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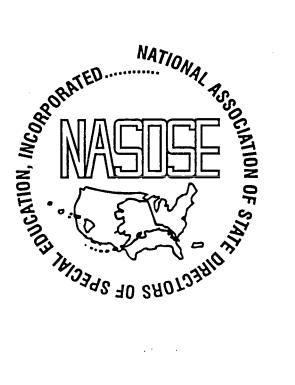
This document, prepared as background information for a conference arranged by the National Association of State Directors of Special Education, reviews studies on the use of the individualized education program (IEP) in the education of students with disabilities. The report begins by explaining the legislative origins of the IEP. The report then reviews studies of IEP planning and implementation, divided into four research phases: the normative research phase (a period of prescribing IEP norms and standards); the analytic research phase, which focused on teacher and parental involvement and perceptions of the IEP; the technology-reaction phase, which identified effective computer-assisted systems to manage the IEP process; and the IEP refinement and options for change phase, which looks at ways to enhance the IEP within the context of education reform and overall program changes. The report also lists considerations for future directions of the IEP. (Contains approximately 100 references.) (CR)



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THE IEP: BENEFITS, CHALLENGES, AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

by Judy A. Schrag, Ed.D.



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Project FORUM at National Association of State Directors of Special Education (NASDSE) is a contract funded by the Office of Special Education Programs of the U. S. Department of Education. The project carries out a variety of activities that provide information needed for program improvement, and promote the utilization of research data and other information for improving outcomes for students with disabilities. The project also provides technical assistance and information on emerging issues, and convenes small work groups to gather expert input, obtain feedback, and develop conceptual frameworks related to critical topics in special education.

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THE IEP: BENEFITS, CHALLENGES, FUTURE DIRECTIONS

BACKGROUND AND PURPOSES

In 1993, the National Association of State Directors of Special Education (NASDSE) published Leading and Managing for Performance: Challenges Facing Special Education. This vision document called for major changes in the education of children with disabilities and for a partnership of special and general educators. This partnership goal places the focus on what children are taught and accountability for their learning. Further, the focus on the general education curriculum helps ensure that children with disabilities receive instruction based on high expectations.

In 1995, NASDSE convened a focus group to design an accountability system for ALL children that determines quality based on results rather than on process monitoring. This resulted in a publication entitled NASDSE's Vision for a Balanced System of Accountability. NASDSE's system of accountability is composed of three components: input/process accountability, system accountability, and individual student accountability. Conceptually, it is thought that each component is necessary to a balanced system of accountability. Information regarding NASDSE's system of accountability is found in Appendix A.

NASDSE is now arranging a Wingspread Conference to explore further the challenges posed by a full partnership between general and special education within the context of reform, and to extend the work begun with the balanced system of accountability by looking at the individual student learning component. The focus on individual student learning helps guarantee individual student success, and is essential for special needs learners whose lack of progress can be overlooked by aggregated measures used to determine success at the school, district, or state level. Specifically, the Wingspread Conference will examine the 20 years of experience of implementing individual education programs (IEPs) for children with disabilities, and recommend changes to make the IEP more useful for both instruction and accountability.

This paper is intended to provide the following background information for Conference participants:

- A discussion of the origins of the IEP.
- A literature review of research and studies regarding the benefits and challenges of IEP planning and implementation.
- Considerations for future directions of the IEP in order to enhance its value for both instructional and accountability purposes.



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ORIGINS OF THE IEP

There has been a focus on the unique individual characteristics of a child that has been observed by educators, psychologists, physicians, and parents. John Dewey, in developing his philosophy of American education, spoke of each child as "equally an individual and entitled to equal opportunity of development of his own capacities, be they large or small in range...each has needs of his own, as significant to him as those of others are to them" (cited in Abernathy, 1959, p. 254). This philosophy has led educators for years to develop programs to meet individual needs.

At the time and leading up to the passage of Public Law 94-142, educators had begun utilizing a number of strategies in order to meet the individual needs of students including team teaching, open schools, differentiated staffing, and computer assisted instruction (Abeson and Weintraub, 1977). Many states saw the seeds of their own requirements reflected in the provision of an individualized education plan contained in Public Law 94-142. For example, the 61st Texas Legislature in 1969 passed a bill that included the requirement for an educational plan of action which indicated classroom goals, objectives and was periodically reviewed and updated (Turner and Mary, 1978). The State of Maryland also was utilizing educational management plans prior to the passage of Public Law 94-142. Other states, including Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, and New York, were also implementing a form of educational plans. Equally important were state and local practices for determining the learning strengths and weaknesses as well as learning styles of individual children. The emphasis on diagnostic and prescriptive educational programs combined evaluation and programming.

In calling for an individualized education program (IEP) as the last step following the evaluation process, Public Law 94-142 was credited for codifying practices that had been recognized as superior teaching practices (National Advisory Committee on the Handicapped, 1977). In order to determine the original intents of Congress regarding the IEP, it is important to examine the Congressional Record, Senate and House debates and written Senate and House reports concerning S. 6 and H.R. 7217 that led to the conferenced bill, Public Law 94-142, Education for All Handicapped Children's Act. This Act has been periodically re-authorized and became the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) in 1990. It will be referred to as IDEA in this paper.

Exhibit 1 in Appendix B provides a detailed summary of the differences between the House and Senate and the resulting conference changes which impacted the IEP (U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1977). Following is a summary of the intent areas of agreement and disagreement between the House and Senate.



Areas of Agreement and Disagreement Between the House and Senate Regarding the IEP

- The IEP was originally conceptualized as *individualized planning*. The Senate called it an individual planning conference, and the House referred to an individualized education program.
- The Senate specifically indicated that the planning conference was intended to provide training for the parents. Both the Senate and House argued that individual planning was essential to meeting educational needs of students and to positive outcomes. In addition, individual planning could continue school benefits to the home.
- Both the Senate and the House had similar intents for the content of the statement
 resulting from individual planning. The Senate Amendments included a statement of
 short-term instructional objectives, while the House amendments provided for a statement
 of desired objectives. Whereas the House included criteria and evaluation procedures, the
 Senate amendments deleted the language that called for objective criteria and evaluation
 procedures and, instead, required a study by the Commissioner of Education.
- Both the Senate and the House placed great emphasis on the planning process and intended that there be *frequent monitoring of student progress*. The Senate intended that there be at least three individual planning conferences a year. The House emphasized the need for an annual review of the individual education program.
- The Senate amendments expressly stated that the results of the individual planning conference would be a *written statement*. It was assumed that the House-required individual education program would also be written, although the House Amendments did not specifically require a written plan.
- The House indicated that the individual education program should be developed by the school in *consultation with the parents*. The Senate amendments indicated that the statement should be developed jointly between the school personnel and the parents (and the child, when appropriate).
- Both the Senate and the House intended that the individual planning conferences be one method to prevent labeling. The Senate also stated that the planning conferences should be an extension of the procedural protections guaranteed under existing law and be the logical extension of the evaluation and placement process. Both the Senate and the House, in the conference agreement stated that the statement of individual planning should remain on file with procedures for strict confidentiality.



- Both the Senate and the House intended that the individual statement not be a contract binding on the school and the parents.
- Both the Senate and the House required the state education agencies (SEAs) to assure statewide implementation of individual planning conferences.

The above discussion regarding Congressional IEP intent shows that the IEP was thought to be the end result of a process that was very valuable, possibly as valuable as the IEP document itself (Zettel, 1982; McLaughlin & Warren, 1995). There was a Congressional emphasis on the importance of interactions between the parents, the child when possible, and school personnel to carefully plan and monitor individualized programming for the child. Even though the Senate and House discussions and debates focused on the need for a rich process of individual planning and reviewing student progress, there was also intent that the IEP be an accountability tool (although not a contract for services). The necessity for the IEP to serve both planning and instructional purposes as well as accountability purposes began with Congressional intent.

A number of national and state organizations and associations were involved in the process leading to the passage of Public Law 94-142. For example, the Council for Exceptional Children was active in this process. In an effort to obtain background for this paper regarding Congressional intent for the IEP, a personal interview (July, 1996) was held with Mr. Fred Weintraub who was Assistant Executive Director for Governmental Relations for the Council for Exceptional Children at the time of passage of Public Law 94-142 or the earlier form of IDEA.

Mr. Weintraub indicated that the IEP emerged in order to operationalize the importance of individualized attention and to define free appropriate public education (FAPE) guaranteed by the law to each eligible child with a disability. It was determined that a group of individuals, including the parent and child, when appropriate, would develop the IEP. Mr. Weintraub also indicated that Congress originally had four basic purposes for the development of IEPs:

- 1. To provide an opportunity for communication among the parties regarding the individualized education to be provided for the child;
- 2. To encourage planning among the individuals most in touch with the child including parents and school personnel;
- 3. To assure an annual review, more frequent monitoring of student progress, and IEP team review prior to making changes so that the child's educational program would not be arbitrarily altered, but that changes would be made based on the child's educational needs; and
- 4. To serve as an accountability tool for state and local education agencies to assure FAPE for each eligible child with a disability.



STUDIES OF IEP PLANNING AND IMPLEMENTATION

The benefits of planning and implementing IEPs were clearly outlined by Congress. The IEP is the cornerstone of IDEA. Since its inception, the IEP has been a powerful document that defines the specially-designed instruction and related services needed by students with disabilities. It focuses attention on the strengths and educational needs of each individual student, and it is thought by many to be a needed and valuable tool for all students. Many authors have discussed the critical and important benefits of the IEP process, including the involvement of the parents (Zeller, 1976; Torres, 1977; Turnbull, Strickland, & Hammer, 1978; Hayes & Higgins, 1978; Robinson, 1982; Alter & Goldstein, 1986; Alter & Goldstein, 1986; Peters, 1990; School & Cooper, 1992; and Renzulli, 1994).

Since the passage of P.L. 94-142 and the implementation of IEPs, there have also been a number of concerns and challenges, as well, including the intrusion of the federal government into state and local educational practices, impact on increasingly tight education budgets; excessive time and paperwork; and logistical difficulties involved in convening parents, teachers, and other school personnel to develop IEPs (McLaughlin & Warren, 1995).

Studies have been conducted since the passage of P.L. 94-142 to examine the above and other concerns, as well as benefits of the IEP. For purposes of this synthesis, studies are discussed using a four-phase framework. The review incorporates the three overlapping phases of research and studies utilized by Smith (1990) and adds a fourth phase. The phases are as follows:

- * The first phase was a *normative phase*, or period of prescribing IEP norms and standards, during which authors and researchers described the concepts and provisions of the law with specific concerns in mind.
- * A second research phase which was an *analytic phase* of IEP inspection involving attention to teacher involvement and perceptions of the IEP, parental involvement, and a team approach.
- * A third phase, according to Smith, can be described as the *technology-reaction phase* which identified effective computer-assisted systems to manage the IEP process.
- * The fourth phase of study and inquiry deals with *IEP refinement and options for change* or looking at ways to enhance the IEP within the context of education reform and overall program changes and refinements.



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Normative Phase

The literature during this early phase contained articles explaining the nature of the new federal law, how it would impact the education of children with disabilities, how to write and implement IEPs, and actual or perceived concerns. Many authors discussed the various components of the IEP and the conditions necessary for implementation (Zeller 1976; Turnbull, Strickland, and Hamer, 1978; Torres, 1977; Lee & Worl 1987; Hayes and Torres Higgins, 1978; and Hudson and Graham, 1978). Smith (1990) described the normative literature (e.g., lack of necessary training, excessive paper compliance, and dilemmas posed by group variance, etc.) to be "tea leaves guiding future research" in that these variables and others were later scrutinized and studied.

An example of a normative phase article is that by Rinaldi (1976) in which concerns were expressed about IEP implementation. Specifically, he discussed the need for staff development and the potential danger of achieving paper compliance rather than improved programs and services for students.

Morrissey and Safer (1977) and the National Advisory Committee on the Handicapped (1977) pointed out potential problems of a multi-disciplinary approach to IEP development. Specifically, they cautioned that multiple interpretations or expectations inherent in a team approach or group functioning could subvert the IEP process and negatively impact the utility of the IEP as a planning document, instructional guide, or reflection of program quality.

In 1978, the National Association of State Directors of Special Education conducted a national study on the implementation of the law. The authors, Schipper and Wilson found the following issues about the IEP process: teacher concerns about increased time demands, difficulty with the IEP team process, lack of teacher training, and misunderstandings by teachers and administrators of their roles and responsibilities.

Analytic Phase

Research of this phase is extensive and varied. In the interest of readability, the literature in this phase is organized and presented within a series of subtopics according to the major theme of the studies discussed.

Procedural Compliance or Incorporation of Required IEP Components/Process

Early studies in the analytic phase of studies and research were focused on compliance with required IEP components/process. There have been several large compliance studies.



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Page 6 September 9, 1996 During spring 1978, a review of 2,650 IEPs from 208 school systems in 42 states was conducted by Research Triangle Institute (Pyecha, 1980). This review indicated that 95 percent of the files of students in special education contained IEPs. However, fewer than one third of the IEPs contained all of the required items. The items most frequently missing were the proposed evaluation criteria and a statement of the extent to which the student would be able to participate in a general education program. Also, the IEPs were not developed with the appropriate multi-disciplinary team leadership, they did not reflect consideration of the least restrictive environment (LRE), and parents rarely participated in the IEP decision-making process.

A second large study was conducted in 1978-1979 by the Stanford Research Institute. This was a four-year study of 22 local education agencies (LEAs) in nine states (Wright, Cooperstein, Renneker, & Padilla, 1982 cited in Smith, 1994). Interviews were held with LEA staff and community members including parents and human service agency staff. Case studies developed from this information indicated that those interviewed reported their LEA's initial efforts were directed at ensuring procedural compliance with timely evaluation and IEP development requirements. Although these efforts were initially very time consuming, most LEAs were able to put these procedures in place rather quickly, allowing administrators to concentrate on expanding their scope of services and continuum of program options. This four-year study also indicated that as financial resources became tighter in the early 1980s, the expansion of services slowed and programs stabilized. There were fewer and fewer new programs and services.

A study conducted by the National Committee for Citizens in Education (NCCE, 1979) evaluated the IEP from the perspective of 3,400 parents residing in 46 states. NCCE reported that 83% of these parents attended IEP meetings; 70% stated that the IEP contained important information about their child's educational goals, objectives, services and present performance levels; and over 66% of the parents indicated that they were adequately informed about the program and that the program met their child's needs. However, 52% of these parents stated that the IEP was completed before the meeting, and 30% said the IEP did not indicate how much time their child would spend in the general education classroom.

Beginning in 1979, The U.S. Office of Education began to report IEP findings from their on-site monitoring visits. Nearly all educational programs surveyed had IEPs in place. However, similar IEP weaknesses were found: (1) the inclusion of required information items such as short term objectives, (2) evaluation methods, and (3) adequate parental and school personnel participation in IEP meetings. The U.S. Office of Education (now the U.S. Department of Education) has continued to report IEP findings within each of the Annual Reports to Congress. These IEP weaknesses have continued to be found in on-site monitoring visits within the states.



¹The U.S.Department of Education, Office of Special Education Programs publishes a Congressionally mandated summary report yearly on the implementation of IDEA. The most recent issue available as this paper is being written is the Seventeenth Annual Report to Congress, published in 1995.

In addition to these larger and more long-term studies, a number of authors and researchers have reported additional IEP compliance issues. For example, goals and objectives have been reported to be limited, lack specification for instructional purposes, and contain missing information (Anderson, Barner, & Larson, 1978; Reisman & Macy, 1978; Alpar, 1978; and Comptroller General of the United States, 1981; McGarry & Finan, 1982). IEPs have also been found to lack a relationship and link from present performance information, based on psycho-educational assessment, to annual goals and short-term objectives (Shenack & Levey, 1979; Schneck, 1980; Cox & Pyecha, 1980; and Fifield, 1983). Lack of teacher, parent, and student involvement has also been shown to be a continuing IEP concern. For example, the Comptroller General of the United States (1981) found that parents and LEA personnel were not consistently in attendance at IEP conferences.

Training, resources, follow-through, and administrative support are widely recognized as critical to effective implementation of IEPs. Yet, a number of studies have found these ingredients to be missing (Nadler & Shore, 1980). Geradi, Grohe, Benedict, and Coolidge (1984) found a number of problems with the IEP. They reported that the IEP might well be the "single most critical detriment to appropriate programming..."(p. 39). IEP problems cited involved team meetings, parent involvement, time demands, evaluation, and loss of instructional time. Gerardi, et. al., concluded that the result of increased federal and state rules and regulations has led to less instruction for students and more time spent on paperwork and meetings.

Other studies have dealt with specific populations of students. In 1985, Dodaro and Salvenini provided a statement to the Subcommittee on Fiscal Affairs and Health, Committee on the District of Columbia, House of Representatives, in which they reported on 595 delinquent youth with identified disabilities. Of the youth with identified disabilities, 63% (372) did not have IEPs. In addition, 73% of the IEPs reviewed were not in compliance with education or procedural requirements.

Fiedler and Knight (1986) conducted a research study to determine the degree to which needs of students with behavior disorders matched instructional goals contained in the IEP. Data obtained suggested a lack of diagnostic-intervention congruence and dissimilarity of IEP goals to diagnostic/assessment recommendations. In a related study of identified deficits of students with behavior disorders and their congruence to the IEP, a moderate lack of agreement was found between areas of deficit and IEP goals and objectives, especially with respect to social/emotional areas (Reiher, 1992).

Assumptions of the IEP

Whereas earlier analytic studies focused on compliance with the IEP process and components, other studies focused on broader aspects of IEP implementation. One such area investigated the underlying assumptions of the IEP.



Smith (1990) reported on the writing by Morrissey and Safer (1977) which indicated that the IEP is similar to and a formalization of the diagnostic-prescriptive teacher or an individualized programming approach used in special education. Therefore, this underlying premise to the development and implementation of IEPs have been continually analyzed. Salvia and Ysseldyke (1988) reported on the literature scrutiny of the assessment component of this diagnostic prescriptive approach to developing IEPs.

Smith (1990) pointed out several dilemmas that were found in this literature review. For example, Ysseldyke and Algozinne (1982) reported concerns that assessment information gathered is often not useful in instructional planning. In addition, Salvia and Ysseldyke (1988) also reported that differential disability diagnosis, another assumption underlying the IEP, does not provide information needed for instruction. They also cautioned that the IEP may be valid only to the extent that assumptions underlying valid assessment, analysis, and diagnosis are met.

Special Education Teacher Perceptions

Another area of analytic inquiry has been to explore the perceptions of teachers regarding IEP planning and implementation. Teachers have often expressed IEP concerns such as increased workload, excessive paperwork, insufficient support, and lack of adequate training (Dudley-Marling, 1985; McGarry & Finan, 1982). Several studies have investigated the perceptions of special education teachers of the IEP's effectiveness on children's learning (Dudley-Marling, 1985; Morgan & Rhode, 1983; Joseph, Lindgren, Creamer, & Lane, 1983). One of these studies by Morgan & Rhode (1983) found that special educators felt that they could teach and children could learn effectively without IEPs. Similarly, Dudley-Marling (1985) concluded that teachers found the IEP not to be useful in planning instruction. Teachers cited excessive demands on time and the lack of involvement by general education classroom teachers and parents as problems with the IEP process. They felt that the IEP has failed to become a working document.

Parental Involvement and Perceptions

A presumption of IDEA and the IEP requirement is that parental involvement is important to a positive learning experience for the child. This has been another area of analytic inquiry. Parent involvement research has focused on professionals' perceptions of the parental role (Gilliam & Coleman, 1981), parents' perception of their role in the IEP conference (Lusthaus, Lusthaus, & Gibbs, 1981), and parent's actual role (Goldstein, Strickland, Turnbull, & Curry, 1980). By and large, studies conducted indicate that there has been inadequate parental involvement in the IEP process (e.g., Goldstein, Strickland, Turnbull, and Curry, 1980; Grony, 1988; Friedson, 1990). However, parents have generally been satisfied with the IEP conference and its outcomes. (Witt, Miller, McIntyre, & Smith, 1984). A study of 241 parents of children with disabilities was conducted in twelve school districts in suburban, northeast New Jersey to determine predictors of parental satisfaction of the IEP process. Findings indicated that 60% of the parents surveyed were



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Page 9 September 9, 1996 satisfied with the IEP process (Casella, 1989). Parents felt that their child would benefit from special education as a result of the IEP.

A qualitative research study indicated the continuing need for IEP teams to foster quality communication among their members, and parents should be regarded as important educational resources (Wood, 1995). Miner (1994) studied the effect of implementing a purposeful pre-planning activity with parents upon the overall effectiveness of the IEP transition planning process. He found that preliminary planning had a significant effect on participation in transition planning/IEP meetings, but not on discussion of post-school issues during these meetings. The treatment group reported perceptions of increased preparedness, participation, student participation, preparedness to discuss action steps, and for overall satisfaction of the process of preliminary planning.

Multi-disciplinary Team Approach

Smith (1990) summarized the role of the multi-disciplinary IEP team as formulating assessment information into a comprehensive planning system that facilitates the delivery of educational services. The team approach is intended to bring multiple and complementary views to the development of an efficient and effective IEP. Smith (1990) reported that several authors have pointed out that the team approach to the development of the IEP is founded on a logical rather than an empirical base. Further, training is needed for team members to integrate their skills in order to formulate comprehensive educational plans for students with disabilities.

Smith (1990) pointed out that in addition to skills necessary to ensure proper functioning of the IEP committee, attendance is crucial in order to fulfill the law's intent. Studies have consistently found key persons missing from IEP meetings (Comptroller General of the United States, 1981; Smith & Simpson, 1989; Smith, 1990).

Skrtic, Guba, and Knowlton (1985) conducted a qualitative study of five rural, multi-district special education service agencies and found several variations in the multi-disciplinary team process due to factors such as scheduling, time demands, parent apprehension, and professional embarrassment due to professional disagreements during the IEP meetings.

General Education Teacher Participation

Because most students with disabilities are assigned to the general education classroom for some part of the day, the involvement of general education teachers in the IEP process is important. Ysseldyke, Algozzine, and Allen (1982) conducted a study of IEP team meetings and concluded that general and special education teachers did not interact or did so in a superficial manner. Gilliam and Coleman (1981) found that IEP meeting participants ranked general education teachers high in their importance to the IEP team meeting, but low in their actual contribution and influence.



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Page 10 September 9, 1996 Pugach (1982) conducted a survey and found that a majority of 39 general education classroom teachers were not systematically involved in developing IEPs. As a result, Pugach stated that "it is unlikely that this approach promotes shared decision making or encourages consistent curricular modifications across instructional settings" (p. 374).

Nevin, Semmel, and McCann (1983) studied 100 IEPs and found that general education teachers who worked with these students were minimally involved in the IEP process. These authors further discussed the need for the IEP to delineate modifications in the general education program in order for the role of the general education teacher to be meaningful.

IEP Evaluation

Individualized education programs, when systematically planned and evaluated, have been shown to have positive effects on academic achievement and functional living of students with disabilities (Maher, 1983). Several authors have studied and written about IEP evaluation (Gallagher, 1978; Maher & Bennett, 1984; Sage, 1981). A case study was carried out using the DURABLE Approach developed by the authors to facilitate implementation of IEP evaluation procedures in the schools (Maher & Illback, 1984). This system involves a multi-disciplinary team in gathering four areas of evaluation information about the IEP for each child with a disability: appropriateness of goals and objectives; IEP implementation (e.g., frequency of services rendered vs. services planned); IEP goal attainment (e.g., degree of attainment of goals); and utility (e.g., satisfaction of parents). This approach was found to be useful in IEP evaluation.

Welton, et al., (1981) demonstrated the effectiveness of the Individualized Education Program Monitoring Analysis Plan (IEP MAP) as an approach for evaluating the effectiveness and legal compliance of the IEP process. This process was shown to improve communication between parents and general and special education staff, improve consistency of IEP procedures throughout the district, and improve efficiency and consistency in record keeping.

Mirkin, et al., (1986) developed and field-tested a data-based program modification approach to develop and monitor progress on IEP goals. The philosophy of this program was that teachers can improve special education services by systematically measuring student progress toward IEP goals and then making adjustments to increase program effectiveness.

Technology-Reaction Phase

Smith (1990) indicated that the technology-reaction phase shifted the research focus from the original spirit and intent of the law (e.g., from the IEP quality and exemplary compliance issues in the analytic phase) to concerns about reducing the time and costs required in completing IEPs (e.g., minimal compliance) through the use of computer assistance. He further discussed concerns



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Page 11 September 9, 1996 with this phase in that managing the IEP with technology can place emphasis on technicians using formulas and following rules, rather than using the intended individualized problem solving to arrive at a program to achieve an appropriate education for the child. Smith (1990) suggested that the use of technology to formulate the IEP may represent a response to the failure of special education practice to "conceptually embrace the concept of what we know about IEPs versus what we do" (p. 11). Smith suggested that implementation seems to involve minimal compliance, the very nature of which the law was intended to preclude. He states that little if any suggestions are found during this phase for implementing IEPs toward the law's original intent of quality programming based on the values of an appropriate education.

A number of computer-managed instructional systems or educational management systems have been developed that use computer software to manage the IEP and to help relieve IEP paperwork and time burdens (Enell, 1983; Minick & School, 1982). Enell (1982) developed a handbook on streamlining IEPs (e.g., by selecting goal areas and possible objectives in advance of the IEP meeting). Enell (1983) examined a computer system for writing IEPs in California and found increased satisfaction with the IEP by parents, teachers, and administrators, decreased paperwork for teacher, and reduced time and money spent generating IEPs. Hoehle (1994) reported on formative and summative evaluation of using the IEP Advisor expert system as an IEP management tool. In estimating the validity of the IEP Advisor, findings indicated that reports generated by the IEP Advisor were consistently ranked as good as or better than reports produced by locally-recognized experts.

Cost efficiency, time savings, and positive teacher attitude have been reported in many other studies, as well (Davis, 1985; Enell, 1983). Kellogg (1984) reported on computerized IEP systems that are designed to save time and reduce IEP development costs. In comparing computerized and non-computerized IEPs in 12 Massachusetts school districts, Ryan and Rucker (1986) found that computer-assisted IEPs took less time, cost less to develop and resulted in more favorable teacher attitudes regarding the IEP process.

Despite the positive findings of various studies, use of computerized IEP systems has been controversial. Some feel that using "canned" IEP goals and objectives strays from the intent of individualized planning inherent within the IEP process.

IEP Refinement and Options for Change Phase

The IEP has continued to be the primary tool for implementing the concept of an appropriate education for students with disabilities. A review of studies and research conducted during the 1970s and 1980s has pointed out continuing persistent issues and concerns with the IEP (Smith, 1990). After nearly 20 years of experience, many feel that it is time to identify ways that the instructional/curricular and the accountability purposes of the IEP can be better met (e.g., linking



more closely with the general curriculum, determining and documenting needed curricular and instructional adaptations, improving instruction related to specific student needs, evaluating and monitoring student progress, and serving as an accountability document (McLaughlin & Warren, 1995). Following is a selected summary of research/studies in several specific IEP problem areas that are forming the basis for explorations for IEP refinement and change.

Development of the IEP

One issue that has continued to be a concern is the cost of IEP development, estimated to be \$2,000 adjusted for 1989-90 dollars (Chaikind, Danielson, & Brown, 1993). IEP development costs primarily involve personnel needed for the assessments and participation in IEP meetings.

McLaughlin and Warren (1995) identified lack of participation in IEP development as another continued issue. Even though federal regulations require that the IEP be developed by a multi-disciplinary team, general education teachers rarely participate in IEP development (Gartner & Lipsky, 1992; Nolan, 1995) even though their presence is important to assuring that students with disabilities have access to the general education curriculum. General education teachers often do not have copies of the students' IEPs. One can conclude that this lack of involvement in IEP development and implementation makes linking special and general education more difficult and results in limited instructional usefulness of the IEP.

McLaughlin and Warren (1995) identified lack of parental participation in the IEP process as another continuing concern. Studies regarding parental participation in the IEP process have continued in the IEP refinement phase of research and study. Increasing evidence has documented limited IEP involvement of parents (Gartner & Lipsky, 1992; Singer & Butler, 1992). There is also growing evidence that parental participation differs by socioeconomic status and race (Katsiyannis & Ward, 1992).

Parents of culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds often have additional logistical difficulties that prevent their full participation in the IEP development process such as scheduling, transportation, and childcare (Harry, 1992). Rodriguez (1994) carried out an exploratory study of socioeconomic characteristics and needs of Hispanic parents of children with special needs in a western Massachusetts school district and found that Hispanic parents show particular socioeconomic characteristics that should be taken into consideration to assure active participation and involvement in the IEP process.

Robinson (1994) found that special education teachers perceive parents to be inactive and unequal partners at the IEP conference. Lalain (1993) conducted a study in the Glendale Unified School District and found that the majority of the parents were generally pleased with the IEP and its effects on their child's education. Nearly one-third of the parents, however, had not attended scheduled IEP conferences or were unaware if they had done so. McLaughlin and Warren (1995)



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Page 13 September 9, 1996 also indicated that despite the less than optimal IEP participation and involvement, parents continue to support the IEP as an important vehicle for assuring that their child will have an appropriate education.

Hock (1995) reported on a new family-centered IEP being utilized by Vermont which is designed to increase collaboration, reduce paperwork, and ensure legal compliance. Seven key features are used: key questions to arrive at the child's strengths and needs; a new "non-form" IEP form with three blank columns, one for each key question; strategies to achieve a direct link between present levels of performance, services, and goals and objectives; a holistic approach to enhance the IEP's educational relevance; common language and understandable, jargon-free questions; a creative problem solving process to promote participation of all team members; and a checklist to insure that legal requirements are satisfied.

Curriculum Uses of the IEP

Confusion has existed since the passage of P.L. 94-142 regarding the extent to which the IEP is a compliance document (e.g., necessary component from which to monitor and enforce the law) or a document to guide individualized instruction and curriculum for children with disabilities. There have been at least four different orientations to curriculum in special education (Polloway, Patton, Epstein, & Smith, 1989 cited in Sands, Adams, & Stout, 1995):

- Basic skills models that primarily emphasize the remediation of academic deficits;
- · Social skills and life-adjustment models;
- Learning strategies models; and
- Functional orientations of vocational training and adult outcomes

Sands, Adams, and Stout (1995) have indicated that in the absence of a curriculum base, instructional and curricular decisions within the goals and objectives of the IEP and within the classroom are often haphazard and widely divergent (Goldstein, 1986; Lynch & Beare, 1990; Pugach & Warger, 1993).

Sands, Adams, and Stout (1995) also pointed out that questions have continued regarding the curricular function and value of the IEP. Some have viewed the IEP as documentation of the curriculum for students with disabilities (Lieberman, 1985; Zigmond, cited in O'Neil, 1988). Persons with this view believe that the general education curriculum is too narrow and cannot support the needs of students with disabilities. Therefore, each child's curriculum should be developed within the IEP based on his or her needs. Other educators view the IEP as documenting recommendations for instructional and curricular adaptations and modifications to the general education curriculum (Adelman & Taylor, 1993; Falvey, Coots, Bishop & Grenot-Scheyer, 1989). Proponents of this view believe educational goals should be the same for all students. There has been a general lack of consensus about the nature and content of the curriculum utilized in special



education as reflected within the IEP. In fact, current IEPs often include goals written for staff rather than for students, goals that are discipline related, and goals that lack a connection to the general education classroom (Giangreco et al., 1994).

Sands, Adams, and Stout (1995) conducted a statewide exploration of the nature and use of curriculum in special education and found that over half (55%) of the teachers believed that each student should have his or her own curriculum based on student needs and that the IEP should serve as the basis for the student's curriculum. Another 15% of the teachers felt that the general education curriculum should be the primary curriculum source for students with disabilities, and 14% believed that the LEA should generate goals and direction for special education and have teachers responsible for developing the curriculum. Finally, 11% believed that special education teachers should be the sole source of determining the goals and direction of their programs.

An important emphasis of current education reform is that of standards, outcomes, and indicators. McLaughlin and Warren (1995) argued that IEPs are rarely linked to larger state, district, or school-level student outcomes and indicators. This results in a fragmented system in which students with disabilities are taught skills not related to the broader general education curriculum and disconnected with general education school improvement and education reform. This lack of connection between general and special education as reflected within IEPs can be particularly critical for students with mild disabilities (Singler & Butler, 1992).

The U.S. Department of Education (1996) has reiterated: "The original intent of IDEA was to ensure that access to an appropriate education is based on individual needs, including access to the general curriculum whenever appropriate" (p. 12). Improving the IEP process is seen as an important vehicle to focus on access to the general curriculum, whenever appropriate, and on goals designed to improve educational results.

The IEP as an Accountability Document

One of the functions of the IEP is to document LEA compliance with the legal requirements regarding evaluation, timelines, and IEP components. Weintraub (personal interview, July, 1996) indicated that there has been a tendency to "layer on" requirements from the federal, state, and local levels resulting in multiple forms for parents to sign confirming their notification of the meeting, receipt of parental rights statements, IEP participation, acceptance of goals, receipt of the IEP, etc. The result of increased policy requirements at the federal, state, and local levels has been concerns about excessive paperwork and time demands because of the focus on legal compliance. There seems to be much discussion about the extent to which state and local policies are in excess of current federal IEP regulations, but few articles and studies in the literature to validate or refute this concern. In addition because of the concern about legal compliance and existing litigation/case law, it is not unusual for IEPs to contain only those services that are available, rather than all the services needed as was intended by Congress (Tucker, Goldstein, & Sorenson, 1993).



McLaughlin and Warren (1995) also pointed out the increasing national concern regarding the large numbers of students with disabilities who are exempted from involvement in systems of accountability (e.g., attendance, promotion/retention, suspension/expulsion, and student performance assessments). This exclusion has resulted in a lack of accountability locus for the educational programs for students with disabilities. Rather, the IEP is often considered the accountability tool resulting in limited accountability for students with disabilities.

IEP as a Document to Insure Interagency Comprehensive and Coordinated Service and Statewide Reform

The IDEA currently requires a transition plan to be included within the IEP for each student with a disability beginning at age 16. This necessitates communication among a variety of agencies (e.g., education, vocational rehabilitation, social service, mental health, and others) to plan for the future adult programs and services.

In addition, recent national, state, and local/community initiatives have been focused on planning and implementing school-linked, interagency, comprehensive systems of care for children with disabilities and their families. These initiatives have posed additional challenges for the IEP content and process of development. The State of North Carolina, for example, has developed a comprehensive service planning document that contains the special education IEP, the mental health Individual Treatment Plan (ITP), and an ecology plan that extends to the child's home and community.

To determine the extent to which individual transition plans were being carried out, a study was conducted in two urban high schools in Arkansas (Shearin, 1996). Findings indicated that key transition constituents, namely students, parents, and other agencies likely to be responsible for transition services, were not attending IEP meetings on a regular basis making transition planning difficult. In analyzing the impact of the Arkansas Transition Project on the content and functionality of Individual Transition Plans, Shearin's findings indicated no significant differences between the transition and non-model sites in the constituents involved in the development of the plan and the inclusion of postsecondary education and employment goals. There were differences, however, between the two sites in the inclusion of specific responses to residential options, daily living skills, and persons/agencies responsible for delivering transition services.

In 1990, the Maine Legislature created a Task Force on Learning Results that developed a comprehensive document known as *Learning Results* (e.g., Maine high standards) with two guiding ideas: that all children can learn and that all children need equal opportunities to achieve *Learning Results* (Gervis and Baker, 1996). A comprehensive planning process, including a set of tools and templates, was developed by Gervis and Baker (1996) to help educators and parents personalize curriculum, instruction, and assessment. This comprehensive planning process is integrated into the development of IEPs for students with disabilities.



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CONSIDERATIONS FOR FUTURE DIRECTIONS OF THE IEP

The IEP is one of the most important provisions of IDEA. Because of the continuing concerns regarding IEP development and implementation as documented through research, study, and practice during the past two decades, it is important to consider clarifications, enhancements, and changes in the IEP intent, framework, format, and/or procedures.

In a publication issued by the U.S. Department of Education to support key concepts of IDEA re-authorization proposals, the following research findings were emphasized (1996, page 15):

- IEPs often have limited relevancy to the general classroom Morgan & Rhode, 1983; Dudley-Marling, 1985; Joseph, Lindgren, Creamer & Lane, 1983);
- The IEP has increasingly become the sole curriculum offered to many students (Pugach & Warger, 1993)--often addressing only a narrow range of content with few linkages to the general curriculum (Giangreco, Dennis, Edelman, & Cloninger, 1994);
- General educators rarely participate in IEP meetings (Garner & Lipsky, 1987);
- About one fourth of all parents do not participate at all in their child's IEP meeting (Katsiyannis & Ward, 1993). Parents of low income levels (Singer & Butler, 1992) and culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds have even lower participation than most (Harry, 1992; Vincent, 1992). Reasons for the lack of parent involvement include cultural differences, logistical difficulties (e.g., scheduling, transportation, child care) as well as a tendency to be intimidated by other members of the IEP team;
- IEP committees tend to recommend only those resources that are available within a school or school district (Tucker, Goldstein, & Sorenson, 1993); and
- IEPs often are used solely for process accountability. Because of the lack of connection to system goals or to the general curriculum, it is virtually impossible to use the IEP to assess the progress of students with disabilities (Brauen, O'Reilly, & Moore, 1994).

In addition to the above key research findings, the U.S. Department of Education (1996) has stated that efforts to improve the IEP should focus on the following:

- participation in the general curriculum and challenging standards;
- inclusion in the regular education environment and ensuring necessary aids and supports for successful inclusion;



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- regular reporting to parents on progress toward meaningful measurable annual objectives;
- working with regular education teachers
- needs of students with limited English proficiency;
- preventing and managing behavior problems;
- · early transition planning to prepare for options beyond high school; and
- meaningful annual reviews of the child's progress.

Questions for Consideration

The following is a series of questions regarding IEPs posed to stimulate discussion by participants at the Wingspread Conference:

Curriculum/Instructional and Accountability Purposes of the IEP:

- ➤ Should the purpose of the IEP be clarified?
- ➤ Can the IEP incorporate curriculum and instruction in a way to better accommodate dynamic and changing needs of the instructional process?
- ➤ Can the IEP be an accountability tool as well as a guide to curriculum and instruction?
- What are the implications of separating the accountability function from the curricular/instructional function of the IEP?
- ➤ Would this separation allow for a clearer focus on curriculum and instruction with flexibility to encourage IEPs to be used broadly?

IEP Process:

- ➤ How can IEP development be improved?
- ➤ Are there ways to streamline the IEP development process?
- > Should the emphasis be on an ogoing process of IEP development and review by parents, the child, when appropriate, and school personnel?



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- ➤ How often should interactions occur?
- ➤ Can IEP interactions be carried out through means other than meetings (e.g., telephone calls, notes to and from the home, etc.)?
- ➤ Should these procedures be the same for the instructional and the accountability functions of the IEP?
- ➤ How can the IEP be incorporated into systems of accountability so that students with disabilities are assured quality education?
- > Should the IEP include specific measures of accountability such as attendance, promotion/retention, suspension/expulsion, and student performance?
- ➤ Are there strategies to increase meaningful parent participation?
- Are there specific ways to assure increased participation of parents from culturally and linguistically diverse backgrounds?

IEP Content:

- ➤ Are the contents of the IEP appropriate?
- ➤ Do the IEP contents sufficiently emphasize the student's curriculum and instruction?
- ➤ Should the IEP contents for students receiving only speech and language services be simplified?
- ➤ What measures would help IEP teams to broaden the current views of student ability and instruction?

Integration of Programs and Services:

- ➤ How can the IEP be modified to allow it to better serve as a unifying document across special education, general education, and other special programs within the schools?
- ➤ What strategies would result in a development/review process that includes interagency service planning?
- ➤ What strategies can be used to enhance transition planning through the IEP process for children moving from infant and toddler programs to early childhood programs?



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Page 19 September 9, 1996 ➤ What strategies can be used for school-to-work transition planning?

Curriculum and Instruction:

- Should the purpose of the IEP be clarified (e.g., is the curriculum for the student with a disability the IEP or does the IEP provide the adaptations for the student within the general curriculum?)
- ➤ How can IEPs reflect state and LEA standards and high expectations?
- ➤ How can the IEP be linked to the general education curriculum to ensure continuity of instruction?
- What should be the instructional purpose of the IEP (e.g., to what extent should the IEP include information about instructional strategies to be used)?
- ➤ How can the IEP reflect the many ongoing curricular and instructional adaptations made in the individualized learning process without the need for numerous IEP team meetings?
- ➤ How can the IEP better serve as a map of services and curricular/instructional accommodations necessary throughout the student's school program?



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APPENDIX A

NASDSE's Vision for a Balanced System of Accountability



NASDSE'S VISION FOR BALANCED ACCOUNTABILITY



THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF STATE DIRECTORS OF SPECIAL EDUCATION 1800 DIAGONAL ROAD, SUITE 320 ALEXANDRIA, VIRGINIA 22314



FOREWORD

In its publication Leading and Managing for Performance: An Examination of Challenges Confronting Special Education, The National Association of State Directors of Special Education (NASDSE) began to define the role of special education in reform efforts taking place at state and local levels all across the country. That document notes that there is no question that the existing special education laws and regulations have opened the doors of public education to children and youth with disabilities. However, legal compliance has absorbed the resources and time of professionals, hampering substantive efforts to improve programs. Compliance monitoring systems address little more than minimal process requirements and have had limited impact on educational quality. The need for transition from a system that focuses on the process of educating students to one that focuses on performance and results has been clearly recognized.

With the advent of the current reform movement in education in the early 1980s, a new emphasis has been placed on accountability for the outcomes of education. General educators are struggling with ways to measure student achievement at the individual and school system levels as the major indicator of educational results. Some attention has been paid to the inputs and processes that constitute factors grouped under the heading "opportunity to learn," but only as a contributing component in accounting for the outcomes of general education.

State Directors responsible for the education of students with disabilities have struggled to have special education recognized as a participant in the reform movement. Special education brings to the table an extensive monitoring system for accounting for the inputs and processes required for students who are eligible under applicable laws. However, the compliance monitoring process should constitute only one component of a balanced accountability system, and its position as the only indicator of results in special education is becoming more widely recognized as inadequate.

Recognizing these trends and needs, the NASDSE Board has begun a study of accountability in education. Initial deliberations revealed the need for a conceptual framework as the starting point of developing a complete accountability system in education. The focus group meeting described in this report was the opening activity of that study, and the model discussed in this paper is proposed as the basis for a revised accountability system.

The NASDSE Board has planned a series of meetings to describe and discuss the dynamic model of accountability and obtain the input of all those concerned with public education. It is hoped that this process will result in a consensus on strategies for the implementation of an appropriate system of accountability for all students.







VISION FOR BALANCED ACCOUNTABILITY IN EDUCATION

Accountability in Education

Educators are accountable to families and parents, elected officials, and to the public in general. In group discussions about the concept of accountability, the following meaning was derived as a basis for this model:

Accountability is the process by which we take account of what we intend; a measuring and diagnosing; being answerable for something; a way of ensuring that children are making progress toward appropriate outcomes, both cognitive and non-cognitive.

The conceptual framework chosen to represent accountability is based on a dynamic balance between and among the three major components of the accountability system. The pivotal concept for the model is described as follows:

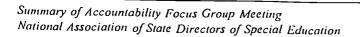
The vision for balanced accountability is an educational system which is accountable for ensuring that all children, including those with disabilities, benefit form their educational experience through equal access, high standards and high expectations, and become caring, productive, socially involved citizens who are committed to life-long learning.

Conceptual Framework of the Model

The conceptual framework used to devise the model of accountability is known as the social process triangle described in the book, The Social Dynamics of Humanness, issued by the Institute of Cultural Affairs of Chicago in 1970. This model involves viewing a social process in terms of its three fundamental components: its economic or foundational aspect; its political or organizational aspect; and its cultural or meaning-giving aspect. In an ideal state, each of the three poles of the triangle is robust and performs its unique function to provide balance. Often in reality, however, a relative imbalance prevails with one pole often assuming dominance and functioning as a kind of "tyrant," a second pole supporting the dominant one in an "ally" relationship, and the third pole manifesting a "collapsed" state.

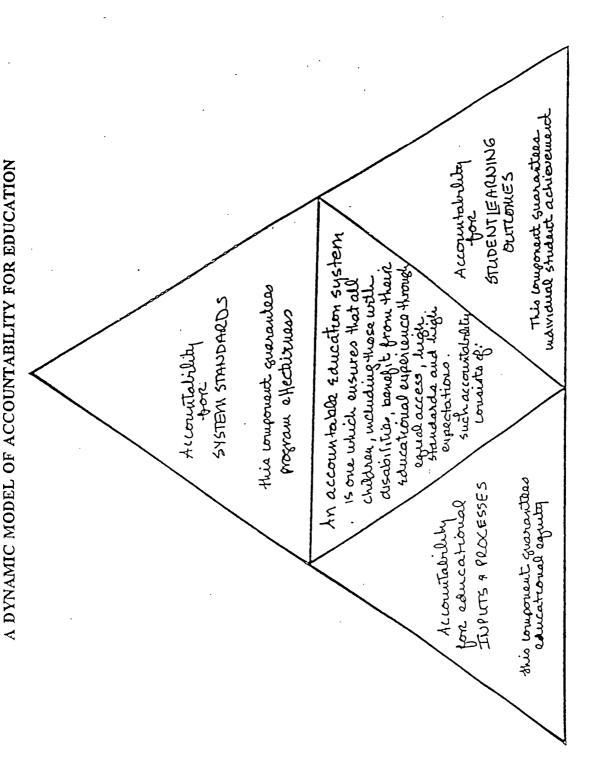
Once the dysfunction has been recognized, achieving balance requires re-empowering the collapsed pole. This can be accomplished by working directly to revitalize its functions, and revitalization is often accomplished by re-directing the ally away from supporting the dominant role. In order to move toward balance, it is helpful to understand the "profound function" or unique contribution of each component as well as the nature of the relationships between and among the components.

This theoretical framework was used to develop a dynamic model of educational accountability. A model of accountability in education based on these concepts is illustrated on the next page and discussed in the following section.









Summary of Accountability Focus Group Meeting National Association of State Directors of Special Education

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Components of the Educational Accountability Model

In terms of educational accountability, the three components of the model that must be balanced and the unique function of each is as follows:

- Inputs and Processes guarantees educational equity. Examples of this component include (but are not limited to) the following: IEP; LRE; access standards; procedural safeguards; parent involvement; staffing credentials; finance/funding; staff development; policy development; diversity; IDEA; MIS; demand for use of effective practice.
- System Results guarantees program effectiveness. Examples of this component include (but are not limited to) the following: standards; blended system; curriculum; ongoing measurement; multiple measures of system effectiveness; continuous improvement including baseline data, longitudinal studies, multiple indicators such as dropouts, retention, completion; cognitive and non-cognitive; staff development; flexibility and accessibility to program; appropriate reinforcements, sanctions, incentives; school report cards; MIS; state, district, school strategic plan.
- Individual Student Learning guarantees individual student achievement. Examples of this component include (but are not limited to) the following: parent involvement; teacher empowerment; IEP; academic/non-academic standards; individual expectations both cognitive and non-cognitive; multiple measures of individual student progress; MIS; flexibility in assessment modes; continuous progress with benchmarks along the way.

The relational dynamics among and between these three components of educational accountability provide the potential for a balanced system when *each* component functions in a *robust* manner, and there is <u>no</u> expansion of any one of the elements of accountability to the impairment of any other element.

A study of educational accountability reveals the following current status of the three components in special education:

- the inputs and processes leg of the triangle, in the form of compliance monitoring, has
 usurped the entire function of accountability thereby becoming a tyrant in terms
 of this model;
- the system results component of accountability has acquiesced to that tyrant as an ally by
 allowing the exclusion of students with disabilities from district assessments; and,
- there has been no accountability for individual student outcomes leaving no role for the <u>collapsed</u> accountability component of *individual student learning*.



The appropriate *dynamic relationship* of any one component to each of the other components can be described in terms of three basic relational categories:

• what that component creates for each of the other components;

what it limits for each of the other components; and,

what it sustains for each other component.

A review of these functions portrays the essential interrelationship among the components that interact on each other to establish and maintain balance. A few examples of the factors that constitute these relational dynamics for the educational accountability model were developed and are presented in the next section.

Dynamic Relationships Within the Model

The following is a list of examples of the interrelationships among all the components of the dynamic model of educational accountability:

A) The relationship enacted by the *first* component, Rights, Inputs and Processes, in reference to the *second* component, System Results is as follows:

It creates:

It provides reliable, valid data to inform system

configuration.

It limits:

It defines boundaries for opportunities and flexibility.

It sustains:

It reinforces/renews resources for systems.

The relationship enacted by the *first* component, Rights, Inputs and Processes, in reference to the *third* component, <u>Individual Student Learning</u> is as follows:

It creates:

It establishes tools necessary to support and facilitate learning.

It limits:

It requires opportunity for each and all.

It sustains:

It strengthens emphasis on individualization and parent involvement.

B) The relationship enacted by the *second* component. System Results, in reference to the *first* component, Rights, Inputs and Processes, is as follows:

It creates:

It shapes inputs required to achieve results.

It limits:

It demands constant renewal of inputs/process measures.

It sustains:

It ensures continuity and consistency of inputs across populations.

The relationship enacted by the second component, System Results, in reference to the third component, <u>Individual Student Learning</u>, is as follows:

It creates:

It demands high expectations for teaching and learning.

It limits:

It requires connection between what we know about a child and

instructional strategies.

It sustains:

It strengthens emphasis on individual learning.

C) The relationship enacted by the *third* component, *Individual Student Learning*, in reference to the first component, <u>Rights, Inputs and Processes</u>, is as follows:

It creates:

It derives the inputs/processes (creates context and purpose).

It limits:

It demands individualized instruction.

. It sustains:

It supports continuous improvement and ongoing match.

The relationship enacted by the *third* component, Individual Student Learning, in reference to the second component, System Results, is as follows:

It creates:

It forces the system to assume ownership for all children.

It limits:

It guards against over-generalization of system results.

It sustains:

It validates system standards.

These relationships are illustrated in the attached graphical representation of NASDSE's Vision for Balanced Accountability: Holding Creative Tension.

Conclusion

The concept of dynamically balanced accountability for education is obviously complex, requiring shared roles and responsibilities of multiple stakeholder groups in many different configurations including local, state and national, as well as classroom, school and district levels. Such stakeholder groups include—but are not limited to—the following: children and youth, parents and families, advocates, general and special education administrators, general and special education teachers and specialists, the business community, legislators, boards of education, higher education, associations, and other service agencies.

It is the responsibility of all relevant constituencies working individually and together to establish and maintain a balanced approach to educational accountability. For special education, the first step in this process must be a complete review of compliance monitoring, putting it into an appropriate perspective at the federal and state and local levels while, at the same time, moving toward the complete incorporation of students with disabilities into evaluations of school system results. Initial steps taken in the last few years to assess and improve individual outcomes for students with disabilities is a third—and equally critical—component of the strategy needed to achieve a balanced approach to educational accountability. It is only through an exhaustive review and revision of every component of accountability that a new paradigm can be constructed that will provide a balanced and complete portrait of the performance of public education in the United States.

Summary of Accountability Focus Group Meeting
National Association of State Directors of Special Education

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guarantees individual student achievement This component assume ownership of overgeneralization of Forces system to Validates system System results. **Guards against** standards. all kids. expectations for teaching between what we know instructional strategies. Strengthens emphasis on individual learning. Requires connection about a child and Demands individualized Demands high and learning. Sustains continuous processes (creates INDIVIDUAL LEARNING Drives the inputs improvement and context/purpose) STUDENT ongoing match. instruction. guarantees program effectiveness. system balances An accountable This component educational components. RESULTS SYSTEM throo Establishes tools necessary individualization and parent Strengthens emphasis on Requires opportunity for to support and facilitate required to achieve INPUTS, AND Demands constant **PROCESSES** Ensures continuity and consistency of RIGHTS, Shapes inputs npuls/process inputs across populations. measures. renewal of involvement results. learning. all/each. HOLDING CREATIVE Provides reliable, valid Defines boundaries for system configuration. opportunity/ flexibility. NASDSE's Vision for Balanced Reinforces/reflews data that informs resources for systems. This component TENSION guarantees educational Accountability equity. 4 3

1 1100

Table 1. Co	Comparison of the Senate and the House Amendments and the Conference Agreement in Relation to IEP Provisions.	e Amendments and the Conferenc	e Agreement in Relation
Content Area	Senate Emphasis	House Emphasis	Conference Decision
Definition	The Senate Amendments contained a definition of individualized planning for each child with a disability.	The House Amendments contained a definition of individualized planning for each child with a disability.	The conference agreement contained definition of individual planning found in both the Senate and House Amendments.
	The Senate Amendments provided that the individualized planning conference is a meeting or meetings for the purpose of developing a written statement.	The House Amendments provided that the individual education program is an educational plan.	The House receded to the Senate language (e.g., that the individualized planning conference is a meeting or meetings for the purpose of developing a written statement).
Individualized Planning	The Senate Amendments designated individualized instructional planning as an "individualized planning conference".	The House Amendments designate individualized instructional planning as an "individualized education program".	The Senate receded to the House language. The conference agreement changed the name of the planning conference to an IEP, but retained the definitional sense much of the Senate

individualized planning conferences introduced that involve parents in the development of plans for their child and that benefits begun in school be continued at home.

that the child is having are met in a timely and consistent way. The teacher will learn from this experience, as well. The planning conferences could also provide

training for the parents.

planning conferences assure that the problems with the educational process

The Senate intended that individualized

Individualized

Intent of

Planning Conferences N M

<u>4</u> 8

House Emphasis Senate Emphasis Content Area

Contents of

Individual Planning

of the bill which required objective criteria However, the Senate deleted the language instead, it required the Commissioner of and evaluation procedures to assure that study of objective criteria and evaluation The Senate Amendments regarding the short term instructional goals were met. Education to conduct a comprehensive same as in the House amendments. contents of the IEP were the or future consideration.

The Senate Amendments contained a statement of short-term instructional objectives.

guardian in order to ensure that services to individualized planning conference, to be Senate Amendments intended that any revision of the statement be done only he child not be arbitrarily curtailed or Senate Amendments provided for an held at least three times a year. The with the agreement of the parents or modified

Conference

guardian.

achieved, a statement of the specific procedures for determining whether The IEP would include a statement services, and criteria and evaluation services which will have to be provided, a projected date for of the child's present level of initiation and duration of the the objectives are being met. statement of the goals to be educational performance, a

for a statement of desired objectives, The House Amendments provided

will be reviewed at least annually. The The Senate receded to the House. The preclude more than one conference per conferees, however, did not wish to first ear of the schooling of the child conference agreement specified that there will be two conferences in the with a disability and provided that it annually, and revise accordingly in The House Amendments provided individualized education programs and review of the program at least consultation with the parents or for the development of

Conference Decision

The Senate receded with an amendment appropriate. The conference agreement written statement of educational status of the child, annual goals and shortspecifying that objective criteria and included the following in an IEP: term instructional objectives, and evaluation procedures shall be specific educational services.

5

Confe	
ohasis	
House Emphasis	
Hc	
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Senate Emphasis	
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Content Area

Conferences **Participants**

Planning

individual representing the local education agency (LEA) qualified to provide special developed by the parents or guardian, an child when appropriate to meet jointly to describing the educational services to be develop and review a written statement education, the child's teacher, and the The individual statement was to be provided

provide or supervise the provision of representatives shall be qualified to specially-designed instruction. The Senate provided that LEA

designing an educational program for not responsible for his management at school monitoring of child progress throughout The Senate intended that the frequent only the child but for those who are the year is the most useful tool in and at home.

of

Monitoring

Progress Student

developed jointly by the LEA and an teacher involved with the education The individual statement was to be appropriate teacher in consultation with the parents or guardian of the appropriate jointly by the LEAs, a child, and the child, whenever of the child, and the parents or guardian.

The House did not contain such requirement.

addition to annual review, although The House Amendments assumed periodic progress monitoring in there was not specific language.

rence Decision

by the LEA, the parent or guardian, and intended that IEPs be jointly developed language. The conference agreement The Senate receded to the House the child, when appropriate.

The House receded to the Senate language.

monitoring a child's progress, a teacher determining where potential educational The conference report stressed that by can aid the child in achieving educational goals as well as problems may arise.

mphasis
Senate Em
Area
Content

Accountability

The Senate intended that the individualized planning conferences be one method to prevent labeling or misclassification.

House Emphasis

The House agreed with the Senate, although language in this area was not as specific as in the Senate Amendments.

Conference Decision

The conference agreement reflected both the House and Senate preferences with an emphasis that these provisions protect the rights and guarantee that a child will not be improperly labeled or improperly placed in an educational setting

The conference agreement provided that written IEPs would protect the child's right to an appropriate education.

The Senate intended that individualized planning conferences be utilized as an extension of the procedural protections guaranteed under existing law and to be the logical extension of the final step of the evaluation and placement process.

The Senate Amendments did not intent that the individualized statement be a binding contract between the schools, the parents, and the child.

A copy of the statement was to be retained on file within the school district with copies provided to parents and others involving strict procedures for protection of confidentiality. The Senate did not intend that such record be forwarded to the State agency, but be available for inspection.

The educational plan was not intended to be a binding contract between the schools, the parents, and the child.

remained in the conference agreement.

The intent of the House and Senate

The House amendments required the LEA, in its LEA application, to provide satisfactory assurance that IEPs would be developed for each child in consultation with the parents in with confidentiality.

The conferenced bill clarified that it is not intended the IEPs be forwarded to the SEA or to the U.S. Office of Education, but are to be retained at the LEA with strict procedures for protection of confidentiality.

The IEP: Benefits, Challenges, Future Directions Project FORUM at NASDSE

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Content Area	Senate Emphasis	House Emphasis	Conference Decision
Written Record	The Senate Amendments clarified that a written record of reasonable expectations should be included in order to assure that appropriate services are provided for the child.	The House Amendments referred to the IEP was an educational plan developed jointly by the LEA, the parent, and the child, if appropriate. However, language requiring a written IEP was assumed, but not expressly stated.	The conference bill defined the IEP as a written statement. In conference, a written IEP was supported by the House.
SEA Responsibility	The State must assure that LEAs provide and maintain records of individualized planning conferences. The State was also responsible for insuring the implementation of and compliance with provisions of the Act.	The House amendments required the LEA in its application to provide satisfactory assurance that it will maintain the individualized program for each child.	The conference agreement maintained the intent of both the House and Senate.
Source: U.S. Department	Source: U.S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare (1977). The individualized education program: Key to an appropriate	(1977). The individualized education p	orogram: Key to an appropriate

education for the handicapped child. 1977 Annual Report. Washington, D.C.: National Advisory Committee on the Handicapped.



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