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Effective secondary special education programs: Administrative and instructional practices in identified Iowa schools

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Kramer, Robyn Lynn Moen, Ed.D.

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EFFECTIVE SECONDARY SPECIAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS: ADMINISTRATIVE AND INSTRUCTIONAL PRACTICES IN IDENTIFIED IOWA SCHOOLS

A Dissertation

Submitted

In Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Approved:

Dr. Marlene Strathe

Dr. James E. Albrecht

Dr. Harley E. Erickson

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December 1991

EFFECTIVE SECONDARY SPECIAL EDUCATION PROGRAMS: ADMINISTRATIVE AND INSTRUCTIONAL PRACTICES IN IDENTIFIED IOWA SCHOOLS

An Abstract of a Dissertation

Submitted

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Approved:

Faculty Co-Advisor

Faculty Co-Advisor

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University of Northern Iowa

December 1991

ABSTRACT

This descriptive study with exclusive focus on identified secondary special education programs in Iowa, investigated the interactions of administrators, general classroom and special education teachers to determine common administrative and instructional practices and behaviors within three characteristics--Facilitative Leadership, General Classroom Teaching Behavior, and Special Education Teaching Behavior. Directors of Special Education from six Iowa Area Education Agencies (AEAs) were asked to select five schools from their respective AEAs with exemplary secondary special education programs. From that initial population of 30 schools, 11 schools were selected to participate in this study.

A survey was administered to 354 secondary school personnel within these schools. The survey generated a Stages of Concern profile for administrators, general classroom teachers, and special education teachers. In addition, the frequency of occurrence of 35 administrative and instructional practices was assessed utilizing a three-point Likert-type scale. The mean, standard deviation, and variance of these responses were determined for administrators, counselors, general classroom and special education teachers. The 11 administrators of these schools were also interviewed concerning the structure and philosophy of their special education programs, and the extent of the involvement of parents, general classroom teachers, special education support staff and students in special education within their schools.

The behaviors and practices that comprised the facilitative leadership characteristic were, as a group, the most strongly supported in these 11 effective programs. Administrators attended all staffings and vigorously cultivated a strong team relationship with their special education staff. Such an interactive reciprocal relationship was not evident, however, between the general and special education teachers surveyed. In addition, considerable disagreement was expressed among general and special education teachers as to the extent their administration provided such critical implementation supports as reduction of class loads with mainstreamed students, provision of inservice on special education topics, provision of release time for consultation between general and special education teachers, and the equitable assignment of nonteaching duties such as study hall to special education staff.

The Stages of Concern group profiles depicted a fairly similar pattern of concerns for administrators, general and special education teachers. The three groups each ranked personal and management concerns high in importance, signifying these groups had concerns about the demands of special education and their competency to meet those demands. In addition, all three groups ranked consequence concerns--the relevance of special education for students--of minimal importance, signifying general satisfaction with the impact of special education on students.

Definite disagreement occurred in the ranking of collaboration concerns. Special education teachers ranked collaboration a high priority item, while general classroom teachers indicated it to be of

minimal importance. The impact of this on Iowa's Renewed Service Delivery System (RSDS) plan was discussed along with implications for pre-service and service training for all educators.

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THE PROBLEM

Introduction

The passage of Public Law 93-380, the Education Amendments of 1974, and Public Law 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (1975), generated a dramatic change in public education (Downs-Taylor & Landon, 1981). P.L. 93-380 required schools to provide an education in the least restrictive environment to all children and, in addition, outlined due process procedures for parents and their children with disabilities. P.L. 94-142 mandated a free, appropriate public education for all disabled children between the ages of 3 and 21 (Barbacovi & Clelland, 1978).

Numerous pre-1974 court decisions and legislative actions had already established the provision of educational opportunities for children with disabilities as their fundamental right. Most of those opportunities, however, occurred within segregated special classes and day schools, an educational setting unsupported by many research studies (Cegelka & Tyler, 1970; Christopolos & Renz, 1969; Dunn, 1968; Garrison & Hammill, 1971; Hammill & Wiederholt, 1972; Iano, 1972; Ross, DeYoung, & Cohen, 1971). What this legislation dramatically mandated was that disabled learners of varying severities were, by law, to be mainstreamed into the public school classroom alongside their age-appropriate peers (Kirk & Gallagher, 1979). Hereafter, as a general rule, special segregated classes for children with disabilities were no longer

acceptable unless those classes truly provided disabled children with the most appropriate education available.

The impact of this legislation has been monumental for all involved in public education. Teachers have witnessed "a reversal of a thirty-year trend to remove problem children from regular classrooms" (Savage, 1980, p. 71). Suddenly general classroom teachers were required to teach children with very special learning needs, many of whom they felt ill-prepared to teach. Teachers saw themselves as poorly trained and unable to deal with additional disabled children in their already overcrowded classrooms (Good & Brophy, 1972; Jones, Gottlieb, Guskin, & Yoshida, 1978; Ringlaben & Price, 1981).

Teachers have not been the only educational personnel affected by this legislation. Local administrators assume the "primary responsibility for operationalizing the mandates" (McCarthy & Marks, 1977, p. 67), a responsibility requiring close supervision and monitoring of all instruction and recordkeeping pertaining to a child with disabilities. A building administrator assumes these responsibilities for all students in any case. The intrinsic difference is, however, that P.L. 94-142 set, for the disabled student, minimum legal standards to which each district would be held accountable (Zettel & Ballard, 1979). Complying with these minimum standards necessitates effective communication practices between parents, administration, faculty, state and federal agencies.

"In short, mainstreaming requires changes by a total organization" (Arends & Arends, 1978, p. 33) to provide the most appropriate education

within the least restrictive environment. The involvement of all school personnel in educational planning for each student is crucial. Not only must teachers be actively involved, but principals, as instructional leaders in the schools, should take a proactive stance advocating the best education for all students. For the concept of mainstreaming to be accepted within the school, the principal must show support. Smith (1979) stated that "this support needs to be evident in the actions of the principal, since teachers in his building need to know that the principal fully supports the program" (p. 89).

The importance of administrative support in relation to change efforts in educational organizations has been documented by a consistent body of literature. Sarason (1971), in his investigation of new mathematics curricula, stressed the importance of administrative leadership and support in changes requiring cultural or system realignments. Fullan and Pomfret (1977) concluded that administrative support was critical to the success of curriculum implementation. Rand researchers, Berman and McLaughlin (1977) and Mann (1978) reported that federally funded change projects which accomplished the least were often subverted by the principal. Successful projects, in contrast, usually had the active support of principals.

This support is evident in the actions of, and the attitudes expressed by, the building administrator. Arends (1982) in his review of the literature, delineated five actions exhibited by principals which were deemed supportive by faculty and other staff personnel. According to this review, a supportive principal will:

1. stimulate a growth-producing environment;
2. promote, with verbal statements, the interest of the project;
3. provide participants with a sense and measure of clarity;
4. defend project goals and activities;
5. provide something of value to participants. (pp. 82-86)

Voorneveld (1983), in a similar review, sought to identify administrative practices exhibited by principals who were supportive of mainstreaming. The most frequently identified practice was for the principal "to foster a 'growth providing' atmosphere . . . encouraging the faculty to work as a team" (p. 24). This sense of teamwork required that the principal and faculty members share a set of common beliefs and values directed at maximizing the effectiveness of the school (Sergiovanni, 1982; Tye, 1970).

The concept of effective programs and schools has received renewed public attention since the publication of several national educational reports in the early 1980s. In fact, by 1983, 39 different "effective school" programs had been adopted by 875 school districts located in 25 states (Farrar, Neufeld, & Miles, 1984). These programs revolved around the effective school model as proposed by Ronald Edmonds. Edmonds (1982) determined that effective schools shared five common characteristics:

1. a principal who served as an instructional leader;
2. a pervasive and broadly understood instructional focus;
3. an orderly and safe school climate;
4. teachers whose behavior conveyed the expectation that all students could attain at least a minimum level of mastery;
5. program evaluation that was based on measures of student achievement. (p. 4)

Schools that wanted to improve the effectiveness of their instructional program worked to develop these five characteristics in their own

schools. The difficulty inherent within this model, however, was that the research gathered in developing the effective school model came strictly from elementary school programs. Educators who attempted to adapt the model for use at the secondary level found it to have serious limitations (Farrar et al., 1984).

Many educational reformers believed that these limitations were not within the model itself, but in the actual use of the model in the current structuring of the school (Futrell, 1989; Hawley, 1988; Metz, 1988; Raywid, 1990; Shanker, 1990). The present organization and structure of the school, particularly at the secondary level, was designed for the early 20th century and has rapidly proven ineffective and inflexible for mandated reforms. Due to this, the educational reform movement began, in 1986, to move away from "reform" and toward the concept of "restructuring" (Raywid, 1990). The advocates of restructuring do not necessarily agree on a specific strategy necessary for actual reform to occur but they do "argue that real change in the organization of schools cannot occur without fundamental changes in the culture of schools, which defines their ideas, commitments, and social order and which determines their rules and standard operating procedures" (Timar, 1989, p. 266). At the heart of this real change is an emphasis on collaboration between teachers and administrators, both in the instruction of students and in the governance of the school.

The research literature and numerous national reports have been strangely silent concerning the role of special education in restructured schools (Pugach & Sapon-Shevin, 1987). This lack of

attention by renowned educational reformers has caused great concern among those in special education because it further widens the schism found between general and special education (Shepard, 1987). Will (1984) cited this schism as a major barrier to the implementation of the full intent and spirit of P.L. 94-142 and called for reform in service delivery. During the next 2 years, two less frequently cited national reports, the Heritage Foundation (1984) report and the National Coalition of Advocates for Students (1985) report, were issued. Both of these reports were highly critical of the current special education delivery system utilized by public schools and its inability to satisfactorily meet the needs of students with disabilities (Sapon-Shevin, 1987). In response to these calls for reform, the Regular Education Initiative (REI) was proposed and has been advocated by a large group of special educators (Davis, 1989; Gartner & Lipsky, 1987; Reynolds, Wang, & Walberg, 1987; Sapon-Shevin, 1987; Stainback & Stainback, 1984; Will, 1986). The proponents of REI advocate "a dissolution of the present dual system in our public school structure, to be replaced by a unitary educational system, which, if carefully designed and implemented, would allow for a more effective and appropriate education for all students" (Davis, 1989, p. 440). Central to the design of REI is the development of consultative approaches between teachers and administrators, which is seen to be the missing critical component in not only providing appropriate educational opportunities for disabled students, but also for nondisabled students as well (Trent, 1989).

REI is not without its critics, however (Gerber, 1988; Hallahan, Keller, McKinney, Lloyd, & Bryan, 1988; Keogh, 1988; Lieberman, 1985; Mesinger, 1985). One of the biggest criticisms, initially voiced by Lieberman (1985), centered around the fact that REI was developed and has been supported primarily by researchers with little input from the actual practitioners, general classroom teachers. This means that even though REI depends heavily on the support of general classroom teachers to develop the critical collaborative network essential to its success, their views regarding its implementation have not been ascertained. Coates (1989) addressed this criticism in a study conducted with 94 general classroom teachers in northwest Iowa, in which they were asked to agree or disagree with a series of statements regarding the REI position. The results showed general disagreement with the statements "suggesting that the respondents do not share similar concerns or beliefs regarding the current delivery of special education services" (p. 532). These teachers felt that the current delivery system utilizing resource rooms was an effective model for meeting the needs of mildly disabled students, and were skeptical that these same learners could be educated entirely within the general classroom, even with additional consultative assistance. According to Coates (1989), these results reflect not only disagreement with the REI movement but also the possibility that resource rooms have been more effective with students under the Iowa special education system, resulting in greater teacher satisfaction.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to identify administrative and instructional practices in selected Iowa secondary schools perceived to be effective in implementing the spirit and intent of P.L. 94-142. The study focused on the following three characteristics: (a) Facilitative Leadership, (b) General Classroom Teaching Behavior, and (c) Special Education Teaching Behavior.

Research Questions

Within each of the three program characteristics, the following questions were addressed:

A. Facilitative Leadership

1. To what extent was the secondary administration cognizant of characteristics of mildly disabled students and the identification and placement processes utilized in the district?

   a. Knowledge and understanding of types of disabling conditions

   b. Knowledge and understanding of referral and placement procedures regarding students with disabilities

2. What administrative actions that encourage and support the implementation of special education occurred within the secondary school?

   a. Actions concerning pupils

   b. Actions concerning personnel

   c. Actions concerning parents

   d. Actions concerning organizational maintenance

3. What concerns were expressed by administration regarding the special education program?

a. Awareness concerns

b. Informational concerns

c. Personal concerns

d. Management concerns

e. Consequence concerns

f. Collaboration concerns

g. Refocusing concerns

B. General Classroom Teaching Behavior

1. To what extent were general classroom teachers cognizant of characteristics of mildly disabled students and the identification and placement processes utilized in the district?

a. Knowledge and understanding of types of disabling conditions

b. Knowledge and understanding of referral and placement procedures regarding students with disabilities

2. What actions of general classroom teachers enhanced the quality of instruction for special education students in their classrooms?

a. Classroom management and discipline

b. Participation in IEP development

c. Instructional appropriateness

d. Supportive environment

e. Accommodation

3. How much time was provided for general classroom teachers to prepare for and work with special education students?

a. Inservice opportunities

b. Release time

c. Reduced class loads

d. Curriculum development opportunities

e. Advanced college coursework opportunities

4. What concerns were expressed by general classroom teachers regarding the special education program?

a. Awareness concerns

b. Informational concerns

c. Personal concerns

d. Management concerns

e. Consequence concerns

f. Collaboration concerns

g. Refocusing concerns

C. Special Education Teaching Behavior

1. What actions of special education teachers enhanced the quality of instruction for special education students in their classrooms?

a. Mainstream consultation

b. Instruction in specific learning strategies

c. Supportive environment

d. Tutoring in content skills

e. Social skills instruction

2. What was the relationship between special education staff and general education staff and students?

a. Consultative

b. Educational synthesizer

c. Collaborative

d. Collegial

3. What concerns were expressed by special education teachers regarding the special education program?

a. Awareness concerns

b. Informational concerns

c. Personal concerns

d. Management concerns

e. Consequence concerns

f. Collaboration concerns

g. Refocusing concerns

Importance of the Study

Special education programming is a crucial issue, educationally and financially, for the public schools. Large amounts of time and money are invested daily to meet students' learning needs. Despite this, most national studies, which have been so prominently reviewed in recent years, have not specifically included special education programs in their discussion nor their findings (Adler, 1982; Boyer, 1983; Goodlad, 1984; Lilly, 1987; National Commission on Excellence, 1983; Pugach, 1987; Pugach & Sapon-Shevin, 1987; Sapon-Shevin, 1987; Shepard, 1987; Sizer, 1984). According to Sapon-Shevin (1987), this exclusion was due to the overriding focus of these reform reports, shifting from equity in educational opportunities toward educational elitism. While not totally disagreeing with that premise, Pugach (1987) postulated the omission was

due more to the fact that the reports dealt with general education alone, viewing special education as a distinct, parallel compensatory program only distantly related to general education. Lilly (1987) speculated that while both of these explanations might well be valid, there was a third possible explanation for the exclusion. The reform reports, though not identical, each basically proposed an ideal educational system, and current special education policies and practices were "neither conceptually sound nor of sufficient quality to be included" (p. 326). Regardless of the reason for this omission, it does not alter the fact that these reports called for substantial changes in the educational community. It is critical that the field of special education begin to view itself as an integrated member of that educational community rather than focusing on its self-imposed isolationism and exclusion. If the improvement of entire schools is as important as these studies would lead us to believe, then it is equally as important that all areas within the school function together as a cooperative unit, stressing effectiveness as their ultimate goal. However, in spite of the fact that mainstreaming has been a legally mandated procedure within the public schools since 1975, little research has been done to assess effective mainstreaming practices (Bender, 1987). Without adequate research and evaluation, this goal for special education will be virtually unattainable.

Research shows that educational programming changes may occur through the use of either a bottom-up or a top-down strategy. A change that occurs via a bottom-up strategy requires a committed group of

teachers to originate and implement the programming change, gaining in the end, administrative or top-level support. This has the advantage of starting with the active support and commitment of the teachers who will be the ultimate users of the educational change (Hord, Rutherford, Huling-Austin, & Hall, 1987). The disadvantage, however, is that eventually support and commitment from the administration must be gained in order to ensure the continuation of the programming change within the district. This may prove difficult to obtain if the administration was not included in the change from the outset (Loucks-Horsley & Hergert, 1985).

In contrast, a top-down change strategy begins with the administration of a school, or as a result of state and/or federal mandates, as is the case with special education and the passage of P.L. 94-142. Use of this model allows for quicker implementation of a change; however, this strategy requires gaining support and commitment from the teachers who will be ultimately responsible for implementing the programming change (Hord et al., 1987). Obtaining this support requires that teachers see their building administrator's commitment toward the change and are provided with the necessary resources and evaluative feedback to implement the change successfully in their classrooms (Jwaideh, 1984).

Regardless of which change strategy is employed, the support and involvement of both teachers and administrators are necessary for successful implementation of any educational programming change (Lozier & Covert, 1982). This concept of support and collaboration is a

prevailing theme within the literature surrounding the restructuring movement. Pajek and Glickman (1989) likened the development of this infrastructure of support between teachers and administrators to the vital transportation and communication infrastructures developed in and among cities. Each serves the critical purpose of tying people together, allowing efficient progressive movement toward a common goal. However, despite the recognition by educational researchers of the essentiality of this infrastructure of collaboration, true interdisciplinary collaboration is rarely found (Phillips & McCullough, 1990). In fact, it is the lack of this collaborative infrastructure in education that many feel is the underlying cause for the failure of special education to provide for the needs of students with disabilities (Phillips & McCullough, 1990; Wang & Walberg, 1988; Welch, 1989).

Since the enactment of special education legislation required the use of a top-down type of programming change by school districts, the role of the principal becomes very important to its successful implementation. A programming change pursuant to legislation requires, according to Lindquist (1978), a leader who will focus less on the legal mandates and more upon "a combination of initiating change activities, structuring and guiding and pushing and supporting the planned change process, linking ideas to people and money to ideas, and involving both the influentials and the implementors in the whole process" (p. 241). To best facilitate this, the principal needs to attend to the concerns of teachers regarding the change itself (Hord et al., 1987). Knowledge of expressed concerns from others who have implemented effective special

education programs would provide principals with information they might address within their own implementation.

The principal also is responsible for creating a positive and supportive environment for special education (Phillips & McCullough, 1990; Rebore, 1979). This responsibility is made easier with knowledge of expressed concerns because this information allows the principal to develop support systems and assistance networks which address a variety of concerns. It is critical, according to Hord et al. (1987), that appropriate support and assistance is provided for each expressed concern. The ability to develop support and assistance strategies prior to an occurrence of an actual need would be of great benefit to administrators.

In addition to creating a positive change environment, "the principal who wishes others to improve their skills should demonstrate that he, too, is continually attempting to improve his own" (Tye, 1970, p. 45). Since the implementation of P.L. 94-142, the responsibilities of administrators for special education have increased dramatically (Voorneveld, 1983). To adequately address these responsibilities, administrators must obtain a working knowledge of the requirements of P.L. 94-142, its related areas and the support structures necessary to implement it fully (Westling, 1989). Knowledge of effective special education program characteristics and their respective components could greatly enhance the preparation of both experienced and future administrators, providing a solid base from which to address the responsibilities of special education.

Of equal importance to the preparation of experienced and future administrators is the preparation of experienced and future general classroom teachers. The overall preparation of general classroom teachers has been the most widely discussed topic of concern arising out of this era of educational reform. Sizer (1984) challenged the efficacy of the entire specialist system developed within teacher education. General education teachers are not required to have preparation in special education and thus, have little background in instructional and management strategies proven effective with mildly disabled students. This makes little sense because mildly disabled students spend the majority of the school day within general education classrooms. Since general education teachers are the primary ones responsible for implementing the most appropriate and effective instruction for all students, knowledge about special education strategies found within effective programs would provide a very useful skill repertoire. Insight into the expressed concerns regarding special education would enable teacher-preparation institutions and inservicing programs to address those specific concerns, thus providing teachers with strategies to meet those concerns.

The specialist system that predominates teacher-preparation institutions has perpetuated the schism that occurs between general and special education. "It is there that they [school personnel] learn there are at least two types of human beings (handicapped and non-handicapped) and if you choose to work with one of them you render yourself legally and conceptually incompetent to work with the other"

(Sarason & Doris, 1979, p. 391). This makes collaboration, so critical to the success of restructuring and special education reform, virtually impossible (Candler & Sowell, 1980; Curtis & Meyers, 1988; Downs-Taylor & Landon, 1981; Hardy, 1977; Idol, Paolucci-Whitcomb, & Nevin, 1986; Nevin, Semmel, & McCann, 1983; Phillips & McCullough, 1990; Pugach, 1987). Collaborative effort would be greatly enhanced with a knowledge of what things appear to matter most in maximizing a school's ability to deliver quality special education programming. Teachers and principals would be better able to determine what area their particular school needed to emphasize in order to improve their special education program.

Goodlad (1984) briefly addressed the area of special education in A Study of Schooling, an in-depth study of 38 public schools. A segment of his study examined teachers' perceptions of the adequacy of their preparation for their teaching assignment. "The responses at all levels regarding special education warrant attention. The percentage of teachers expressing inadequate preparation increased quite markedly from the elementary to the senior high school level--from 4.5% to 12.5%" (p. 185). These feelings of inadequate preparation reflect, according to Goodlad, the difficulty in dealing with the learning problems of secondary students. Schumaker and Deshler (1988) attributed this difficulty to the widening gap that occurs between the skill level of mildly disabled secondary students and the increased demands placed upon them by secondary content-oriented curriculum.

> Students may be so far behind in basic skills that what they learn in the resource room may not influence their success in

> the regular education curriculum. Alternatively, students may fail to generalize skills they learn in the resource room to content areas. (Tindal, Shinn, Walz, & Germann, 1987, p. 95)

Attempts to bridge this gap often result in the resource teacher tutoring in content areas where they lack requisite knowledge. A strong support system for both teachers and students would help to reduce these concerns. The development of this support system would be greatly enhanced with information from effective special education programs. Teachers would then have knowledge of program characteristics and components that have proven to be effective for others in the field.

Teacher-preparation institutions that prepare future special education teachers would also benefit from this knowledge. Special education teachers are not required to have preparation in general education, and this lack of background further reinforces the separation between the two fields (Pugach, 1987). Since special education teachers are required to work with general classroom teachers, this lack of knowledge often causes distrust and resentment. General classroom teachers question how special education teachers can possibly assist them in instruction when they have no idea what it is like within the general classroom. For many, this resentment effectively shuts down any attempts at collaboration. By gathering and analyzing information and concerns from general teachers, teacher-preparation institutions would be able to better prepare future special education teachers to meet the needs of the general classroom teacher. Integrating general education preparation with special education preparation would greatly enhance the credibility of special education teachers. It is essential to work

toward a more unified system of providing education for all students, emphasizing their similarities rather than their differences. This can only be accomplished if teacher-preparation institutions attend to the similarities between general and special education so that future teachers see that they are more alike than they are different.

Unfortunately, the population of secondary special education programs and the secondary administrators of these programs have been all but ignored by research in special education (Reynolds, 1988; Voorneveld, 1983). Since this time period for special education students is so critical to their transition into adulthood, it is essential that the concerns of all secondary personnel are taken into account when preparing secondary special education programs. All reform research has emphasized the importance of collaboration between teachers and administrators. The involvement and support of these personnel have proven to be critical to the successful implementation of any innovation. This is even more true of secondary special education where increased content demands require extensive collaboration on the part of a triad of secondary personnel--administrators, general, and special education teachers. This study focused exclusively on selected effective secondary special education programs in Iowa and the interactions of this triad in order to determine common administrative and instructional practices.

Assumption

This study was based on the following assumption:

1. The Directors of Special Education from selected Area Education

Agencies (AEAs) selected effective secondary special education programs based upon the three characteristics and their components found within effective special education programs.

Delimitations

This study presented the following limitations:

1. The study participants were selected Iowa public secondary special education programs that have been in operation at least 7 years and were operating during the school year 1990-1991.

2. The study did not include special education programs for the severely and profoundly disabled nor the talented and gifted.

Definition of Terms

For purposes of this study the following terms are defined:

Accommodation is any of a variety of methods of adapting the learning environment (school organization, curriculum, or instructional methods) to meet the learner's needs (Marsh & Price, 1980).

Adaptive Behavior refers to an individual's general intellectual functioning as evidenced by performance greater than one standard deviation below the mean on a reliable individual test of general intelligence valid for that individual (Rules of Special Education, 1974).

Area Education Agency (AEA) is a multi-county, intermediate unit which develops policy and provides support personnel, consultative services, and media to school districts (Rules of Special Education, 1974).

Assessment refers to all the activities resource teachers use to develop instructional programs for individual students including screening, obtaining information on students, writing educational goals based upon test results, selecting and ordering materials, and reevaluating a student's program (D'Alonzo & Wiseman, 1978; Evans, 1981; Wiederholt, Hammill, & Brown, 1983).

Attitudes refer to "our affinities for and our aversions to situations, objects, persons, groups, or any other identifiable aspects of our environment, including abstract ideas and social policies" (Bem, 1970, p. 14).

Awareness Concerns is a developmental stage, as measured by Hall, George, and Rutherford (1986) Stages of Concern Questionnaire, which describes a person who has "little concern about or involvement with the innovation indicated" (Holloway & Kerr, 1979, p. 248).

Behavioral Disability is the inclusive term describing those children who display a consistent pattern of situationally inappropriate behavior, observed in the school setting, which deviates substantially from behavior appropriate to one's age and significantly interferes with the learning process, interpersonal relationships, or personal adjustment of the child (Rules of Special Education, 1974).

Characteristic refers to a distinguishing feature or quality of a special education program.

Collaboration is a developmental stage measured by Hall et al. (1986) Stages of Concern Questionnaire in which an individual focuses on cooperating with others in using the innovation (Holloway & Kerr, 1979).

Component refers to one of any number of attributes which make up a characteristic of a special education program.

Consequence Concerns, as measured by Hall et al. (1986) Stages of Concern Questionnaire, describe an individual who is primarily concerned about the impact of the innovation on students (Holloway & Kerr, 1979).

Effective is used to describe special education programs that not only implement the language of P.L. 94-142 and P.L. 93-380, but also the spirit of that legislation, as perceived by AEA Directors of Special Education when presented with three characteristics of special education programming.

Exceptional Children is a term used synonymously with the term "mildly disabled children."

General Classroom is the setting within a public school where children of varying abilities are instructed in a particular grade or subject area by a certified general classroom teacher.

Individualized Education Program (IEP) is a written document, required by Section 4 (a) (4) (19) (A-E) of P.L. 94-142 (1975), that includes: (a) the student's present functioning level, (b) annual goals and short-term objectives, (c) special services to be provided and the extent of regular programming, (d) starting date and expected duration of those services, and (e) evaluation procedures for use on at least an annual basis (Glick & Schubert, 1981; Glossary of Special Education, 1988; Hayes & Higgins, 1978).

Informational Concerns is a developmental stage, as measured by Hall et al. (1986) Stages of Concern Questionnaire, which describes an

individual who would like to learn more about an innovation (Holloway & Kerr, 1979).

Integration is used to describe an administrative procedure for keeping exceptional children in the general classroom for the majority of the school day (Kirk & Gallagher, 1979).

Least Restrictive Environment (LRE) refers to the concept of educating a child with disabilities with children who are not disabled, to the extent that the disabled child benefits from this integration.

Mainstreaming refers to the temporal, instructional, and social integration of special education students with nonhandicapped peers, based on an ongoing, individually determined educational planning and programming process (Chapman et al., 1983).

Management Concerns, as measured by Hall et al. (1986) Stages of Concern Questionnaire, describes an individual whose focus is on the processes and tasks of using an innovation (Holloway & Kerr, 1979).

Mildly Disabled Children are those who deviate from the average child in (a) mental characteristics, (b) sensory abilities, (c) physical characteristics, (d) social attributes, (e) communication abilities, or, (f) multiple handicaps. "Such deviation must be of such an extent that the child requires a modification of school practices, or special educational services, to develop to maximum capacity" (Kirk & Gallagher, 1979, p. 3).

Multidisciplinary team is a group composed of general and special educators, principal, school psychologist, counselor, parent(s), and

other concerned professionals, whose function is to make consensus decisions about the education of a particular child with disabilities.

Personal Concerns is a developmental stage, as measured by Hall et al. (1986) Stages of Concern Questionnaire, which describes an individual who expresses uncertainty about how the use of an innovation will affect him/her (Holloway & Kerr, 1979).

Principal is the administrative head of one or more secondary school buildings. The term is used interchangeably in this study with the term "administrator."

Refocusing is a developmental stage, as measured by Hall et al. (1986) Stages of Concern Questionnaire, in which an individual explores methods of changing the innovation so as to increase its benefits for students (Holloway & Kerr, 1979).

Remediation is any activity, technique, or practice "directed primarily at strengthening or eliminating the basic source or sources of a weakness or deficiency that interferes with learning" (Marsh & Price, 1980, p. 8).

Renewed Service Delivery System for Special Education Programs in Iowa (RSDS) is a 3-year evaluative structure and process developed within the state of Iowa to: (a) describe the current services and staff characteristics of special education programs, (b) assess the degree of implementation of alternative deliveries of special education services, and (c) appraise student and alternative system outcomes (Reschly et al., 1990).

Resource Room is any setting in the school to which a student comes to receive specific instruction on a regularly scheduled basis, while receiving the major portion of his/her education elsewhere. Resource teaching programs can provide from thirty minutes to not more than one half of the child's instructional time (Wiederholt et al., 1983).

Secondary School is that segment of public education encompassing ninth through twelfth grade.

Self-Contained Class is "a term for those classes in which pupils are in attendance more than half the school day with certified special education teachers" (Marsh, 1976, p. 5).

Special Class with Integration (SCIN) is an educational program for children with similar educational needs who are enrolled in a special education classroom but who can profit from participation in one or more academic subjects with children who are not disabled (Rules of Special Education, 1974).

Special Education Programs are those programs designed specifically to meet the unique needs of a child with disabilities. These programs may include classroom instruction, instruction in physical education, home instruction, speech pathology, and vocational training.

Summary

Research into the characteristics of effective schools and school restructuring have become a major thrust of the educational reform movement within the United States. At the same time, special education has begun its own introspection, resulting in a number of reform packages, including the widely discussed Regular Education Initiative

(REI). Common to both sets of reform activities has been the essentiality of the development of collaboration between administrators and teachers. At the secondary level, development of a strong collaborative relationship between the triad--administrators, general, and special education teachers--is even more critical in the provision of an appropriate education for mildly disabled students. This study focused exclusively on selected effective secondary special education programs in Iowa and the interactions of this triad in order to determine common administrative and instructional practices. Chapter Two provides a review of literature including: background information relating to special education legislation; specifics regarding the Iowa special education experience; research on effective schools, program components, and school restructuring; and administrative and instructional practices in effective special education programming. A description of procedures, data collection, and instruments is the topic of Chapter Three.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

In November of 1975, President Ford signed the Education for All Handicapped Children Act into Public Law 94-142, which required that all school-aged children with disabilities have made available to them a "free, appropriate public education" by September 1, 1978. Since that time, a growing volume of educational literature has dealt with special education, the practice of mainstreaming and its implications for the elementary school program and personnel. In contrast, few studies have focused on special education and its implication for secondary programs and personnel. In order to structure this review, the following headings are utilized: background information relating to special education legislation; the Iowa special education experience; special education programming; effective schools, program components, and restructuring; and, effective special education.

History of Special Education Legislation

Legislation for the rights of children with disabilities in American public schools did not, as many believe, begin with the signing of P.L. 94-142 in 1975. In fact, legislation benefiting the special education movement dates back to the ratification of the Fourteenth Amendment in 1868, which established due process and equal protection for all individuals. Specifically, this amendment provided that if the government or governmental agency "renders a benefit (to) one person within . . . a class, all must receive the benefit equally, and if the

state deprives one person within a class of a benefit, all within that class must be deprived equally" (LaMorte, 1974, p. 10).

The rights of each individual, regardless of race, to an equal educational opportunity was established in the Supreme Court decision regarding Brown v. Board of Education of Topeka (1954), in which the Court ruled: "We conclude that in the field of public education the doctrine of separate but equal has no place. Separate educational facilities are inherently unequal" (p. 687). Of course, neither the equal protection clause within the Fourteenth Amendment nor the Brown decision mentioned individuals nor students with disabilities; however, together both set the necessary foundation for future legislation specifically dealing with individuals with disabilities and their educational rights.

It was not until 1971 and the initiation of two separate class action lawsuits that these same educational opportunities began to become a legal reality for students with disabilities. The first involved the Pennsylvania Association for Retarded Children (PARC) v. Commonwealth of Pennsylvania (1971). PARC alleged that the state of Pennsylvania had failed to provide all of its retarded school-aged children with a free public education (Abeson & Zettel, 1977). The court ruled "that no mentally retarded child shall be denied admission to a public school without being accorded a notice and an opportunity for a hearing" (Brown, 1978, p. 17). In addition, the court mandated a publicly supported education for all retarded children between the ages of 6 and 21 in Pennsylvania (Abeson & Zettel, 1977).

The following year, a second similar judicial decision was handed down in the case of Mills v. Board of Education of the District of Columbia (1972). The plaintiffs claimed their children had been excluded without due process from special education programs on the basis of their handicapping condition (Barbacovi & Clelland, 1978). The court held that a school district must provide an appropriate, free public education to all school-age children, regardless of their handicapping condition (Brown, 1978). These two judicial decisions established the legal precedent that no child can be excluded, without due process, from a publicly supported education because of a disability.

Shortly after these favorable court decisions were rendered, the Educational Amendments of 1974 (P.L. 93-380) became law. Along with the authorization of higher levels of state aid, P.L. 93-380 also specified due process requirements for students with disabilities and supported the concept of a least restrictive environment. Most importantly, P.L. 93-380 required each state receiving federal aid to establish a timetable for the goal of providing full educational services to students with disabilities (The Unfinished Revolution, 1976).

By 1975, 48 states had legislated some form of mandatory public education for the majority of its children with disabilities (P.L. 94-142, 1975). It was during this favorable period of time that the Subcommittee on Select Education and the Subcommittee on the Handicapped held their hearings on the modification of P.L. 93-380. It became obvious, as a result of these hearings, that a mere modification of P.L.

93-380 would not meet the demand for action from the advocates of the disabled (Abeson & Zettel, 1977). Congress then drafted the Bill of Rights for Handicapped Children, which quickly passed both the Senate and the House, and was signed into law by President Ford on November 29, 1975.

P.L. 94-142 is a very comprehensive law and has been described in many different formats. Its basic tenets include:

1. Education is a civil right;

2. A free appropriate education must be available to all;

3. Each state must establish procedures for the identification and evaluation of all handicapped children;

4. Children will be served in the least restrictive environment;

5. An individual education plan (IEP) must be written for each student;

6. Due process procedures must be established to protect these rights (Tomlinson & Allbright, 1977).

This statute is very significant not only because of what it provides for children with disabilities, but also because it is considered a civil rights act. School officials do not have the option of following or not following its mandates. "Although a local education agency may elect to forego federal funds under this Act, that local agency must follow the provisions of the statute with respect to each handicapped child" (McCarthy & Marks, 1977, p. 67).

The Iowa Experience

Special education within Iowa has had a history similar to the national experience, in which physically disabling conditions received the first legal action. During the late 1800s, Iowa provided limited financial assistance to indigent deaf, dumb, and blind individuals seeking an education. It was also during this time period that an "Asylum for the Blind" and an "Asylum for Feeble-Minded Children" were established. By the mid-1930s, 10 Iowa cities had begun special education classes for children with mental and physical disabilities. In addition, "crippled children" had begun to receive academic instruction during their hospital confinement at the University of Iowa Children's Hospital (Rules of Special Education, 1974).

In 1944, the first comprehensive special education statute was recommended by the Iowa School Code Commission, in the hopes that this statute would eliminate a problem inherent in the then current method of dealing with special education. At that time, 26 Iowa communities provided some type of special education program for their disabled students. At the same time, however, small rural towns were providing no assistance for the disabled children within their communities. To minimize this disparity, Iowa passed its first special education law in 1945. This statute "established a Division of Special Education within the Department of Public Instruction for the promotion, direction, and supervision of special education" (Rules of Special Education, 1974, p. 1305).

This statute was very permissive and provided limited appropriations so small school districts, by the mid-1950s, still had not developed special education programs. Recognizing the supervision problem the state had incurred by establishing one departmental body to supervise the special educational needs of an entire state, the Legislature passed legislation requiring county school boards to coordinate the special education programs within their county (Brown, 1978).

Advocate groups for the disabled organized during the early 1960s and were, through these organizations, more vocal and persuasive than ever before. At the same time, school districts were having difficulty financing special education programs with the meager state appropriations for this purpose (Brown, 1978). Legislative committees were finally established in 1971 for the purpose of investigating the issues surrounding the delivery of special education services in Iowa. These committees met through 1974 before their investigations led to the passage of Senate File 1163 (1974), which established the Area Education Agencies (AEAs) in use today. Specific provisions of the law were that it

> 1. abolished county school systems and replaced them with 15 Area Education Agencies;
> 2. mandated special education programs and services to all children;
> 3. placed instructional responsibilities for special education on the local district;
> 4. established a "weighting plan" to provide the necessary funds for these programs; and,
> 5. established a system of funding the Area Education Agencies. (Code of Iowa, 1977, p. 1362)

The major instructional responsibility as a result of this statute went to each local school district. Each district was to provide a suitable special education program for each identified disabled student within the school district boundaries. In order to provide the necessary financial appropriation for these programs, the state established the "weighting plan" mentioned within the statute. This plan weighted disabling conditions on the basis of their severity, with a "normal" child having the weight of "1.0" and a severely disabled child having the weight of "4.4". These weights were then totaled to determine the overall enrollment for each school district within the state. State monies were then provided on a per pupil basis as established under the foundation aid plan (Code of Iowa, 1977).

In order to provide for special education support services such as school psychologists, social workers, consultants, and speech and hearing clinicians, each AEA was to file an annual budget with the Department of Public Education (DPE). It was then the responsibility of the DPE to allocate these budgetary expenditures among the school districts served by each AEA, and notify each district of the amount it was to include within its annual budget for AEA support (Brown, 1978).

Special Education Programming

The mandate of P.L. 94-142 provided for a free appropriate public education for all students with disabilities within the least restrictive environment. This practice has come to be termed "mainstreaming" although P.L. 94-142 does not use that terminology. The implementation of this law has required large scale changes within most

public schools. It has brought the involvement of both parents and school personnel, particularly the principal, general classroom teachers, and the special education teacher, into educational programming for children with disabilities. In documenting the change required in educational institutions, Reynolds (1989) stated:

> The assumption is incorrect that the delivery of special education services can be transformed directly and easily from, for example, a specific class model to a resource room or consulting teacher model, simply by training and inserting new personnel in unchanged schools and systems. To make the transformation, fundamental changes are required, changes that involve all educational personnel, parents, and universities. (p. 7)

Two components of P.L. 94-142 have caused the dramatic change in public education to be very evident. One of these components is the development of Individualized Education Programs (IEPs). The law requires that an instructional plan be written for each disabled child before he or she is placed into any special education program. This IEP must be reviewed annually to determine a student's progress or lack thereof. It is meant not as a legal document but as a tool designed to delineate the special education services each student requires.

The second component of special education is by far the most obvious to the general public. This is the concept of placement within the least restrictive environment (LRE). The placement alternatives specified in P.L. 94-142, from least to most restrictive, are "(a) instruction in general education classes, (b) instruction in special classes, (c) instruction in special schools, (d) instruction at home and, (e) instruction in hospitals and institutions" (Downs-Taylor & Landon, 1981, p. 7). Each level is a different organizational method of

providing education to a specific child with disabilities. The law does not describe how schools should operate programs at each of these five levels. That is left to the educational personnel who will adapt the model to fit the population they will serve (Glick & Schubert, 1981).

One of the organizational methods used by a majority of public schools is the resource room program. This concept of resource room placement for special students is certainly not a new one. The resource room concept was initially utilized in 1913 as an instructional tool for both the visually disabled and the hard-of-hearing. During the 1950s and early 1960s, schools utilized the resource room concept to help students overcome difficulties in reading, math, and speech (Frampton & Gall, 1955). However, despite this long history of resource use within the public schools, it was not widely accepted as a legitimate placement for exceptional students (Wiederholt et al., 1983). The resource model gained in popularity during the early 1970s, when advocates for the disabled raised serious questions about the effectiveness of special schools and special self-contained classrooms (Cegelka & Tyler, 1970; Christopolos & Renz, 1969; Dunn, 1968; Garrison & Hammill, 1971; Hammill & Wiederholt, 1972; Iano, 1972; Ross et al., 1971). Because of this criticism and concern by many educational professionals, resource room models began appearing in a great many elementary and secondary public schools.

There are at least five different styles of resource room programs in use today in the public sector. These include the categorical, the cross-categorical, the noncategorical, the specific skill variety, and

the itinerant. The categorical resource program requires the school to provide a separate program for each disabling condition identified by P.L. 94-142. For example, students identified as learning disabled would be placed in a learning disabilities resource room with others who had been diagnosed as learning disabled. The rationale behind this approach is that the personnel who head up the resource room would be specifically trained to handle that type of disability and would have a better understanding of the problems and instructional methods best suited for that particular disability (Barksdale & Atkinson, 1971).

The cross-categorical resource program is similar to the categorical resource program in that it is reserved for students who have been identified as disabled. However, in this program, the teacher of the resource program would work with students possessing several different disabling conditions. For example, a teacher may work with a group of learning disabled students in the morning and a group of behaviorially disruptive students in the afternoon. According to Wiederholt and Chamberlain (1989), this resource program is currently the most popular due to its administrative appeal and its lack of categorical stigma. Many times a district doesn't have enough students with a particular disability to justify a specific resource program for them alone. This type of resource program allows each disabling condition to be served no matter what the actual population of that disability is within a specific school. The inherent difficulty within the cross-categorical resource program is that it assumes that a learning disabled student and a behaviorially disruptive student should

be taught the same types of things utilizing the same instructional method. This poses great difficulties for the instructors of a cross-categorical resource program and requires them to frequently evaluate their instructional procedures.

The third type of resource program is the noncategorical resource model. This model is designed to meet the educational needs of both disabled and nondisabled students. Service from this resource program does not require the student to be legally classified as disabled. Educators have stated that this particular model has great potential for instruction of both types of students and certainly avoids the necessity of the labeling of students with disabilities (Gickling, Murphy, & Malloy, 1979). However, the administration of such a program is a nightmare. Such questions as criteria for admittance, suitability of instructors, and, of course, funding for such a program make this model one that is currently not widely used in public schools (Wiederholt et al., 1983).

The popularity of Title I reading programs illustrate the fourth type of resource program, the specific skill resource room. These programs are operated around providing instruction in specific skill areas such as reading, mathematics, or speech. Specific skill resource teachers work almost exclusively with nondisabled children, so financing of these programs is usually funded through a federal block grant and with additional local funds (Kirk & Gallagher, 1979).

The final type of resource program available to public schools is the itinerant resource model. This is literally a resource program on

wheels due to the fact that the program is taken from a central location out to bordering towns that have a population too small to support any type of special education for its students. This type of program is least favored by educators due to the difficulties involved with the transportation of an entire instructional program (Gickling et al., 1979).

The type of resource program offered by a school district is dependent upon the student population served by that district. To meet the requirements of least restrictive environment established by P.L. 94-142, a school district must create programs to meet the educational needs of its students with disabilities. The five resource room models provide a school district with a variety of program placement options from which to choose. A large school district may make use of all five models in the attempt to meet the educational needs of its student population. On the other hand, however, a small school district may have need for only one resource model. It is also possible that a small school district may not have enough students to make the creation of a specific resource program financially feasible. It then becomes that school district's responsibility to locate a resource placement for those students. This often requires the transportation of these students to a larger school district located in a nearby community which offers the necessary resource placement.

There are students with disabilities whose educational needs are not satisfied by placement in any of the five resource models mentioned previously. Many public schools offer a second placement option--a

self-contained resource program. This is a program in which the disabled students receive their academic instruction from a special education teacher but may attend nonacademic school activities, such as physical education, with their peers (Meers, 1980). This type of placement was utilized in the past for all types of disabled students. It is now reserved primarily for the educable mentally retarded (EMR), the trainable mentally retarded (TMR), and the behaviorally disruptive (BD) student (Marsh & Price, 1980). Often the disabled student who receives his/her academic instruction within a self-contained resource room is allowed to participate in one or more general education classes. This is because that student is becoming better able to function successfully within the confines of the general classroom. Such self-contained programs are known as self-contained with integration, or SCIN programs (Marsh & Price, 1980).

Effective Schools and Program Components

American schools and their instructional effectiveness have come under recent widespread public scrutiny since the publication of Adler's (1982) The Paideia Proposal: An Educational Manifesto, the first of 29 national educational reports urging reform. In his analysis of these reports, Passow (1984) stated, "Common to all the reports is the clear, firm conclusion that American education is experiencing a serious crisis, which, if left unattended, will render the U.S. vulnerable to its industrial, commercial, and even military competitors" (p. 675). This "crisis" in education is not a new theme--similar concerns were voiced during the late 1950s when Sputnik was launched and, in the

1960s, with the attention on disadvantaged urban youth. In fact, each decade has brought a different list of concerns the public has had with the American educational system (Passow, 1984). This particular set of concerns, however, seemed to touch off many school improvement projects, and has put educational topics, for the time being, on the national agenda (Boyer, 1983). Of highest concern was secondary education, evidenced by the fact that the National Commission on Excellence in Education focused its attention and criticisms almost exclusively on the high school.

> The reports recognize how essential our high schools are to the character and competence of our citizenry, to the quality of our workforce, and thus to our future. However, the reports also state forcefully that high schools are not performing satisfactorily; indeed, high schools seem to be failing us and must be greatly improved. (Carroll, 1990, p. 359)

The current major efforts toward school improvement, focused by these educational reports, have included the following emphases:

1. The target of change should shift from the district or individual staff member to the school as a whole entity;

2. The primary means of achieving improvement in student learning should come through staff development;

3. Planning should be proactive, long-range, and systematic;

4. The source of improvement should be the research on effective schools and effective instructional practices (Wood, Freeland, & Szabo, 1985).

The effective school movement is credited to the late Ronald Edmonds, as cited in Farrar et al. (1984), who defined effectiveness as "a highly circumscribed, quantitative measure of school improvement

. . . recording the annual increase in proportionate mastery in the lowest social class" (p. 701). Observing schools that were able to demonstrate effectiveness in this manner, Edmonds noticed several similar characteristics:

1. Principals were instructional leaders;

2. The instructional focus of the school was clearly understood throughout the school;

3. The school climate was safe and orderly;

4. Teachers conveyed, through their behavior, that all students could attain at least minimum mastery;

5. The program evaluation was based on measures of student achievement (Farrar et al., 1984).

Schools that sought to improve their instructional effectiveness attempted to develop these five characteristics within their own school building. Many were successful and, by 1983, over 3,000 schools had some type of effective school model within their school improvement project (Farrar et al., 1984).

The real difficulty occurred when secondary schools utilized the same five characteristics to develop effective secondary schools. Edmonds and the others involved in the research on effective schools had used urban elementary school programs as their population. Because of this, secondary personnel have found the effective school model to have several major limitations at the secondary level (LeZotte & Bancroft, 1985).

The first limitation involved the emphasis placed upon student achievement as the single measure of effectiveness. At the secondary level, student achievement is only one of several measures of effectiveness. This was demonstrated in Rutter's (1977) review of secondary schools, where a range of achievement variables were utilized including not only student achievement, but discipline, lack of vandalism, and attendance. The Rutter project, however, did not, as Edmund's had, specify measures for these outcomes, so it is difficult to assess a school's effectiveness on those other variables (Farrar et al., 1984).

Edmond's reliance on a population of elementary schools was a second limitation of the effectiveness model for use at the secondary level. Elementary schools differ from secondary schools in several important ways. They are usually smaller with uniform staff roles. Teachers teach similar interrelated skills and the principal has the time to be an instructional leader. In contrast, the secondary school has curricula that are less interconnected and are taught by teachers whose styles vary widely. The principal functions more as a school manager than as an instructional leader (Firestone & Herriott, 1982).

A third limitation to the effective school model was that the data came from urban schools, which typically serve predominantly minority populations. There is little research available as to the applicability of these research findings to other than urban schools (Farrar et al., 1984).

These three limitations have made the use of the effective school model at the secondary level difficult. Many educational reformers believed that these limitations were a result of the structure of the high school itself, which was designed for the early 20th century, and has proven to be too rigid and confining to provide appropriate educational opportunities for all students (Boyer, 1983; Goodlad, 1984; National Coalition of Advocates for Students, 1985; Schlechty, 1990; Sizer, 1984). Due to this, the educational reform movement began, in 1986, to move away from "reform" and toward the concept of "restructuring", resulting in a variety of proposed restructuring approaches (Raywid, 1990). Lieberman and Miller (1990) separated these approaches into two categories: procedures and principles. Restructuring approaches that emphasize procedures provide schools with the organizational means for restructuring. This includes providing support structures such as school-level collaboration, staff development, and increased planning time, all of which are designed to encourage teachers to actively participate in the overall functioning of the school. Those restructuring efforts that focus on principles, such as the Coalition of Essential Schools headed by Theodore Sizer, require schools to change their mission statement by implementing a set of core beliefs and preferred practices. Secondary schools that are allied to the philosophy of the Coalition espouse nine principles that provide a framework for school redesign:

1. Assisting students in the development of higher-order thinking skills;

2. Helping students achieve mastery of a limited number of essential skills and areas of knowledge;

3. Establishing school goals that apply to all students;

4. Personalizing learning through joint planning by teachers and principals;

5. Encouraging teachers to become coaches of learning;

6. Assessing performance based on mastery;

7. Developing a supportive climate;

8. Requiring teachers and principals to be generalists;

9. Establishing a responsive school budget (Lewis, 1989; Lieberman & Miller, 1990).

Whether the restructuring efforts emphasize procedures or principles, "at the heart of any restructuring effort is the creation of a new vision for the school that includes a whole new way for teachers and principals to work together" (Lieberman & Miller, 1990, p. 761). The emphasis has now been focused upon the development of a collaborative network between teachers and administrators, both in the instruction of students and in the governance of the school.

Effective Special Education

A small body of research has been accumulated over the years which has reported the effectiveness, or lack thereof, of resource room placement for special education students. In these studies, academic and/or affective performance of special education students was compared with that of similar students who remained in self-contained classes or who were "mainstreamed" into general classes. Collectively, the results

of these 37 studies do not yield any type of agreement regarding the efficacy of resource programs, primarily because most, if not all, have serious methodological flaws (Gottlieb, Alter, & Gottlieb, 1983; Hallahan et al., 1988; Keogh & Levitt, 1976; Robinson & Robinson, 1976; Tindal, 1985; Wiederholt & Chamberlain, 1989). Wiederholt and Chamberlain (1989) also cited the age of these studies as a limiting factor to their relevance in the evaluation of resource rooms today. Despite the lack of a solid research base, resource rooms continue to be the most widely used programming alternative for mildly handicapped students.

Along with the popularity of this type of placement has come increased criticism of its effectiveness in the provision of appropriate educational opportunities for students with disabilities (Biklen, 1985; Biklen & Zollers, 1986; Gartner, 1986; Gartner & Lipsky, 1987; Hagarty & Abramson, 1987; Lilly, 1987; Pugach, 1987; Sapon-Shevin, 1987; Shepard, 1987; Sleeter, 1986; Stainback & Stainback, 1988; Wang, Reynolds, & Walberg, 1986; Will, 1986). To many of these researchers these pull-out programs are ethically questionable and are utilized incorrectly to the social and educational detriment of the student. Many resource programs become "dumping grounds" for troublesome students within the general classroom. Many have become simply a small group remedial program. Finally, many programs have been titled resource programs and have become, in actuality, a self-contained classroom (Wiederholt, Hammill, & Brown, 1981). This has been particularly true at the secondary level, where the demands on resource teachers become more diverse and

difficult. The secondary resource instructor, according to Glick and Schubert (1981), "may be expected to tutor each student in four or five courses, improve students' study skills, develop job skills, monitor the students' work in other classes, build effective relationships with teachers in a variety of fields, and still deal with the paperwork and parent contact required" (p. 327). To complicate the position further, instructional materials are primarily designed around elementary special education models and are, many times, totally unsuitable for the "young adults" found within the junior and senior high school. In addition, the attitudes of secondary disabled students often become extremely hostile and negative about any type of programmed learning activity (Marsh & Price, 1980).

These concerns and criticisms, initially directed specifically at placement inadequacies, have expanded into a full attack of the very core beliefs on which current special education programs and policies are based (Larrivee, 1989). Although virtually ignored by the majority of educational reform reports, two national reports dealt specifically with the inadequacies of special education. The first, The Heritage Foundation (1984) report, was highly critical of the role the government has played in the provision of educational services for students with disabilities. The implementation of P.L. 94-142 has actually, according to the authors of the report, reduced the effectiveness of the education disabled students receive by mainstreaming them into a nonsupportive general education environment. The Heritage Foundation claimed further that there has been extensive misdiagnosis of children in order to

remove problem students from the general classroom. Overall, the report claimed that P.L. 94-142 and other special education legislation "have drained resources from the normal school population, probably weakened the quality of teaching, and falsely labeled normal children" (p. 12) and recommended that public education be absolved of its responsibility for educating those children who cannot function within a normal classroom environment.

The second report, Barriers to Excellence: Our Children at Risk, published by the National Coalition of Advocates for Students (NCAS), cited special education's failure to provide appropriate educational opportunities for all students with disabilities and the predominance of misdiagnosised children found within the public schools (National Coalition of Advocates, 1985). However, in contrast to the Heritage Foundation report, which held special education entirely responsible for these failures, the NCAS report attributed these inadequacies to the rigidity of general educational structure, curriculum, and teaching practices. The Coalition recommended that general education opportunities be expanded for all students without tracking and teachers be encouraged to individualize their curriculum and teaching practices to meet the needs of all students (Sapon-Shevin, 1987).

In addition to the concerns expressed by these two national reports, both special and general educators have begun to question the effectiveness of mainstreaming in providing an appropriate education for mildly disabled children. Advocated as a primary means of enhancing the social belongingness of students with disabilities, it has appeared to

have little impact (Asher & Taylor, 1981; Gottlieb, 1981; Gresham, 1981, 1983; Levine, Hummel, & Salzer, 1982). Integration itself has not resulted in the academic success of disabled students, causing many to fall further and further behind due to the lack of carefully designed instructional strategies and accommodation within the general classroom. Consequently, according to Kunzweiler (1982),

> what we have done in "mainstreaming" amounts to an institutional structural "shift". We have "shifted" handicapped children from one environment to another without changing the "mindsets" that constrict us in our use of time, space, and personnel. What we have done is shifted the handicapped child back to the very environment he was initially not successful in and expected him to somehow succeed without changing the very structures and processes that caused them to fall behind. (p. 288)

In response to these and other criticisms, the Regular Education Initiative (REI) was proposed and its overall philosophy has been advocated by a large group of special educators (Davis, 1989; Gartner & Lipsky, 1987; Hagarty & Abramson, 1987; Pugach, 1987; Reynolds et al., 1987; Sapon-Shevin, 1987; Stainback & Stainback, 1984; Will, 1986). This philosophy involves "integrating second system programs into regular education in order to form a comprehensive educational system that encompasses a wide range of coordinated programs and alternative educational opportunities" (Wang et al., 1988, p. 248). Although proponents agree with the philosophy of REI there are wide variations on how best to implement it. Wang and Walberg (1988) have taken a moderate approach, proposing a shared responsibility between special and general education in the provision of coordinated, inclusive educational opportunities for all students. Others, including Gartner and Lipsky (1987), Hagarty and Abramson (1987), Pugach (1987), and Stainback and

Stainback (1984), advocated the liberal position of abolishing the dual system that currently exists, requiring a unified educational community become responsible for the education of all students.

It is this liberal perspective of REI that has garnered the most criticism from researchers, who fear rapid widespread adoption of REI would undo the positive things already occurring within special education (Braaten, Kauffman, Braaten, Polsgrove, & Nelson, 1988; Byrnes, 1990; Gerber, 1988; Hallahan et al., 1988; Kauffman & Pullen, 1989; Keogh, 1988; Mesinger, 1985; Semmel & Gerber, 1990; Vergason & Anderegg, 1989). "Most REI opponents argue that the current dual educational system should not be abandoned until full assurances are in place that all students currently receiving special education programs will receive as good as or better services under the REI" (Davis, 1990, p. 350). In addition, researchers have questioned whether general education has demonstrated the readiness or willingness to be held accountable for the education of disabled students (Trent, 1989).

The willingness of general education to undertake the REI is difficult to assess because the development and subsequent debate surrounding REI has taken place primarily in the research arena, with little input from the actual practitioners, general classroom teachers (Davis, 1990; Lieberman, 1985). Their input into the implementation of REI concepts is critical since "widespread resistance from regular teachers would undoubtedly doom any chance of successfully reintegrating large numbers of students with mild handicaps into full-time regular education" (Coates, 1989, p. 536). Despite this, studies investigating

the attitudes of general classroom teachers toward these proposed changes in special education delivery are virtually nonexistent (Kauffman, Gerber, & Semmel, 1988). Coates (1989) addressed this criticism in a study conducted with 94 K-12 general classroom teachers in northwest Iowa, in which they were asked to agree or disagree with a series of 15 statements regarding the REI position. The respondents rated these statements based upon a 5-point Likert scale, with 1 corresponding to strongly agree and 5 corresponding to strongly disagree. The teachers' responses were generally in the direction of disagreement with the REI position. The strongest disagreement occurred on two statements:

1. Resource rooms are not an effective model for meeting the needs of mildly handicapped students.

2. Identifying students for the purpose of providing special education is a discriminatory practice.

This suggested that general education teachers "do not view the practice of identifying students for special education as discriminatory, and feel that resource rooms are an effective model for meeting the needs of students with mild handicaps" (Coates, 1989, p. 534).

In addition to the 15 statements, 2 open-ended statements were included in which the teachers were asked (a) what should be done to improve the current system of delivery for special education, and (b) what current special education practices should be discontinued. The improvement most often suggested was to expand the current special education system of resource rooms to provide for nonidentified students

in need of assistance. In addition, quicker and earlier identification procedures was another frequently mentioned improvement. Paralleling these two improvements was a suggestion by the respondents that the practice of long testing delays be discontinued. According to Coates (1989), these results reflect not only disagreement with the REI movement but also the possibility that resource rooms have been more effective with students under the Iowa special education system, resulting in greater teacher satisfaction.

During the 1987-1988 school year, the Iowa Department of Education, in conjunction with the Bureau of Special Education, commissioned the System Development Implementation and Oversight Committee to assess the effectiveness of Iowa special education programs and services. This Committee conducted a number of hearings, soliciting input from a cross section of general and special education personnel and parents, in an effort to determine what improvements were needed within Iowa special education services. The information received as a result of these hearings was synthesized by the Committee into four key principles to guide future improvements:

1. Educational options should be expanded for children with learning and/or behavioral deficits;

2. Resources from both general and special education should be integrated;

3. Personnel should be utilized more effectively through better coordination of services;

4. Outcomes of the special education program should be improved (Reschly et al., 1990).

An evaluative structure and process, entitled Renewed Service Delivery System for Special Education Programs in Iowa (RSDS), was then organized around those four critical themes. "The overall goals of RSDS evaluation are to: (1) describe current services and staff characteristics (Baseline Phase); (2) assess the degree of implementation of alternative services (Implementation Phase); (3) appraise student and system outcomes (Outcome Phase) (Reschly et al., 1990, p. 2).

The Baseline Phase was initiated in the Fall of 1989 with an initial four AEA trial sites. This sample was extended the following fall (Fall, 1990) to include four additional AEAs, resulting in baseline data being gathered from "eight of the fifteen Iowa Area Education Agencies [See Appendix A] and approximately 47% of the Iowa student population" (Reschly et al., 1990). Data collection instruments were developed and administered to general and special educators, administrators, parents, and support personnel within each of the eight AEA trial sites, obtaining information on:

1. the range and nature of available intervention alternatives;
2. availability and utilization of support personnel;
3. IEP development and student outcomes;
4. procedures for monitoring progress;
5. parental involvement;

6. transition planning;

7. staff development opportunities.

"The baseline results for the eight initial trial sites indicate, unequivocally, the need for changes in the delivery of services to at-risk and handicapped students in the State of Iowa" (Key Baseline Concerns, 1990, p. 3).

Individual schools within the eight AEA trial sites were next encouraged to develop plans to meet the concerns expressed during the baseline data collection. Participation in the Implementation Phase by individual school districts was voluntary and plans were implemented during the 1990-1991 school year. It was hoped that each school district would develop interventions that met the individual needs of the children within their particular district rather than attempting to develop a global plan to be utilized by the entire state (Iowa Renewed Service, 1990). The Implementation Phase was expected to have an 18-month duration at which time further data collection would occur to analyze the results of each of the individual implementations. The first set of implementation results from the four initial AEA trial sites was expected to be available in Summer, 1991. Outcome data is expected to be collected near the end of the 3-year implementation period (Key Baseline Concerns, 1990; Reschly et al., 1990).

Despite these efforts, there is a surprising lack of research information on secondary special education programs in general, and the components of an effective secondary special education program in particular (Sabatino, 1981). One study, conducted by a research team at

Wright State University, investigated effective resource programs within the state of Ohio (Glick & Schubert, 1981). These selected programs were recommended by state officials to the team and then characteristics common to each program were observed. The research team determined nine characteristics that these effective resource programs possessed. They included:

1. Good communication between regular and special educators;
2. Frequent, informal communication within the school;
3. Administrative support for the program;
4. Flexibility in determining handicapped students' schedules;
5. Positive attitudes on the part of the receiving (general) teachers;
6. Time--successful programs had been mainstreaming students for an average of seven years;
7. Special educators were viewed as a part of the total faculty;
8. Special educators were determined to make mainstreaming work;
9. Peer acceptance of special students. (pp. 328-329)

Along a similar line, Bender (1987) identified five characteristics found in effective mainstreaming programs:

1. Positive attitudes on the part of general classroom teachers;
2. Special and general teachers act in concert to provide services for a particular child;
3. Effective teaching strategies utilized by the general teacher;
4. Frequent administrative evaluation of mainstream practices;
5. Supportive administrative actions e.g. reducing class loads of receiving teachers. (pp. 476-477)

These two studies both focused on the importance of a triad of personnel in the education of mildly disabled students. A relationship of collaboration and support, developed between administrators and teachers, appears to be as critical to successful mainstreaming as it has proven to be to any successful restructuring effort.

Facilitative Leadership

As instructional leaders, principals are expected to motivate their staffs and demonstrate appropriate, desirable instructional and management techniques they wish their staffs to emulate (Jenkins, 1972). Miller (1976) reported that the principal's philosophy and practice are influential tools affecting both teacher behavior and student achievement. Their influence upon teachers is so great in fact, that Halpin (1969) postulated that the principal's and teachers' beliefs and behaviors are inextricably interwoven. Payne and Murray (1974) felt the principal, by virtue of this influential leadership role, must be considered the key person in setting the tone of acceptance and the philosophy of effective integration within the school building. "If the principal has a negative attitude toward exceptional children", Smith (1979) concluded, " . . . this could seriously affect the functioning of educational programs of these children" (p. 89).

Principals' attitudes toward the integration of the disabled into the general classroom have been the subject of several studies (Bosman & Sloan, 1979; Davis, 1980; Guerin & Szatlocky, 1974; Jorden, 1982; Neuman & Harris, 1977; Payne & Murray, 1974; Smith, 1979; Turk, 1980/1981). An analysis of these eight studies found that the concept of mainstreaming is, in summary, not a particularly positive concept for young, urban principals with few years of administrative and mainstreaming experience and some academic preparation regarding mainstreaming concepts. In contrast, principals who are older, basically suburban, having many years of administrative and mainstreaming experience, have usually more

positive attitudes toward mainstreaming. Turk (1980/1981) and Davis (1980) also observed that elementary principals generally were more supportive of mainstreaming than their secondary counterparts. The variables of gender and size of school, however, were not significant in determining a principal's attitude toward the mainstreaming concept (Bosman & Sloan, 1979; Davis, 1980).

In the fall of 1979, Practical Research into Organizational Behavior and Effectiveness (PROBE) designed a survey to parallel the 1979 Gallup Poll of the Public's Attitudes Toward the Public Schools. This survey was administered to 1,154 public school superintendents across the United States. Participants were asked to identify the five most important problems confronting their school district. Education requirements for students with disabilities appeared in 43.4% of the superintendents' top five problems securing fourth place among the major problems confronting public schools as perceived by superintendents.

These same superintendents were given two options for the education of youngsters with mental or physical disabilities: placing them in special classes or integrating them with other students. "Special classes for children with mental handicaps were favored by 58.1% to 66.8% of superintendents in the various comparison groups; 26.7% to 37.2% preferred to integrate such students" (Duea & Bishop, 1980, p. 51). The results of this study indicated that "if mainstreaming is truly the proper approach for children with mental handicaps, the vast majority of school administrators . . . remain to be convinced" (Duea & Bishop, 1980, p. 52).

Duea (1982) augmented the earlier PROBE survey in 1981 by extending the population to include, in addition to school superintendents, school board presidents, elementary and secondary principals. When the median problem rankings of the four subgroups were calculated, education of the disabled again ranked as the fourth major problem facing U.S. public schools. When viewed separately, board presidents ranked it sixth; superintendents, third; elementary principals, fourth; and, secondary principals, tenth. School officials favored, by sizable majorities (75% to 77%), educating mentally disabled students in special classes and saw these special classes as having very little to do with their school's overall quality. Mainstreaming was only favored for those students with physical disabilities.

In the spring of 1982, Albrecht and Duea (1983) surveyed 456 Iowa secondary principals about many of the same issues that were contained in the National Commission on Excellence in Education Report, before that report was actually released. One of the issues contained within that survey was a question about the impact of mainstreaming upon the quality of education offered within their school. Albrecht and Duea (1983) stated:

> In sharp contrast to the findings of national surveys of educators and of the public, 72% of the Iowa principals in our sample observed that "mainstreaming" handicapped students had had little or no effect on the quality of school programs. Seventeen percent cited positive effects, and 11% reported negative effects. (p. 212)

Questioning whether this trend in attitude modification was unique to Iowa principals, Albrecht expanded this study to include 1,208 secondary principals from among the approximately 15,000 high school

principals in the United States. Observing very similar results, Albrecht (1984) stated:

> The considerable opposition to mainstreaming special education students expressed by school officials in 1980 and 1981 has softened. Seven of every ten principals reported that mainstreaming had little or no impact upon the academic quality of the school program (48.9%) or was positive (22%). (p. 101)

The results of these two studies suggested that secondary principals are becoming less opposed to the mainstreaming concept. If it is fair to assume, as the literature suggests, that principals' attitudes toward certain educational programming influences its success, then the apparent modification in principals' attitudes toward mainstreaming could have a positive impact on its success within the schools.

In order to facilitate the special education program, the principal must not only possess a positive attitude, but also must demonstrate this positive attitude within his/her role as building administrator. The building principal spends, according to Raske (1979), approximately 14.6% of his/her time complying with P.L. 94-142. Robeson (1977) cited 11 administrative responsibilities a principal must undertake in carrying out the mandates of P.L. 94-142:

> 1. Coordinate and administer special education services in the school;
> 2. Supervise educational personnel serving handicapped children in the school;
> 3. Designate and implement education programs for handicapped children in the school, in accordance with approved policies, procedures, and guidelines of the Local Education Agency and of the state Department of Education;
> 4. Promote attitudes of school personnel and parents that encourage the acceptance and inclusion of handicapped children in regular classes and interaction with regular students;
> 5. Receive referrals of students with suspected handicapping conditions from teachers, parents, and others;

6. Arrange for appropriate evaluation for those students recommended for evaluation as a result of a screening procedure;
7. Supervise the maintenance of child records at the school level and protect the confidentiality of these records;
8. Receive teacher requests for assistance and provide or arrange for specialized assistance;
9. Implement due process hearings;
10. Plan for special education programs in the school and make budget recommendations to the superintendent;
11. Participate in Local Education Agency plan for special education services. (p. 18)

Mere compliance with the regulations found in P.L. 94-142 will satisfy the language of that legislation, but will fall short of fulfilling the spirit for which it was intended. Rebore (1979) stated that "if this support is exemplified only in terms of rules, regulations, procedures, and instructions, mainstreaming will surely fail" (p. 27). It is necessary, according to Rebore (1979), that the building principal not only comply with regulations, but also exhibit strong leadership skills in effectively implementing P.L. 94-142.

Just what constitutes these supportive administrative practices has been the subject of numerous studies (Amos & Moody, 1977; Cochrane & Westling, 1977; Gage, 1979; Mergler, 1979; Oaks, 1979; Rebore, 1979; Sivage, 1979; Tarrier, 1978; Thomason & Arkell, 1980). A review of these studies by Voorneveld (1983) identified 20 specific administrative practices which help foster and maintain special education programs. The most frequently identified administrative practice was for the principal to develop a "growth providing" atmosphere, encouraging the faculty to work together--both special and general education teachers--as a team (Amos & Moody, 1977; Cochrane & Westling, 1977; Gage, 1979; Mergler, 1979; Oaks, 1979; Rebore, 1979; Sivage, 1979). One of the

requirements of P.L. 94-142 is that this team of persons, consisting of parent(s), teacher(s), support person(s), and administrator, work together in deciding on the needs of a child and the appropriate way to meet those needs in the school. The use of the team approach permits each person a voice in the educational plan for each child with disabilities. It is crucial that the principal provide the support and leadership necessary to encourage this team involvement by faculty members.

In addition to encouraging a growth providing atmosphere, a principal who is supportive of mainstreaming, according to Voorneveld's (1983) literature review, should:

1. Provide for the careful planning and the possession of a clear conceptualization of mainstreaming (Mergler, 1979; Oaks, 1979; Tarrier, 1978; Thomason & Arkell, 1980);

2. Provide opportunities for familiarizing him/herself and staff with identification processes for securing special education assistance (Amos & Moody, 1977; Gage, 1979; Oaks, 1979; Sivage, 1979);

3. Encourage expansion of activities in the mainstreaming effort, deal with attitudes and educate children about handicaps (Amos & Moody, 1977; Gage, 1979; Thomason & Arkell, 1980);

4. Provide inservice educational opportunities to general classroom teachers and become cognizant of the characteristics of the mildly handicapped and provide ongoing technical assistance (Amos & Moody, 1977; Cochrane & Westling, 1977; Oaks, 1979; Sivage, 1979; Thomason & Arkell, 1980);

5. Use special education teachers as support personnel (Amos & Moody, 1977; Cochrane & Westling, 1977; Thomason & Arkell, 1980);

6. Plan carefully for transportation of special education students (Cochrane & Westling, 1977; Oaks, 1979; Thomason & Arkell, 1980);

7. Utilize community resources in exceptional child education (Amos & Moody, 1977; Thomason & Arkell, 1980);

8. Select staff whose attitudes toward the handicapped and working with them are positive (Oaks, 1979; Thomason & Arkell, 1980);

9. Provide additional sources of information on exceptional child education to faculty members (Cochrane & Westling, 1977; Oaks, 1979);

10. Ensure that the mainstreaming approach is utilized throughout the school (Cochrane & Westling, 1977; Oaks, 1979);

11. Avoid instant expertise. Good leadership does not require superior knowledge of all specialized issues (Gage, 1979);

12. Become attuned to teachers' anxiety regarding special education students (Gage, 1979);

13. Be aware of the structural capabilities of the individual school building (Oaks, 1979);

14. Plan the scheduling of the handicapped so that they can easily attend mainstream classes (Oaks, 1979);

15. Consider alternatives for support of the handicapped student (Sivage, 1979);

16. Allow for special material funds for the general educator (Cochrane & Westling, 1977);

17. Provide support for the exceptional child (Cochrane & Westling, 1977);

18. Be concerned with innovation not maintenance (Rebore, 1979);

19. Encourage parent participation in the mainstreaming process (Oaks, 1979). (pp. 26-27)

These supportive actions conducted by principals may be grouped into four components, consisting of actions concerning (a) pupils, (b) personnel, (c) parents and the community, and (d) organizational maintenance.

General Classroom Teaching Behavior

The general classroom teacher is one of the key elements in successful mainstreaming (Aloia & Aloia, 1983; Hawkins-Shepard, 1979; MacMillan, Jones, & Meyers, 1976; Mandell & Strain, 1978; Marsh & Price, 1980; Reed, 1983; Schifiani, Anderson, & Odle, 1980; Yoshida, Fenton, Maxwell, & Kaufman, 1978). The success, or lack thereof, of the special education student within the general classroom will hinge upon the teacher's ability to meet that particular student's learning needs. This is particularly true at the secondary level, where a special education student could have as many as eight different general classroom teachers within a single semester. Despite this critical role, research evidence tends to show that general classroom teachers are opposed to mainstreaming (Baker & Gottlieb, 1980; Bender, 1985; Gickling & Theobold, 1975; Hudson, Graham, & Warner, 1979; Larrivee & Cook, 1979; McEvoy, Nordquist, & Cunningham, 1984; Stephens & Braun, 1980) and do not feel equipped to deal with children with disabilities in their classrooms (Birch, 1974; Bird & Gansneder, 1979; Flynn, Gacka, & Sundean, 1978; Gickling & Theobold, 1975; Gillung & Rucker, 1976; Jones et al., 1978; Martin, 1974; Post & Roy, 1985; Ringlaben & Price, 1981; Ryor, 1978; Shepard, 1987). In fact, Post and Roy (1985) found in a survey of Wisconsin secondary general teachers that 58% felt special education students would be better served if educated solely in special classes by special education teachers who were prepared to meet their learning needs. This has resulted overall, in a multitude of referrals to special education and, according to Shepard (1987), a collusion

between regular and special education teachers "to relieve regular teachers of responsibilities for teaching children functioning at the bottom of their class" (p. 328).

These feelings of inadequacy and fear secondary educators have expressed are due, in large part, to their lack of education about, and experience with, the disabled (Chambers, 1983; Fender, 1981; Harasymiw & Horne, 1976; Kraft, 1973; Payne & Murray, 1974; Proctor, 1967; Reed, 1983; Yates, 1973). Goodman and Miller (1980) found in a 3-year study of mainstreaming in the Philadelphia schools that "teachers felt handicapped students should be mainstreamed but that their willingness to accept handicapped pupils in their classrooms was dependent upon their acquisition of the skills to teach these students" (p. 49). General classroom teachers are rarely prepared in instructional and management strategies proven effective with mildly disabled students. In fact, teachers are taught to refer problem students to special education rather than attempting to remediate the difficulties themselves through the acquisition of effective teaching strategies (Shepard, 1987).

The need to cultivate and maintain these strategies was addressed in P.L. 94-142 Final Regulations (1977), in which each state was required to insure that "ongoing inservice training programs are available to all personnel who are engaged in the education of disabled children and that these programs include the use of incentives which insure participation by teachers" (121 a. 382[e]). Inservice training

should provide a supportive framework, assisting general classroom teachers in:

1. coping with motivation and behavior problems, including attention-seeking behavior, passive refusal, and performance variability;

2. adjusting unrealistic expectations to better fit the abilities and needs of each student;

3. demystifying the process of special education.

Many general teachers feel that they must acquire an entirely new portfolio of teaching strategies in order to effectively instruct mildly handicapped students. Inservice opportunities overall should stress the similarities between general and special education, showing general classroom teachers that much of what they already know can be easily adapted and utilized in the effective instruction of special education students (Evans, 1990). Meaningful inservice opportunities, while reinforcing critical teaching skills, can also positively affect teachers' attitudes toward mainstreaming and success expectations of students with disabilities (Bender, 1985; Clark, 1976; Frith & Edwards, 1982).

Despite the legal mandate for ongoing inservice opportunities for educators, limited progress has been made in providing quality preparation for secondary school personnel in the education of disabled students (Mandell & Strain, 1978; Rauth, 1981; Reed, 1983; Ryor, 1978). Much of the difficulty inherent in the provision of quality inservice to secondary educators is found in the lack of research available

pertaining to the competencies secondary mainstream classroom teachers should possess in order to effectively instruct students with disabilities (Marsh & Price, 1980). Monaco and Chiappetta (1978), through the use of a three-round procedure, requested the 50 state directors of special education to identify the skills and knowledge all mainstream teachers should possess to work within integrated classrooms. Eleven competencies were ultimately identified and ranked in order of importance:

1. Individualizes instruction;
2. Comprehends the abilities of handicapped and exceptional children;
3. Evaluates and diagnoses students' abilities and progress;
4. Provides a humanly supportive environment;
5. Uses behavioral management strategies;
6. Works cooperatively with adults in the school setting;
7. Utilizes the psychology of learning in instruction;
8. Evaluates the utility of various instructional strategies;
9. Interprets task analyses;
10. Evaluates the appropriateness of resources for programmatic use;
11. Promotes the mainstreaming concept. (p. 61)

The authors stated further that competencies one through three were considered by the state directors to be of more importance in successful integration. "In a sense, competencies ranked one through three specify the ability to understand, instruct, monitor, and evaluate the progress of handicapped and regular students" (Monaco & Chiappetta, 1978, p. 62). Several other studies support the importance of these three competencies (Crisci, 1981; Fender, 1981; Geren, 1979; Larrivee, 1985; Larrivee & Vacca, 1982; Lilly, 1982; Mandell & Strain, 1978; Payne & Murray, 1974; Redden & Blackhurst, 1978). This is not to suggest that the remaining eight competencies are of minimal importance--they are simply of a more

generic nature and should already be within every classroom teacher's general teaching skill repertoire.

> The research results indicate that the mildly handicapped child can be accommodated by teaching practices that are beneficial to the class as a whole, since teaching strategies that meet the needs of mainstreamed students are also likely to be effective practices for the majority of students. (Larrivee, 1989, p. 303)

Attainment of these three critical competencies provides general teachers with the necessary skills to assist in the development and implementation of individualized education programs (IEPs), an essential component within each special education student's education (Danielson, Fenton, Morra, Morrissey, & Kennedy, 1979; Hasazi, 1977; Knight, Meyers, Hasazi, Paolucci-Whitcomb, & Nevin, 1981; Miller & Sabatino, 1978; Safer, Kaufman, & Morrissey, 1979; Zinck, 1980). P.L. 94-142 requires that the IEP be

> developed in any meeting by a representative of the local educational agency or an intermediate educational unit who shall be qualified to provide, or supervise the provision of, specially designed instruction to meet the unique needs of handicapped children, the teacher, the parents or guardian of such child, and whenever appropriate, such child. (Sec. 4[a] [4] [19])

Despite this federal requirement for teacher participation, schools too often succumb to time restraints and scheduling difficulties by utilizing such a multidisciplinary team for only placement decisions, fulfilling the minimum legal requirement of P.L. 94-142 (Kabler & Carlton, 1982). General classroom teachers are rarely actively involved in IEP development (Goldstein, Strickland, Turnbull, & Curry, 1980; Marver & David, 1978; Nevin et al., 1983; Pugach, 1982; Rucker & Vautour, 1978). This is particularly true at the secondary level, where the number of teachers who would be involved increases substantially

(Hayes & Higgins, 1978). "All too often it is the specialist who is involved in planning a child's IEP, and not the classroom teacher who spends most of the day with the child" (Ryor, 1978, p. 10). Nevin et al. (1983) documented this lack of involvement in a two-part study in which 100 IEPs were reviewed for their contents and 59 general K-6 teachers were surveyed for their involvement in IEP development and implementation. Although 74% of the general teachers had at least one special education student in their classroom, only 34% had participated in the planning of the IEP for the student. This involvement dropped even further to 19% for the annual review of that IEP. In fact, only 17% of the general teachers responsible for the instruction of special education students even had a copy of the IEP.

This lack of involvement is compounded at the secondary level, where a multidisciplinary team for one student would consist of five to eight general teachers alone. Just the scheduling of one meeting would be almost impossible. These scheduling difficulties and time constraints do not reduce, however, the critical need for secondary general classroom teacher involvement in the team, but it may change the form of the team at meetings. The Federal Office of Special Education has recognized this as a problem and has recommended that periodic conferences be held between the special educator and those general teachers who could not attend the multidisciplinary team meeting (Federal Register, 1981). This would allow each general teacher input into decisions made concerning the student, which is critical as they will be the ultimate provider of the instruction that disabled students

will receive. "It is unlikely that coordinated instructional planning will be achieved without the presence of the classroom teacher at the IEP meeting" (Pugach, 1982, p. 374).

The essential function of an IEP is to map out an individualized educational course of study based upon each student's needs and abilities. The IEP will reflect any modifications being made within the general classroom(s) to accommodate each student, such as modifications in instructional level, content and materials, format of directions and assignments, test administration, and grading (Munson, 1987). The entire concept of mainstreaming is predicated on accommodation and it was assumed that general teachers would be more than willing to modify their classroom environment to meet the needs of mainstreamed students with disabilities (Semmel, Gottlieb, & Robinson, 1979; Turnbull & Turnbull, 1978). In reality, however, accommodation occurs infrequently at best. In fact, general classroom teachers are often reluctant to make any modifications in their class for disabled students (Horne, 1983). Ammer (1984) found in a survey of 70 elementary and secondary general classroom teachers that 50% provided no accommodations for special learners. At the secondary level, Zigmond, Levin, and Laurie (1985) interviewed 24 general classroom teachers and found that 96% provided no instructional modifications and 71% did not modify assignments or tests. In their review of 100 IEPs, Nevin et al. (1983) found that only 24% contained general classroom modifications even though all the IEPs were for mainstreamed students.

There have been numerous reasons postulated for this lack of accommodation on the part of general classroom teachers. Munson (1987) categorized these into two groups--administrative and teacher-related. The administrative category included class size, lack of release time for preparation, and limited quality inservice opportunities. "Teachers with more students in their classes reported fewer modifications. In these classes, the demand on teacher time may have decreased the likelihood that special modifications were made" (Munson, 1987, p. 498). Addressed as major concerns by the National Education Association and the American Federation of Teachers, both advocated reducing the number of nondisabled students within a general classroom for each mainstreamed student and providing release time for the purpose of preparing classroom accommodations (Rauth, 1981).

The second category, teacher-related, included teacher preparation and willingness to mainstream. Halpern and Benz (1987) labeled these as the fundamental problem to effective mainstreaming at the secondary level. "Regular teachers do not have the skills to modify their instructional procedures to accommodate students with disabilities and regular teachers do not want to teach students with disabilities" (p. 128). The operational assumption of accommodation is that each student's learning experience will be individualized providing the best fit for that particular student's needs and abilities. Individualization requires teachers to teach the whole student rather than strictly imparting a specific discipline to an entire class, a notion that is relatively foreign to the majority of secondary educators. For many,

attempting accommodation within their subject area(s) has caused such a dilution of the curricular content that, in their opinion, the quality of instruction has been severely compromised for all students. Therefore, secondary educators often resist mainstreaming in an effort to preserve what they believe is the integrity of their discipline area (Evans, 1990). Effective inservice training programs based upon general teachers' needs expressed in specific competencies would assist general teachers in developing the necessary skills to individualize (Halpern & Benz, 1987; Maher, 1982; Munson, 1987). Active involvement in planning and accommodation may also help to increase general classroom teacher commitment to the successful integration of students with disabilities, thereby diminishing curriculum integrity concerns (Pugach, 1982).

Special Education Teaching Behavior

Special education teachers are not a new addition to public schools; however, their role has substantially changed with the advent of mainstreaming. Prior to P.L. 94-142 and subsequent mainstreaming, special education faculty functioned in a pull-out capacity where they had complete responsibility for the instruction of students with disabilities. The implementation of the resource room, central to the mainstreaming concept, required extensive modifications to the role of special education teachers in order to best facilitate the integration of the disabled (Childs, 1979; Evans, 1981; Gickling et al., 1979; Jenkins & Mayhall, 1976; Larsen, 1976; MacMillan et al., 1976; Mandell & Strain, 1978; Wiederholt et al., 1983). These modifications have caused

confusion within the educational field as to the true function resource personnel should play within the schools.

A great deal of research has been conducted into what the role of special educators should be according to administrators, general and special educators, and parents (D'Alonzo & Wiseman, 1978; Dodd & Kelker, 1980; Evans, 1980; Evans, 1981; Gickling et al., 1979; Huefner, 1988; Sargent, 1981; Speece & Mandell, 1980; Wiederholt & Chamberlain, 1989; Wiederholt et al., 1983). A review of these studies showed that these four groups generally agreed that the desired role for resource teachers should include responsibility for diagnosis, instruction, continuing evaluation, and consultation of mildly disabled students. In order to meet these responsibilities, special education teachers are prepared in the use of such approaches as direct instruction, behavior management, consultation, peer tutoring, cooperative learning, and cognitive learning strategies (Pugach, 1987). In actual practice, however, "direct instruction with students consumes the majority of the resource teacher's time" (Wiederholt et al., 1981, p. 45).

Just what constitutes direct instruction is dependent upon the philosophy of the individual resource program and its personnel. Some resource programs focus their direct instruction on remedial programming. This remedial focus is used primarily at the elementary level due to its exclusive focus on the remediation of basic skills. However, there are those at the secondary level who feel that this is the only approach of merit to use with students because "achievement in basic skills is so essential that intensification of remedial efforts

can be justified even if no support is provided to students with their mainstream classes" (Marsh & Price, 1980, p. 233). This philosophy generally proves faulty because without support the student usually is not successful in mainstream classes. This diminishes the value of integration and ultimately may put the student in jeopardy of not graduating, the goal with most relevance for secondary students.

The focus of direct instruction could be toward vocational programming, particularly at the secondary level. Special educators realized that vocational guidance and preparation were essential to a special education student's future, and to some, this became the sole objective of their secondary resource program. Unfortunately, the narrow focus of this type of direct instruction often leads to employment in low-level, dead-end jobs and leaves the student academically unprepared to retrain for a new position, substantially limiting future opportunities.

In an attempt to deal with weaknesses inherent in an exclusive focus on remedial or vocational direct instruction, some resource programs combine these foci, adding a vigorous accentuation on accommodation. Direct instruction of this nature, called either bivalent or compensatory programming, is of great benefit to secondary students with disabilities.

> The immediate needs of the student are accounted for, making resource room assistance of greater value to the student; retention in school can become an attainable goal; assistance is provided to the mainstream teacher that fully exercises the consulting role of the specialist; and long-term benefits can be derived after months and years of interaction with mainstream teachers, leading to more substantial changes in attitudinal development and instruction. (Marsh & Price, 1980, pp. 251-253)

A focus of this kind is very time consuming for the resource teacher due to the amount of planning and preparation needed to facilitate each student's integration into general classes. The most crucial element to the success of this type of programming is the utilization of accommodation within the mainstream, combined with the flexibility of the organization to individualize according to each student's learning needs. Without these critical components from the mainstream, accommodation becomes the sole responsibility of the resource teacher, who must ultimately resort to delivering tutoring services. As resource teachers are rarely required to have general education preparation and secondary content demands are so rigorous and diverse, the accommodation provided solely by resource teachers can be woefully inadequate (Pugach, 1987; Tindal et al., 1987). In order to offer a full range of instructional benefits most effectively at the secondary level, it becomes necessary to develop a unified team of educators and support staff. "This will involve transformations in the work of special education staff, giving increased emphasis to highly intensive, but not necessarily different kinds of instruction and more consultative functions" (Reynolds, 1989, p. 9).

Consultation is considered to be the most needed but least available responsibility of resource teachers. "Repeatedly parents, classroom and resource teachers, and administrators conclude that the consulting activities in the resource program should be expanded" (Wiederholt et al., 1981, p. 45). The consultation role enhances the degree of staff interaction, an essential component in determining

effective school environments for disabled as well as nondisabled students. According to Little (1982), four types of interaction serve as a foundation for effective instruction: (a) discussions concerning classroom practice, (b) reciprocal observations, (c) cooperative curriculum design and preparation, and (d) shared responsibilities for instructional improvement. Unfortunately, these interactions between general and special educators are not a naturally occurring phenomenon due to the historical separation between the two fields. This separation is further exacerbated by teachers' tendencies toward isolationism, which greatly lessen the opportunities for communication.

The benefit of good communication between general and special educators was the topic of a study conducted by Singleton (as cited in Hauptman, 1983), in which two faculties were assisted by special education personnel. One faculty received this assistance in the form of a series of inservices on special education. Through these inservices, specific teaching techniques were discusssed, along with the provision of information relating to mainstreaming and classroom management. The second faculty received direct assistance and communicated regularly with the special education staff. The direct assistance provided to this faculty consisted of demonstrations of appropriate teaching techniques and classroom management, combined with assistance in the modification of programs and materials. Singleton found that the direct assistance group demonstrated significant differences in attitudes toward exceptional students, while the other faculty showed no significant change from those attitudes expressed

before the series of workshops. Conducting research along a similar line, Wixson (1980) found that a resource teacher, by providing both direct and indirect assistance, can assure a higher percentage of successful integration experiences.

While not unique at the elementary level, this concept of interdependency and mutual support of teachers is an idea quite foreign to secondary education. Secondary teachers instruct a specific discipline and rarely have the need or opportunity to interact with other secondary teachers of differing disciplines. In addition, secondary teachers are seldom prepared to function as a member of an educational team (Hauptman, 1983). Yet, critical to the success of special education at the secondary level is the willingness of secondary personnel, both general and special educators, to work closely together in the design and implementation of educational programs for special education students (Harris & Mahar, 1975; Jenkins & Mayhall, 1976; Johnson & Johnson, 1980; Jones et al., 1978; Larsen, 1975; Martin, 1974; Shotel, Iano, & McGettigan, 1972).

Even though inherent in P.L. 94-142, this interaction rarely occurs in actual practice due primarily to the lack of allotted time and lack of preparation in consultation skills (Little, 1977; Newcomer, 1977; Parker, 1975; Pryzwansky, 1977; Will, 1986). This is counterproductive because emphasis on consultation will increase the effectiveness of the special educator in several ways. Continued interaction with general teachers allows the special educator to view and plan for each child's disability in the totality of the school environment rather than in the

isolation of the resource room, where certain behaviors may not surface due to the small group situation. This encourages greater articulation of instruction and management techniques, which provides the continuity special education students require for success (Newcomer, 1977). A "ripple effect" also occurs from this articulation between special and general educators. As the general educator learns adaptive teaching techniques and utilizes them in the general classroom, other students besides the special education student will benefit (Montgomery, 1978). This allows the special educator to have an effect far beyond the confines of the resource classroom and provides the general educator with the means to independently deal with learning difficulties he/she previously felt unable to remediate. Education of the whole child then becomes a cooperative venture of shared responsibilities which is in the true spirit of P.L. 94-142.

Summary

Chapter II has presented a review of the literature related to the present study. The areas investigated included: background information relating to special education legislation; specifics regarding the history of Iowa special education; characteristics of special education programming; effective schools, program components, and school restructuring; and, effective special education programming. A description of procedures, data collection, and instruments is the topic of Chapter III.

CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

At the secondary level, development of a strong collaborative relationship between a triad of administrators, general and special education teachers has proven to be critical in the provision of an appropriate education for students with disabilities. This study focused exclusively on selected effective secondary special education programs in Iowa and the interactions of this triad in order to determine common administrative and instructional practices. Chapter III presents the methods and procedures followed in collecting the data for this study.

Population

The population for this study was all Iowa public secondary special education programs located within 6 of the 15 Area Education Agency (AEA) regions. The state of Iowa is divided into 15 districts or areas, each of which is represented by an Area Education Agency (see Appendix B). These agencies are responsible for coordinating and delivering various educational services to the schools found within each of its areas. These six AEA regions--AEA 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 7--included 140 secondary schools with in-house special education programs.

The sample size was determined by identifying a proportionate number of schools from each of the six AEAs, as illustrated in Table 1. These 12 schools were selected from a listing generated by the six AEA Directors of Special Education. The provision of special education

Table 1

Sample Distribution

AEA #	Number of Schools with Programs	Percentage of Population	Number of Schools/Sample
1	26	19%	2
2	27	19	2
3	14	10	1
4	17	12	2
5	25	18	2
7	31	22	3
Totals	140	100%	12

support services is a major responsibility of Iowa AEAs and each employs a Director of Special Education to coordinate these activities. Because of the role these Directors play in the provision of special education services and their familiarity with the schools within their respective AEAs, they were asked to generate a listing of effective secondary special education programs. The Directors of Special Education for AEA 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, and 7 were sent a letter (see Appendix C) requesting their assistance in selecting five secondary schools having in-house special education programs, which implement not only the letter of P.L. 94-142 but the spirit of that legislation as well. A telephone follow-up was initiated after two weeks for nonrespondent AEA Directors of Special Education to insure a listing of 30 schools.

Upon receiving the listing from each of the six Directors, a proportional random sample was drawn for each of the six AEAs. The principals for each of these 12 schools were sent a letter informing them of their school's selection and asking for their cooperation and participation in this study (see Appendix D). A telephone follow-up was initiated after two weeks for nonrespondent principals to insure a listing of 12 schools. If a school declined to participate, another school from the remaining schools in that area was selected and notified in a similar manner. AEA 4 ultimately had only one school from the listing of five agree to participate. This reduced the actual study participants to 11 schools, as illustrated in Table 2.

Table 2

Study Participants

AEA #	Number of Schools
1	2
2	2
3	1
4	1
5	2
7	3
Total	11

Instruments

The data for this study were obtained through the use of a survey instrument and an interview.

Special Education Practices Survey

The survey instrument, Special Education Practices Survey (see Appendix E) was administered to the entire faculty (with the exception of media personnel) and administration from each of the 11 secondary schools selected to participate in the study. The instrument was composed of three sections. Section I included five statements (Items A-E) related to demographic information about the individual completing the survey. Section II (Item F) was the Stages of Concern Questionnaire (SoCQ) (Hall et al., 1986), which assesses seven different stages of concern about a particular innovation:

Stage	0	Awareness
	1	Informational
	2	Personal
	3	Management
	4	Consequence
	5	Collaboration
	6	Refocusing

Nonusers of an innovation will have mainly Stages 0, 1, and 2 concerns. As an individual begins to use the innovation he/she will have mostly Stage 3 concerns. With increased experience the individual will show mainly Stage 4, 5, and 6 concerns (Rutherford & George, 1978). A reliability range of .64 to .83 has been reported for the SoCQ.

Validity, according to Hall et al. (1986), was more difficult to establish due to a lack of other instruments measuring concerns. A series of studies were conducted "which provided increased confidence that the SoC Questionnaire measures the hypothesized Stages of Concern" (p. 20). The 35 statements in Section II each expressed a certain concern about special education (see Appendix F). Respondents indicated the degree to which each concern was true of them by marking a number next to each statement on a 0 to 7 scale. High numbers indicated high concern, low numbers low concern, and 0 was indicative of very low concern or completely irrelevant items.

Section III (Item G) required each individual to rate, according to a 4-point Likert-type scale, 35 statements that described school characteristics, based upon how each individual perceived his/her own school environment. These statements were adapted from a review of school characteristics reported by Kish (1980) and statements found in the Guide for Evaluation (1979).

Administrator Interview Format

The administrator of the school was interviewed using an Administrator Interview Format (see Appendix G). The interview contained 28 questions grouped into 5 sections:

1. Program structure and philosophy;
2. Parental involvement;
3. General classroom teacher involvement;
4. Special education support staff involvement;
5. Student impact.

This interview form was researcher designed through a review of the literature (Kish, 1980; Roth, 1986).

Pilot Test

A pilot test of the two instruments was conducted utilizing a north central Iowa high school containing a student population of 475 students, grades 9-12. The test population consisted of 37 teachers, 3 administrators, and 2 counselors. The test was conducted following the same procedures used in the actual study. Corrections and/or revisions suggested from the results of this pilot test were made prior to the actual study.

Procedures

After determining the study participants and conducting the pilot testing of the two instruments, the principals of the 11 selected schools were contacted by telephone to establish a visitation date. Eight visitations were conducted during February, two during March, and the final visitation was conducted during April.

Approximately 10 days before the scheduled visitation, the principal was sent a copy of the Administrator Interview Format under a cover letter (see Appendix H). He/she was requested to review the questions, jotting down necessary information in preparation for the actual interview during the visitation. At the same time, enough copies of the Special Education Practices Survey were sent for the principal to administer to the entire high school staff with the exception of media personnel.

Upon arrival at each school for the scheduled visitation, the researcher met with the administrator and toured the school building. During this tour both general and special education classrooms were visited. Following completion of the building tour, the administrator was interviewed. The interview was taped and followed the format in the Administrator Interview Format which was sent to the administrator in advance. Completed surveys were picked up from the administrator at the end of the interview. A stamped self-addressed manilla envelope was left for the administrator's use in returning surveys completed at a later date. One week following the visitation, a letter of appreciation (see Appendix I) was sent to the principal, thanking him/her for the cooperation and assistance in gathering information for this study.

Data Analysis

Each participating school was assigned a letter A-K to be used as identifiers in order to keep the anominity of each school. When the surveys were returned, they were numbered consecutively by school e.g. A1-A20; B1-B30. The interview tapes were transcribed in order to provide a written narrative of each administrator's interview.

The Special Education Practices Survey was analyzed by sections. The data obtained in Sections I (Items A-E) and III (Item G) were entered into a computer database using Microsoft Works 1.0. The mean, standard deviation, and variance were determined for each question within Section III (Item G: Questions 36-70) for two categories:

1. All respondents;

2. All respondents by position (e.g. administrator, counselor, general classroom teacher, special education teacher).

The questions contained within Section III (Item G) and their respective data were then grouped according to their applicable program characteristic, as illustrated in Appendix J. The mean, standard deviation, and variance were then determined for each characteristic for the same two categories.

The data obtained in Section II (Item F: Questions 1-35) of the Special Education Practices Survey were hand-scored utilizing the SoCQ Quick Scoring Device (see Appendix K) to determine for each respondent: (a) total raw scale scores for Stages 0-6, (b) percentile scores for Stages 0-6, and, (c) an SoC profile. The following steps were used to complete a Scoring Device for each survey:

1. In the box labeled A, the observation date and identification number were written.

2. The numerical values of the responses to questions 1-18 were written down the left margin of the Device. The numerical values of the responses to questions 19-35 were written down the right margin.

3. In the box labeled B each of the 35 SoCQ responses entered in the margins were transcribed to the corresponding numbered blanks. Note that the numbered blanks in B are not in consecutive order.

4. Box C contains the Raw Scale Score Total for each Stage 0-6. Each of the columns in B were added and the sum for each column was entered in the appropriate blank in C.

5. Table D contains the percentile scores for each Stage of Concern. The Raw Scale Score Total for each Stage from Box C was located in the left-hand column in D. Then the corresponding percentile ranking located to the right was circled for each Stage.

6. The circled percentile scores for each Stage from Table D was transcribed to Box E.

7. Box F contains the SoC graph. The percentile scores in E were plotted on the graph to form the SoC profile.

After completing the scoring of each respondent's SoC profile, combined profiles were determined for all respondents by position. The combined profiles were determined by first sorting individual Scoring Devices into their respective categories. The raw scores found in Box C were then totaled for each category, converted into percentile scores, and those percentile scores were then plotted into a combined SoC profile for each category. The SoC profiles were interpreted using the rules and guidelines outlined in A Manual for Use of the SoC Questionnaire (Hall et al., 1986).

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

Since the passage of P.L. 94-142 in 1975, a great deal of research has been conducted related to special education and its implications for the elementary school program and personnel. In contrast, very little research has focused on implications at the secondary level. This study focused specifically on the administrative and instructional practices found in identified-effective secondary special education programs in Iowa. Chapter IV provides demographic information on the participating schools and presents the data obtained by program characteristic and research questions in order to facilitate in its interpretation.

Demographic Information

The study included 11 public secondary schools with in-house special education programs identified as effective by their respective AEA Directors of Special Education. These schools were located in 11 Iowa school districts, ranging in student size from 476 to 10,000. The individual secondary school student population ranged from 225 students to 1,500 students.

The 59% return (N = 354) on the Special Education Practices Survey consisted of 3% administrators, 5% counselors, 14% special education teachers, and 78% general classroom teachers. The percentage of respondents to total number of certified staff in the participating schools is reported in Table 3.

Table 3

Actual Respondents/Total Certified Staff--Survey Return

Position	Total Number of Certified Staff	Total Number in Survey	% Respondents to Number of Staff
Administrators	24	12	50%
Counselors	25	16	64%
General Classroom Teachers	483	275	57%
Special Education Teachers			
Resource	22	19	86%
Self-Contained	41	32	78%
Totals	595	354	59%

More than half of the general classroom teacher respondents (53%) taught grades 9-12; 14%, grades 10-12; 9%, grades 11-12; and 7% taught grades 9-10. The remaining 17% taught various mixtures of grades 9 through 12. The subject area concentrations of the general classroom teacher respondents are identified in Table 4.

Table 4

General Classroom Teacher Respondents by Subject Area Concentration

Subject	Number of Respondents	Percent of Total
Art	11	4%
Business Education	19	7
Driver's Education	6	2
Foreign Language	17	6

(table continues)

Subject	Number of Respondents	Percent of Total
Home Economics	17	6%
Industrial Technology/Agriculture	20	7
Language Arts	41	15
Mathematics/Computer	47	5
Music	14	7
Physical Education/Health	19	7
Science	29	11
Social Studies/Economics	35	13

The number of credit hours of special education coursework taken by respondents other than special education staff is reported in Table 5. Overall, 45% of these respondents stated that they had taken no credit hours in the education of children with disabilities, 41% had taken between 2-6 hours, 10%, 7-10 hours, and 3% had taken over 10 credit hours in special education coursework.

Twelve of the 51 special education teacher respondents (24%) had taken secondary general college coursework either as an undergraduate or a graduate student. Eighteen of the 51 special education teacher respondents (35%) had had secondary general teaching experience at some time during their career. The remaining 21 special education teacher respondents (41%) had no secondary general experience--neither secondary general college coursework nor secondary general teaching experience. Individual demographic information for each participating school can be found in Appendix L.

Table 5

Special Education Preparation of Respondents Other than Special Education Staff

Position	Credit Hours Taken in Special Education							
	None		2-6		7-10		Over 10	
Administrators	4	(33%)	7	(58%)	1	(8%)	0	(0%)
Counselors	3	(19%)	3	(19%)	4	(25%)	6	(38%)
General Teachers	130	(47%)	115	(42%)	26	(9%)	4	(1%)
Totals	137	(45%)	125	(41%)	31	(10%)	10	(3%)

Survey and Interview Data

The data were obtained through the use of a survey instrument and administrator interviews. Survey statements 1-35 were the Stages of Concern Questionnaire (SoCQ) (Hall et al., 1986), which assesses seven different stages of concern about a particular innovation:

Stage 0 Awareness

Stage 1 Informational

Stage 2 Personal

Stage 3 Management

Stage 4 Consequence

Stage 5 Collaboration

Stage 6 Refocusing

The 35 statements each expressed a certain concern about special education. Respondents indicated the degree to which each concern was true of them by marking a number next to each statement on a 0

(irrelevant) to 7 (very high concern) scale. An SoC profile was then determined for administrators, general classroom teachers, and special education teachers.

The interpretation of the SoC profile centered on what stages were high and low for each group of respondents and how these stage scores interacted with each other.

> The stage scores are directly related to the stage definitions with the relative intensity of concern being indicated by the percentile score. The higher the score, the more intense the concerns at that stage. The lower the score, the less intense the concerns at that stage. Higher and lower are not absolute, however, but relative to the other stage scores for that individual. (Hall et al., 1986, p. 31)

The significance of a high and a low score for each stage is reported in Table 6.

Survey statements 36-70 required each individual to rate, according to a 4-point Likert-type scale, statements that described aspects of secondary schools, based upon how each individual perceived his/her own school environment. The mean, standard deviation, and variance were determined for each of these survey statements for five groups: (a) total respondents, (b) administrators, (c) counselors, (d) general classroom teachers, and (e) special education teachers. The following scale was utilized for interpretation purposes for Statements 36-70:

Mean Score	Interpreted Rate of Occurrence
2.51-3.00	Very high frequency
2.01-2.50	High frequency

(scale continues)

Table 6

Stages of Concern Questionnaire: Percentile Stage Score High/Low Interpretation

Stage	% Score	Interpretation
Stage 0 (Awareness)	High:	Have more concern about things not related to special education.
	Low :	Suggest intense involvement with special education.
Stage 1 (Informational)	High:	Want more information about special education.
	Low :	Feel that they already know enough about special education.
Stage 2 (Personal)	High:	Have intense personal concerns about special education and its personal consequences.
	Low :	Feel no personal threat in relation to special education.
Stage 3 (Management)	High:	Have logistics, time, and management concerns about special education.
	Low :	Have minimal to no concerns about managing special education.
Stage 4 (Consequence)	High:	Have concerns about the student consequences of special education.
	Low :	Have minimal to no concerns about the relationship of students to the use of special education.
Stage 5 (Collaboration)	High:	Have concerns about working with others in relation to special education implementation.
	Low :	Have minimal to no concerns about developing a collaborative effort in relation to special education.
Stage 6 (Refocusing)	High:	Have ideas about how to improve, modify, or replace special education.
	Low :	Have no ideas that would be potentially competitive with the current method of implementing special education.

Mean Score	Interpreted Rate of Occurrence
1.51-2.00	Medium frequency
1.01-1.50	Less than medium frequency
0.51-1.00	Low frequency
0-0.50	Very low frequency

Three characteristics were analyzed for this study--Facilitative Leadership, General Classroom Teaching Behavior, and Special Education Teaching Behavior. Survey responses to questions 36-70 were grouped according to their applicable program characteristic (see Appendix J) and the mean, standard deviation, and variance were determined for each characteristic for all respondents and for all respondents by position. The data are presented by characteristic and research question, with summary sections following each research question and characteristic.

Facilitative Leadership

Research Question 1. To what extent was the secondary administration cognizant of characteristics of mildly disabled students and the identification and placement processes utilized in the district?

On the survey, two statements pertained to research question one--numbers 36 and 37. The mean, standard deviation, and variance of the responses made to those two statements by the five groups are reported in Table 7. The mean scores of both of these statements indicated that the administrator was usually quite knowledgable about the characteristics of students with disabilities and the referral process, demonstrating a greater understanding of the referral process. These survey results were reinforced by interview statements in which

Table 7

Special Education Practices Survey Responses, Facilitative Leadership: Research Question 1

Statement	Total Respondents	Administrators	Counselors	General Classroom Teachers	Special Education Teachers	
36. The principal is knowledgeable about the characteristics of students with disabilities.	2.24 .65 .43	2.42 .49 .24	2.56 .61 .37	2.20 .64 .41	2.28 .72 .52	Mean STD VAR
37. The principal is aware of and understands the referral process.	2.53 .61 .37	2.67 .47 .22	2.63 .60 .36	2.52 .60 .36	2.49 .67 .45	Mean STD VAR

two administrators felt that their skills and knowledge in this area were very good. One administrator stated, "We are really good at diagnosis; the difficulty arises with where to go from that point." The remaining nine administrators stated that their skills in this area were limited but developing gradually. One administrator, actively involved in the development of an at-risk program within his school stated, "My competence has greatly increased within the past year due to the development of our teacher assistance teams." Another stated, "I'm

good at the identification of learning and behavior difficulties but often have great problems distinquishing between that and motivation."

The majority of these administrators (58%) responded that they had had 2-6 credit hours in special education, lending support to the concept that administrators frequently are knowledgable about the characteristics of disabled students. Ninety-one percent of the administrators interviewed stated they attended all staffings within their buildings. This supported the higher mean scores concerning administrators' awareness and knowledge of the referral process.

In summary, the respondents generally believed their administrators were usually quite cognizant of the characteristics of mildly disabled students and the referral/placement process, demonstrating a greater understanding of the referral process. The administrators rated themselves higher in both areas, which was supported by their reported coursework in special education and their participation in staffing activities.

Research Question 2. What administrative actions that encourage and support the implementation of special education occurred within the secondary school?

On the survey, 17 statements pertained to research question two--numbers 38-47, 53, 54, 58, 59, 61, 69, and 70. The mean, standard deviation, and variance of the responses to those statements by the five groups are reported in Table 8.

The mean scores of statements pertaining to administrative actions concerning pupils (Statements 38-42, 53) indicated these actions, for

Table 8

Special Education Practices Survey Responses, Facilitative Leadership: Research Question 2

Statement	Total Respondents	Administrators	Counselors	General Classroom Teachers	Special Education Teachers	
38. Special education students tend to be grouped together throughout the school day.	1.56 .68 .47	1.42 .64 .41	1.38 .70 .48	1.55 .69 .47	1.72 .63 .40	Mean STD VAR
39. Discipline procedures for dealing with disruptive special education students are adequate.	1.67 .76 .58	1.83 .69 .47	1.88 .60 .36	1.62 .76 .57	1.82 .80 .64	Mean STD VAR
40. The principal participates in the staffings of special education students.	2.20 .75 .57	2.17 .80 .64	2.53 .81 .65	2.22 .71 .50	2.02 .87 .75	Mean STD VAR
41. Scheduling of special education students is a cooperative venture between student, parent(s), counselor, teachers and, administrator.	2.16 .88 .77	2.75 .43 .19	2.25 .75 .56	2.13 .89 .80	2.15 .87 .77	Mean STD VAR
42. The schedule of a special education student is designed around his/her IEP.	2.32 .75 .56	2.67 .47 .22	2.71 .45 .20	2.23 .74 .54	2.43 .83 .69	Mean STD VAR
43. The administration encourages a team concept in educating special education students.	2.14 .79 .63	2.67 .47 .22	2.56 .61 .37	2.06 .80 .64	2.22 .79 .62	Mean STD VAR

(table continues)

Statement	Total Respondents	Administrators	Counselors	General Classroom Teachers	Special Education Teachers	
44. Appropriate sources of information on special education are available within the school.	1.97 .78 .61	2.17 .80 .64	2.19 .63 .40	1.93 .77 .60	2.02 .84 .70	Mean STD VAR
45. Parents of special education students are actively involved in the educational process.	1.80 .77 .60	2.17 .69 .47	2.25 .66 .44	1.72 .76 .58	1.92 .77 .59	Mean STD VAR
46. The physical environment of special education classrooms is not suitable to meet the needs of special education students.	.85 .77 .59	.50 .50 .25	.81 .88 .78	.83 .77 .60	1.00 .71 .50	Mean STD VAR
47. Funds are available to purchase special materials for use with special education students.	1.96 .80 .64	1.83 .55 .31	2.13 .88 .78	1.99 .81 .66	1.81 .76 .58	Mean STD VAR
53. Support is provided for the special education student both in and outside the general classroom.	1.90 .68 .47	1.92 .49 .24	1.94 .56 .31	1.90 .68 .47	1.86 .76 .57	Mean STD VAR
54. Inservice opportunities are provided by the school to help teachers and administrators become more knowledgeable about the characteristics of students with disabilities.	1.23 .74 .54	1.58 .64 .41	1.44 .61 .37	1.20 .74 .55	1.25 .75 .56	Mean STD VAR

(table continues)

Statement	Total Respondents	Administrators	Counselors	General Classroom Teachers	Special Education Teachers	
58. General class loads are reduced with the addition of mainstreamed students.	.33 .61 .37	.75 .60 .35	.67 .70 .49	.29 .61 .37	.33 .52 .27	Mean STD VAR
59. The administration encourages teachers to take coursework in the area of educating students with disabilities and other at-risk students.	.88 .75 .56	1.25 .43 .19	1.25 .75 .56	.82 .76 .57	1.00 .67 .44	Mean STD VAR
61. Release time is provided to facilitate consultation between special and general educators.	.35 .59 .35	.83 .69 .47	.69 .68 .46	.31 .57 .33	.32 .55 .30	Mean STD VAR
69. Special education teachers are involved in nonteaching duties e.g. lunchroom duty, study hall	1.43 1.06 1.12	1.42 .95 .91	.94 1.14 1.31	1.37 1.04 1.07	1.88 1.01 1.03	Mean STD VAR
70. General and special education teachers are equally respected by administrators, faculty, and students.	2.41 .71 .51	2.67 .47 .22	2.50 .71 .50	2.42 .72 .52	2.23 .68 .47	Mean STD VAR

the most part, occurred with medium or high frequency. All four respondent groups agreed, with medium frequency, that discipline procedures (Statement 39) and the support network (Statement 53)

utilized with and for special education students were adequate. Two interview questions dealt with this support system. All 11 districts had implemented an at-risk program for those students who didn't qualify for special education services. One district instituted a peer helper program "to work within our elementary program. However, now many assist with our multi-mentally handicapped (MMH) program. We were really concerned with the stigma these MMH students seem to carry with them. This program has been very beneficial to their integration success."

Six administrators (55%) reported high levels of social integration of their special education students in athletics, vocal music, speech, and drama. Two of these six administrators (18%) reported their special education programs were very active in Special Olympics. One reported, "Our school has a pep assembly for the Olympians to honor them. This has been a real neat concept because the entire student body stood up and cheered the students. This was not pre-encouraged--it was spontaneous which states a lot about the social integration of the special education students within the student population."

The remaining five administrators (45%) stated there was some isolation of their special education population. "There is a high level of mainstreaming that occurs within the high school--even much of the severe and profound (S & P) classes are mainstreamed. However, even with this amount of mainstreaming there is a minimal amount of social integration of students."

The tracking of special education students (Statement 38) also occurred with medium frequency according to general and special education teachers. Administrators and counselors, on the other hand however, indicated that grouping of special education students occurred with less than medium frequency in their schools. During their interviews, 55% of the administrators reported that their districts utilized tracked classes, which tends to support the conclusion that grouping of special education students does occur with medium frequency.

All respondent groups indicated that the three statements regarding the development of a special education student's educational plan (Statements 40-42) occurred with high to very high frequency. A majority of the administrators (64%) stated that special education issues consumed approximately 10 to 15% of their time. Two administrators (18%) stated these obligations took 25% of their time; one stated it took almost 40% of his administrative time; and, one, less than 5%. Those schools with more than one administrator designated one administrator to handle the majority of the special education issues. One administrator with 4 years of experience commented that "initially the amount of time was much larger due to my inexperience."

Administrators indicated that a large component of their special education time commitment was attendance at staffings. Ten of the 11 administrators (91%) interviewed reported that they attended all staffings of special education students, which supported the survey results (Statement 40).

All 11 administrators build their master class schedule around the general student body. The special education students are then scheduled through the cooperative effort of the resource teacher and the administrator. "The schedule is built on the need of all students and then the resource teachers adapt their schedules and students' schedules because she realizes 'so and so' can't handle this class so should be here rather than there." This was consistent with survey results (Statement 41) in which counselors, general and special education teachers indicated that this practice occurred with high frequency in their schools.

Administrators, on the other hand, indicated this cooperative scheduling occurred with very high frequency. This difference in perception could be accounted for by the fact that the statement included personnel in addition to the administrator and special education teacher(s), whom the administrators didn't report as having anything to do with scheduling. General classroom techers, whose scores demonstrated higher variability than the other four respondent groups, may not feel they are included enough in this cooperative scheduling venture.

Transportation and limited sections of elective classes were the most frequently mentioned scheduling problems. "Electives are probably the biggest headache. Many electives and collaborative classes we offer are only offered once and only one section. Also on-the-job training (OJT) and Experience Based Career Education (EBCE) take up a lot of scheduling time."

School B had a unique schedule designed to accommodate its special education staff. "[School B] utilizes a seven-period day. The seventh period is not scheduled for special education teachers. This period is utilized for weekly team meetings, which are held every Thursday. They also use this for consultation and collaboration activities with other staff. Staffings are scheduled for Thursdays. This has been very effective." Another school (School D) went to a nine period day to "greatly increase the scheduling flexibility for the district."

Only one administrator (9%) mentioned the need to match each special education student's schedule to his/her IEP. "We make great effort to make sure that each special education student's schedule coincides with their IEPs." The survey results were highly inconsistent with these interview findings. Administrators and counselors indicated that designing a special education student's schedule around his/her IEP occurred with very high frequency. General classroom and special education teachers indicated that this practice occurred with high frequency within their schools. Two special education teachers indicated on their surveys that "of course this is done--it's the law isn't it?" This statement may explain the discrepancy between the interviews and the survey results. Respondents for the most part recognize that P.L. 94-142 requires this schedule and IEP planning so assume that it is done within their school. In reality, however, the scheduling difficulties mentioned by the administrators

often outweigh this requirement and the best schedule fit for a special education student may not reflect his/her IEP.

The mean scores of statements pertaining to administrative actions concerning personnel (Statements 43, 44, 54, 59, 69, and 70) demonstrated frequency of occurrence ratings from low to very high. The use of an educational team (Statement 43) and equality of respect (Statement 70) occurred at a high to very high frequency. Administrators and counselors rated the occurrence of both of these statements at a higher frequency than the other respondent groups. However, when discussing the implementation of such a team concept, only three administrators (27%) reported their school utilized such a strategy within their special education program. In addition, only three administrators reported general education personnel participation in staffings for special education students.

Respondents indicated that educational opportunities for the staff pertaining to the area of special education (Statements 54 and 59) were provided by the school with low to less than medium frequency. Administrators and counselors rated the occurrence of both these circumstances higher than did general or special education teachers. In fact, administrators' mean scores on Statement 54 indicated that the school provided inservice opportunities pertaining to special education with medium frequency. When interviewed however, all 11 administrators stated that inservice opportunities such as this were conducted on an informal basis with the necessary teachers. Not one administrator

mentioned formal inservicing opportunities for the staff on the characteristics of students with disabilities.

The final statement involving administrative actions concerning personnel was Statement 69. There was little agreement among the respondents as to the frequency with which special education teachers were involved in nonteaching duties such as study hall. Special education teacher respondents indicated that this occurred with medium frequency within their schools. Their mean scores, however, demonstrated high variability. Administrators and general classroom teachers agreed that special education teachers were involved in nonteaching duties with less than medium frequency. Counselors indicated that this occurred with low frequency within their schools. These three respondent groups' mean scores also demonstrated high variability.

Statement 45 concerned administrative actions regarding the involvement of parents in the educational process. Administrators and counselors indicated that parents of special education students were involved in the educational process with high frequency. This high occurrence of parental involvement was further confirmed by the administrators during their interviews. All 11 administrators reported positive and supportive feedback from parents and had had at least one parental referral to their special education program. All administrators stated that parental involvement was encouraged through required participation in the IEP process. An administrator responded, "Staffing attendance is required. We have almost 100% compliance from

our parents." Another administrator reported, "We make a concentrated effort to accommodate the concerns from parents. This is a way to encourage parental involvement." One administrator reported that his school had initiated a support group for the parents of special education students.

General and special education teachers, on the other hand, indicated that parents are involved in the educational process with medium frequency. Only one administrator (9%) reported parental involvement beyond staffing attendance, which may support the lower occurrence cited by teachers.

Administrative actions concerning organizational maintenance included four statements--Statements 46, 47, 58, and 61. With the exception of Statement 47, respondents indicated that these behaviors/practices occurred with very low to low frequency within their schools. Administrators, general and special education teacher respondents indicated that funds for special education materials (Statement 47) were available with medium frequency. During the interviews, eight administrators (73%) expressed great concern over funding of their special education programs. These administrators stated that their districts "have been routinely overspending special education funding" and "often spend more than students generate." The Boards in these districts, according to these administrators, have been very supportive in the provision of additional funds. "Funding is sometimes exceptionally tight but so far the Board is very supportive and provides additional funds." Several administrators stated that this

Board support is diminishing: "The funding is being cut back which endangers the collaborative team concept and causes reduction in staff." In fact, one general education teacher and one special education teacher expressed concern on their surveys regarding the unavailability of funds for materials to teach special students.

In contrast to these respondents, counselors indicated that funds were available with high frequency. The remaining three administrators (26%), from districts which transport in large numbers of special education students from surrounding districts, stated funding was no problem. "[Funding] hasn't been a problem for this district due to the number of students we get from other districts."

The mean scores of Statement 58--General class loads are reduced with the addition of mainstreamed students--revealed that total respondents, general and special education teachers rated this reduction as occurring with very low frequency within their schools. Of the three groups, general classroom teachers rated this practice the lowest. In fact, one general education teacher expressed written concern on the survey about the inequity of class loads for general education teachers, "State law says resource teacher can have only 18 students. I have had over 18 in one class."

In contrast, administrators and counselors rated this as occurring with low frequency. Interestingly enough, nine administrators (82%) stated that they did not utilize or need load limitations in their classes when mainstreaming special education students. Eight of these administrators stated that class size has never been a problem due to

the size of their school enrollment. Two administrators from large districts (Schools B and C) stated that this had surfaced as a problem in their districts. "We have discussed this concept a lot but is almost impossible to put on our computer scheduling without destroying confidentiality." School B restricts the load (6-8 students) in their developmental classes.

The final statement involving administrative actions concerning organizational maintenance was Statement 61. General classroom and special education teachers were in agreement that the provision of release time for consultation and accommodation activities occurred with very low frequency within their schools; administrators and counselors agreed that this occurred with low frequency. This very low to low rate of occurrence was supported by statements made during the interviews by a majority of the administrators. Seven administrators (64%) reported during the interview they expected consultation activities to occur, but nothing active was done to encourage it. One administrator stated, "There is an expectation from my office that there is consultation occurring. I had better be able to ask any special education teacher about a particular student on his/her roster and they had <u>better</u> know how that student is doing in every class."

Three administrators (27%) reported their districts have implemented schedule changes in an attempt to facilitate consultation activities. School B opened up seventh hour for special education teachers. The administrator stated, "We adjusted the schedule to free up seventh hour; however, not a lot of consultation activities are

occurring. We have had continued conversations on improving this area." The administrators of Schools C and K developed schedules which allowed for a special education teacher to be available for consultation each period of the day. One district hired more teacher associates to free their special education staff to consult. Despite these districts' attempts to provide some measure of release time for consultation, no administrator reported providing release time for general education teachers to consult with special education teachers. This would support the very low rate of occurrence rating from the general classroom teachers on the survey.

Similar results about accommodation activities were expressed by administrators. Four administrators (36%) stated that they did nothing to encourage the accommodation activities of their staff. Another four administrators stated that accommodation activities were firmly established and expected within their districts, requiring only their support. "It is the expectation from the administration that the teachers will accommodate for these students;" "There is an established trust and tradition already within the program. Very little is done actively by me besides support." Communication was emphasized by two administrators to encourage accommodation activities. "I write to my staff weekly including little tidbits about what has worked within individual classrooms for particular students. I also provide techniques to accommodate and its importance." The other administrator stated that he works with his faculty constantly to dispel the notion that all students must accomplish the identical curriculum. He stated,

"I constantly work with our staff to reduce the huge concern they have in preserving the integrity of their grading system--so what difference does it really make in the lives of these kids."

School B applied for a federal grant to implement an accommodation team concept. "We took our developmental English and science courses and put a special education teacher [together with the general teacher] in each course. They work together as a team in developing the class, teaching, and designing materials. It required a sizable commitment for scheduling and money; without the federal grant, however, this will have to be discontinued because we can't afford to fund this alone. This has been extremely valuable in educating our staff toward educating students with disabilities."

In summary, when viewing the total respondents, no one practice or behavior occurred with very high frequency. Five practices/behaviors were rated as occurring with <u>high</u> frequency within these effective programs:

1. The principal participates in staffings (Statement 40);
2. Student schedules are a cooperative effort between the principal and the special education teacher(s) (Statement 41);
3. A team concept is used in special education implementation (Statement 43);
4. The schedule of special education students is designed around his/her IEP (Statement 42);
5. Equal respect is demonstrated for special and general educators (Statement 70).

Six statements were rated by total respondents as occurring with medium frequency within these effective programs:

1. Special education students tend to be grouped throughout the school day (Statement 38);

2. Discipline procedures are adequate (Statement 39);

3. Sources of special education information are adequate (Statement 44);

4. Parents of students with disabilities are involved in the educational process (Statement 45);

5. Funds are available to purchase special education materials (Statement 47);

6. Special education students receive support both inside and outside the classroom (Statement 53).

Total respondents rated two statements as occurring with less than medium frequency within their schools:

1. Inservice opportunities on the characteristics of students with disabilities are provided to teachers and administrators (Statement 54);

2. Special education teachers are involved in nonteaching duties such as study hall (Statement 69).

According to total respondents, two statements occurred with low frequency in these observed schools:

1. The physical environment of special education classrooms is not suitable to meet learning needs (Statement 46);

2. The administration encourages teachers to take advanced coursework in the education of students with disabilities (Statement 59).

Finally, two statements surfaced that occurred within these observed programs with very low frequency:

1. General class loads are reduced with the addition of mainstreamed students (Statement 58);

2. Release time is provided for consultation (Statement 61).

General classroom teachers and special education teachers were in agreement on 15 of the 17 statements (88%)--disagreeing only on the availability of special education information and the involvement of special education teachers in nonteaching duties. Administrators and counselors were in agreement on 10 of the statements (59%). Counselors were in agreement with general and special education teachers on five statements (29%). Administrators agreed with general and special education teachers on four statements (24%). Only two statements (11%) surfaced in total agreement between administrators, counselors, general and special education teachers. Both of these statements were rated by the respondents as occurring with medium frequency within their schools:

1. Discipline procedures for disruptive special education students were adequate (Statement 39);

2. Support was provided both in and outside the classroom for students with disabilities (Statement 53).

The statement concerning equality of respect (Statement 70) demonstrated the highest mean score for total respondents. The lowest

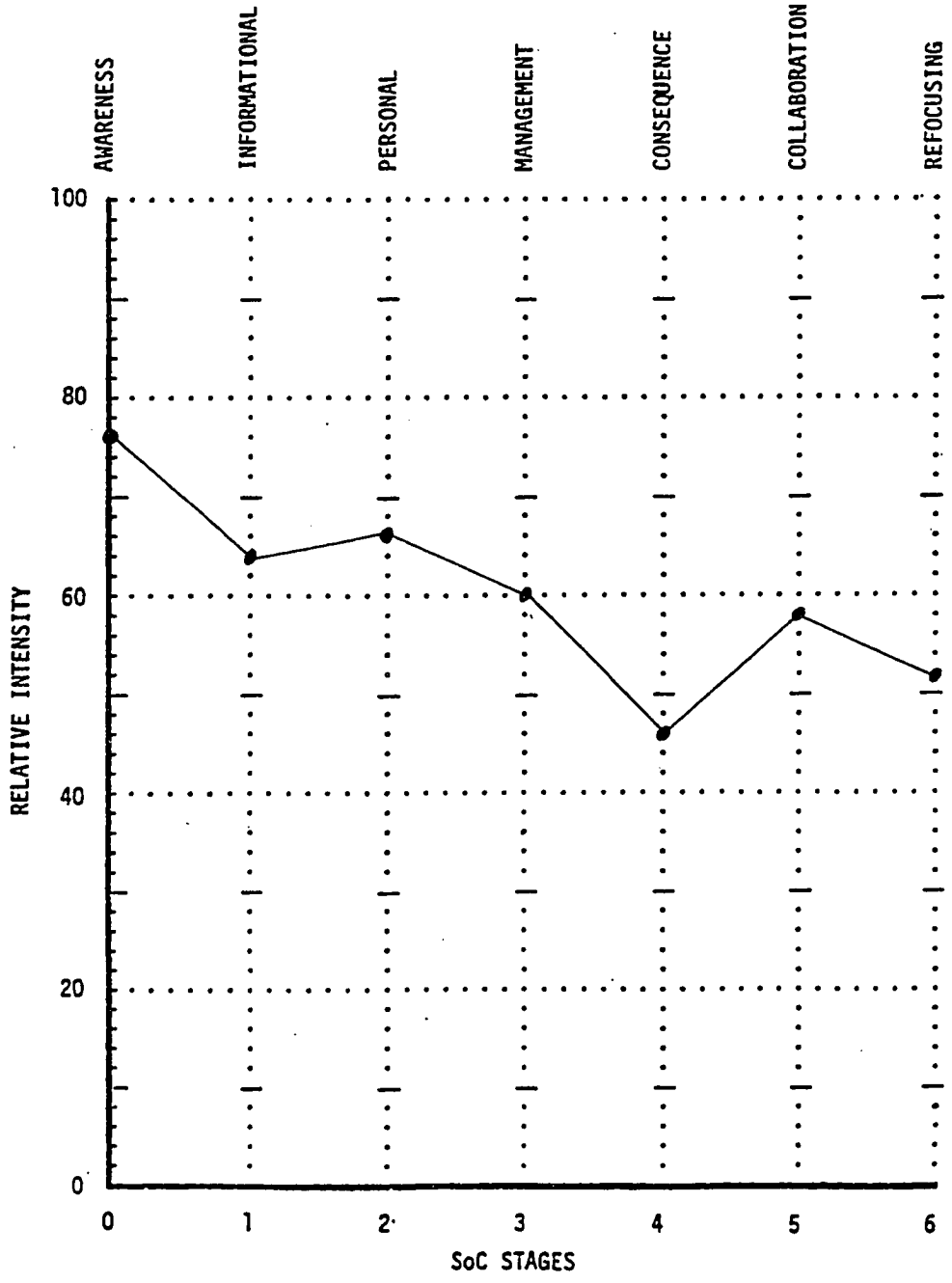
overall mean score occurred on the statement concerning the reduction of class loads with the addition of mainstreamed students (Statement 58). The highest variability of scores was demonstrated in the responses to the statement concerning the assignment of nonteaching duties to special education teachers (Statement 69).

Research Question 3. What concerns were expressed by administration regarding the special education program?

The first 35 statements on the survey were analyzed for the administrators and a combined SoC profile was developed, which is illustrated in Figure 1.

The combined SoC profile for administrators depicted experienced users who were somewhat concerned about special education; however, this concern was overshadowed by other things perceived to be of more immediate importance (High Stage 0, 1, and 2). Overall, these administrators showed more concern about their personal position and well-being in relation to special education than interest in learning more substantive information concerning special education (Stage 2 is slightly higher than Stage 1). These administrators exhibited some management concerns about using special education (Medium Intensity Stage 3) and some concern about its consequences for students (Medium Intensity Stage 4). The higher Stage 5 score reflected administrative concern about learning what others know and are doing in the area of special education. These administrators, overall, did not have any other ideas that would be potentially competitive with the current method of special education implementation (Tailing off of Stage 6).

Figure 1. Stages of Concern profile depicting administrators' concerns regarding special education.



During the interviews, similar concerns to those depicted on the combined SoC profile were expressed by the administrators. Funding shortages were described by eight administrators (73%), who linked their funding difficulties to concerns about the possible mandated implementation of the Renewed Service Delivery System (RSDS) and its impact on their established role. One administrator stated, "Funding is becoming a very serious concern for our programs, which will directly affect the number of staff and teacher associates required by RSDS changes." Another worried about how programs will be funded "due to the increased numbers of non-referred students due to RSDS mandates." Both funding and program changes such as RSDS involved personal concerns with the demands of special education, which is illustrated within Stage 2 of the SoC profile. These stated concerns by 73% of the administrators interviewed substantiated the higher Stage 2 (Personal) concerns illustrated in their combined profile.

Concern about the implementation and impact of RSDS also explains the higher Stage 5 scores depicted in the SoC profile. Stage 5 (Collaboration) involved concerns about looking for ideas from others and ultimately collaborating with others in relation to special education programming. These same administrators expressed interest in observing what others are doing in this area of RSDS in order to anticipate the changes necessary within their own special education program.

Several administrators stated their districts were taking a highly conservative stance toward RSDS implementation. "[School G] believes in

data-driven change and RSDS isn't participatory change. If mandated, it may destroy effective workings from school programs already in place. We feel much of RSDS is merely change for change sake." This uncertainty about the usefulness of this alternative delivery system tends to support the tailing-off of Stage 6 concerns shown on the combined profile. When a person or group has competitive ideas for replacing or substantially altering the current innovation, Stage 6 (Refocusing) will show high stage scores. Although the Stage 6 scores for administrators in the combined profile were moderately high, the tailing off of the scores for these administrators suggests that, as a group, these administrators did not have other ideas that would be potentially competitive with the current method of special education delivery.

Six administrators (56%) reported high levels of social integration of their special education students. Five administrators (44%) on the other hand, reported some isolation of their special education population. Two of these administrators directly questioned the effect of their programs on the long-term functioning of the student served. One of these administrators questioned, "How can we evaluate the effectiveness of our special education programs if we don't know what they're doing 5 years from now. I see them walking around town and wonder what they're doing." While Stage 4 (Consequence) concerns were the lowest concern depicted on the combined profile, their overall percentage still ranged in medium intensity. The expressed concerns of 44% of the administrators tended to validate that consequences to

students were of some concern to them; however, other things overshadowed it for importance at this time.

Seven administrators (64%) stated that special education issues took approximately 10 to 15% of their time. One of those seven administrators stated that initially, due to his inexperience, this percentage was much higher. In addition, two districts were involved in implementing new programs for disabled students because "the clientele of students is continually becoming more and more disabled." The evolution of these new programs has required many management decisions by their administrators, which has greatly increased their concern about their ability to meet the educational needs of these students. These management concerns expressed by 64% of the administrators substantiated the medium intensity stage scores within Stage 3 (Management) on the combined profile.

The increased collaboration concerns (Stage 5) illustrated on the combined profile were reinforced by statements made by administrators during the interviews. Seven administrators (64%) responded that they expected their special education and general staff to consult but didn't do anything actively to encourage it. Four administrators (36%) reported that despite providing time for their special education staff to consult with their general education personnel, little consultation actually occurred. This lack of consultation was a source of frustration for them and each reported increased efforts to increase its occurrence. Several administrators stated more training and communication was required: "Regular staff needs to have more training

in how to modify and accommodate within their classrooms;" "Must see increased communication between special education and regular education;" "I would like to see teachers making more of an attempt to modify before making special education referrals."

In summary, the combined SoC profile depicted a group of interested, not terribly concerned, positively disposed, experienced users of special education. Of primary concern to these administrators was uncertainty about the demands of special education and their role in its future implementation.

Facilitative Leadership Summary. The survey statements relating to the program characteristic facilitative leadership were grouped together (see Appendix J) and the mean, standard deviation, and the variance were determined for the five groups. These statistics are presented in Table 9.

Table 9

Special Education Practices Survey Responses, Facilitative Leadership: Grouped Responses

Respondent Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Variance
Total Respondents	1.67	1.00	1.00
Administrators	1.88	.92	.84
Counselors	1.85	1.00	1.00
General Classroom Teachers	1.64	1.00	1.00
Special Education Teachers	1.74	.98	.96

The grouped mean score of the survey statements relating to facilitative leadership revealed that respondents generally believed facilitative leadership occurred with medium frequency within their schools. Central to the appearance of higher variability on this characteristic was the inclusion of Statement 69, which itself had an extremely high rate of variability.

General Classroom Teaching Behavior

Research Question 1. To what extent were general classroom teachers cognizant of characteristics of mildly disabled students and the identification and placement processes utilized in the district?

On the survey, two statements pertained to research question one--numbers 48 and 49. The mean, standard deviation, and variance of the responses made to those two statements by the five groups are reported in Table 10.

Counselors, general and special education teachers were in agreement that both of these statements occurred with medium frequency in their schools, with the awareness and understanding of the referral process being rated slightly higher by both counselors and general classroom teachers. Special education teachers, on the other hand, indicated that general classroom teachers demonstrated knowledge about the characteristics of students with disabilities at a slightly higher rate of occurrence. This discrepancy was supported during the interviews when three administrators (27%) expressed concern that general education teachers were too quick to refer instead of trying to analyze and solve the learning or behavior problem independently. It is

Table 10

Special Education Practices Survey Responses, General Classroom Teaching Behavior: Research Question 1

Statement	Total Respondents	Administrators	Counselors	General Classroom Teachers	Special Education Teachers	
48. Teachers are knowledgeable about the characteristics of children with disabilties.	1.72 .75 .56	2.10 .76 .58	1.69 .58 .34	1.71 .75 .56	1.67 .77 .59	Mean STD VAR
49. Teachers are aware of and understand the referral process.	1.75 .77 .59	2.17 .80 .64	1.73 .68 .46	1.77 .76 .58	1.53 .73 .54	Mean STD VAR

possible that these special educators view this as a problem also and question whether or not general education teachers fully understand the referral process.

Administrators indicated that both of these conditions occurred with high frequency within their schools. Their scores also suggested that general classroom teachers demonstrated knowledge about the referral process at a slightly higher rate than knowledge of the characteristics of disabled students. In direct contrast to these survey results, all 11 administrators doubted their general staffs'

ability to diagnose specific disabling characteristics. They felt that their staffs would be able to determine a student's strengths or weaknesses, but beyond that the student would need to be referred to an expert. One administrator responded, "In general my teachers know strengths and weaknesses--general logic involving students. Probably not specific diagnosis." Another administrator stated his teachers "were more than willing to refer but not as knowledgeable as they could be." This was further supported by the demographic information reported by the general education teachers in which 47% stated that they had never taken any credit hours in special education. Forty-two percent of the general classroom teachers had taken only 2-6 credit hours of special education.

In summary, respondents generally believed their general classroom teachers demonstrated, with medium frequency, an awareness and understanding of the characteristics of mildly disabled students and the referral process. These survey results were in contrast to demographics which reported 47% of the general classroom teachers having never taken a credit hour in special education. Administrators indicated that this awareness and understanding on the part of their general classroom teachers occurred with high frequency in their schools. Despite this high frequency of occurrence survey rating, administrators questioned, during the interviews, their general staffs' knowledge of the characteristics of mildly disabled students but reported confidence in their knowledge of the referral process. Several administrators expressed concern that their general teachers were too quick to refer.

Research Question 2. What actions of general classroom teachers enhanced the quality of instruction for special education students in their classrooms?

Three statements on the survey pertained to research question two--numbers 50, 51, and 52. The mean, standard deviation, and variance of the responses made to those three statements by the five groups are presented in Table 11.

Table 11

Special Education Practices Survey Responses, General Classroom Teaching Behavior: Research Question 2

Statement	Total Respondents	Administrators	Counselors	General Classroom Teachers	Special Education Teachers	
50. General classroom teachers are present at staffings of mainstreamed students.	1.30	1.33	1.20	1.39	.87	Mean
	.84	.47	.54	.86	.73	STD
	.70	.22	.29	.74	.54	VAR
51. General classroom teachers participate in the development of IEPs for mainstreamed students.	.81	1.08	1.00	.85	.48	Mean
	.80	.64	.63	.86	.50	STD
	.64	.41	.40	.73	.25	VAR
52. General classroom teachers use the IEP of their mainstreamed students in planning lessons.	.83	1.25	1.00	.85	.59	Mean
	.75	.60	.52	.75	.78	STD
	.57	.35	.27	.57	.61	VAR

Administrators, counselors, and general classroom teachers agreed that general classroom teachers attended staffings with less than medium frequency. Special education teachers indicated that this attendance occurred with low frequency. During the interviews, all 11 administrators stated their AEA personnel, special education staff, and parent(s) were involved in all staffings. Three administrators (27%) stated their counselor attended all staffings. Ten administrators (91%) stated their students were required to attend their own staffings. An administrator stated, "I believe that it is critical to involve a special education student in all the staffings. Only through this will they become involved in their own education." Ten administrators (91%) attended all staffings; one administrator (9%) attended only those staffings considered problematic.

Consistent with the survey, only three administrators (27%) stated that their general classroom teachers were required to be at staffings of students they had in mainstreamed classes. General classroom teachers attended, if needed, the staffings in five schools. Two general classroom teachers also expressed concern on their surveys about staffing attendance. One stated, "I don't attend staffings--not my concern at all." Another noted that she would attend but "very few times are we invited. We must find out by ourselves if we want to go."

Identical survey results were obtained concerning the involvement of general classroom teachers in IEP development and mainstream use. Counselors and general classroom teachers indicated that the participation of general classroom teachers in the IEP process occurred

with low frequency in their schools. Special education teachers were even more emphatic, indicating that this participation and use of IEPs by general classroom teachers occurred with very low frequency. Administrators, however, generally believed that their general classroom teachers participated in the IEP process with less than medium frequency.

This lack of involvement cited by special educators on the survey was supported during the interviews. Nine administrators (82%) responded their general staff was not involved in designing IEPs at all. Two of these administrators stated that although their general staff did not participate in the development, they did receive copies of pertinent IEPs. "There is not involvement due to the time constraints. However, each general staff member does receive a copy of the IEP for students within their classes." This lack of involvement was further documented by comments on the surveys by general classroom teachers in which they stated that they knew very little about IEPs (29 general classroom teachers or 11%) or nothing at all (16 general classroom teachers or 6%).

Two administrators (18%) stated there was some general staff involvement in IEP development. One administrator commented, "Our alternative settings are much more involved. The more the student is integrated, the more involved that general teacher is in assisting in the development of goals and objectives."

A variety of accommodations undertaken by general teachers within mainstream classes were cited by the administrators. Seven

administrators (64%) stated that the most frequently occurring accommodation involved modifying and reading tests. Six schools (56%), according to their administrators, offered tracked classes especially in science and English. Team teaching between general and special education teachers was cited by four administrators (36%). However, one administrator stated, "We did a lot of team teaching approximately 3 years ago. Then there was a state audit and we were told that it was illegal so we had to discontinue it." Three administrators stated their general staff altered the length and types of classroom assignments. Providing the special education student with alternative credits within the resource room was mentioned by three administrators. Two administrators (18%) responded that their schools allowed general teachers to modify the grades given to special education students in their classes.

Consistent with the survey results indicating general classroom teachers utilized IEPs with low frequency, the majority of the accommodations mentioned by administrators required little or no knowledge of a particular student's IEP. One administrator responded, "There hasn't been a lot of accommodating being done by general teachers in their classrooms. They do the usual things such as reading tests. In fact, they do a lot up to the point where they must do it themselves or it requires additional work on their behalf." Only one administrator (9%) directly stated that general teachers were required to accommodate to meet individual needs. "Name it, we do it. If it meets the needs of a particular student it will be done."

All 11 administrators stated that teacher attitudes were becoming more positive and accepting of special education. One administrator stated, "There has been a definite movement toward more acceptance of individual differences within the classroom. Our teachers are somewhat more willing to modify their instruction to match the student rather than expecting the student to change." Another administrator responded, "Our elective areas such as music, business education, industrial arts, and home economics have become much more receptive to additions of special education students due to declining enrollment." According to another principal, "The stigma has been substantially lessened. It's more okay to be served by our special education programs."

Other administrators reported their staffs were positive but frustrated about the high emphasis placed upon special education. "My staff is frustrated about the money and time spent on a minimum of people." Another principal voiced similar concerns, "My staff is more accepting but still expects miracles from special education. Statements occur such as 'How come they're still not normal?'; 'What will happen when they don't have the aide with them?'; 'They're secondary students now--shouldn't they be functioning alone?'"

In summary, repondents generally believed that their general classroom teachers participated in the IEP process with low frequency and attended staffings of mainstreamed students with less than medium frequency. Administrators rated their general instructional staff higher in all three areas, in direct contrast to their interview statements. Special education teachers consistently rated their general

education teachers lower; in fact, they generally believed that general classroom teacher involvement in IEP development and use occurred with very low frequency in their schools.

Research Question 3. How much time was provided for general classroom teachers to prepare for and work with special education students?

Four statements concerning research question three were on the survey--numbers 55-57, and 65. The mean, standard deviation, and variance for the responses of the five groups are reported in Table 12. The two statements pertaining to the provision of inservice opportunities to general classroom teachers (Statement 55 and 57) were rated very similarly. Administrators and counselors indicated that their special education staff provided inservice opportunities concerning the development of objectives and accommodation activities with less than medium frequency. General and special education teachers, however, indicated they believed their special education staff provided these inservices with low frequency.

Both Statements 55 and 57 dealt with inservice opportunities, which usually signifies a formal educational program. Consistent with the survey responses, all 11 administrators stated that special education information was usually not presented through any type of formal inservicing program. Instead, their special education staff shared information informally with their general classroom teachers. Several of these administrators stated that their special education staff routinely presented issues of concern at faculty meetings. One

Table 12

Special Education Practices Survey Responses, General Classroom Teaching Behavior: Research Question 3

Statement	Total Respondents	Administrators	Counselors	General Classroom Teachers	Special Education Teachers	
55. Special education staff has provided inservice training for general classroom teachers regarding the development of appropriate objectives for mainstreamed students.	.96 .79 .62	1.25 .43 .19	1.25 .66 .44	.94 .80 .63	.89 .83 .69	Mean STD VAR
56. General classroom teachers seek out information and assistance from special education staff.	1.47 .66 .44	1.42 .49 .24	1.63 .70 .48	1.49 .66 .44	1.37 .69 .48	Mean STD VAR
57. Special education staff have provided inservice training for general classroom teachers regarding methods of modifying instruction to accommodate mainstreamed students.	.85 .67 .45	1.25 .60 .35	1.13 .48 .23	.81 .69 .48	.81 .56 .32	Mean STD VAR
65. Special education teachers assist the general classroom teacher within the classroom.	1.08 1.53 2.35	1.58 .64 .41	1.13 .62 .38	1.04 1.72 2.96	1.13 .49 .24	Mean STD VAR

administrator responded, "There is a standing faculty meeting on Thursday mornings with mandatory attendance. Time is always taken to discuss any special education concerns." Another responded, "Much of our inservice opportunities are voluntary and are presented by members of both our special and general education staff to show 'Hey look what worked for me!'" Three administrators reported their districts had developed or were in the process of developing special education handbooks. One stated, "Special education is up for curriculum development this year. One area is the development of a better handbook for our district." Another stated, "The sharing of information between special education and the regular educator doesn't occur as often as it should. This is probably the weakest link in our special education program."

Similar results were reported by the administrators concerning training on IEPs. Four administrators (36%) stated training was informally conducted on an as-needed basis only. Another four administrators acknowledged their AEAs had recently presented formal IEP training to their districts. The final three administrators (27%) stated that there had been no inservice on IEPs in their districts. No administrators reported their special educati staff being responsible for the formal inservicing of their general staff.

Seven administrators (64%) responded that their general staff had received informal training on accommodation techniques for mainstreamed students. This training, according to these administrators, occurred only as requested or needed by the general educator. A principal noted,

"There hasn't been any specific training to our general staff but there is a lot of one-on-one training being conducted for individual student needs." Three administrators (27%) reported that their districts had conducted formal inservices on accommodation techniques. One reported, "We have had several general inservice meetings recently dealing with strategies for special education. One presentation involved Dr. Judy Wood's learning strategies and the other presented characteristics of handicapped learners by a University of Northern Iowa professor of special education." Only one administrator (9%) reported that his district provided no accommodation training to its general staff.

Such informal inservicing requires the establishment of an interactive reciprocal relationship between general and special education teachers. The survey and interview responses, however, did not firmly support the existence of such a relationship within these schools. Only 36% of the administrators interviewed reported direct assistance by their special education staff within the general classroom. This somewhat contradicted their survey responses in which they indicated that their special educators assisted within the general classroom with medium frequency. Counselors, general, and special education teachers, however, believed that this assistance occurred with less than medium frequency within their schools. In fact, general classroom teachers' mean scores demonstrated extreme variability on this statement signifying disagreement as to the reciprocal nature of this relationship. Respondents also generally believed that classroom teachers sought information from special education teachers with less

than medium frequency. This reported lack of direct contact between special and general education personnel could also account for the lower ratings obtained on the inservicing statements.

Administrators were also questioned concerning the employment of teacher associates for their special education programs. Ten administrators (91%) reported that their special education programs utilized teacher associates. The numbers ranged from 1 to 13 associates used primarily as tutors within resource rooms and self-contained programs. An administrator stated, "Our aides are utilized primarily within the mentally disabled self-contained with integration (MDSI) program. Sometimes they will assist in other places within the school but usually not." Another stated, "Our aide is utilized in science in a team-taught concept--especially during labs." The teacher associates were also utilized within resource rooms, for movement assistance, as interpretors, and clerical support. A principal responded, "One month ago an aide was hired to work with a sixth grade behavior disorder (BD) student whose parents wanted him to go to [School F] instead of [another district]. She is a certified special education instructor who was reduced in force (RIFed) last year. Without her support, this boy wouldn't be able to function in our district."

In summary, respondents generally believed that their general classroom teachers received inservicing on IEPs and accommodation techniques with less than medium to low frequency. Administrators reported that the majority of this inservicing was conducted on an

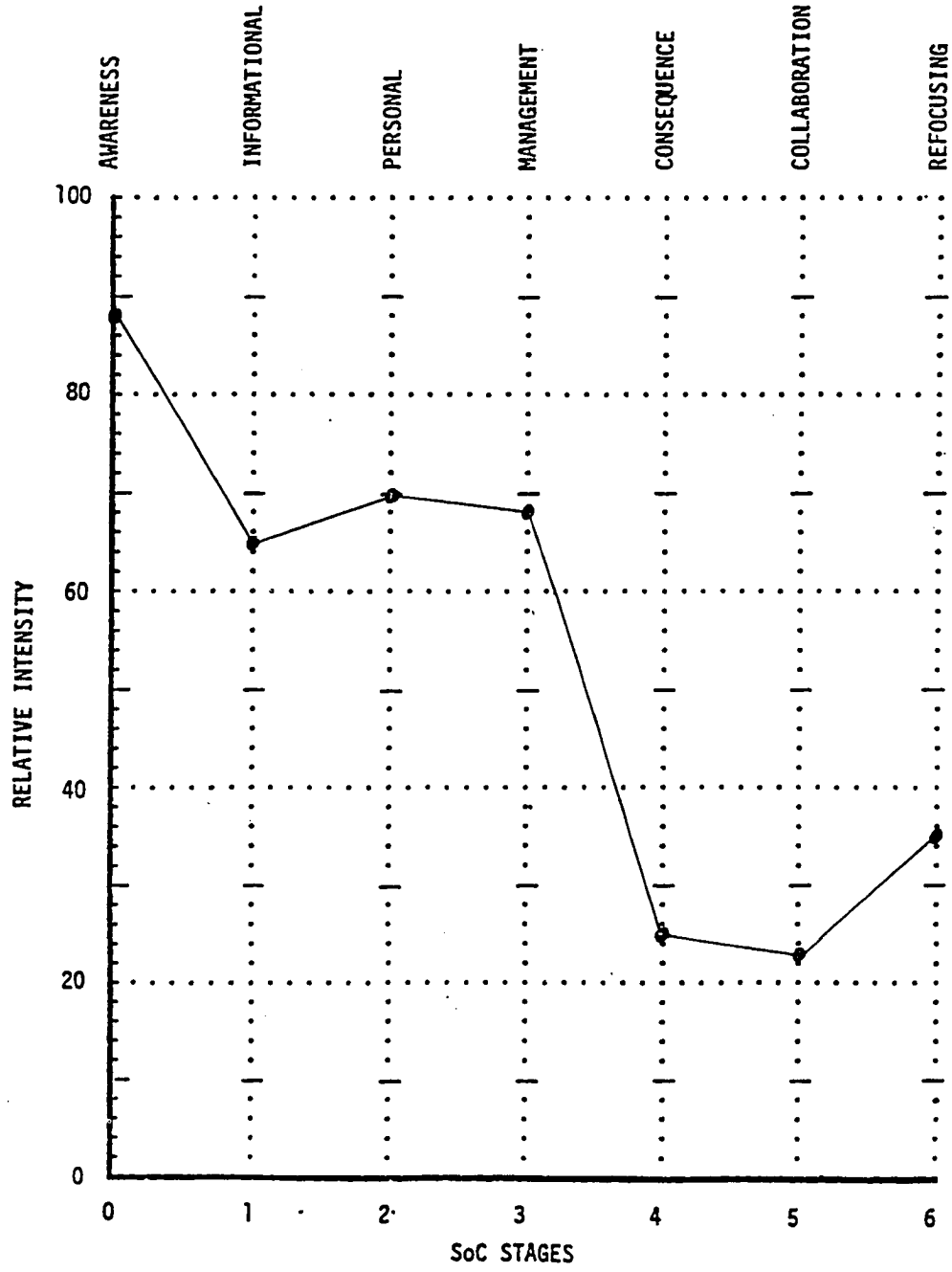
informal basis at the request of the general classroom teacher; however, this direct contact, according to the respondents, occurred with less than medium frequency.

Research Question 4. What concerns were expressed by general classroom teachers regarding the special education program?

The first 35 statements on the survey were analyzed for the general classroom teachers and a combined SoC profile was developed, which is illustrated in Figure 2.

The combined SoC profile for general classroom teachers depicted experienced users who were somewhat concerned about special education; however, this concern was overshadowed by other things perceived to be of more immediate importance (High Stage 0, 1, and 2). Overall, these general classroom teachers showed more concern about their personal position and well-being in relation to special education than interest in learning more substantive information concerning special education (Stage 2 is higher than Stage 1). These teachers exhibited some logistic and time concerns about using special education (Medium Intensity Stage 3). General classroom teachers showed minimal concerns about the impact of special education on the students (Low Stage 4) and minimal concerns about the coordination with others in the implementation of special education (Low Stage 5). These general classroom teachers, overall, did not have definite ideas about alternatives to the current delivery system used for special education (Low Stage 6). Although not requested, many general classroom teacher respondents wrote comments on their survey, expressing concerns that

Figure 2. Stages of Concern profile depicting general classroom teachers' concerns regarding special education.



they had with particular areas discussed within survey statements. The most frequently noted comment (29 teachers or 11%) centered on their lack of knowledge concerning IEPs. A general teacher wrote, "I'm not the special education teacher--why should I know anything about IEPs?". Sixteen teachers (6%) noted that they knew absolutely nothing about special education. Statements included, "Special education doesn't pertain to my field [music]"; and, "I don't attend staffings--not my concern at all." One general teacher noted that she would attend staffings but, "Very few times are we invited. We must find out by ourselves if we want to go." The same teacher expressed concern for funding and with class loads: "Funds are available to special education teachers but not to regular teachers who deal with high numbers of learning disabled."; "State law says resource teacher can have only 18 students. I have had over 18 in one class!".

These statements, expressing personal and management concerns, supported the higher Stage 1, 2, and 3 scores depicted in the general classroom teachers' combined SoC profile. In addition, the expressed lack of knowledge about or interest in special education further supports the higher Stage 2 (Personal) scores. These teachers appeared to be more concerned with the impact of special education on their personal role rather than in obtaining more information for its implementation.

In summary, the combined SoC profile depicted a group of interested, not terribly concerned, positively disposed, experienced users of special education. Of primary concern to these general

classroom teachers was the impact of special education upon their personal role in education.

General Classroom Teaching Behavior Summary. The survey statements relating to the program characteristic general classroom teaching behavior were grouped together (see Appendix J) and the mean, standard deviation, and the variance were determined for the five groups. These statistics are presented in Table 13.

Table 13

Special Education Practices Survey Responses, General Classroom Teaching Behavior: Grouped Responses

Respondent Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Variance
Total Respondents	1.36	1.00	1.00
Administrators	1.69	.84	.70
Counselors	1.55	.86	.74
General Classroom Teachers	1.34	1.02	1.04
Special Education Teachers	1.32	.96	.92

The grouped mean score of the survey statements relating to general classroom teaching behavior revealed that administrators and counselors generally believed the behaviors and practices included within this characteristic occurred with medium frequency within their schools. General classroom and special education teachers, on the other hand, believed that these behaviors and practices occurred with less than medium frequency.

Special Education Teaching Behavior

Research Question 1. What actions of special education teachers enhanced the quality of instruction for special education students in their classrooms?

On the survey, four statements pertained to research question one--numbers 62-64 and 66. The mean, standard deviation, and variance of the responses made to those four statements by the five groups are reported in Table 14.

Table 14

Special Education Practices Survey Responses, Special Education Teaching Behavior: Research Question 1

Statement	Total Respondents	Administrators	Counselors	General Classroom Teachers	Special Education Teachers	
62. Special education teachers assist their students in general classroom performance.	1.94	2.08	1.75	1.96	1.88	Mean
	.78	.64	.90	.76	.83	STD
	.61	.41	.81	.58	.69	VAR
63. Special education teachers work with their students on improving basic skills.	2.31	2.33	2.50	2.28	2.39	Mean
	.69	.47	.71	.70	.63	STD
	.47	.22	.50	.49	.40	VAR

(table continues)

Statement	Total Respondents	Administrators	Counselors	General Classroom Teachers	Special Education Teachers	
64. Special education students who are mainstreamed demonstrate appropriate social skills.	1.55 .59 .35	1.67 .47 .22	1.88 .60 .36	1.51 .60 .36	1.64 .52 .27	Mean STD VAR
66. Educational planning for special education students is short-range with little preparation for post-secondary transition.	.86 .77 .59	.67 .62 .39	.87 .81 .65	.91 .78 .61	.69 .68 .46	Mean STD VAR

The administrators gave a wide variety of descriptors concerning the role of their special education staff. The most used descriptor (82%) was that their special education staff were future transition planners and consultants to the general staff. The next most used included being an advocate, basic skill builder, and mediator for special education students. One administrator commented, "I view the role of my special education staff as meeting the needs of identified students through advocacy, facilitation, and coordination of programs, both in school and in the community." Two administrators stated the role of their special education staff was to be a learning facilitator, as was the role of all the general education staff. Another stated, " I

really don't view them any differently than my general staff, with the same duties and obligations." One administrator stated he viewed the role of his special education staff to provide learning opportunities for the general staff.

These interview statements were supported by survey responses. Respondents agreed that short-range educational planning for special education occurred only with low frequency. Two administrators (18%) however, expressed concern over the lack of transition and follow-up programs for their secondary special education students, which may account for this statement not receiving a very low rating.

Respondents generally believed that their special education staff assisted their students in general classroom performance with medium frequency. Administrators, on the other hand, believed this assistance occurred with high frequency. All four groups were in agreement that their special education staff worked on the remediation of basic skills with high frequency. There was also consensus among the respondents that special education students demonstrated, with medium frequency, appropriate social skills in the mainstream.

Eleven administrators stated that their special education staff were allowed to attend any and all inservice opportunities. Statements from these administrators included, "Our district readily encourages all professional growth opportunities"; and "The Board does a high amount of encouragement of their staff to improve themselves." Ten administrators acknowledged release time is provided with reimbursement to their special education staff to attend meetings. An administrator stated,

"We've designated our Phase III monies to fund advanced schooling opportunities for all our staff."

In summary, respondents generally believed the instructional focus of their special education program to be the remediation of basic skills with direct tutorial assistance on general classwork occurring with medium frequency. Special education students demonstrated, with medium frequency, the appropriate social skills for effective mainstreaming. Respondents also believed that transition planning did occur in the educational planning for special education students, but this area continued to be of particular concern to administrators and special education teachers.

Research Question 2. What was the relationship between special education staff and general education staff and students?

On the survey, three statements pertained to research question two-numbers 60, 67, and 68. The mean, standard deviation, and variance of the responses made to those four statements by the five groups are reported in Table 15.

Six administrators (55%) responded that the relationship between their special and general educators was very good and three (27%) stated an excellent relationship existed between the two areas. Two of these administrators credited this relationship entirely to their special education personnel. One stated, "We have exceptional rapport due to the dynamic personnel in our special education department." Another administrator stated, "It is my personal belief that in special education, like in vocational programs, the teacher makes the program.

Table 15

Special Education Practices Survey Responses, Special Education Teaching Behavior: Research Question 2

Statement	Total Respondents	Administrators	Counselors	General Classroom Teachers	Special Education Teachers	
60. General classroom and special education teachers work together in designing alternative curriculum.	1.13	1.50	1.27	1.10	1.11	Mean
	.73	.50	.68	.75	.63	STD
	.53	.25	.46	.56	.40	VAR
67. Significant delays occur between the initial referral and the completed evaluation of the referred student.	1.36	1.09	1.63	1.38	1.23	Mean
	.94	.29	.86	1.04	.55	STD
	.89	.08	.73	1.08	.31	VAR
68. High turnover of special education staff disrupts the continuity of support.	.69	.67	1.13	.64	.80	Mean
	.73	.62	.86	.70	.76	STD
	.53	.39	.73	.50	.57	VAR

We at [School I] are lucky to have one who makes the program work." Two administrators (18%) reported that initially there was a lot of resentment toward their special education staff due to the fact they were employed through the AEA rather than through the individual district. One administrator remarked, "Initially there was a lot of resentment due to the AEA concept of employment. This really promoted a

we/they mentality especially around contract negotiation times. This has improved but only due to a concentrated effort on behalf of my special education staff."

This reported positive relationship between general and special education staff did not emerge in responses to the survey question concerning collaboration on alternative curriculum. All respondents generally believed that general and special education teachers worked together with less than medium frequency on the design of alternative curricula. It is possible, however, that this lack of collaboration is due more to the fact that no administrator reported providing general classroom teachers with release time for consultation, than to a lack of an established working relationship.

All 11 administrators expressed great satisfaction with their Area Education Agency (AEA) personnel. One administrator stated, "I'm very pleased this year--is an excellent support staff." All the administrators stated the AEA support staff was used primarily to communicate and coordinate special education information to the necessary people. "They are doing a better job of coordination and are spending a lot more time in our building." Several administrators stated they utilized their AEA staff for instructional methodology. A principal commented, "Basically our district uses our AEA people for suggestions and input into instructional methodology. Of course, ours are in-house so are a lot more accessible than other districts'."

Respondents generally believed that significant delays occurred during the referral-placement process with less than medium frequency

within their schools. Counselors, however, believed that these delays occurred with medium frequency. In addition, general classroom teachers' mean scores demonstrated high variability, expressing disagreement as to the frequency this actually occurred within their schools. This disagreement may be due in part to the fact that only three administrators (27%) reported their counselors and general teachers being actively involved in the staffing process, which would make it difficult for them to know the status of referred students.

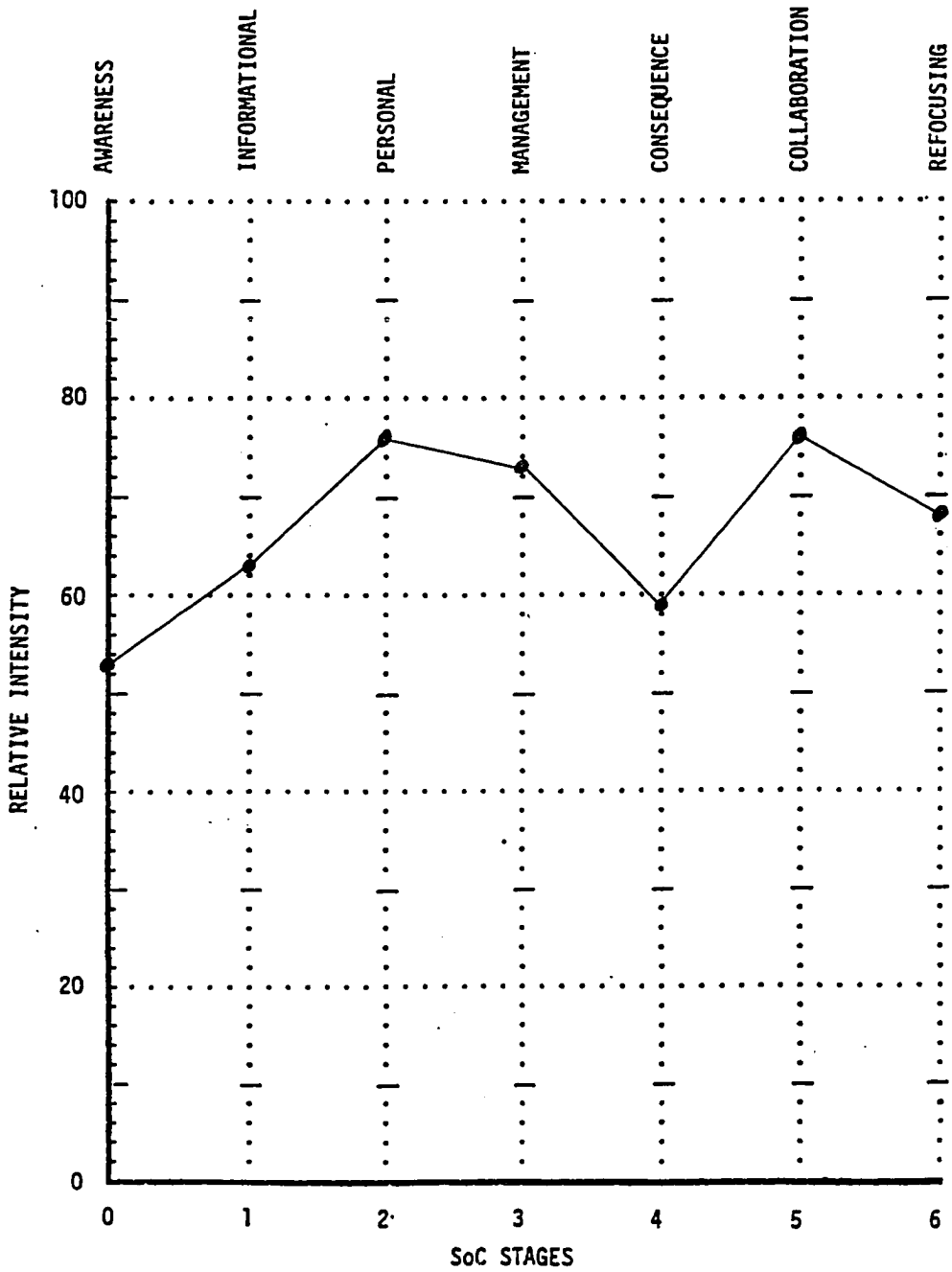
High turnover of special education staff did not appear to be a problem within these schools according to the respondents. Respondents generally believed that turnover occurred with low frequency in their schools. Counselors, however, believed that turnover occurred with less than medium frequency. Two administrators (18%) directly credited their special education program entirely to the continuity and dynamic nature of their special education staff.

In summary, respondents generally believed that their special and general education staff collaborated on alternative curriculum with less than medium frequency. In addition, respondents believed that turnover of special education staff occurred with low frequency and referral delays occurred with less than medium frequency in their schools.

Research Question 3. What concerns were expressed by special education teachers regarding the special education program?

The first 35 statements on the survey were analyzed for the special education teachers and a combined SoC profile was developed which is illustrated in Figure 3.

Figure 3. Stages of Concern profile depicting special education teachers' concerns regarding special education.



The combined SoC profile for special education teachers depicted established users who were somewhat concerned about special education; however, other things were becoming more important (Increasing Stage 1 and Stage 2). Overall, these special education teachers had intense personal concerns about special education and its consequences for them. These concerns reflected uneasiness with the demands of special education rather than resistence to its implementation. These teachers had high logistic, time, and management concerns (High Stage 3); however, they showed medium concern about the relationship of students to special education (Medium Stage 4). Special education teachers in this combined profile demonstrated great concerns about working with others in relation to the demands of special education (High Stage 5). These collaboration concerns particularly centered on the personal and management demands required of the special education staff in order to collaborate effectively. Generally these special education teachers showed higher intensity refocusing concerns, signifying these teachers had definite ideas about alternatives to the current method of special education implementation (High Stage 6).

Although they were not interviewed, several special education teacher respondents wrote comments on their surveys, expressing concerns that they had with particular areas discussed within survey statements. One special education teacher expressed great concern over funding: "Funding is a major problem in our school. I seldom am able to get the materials I need for my classes." Concerning the physical environment of special education, a special education teacher wrote, "We need to be

less in the classroom and more in the community." Both of these statements centered on management concerns (Stage 3) which lends support to the higher profile scores shown within the combined SoC profile for special education teachers.

Two special education teachers noted that inservice opportunities for administrators and general staff rarely occurred; however, "We provide lots of suggestions and handouts if they want them." Regarding general education teachers' attendance at staffings, a special educator noted, "They are always asked but they never come." Both of these statements demonstrated concern about collaboration with the general staff in the implementation of special education. These expressed concerns supported the higher Stage 5 (Collaboration) scores depicted within the combined SoC profile for special educators.

Finally, a special educator concerned with the distinction made on the survey between special and general education students noted, "Do you understand the concept of cooperative learning and that it is designed to lessen the need for special education divisions?" Special educators demonstrated a higher Stage 6 (Refocusing) score which tends to depict persons who had potentially competitive ideas with the current method of special education implementation. This special educator's comment on the survey expressed an idea which she felt would positively alter the implementation of special education within her particular building.

In summary, the combined SoC profile depicted a group of established users with intense concerns about the personal demands of special education. Of primary concern to these special education

teachers was how to manage the daily demands of implementation along with facilitating increased collaboration with general instructional staff. In addition, these special education teachers possessed potentially competitive alternatives to the current implementation methodology practiced within their schools.

Special Education Teaching Behavior Summary. The survey statements relating to the program characteristic special education teaching behavior were grouped together (see Appendix J) and the mean, standard deviation, and the variance were determined for the five groups. These statistics are reported in Table 16.

Table 16

Special Education Practices Survey Responses, Special Education Teaching Behavior: Grouped Responses

Respondent Group	Mean	Standard Deviation	Variance
Total Respondents	1.39	1.00	1.00
Administrators	1.61	.84	.71
Counselors	1.55	.92	.85
General Classroom Teachers	1.38	1.02	1.04
Special Education Teachers	1.37	.96	.92

The grouped mean score of the survey statements relating to special education teaching behavior revealed that administrators and counselors generally believed the behaviors and practices included within this characteristic occurred with medium frequency within their schools.

General classroom and special education teachers, on the other hand, believed that these behaviors and practices occurred with less than medium frequency.

Summary

This chapter has presented the results of a survey and interview of selected administrative and general and special education instructional personnel in identified Iowa schools with effective secondary special education programs. Data from 354 surveys and 11 administrator interviews were analyzed. Section one of the chapter presented a descriptive analysis of demographic and other information reported by the respondents. The second section of the chapter reported and discussed, by program characteristic and research question, the data obtained.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS, RECOMMENDATIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

This study focused exclusively on identified-effective secondary special education programs in Iowa, investigating the interactions of administrators, general and special education teachers in order to determine common administrative and instructional practices. A survey was administered to 354 secondary school personnel and 11 administrators were interviewed.

Survey statements 1-35 were the Stages of Concern Questionnaire (SoCQ) (Hall et al., 1986), which assesses seven different stages of concern about a particular innovation--in this case, secondary special education programming. Respondents indicated the degree to which each concern was true of them by marking a number next to each statement on a 0 (irrelevant) to 7 (very high concern) scale. An SoC profile was then determined for administrators, general classroom teachers, and special education teachers. The interpretation of the SoC profile centered on what stages were high and low for each group of respondents and how these stage scores interacted with each other.

Survey statements 36-70 required each individual to rate, on a 4-point Likert-type scale, statements that described aspects of secondary schools based upon how each individual perceived his/her own school environment. The rating scale used 3 to signify an "always occurring" behavior/practice; 2, "frequently occurring"; 1, "sometimes occurring"; and, 0, a "never occurring" behavior/practice. The mean, standard

deviation, and variance were determined for each of these statements for five groups: total respondents, administrators, counselors, general classroom teachers, and special education teachers. Three characteristics were analyzed for this study--Facilitative Leadership, General Classroom Teaching Behavior, and Special Education Teaching Behavior. Survey responses to questions 36-70 were grouped according to their applicable program characteristic (see Appendix J) and the mean, standard deviation, and variance were determined for each characteristic for all respondents and all respondents by position.

Conclusions

During the observation in one of the surveyed schools, a general classroom teacher was asked to name one key component the special education program had, which if conveyed to another school, would greatly enhance its special education program. This general classroom teacher responded, "It's our principal and you can't have him!" Although an isolated observation, this emphatic support for the essentiality of an influential, effective principal certainly was not. The behaviors and practices that comprised the characteristic facilitative leadership were, as a group, the most strongly supported in these 11 effective programs. This coincides with research, which stresses the active involvement of a principal to the successful functioning of any special education program (Bender, 1987; Glick & Schubert, 1981; Payne & Murray, 1974; Rebore, 1979; Smith, 1979).

The involvement of these principals in this study began with their attitude and posture toward special education. Each exhibited a highly

visible, strongly supportive profile which seemed to pervade the entire building. They spoke highly of their special education staffs, the opportunities they provided for students with disabilities, and genuinely expresssed the belief that their programs were exemplary in meeting the needs of their students. Consistent with Rebore's (1979) findings, each principal perceived his/her leadership to be the critical factor in the effective functioning of his/her special programs.

In addition to creating a positive environment, principals should, according to Tye (1970) and Westling (1989), demonstrate a willingness to improve his/her own skills and knowledge concerning special education. This willingness held true in these programs, as the majority of administrators interviewed had taken some additional coursework in special education, increasing their knowledge of the requirements of P.L. 94-142. It also appeared that the secondary staffs felt that their administrator possessed adequate knowledge about the characteristics of students with disabilities and demonstrated an excellent understanding of the referral process utilized by their individual districts. Not only is skill development of importance to these administrators in the day-to-day management of the special education program, but it also sets the tone of the importance of special education for the entire building. It would be difficult to convince a faculty of the importance of special education to the district if the administrator saw no need for advanced knowledge and skill development.

Despite their advanced coursework in special education, administrators still expressed concern about the adequacy of their knowledge concerning the implementation of special education. Their combined SoC profile ranked informational concerns third in order of importance, signifying administrators generally still felt they needed more information regarding the characteristics, effects, and requirements of special education. Of course, administrators are responsible for more than simply understanding the characteristics of students with disabilities and the referral system. Administrators in several of the schools reported their populations were becoming more and more disabled and the regulations were becoming more complex to implement. Those additional responsibilities definitely add to the knowledge base required of the principal, tending to skew the importance ranking of informational concerns. Their concerns in this area, coupled with the rapid expansion of information on special education, merely intensifies the need for administrators to pursue additional learning opportunities beyond the basics.

The increased knowledge base these administrators possessed allowed them to function effectively as an informed member of the educational planning team. The administrator is one of the primary members of the multidisciplinary educational planning team which determines, through staffings, the appropriate way to meet the learning needs of students. The principal's regular attendance at these staffings demonstrated the significance of special education in that building. All the administrators interviewed, with the exception of one, stated they

attended the majority of staffings held in their buildings. The attendance of the principal at these staffings provides active, visible support for the special education staff and allows the administrator the opportunity to get to know and understand the students served within the special education program. It also encourages the general staff's attendance when requested.

The administrator's participation in the majority of staffings also demonstrates to the parent(s) the priority set on meeting the educational needs of the child. The staffing may be the only experience a parent of a child with disabilities has with the school. The advocacy of the administrator at these staffings serves to foster a more cooperative parent-school relationship. Interestingly enough, parental participation in staffings was almost 100% in these 11 schools. This involvement of parents is in compliance with P.L. 94-142 regulations; however, 10 of these schools stepped above mere compliance by requiring their students with disabilities to attend their own staffings. Since the staffing is conducted to design an educational plan for a student, it is only logical that the student and parents have a role in its design. Without input the student will not take ownership in the plan. Without ownership, the plan really has no chance of meeting the student's needs. In addition, who knows a student's needs better than the student and his/her parents?

The multidisciplinary planning team is also required, by law, to include the general classroom teachers of mainstreamed students. In contrast to primary teachers, secondary general teachers are rarely

involved in staffings, succumbing to time restraints and scheduling difficulties (Hayes & Higgins, 1978; Kabler & Carlton, 1982; Pugach, 1982). Consistent with the research, the majority of administrators interviewed acknowledged that their general classroom teachers were invited to attend staffings but rarely did due to time restraints. The general classroom and special education teachers predictably disagree as to the extent this attendance actually occurred, however, in their schools. This disagreement became very obvious in a written statement made by a general teacher and one by a special education teacher. The general classroom teacher stated that she would attend staffings but was never invited. The special education teacher stated that general classroom teachers were invited to all staffings but never came.

It is entirely possible that both of these educators are correct. Often special education teachers feel that a general invitation to the entire staff concerning staffings is sufficient. The general classroom teacher, however, doesn't usually understand the significance of the staffings so feels that these meetings are private conferences with the parent of a child. Those special education teachers who had general classroom teachers in attendance at staffings had made a concerted effort to personally invite the individual teachers and had taken the time to explain the entire process to them. They also emphasized the role the general classroom teacher would play and its importance to the educational planning for that child.

The major purpose behind the requirement for general classroom teachers' attendance at staffings is to allow for their input into the

development of each mainstreamed student's IEP. According to research, this IEP is, all too often, designed only by specialists who aren't the ultimate provider of the instruction that disabled students will receive (Goldstein et al., 1980; Hayes & Higgins, 1978; Marver & David, 1978; Nevin et al., 1983; Pugach, 1982; Rucker & Vautour, 1978; Ryor, 1978). Special education students spend the majority of the school day within the mainstream. At the secondary level this may include five or six general classes. Without these general classroom teachers' contributions to this IEP, a large part of the student's day is missing from the educational plan. In addition, since these general teachers are missing from the centralized planning, there is no instructional coordination and the student suffers with a hodge-podge of learning activities, many ill-suited to his/her educational needs.

The general classroom teachers in these schools surveyed were rarely in attendance at staffings and rarely participated in or contributed to IEP development. In fact, 17% of the general teachers made a point of writing on their surveys that they had no idea what an IEP was, let alone participated in its development. Central to this lack of participation was that the majority of the general classroom teachers surveyed had had limited educational preparation in special education, paralleling similar findings reported by numerous researchers (Chambers, 1983; Fender, 1981; Goodman & Miller, 1980; Harasymiw & Horne, 1976; Kraft, 1973; Payne & Murray, 1974; Proctor, 1967; Reed, 1983; Yates, 1973). Without appropriate educational training, either through post-secondary or inservice opportunities, general classroom

teachers lack the confidence to participate in educational planning for disabled students. Many of these teachers would be able to participate fully in a staffing but are reluctant to do so because of their lack of experience and training, so they don't volunteer or attend when invited. In addition, administrators have not made it advantageous for general classroom teachers to participate in these staffings. Release time isn't provided and attendance would require many before and/or after-school time commitments.

Not surprisingly, this expressed lack of knowledge concerning IEPs was reflected in similar low occurrence ratings concerning the use of this IEP by general classroom teachers in lesson planning. Team teaching between the special education and general education department, which requires extensive utilization of IEPs, was reported by four administrators. While involving only 36% of the schools surveyed, this could account for a slight rise in the reported occurrence of this practice as reflected in the administrators' survey responses. More indicative of the actual rate of occurrence for this practice were the lower ratings given by general and special education teachers who expressed disagreement as to how often this actually occurred in their schools. In fact, only four administrators reported their general classroom teachers even received a copy of pertinent IEPs. It is difficult to imagine general classroom teachers making much use of an IEP they didn't understand nor helped to prepare even if they did receive a copy. In addition, disagreement was expressed by both general and special education teachers as to the extent IEPs were actually

utilized in designing class schedules of special education students. The lack of knowledge about and use of IEPs by the general classroom teachers is highly consistent with the research findings of Nevin et al. (1983) in their work with primary teachers.

Despite their lack of involvement with mainstreamed special education students' IEPs, the general classroom teachers within these 11 schools did a surprising amount of accommodation within their classrooms. Administrators reported strategies such as modifying and/or reading tests, team teaching, modifying assignments and requirements, contracting for grades, peer tutoring, taping textbooks, and offering alternative credits within the resource room. This is in direct contrast to several research studies which have reported general classroom teachers to be highly reluctant to make any form of modification in their classes for disabled students (Ammer, 1984; Horne, 1983; Nevin et al., 1983; Zigmond et al., 1985). This contrast may be attributed to the fact that these programs in this study were deemed to be effective, and accommodation is an essential component to effective secondary special education (Pugach, 1982).

Most of the accommodations done within these observed programs, however, required little or no knowledge about the student's disabilities or learning objectives and were fairly simple for the general classroom teacher to implement. This was consistent with the fact that the majority of the general classroom teachers had no idea what was in the students' IEPs. Central to designing accommodations for students with disabilities is to understand what each student's actual

disability entails and how best to facilitate that student's abilities. Without an active knowledge of each student's IEP, more specific accommodation would be virtually impossible.

One administrator summed up what the majority had expressed about their staffs' accommodation techniques when he stated, "They [general classroom teachers] do the usual things such as reading tests. In fact, they do a lot up to the point where they must do it themselves or it requires additional work on their behalf." Munson (1987) postulated that general classroom teachers make limited use of accommodation techniques due to large class sizes, the lack of release time for preparation, and limited quality inservice and educational opportunities. This certainly proved true within these 11 schools. General and special education teachers agreed that reduced class sizes and release time were never provided by their administration to the faculty as a means of encouraging accommodation for students with disabilities.

On the topic of release time, four administrators reported providing release time for their special education staff; however, no administrator reported the converse--providing release time for general teachers. Without both sets of teachers receiving release time, consultation and accommodation activities are bound to be difficult to schedule and limited in scope. Both of these issues were addressed as major concerns by the National Education Association and the American Federation of Teachers, which both advocated the reduction of nondisabled students within a general classroom for each mainstreamed

student and the provision of release time for all teachers to facilitate accommodation and consultation (Ryor, 1978).

Interestingly enough, however, when administrators were questioned about these constraints, the majority (82%) interviewed stated that class loads had never surfaced as a problem for their teachers. Obviously teachers, nevertheless, do feel that class loads are a problem and according to Munson (1987), "Teachers with more students in their classes reported fewer modifications. In these classes, the demand on teacher time may have decreased the likelihood that special modifications were made" (p. 498). This held true in these districts where accommodations did occur but were of a very elementary nature. It is difficult to justify a special education teacher's serving 4 or 5 during one class period, while a general classroom teacher might have 4 or 5 students with disabilities mainstreamed into a classroom already containing 25 nondisabled students. Without assistance, individualization for those special education students will not occur.

In addition, the lack of training that these general classroom teachers had in the area of special education would drastically limit the uniqueness of their accommodations. General classroom teachers are not prepared within their normal college curriculum to design accommodations for students with disabilities. This lack of preparation is further exacerbated at the secondary level where general teachers' preparation is primarily subject- rather than student-oriented. It is the responsibility of the special education staff to instruct these teachers in how best to proceed. Consistent with research which

reported limited formal inservicing on special education topics (Mandell & Strain, 1978; Rauth, 1981; Reed, 1983; Ryor, 1978), the provision of inservice and educational opportunities occurred with low to less than medium frequency within these schools. General and special education teachers disagreed with administrators as to the actual extent this occurred within their schools. This disagreement was primarily due to the fact that all 11 administrators reported that formal inservicing in special education rarely occurred. In fact, only three administrators reported any type of formal inservice programs on special education issues. According to the 11 administrators, their special education staff shared information strictly on an informal, as needed, basis with their general staff.

While there is certainly nothing wrong with informal information sharing, it tends to fall more under the heading of consultative activities. According to their survey responses, these general and special education teachers did not readily view it as an adequate provision of inservicing on these topics. Since none of the schools surveyed provided reciprocal release time for their general staffs, the informal information sharing would have had to occur before and after school. There is simply not enough time during those time periods to provide the necessary education to the general staff and consult about particular students.

In addition, teachers expressed concern over how best to handle discipline problems when they arose regarding mainstreamed students. Research has shown that without planned effective inservicing programs

addressing the needs of the teachers, accommodations by general teachers will be limited in scope and many teachers will be unable to cope with motivation and behavior problems exhibited by special education students (Halpern & Benz, 1987; Maher, 1982; Munson, 1987; P.L. 94-142 Final Regulations, 1977). Assuming that problems of such magnitude can be handled with informal conversation alone is preposterous when special education personnel are required to take many hours of advanced coursework in behavior and instructional management in order to deal with the same students.

The majority of the special education teachers surveyed had had general secondary education preparation and/or experience, contrary to research which reported secondary special education teachers' general educational preparation to be inadequate or nonexistent (Pugach, 1987; Tindal et al., 1987). This general secondary preparation is crucial to the effective functioning of secondary special education teachers. Not only are they better able to understand the workings of a general classroom, but they understand what it is actually like to instruct within that environment. That knowledge is something that cannot be learned from a textbook. General classroom teachers tend to have more respect for one of their own and will more readily accept suggestions from someone who knows what it is like "in the trenches." Many of the special education teachers surveyed commented on the importance they attributed to possessing that general classroom experience in establishing the mandatory rapport with their general staff.

In addition, all administrators reported a strong team relationship had developed between their special education staff and themselves. Each administrator spoke very highly of his/her special education personnel, crediting the success of the program to their tenacity in making mainstreaming work. The determination of the special education staff to make mainstreaming work was cited as an essential component of effective special education programs studied by Glick and Schubert (1981).

There was, however, a great deal of disagreement among the respondents as to the extent that special education teachers were involved in nonteaching duties such as study halls. The administration, general classroom teachers, and counselors felt that their special education staff participated in nonteaching activities with less than medium frequency, while special education teachers saw themselves involved more often in nonteaching activities. Glick and Schubert (1981) also cited that effective special education programs have the special education personnel treated and viewed as part of the total faculty. Without the assumption of nonteaching duties, it is possible that special education teachers may not be viewed as part of the faculty due to resentment. If the general staff resents their special education staff because they feel they don't have to pull their load, the collaborative network so necessary for effective special education will not occur. Ultimately, the student will suffer due to the lack of cooperation between the two groups.

Many of these concerns were reflected in the combined SoC profiles of administrators, general and special education teachers. All three of these groups ranked personal concerns second in order of importance, signifying a high concern about the demands special education was making upon their professional role and their competency to meet those demands. In addition, management concerns--those issues related to efficiency, organizing, scheduling, and time--were third in importance according to general classroom and special education teachers and fourth, for administrators. General classroom and special education teachers demonstrated a more intense level of personal and management concerns overall than did administrators. These concerns were consistent with research which reported general classroom teachers questioning their preparation to deal with disabled students (Bird & Gansneder, 1979; Flynn et al., 1978; Gickling & Theobold, 1975; Gillung & Rucker, 1976; Jones et al., 1978; Martin, 1974; Post & Roy, 1985; Ringlaben & Price, 1981; Ryor, 1978; Shepard, 1987; Wiederholt et al., 1983) and special education teachers questioning their role in the educational process (D'Alonzo & Wiseman, 1978; Dodd & Kelker, 1980; Evans, 1980; Evans, 1981; Gickling et al., 1979; Huefner, 1988; Sargent, 1981; Speece & Mandell, 1980; Wiederholt & Chamberlain, 1989).

The survey statements in which general and special education teachers disagreed with administrators--reductions in class loads, provision of release time and inservices, involvement with IEPs, adequacy of discipline procedures--all centered upon personal and/or management concerns. The differences in intensity between

administrators and teachers on these matters were reflected in the increasing variability between these groups. Funding, also a personal concern, showed greater variability despite its overall rating as being available with medium frequency. In fact, one general classroom teacher acknowledged that funds were there for special education teachers but not for the general education staff that deals with the students the majority of the school day. Administrators also reflected great concern for future funding of their special education programs. These personal and management concerns need to be reduced with sequential, specific how-to activities before the teachers within these schools will be receptive to collaborating with others to improve further the outcomes of special education.

Consultation and collaboration are considered to be the most needed but least available responsibility of special education teachers (Little, 1982; Reynolds, 1989; Wiederholt et al., 1981). All 11 administrators interviewed reported that they expected consultation to occur but only 4 districts had taken active steps in its facilitation. The administrators overall reflected a medium level of concern regarding collaboration on their SoC profiles. This lower level of concern was supported by the fact that only one administrator expressed doubt as to the true amount of collaboration that was actually occurring within his district. The remaining 10 administrators all felt relatively comfortable that it was occurring but acknowledged it could definitely improve in quality and increase in amount.

General classroom and special education teachers also agreed that more could be done to facilitate consultation and collaboration. Both felt that general classroom teachers only sometimes sought information from their special education teachers and the special education teachers only sometimes assisted the general classroom teachers within the classroom. There was extremely high disagreement expressed by general classroom teachers as to the extent that special education teachers actually did assist within the classroom. In fact, the disagreement expressed on this statement was the most intense throughout the entire survey by all groups. This was most probably due to the fact that only four administrators (36%) reported team teaching occurred within their schools. In addition, these secondary special educators were responsible for collaborating with five to eight general classroom teachers for each special education student on their roster. This is in direct contrast to primary special educators whose collaboration responsibilities include only one to three general educators. Without additional allotted time specifically designated for special education consultation, it is doubted that the quality and quantity of consultation will improve or increase within these schools.

There was also definite disagreement between general classroom and special education teachers concerning the importance of collaboration. Special education teachers ranked collaboration as their biggest concern regarding the functioning of special education programs in their districts. General classroom teachers, on the other hand, ranked collaboration as the least of their concerns. The major reason for this

discrepancy is that general classroom teachers have too many personal and management concerns regarding special education which overshadow any thoughts about the possibility of collaboration with others. In addition, while consultation and collaboration at the elementary level is not unique, this concept of the mutual support of teachers is an idea quite foreign to secondary education. Secondary teachers instruct a specific discipline and rarely have the need or opportunity to interact with other secondary teachers of differing disciplines. Secondary teachers are also seldom prepared to function as a member of an educational team (Hauptman, 1983) or trained in consultative skills (Little, 1977).

These general classroom teachers were too busy trying to meet the needs of their entire class to make time for the collaboration. The administrations had not provided convenient times for collaboration so the teachers in these schools had to fit the collaboration in as time allowed. This meant that very little, if any, was occurring. This is counterproductive because as the general educator learns adaptive teaching techniques and utilizes them in the general classroom, other students besides the special education student will benefit (Montgomery, 1978). This allows the special educator to have an effect far beyond the confines of the resource classroom and provides the general educator with the means to independently deal with learning difficulties he/she previously felt unable to remediate. Education of the whole child then becomes a cooperative venture of shared responsibilities which is in the true spirit of P.L. 94-142.

All three groups ranked consequence concerns--the relevance of special education for students--of minimal importance. One of the major reasons that this area was ranked so low in intensity was due to the fact that other concerns--mainly personal and management--were of more immediate importance to these respondents. Until those particular concerns are reduced in intensity, consequence concerns will hold little relevance.

Another reason for the low level of importance for consequence concerns surfaced in the analysis of survey statements that addressed student impact. These 11 schools appeared to be doing a good job of attending to the impact of special education on their student population. There was general agreement that support was provided for special education students both in and outside the general classroom. General and special education teachers expressed some disagreement as to the actual extent this occurred, but this disagreement can probably be linked to the limited use of innovative accommodation and consultation activities. Six administrators (55%) reported a high level of social integration of their special education students and the remaining 45% had only mild concerns about a tendency toward the social isolationism of their more disabled populations. All groups expressed satisfaction with the social skills demonstrated by their special education students and felt that, for the most part, an adequate emphasis was placed upon transition planning.

In the Fall of 1989, the State of Iowa conducted research into the continued viability of the current delivery system for special

education. Its baseline data signified a definite need to change the delivery of special education to students at-risk and with disabilities (Key Baseline Concerns, 1990). Consistent with this study, the combined SoC profile of the special education teachers surveyed showed higher intensity refocusing concerns, signifying these teachers had definite ideas about alternatives to the current method of special education implementation. These special education teachers would most probably be interested in making changes that would facilitate collaboration and clarify their professional role in the implementation of special education. In fact, one special education teacher even addressed this in a comment on her survey which stated that cooperative learning would reduce the need for much of the current method of special education.

The administrators' combined SoC profile reflected medium intensity refocusing concerns, signifying some concern with the current method of special education implementation. These concerns were not as strong as the special education teachers' concerns and dealt primarily with finding a way to manage special education more efficiently. These concerns were reinforced during the interviews when administrators were asked about the Renewed Service Delivery System (RSDS), the State of Iowa's alternative delivery system for special education. Eight of the 11 administrators expressed deep concern about the funding, efficiency, organizing, managing, scheduling, and time demands RSDS would place upon their school and personnel. These administrators were not totally convinced RSDS was a viable alternative for their special education programs at this time. In fact, of the five schools in this survey

which are part of the RSDS trial AEA sites, four of the schools are still in the planning stages of RSDS and one school has refused to participate in RSDS implementation. Many worry that RSDS will eliminate not only the poor special education programs but the effective ones as well, reducing special education reform to a sweeping reworking of all programs. Since these are exemplary secondary special education programs, it would be beneficial for RSDS planners to observe the positive attributes of these programs and attempt to emulate them. In addition, the inadequacies of these programs should be addressed and corrected to facilitate more efficient programs.

Coates (1989) surveyed classroom teachers in northwest Iowa and reported general satisfaction with the current delivery system for special education, in contrast to the State of Iowa study. The combined SoC profiles of the general classroom teachers surveyed demonstrated low intensity refocusing concerns. Consistent with Coates' findings, in this study teachers had no definite ideas for changing the current delivery system for special education. This expression of low refocusing concerns may well signify, as in Coates' study, general satisfaction with the special education programs. It may, however, simply signify that these general classroom teachers have limited knowledge of any other alternatives to the current method of providing special education used by their districts. Considering the lack of advanced education these general teachers had concerning special education, it seems more probable that they lacked information about specific alternatives.

Recommendations

Based on the results of this study, the following recommendations are suggested:

1. Facilitative leadership was the most essential characteristic found within these effective secondary special education programs. Current and future administrators need to be made aware of the critical role they play in the effective functioning of their special education programs. They should not only voice support for their special education program, but demonstrate it through active involvement at all levels of the educational planning process. Administrators need to cultivate and exhibit a positive attitude toward the disabled and encourage their staffs to utilize innovative educational methods to meet each student's needs. Principals should be particularly attentive to the development of rapport and trust between themselves and general and special education teachers, thereby facilitating the development of a team concept in educational planning for students with disabilities.

In addition to being cognizant of the vital role they play within special education, these administrators need to be provided with specific methods they can utilize which directly support their special and general education staffs in their implementation of special education. They might find it advantageous to reduce class loads for those general classroom teachers with a large number of mainstreamed students, thereby facilitating individualization and accommodation. Administrators might also attempt to utilize the team teaching concept (pairing a special education teacher with a general education teacher)

on a more widespread basis. To facilitate collaboration, administrators might attempt to build into the master schedule a collaboration time period for all teachers.

2. The principals within this study made parent and student participation within staffings a priority. Parents and the secondary student can provide valuable help and information in the educational process. The principal is responsible for communicating that fact to the faculty through formal communication media such as teacher bulletins and also through informal communications such as one-on-one conversation. Administrators should take particular care to insure that parents of a disabled student are included in and informed of all school events and activities. Administrators should also encourage direct parent contact by both their special and general education staffs. In addition, principals should attempt to facilitate a parent's and student's full participation in the staffing procedure. They might find it advantageous to meet with the parents and/or the student individually before the actual staffing to alleviate any concerns or questions they may have about the process.

3. There was a strong sense of student belongingness within the surveyed schools. Although some administrators had reservations about the social integration of their more profoundly disabled populations, most expressed satisfaction with the social integration of their special education students. The principal's demonstration of support for these students sends a message to his/her faculty and student body that social adjustment is a crucial educational goal. Principals might find it

advantageous to encourage their school's participation in and support of Special Olympics. In addition, principals should be particularly attentive to recognizing their special education students' accomplishments. This recognition could be done individually or through the use of a special awards ceremony for the entire student body. Principals could also encourage integration through implementation of peer assistance programs. Not only would it be possible for general students to assist special education students but it is entirely possible that special education students might be able to assist general students with certain activities.

4. Administrators expressed concern about locating information on how best to manage an efficient special education program within the high school. Preservice and inservice training of administrators should not only provide information on the characteristics, effects, and requirements of special education, but also provide specific management strategies other administrators have utilized that have proven to be effective. Administrators might find it advantageous to include the topic of special education at their monthly conference principal meetings, facilitating the exchange of ideas among administrators. Teacher preparation institutions might utilize current administrators as class presenters for preservice administrators. These current administrators could provide management strategies and innovative ideas that have worked in their schools. In this way, rather than strictly textbook theory, preservice administrators would have a compilation of workable techniques from which to draw when they become administrators.

5. Administrators reported a vast amount of informal communication occurred between their special and general educators regarding special education topics of concern and students. Research stressed the importance of the development of a strong informal communication network among and between the educational personnel in an effective special education program. Guidelines and strategies need to be developed which assist administrators in cultivating this communication network within their schools. The principals within this study were highly visible, both to students and staff, which facilitated their communication ability. Administrators might find it beneficial to develop a highly visible, receptive profile, thereby encouraging the growth of an informal communication network. Administrators might also utilize a monthly newsletter to share information about their special education programs, including achievements of students and teachers and accommodation strategies others are using.

6. A strong team relationship between the administrator and special education personnel surfaced in this study; however, very little active involvement of general classroom teachers was reported. Appropriate programming for students with disabilities involves the development of a cooperative relationship between the administration and both general and special education personnel. Strategies need to be developed that enhance the participation of general classroom teachers on this educational team. Administrators should be particularly attentive to insuring their general classroom staff are informed of all pertinent educational planning meetings and are comfortable with its

role on the planning team. They might find it advantageous to conduct an inservice program utilizing a mock IEP staffing with staff members role playing critical team members. This would provide their staffs with actual hands-on experience as members of an educational team without the stress of dealing with an actual student. Not only would these mock IEP staffings be appropriate instructional models for currently employed teachers, teacher preparation institutions could utilize similar techniques to provide preservice general classroom teachers with the skills necessary to function as a member of an educational team.

In addition, principals should make every attempt to conduct team meetings at a convenient time for both general and special education staff. Setting aside one morning before school weekly, with refreshments, for such team meetings might encourage attendance, cultivating the growth of camaraderie, an essential component to team building.

Finally, administrators need to recognize the work of those staff involved on these educational planning teams. This recognition might take the form of compensation time for hours spent before and after school. In addition, verbal thanks and statements of appreciation go far toward making a person feel a part of the team.

7. The general classroom teachers within this study had limited or no exposure to special education information through college coursework. Teacher preparation institutions need to be aware that general classroom teachers need more than a bare understanding of

special education concepts in order to satisfactorily program and accommodate to meet individual students' learning and behaviorial needs. In addition to basic special education program information, preparation programs should emphasize the role general classroom teachers play in providing appropriate educational opportunities to all students. This might be facilitated by requiring a special education observation phase of all general education majors. During this observation phase, not only would preservice teachers gain experience in collaboration, but also have the opportunity to work with a wide variety of students with disabilities. This type of practical experience would greatly enhance their preservice preparation.

In addition, teacher preparation institutions might investigate the possibility of creating a collaborative student teaching experience whereby a preservice teacher would student teach not only within his/her chosen discipline but also collaborate with special education personnel.

8. The participation of general classroom teachers in the IEP process was sporadic. In fact many of the general classroom teachers surveyed had no idea what an IEP was. Preservice and inservice training concerning the IEP process should therefore become a major priority for all education agencies. This training should provide instruction in the general process of IEP development and how best to utilize a particular student's IEP in planning for the student in a general class. Particular attention should be paid to providing preservice and general classroom teachers with hands-on opportunities utilizing hypothetical IEPs in designing general lesson plans and possible accommodations.

9. Differences among the groups surveyed concerning the reduction of nondisabled students within a general classroom for each mainstreamed student did exist. While reducing the class size within mainstreamed general classes has been supported by research and collective bargaining agencies, little of this appeared within these schools. Administrators should be particularly attentive to the amount of time general classroom teachers need in order to accommodate for students with disabilities. The provision of load limits might be one fairly painless way of encouraging accommodation, though such provisions might present difficult financial implications.

10. While release time for consultation was provided to many of the special education teachers in this study, reciprocal release time for general classroom teachers was not. Little consultation will occur if the special education teacher cannot meet with the general classroom teacher during this provided release time. Strategies need to be developed to provide time during the school day during which both special and general classroom teachers may meet to discuss and collaborate on ways to best meet the learning needs of mutual students. Administrators might attempt to schedule an early release day once or twice monthly to be used for collaboration. In addition, this time could be utilized by staff to design accommodations for specific classes and students.

Administrators might also attempt to group teacher preparation times so that teachers who have students in common would have preparation time together. This would enable the special education

staff to work with a group of teachers at one time and also might facilitate a shared sense of purpose among the staff. A final option might include providing substitutes for different general classroom teachers at various periods throughout the day. These general teachers could then use that class period to consult with the special education staff.

11. Differences among the groups surveyed concerning the assignment of nonteaching duties such as study hall to special education personnel did exist. It is important, that if special educators are to gain and hold the respect of general classroom teachers and students, they are treated and viewed as one of the faculty. Without the assignment of nonteaching duties, these special educators will be viewed as separate and apart from the general staff. In addition, without the assignment of study hall, for example, nondisabled students rarely get an opportunity to interact with these special educators. This interaction would greatly benefit the integration of special and general education. Administrators need to be particularly aware that they treat their special education staffs as they do their general education staffs including the area of assigned duties. In addition, special education staffs should recognize the importance of becoming involved in the general activity flow of the secondary school by volunteering for dance chaperone duty, hall duty, and extra-curricular supervision activities.

12. The majority of special education teachers surveyed had either secondary general education preparation, secondary general classroom teaching experience, or both. This background training greatly

facilitates the relationship that needs to develop between special and general educators in order for effective collaboration to take place. Teacher preparation institutions need to look into the possibility of the integration of general and special education preparation in order to enhance the credibility and functioning of both professions. The use of a collaborative student teaching experience for both fields might provide a foundation for the development of a working relationship between general and special education.

In addition, it may be beneficial for teacher preparation institutions to require future special education teachers to meet a 2 or 3 year successful secondary general teaching requirement before receiving their special education endorsement(s). Through this requirement, special education teachers would have had actual classroom experience integrating special education students into a general classroom.

13. Special education teachers also expressed a desire to identify a way of providing more collaboration within their special education programs. Since collaboration between special and general education teachers is the backbone of effective mainstreaming, strategies need to be provided to all personnel which would enhance cooperation and collaboration. Currently, Iowa is in the process of modifying the method of providing special education within the public schools through RSDS implementation. Those schools in the process of developing their RSDS plans should make every effort to address ways to increase and improve opportunities for collaboration.

Administrators need to be particularly attentive to providing the time needed for collaboration. This could be done through early release days, flexible scheduling of classes, and provision of substitutes at various times to free up staff for consultation. It is also important that efforts are taken to develop an atmosphere of respect and trust among all members of the staff. One means of facilitating this is to provide opportunities for teachers to understand not only the role they play in the education of students with disabilities but also the interrelationship involved among the staff in providing that education.

One method of facilitating this role development is through a focus on a problem-solving approach in which all people involved with a particular student have an opportunity to meet and exchange ideas on how best to meet that student's learning needs. All the schools surveyed had active at-risk committees, which, along with other responsibilities, functioned as planning teams for their students with disabilities. Their administrators credited these teams with increasing the knowledge base of their staffs and greatly increasing the number of accommodations being utilized by their staffs. In addition, they expressed the belief that a great sense of unity of purpose had evolved within their schools due to the involvement of these teams in educational planning. All administrators should consider the use of such an approach in educational planning.

14. Differences among the groups surveyed concerning the provision of inservice experiences did exist. Despite the requirement in P.L. 94-142 Final Regulations (1977), for the establishment of a formal

inservice program, very little formal inservicing concerning special education was occurring within these schools. Inservice training concerning the demands special education places upon education personnel and specific how-to management and accommodation strategies should be a priority for all educational agencies.

It would be particularly beneficial if general classroom teachers were provided with hands-on opportunities in designing accommodations for their classes. Survey results demonstrated, that although these general teachers did accommodate, very little of the accommodations were innovative. "Make and take" workshops where actual modifications are discussed, designed, and created for actual problems teachers are experiencing within their classes would be extremely useful. These workshops could be facilitated by a district's own special education faculty which might also assist in developing a strong relationship among all staff.

Implications for Further Research

Based on the results of this study the following implications for further study are suggested:

1. The population of secondary special education programs and the secondary administrators of these programs have been all but ignored by research in special education. Since this time period is so critical to the development of secondary special education students, further research into secondary special education and the principal's role in its effectiveness needs to be undertaken.

2. The schools within this study cultivated a positive, involved home-school relationship. In addition, the majority of the principals in this study stated unequivocally that the secondary special education student must practice a hands-on approach to his/her educational plan. Research has described this home-school involvement as being essential to the development of appropriate educational programming for special education students. However, the involvement of parents and students at the secondary level is often difficult to procure. Guidelines need to be developed which would assist principals in facilitating the in-depth involvement of parents and secondary students in the special education process. Further study into the enhancement of the secondary home-school relationship and its benefits for special education programming seems warranted.

3. Guidelines and strategies need to be developed which would assist principals in facilitating the continued social integration of students with disabilities. The effects of Special Olympics and other such programs on facilitating the social integration of students with disabilities needs further research. In addition, further study into the use of peer assistance programs with secondary special education populations might be beneficial.

4. The concept of reducing the number of nondisabled students within a general classroom with the addition of each mainstreamed student has great implications concerning collective negotiations and state regulations. Additional study of the issues surrounding class size reduction and its possible benefits needs to be undertaken.

5. One of the overriding difficulties observed within this study was the inherent separation between general and special education which perseverates the lack of collaboration at the secondary level. Further study into how best to form the necessary interrelationship between the two disciplines needs to be undertaken.

6. General classroom teachers expressed very low refocusing concerns. This could signify that they were satisfied with the current special education delivery system utilized by their districts. It could also signify that they did not possess enough information on possible alternatives to the methods utilized by their districts in the provision of special education. Because RSDS is primarily concerned with changing the method of special education delivery, further research into general classroom teachers' concerns in this area seems warranted.

7. Special education teachers within this study expressed some confusion as to their true role in the implementation of secondary special education programming. Additional study into this perceived role confusion in order to determine whether this is unique to these particular special education teachers would be warranted.

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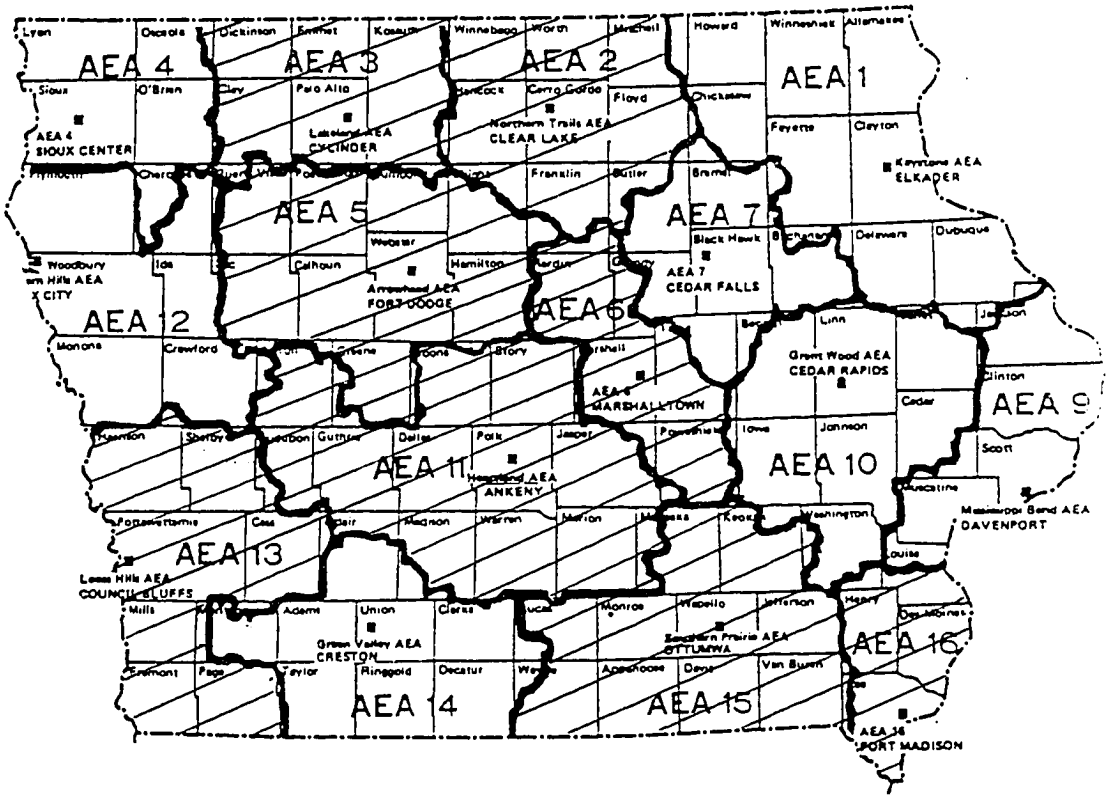
APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

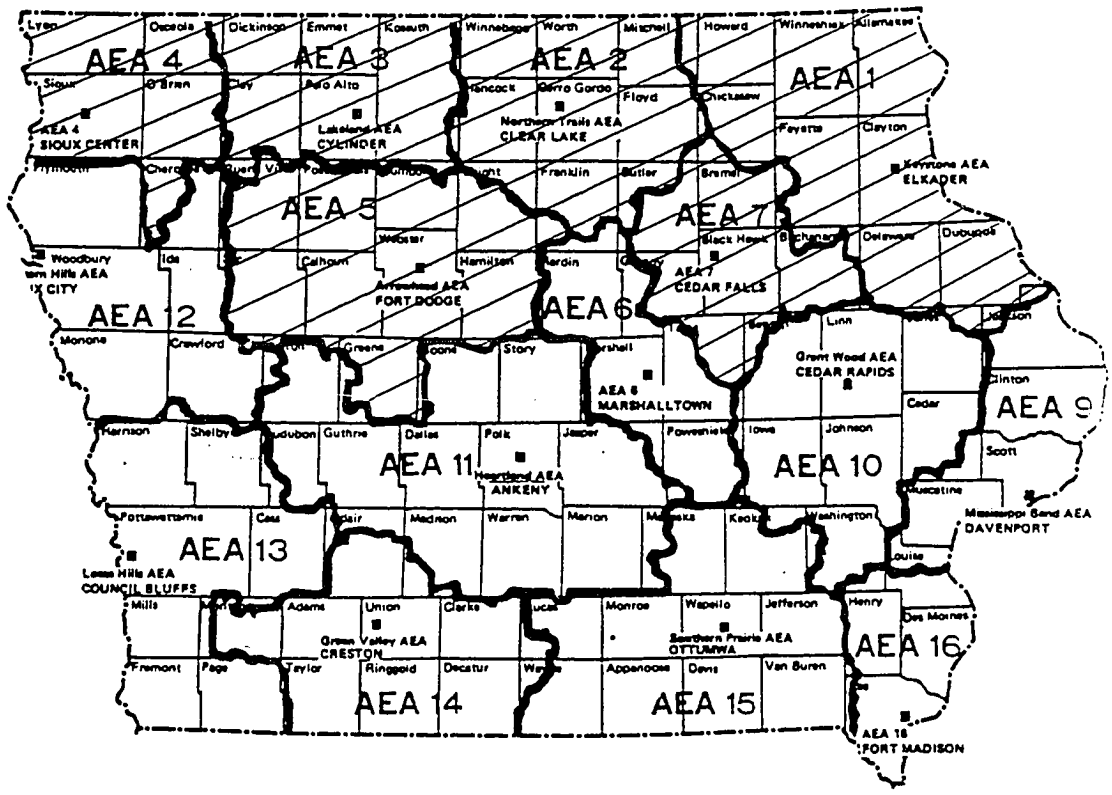
AREA EDUCATION AGENCY (AEA) MAP WITH RSDS SITES



Renewed Service Delivery System (RSDS) Trial Sites Shaded

APPENDIX B

LOCATION OF STUDY PARTICIPANTS



Iowa Area Education Agencies with Participant Sites Shaded

APPENDIX C

LETTER TO SPECIAL EDUCATION DIRECTORS

1412 North Eighth Place
Clear Lake, IA 50428
September 27, 1990

_____
Director of Special Education
Area Education Agency #___
_____
_____, IA _____

Dear _____:

Special educational programming is a crucial issue, educationally and financially, for the public schools. Large amounts of time and money are invested daily to meet students' learning needs. Despite this, most national studies, which have been so prominently reviewed in recent years, have not included special education programs in their discussion nor their findings. In addition, all the research conducted into effective school and program correlates has failed to address the area of special education. If the improvement of entire school programs is as important as these studies would lead us to believe, then it is equally important that individual programs within the school, such as special education, stress effectiveness as their ultimate goal. Without research into what constitutes an effective program, this goal for special education will be virtually unreachable. This becomes even more critical in the area of secondary special education because the necessary research, which is so vital for program improvement, is virtually nonexistent at this level.

The area of effective secondary special education became a focal point in my doctoral research at the University of Northern Iowa. Under the direction of Dr. James E. Albrecht, Professor of Educational Administration, I began to question what constitutes an effective special education program. It was my assumption that just as effective schools had common identifiable correlates, so should effective secondary special education programs. Because of Iowa's leadership role in the area of special education, I felt that effective special education programs should be readily available for study within the state. The purpose of my dissertation will be to identify the common characteristics found in selected effective Iowa secondary special education programs. In order to do so, it is necessary, therefore, to first select those secondary schools which contain special education programs deemed to be effective. I would be most grateful for your assistance in the identification of these effective programs.

Your position as the Director of Special Education for Area #__ requires you to be familiar with the special education programs contained within the schools in your area. It is because of your familiarity with these

programs, coupled with your expertise in special education, that I ask you to identify five (5) secondary schools that contain a special education program which not only implements the **letter** of P.L. 94-142, but also the **spirit** for which it was intended. These should be secondary programs that you would point out to others as exemplary, illustrating the way special education was designed to be implemented. I will not be addressing the area of talented and gifted nor the area of severe and profound education in my study, so you may disregard programs of that type from your consideration.

The same request will be made of five other Iowa Area Directors of Special Education, thus providing 30 schools as a final population. These 30 schools will be contacted to determine if any schools would prefer not to participate in this study. From the remaining population, 12 schools will be randomly selected for my sample. I will conduct observations of each of these schools during the winter of 1991, at which time I hope to be able to identify characteristics common to the 12 effective secondary special education programs.

I would appreciate your response by October 12, 1990. I have enclosed a self-addressed, stamped envelope for your reply. If you have any questions or comments, please feel free to contact me by letter or phone (515-357-8440) after 4:30 p.m. I appreciate your prompt consideration of this matter.

Sincerely,

Robyn Lynn Kramer

rlk

Enclosure

APPENDIX D

LETTER TO SELECTED SCHOOLS

1412 North Eighth Place
Clear Lake, IA 50428
_____, 1991

_____
Principal
_____
_____
_____, IA _____

Dear _____:

Recently the effectiveness of special education legislation has come under increasing criticism from special education researchers at the national level. Many have questioned the manner in which P.L. 94-142 has been implemented and have called for an entire reform in the delivery of special education programs. Others have cautioned against such drastic reform because effective practices already in use would be lost along with those considered ineffective. Determining these effective practices became the focus of my doctoral research at the University of Northern Iowa, where the purpose of my dissertation will be to identify common administrative and instructional practices found in identified effective secondary special education programs.

I requested six AEA Directors of Special Education to identify five secondary schools in their respective areas that contained a special education program which implemented both the letter and the spirit of P.L. 94-142. You and your staff are to be congratulated as your school was one of the five selected by AEA #__ Director of Special Education. This selection means that your special education program is viewed as possessing the exemplary qualities of leadership, instruction, and compassion necessary for providing quality educational opportunities for students with disabilities. This letter is to solicit your participation in my research study.

Participation in this study will entail three commitments from you and your certified staff, with the exception of media personnel:

(1) In February, 1991, I will contact you to set a date for a visitation in February or March of 1991. During this visitation, I would like to be able to observe your program and personnel in action to attempt to identify the characteristics which aid in the success of your special education program.

(2) At some time during the scheduled visitation I would like to visit with you regarding your perceptions of

the strengths of your special education program. One week prior to the visitation, I will send a copy of the interview questions in order to provide you with information about the focus of the interview.

(3) The entire certified staff (with the exception of media) will be asked to complete a survey concerning their perceptions and concerns about the special education program within their school. Completion of this survey should take approximately 20 minutes. I will send copies in sufficient number for you to administer to your staff. During my visitation I will pick up the completed surveys and leave a self-addressed, stamped envelope for you to return any surveys completed after that date.

Being a secondary teacher myself, I realize how busy secondary school staff are and have tried to limit the time commitment your participation would entail. I hope that you will view this as an opportunity to share your successful program and personnel with others in an effort to improve secondary special education programming in Iowa.

I would appreciate your response by _____. I have enclosed a self-addressed, stamped envelope for your reply. If you have any questions or comments, please feel free to contact me by letter or by phone (515-357-8440) after 4:30 p.m. I look forward to hearing from you.

Sincerely,

Robyn Lynn Kramer

rlk

Enclosure

APPENDIX E

SPECIAL EDUCATION PRACTICES SURVEY

SPECIAL EDUCATION PRACTICE SURVEY

Your school has been selected by your AEA Director of Special Education Services as possessing an effective special education program. In order to learn more about the various characteristics of your school, we are asking that the teaching staff and administration tell us their views on a number of issues concerning special education. The results from your school and 11 other selected schools throughout Iowa will be compared and contrasted with the hopes of being able to generate a composite picture of an effective secondary special education program.

Please complete this questionnaire as carefully and as frankly as possible. All individual responses will be kept in strictest confidence. When completed, return the questionnaire to your building principal.

Thank you for your cooperation.

SPECIAL EDUCATION PRACTICES SURVEY

A. Please check your current position at this school:

_____ General classroom teacher

_____ Counselor (Go on to Question D)

_____ Administrator (Go on to Question D)

_____ Special Education Teacher

_____ Self-contained

_____ Resource

(Go on to Question E)

B. Please check which grade level(s) you teach this school year:

_____ Grade 9

_____ Grade 10

_____ Grade 11

_____ Grade 12

C. Please check the subject area(s) you teach this school year:

_____ Art

_____ Business Education

_____ Driver's Education

_____ Foreign Language

_____ Home Economics

_____ Industrial Technology/Agricultural

_____ Language Arts

_____ Mathematics/Computer Science

_____ Music

_____ Physical Education/ Health

_____ Science

_____ Social Science/ Economics

D. Please estimate the number of credit hours you have taken during your career regarding special education and the education of children with disabilities.

_____ None

_____ 2 - 6 hours

_____ 7 - 10 hours

_____ Over 10 hours

PLEASE GO ON TO QUESTION F

E. Please answer this question only if a special education teacher at this time.

Check the statement(s) below which best describe you:

_____ My undergraduate coursework was primarily in secondary general education.

_____ My graduate coursework was/is primarily in secondary general education.

_____ I have at least one year secondary general classroom teaching experience.

_____ None of the statements above describe me.

F. Please respond to the following items in terms of your present concerns, or how you feel about your involvement with special education programs in your school. Please circle only one number which represents your present concerns about your involvement with special education.

		Irrelevant to me now	Not at all true of me		Somewhat true of me now			Very true of me now
1.	I am concerned about students' attitudes toward special education.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	I now know of some other approaches that might work better.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	I don't even know what special education is.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	I am concerned about not having enough time to organize myself each day.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	I would like to help other faculty in their use of special education.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	I have a limited knowledge about special education.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	I would like to know the effect of special education.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	I am concerned about conflict between my interests and responsibilities.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9.	I am concerned about revising my use of special education.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

		Irrelevant to me now	Not at all true of me		Somewhat true of me now			Very true of me now
10.	I would like to develop working relationships with both our faculty and outside faculty using special education.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11.	I am concerned about how special education affects students.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12.	I am not concerned about special education.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13.	I would like to know who will make decisions in special education.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14.	I would like to discuss the possibility of using special education.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15.	I would like to know what resources are available if we make use of special education.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16.	I am concerned about my inability to manage all that special education requires.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17.	I would like to know how my teaching or administration is supposed to change.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18.	I would like to familiarize other departments or persons with the progress of special education.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19.	I am concerned about evaluating my impact on students.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20.	I would like to revise the instructional approach of special education.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21.	I am completely occupied with other things.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22.	I would like to modify our use of special education based on the experiences of our students.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23.	Although I don't know about special education, I am concerned about things in the area.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24.	I would like to excite my students about their part in special education.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25.	I am concerned about time spent working with nonacademic problems related to special education.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Irrelevant to me now			Somewhat true of me now			Very true of me now
	Not at all true of me						
26. I would like to know what the use of special education will require in the immediate future.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. I would like to coordinate my effort with others to maximize special education effects.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. I would like to have more information on time and energy commitments required by special education.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
29. I would like to know what other faculty are doing in this area.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
30. At this time, I am not interested in learning about special education.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
31. I would like to determine how to supplement, enhance, or replace special education.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
32. I would like to use feedback from students to change special education.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
33. I would like to know how my role will change when I'm using special education.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
34. Coordination of tasks and people is taking too much of my time.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
35. I would like to know how special education is better than what we had previously.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

G. The items below reflect administrative and instructional practices which have been utilized in other special education programs. For each statement, please circle the number which best represents the use of each practice in your school.

IN THIS SCHOOL---

	Never	Sometimes	Frequently	Always
36. The principal is knowledgeable about the characteristics of students with disabilities.	0	1	2	3
37. The principal is aware of and understands the referral process.	0	1	2	3
38. Special education students tend to be grouped together throughout the school day.	0	1	2	3

		Never	Sometimes	Frequently	Always
39.	Discipline procedures for dealing with disruptive special education students are adequate.	0	1	2	3
40.	The principal participates in the staffings of special education students.	0	1	2	3
41.	Scheduling of special education students is a cooperative venture between student, parent(s), counselor, teachers, and administrator.	0	1	2	3
42.	The schedule of a special education student is designed around his/her IEP.	0	1	2	3
43.	The administration encourages a team concept in educating special education students.	0	1	2	3
44.	Appropriate sources of information on special education are available within the school.	0	1	2	3
45.	Parents of special education students are actively involved in the educational process.	0	1	2	3
46.	The physical environment of special education classrooms is not suitable to meet the needs of special education students.	0	1	2	3
47.	Funds are available to purchase special materials for use with special education students.	0	1	2	3
48.	Teachers are knowledgeable about the characteristics of children with disabilities.	0	1	2	3
49.	Teachers are aware of and understand the referral process.	0	1	2	3
50.	General classroom teachers are present at staffings of mainstreamed students.	0	1	2	3
51.	General classroom teachers participate in the development of IEPs for mainstreamed students.	0	1	2	3
52.	General classroom teachers use the IEP of their mainstreamed students in planning lessons.	0	1	2	3
53.	Support is provided for the special education student both in and outside the general classroom.	0	1	2	3
54.	Inservice opportunities are provided by the school to help teachers and administrators become more knowledgeable about the characteristics of students with disabilities.	0	1	2	3
55.	Special education staff has provided in-service training for general classroom teachers regarding the development of appropriate objectives for mainstreamed students.	0	1	2	3
56.	General classroom teachers seek out information and assistance from special education staff.	0	1	2	3

		Never	Sometimes	Frequently	Always
57.	Special education staff have provided in-service training for general classroom teachers regarding methods of modifying instruction to accommodate mainstreamed students.	0	1	2	3
58.	General class loads are reduced with the addition of mainstreamed students.	0	1	2	3
59.	The administration encourages teachers to take additional coursework in the area of educating students with disabilities and other at-risk students.	0	1	2	3
60.	General classroom and special education teachers work together in designing alternative curriculum.	0	1	2	3
61.	Release time is provided to facilitate consultation between special and general educators.	0	1	2	3
62.	Special education teachers assist their students in general classroom performance.	0	1	2	3
63.	Special education teachers work with their students on improving basic skills.	0	1	2	3
64.	Special education students who are mainstreamed demonstrate appropriate social skills.	0	1	2	3
65.	Special education teachers assist the general classroom teacher within the classroom.	0	1	2	3
66.	Educational planning for special education students is short-range with little preparation for post-secondary transition.	0	1	2	3
67.	Significant delays occur between the initial referral and the completed evaluation of the referred student.	0	1	2	3
68.	High turnover of special education staff disrupts the continuity of support.	0	1	2	3
69.	Special education teachers are involved in nonteaching duties e.g. lunchroom duty, study hall, hall monitering	0	1	2	3
70.	General and special education teachers are equally respected by administrators, faculty, and students.	0	1	2	3

APPENDIX F

STATEMENTS ON THE STAGES OF CONCERN QUESTIONNAIRE ARRANGED ACCORDING TO STAGE

Table F-1

Statements on the Stages of Concern Questionnaire Arranged According to Stage

Number	Statement
	STAGE 0
3	I don't even know what special education is.
12	I am not concerned about special education.
21	I am completely occupied with other things.
23	Although I don't know about special education, I am concerned about things in the area.
30	At this time, I am not interested in learning about special education.
	STAGE 1
6	I have a very limited knowledge about special education.
14	I would like to discuss the possibility of using special education.
15	I would like to know what resources are available if we make use of special education.
26	I would like to know what the use of special education will require in the immediate future.
35	I would like to know how special education is better than what we had previously.

(table continues)

Number	Statement
	STAGE 2
7	I would like to know the effect of special education.
13	I would like to know who will make the decisions in special education.
17	I would like to know how my teaching or administration is supposed to change.
28	I would like to have more information on time and energy commitments required by special education.
33	I would like to know how my role will change when I'm using special education.
	STAGE 3
4	I am concerned about not having enough time to organize myself each day.
8	I am concerned about conflict between my interests and responsibilities.
16	I am concerned about my inability to manage all that special education requires.
25	I am concerned about time spent working with nonacademic problems related to special education.
34	Coordination of tasks and people is taking too much of my time.
	STAGE 4
1	I am concerned about students' attitudes toward special education.
11	I am concerned about how special education affects students.

(table continues)

Number	Statement
	STAGE 4
19	I am concerned about evaluating my impact on students.
24	I would like to excite my students about their part in special education.
32	I would like to use feedback from students to change special education.
	STAGE 5
5	I would like to help other faculty in their use of special education.
10	I would like to develop working relationships with both our faculty and outside faculty using special education.
18	I would like to familiarize other departments or persons with the progress of special education.
27	I would like to coordinate my effort with others to maximize special education effects.
29	I would like to know what other faculty are doing in this area.
	STAGE 6
2	I now know of some other approaches that might work better.
9	I am concerned about revising my use of special education.
20	I would like to revise the instructional approach of special education.
22	I would like to modify our use of special education based on the experiences of our students.
31	I would like to determine how to supplement, enhance, or replace special education.

APPENDIX G

ADMINISTRATOR INTERVIEW FORMAT

ADMINISTRATIVE INTERVIEW FORMAT

Part One: Program Structure and Philosophy

1. Briefly describe why, in your opinion, your special education program was selected as an exemplary program in AEA #___.

2. Estimate the percentage of your time spent on special education issues.

3. Where, in your opinion, does special education fall in terms of your district's funding priorities?

4. In your opinion, what impact has special education had on education in general and your school specifically?

5. Do you feel your special education program has created a positive change in the instruction within general classrooms? Why or why not?

6. What concerns do you feel need to be addressed in the future in order for your special education program to continue as an exemplary example of special education?

7. Is your district participating in RSDS? What is your opinion of RSDS? Do you have any concerns about it being mandated by the State?

Part Two: Parental Involvement

8. Do parents request that their children be evaluated and place in special education programs?

9. How is parental involvement in special education encouraged by your school?

10. What kinds of parental feedback do you get regarding your special education program?

Part Three: General Classroom Teacher Involvement

11. In what ways is information about special education shared with your and your staff?

_____ A handbook on special education

_____ Required in-service training

_____ Optional in-service training

_____ Informal information sharing

_____ Very little information is shared

12. Has training been provided on the IEP process to

_____ General classroom teachers

_____ Administrators

_____ Guidance personnel

13. Has training been provided to general educators regarding the modifications of curriculum for mainstreamed special education students?

14. What factors influence the scheduling of special education students in your building?

15. Do you have load limitations in general classes for the number of mainstreamed students?

16. Can you and your general teaching staff--

--tell a slow learner from an LD or a MD child?
--diagnose problems from test data, daily work, and/or behavior patterns?

17. How involved is your general staff in the development of IEPs for mainstreamed students?

18. Who generally attends staffings in your school?

19. What type of accommodations are made by general staff for mainstreamed students?

20. How do you encourage accommodation by your general staff?

21. Demographics of staff:

_____ Number of Administrators
_____ Number of Counselors
_____ Number of General Teachers
_____ Number of Special Educators

Part Four: Special Education Teacher Involvement

22. Number and types of special education programs within school.

23. Describe the relationship between special and general classroom staff in your school.

24. Describe the role of your special education staff in your school.

25. How are special education staff encouraged to remain currrent and update their knowledge and skills?

_____ Special inservice opportunities

_____ Release time to attend meetings

_____ Reimbursement for meetings and/or classes

_____ Other (Explain)

26. How do you encourage consultation activities of special education staff?

27. To what extent are AEA support staff utilized within general classrooms by general educators?

28. Are aides used for special education in your school? If so, how?

_____ As tutors

_____ In resource rooms

_____ In self-contained rooms

_____ For assistance in movement within the building

_____ For interpretors

_____ Other (explain)

29. How have teacher attitudes toward the education of students with disabilities been affected by your special education program?

Part Five: Student Impact

30. Describe the extent of social integration of special education students in your school e.g. participation in school activities, relationships, behaviors in and outside of class.

31. What is your policy when a student doesn't qualify for special education, but could profit from special education program assistance?

32. Size of District _____

Size of School _____

APPENDIX H

INTERVIEW COVER LETTER TO PRINCIPAL

1412 North Eighth Place
Clear Lake, IA 50428
_____, 1991

_____
Principal
_____
_____
_____, IA _____

Dear _____:

This letter is to confirm our telephone conversation on _____, 1991, in which we set the date of my visitation to your school for _____, _____, 1991. I appreciate your willingness to take time from your busy schedules to participate in my research study.

As we discussed, I am enclosing a copy of the interview questions that I would like to cover with you sometime during my visitation. Please feel free to jot down answers to the questions and concerns or points that you would like to discuss during the interview. I am very much interested in your perceptions as to the reason(s) that your special education program is so successful in providing for the needs of students with disabilities.

I am also enclosing ____ copies of the Special Education Practices Survey. Please have your certified staff, administration (including yourself), and guidance counselors complete this survey. I will pick up the completed surveys during my visitation.

I am looking forward to visiting your school and seeing your special education program in action. If you have any questions or concerns regarding the interview format, the survey, or the visitation, please don't hesitate to call me (515-357-8440) after 4:30 p.m.

Sincerely,

Robyn Lynn Kramer

rlk

Enclosures (2)

APPENDIX I

LETTER OF APPRECIATION TO PRINCIPAL

1412 North Eighth Place
Clear Lake, IA 50428
_____, 1991

_____
Principal
_____
_____
_____, IA _____

Dear _____:

I wanted to take time to thank you and your staff for making my visit to your school so informative and enjoyable. I appreciate you taking the time from your busy schedules to participate in my research study.

During my short visit it became obvious to me why your school was selected as an exemplary example of secondary special education. You and your staff go the extra mile to insure that all students receive the best educational opportunities. Congratulations on your hard work and effort to accomplish this.

Thank you very much for all your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Robyn Lynn Kramer

rlk

APPENDIX J

STATEMENTS ON THE SPECIAL EDUCATION PRACTICES SURVEY GROUPED ACCORDING TO PROGRAM CHARACTERISTIC

Table J-1

Statements on the Special Education Practices Survey Grouped According to Program Characteristic

Item Number	Statement
	FACILITATIVE LEADERSHIP
36	The principal is knowledgeable about the characteristics of students with disabilities.
37	The principal is aware of and understands the referral process.
38	Special education students tend to be grouped together throughout the school day.
39	Discipline procedures for dealing with disruptive special education students are adequate.
40	The principal participates in the staffings of special education students.
41	Scheduling of special education students is a cooperative venture between student, parent(s), counselor, teachers, and administrator.
42	The schedule of a special education student is designed around his/her IEP.
43	The administration encourages a team concept in educating special education students.
44	Appropriate sources of information on special education are available within the school.
45	Parents of special education students are actively involved in the educational process.
46	The physical environment of special education classrooms is not suitable to meet the needs of special education students.

(table continues)

Item Number	Statement
	FACILITATIVE LEADERSHIP
47	Funds are available to purchase special materials for use with special education students.
53	Support is provided for the special education student both in and outside the general classroom.
54	Inservice opportunities are provided by the school to help teachers and administrators become more knowledgeable about the characteristics of students with disabilities.
58	General class loads are reduced with the addition of mainstreamed students.
59	The administration encourages teachers to take additional coursework in the area of educating students with disabilities and other at-risk students.
61	Release time is provided to facilitate consultation between special and general educators.
69	Special education teachers are involved in nonteaching duties e.g. lunchroom duty, study hall, hall monitering.
70	General and special education teachers are equally respected by administrators, faculty, and students.
	GENERAL CLASSROOM TEACHING BEHAVIOR
39	Discipline procedures for dealing with disruptive special education students are adequate.
41	Scheduling of special education students is a cooperative venture between student, parent(s), counselor, teachers, and administrator.
42	The schedule of a special education student is designed around his/her IEP.

(table continues)

Item Number	Statement
	GENERAL CLASSROOM TEACHING BEHAVIOR
43	The administration encourages a team concept in educating special education students.
48	Teachers are knowledgeable about the characteristics of children with disabilities.
49	Teachers are aware of and understand the referral process
50	General classroom teachers are present at staffings of mainstreamed students.
51	General classroom teachers participate in the development of IEPs for mainstreamed students.
52	General classroom teachers use the IEP of their mainstreamed students in planning lessons.
53	Support is provided for the special education student both in and outside the general classroom.
54	Inservice opportunities are provided by the school to help teachers and administrators become more knowledgeable about the characteristics of students with disabilities.
55	Special education staff has provided inservice training for general classroom teachers regarding the development of appropriate objectives for mainstreamed students.
56	General classroom teachers seek out information and assistance from special education staff.
57	Special education staff have provided inservice training for general classroom teachers regarding methods of modifying instruction to accommodate mainstreamed students.
58	General class loads are reduced with the addition of mainstreamed students.

(table continues)

Item Number	Statement
	GENERAL CLASSROOM TEACHING BEHAVIOR
59	The administration encourages teachers to take additional coursework in the area of educating students with disabilities and other at-risk students.
60	General classroom and special education teachers work together in designing alternative curriculum.
61	Release time is provided to facilitate consultation between special and general educators.
65	Special education teachers assist the general classroom teacher within the classroom
70	General and special education teachers are equally respected by administrators, faculty, and students.
	SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHING BEHAVIOR
41	Scheduling of special education students is a cooperative venture between student, parent(s), counselor, teachers, and administrator.
42	The schedule of a special education student is designed around his/her IEP.
43	The administration encourages a team concept in educating special education students.
50	General classroom teachers are present at staffings of mainstreamed students.
51	General classroom teachers participate in the development of IEPs for mainstreamed students.
52	General classroom teachers use the IEP of their mainstreamed students in planning lessons.
53	Support is provided for the special education student both in and outside the general classroom.

(table continues)

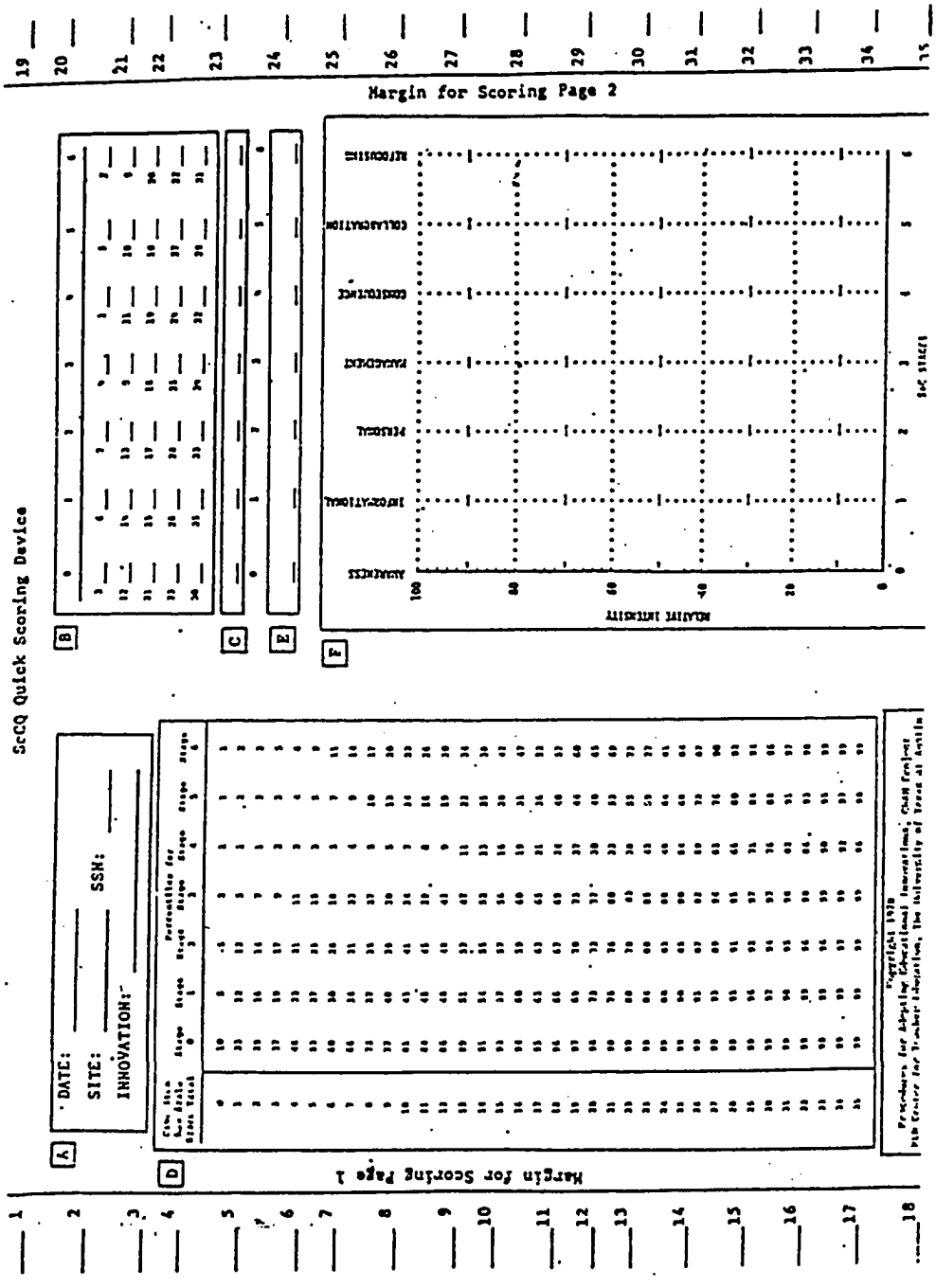
Item Number	Statement
	SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHING BEHAVIOR
54	Inservice opportunities are provided by the school to help teachers and administrators become more knowledgeable about the characteristics of students with disabilities.
55	Special education staff has provided inservice training for general classroom teachers regarding the development of appropriate objectives for mainstreamed students.
56	General classroom teachers seek out information and assistance from special education staff.
57	Special education staff have provided inservice training for general classroom teachers regarding methods of modifying instruction to accommodate mainstreamed students.
59	The administration encourages teachers to take additional coursework in the area of educating students with disabilities and other at-risk students.
60	General classroom and special education teachers work together in designing alternative curriculum.
61	Release time is provided to facilitate consultation between special and general educators.
62	Special education teachers assist their students in general classroom performance.
63	Special education teachers work with their students on improving basic skills.
64	Special education students who are mainstreamed demonstrate appropriate social skills.
65	Special education teachers assist the general classroom teacher within the classroom.

(table continues)

Item Number	Statement
	SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHING BEHAVIOR
66	Educational planning for special education students is short-range with little preparation for post-secondary transition.
67	Significant delays occur between the initial referral and the completed evaluation of the referred student.
68	High turnover of special education staff disrupts the continuity of support.
69	Special education teachers are involved in nonteaching duties e.g. lunchroom duty, study hall, hall monitering.
70	General and special education teachers are equally respected by administrators, faculty, and students.

APPENDIX K

SoCQ QUICK SCORING DEVICE



APPENDIX L

DEMOGRAPHICS ON PARTICIPATING SCHOOLS

School A

Size of School : 435

Size of District: 1,450

Certified Staff : 2 administrators
2 counselors
35 general classroom teachers
5 special education teachers
2 resource
3 self-contained

Survey Return : 66%

Return Breakdown: 0 administrators
0 counselors
24 general classroom teachers (69%)
2 special education/resource (100%)
3 special education/self-contained (100%)

Special Education Preparation for Staff Respondents Other than Special Education:

	None	2 - 6	7 - 10	Over 10
Administrators	-	-	-	-
Counselors	-	-	-	-
General Classroom Teachers	14 (58%)	9 (38%)	1 (4%)	0
Totals	14 (58%)	9 (38%)	1 (4%)	0

Secondary General Preparation of Special Education Staff Respondents:

Secondary General College Coursework Alone	Secondary General Teaching Experience	No Secondary General Experience
0	2 (40%)	3 (60%)

School B

Size of School : 1,500

Size of District: 10,000

Certified Staff : 5 administrators
5 counselors
102 general classroom teachers
8 special education teachers
1 resource
7 self-contained

Survey Return : 38%

Return Breakdown: 4 administrators (80%)
2 counselors (40%)
35 general classroom teachers (34%)
1 special education/resource (100%)
4 special education/self-contained (57%)

Special Education Preparation for Staff Respondents Other than Special Education:

	None	2 - 6	7 - 10	Over 10
Administrators	1 (25%)	3 (75%)	0	0
Counselors	0	1 (50%)	0	1 (50%)
General Classroom Teachers	18 (51%)	14 (40%)	2 (6%)	1 (3%)
Totals	19 (46%)	18 (44%)	2 (5%)	2 (5%)

Secondary General Preparation of Special Education Staff Respondents:

Secondary General College Coursework Alone	Secondary General Teaching Experience	No Secondary General Experience
2 (40%)	3 (60%)	0

School C

Size of School : 1,256

Size of District: 4,800

Certified Staff : 4 administrators
5 counselors
75 general classroom teachers
15 special education teachers
5 resource
10 self-contained

Survey Return : 67%

Return Breakdown: 1 administrator (25%)
4 counselors (80%)
47 general classroom teachers (63%)
5 special education/resource (100%)
9 special education/self-contained (90%)

Special Education Preparation for Staff Respondents Other than Special Education:

	None	2 - 6	7 - 10	Over 10
Administrators	1 (100%)	0	0	0
Counselors	1 (25%)	1 (25%)	1 (25%)	1 (25%)
General Classroom Teachers	23 (49%)	17 (36%)	6 (13%)	1 (2%)
Totals	25 (48%)	18 (35%)	7 (13%)	2 (4%)

Secondary General Preparation of Special Education Staff Respondents:

Secondary General College Coursework Alone	Secondary General Teaching Experience	No Secondary General Experience
6 (43%)	4 (29%)	4 (28%)

School D

Size of School : 280

Size of District: 965

Certified Staff : 1 administrator
1 counselor
21 general classroom teachers
2 special education teachers
2 resource
0 self-contained

Survey Return : 88%

Return Breakdown: 1 administrator (100%)
1 counselor (100%)
18 general classroom teachers (86%)
2 special education/resource (100%)

Special Education Preparation for Staff Respondents Other than Special Education:

	None	2 - 6	7 - 10	Over 10
Administrators	0	0	1 (100%)	0
Counselors	1 (100%)	0	0	0
General Classroom Teachers	7 (39%)	6 (33%)	5 (28%)	0
Totals	8 (40%)	6 (30%)	6 (30%)	0

Secondary General Preparation of Special Education Staff Respondents:

Secondary General College Coursework Alone	Secondary General Teaching Experience	No Secondary General Experience
1 (50%)	1 (50%)	0

School E

Size of School : 500

Size of District: 1,700

Certified Staff : 2 administrators
1 counselor
36 general classroom teachers
4 special education teachers
1 resource
3 self-contained

Survey Return : 37%

Return Breakdown: 1 administrator (50%)
1 counselor (100%)
12 general classroom teachers (33%)
0 special education/resource
2 special education/self-contained (67%)

Special Education Preparation for Staff Respondents Other than Special Education:

	None	2 - 6	7 - 10	Over 10
Administrators	1 (100%)	0	0	0
Counselors	0	0	0	1 (100%)
General Classroom Teachers	6 (50%)	6 (50%)	0	0
Totals	7 (50%)	6 (43%)	0	1 (7%)

Secondary General Preparation of Special Education Staff Respondents:

Secondary General College Coursework Alone	Secondary General Teaching Experience	No Secondary General Experience
0	1 (50%)	1 (50%)

School F

Size of School : 250

Size of District: 720

Certified Staff : 2 administrators
2 counselors
34 general classroom teachers
2 special education teachers
2 resource
0 self-contained

Survey Return : 70%

Return Breakdown: 1 administrator (50%)
2 counselors (100%)
23 general classroom teachers (68%)
2 special education/resource (100%)

Special Education Preparation for Staff Respondents Other than Special Education:

	None	2 - 6	7 - 10	Over 10
Administrators	0	1 (100%)	0	0
Counselors	0	1 (50%)	0	1 (50%)
General Classroom Teachers	11 (48%)	11 (48%)	1 (4%)	0
Totals	11 (42%)	13 (50%)	1 (4%)	1 (4%)

Secondary General Preparation of Special Education Staff Respondents:

Secondary General College Coursework Alone	Secondary General Teaching Experience	No Secondary General Experience
0	0	2 (100%)

School G

Size of School : 1,250

Size of District: 4,600

Certified Staff : 3 administrators
4 counselors
64 general classroom teachers
16 special education teachers
5 resource
11 self-contained

Survey Return : 75%

Return Breakdown: 1 administrator (33%)
4 counselors (100%)
47 general classroom teachers (73%)
5 special education/resource (100%)
8 special education/self-contained (73%)

Special Education Preparation for Staff Respondents Other than Special Education:

	None	2 - 6	7 - 10	Over 10
Administrators	0	1 (100%)	0	0
Counselors	1 (25%)	0	2 (50%)	1 (25%)
General Classroom Teachers	17 (36%)	24 (51%)	4 (9%)	2 (4%)
Totals	18 (35%)	25 (48%)	6 (12%)	3 (6%)

Secondary General Preparation of Special Education Staff Respondents:

Secondary General College Coursework Alone	Secondary General Teaching Experience	No Secondary General Experience
2 (15%)	4 (31%)	7 (54%)

School H

Size of School : 463

Size of District: 1,650

Certified Staff : 1 administrator
1 counselor
35 general classroom teachers
3 special education teachers
1 resource
2 self-contained

Survey Return : 58%

Return Breakdown: 0 administrators
1 counselor (100%)
21 general classroom teachers (60%)
0 special education/resource
1 special education/self-contained (50%)

Special Education Preparation for Staff Respondents Other than Special Education:

	None	2 - 6	7 - 10	Over 10
Administrators	-	-	-	-
Counselors	0	0	0	1 (100%)
General Classroom Teachers	9 (43%)	10 (48%)	2 (10%)	0
Totals	9 (41%)	10 (45%)	2 (9%)	1 (5%)

Secondary General Preparation of Special Education Staff Respondents:

Secondary General College Coursework Alone	Secondary General Teaching Experience	No Secondary General Experience
0	0	1 (100%)

School I

Size of School : 225

Size of District: 900

Certified Staff : 1 administrator
1 counselor
24 general classroom teachers
1 special education teacher
1 resource
0 self-contained

Survey Return : 67%

Return Breakdown: 1 administrator (100%)
0 counselors
17 general classroom teachers (71%)
0 special education/resource

Special Education Preparation for Staff Respondents Other than Special Education:

	None	2 - 6	7 - 10	Over 10
Administrators	1 (100%)	0	0	0
Counselors	-	-	-	-
General Classroom Teachers	8 (47%)	6 (35%)	3 (18%)	0
Totals	9 (50%)	6 (33%)	3 (17%)	0

Secondary General Preparation of Special Education Staff Respondents:

Secondary General College Coursework Alone	Secondary General Teaching Experience	No Secondary General Experience
-	-	-

School J

Size of School : 225

Size of District: 476

Certified Staff : 1 administrator
1 counselor
18 general classroom teachers
3 special education teachers
1 resource
2 self-contained

Survey Return : 65%

Return Breakdown: 1 administrator (100%)
1 counselor (100%)
10 general classroom teachers (56%)
1 special education/resource (100%)
2 special education/self-contained (100%)

Special Education Preparation for Staff Respondents Other than Special Education:

	None	2 - 6	7 - 10	Over 10
Administrators	0	1 (100%)	0	0
Counselors	0	0	1 (100%)	0
General Classroom Teachers	8 (80%)	2 (20%)	0	0
Totals	8 (67%)	3 (25%)	1 (8%)	0

Secondary General Preparation of Special Education Staff Respondents:

Secondary General College Coursework Alone	Secondary General Teaching Experience	No Secondary General Experience
0	0	3 (100%)

School K

Size of School : 630

Size of District: 2,185

Certified Staff : 2 administrators
2 counselors
39 general classroom teachers
4 special education teachers
1 resource
3 self-contained

Survey Return : 55%

Return Breakdown: 1 administrator (50%)
0 counselors
21 general classroom teachers (54%)
1 special education/resource (100%)
3 special education/self-contained (100%)

Special Education Preparation for Staff Respondents Other than Special Education:

	None	2 - 6	7 - 10	Over 10
Administrators	0	1 (100%)	0	0
Counselors	-	-	-	-
General Classroom Teachers	9 (43%)	10 (48%)	2 (9%)	0
Totals	9 (41%)	11 (50%)	2 (9%)	0

Secondary General Preparation of Special Education Staff Respondents:

Secondary General College Coursework Alone	Secondary General Teaching Experience	No Secondary General Experience
1 (25%)	3 (75%)	0