaming is not:

- wholesale return of all exceptional children in special classes to regular classes.
- permitting children with special needs to remain in regular classrooms without the support services that they need.
- ignoring the need of some children for a more specialized program than can be provided in the general education program
- ignoring the need of some children for a more specialized program than can be provided in the general education program.
- less costly than serving children in special self-contained classrooms. (p. 174)

Meisgeier (1976) indicates that

a common thread running through operational mainstreaming programs is the emphasis on what might be called (a) systems approaches to service delivery, (b) application of the principles of applied behavior analysis (which is viewed as compatible with humanistic goals), and (c) program accountability. (p. 249)

Essential ingredients for quality transition. With the popularization of mainstreaming, many programs attempted to convert from basically a self-contained classroom approach to mainstreaming children into regular classes. Three essential ingredients for quality transition now seem apparent: (a) resource rooms, (b) diagnostic-prescriptive teaching (DPT), and (c) training of regular teachers on the topic of exceptional learners.

The efficacy of the resource room for retarded children was reported by Walker (1974). Based on a program implemented by the Philadelphia School System, "the academic and social-emotional needs of the mentally retarded child can be met as well, if not better, in the resource room program as in the special class."

Ysseldyke and Salvia (1974) present a concise discussion of the DPT process as

the steps in diagnostic-prescriptive teaching include identification of children who are experiencing learning difficulties, diagnostic delineation of learner strengths and weaknesses and prescriptive intervention (specification of goals, methods, strategies, material, etc.) in light of these strengths and weaknesses. Effective diagnostic-prescriptive teaching rests on four critical assumptions:

1. Children enter a teaching situation with strengths and weaknesses.
2. These strengths and weaknesses are causally related to the acquisition of academic skills.
3. These strengths and weaknesses can be reliably and validly assessed.
4. There are well identified links between children's

strengths and weaknesses and relative effectiveness of instruction. (p. 181)

The appropriate training of regular teachers has caused serious concern among educators dealing with mainstreaming attempts. Effort is being expended in pre-service and in-service training to remedy this deficit. Ensher et. al. (1977) revealed that "Headstart staffs have sometimes grown openly resentful or highly anxious about the assumption of new responsibilities for which they feel ill equipped in terms of time, energy, and training." Although Ensher's remarks focused on Headstart personnel, the same is true for most educators.

Cantrell and Cantrell (1976) conducted research on preventive mainstreaming through providing supportive services for students. Results of their study "support the hypothesis that regular classroom teachers who have access to resource personnel trained in ecological analysis and intervention strategies can effect significant achievement gains for students at all levels of IQ functioning."

Future Approach

Least restrictive environment mandate: Future approaches to designing delivery systems for exceptional children must be consistent with the least restrictive environment (LRE) mandate of P.L. 94-142 which stipulates

- 1) That to the maximum extent appropriate, handicapped children, including children in public or private institutions or other facilities, are educated with children who are not handicapped, and
- 2) That special classes, separate schooling or other removal of handicapped children from the regular educational environment occurs only when the nature or severity of the handicap is such that education in regular classes with the use of supplementary aids and services cannot be achieved satisfactorily. (**Federal Register**, Aug. 23, 1977, p. 42497).

The continuum of alternative placements must include:

- 1) ... instruction in regular classes, special classes, special schools, home instruction and instruction in hospitals and institutions, and
- 2) Make provisions for supplementary services (such as resource room or itinerant instruction) to be provided in conjunction with regular class placement. (**Federal Register**, Aug. 23, 1977, p. 42497).

The least restrictive environment cannot be conceived of as placing all handicapped children in regular grades. The LRE for a severe and profound youngster will be the self contained classroom instead of remaining at home with no service or in an institution. The LRE for moderately involved children may be a part-time resource room. Fortunately, the LRE concept does not lead us to believe that every handicapped child will be in regular classes full time, but only to the extent which it is adjudged optimally beneficial for that child.

Mainstreaming has typically been thought of in terms of phasing handicapped children into regular classes. The LRE concept expands the placement alternatives usually identified with mainstreaming and makes it possible for public schools, private schools, and public institutions to serve as plausible alternatives for a given youngster.

Categories of children to be served: Irrespective of past practices, P.L. 94-142 mandates that all categories of handicapped children will be served by 1978. Handicapped children means:

those children evaluated in accordance with 121a.530-121a.534 as being mentally retarded, hard of hearing, deaf, speech impaired, visually handicapped, seriously emotionally disturbed, orthopedically impaired, other health impaired, deaf-blind, multi-handicapped or as having specific learning disabilities, who because of those impairments need special education and related services.

(Federal Register, Aug. 23, 1977, p. 42478).

A detailed list of definitions for each of these exceptional child categories may be found in P.L. 94-142 Rules and Regulations 121a.5 published in the **Federal Register** (1977).

A Proposed Model For Least Restrictive Environment

Although the concept of least restrictive alternative has been discussed for some time in the so-called right to treatment litigation (Amicus, 1977; Singletary, Collings and Dennis, 1977), the parallel impact in the field of education is just unfolding. The impetus of the least restrictive environment for public school handicapped students has only recently been set in motion with the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (**Federal Register**, 1977) serving as the catalyst.

For purposes of this article the least restrictive environment will be proposed as a paradigm with four main components: 1) a continuum of alternative instructional placements, 2) individualized educational plans, 3) the philosophy of integration, and 4) related services. The implication of the least restrictive concept is for special education programs and related services to be provided to handicapped students to the maximum extent possible with children who are not handicapped. These are to be provided in the most appropriate normalized setting in a school which he would attend if not handicapped, unless other arrangements are documented as more appropriate.

The concept of least restrictive environment is too often narrowly viewed as synonymous with mainstreaming. The focus of mainstreaming in the past was on regular class placement which in some cases was inappropriately viewed as an end in and of itself for all school-age handicapped children and youth. Mainstreaming has typically been implemented through some variation of the special class, e.g., part-time or resource. These options are too limited in sequence and narrow in scope to serve the broader concept of least restrictive environment.

Continuum of Alternative Instructional Placements

Although mainstreaming provisions are an integral element, the paradigm of a continuum of instructional placements is more descriptive of one component of the least restrictive environment. A concern, however, in emphasizing such a continuum is that it too is general in nature and often limited in its implementation.

The continuum of alternative instructional placements is presented in Figure 1, as a focus for discussion. A description of these traditional provisions is presented. The LRE model depicted in Figure 1, further illustrates the probable alignment of the mild, moderate, and severely handicapped students to the appropriate selection in the continuum of alternative instructional placements. Overlap is possible across the degree of severity in

relation to placement. Two overriding concerns irrespective of the placement alternative include individualized educational programs and specified related services.

Regular class. Regular class with indirect supportive services as the base element in the continuum represents minimal intervention often including special instructional materials or adaptive equipment for minimally handicapped students who otherwise can get along quite well in the regular class setting. The second element is the regular class with direct and/or consulting teacher assistance which may include direct instruction for mildly handicapped students and/or consultative support to regular class teachers. As a third element the regular class with resource room assistance allows the mildly handicapped student to receive specialized instruction outside the regular class where he still spends the major portion of the school day.

Special class. Continuing up the hierarchy the special class placement changes focus from the regular class to the special class. In the part-time special class arrangement for the mildly to moderately handicapped some of the school day is spent in regular classes but the large portion of instructional time is spent in the special class. The full-time special class option has often been described as a self-contained class. Moderately handicapped students typically receive all academic instruction within the special class apart from regular education students. Integration into non-academic areas often occurs appropriate to the individual student's needs.

Separate provisions. A special day school is a separate public school for the moderately to severely handicapped students within which comprehensive programs and related services are to be provided. Homecare instruction, in contrast to homebound instruction, which should be available to all students, may be offered to severely handicapped, non-ambulatory students who may be confined to their residence. If some homecare instruction is offered in a community based center such as a children's nursing home, it may be considered less restrictive than residential placement. Although state hospitals or residential schools provide 24-hour supervision, such settings are more restrictive and one of the most difficult alternatives in which to effectuate the principle of normalization. The final element in the series of programs is non-public school provisions. Based on a study by Collings (1973), they are typically segregated and represent a rather dramatic move of handicapped students and a corresponding flow of money from the public sector to the private arena.

Individualized Educational Programs

The second proposed component integral to the least restrictive environment to be considered in conjunction with the continuum of instructional programs is individualized educational programs. Since the appropriate program for each handicapped student is to be based on what is required or necessary in behalf of that student, not what presently exists or can be made minimally adequate, a program plan for each student must be implemented. Although, in general, the more severe the handicapping condition, the more restrictive the educational placement may be, such determination of appropriateness must be documented in an individualized educational plan (**Federal Register**, 1977) for each handicapped student. A student

Least Restrictive Environment

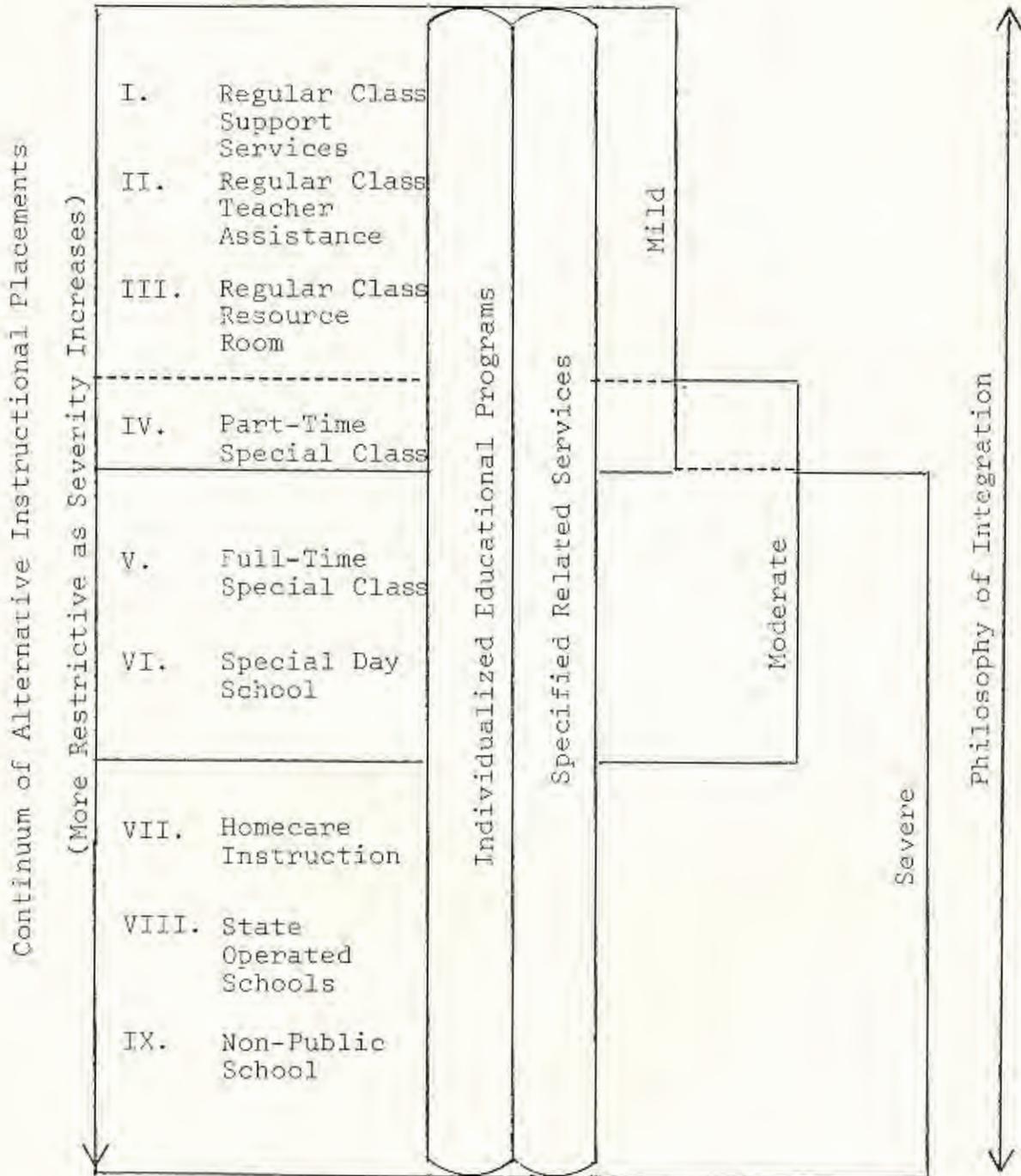


Figure 1

plan must include: 1) a statement of the present levels of educational performance of such child, 2) a statement of annual goals, including short-term instructional objectives, 3) a statement of the specific educational services to be provided to such child, and the extent to which such child will be able to participate in regular educational programs, 4) the projected date for initiation and anticipated duration of such services, and 5) appropriate objective criteria and evaluation procedures and schedules for determining, on at least an annual basis, whether instructional objectives are being achieved.

Related Services

Related services (Federal Register, 1977) is inherent and can provide a summarizing progression: a student is handicapped because he or she requires special education and related services; special education is the specially designed instruction to meet the student's unique needs; and related services are those additional services necessary in order for the student to benefit from special educational instruction. Consideration of the four components in the least restrictive environment paradigm is one way to approach the process of insuring a free appropriate public education for all handicapped children and youth.

Philosophy of Integration

The final proposed component of the least restrictive concept is the philosophy of integration. Central to integration is the idea of moving the student as soon as possible to a less restrictive setting but only as far along the continuum as appropriate. One consideration is what Kolstoe (1975) referred to as the domain of performance. If, for example, at the elementary school level the individual student plan for a mildly handicapped student included an emphasis on academics as the domain of performance, then a program in the continuum which allowed integration in regular classes to the fullest extent may be the most appropriate approach. In contrast, however, at the secondary level, if the necessary emphasis for a moderately handicapped student is on pre-vocational or vocational skills, increasing segregation in a work-study program or sheltered workshop setting may be appropriate.

Integration is a matter of degree relative to the abilities and needs of a particular student. For a severely handicapped student who was formerly in a residential setting to be educated via a special school in the community seems as appropriate a level of integration as is the mainstreaming of a mildly handicapped student into regular classes.

The net effect of integration must be demonstration of a compelling interest in behalf of the handicapped student to justify a particular educational placement. Educational change of status requires procedural safeguards from initial evaluation to placement recommendations as well as full disclosure of student information, and positive informed consent by the student's

parent or guardian for any proposed educational interventions.

Summary

In summary, mainstreaming was viewed from the perspective of where the concept fits into the Reynolds model and how many individuals perceive it as placing exceptional children into regular classrooms. The steps necessary to make a successful transition were presented. A futuristic approach was presented through a least restrictive environment model consistent with P.L. 94-142. In order to be characterized as the least restrictive environment, the continuum of instructional programs must be viewed from a philosophy of integration. Essential components of the LRE include the individualized student plan and related services.

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