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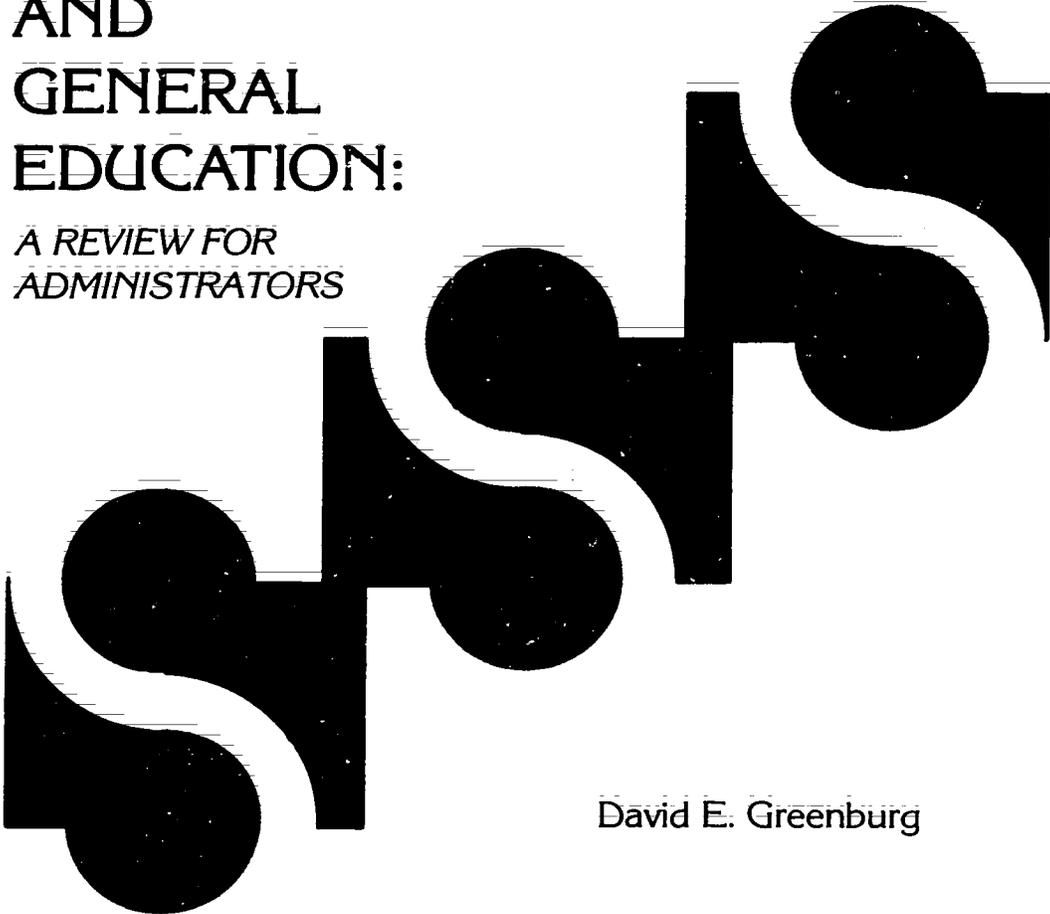
ABSTRACT

Directed to leaders and administrators in education, the monograph reviews issues, practices, and possibilities in the interface between special educators and general educators at the service delivery or decision making levels. The first chapter examines the development of public educational systems with sections on the historical context, the present status of the resource room model, the present status of the teacher consultant model, and the possibility of system unification. The next chapter considers the concept of shared responsibility, with focus on prereferral and teaming as shared responsibilities. The third chapter discusses personnel role changes in sections on role change and preparation needs for special educators, general educators, and administrators, respectively; as well as the impact of the effective schools movement. The final chapter is on fiscal concerns, especially the impetus given by limited funds for effective interaction between general and special education. Each chapter ends with a brief summary and lists responsibilities of local special education administrators. These include the need to seek models through which productive merging of special and general education resources and programs may be institutionalized and to seek out ways to reduce duplication and conserve the fiscal resources of both general and special education. (DB)

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A SPECIAL EDUCATOR'S PERSPECTIVE ON INTERFACING SPECIAL AND GENERAL EDUCATION:

A REVIEW FOR ADMINISTRATORS



David E. Greenburg

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Introduction

One of the topics frequently appearing near the top of lists of concerns of local special education administrators is the interaction that does, should, or might occur between special educators and general educators at the service delivery or decision making levels. There are several clearly identifiable arenas in which meaningful general and special educator interaction occurs, or is indicated, in state-of-the-art educational programs and services for all students, whether or not they are identified as handicapped.

In the public education system, special education and general education structures began as conceptually and administratively separate entities. Over time, however, these parallel systems have converged and become interdependent. Recent literature on special education addresses the viability of having a single, unified system for managing educational resources on behalf of all students.

There should be little doubt about the increasing need for general and special educators—whether service providers or decision makers—to share educational responsibilities. Particularly at the building level, the design of prereferral strategies on behalf of students and the emergence of building teams for both student and teacher support are promising practices. In recent years, development of programs and services for handicapped students has had significant impact on changing the traditional roles of both special and general education personnel. The once narrowly focused role of special educators in separate classrooms or center settings is now often a multifocused role requiring knowledge and skill sharing through consultation with general education colleagues. General educators who once expected to direct instruction to the level of the majority of students in the classroom are now made aware of the wide range of student abilities and limitations and are charged to provide instruction appropriate for each child along the continuum. Decision makers in both general and special education are increasingly aware of the interdependence of resources and services, and programs and products are subject to public scrutiny that has never been greater.

It is apparent that, to the public, greater fiscal resources are not an acceptable solution to educational problems. Rather, leaders in education are expected to meet to plan responses that make use of available resources in the best interests of all students—an expectation that has particular implications for local special education administrators. Therefore, this review of some of the issues, practices, and possibilities in the interface between special and general educators is directed to them.

Development of Public Educational Systems

Historical Context

Public schools for the masses were not common in the United States until the first half of the 19th century, when states enacted legislation to establish community day schools (Dunn, 1963). Although community day schools were supported by tax dollars, there were no mandatory attendance laws. Students incapable of adapting to the schools' academic curriculum were denied instruction. As a result, many students chose not to attend.

States began to accept responsibility for the education of handicapped persons late in the 19th century (Reynolds & Birch, 1977), providing educational services primarily in segregated, residential programs for children who were blind, deaf, or mentally retarded. By the early 20th century, some cities began providing local services in special schools and classes. Efforts of organized parent groups during the mid-1900's led to expansion of local school district special class services for handicapped students.

From the late 19th century until the mid-20th century, public systems for educational services for handicapped populations developed separately from those for nonhandicapped students.

Often community-based educational services for handicapped students were designed for those rejected from general education programs. Special schools and self-contained special classes were both the expectation and the rule. Early special education programs were designed to serve

students whose exceptional conditions were obvious and whose needs for extraordinary instructional approaches and/or physical facilities were undeniable. Given such client characteristics, the programs tended to encourage organizational structures separate and distinct from the mainstream of public education . . . the assumptions regarding placement, curriculum, and instructional methods tended to promote a separate, parallel organizational structure for the special schools, classes, and personnel provided. (Burrello & Sage, 1979, p. 13)

Placement in special education programs of students with less apparent exceptionalities and relatively less severe degrees of deviance from normalcy contributed to the softening of the demarcation between general education and special education structures within local education agencies (Burrello & Sage, 1979). Although policy makers had openly questioned the appropriateness of separate educational services for all handicapped children for nearly a quarter century, it was not until passage of Public Law 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, that a wide development of alternative, integrated instructional arrangements was mandated. Reflecting on the Act at the promulgation of regulations, Martin (1976) stated that

the new policy does seem to rule out blanket judgments on the part of school officials that all children with a particular kind of handicapping condition . . . shall be educated in self-contained classrooms or that all handicapped youngsters should be placed in special schools. Instead, separate judgments must be made for each child, and these judgments must be based on an analysis of that child's individual needs . . . earlier . . . I commented on the negative impact of segregated institutions and their consequent effect of strengthening the movement to provide handicapped children with an education in association with their nonhandicapped peers . . . the fact that mainstreaming is now public policy will make its implementation no less difficult. (p. 13)

The least restrictive environment provision of P.L. 94-142 directs that, to the maximum extent appropriate, handicapped children will be educated with age-appropriate, nonhandicapped peers. As Martin predicted, that stipulation of the Act has been one of the most controversial over time, as well as one of the most difficult to implement across localities.

Present Status: Resource Room Model

Among the most widely implemented alternatives to segregated, self-contained special education classes have been resource rooms and teacher consultant services. Friend and McNutt (1984) reported that the literature on resource room programs reflects their variety in organization across states and localities. They surveyed state education agencies (SEA's) to ascertain the nature of guidelines for resource program operation provided to local special education planning units. According to Friend and McNutt, the resource room model

is the most widely used alternative to the regular education classroom setting. Typically, teachers are required to be certified in the area(s) of exceptionality to be served, and these programs are most often categorical or multicategorical in nature. The programs usually have recommended time parameters for students' attendance, although the time varies from a minimum of three hours per week to a general maximum of up to, but not more than, half of the school day. While the amount of time is suggested, the team or committee planning the student's individual education program must make the decision concerning the actual amount of time spent in a resource room . . . ordinarily it is used to serve the mildly-to-moderately handicapped. (p. 154)

Consideration of where handicapped children are placed when they are not in the resource room for instructional support is as critical to this discussion as a description of the model of service delivery. That placement often is in a classroom provided for general education.

The additional time required to serve them has often been a general education argument against the reintegration of handicapped students. Ivarie, Hogue, and Brulle (1984) investigated the differences between general education teacher time spent with learning disabled students and with nonhandicapped students in one secondary setting and one elementary setting. While general education teachers in the two settings studied did not spend significantly more time assisting their learning disabled students than their nonlabeled students, the results may be subject to various interpretations. As the authors pointed out, their studies involved only in-class teacher and student contacts; hence, teacher preparation time was not considered. One of the frequently mentioned mainstreaming concerns of general education teachers pertains to time required to adapt instructional materials and/or approaches to the learning styles and deficits of their handicapped students. Even with appropriate support systems through which general education teachers are provided technical assistance in instructional adaptation, the adapted strategies must be developed and planned outside the classroom for implementation within it.

There is no way to predict the amount of additional time (if any) required on the part of a general education teacher when a handicapped student is enrolled in his or her class. However, the following significant variables should be considered:

1. The sensitivity of the general education teacher to the student's special learning needs.
2. The willingness of the general education teacher to address students' special learning needs in the classroom.
3. The general education teacher's repertoire of alternative instructional strategies.
4. The availability of adequate support systems to assist the general education teacher in developing and implementing additional alternative instructional strategies.
5. The sensitivity and responsiveness of the education agency to documenting and reporting requirements imposed on general education teachers serving students identified as handicapped.

Considerable need exists, then, for coordinating efforts between the resource room teacher and the general education teacher. Two particular complications frequently arise in this area—time constraints of both teachers, who have full instructional responsibilities, and the need for development of some special education expertise by the general education classroom teacher. Often, the interruptions to the general education classroom by removal of the child, even on a regular, predictable schedule, are as problematic as the coordination demands. While most teachers in general education classrooms have adapted to the frequent interruptions and have developed some understanding of the resource room concept and program, significant exceptions remain. In many instances, the responsibility falls to the handicapped child to become informed of missed assignments and to complete classroom work missed while special education services for the learning difficulty were provided in the resource room.

Present Status: Teacher Consultant Model

The special education teacher consultant services delivery option was developed to address the learning difficulties of handicapped children through support and consultation provided to general classroom teachers. This option is somewhat less widely used than the resource room. Haight (1984) suggested that the role of a special education teacher consultant is a particularly complex one, requiring "specific knowledge, skills in analysis, and problem-solving strategies, as well as an aptitude for human relations, communication, and skill development" (p. 507). Haight referred particularly to the work of Lilly and Givens-Olge (1981) in demonstrating the need for special education teacher consultant models with the advent of P.L. 94-142 and the subsequently increasing numbers of handicapped children "encountering standard school curricula" (p. 508). She concluded that there are a number of problems specific to the teacher consultation model, including

- (a) insufficient role definition of the nature of the services to be delivered;
- (b) current changes in special education resulting in increased needs of mainstream teachers, increased attention to

noncategorical services, and reevaluation of traditional assessment tools and techniques; (c) a lack of consideration of the multiple consultant responsibilities in determining caseload and service duties; and (d) inadequate approval criteria and lack of professional preparation in the multiple skills of teacher consultation. (p. 514)

Particularly noteworthy in Haight's (1984) description of the teacher consultant role and problems specific to implementing the model is the combination of the necessity for communication, good human relations, and problem-solving skills coupled with the paucity of appropriate training for special educators in those areas. The obvious dilemma is that special educators who are charged with the most direct responsibility for assistance to general classroom personnel may be limited in their repertoire of techniques, regardless of the value of the information and assistance they have to offer. The situation becomes particularly critical if a general education classroom teacher is an unwilling participant in the whole process. This, too, is fuel for general education's concerns about the special education system's ability to provide sufficient support when students once thought unable to perform in the general education class setting are returned to that setting.

Is System Unification Possible?

Both the resource room model and the teacher consultant model have emerged as means of providing services to handicapped children whose placement is primarily in general education. To some extent, those models have bridged the parallel special education and general education systems. Among those who have noted inherent weaknesses in the parallel education systems is Madeleine Will, U.S. Department of Education Assistant Secretary for the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitation Services (1984), who suggested that confusion exists concerning the goals and interrelationship of general and special education. She noted the evolution of general and special education into separate and compartmentalized service delivery systems. Ms. Will (1986) later cited the parallel systems as obstructive to accomplishing the overall goal of P.L. 94-142 and called for collective contributions of general and special education skills and resources in addressing student services.

While noting some of the reasons special education systems developed within and parallel to general education systems, Burrello and Sage (1979) also proposed a possible future for special education as a support system for all students within the broader general education system. They suggested that special education should be organized along three "design strategies [which include] . . . lateral relations, . . . self-contained tasks, . . . and . . . vertical information systems" (p. 152).

The concept of *lateral relations* provides for a general education and special education dual authority relationship between central office and building levels concerning "(1) estimating the need for supportive and alternative programs and services; (2) allocating resources; (3) evaluating the building administrator's utilization of those resources efficiently and effectively; and (4) judging the effectiveness of the supportive programs and services on teacher or student performance" (p. 153). The concept of *self-contained tasks* responds to the need for district-wide special education initiatives such as consultation, demonstration, itinerant, and training services provided to administrators, teachers, students, and/or parents. Finally, the concept of *vertical information systems* is meant to "increase the information processing capacity of the organization and its units" (p. 157). Information critical to decision making is shared in a timely fashion at all levels of the organization to increase the frequency and appropriateness with which decisions are made at the service delivery (school building) level.

Stainback and Stainback (1984) submitted that "there are not two distinct types of students—special and regular . . . regardless of any designated cutoffs, all students still differ to varying degrees from one another along the same continuums of differences" (p. 102). They suggested that what could exist is a single, unified system of education in which general and special education expertise and resources are merged to provide for individual differences among all students and to conserve the human and fiscal resources required by dual (and often duplicative) systems. Particularly germane to this discussion is their argument that the existence

of a dual education system has "rostered competition . . . rather than cooperation among professionals . . . (and) has interfered with . . . cooperative efforts" (p. 104). They suggested that the division has extended into the application of research findings, preservice preparation of personnel, and direct service programs by creating otherwise nonexistent barriers and dividing "resources, personnel, and advocacy potential" (p. 105).

Among the implications noted by Stainback and Stainback for an education systems merger are the following:

1. A refocus of the preparation and assignment of personnel by instructional categories.
2. General heterogeneous grouping of students with homogeneous grouping by instructional needs only for specific courses.
3. Support personnel attention to appropriate student program planning rather than to classification eligibility.
4. School funding by program element rather than the categories of exceptionality.
5. Viewing a specific individual difference as one of the student's characteristics to be considered rather than an educational disability around which planning occurs.

Other researchers, while seeing some promise in the Stainback and Stainback (1984) proposal, have warned of pitfalls in implementing a single system. Mesinger (1985) suggested that only the position statements emerging from the special education community seem to assert that it is time to evolve to a single system. He expressed a reluctance "to abandon special education as a system until I see evidence of a drastic improvement in regular educational teacher training and professional practice in the public schools" (p. 512). Lieberman (1985), on the other hand, commended Stainback and Stainback for presenting the concept; but he perceived the nationwide initiatives of school effectiveness and excellence in education as "upholding the nature of the system, standards, and grades above the nature of the individual. . ." (p. 516). He suggested that the purposes of special education can best be met through continuation of the dual system "with each party maintaining a strong sense of individual identity, while creating an ideal interface between the two" (p. 516). Given such divergence in thinking among leaders in the special education community, there is a clear need for the ideal interface between general and special education that Lieberman suggested.

Summary and Implications

The development of special education over time has also been an evolutionary process whereby programs and services for handicapped students have become more closely aligned with programs and services in general education. Most of the impetus for that evolution appears to be rooted within the special education community, with some specific movements prompted by initiatives of parents of handicapped students and by federal legislative mandate. While the resource room and teacher consultant models have been instituted to facilitate the reintegration of handicapped students into general education settings, there remains a need for extensive review of each option both as an emerging role for special educators that requires special training and as a potential for interface between special and general education professionals. The question has been raised as to whether or not this is the appropriate time for breaking down the remaining conceptual and programmatic barriers between general and special education. It may best be answered within each locality or special education planning unit. Leadership and organizational shifts within some localities suggest that the merger is near or has already occurred in those settings.

Among the additional responsibilities of local special education administrators are the following:

1. To continue negotiations with central office and building-level general education administrators to develop opportunities for interaction between handicapped students and their nonhandicapped peers.

2. To interact with colleagues responsible for the preparation of service providers in the design of appropriate pre- and inservice training.
3. To offer and/or to seek local models through which effective and productive merging of special and general education resources and programs have been and/or may be institutionalized.

The Concept of Shared Responsibility

Overview

A viable support system is one of the key components of a plan designed for the reintegration of handicapped students (Mann, 1976). A reasonable support system would include the cadre of services available within the schools, all working together to focus on handicapped students in either special education or general education classroom. Mann described mainstreaming as "an evolutionary concept of mutual responsibility" (p. 27). Mutual responsibility is critical to successful integration. For the decades prior to the discussion of reintegration programs, special educators demonstrated a general willingness to assume total responsibility for the education of children identified as handicapped. At the same time, the general education community appeared willing to relinquish all educational responsibility for those youngsters. To a considerable extent, one posture complemented the other; and both historically contributed to the exclusion of handicapped students from general education programs.

As movements surfaced prior to and were then supported by P.L. 94-142 to reintegrate handicapped students into general education programs for at least part of the school day, it became essential to review the responsibilities of both general and special education service providers with the aim of fostering mutual responsibility. Mann (1976) asserted that "the most cogent aspect of mutual responsibility is the one that suggests that all teachers, regular and special, operating as a team, must bring to the learning situation all the skills, competencies, and attitudes that will enable a shared responsibility to become a reality" (p. 32). Critical, then, is cooperative planning and the subsequent investment of ownership and interest in the handicapped student's success.

The matter of shared general education and special education responsibility for all students, handicapped and nonhandicapped alike, is even more critical given school enrollment developments of the past 10 to 15 years, when an increase in numbers of students identified as handicapped has been accompanied by a concurrent decrease in the total number of students enrolled in public schools. The latter has impacted schools and teachers by forcing reductions in teaching staff and closing school buildings operated by local education agencies—each result bringing its own set of teacher, administrator, and community anxieties.

Grant and Snyder (1983) reported that total public school enrollments in the United States declined modestly in the early 1970's and at approximately double that rate in the latter portion of the decade. Projections are that there will be a slight increase in total public school enrollment in the latter 1980's, but by 1990 the total enrollment is not anticipated to exceed the 1980 figure greatly. More recent projections of the U.S. Department of Education National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) (Gerald, 1985) have supported the earlier Grant and Snyder projections, showing total public K through 12 enrollments in 1970 at 49,909 million; in 1975 at 44,791 million; and in 1980 at 40,987 million (p. 44). Gerald projected 1985 enrollments at 38,997 million; 1990 at 39,869 million; and 1992 at 41,078 million (p. 44). Another recent NCES report (Plisko & Stern, 1985) reflected on the relationship between special education and total school enrollments:

Between the 1976-77 school year . . . and 1983-84, the national total of handicapped children served increased by about 606,000 or 16 percent. Over the same time span, the total number of all students enrolled in public schools . . . declined by about 10 percent. Thus, the special education participants, considered as a percentage of total public school enrollment, increased from about 8 percent in 1976-77 to about 11 percent in 1983-84. Although the increase in the

number receiving special education continued through the early 1980's, the rate of increase from year to year has declined. (p. 177)

During the period of declining total school enrollment, the rates of decline were not equitable across the states. Seven states had increases and the remaining states had decreases ranging from less than 5% to more than 20%. There is no reason to predict that the reversal trend will be more even.

Evidence abounds that there is concern at local, state, and federal levels about increases in the numbers of handicapped students. Algozzine and Korinek (1985) cited the 1984 U.S. Department of Education Report to Congress statement concerning significant increases in the number of students identified as learning disabled. That report states:

Reasons for this rapid growth in the number of children served as learning disabled . . . include improved assessment procedures, liberal eligibility criteria, social acceptability for the learning disabled classification, and a lack of general education alternatives for children who experience problems in regular classes. (p. 5)

Each of the reasons stated has implications for general education and special education interface, but probably none more than the lack of general education alternatives.

If greater numbers of students now than ever before are referred to special education by general educators unable to address their special learning needs, what might be the outcome of certification of those students as handicapped and their subsequent reassignment to general education settings? That question highlights the basic issue between general and special education and the need for interface between them. Algozzine and Korinek suggested that attention should be redirected from emphasis on eligibility discussions to the realization "that social, political, and economic factors create the problems [of rapidly expanding special education enrollments]" (p. 393). They concluded that "the Mother Liberty mentality that established America's first special class homes for the down-trodden and disabled may now be an outdated perspective that has made today's special classes overpopulated havens for the hard-to-reach" (p. 394). Particularly given the placement data available for learning disabled populations, it is easy to conclude that many of the hard-to-reach may be identified as handicapped and then returned to general education classrooms for significant portions of the school day—most often with general education expecting to receive special education support.

Prereferral as Shared Responsibility

As a result of the expansion of special education enrollments, leaders in public education agencies have felt pressures to institute controls governing the number of students identified as handicapped. Professionals involved with programs to assess students referred for possible eligibility for special education or related services have noted the drain on agency human and fiscal resources resulting from assessment of students not found eligible. Those factors, coupled with concerns about the willingness or ability of general education classroom teachers to provide instruction for students with a wide range of abilities, have contributed to the initiation of prereferral intervention programs. Such programs involve both general and special education instructional and support personnel and provide both opportunities and dilemmas for interface between them.

One of the better descriptions of a model for prereferral intervention service was presented by Graden, Casey, and Christenson (1985). They stated "The goal of the prereferral intervention model is to implement systematically intervention strategies in the regular classroom and to evaluate the effectiveness of these strategies before a student is formally referred for consideration for special education placement" (p. 378). Resources are directed at providing consultation to the regular classroom teacher who indicates a need for assistance in providing instruction for a particular student. The model includes consultation provided individually, then, if necessary, by a consulting team. At each step, the consultant(s) and the classroom teacher work together to define and document the nature of the instructional difficulty. They then develop plans for implementation and systematic evaluation of intervention strategies to alleviate the problem and

reduce or negate the need for referring the student for further individual assessment. If the intervention strategies are not successful, the option of referral is still available.

Graden, Casey, and Bonstrom (1985) have offered evidence of the likelihood of success of prereferral intervention programs in accomplishing anticipated outcomes as well as indications of some of the factors that might work against the desired outcomes. The success of prereferral intervention programs seems most likely when their implementation is faithful to all concepts and components and when general educators can feel "ownership" and perceive the recommended intervention strategies to be reasonable and potentially effective. For the purpose of this discussion, the potential effectiveness of recommended intervention strategies should receive particular attention.

It is critical that consultants working in programs demonstrate skills, experience, and a level of expertise that includes awareness of the tenets of the general education classroom setting as well as a repertoire of instructional approaches that are implementable. Prereferral intervention programs bear considerable potential for impacting general education through fostering skill development in general education teachers. The opportunities for general and special education interface at the service provider level are vast—particularly as opportunities are presented for interaction concerning the environmental impact on instruction of students with learning difficulties. However, there are also significant opportunities for dilemmas to arise when strategies proposed by special education consultant teachers are perceived by general education teachers as unreasonable or lacking potential for success. Conversely, there is an equal likelihood of conflict when general education teachers lack commitment to implementing instructional strategies suggested in prereferral intervention programs and do not contribute to the meaningful assessment of their effectiveness.

Teaming as Shared Responsibility

While prereferral intervention programs represent one form of teaming general education and special education efforts, there are other teaming strategies that also hold potential for both opportunities and dilemmas in cooperation. Brown (1981) addressed the various conceptualizations of local building level teams when she stated that they ". . . are designed to promote collaborative planning and a collaborative decision making process" (p. 2). She suggested that specific team programs vary considerably; yet there appear to be common goals among them, including the following:

1. To provide inservice training activities for both general and special education service providers.
2. To promote direct assistance to general education teachers who have handicapped students in their classrooms.
3. To further support systems and alternative programs for students.
4. To provide and monitor efficient, multidisciplinary student assessments.
5. To promote general education alternatives as first-line interventions for students with suspected learning difficulties.
6. To assist general education staff in dealing with curricular and behavior concerns for students.
7. To serve as a vehicle for student referrals.
8. To further communication among general education, special education, administrative, and other personnel.

Chalfant, Pysh, and Moultrie (1979) described a teacher assistance team concept that provides a building-level peer problem-solving group for teachers. The purpose of the team is to generate more efficient and effective assistance to children by making classroom teachers both the referral agents and the responding support system. Implementation of this concept includes components similar to those described for team consultation models. Meaningful interaction among building personnel concerning difficulties encountered in teaching certain students and possible instructional approaches to alleviate those difficulties is critical to the success of this

process. Both general and special education personnel at the building level are members of the teacher assistance team, and the process provides opportunity for all staff members to benefit from the considerable knowledge and expertise of their colleagues.

Bushey and Baker (1980) discussed the implementation of a building-level instructional support team program designed "to build team spirit among staff members and to provide teachers an opportunity to work together in isolating problems and carrying out proposed solutions in an attitude of mutual trust and understanding" (p. 72). Implementation of this model began with teacher and administrator selections of staff members to serve on the instructional support team. The criteria for selection included status with the building faculty, demonstrated communication skills, and subject- and grade-level demography. The participation of the building administrator as an equal member of the team is critical to the instructional support team concept. In that capacity, the administrator is responsible for sharing the administrative perspective on issues presented, then participating in discussions as any other team member. Team sessions are also open forums for the participation of other faculty, who may become members of the instructional support team either during an issue-specific discussion or on a more permanent basis. Each permanent team member is also responsible for maintaining direct, face-to-face contact with a given number of faculty to assure general awareness of team issues and operations. Perhaps the most common application of the building team concept as implemented in recent years has been the organization of general and special education personnel to consider student referrals, diagnostics, and remedial services (Grand Rapids Public Schools, 1978; Minneapolis Public Schools, 1977).

Stokes and Pearson (1981) described the staff support team as

a school-based problem-solving group whose purpose is to provide a vehicle for discussion of issues related to specific needs of teachers or students and to offer consultation and follow-up assistance to staff. The team can respond to short-term consultation, continuous support, or the securing of information, resources, or training for those who request its service. By providing problem-specific support and assistance to individuals and groups, the team can help teachers and other professionals to become more skillful, gain confidence, and feel more efficacious in their work with students. (p. 3)

They also suggested that every school could benefit from a staff support team in some form; and if a team exists or is contemplated, "careful attention needs to be given to nurture and sustain it" (p. 1). Bailey (1984) also reflected concern about the need for attention to the operations of teams involving professionals from various disciplines. He suggested that problems may occur without specific recognition of and careful attention to the realities that (a) team functions are developmental, (b) teams consist of individual members, and (c) teams function as a unit.

There are various approaches to the development and functions of teams or other group processes for dealing with instructional issues. Aside from the stated purpose or goals for team establishment or the intended outcome of team efforts, successful models suggest that the appropriate planning and implementation level is the local school building, with general and special educators as equal participants. Teaming and other group processes present viable opportunities for general and special education interface and problem solving—particularly at the building or other service delivery level.

Summary and Implications

The concept of general and special education shared responsibility for services to *all* students (handicapped and nonhandicapped) embraces the notion of combining resources and expertise for investment in the education of each student served by the schools and allocating resources to each on the basis of need and learning characteristics. Efficiency is addressed by eliminating duplicative programs that permeate the current parallel general and special education systems. The need for combining resources and efforts on behalf of all students is, in part, prompted by the conflicting planning for increased enrollment by special educators and for decreased enrollment by general educators that has been in evidence for more than a decade.

As special education enrollments appear to stabilize and general education enrollments reverse to an upward trend, it seems an ideal time for reconceptualization of the manner in which educational systems respond to each student's needs. Two particular initiatives point up the possibilities of shared responsibilities for students' benefit. Teaming building-level general and special education practitioners provides opportunity for effective personnel development, peer problem solving, and cooperative decision making. Various models of prereferral intervention encourage making full use of general education resources before considering the necessity for special education services. Both teaming and prereferral models also serve to expand among general education classroom personnel the expertise they need to serve students with an ever-broadening range of learning abilities and difficulties.

Responsibilities of local special education administrators in developing a shared responsibility for services to all students include the following:

1. To orchestrate opportunities for special educators and general educators in the design of programs and services for all students.
2. To institute procedures that assure optimal development and use of general education resources—supplemented by special education expertise and methodology where indicated—to provide for the education of students with a wide range of abilities (using selective referral for more specialized support).
3. To support the participation of building-based and itinerant specialized staff in school-building-level faculty team efforts, student and teacher assistance, and personnel development.

Personnel Role Changes

Overview of Role Changes

Programs and services for students identified as handicapped have historically been provided in substantially separate settings from those provided for nonhandicapped students. A similar separation has existed between programs for the preparation of general and special educators. With the advent of mainstreaming initiatives, those responsible for training programs had to reassess both the emerging roles of general and special educators and the preparation needs of personnel to respond appropriately to the demands of those roles. Kokaska suggested a decade ago that "mainstreaming will change the roles of both the specialist and the regular class teacher and require different skills" (1976, p. 77). Maher and Bennett (1984) cited the initiative for serving numbers of handicapped students in general education programs and the subsequent role shifts for both general and special educators as the major event contributing to the increased need for thoughtful, responsive personnel development opportunities.

There are several components that are important to the success or failure of personnel development efforts. Primary among the contributors to success are adequate needs assessment provisions and attention to personnel development *systems* as opposed to personnel development *activities*. Adequate personnel development needs assessment requires prior involvement in planning by individuals who represent the potential recipients of training. Through various input strategies, they provide perspectives concerning the content and format of training. Interface between general and special education concerning personnel development needs assessment and planning should determine the training content as well as contribute to a perception by the participants of "ownership" of the topics selected.

Most educators have probably participated at one time or another in inservice events that were organized seemingly without regard to previous or subsequent training sessions or topics. An important provision in the personnel development mandate of P.L. 94-142 is that education agencies design comprehensive systems of personnel development. The concept of a *system* suggests planning and coordination of personnel development events that represent more than

disconnected inservice training sessions; hence, training themes, involvement of all potential audiences, and training session follow-up are all indicated. Further, the evaluated impact of training during one period of time is expected to suggest the content and nature of training during a subsequent period of time.

Wang, Vaughan, and Dytman (1985) have suggested that

effectively designed and implemented staff development programs lead to the increased ability of general and special educators to work together in mainstreaming settings to improve educational services for general and special education students alike. With ongoing, inservice training support, school staff can successfully adapt curricula to individual student needs, while also promoting students' self-management skills. The outcomes of these efforts include positive classroom processes, achievement gains, and increased self-esteem in students, as well as positive attitudes and increased efficacy in program implementation for teachers. (p. 119)

Certainly those highly desirable outcomes support the argument for personnel development initiatives and demonstrate the potential impact of those ventures on general and special education interface and cooperation.

Role Change and Preparation Needs: Special Educators

"We know that there is a variability of skills among those teachers presently assigned to the various categories of special classes, but the great majority of those teachers want to be with those children" (Kokaska, 1976, p. 77). The reference to the emergence of resource teacher and consultant teacher positions mentioned earlier noted that the most frequently seen role changes are for persons previously employed in special education classrooms. Kokaska's suggestion concerning special class teachers is not substantially different from the Eisenberger and Keough (1974) comment concerning general education teachers' anxieties about district responses to declining school populations that role changes "represent disruption to the comfortable and the known" (p. 12).

Particularly in the early developmental years of resource and consulting teacher programs, there was considerable shifting of special education personnel as they attempted to make transitions from special classroom teacher positions. Those who were as committed to direct student contact as Kokaska suggested, initially were more attracted to the resource positions, expecting to continue with student contact as their major activity. A number of studies of resource programs have indicated, however, that considerable portions of a resource teacher's time have been required for recordkeeping, paperwork, and teacher consultant responsibilities (Brown, Kiraly, & McKinnon, 1979; Evans, 1980; McGlothlin, 1981; McLoughlin & Kelly, 1982; Miller & Sabatino, 1978). It appears that there is less difference than originally thought between the special education resource teacher and consultant teacher roles; the former is not clearly limited to student contact and the latter is not clearly limited to assisting general classroom teachers in instructional adaptation. Some combination of those roles must be coupled with diagnostic skills (Salvia & Ysseldyke, 1978; Ysseldyke & Algozzine, 1979), problem identification (Medway & Foreman, 1980), and curriculum development (Sabatino, 1972).

Cherniss (1985) noted the situation of a special education service provider experiencing the impact of a role shift from special class teacher to teacher consultant concerned with the reintegration of handicapped students into general education classrooms:

According to this individual, she once was viewed by the regular education staff with admiration and appreciation. But when her role changed and she became responsible for moving handicapped students back into the regular classroom, many teachers believed that she was trying to get them to do her work. And they resented her for increasing the level of conflict and difficulty in their classes. This, in turn, led to more work-related stress and less social support for the teacher-consultant. (p. 50)

Role Change and Preparation Needs: General Educators

Teacher role changes resulting from service delivery emphases concerning handicapped students clearly have not been limited in their impact to special education service providers. There have

been various pressures brought to bear on the general education community for role changes among classroom personnel. The Ivarie, Hogue, and Brulle (1984) study of increased general education teacher time required for instructional services to students identified as handicapped has already been mentioned. Those authors cited a Williams and Algozzine (1979) study indicating that

teachers who were unwilling to participate in mainstreaming efforts had two major concerns. First, they felt that they did not have the technical abilities necessary to work with students who were handicapped. Second, they were concerned that these students would take too much time from their responsibility to provide educational services to the students who were not handicapped. (p. 143)

As noted before, the evidence pertaining to the time issue is subject to interpretation, and hence is not necessarily conclusive. However, it is true that general education classroom personnel have been encouraged via legislative mandate and public policy to concern themselves with changes in roles that require the use of often new and expanded instructional strategies. The issue of technical abilities suggests that there is a need for general educators to develop skills that may or may not be necessary for successful teaching of nonhandicapped learners. In this regard, it could be argued that the development of additional skills necessary for teaching handicapped students can, in the long run, strengthen the general education process.

Ganschow, Weber, and Davis (1984) have documented that some state education agency attention has been focused on general education preservice training to better prepare teachers to provide instruction to handicapped students. In addition, the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (1982) has implemented a standard requiring teacher training institutions to demonstrate that graduates in all accredited programs are prepared to provide instruction for handicapped students. Such initiatives may reduce the role change pressures on future general educators but, of course, they do not serve teachers already in general education classrooms. In the meantime, those teachers must serve handicapped students while responding to their own and others' expectations concerning the quality of instruction provided—with or without adequate on-site support.

One personnel development outcome suggested by Wang, Vaughan, and Dytman (1985) concerns positive teacher attitudes about program implementation. They supported the use of the Adaptive Learning Environment Model (ALEM), a "systematic staff development approach . . . designed to support the programming and role changes required for greater accommodation of special needs students, as well as their general education peers . . ." (p. 114). Johnson and Cartwright (1979) investigated general education teacher knowledge about attitudes toward handicapped students as impacted by (a) information about handicapped children, (b) classroom experiences with handicapped children, or (c) both information about and classroom experiences with handicapped children. While the study results did not confirm that their combined specific experimental interventions were significantly more productive in positively affecting teacher knowledge or attitudes concerning mainstreaming, the researchers concluded that "information and experience in some form will make teachers more aware of the possible effectiveness of mainstreaming and more knowledgeable about the capabilities of handicapped children integrated in their regular classrooms" (p. 460).

In the reintegration of handicapped students, Warger and Trippe (1982) suggested that classroom teachers tend to object less to the reintegration of some types of handicapped students than to others, citing evidence that "students with emotional impairments seem to give teachers particular difficulty" (p. 247). They also suggested that one major goal in preservice training is overcoming negative attitudes toward mainstreamed students. Attitude shifts are not likely to occur through information only. Preservice information complemented by supported classroom experiences with handicapped students appears to be one promising approach to impacting future general education teacher attitudes.

While the attitudes of general education instructional and administrative personnel are of obvious importance to the success of efforts to educate handicapped students in regular classes, it is also a joint responsibility of general and special education professionals to cooperate in

addressing the attitudes of nonhandicapped students about their handicapped peers. Kilburn (1984) pointed out that "attitudes of the nonhandicapped population toward persons with disabilities play a deciding role in the ultimate success or failure of endeavors to integrate handicapped persons more fully into society" (p. 124). If the endeavors to integrate handicapped persons in society are to succeed at an early level, general and special educators must address their own attitudes toward handicapped students as well as the attitudes of nonhandicapped students and others significant in the instruction of *all* students.

Salend (1984) has emphasized the extent to which efforts to educate handicapped students with their nonhandicapped peers are affected by the skills and attitudes of general education classroom teachers, suggesting that personnel development programs should address those skills and attitudes to further the possibility of success in mainstreaming efforts. With the possible exception of building staff teams, probably no other area holds greater potential for effective general and special education interface than the area of personnel development. Through planning, content development, follow-up, and evaluation processes, staff can gain considerable appreciation for the experiences, expertise, and situations of others. At the building level, they can also expand their own foundations and repertoires through consultation with colleagues who are immediately available for informal follow-up consultation or assistance.

Maier and Bennett (1984) have observed that

in addition to necessitating routine inservice education for special educators, the changing nature of special education has one other dramatic effect of direct consequence for personnel development. Federal and state legislation, in particular P.L. 94-142, has partially shifted the responsibility for educating the handicapped from the shoulders of special educators to those of populations relatively unfamiliar with exceptional children. Regular education teachers, school principals, parents, and paraprofessionals, among others, all now share in this educational enterprise. These populations also need to be trained if they are to effectively carry out new roles and responsibilities. (p. 148)

Various states and localities have invested considerable human and financial resources for training general and special education practitioners responsible for the direct delivery of instructional and support services to handicapped students. As noted previously, the potential audiences for such training are almost limitless.

Role Change and Preparation Needs: Administrators

Pressures for role and responsibility changes resulting from implementation of the concept of serving handicapped students with nonhandicapped students have not been restricted to classroom personnel. Attention has also been focused on the sharing and division of responsibilities of general and special education administrative personnel. Prior to the legislative mandate and wide implementation of the concept of least restrictive environment, Sage (1968) analyzed the functions of special education administrators and elementary school principals. He found that special education administrators were perceived as not getting far away from the specialized skills normally associated with direct service personnel. Sage stated, "As compared to the general education administrator, the special education administrator seems to be focusing more on the technical details of providing new and improved services" (p. 68).

Robson (1981) surveyed directors of special education, principals, superintendents, general education teachers, and special education teachers in one state concerning the respective role behaviors of directors and principals. He found that directors of special education were expected to provide minimal direct service in pupil functions or in personnel administration, where respondents perceived no major line relationship. They were expected to play a major role in outreach efforts to parents and community agencies. Principals, on the other hand, were expected to take major responsibility in direct service to pupils and in all supervisory and evaluative aspects of personnel administration.

Although there clearly were differences in the nature of these two studies, some conclusions may be drawn regarding a shift in special education administrator roles. The later Robson study indicated a somewhat broader focus for the special education administrator than did the earlier

Sage study. At the same time, the Robson study results seemed to more clearly imply a more direct principal's role in service delivery to students and in personnel administration across both general and special education than was implied in the director of special education role. If such conclusions are accurate, they may reflect certain changes in the lines along which general and special education administrative responsibilities are drawn from programmatic to organizational.

Mingo and Burrello (1979) viewed a linkage between the special education administrator and the building administrator based on the following assumptions:

(1) that role responsibilities and authority are dynamic concepts in a state of flux, especially in regard to special education leadership roles; (2) that building administrators are the key leadership in the delivery of services at the building level; (3) that building administrators must increasingly assume responsibility for all children in their buildings if placement of handicapped children in the least restrictive environment is to be a reality; (4) that special education leadership personnel (both generalist and specialist types) must increasingly provide support to building administrators, regular and special education staff through consultation, demonstration, and inservice training; and (5) that a clear specification of role responsibilities and authority be derived to govern the relationship between building and special education administrators. (p. 4)

The authors suggested that "the special education administrator must accept the challenges within the role of a change agent . . . which is an addition to, rather than a replacement for, other functions" (p. 22). This supports the idea that the sharing and division of administrative responsibilities represents an area for general education and special education interface.

Burrello and Sage (1979) reported that the concept of educating handicapped children with their nonhandicapped peers affected both special education and general education program development. With the variety of new concepts regarding provision of services for handicapped children, emerging models commanded attention and promoted investigation of newly designed bases for service delivery. Advocacy for handicapped persons assumed new dimensions for the special education administrator, regardless of whether it was the administrator's own advocacy role within the educational system or the advocacy postures of those outside the system who challenged and impacted traditional policies and practices. Lamb and Burrello (1979) described the special education administrator's role shift as an abrupt one from developer and programmer to monitor and defender of service delivery systems for handicapped children. "This new role," they suggested, "clearly places the [special education] administrator in a defensive and reactive role. It is uncomfortable, unfamiliar, and unrewarding" (p. 48).

There are clear implications for special education administrators to accept and promote changes in their own roles that include both the broader interaction and responsibility and resource exchanges with colleagues in general education. Sage and Burrello (1986) have proposed, "that the special education leadership role initially become a linking role between special education and other central office services" (p. 156), emphasizing that

this repositioning involves a commitment to be responsive and to share the responsibility and the resources needed to implement such a [mainstreaming] program. It also involves a commitment to support quality special education teaching personnel in their sharing of our field's accumulated knowledge and skills in the education of exceptional learners. (p. 157)

Impact of the Effective Schools Movement

The recent emphasis on effective schools and excellence in education has affected expectations for personnel performance. Considerable attention is focused on student achievement, particularly as governed by the classroom variables that are within teacher control (Goodman, 1985; Jewell, 1985; Peterson, Albert, Foxworth, Cox, & Tilley, 1985). Student test results have become a primary public tool for measuring teacher/school effectiveness. Goodman (1985) has suggested that

this essential characteristic of effective schools [monitoring and documenting student progress] has long been a hallmark of special education practice . . . One might speculate that special educators have helped to sensitize the larger educational community to the need for the monitoring of student performance. (p. 103)

If this is true, one might also speculate about the service delivery caveat in that sensitization. Although teacher performance assessment may not directly include student gain in most situations, student change data are clearly considered by the community in evaluating its schools—and the simple fact is that students with learning difficulties do not often contribute positively to overall student change data. The issue may be more acute in group standardized achievement testing programs than in individual minimum competency testing programs. The former is more often used for compiled and reported statistics than the latter, while accommodation for handicapping conditions in test administration is more frequent in the latter than in the former. As Goodman commented, however, there is likely more similarity than difference between the effective schools movement and historical special educator program emphasis, that is, interest in academic engaged time, direct instruction, common curricular objectives and test content, supportive school climate, and recognized importance of school leadership.

The impact of general educators' views of the relationship between students with learning difficulties and movements focusing on "Back-to-Basics" and school improvement were discussed by Hocutt, Cox, and Pelosi (1984) in their study of issues regarding the identification and placement of high-incidence handicapped students. From visits to representative school districts, they concluded that "the Back-to-Basics movement and the concern for school improvement in regular education is impacting upon handicapped students, particularly at the secondary level, by increasing graduation requirements and establishing ability grouping in regular classes" (p. 26). The basics movement has renewed the practice of ability grouping in some school districts, and students identified as handicapped (usually learning disabled or mentally handicapped) tend to be placed in lower functioning groups for the mainstream portions of their school day. In some cases, strengthening the curriculum in general education classes has resulted in increased difficulty for handicapped students in making the transition to those programs from more restrictive settings. Finally, increased requirements have served to discourage handicapped students from entering diploma-granting programs and have placed them in a tenuous position in competing for now more selective assignments to vocational programs. Adding to the complexity, the authors also found that the "intensity of programming with special education and related services has decreased because of funding problems" (p. 28).

There are, then, both positive and negative aspects to the relationship between mainstreaming efforts and movements commonly referred to as "Back-to-Basics," "Excellence in Education," or "Effective Schools." This points up yet another critical area for general and special education interface and cooperation.

Critical in the sharing and division of general and special education administrative responsibilities is provision for adequate supervision and evaluation of general education, special education, and other direct service personnel. Zadnik (1984) linked personnel supervision and evaluation practices with research on teacher effectiveness, stating that

the impact of teacher effectiveness research on supervision practices has been ineffectual. This is true in both regular and special education Instruments used to monitor and evaluate the performance of special education personnel have been found to be identical to those used in regular education. The result of not operating from any firm research base has contributed to supervisors utilizing fundamentally unsound criteria to observe, monitor, and evaluate instructional personnel. (p. 6)

As can be seen in part from the discussion of administrative roles, one reason both general education and special education personnel are evaluated in like manner and by like criteria may be that the task most frequently falls to a building-level general education administrator. In such instances, then, it is the special education administrator's responsibility to assist the building administrator in developing a supervision and evaluation plan appropriate to the roles of the respective subordinate personnel. The importance of differential supervision and evaluation plans for general and special education personnel is increased as special education roles reflect resource or consultant models more often than special classroom models. There is continuing need to vary supervision and evaluation components between special class situations and general class situations as well.

Summary and Implications

The interface occurring between general and special educators has been punctuated by certain significant changes in the roles of service providers and administrators, most prompted by shifts and interdependent responsibilities in service to students. Many general education classroom personnel need to become more informed in instructional methodology that was formerly viewed as within only the special educator's purview. Many former special education classroom personnel have to become more knowledgeable about the general education classroom and about communicating their instructional expertise in consultant fashion to content specialists in education. Leaders in both general and special education are faced with a more pressing need to respond to an emerging shared responsibility for the education of all students by pooling and jointly allocating commitments, knowledge, skills, and resources.

Local special education administrators may occupy the most influential positions in determining the likelihood of success of joint efforts. They bear the following primary responsibilities:

1. To promote and support the appropriate preparation of all service delivery personnel to meet the professional and personal demands of responding to the educational needs of handicapped students in general education settings.
2. To initiate and support the sharing of resources and responsibilities between general and special education leaders and decision makers with the goal of barrier-free planning and program implementation on behalf of all students.
3. To generate meaningful program evaluation and other initiatives designed to publicly demonstrate a concern about excellence in services for all students.

Fiscal Concerns

Status Quo

To this point, there has been little discussion in this book concerning the impact of fiscal demands and constraints on the interface between general and special education. Nevertheless, financial considerations have, in part, governed program development in both general education and special education, and they also provide another forum for productive interface. One of the findings of a Hocutt, Cox, and Pelosi (1984) study of local education agency placement practices was that placement practices were affected by district special education funding constraints. They reported that

the visited LEAs are finding themselves in the position of serving roughly the same proportions of all handicapped students with essentially fewer dollars due to inflation, higher salaries, etc. One way they have dealt with this problem is to emphasize initial placement or movement toward those placements less expensive for special education, such as regular classes with consultative services. Additionally, they have reduced the number of classes offered that have low student-teacher ratios and increased those that have higher student-teacher ratios; the latter classes are also less restrictive options. (p. 25)

[In addition,] in some of the visited LEAs, students were placed on waiting lists for services and/or specific placements; in the latter case, they were placed in a setting less restrictive than the one needed until a slot in the appropriate placement opened. In others, school personnel stated that students received the services and placements that they needed, but received them less frequently or less intensively . . . than they needed. These problems were caused by lack of sufficient funds. (p. 28)

There can be no doubt that, in the sites visited, special education fiscal constraints have impacted the delivery of services to handicapped children and that the nature of that impact has been to place greater demands on general education.

In another study, Pyecha, Kuligowski, and Wiegerink (1984) found that

administrators in several districts . . . reported using mainstreaming to control expenditures for special education by shifting a portion of [the special education] program costs to the regular education program. For example, when special education placements were limited, the amount of time special education students spent in regular classes was frequently increased, and consequently the time in special classes reduced, allowing districts to place more students in special education programs without increasing the special education staff. (p. 21)

These researchers also noted a dramatic increase in the use of the consultative model, which promoted special education service delivery through general education teachers. Three of the important conclusions from this study are as follows:

1. "Federal and state funding approaches and formulae (for general and special education) and special education policies affect the numbers of students identified as handicapped, as well as their classifications and placements" (p. 34).
2. "Success in competing for local funds, which in turn is a function of local priorities and local attitudes toward special education, is an important factor in determining the number of students identified as being in need of special education and related services, and the type of services provided"(p. 35).
3. "Special education, compensatory education, other categorical problems, and regular education programs are interdependent" (p. 38).

Wang and Reynolds described "the case of a successful merger of special and general education services in regular classes that was discontinued because of funding disincentives" due to current special education policies and funding practices (1985, p. 498). In their example, the successful merger of general education and special education services resulted in a profitable education for handicapped students and more individualization of education for nonhandicapped students within the general education program. Since some of the students were not identified as handicapped and those identified as handicapped were receiving all services through general education, they did not generate the additional necessary dollars needed to support increased program costs and program continuation.

Kakalik, Fury, Thomas, and Carney (1981) reported findings of a national study of local education agency special education and general education per-pupil costs. Because data were collected during the 1977-1978 school year, the specific figures may not be as important now as the relative differences among them. Kakalik, et al. noted that the local costs for service to handicapped students totally within general education (with or without consultation) were nearly one-half the costs of service in general education with itinerant or part-time special education provided. While the costs for itinerant or part-time special education placements were near those for full-time special education class placements, a significant portion of the itinerant and part-time costs were for necessary general education instructional services. The findings of Kakalik et al., then, seemed to lend support to the extent to which it may be possible to conserve special education fiscal resources by diverting certain expenditures to the general education budget. However, they were careful to note that mainstreaming is not intended primarily as a way to reduce costs; rather, a child should be reintegrated when it is the most appropriate placement.

The current education finance dilemma, of course, is that both general education dollars and special education dollars are in short supply. Because of this, there may be greater need today than there has been in the past for general education and special education interface and cooperative planning to limit duplication of effort and most efficiently provide for appropriate programs and services for all students. Given the variety of systems for funding general and special education programs, it is more difficult to orchestrate collaborative education finance lobbying efforts in some states than in others. Cooperative efforts seem most successful in those states where the funding formula for special education programs is based on the same foundation as general education funding. Both groups of constituents, then, can press for increases in the

foundation amounts, which increase program allocations accordingly. In those situations, greater attention can be focused on local allocation practices.

Summary and Implications

It is not difficult to document the extent to which general and special education finances are linked or the extent to which a chronic dollar shortage in one area affects the other. Decision makers in both general and special education in many localities are faced with continuing fiscal constraints and either threats of or painfully real reductions in fiscal resources. Neither special nor general educators can afford competition with each other for available fiscal support to education; rather, the financial arena may be the most critical for linkages and cooperation. Moreover, neither can afford to lose interest in attempting to impact the methods by which local, state, province, or federal dollars for education are generated.

Again, there are implications unique to the local special education administrator. Following are some of their responsibilities:

1. To maintain particular awareness about the fiscal condition of the total education agency and about the potential fiscal impact on both special and general education resources of special education proposals.
2. To seek out and promote opportunities through which special education and general education efforts can be combined to reduce duplication and conserve the fiscal resources of both.
3. To pursue, where appropriate, impact on the development of education funding mechanisms and formulae that encourage cooperative, unified lobbying by special and general educators for the benefit of both.

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