

ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT OF COOPERATIVE MODELS BETWEEN GENERAL  
AND SPECIAL EDUCATORS

by

Paula J. Burdette

Dissertation submitted to the Faculty of the  
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University  
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in

Special Education Administration

APPROVED:

---

J. B. Crockett, Chair

---

D. N. Gillespie

---

C. M. Dawson

---

J. C. Fortune

---

C. Y. Mason

July, 1999

Blacksburg, Virginia

Key Words: Partnerships, Special Education, Elementary Principals, Cooperation,  
Collaboration

Copyright 1999. Paula J. Burdette

ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT OF COOPERATIVE MODELS BETWEEN GENERAL  
AND SPECIAL EDUCATORS

by

Paula J. Burdette

Jean B. Crockett, Ph. D. (Chair)

Educational Leadership and Policy Studies

(ABSTRACT)

As educators are held accountable for student outcomes more frequently, more stringently, and more fully throughout the school organization, service delivery systems have become a focus. Not only are teachers being held accountable for students' learning, but also principals and other administrators are beginning to feel the pressure from public concerns regarding the education of children in the United States. The quality of student instruction can be addressed through practical service delivery models, while administrators' support of the model chosen for their schools is a pivotal variable for effectiveness and efficiency. Students with identified disabilities are being served more frequently in general education classrooms for all or most of their school day. The percentage of students with disabilities served in heterogeneous classes has increased from 32.8% in 1990-1991 to 44.5% in 1994-1995 (U. S. Department of Education, 1997). The more service delivery options available, the more likely an appropriate education will be delivered to these students with disabilities who are placed in heterogeneous classrooms. Cooperative services between general and special educators such as consultation and co-teaching, which include both direct services to students and indirect services through the classroom teacher, offer unique and malleable options for service delivery. To fully understand the process of administrative support for this innovative model, it is imperative to study the interactions between the innovation, the context in which it is being implemented, and the individuals involved with the innovation (Corbett, Dawson, & Firestone, 1984). The study of a process is difficult because it involves investigating the factors that affect the likelihood that there will be change in the individuals who are involved. It necessitates the need to identify what they do, think, and believe in relation to the demands outlined by an innovation (Fullan, 1982). Researchers suggest the necessity of on-site case studies to gain insight and to investigate processes (Fullan; Hall & Hord, 1987; Huberman & Miles, 1984; Patton, 1990). The intent of this qualitative study is to explore how principals

view their ability to support the cooperation between general and special educators for the benefit of students with disabilities. Specifically, the goal is to gain a deeper understanding of the facilitators and inhibitors that principals face when attempting to support this cooperation and to describe methods that principals have used, successfully and unsuccessfully, to avoid barriers to cooperation. Interviews will be conducted with principals who have previously been the special or general educator in a collaborative consultation process, as well as with both general and special educators currently working with this principal. This unusual perspective is designed to give rich descriptive information to educators who choose to use this promising practice of service delivery for at-risk students and students with disabilities at the K-12 level.

Dedication

To my mom, the first Dr. Burdette, who instilled in me a love of learning and taught me the inherent value of education.

and

To Eric Burdette, perhaps you will be the next.

## Acknowledgements

I would like to thank my committee, especially my Chairperson, Dr. Jean Crockett, who spent numerous hours with me, encouraging, brainstorming, “thinking aloud,” editing, and celebrating. She has been a true mentor who sees things from many perspectives and has encouraged me to do so also.

Dr. Gillespie supported me in so many ways. She encouraged, prodded, showed matter-of-fact belief in my ability, and obviously cared about the direction of my professional life.

To Dr. Tina Dawson, who knows how I think and accommodated for it. When I was drowning in theory, she was always able to bring me back to the dry ground of practicality. She is truly a special educator.

To Dr. Fortune, who always had the right book at the right time. He taught me how to learn new methods and large chunks of information in a relatively short period of time. This skill will serve me well for a lifetime.

Dr. Chris Mason, as the site director during my internship at the Council for Exceptional Children, gave me my first and most memorable experience in the world of work after public schools. She gave me first-hand and practical experience that will prove to be an asset in the years to come.

To Kathy Tickle and Darlene Johnson for creating stability in a crazy world of doctoral studies, and for always lending an ear. And to all my professors and friends who lent a hand along the way.

Special thanks to Alex Gomez who supported me through the ups and downs.

## Table of Contents

ABSTRACT .....	ii
DEDICATION.....	iii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	iv
CHAPTER ONE.....	1
CHAPTER TWO .....	7
CHAPTER THREE.....	47
PROLOGUE.....	61
CHAPTER FOUR.....	63
Case I: Rubbing on People.....	63
Case II: Planting Seeds .....	77
Case III: Guessing Games.....	89
Case IV: Rolling Up Your Sleeves.....	99
Case V: We're All in This Together.....	109
CaseVI: Gentle Push.....	122
CHAPTER FIVE .....	131
REFERENCES .....	153
APPENDICES .....	165
Appendix A.....	165
Appendix B .....	166
Appendix C .....	169
Appendix D.....	170
Appendix E .....	172
Appendix F.....	175
CURRICULUM VITA.....	177

## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

As educators are held accountable for student outcomes more frequently, more stringently, and more fully throughout the school organization, service delivery systems have become a focus. Not only are teachers being held accountable for students' learning, but also principals and other administrators are beginning to feel the pressure from public concerns regarding the education of children in the United States. The quality of student instruction can be addressed through practical service delivery models, while administrators' support of the model chosen for their schools is a pivotal variable for effectiveness and efficiency.

Public school students come from diverse backgrounds and have diverse needs. Students at risk for learning and behavioral difficulties due to poverty, homelessness, drug abuse, or cultural differences are commonplace in our schools. Many of these students as well as other underachievers, will not qualify for special education services but will require supplementary support to take advantage of the education offered through our school systems. Students with identified disabilities are also being served more frequently in general education for all or most of their school day. The percentage of students with disabilities served in heterogeneous classes has increased from 32.8 % in 1990-1991 to 44.5 % in 1994-1995 (U. S. Department of Education, 1997). The more service delivery options available, the more likely an appropriate education will be delivered to these students with disabilities who are placed in heterogeneous classrooms. Cooperative services between the general and special educator such as consultation and co-teaching, which include both direct services to students and indirect services through the classroom teacher, offer unique and malleable options for service delivery. Due to the promise of consultation in the field of special education, numerous state departments of education, including New York, New Jersey, Vermont, Oregon, Colorado, Illinois, and Michigan have encouraged local school districts to implement special education consultant teacher services.

#### Statement of the Problem

Years of research in the field of school-based consultation including co-teaching have been amassed. We have come a long way in understanding many of the methods for conducting consultation that appear to yield positive outcomes. Reviews of the research

literature make it clear that school-based consultation is generally effective (Medway, 1979; West & Idol, 1987). The various models of consultation that have been implemented in schools have given us a reasonable base for practice. As a whole, they provide a good source of information about the steps involved in conducting consultation while focusing our attention on many of the critical issues with which we must deal. We are also aware of many barriers that may undermine the consultation process and, regardless of the specific model of consultation one uses, we see common prescriptions guiding its implementation. While this important research has allowed us to learn much about how to implement consultation methods with integrity, it has given us little information about how to modify an approach to meet needs in a variety of contexts. More importantly, we have a dearth of information on how to overcome known barriers to a cooperative consultative model such as lack of administrative support.

As is the case with many processes, the information needed to implement consultation services far exceeds our knowledge of both the consultation process and its integration into existing educational practice. In order to reveal the occurrences of the complex change process of the school from an administrative perspective, a qualitative case study may be initiated. Schools have standard operating procedures that guide the actions of the professionals working there. Systems that deliver services to students with disabilities are well entrenched and many of them are mandated federally or by the state making them highly formalized. The introduction of consultation as an alternative method of delivering services to these students is a challenge to these systems. Those who study systems and systems change inform us of the barriers that have reduced many excellent innovations to fads (Hall & Hord, 1987). For consultation to avoid this fate, we need to use what we know about the effective utilization of knowledge to overcome the obstacles to institutionalizing consultation services as an integral part of school systems.

Thus, for school principals, the question is more profound even than whether students achieve to their potential in this system but whether and how principals are able to support student learning given various constraints placed upon them by organizational factors. Crockett (in press) expounds on this notion when she says, “. . . educational leadership on behalf of students with disabilities . . . requires rich appreciation of multiple perspectives, and greater understanding of specialized instruction and the skills required by practitioners in

order to ensure educational benefit to students whose needs are no less significant, but qualitatively different” (p. 28-29).

Research hypothesis and questions. There are three critical reasons to study the process of administrative support for cooperative service delivery systems. First, if administrative support of the model is not directly investigated, the relationship between the facilitators and inhibitors to change and the change itself cannot be recognized or understood. Next, by understanding the process of administrative support for consultation, it becomes possible to identify specific outcomes of the process and then, if outcomes are identified, investigating if they are determinants of change in an individual student. Finally, it is necessary to identify a problematic area, such as lack of administrative support, and the aspects of this area that affect the implementation of a cooperative consultation method in order to plan for the future (adapted from Fullan, 1982).

The load-bearing questions that will guide the study are: What administrative supports are needed for the cooperative model employed by special and general educators? What barriers and facilitators do administrators believe are present in support of this cooperation? and How are the barriers overcome, if at all?

To fully understand the process of administrative support for this innovation, it is imperative to study the interactions between the innovation, the context in which it is being implemented, and the individuals involved with implementing the innovation (Corbett, Dawson, & Firestone, 1984). The study of a process is difficult because it involves investigating the factors that affect the likelihood that there will be change in the individuals who are involved. It necessitates the need to identify what they do, think, and believe in relation to the demands outlined by an innovation (Fullan 1982). Researchers suggest the necessity of on-site case studies to gain insight and to investigate processes (Fullan; Hall & Hord, 1987; Huberman & Miles, 1984; Patton, 1990).

Assumptions. As the researcher in a qualitative study, I have made various assumptions that parallel this type of inquiry. I assume that a definitive operational definition of cooperative models between general and special educators is unavailable and unattainable at this time. Therefore, a qualitative inquiry addresses the need to study the innovation holistically (Peck & Furman, 1992). I also assume that as the investigator, I will be able to gain access to willing participants and pertinent documents.

### Purpose of the Study

The goal of this study was to explore how principals view their ability to support the cooperation between general and special educators for the benefit of students with disabilities. Specifically, the goal was to gain a deeper understanding of the facilitators and inhibitors that principals face when attempting to support this cooperation and to describe methods that principals have used, successfully and unsuccessfully, to avoid barriers to cooperation.

### Methods of Inquiry

Lazerson (1973) suggests asking often-avoided questions that are important to understanding the choices of educational reformers. Key questions to portray a vivid picture of change situations may be: Who made the decisions? How were they implemented? What were their effects? Why was one value structure accepted rather than another? Lazerson continues by noting that, "Few educational historians have asked Aileen Kraditor's questions about the reform movements: 'What conditions at the time determined the organizational forms that the movement took as well as the changes in society that it worked for? What was the relation between the real possibilities and the reformer's perceptions of the possibilities and how may we account for the discrepancy, if any?'" (p. 282). These questions, supplemented through the review of the literature guided my interviews with principals and teachers and the analysis of pertinent documents.

In this qualitative study, the findings could be subject to other interpretations. As the researcher, I took an interpretive role and was affected by my personal view. I made assertions rather than discovered findings. My personal perspective is derived from 10 years as a special education teacher during the time that the nation's schools were undergoing the first wave of reform and beginning the second. Another source of my perspective may originate from an extensive review of the literature that led my thinking down new paths as I followed other researchers' thoughts and theories.

### Significance of the Study

There is little doubt that consultation is neither effective nor ineffective all of the time. To serve practitioners more efficiently, researchers must begin the complex task of determining specific sets of conditions under which consultation is nurtured or hindered. To accomplish this objective, consultation research must focus on variables of live, field-based

consultation interventions rather than the heretofore typical analogue and laboratory studies. We know little about the administrative supports of consultation and co-teaching with consultees who are not volunteers, the impact of participants' varying degrees of understanding the relationship of consultation to other systems, the ways to prepare the schools for the system change that accompanies consultation, and the types of support systems needed to address problems as they arise (Cancelli & Lange, 1990). Although several models of school change have been proposed, they are rarely used to overcome the problems specific to implementing school-based consultation (Cancelli & Lange). Most researchers agree that school-based consultation is affected by and affects organizational factors, very few investigations have examined the confounding interrelationships among these variables. This has resulted in disjointed research literature.

It is suggested in the literature that the implementation of school-based special education consultation demands new roles of teachers and principals (Aloia, 1983; Voltz, Elliott, & Harris, 1995; Wood, 1998). It will require a radical change in thinking among general and special educators, as well as their principals, from a focus on isolated classroom activities to a more cooperative manner of teaching all students. It is imperative that the responses and resistance to the methods used be identified and investigated. Identifying and analyzing the facilitators and barriers to principal support as well as the support perceived by teachers implementing this type of service delivery change will help to provide an understanding of how to better support teachers and organizations that are implementing a consultant teacher model for special education service delivery. Furthermore, this study will serve to help better explain what organizational variables affect administrative support for the innovative service delivery of cooperative teaching methods such as consultation.

#### Definition of Terms

The following terms are defined to ensure that the reader clearly understands the meaning of each as it applies to this study:

Consultation involves a triadic, interactive relationship among a consultant (typically the special education teacher), consultee (generally the general education teacher), and a client (student). It includes a structured series of problem-solving steps and may be either collaborative or expert-driven, but always focuses on providing a high-quality education for students, especially students at-risk of failure and students with disabilities.

Co-teaching is a form of consultation that involves both the special and general educator taking direct responsibility for teaching and student learning. Both teachers are acknowledged to have distinct skills, knowledge, and expertise and these traits are built upon in order to deliver a high-quality education to students in one heterogeneous classroom.

#### Organization of the Study

The study is organized into five chapters. Chapter two is a review and synthesis of related literature found through databases such as PsycLIT and ERIC. Hand searches were completed in relevant journals for the past 10 years resulting in a high percentage of pertinent documents. Major areas of investigation include a historical perspective to cooperation between general and special educators, school-based consultation definitions, studies related to administrative support of cooperative models, and the change process as it relates to implementing innovative programs such as consultation or cooperative teaching. Efforts were made to choose articles published in well-respected journals or by authors who had been cited repeatedly in these journals. Also, in order to maintain a high quality synthesis, studies included in this review of the literature were of sufficient quality that their results could be trusted. Limitations of studies were noted allowing readers to make their own professional judgements regarding the quality of each study's findings. Chapter three describes the methodological considerations for gathering, analyzing, and reporting data. Findings or assertions are reported in Chapter four and will assist both the investigator and the reader to answer the research questions. The study will conclude with Chapter five, a discussion of implications and recommendations resulting from the findings.

## CHAPTER TWO

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Due to the complexity of needs of students with disabilities, the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act of 1997 (IDEA), the federal special education mandate, requires local education agencies to provide a continuum of placement options to meet each student's educational needs (34 C. F. R. §300.17). The law also creates opportunities for families and professionals to collaborate by mandating the use of multidisciplinary teams for child study, assessment, eligibility, placement, individualized educational plan (IEP), early intervention, and transition planning decisions (Korinek, McLaughlin, & Walther-Thomas, 1995). Direct or indirect collaborative consultation can be an integral part of the continuum of placement options.

#### Current Research Agenda

##### Problem

One important barrier to successful special /general education teacher consultation has been identified as lack of administrative support. Administrative support may be displayed in precedents such as referral and prereferral processes, distinct financial applications, leadership styles, sanctions of resources, and expectations or designs of teacher preparation. However, little research has been done from the administrative perspective; hence, minimal practical documentation of specific areas of concern and methods to overcome hindrances have been made available to practitioners.

##### Purpose

Since teacher consultation and cooperation has been shown to be a promising practice for service delivery to students with disabilities and students at-risk of being identified as disabled, describing the administrative perspective regarding implementation of this practice should illuminate pertinent aspects for administrators to consider when establishing or improving their school's consultation model. The study is intended to describe the phenomenon of administrative support for the cooperation between special educators and general educators from the unique perspective of principals who have previously been teachers in a cooperative setting. The primary goal is to gain a deeper understanding of the facilitators and barriers that principals face when attempting to support cooperation between these educators. A secondary goal is to describe methods that principals have used,

successfully and unsuccessfully, to avoid these problems and take advantage of these facilitators. Questions that arise from these purposes for the study include the following: As prior teachers in a collaboration between special and general educators, what supports do principals believe are imperative for the institutionalization of a cooperation between general and special educators for the individualized instruction of students with special needs? What administrative supports are useful in bolstering this cooperation? What hindrances in this support do principals perceive to be present? How are they overcome, if at all?

### School-Based Consultation

Brown, Wyne, Blackburn, and Powell (1979) state that consultation is not counseling or therapy. Yet minimally, consultation involves a triadic, interactive relationship among a consultant (e.g., school counselor, special education teacher), consultee (teacher), and a client (student) (Tharp & Wetzel, 1969; West & Idol, 1987). Sugai and Tindal (1993) define consultation as a “structured series of interactions or problem-solving steps that occur between two or more individuals” (p. 6). Others characterize consultation as any collaborative or joint effort to provide support or indirect service to educators that results in solutions to student-related problems (Idol & West, 1987; Friend, 1985). Consultation theorists differ on the limits of collaboration in a consulting relationship.

Consultation scholars frequently characterize the teacher consultation process as voluntary (Bergan, 1977; Conoley & Conoley, 1982; Friend & Cook, 1996; Phillips & McCullough, 1990; Pugach & Johnson, 1995). However, other experts in the field believe that the time for voluntary cooperation in the consultation process is past (Villa, Thousand, Nevin, & Malgeri, 1996). Johnson and Johnson (1989), in their comparison of cooperation and competition, make the point that whether voluntary or not, cooperation is a necessity:

Cooperation is an inescapable part of our lives. It is built into our biology and is the hallmark of our species. Cooperation is the building block of human evolution and progress. It is the heart of interpersonal relationships, families, economic systems, and legal systems. World interdependence is now a reality . . . [making] the management of human interdependence . . . one of the most pressing issues of our time. Understanding the nature of interdependent systems and how to operate effectively within them is an essential quality of future citizens. The question is not whether we will cooperate. The question is, “How well will we do it?” (p. 167)

Cooperation between general and special education teacher teams can manifest itself in innumerable forms. Consultation in its pure form is only one of these structures. One other way that teams may cooperate for the betterment of students' education is a spin-off of consultation called co-teaching or a subcategory of this called team-teaching. In the following sections, consultation as well as these derivatives of pure consultation will be discussed as they relate to administrative support for the practice of cooperative teaching between the special and general educator toward a goal of educating individual students.

### Approaches to School-Based Consultation

Definitions and models of consultation are plentiful in the professional literature. Although commonalities exist, each model is distinctly different with respect to goals, assumptions, operating procedures, and limitations. All consultation models have two primary goals: 1) to provide remedial problem-solving services for an immediate problem, and 2) to increase consultees' skills so they can prevent or respond more effectively to similar problems in the future (Brown, Blackburn, Wyne, & Powell, 1979; Gold & Hollander, 1992; Haight, 1984; West & Idol, 1987). Strategies for delivery of service are either direct instruction to the student or indirect service through the classroom teacher (Whittaker & Taylor, 1995). In the indirect strategy, the special educator as consultant has as his/her primary function to provide technical assistance to general education teachers. The second strategy, direct, involves the special education teacher not only providing technical assistance to the general education teacher, but also providing instruction to the child (Schulte, Osborne, & McKinney, 1990). More than a dozen models of consultation are described in the professional literature, yet four school-based consultation approaches emerge from a careful review. These are the behavioral model, the expert style, the collaborative style, and the Resource/Consulting Teacher model.

### The Behavioral Model

The most comprehensive research has been done in the area of behavioral consultation due to its structured implementation and relative ease of analysis. The synthesis of this research has shown consultation to be a promising service delivery for increasing students' academic, behavioral, and socio-emotional growth. The behavioral model is a problem-solving framework based on behavioral and social theories that focus on the behavior of the participants in the consultation process and what occurs during the process

(Conoley & Conoley, 1982; Sugai & Tindal, 1993). The task of the consultant is to determine what the problem is, isolate the antecedents and consequences that prompt and support the target behavior, and devise strategies to decrease the occurrences of the behavior (i.e., social, disciplinary, or academic) (Conoley & Conoley). Typically, behavioral consultants rely on one of the well-respected problem-solving processes to achieve their task (see Kratochwill & Bergan, 1990).

There are four general stages in behavioral consultation, which are procedurally operationalized through a series of standardized behavioral interviews. Specifically, problem identification involves specification of the problem or problems to be targeted in consultation. Problem analysis explores the problem through evaluation of baseline data, identifies the variables that might facilitate problem solution, and suggests a plan in an attempt to solve the problem. Treatment (plan) implementation involves implementation of the plan designed during problem analysis, and treatment evaluation is undertaken to determine the extent of effectiveness. According to Friend and Cook (1996), the characteristics of a well-identified problem include (a) an identifiable discrepancy between current and desired situations, (b) the participants share the perception that the problem exists, (c) the participants agree on the factors that indicate the discrepancy, and (d) the problem statements invite diverse solutions. To implement the behavioral plan, it must be finalized by making detailed arrangements, determining the criteria for success, and scheduling a time for evaluating the outcomes.

Behavioral consultants' empirical base of data collection and documentation often lead to successful outcomes (Friend & Cook, 1996). However, several concerns arise in the use of behavioral consultation. Some consultees may object to what may be coercive tactics or aversive techniques and therefore may resist the use of this approach. On the other hand, they may lack the understanding of or belief in behavioral principles needed to systematically carry out the proposed interventions. In addition, the people involved in the consultation may be sensitive to the ethical issues of using behavioral methods to change student behavior rather than assisting the student in making a decision to change (Friend & Cook). As Kratochwill and Van Someren (1995) point out, the same ethical and legal issues that are raised in assessment affect the acceptability of the behavioral model. Just as some tests have been considered discriminatory or biased against certain groups, behavioral intervention

targeted at behaviors that are perfectly acceptable in the student's culture could easily be considered unethical and possibly illegal.

Related research. Will heterogeneous classrooms be able to provide effective programming for students with disabilities using a consultative approach? It is important that this question stay at the forefront of our thoughts while examining the research on consultation. In a study by Schulte, Osborne, and McKinney (1990), academic achievement was compared across four conditions: (a) one period of resource room instruction per day; (b) two periods of resource room instruction per day; (c) consultative services combined with in-class instruction (direct); and (d) consultative services to classroom teachers (indirect). The consultant teachers consisted of special education graduate students who were trained in a modification of Bergan's (1977) behavioral consultation model. They were given small caseloads of 12-14 students relative to the caseload for district resource room teachers, who had an average of 27 students. The participants in the study were randomly selected elementary schools from a large, heterogeneous school district. Approximately one-third were magnet schools that drew students from throughout the district. Sixty-seven students with LD in first through fourth grades participated. Students receiving a combination of consultation and direct services showed significantly greater overall gains in achievement than the other treatment

The 1994 study by Robbins and Gutkin used a multiple baseline across-subjects design enhanced by the individual interviews to study the remedial and preventive outcomes of behavioral consultation. The changes examined were in (a) the behavior of target children experiencing problems with on-task behavior, (b) the behavior of consultees toward these target children, (c) the behavior of consultees toward nontarget children, and (d) consultees' brainstorming skills. The subjects were three female second-grade teachers with between 15 and 20 years of experience from a Midwestern suburban school district who volunteered to participate with a 38-year-old white, female doctoral student consultant. Three target seven-year-old girl students were chosen based on their similarities of age, sex, middle level socioeconomic status, and off-task behavior. All three consultees accepted the idea to use contingent positive teacher verbalizations plus generated individual ideas to implement as well. The study was divided into four phases with the baseline lasting five days and the introduction of individual teachers lasting 10 days each.

The on-task behavior of the target students and each teacher's use of contingent positive verbalizations toward her target student were observed. Preventive outcomes were assessed by observing each teacher's use of positive verbalizations directed toward nontarget students as well as by measuring the development of teacher brainstorming skills. The evaluations generated fluency and flexibility scores. Interobserver reliabilities for the behavioral data ranged from .97 to 1.00. Reliability between raters for the brainstorming tasks was from .80 to .90.

Target student on-task behavior after intervention increased 143%, 24%, and 2% for students 1, 2, and 3 respectively with student 1 having the longest intervention and student 3 having the shortest. There was a consistently low rate of contingent positive verbalizations directed toward the target student during baseline and intervention phases. There was also a low rate of positive verbalizations directed toward the nontarget students throughout the study. Teachers' fluency and flexibility scores in brainstorming skills were "quite minor and seemingly random" (Robbins & Gutkin, 1994, p. 157). The teachers' overall impressions of the consultation interactions consisted of positive reactions to the professional and personal support. All teachers reported that they had implemented the intervention as planned; however, the data appeared to indicate otherwise. The teachers felt that the agreed upon intervention did not fit easily into their normal teaching style and class routine.

This study has implications for teacher acceptability of the plan and bodes well for a more collaborative style of delivery. Although the consultees were voluntary and were given the choice of rejecting or accepting and subsequently implementing the consultative plan, they did not implement the plans with integrity due to the self-reported feeling that the plan did not work well in their classrooms. The style of delivery of consultative services may have made a difference in this situation. Spending time at the beginning of the consultative process to establish true collegiality may save time at the evaluation and re-implementation stage. Principal support of a collegial atmosphere throughout the school as well as leadership that "enables [teachers] to act" (Kouzes & Posner, 1995, p. 151), including building trusting relationships, may improve the efficiency of consultative services.

### Consultation Styles

The consensus of the scholars in the field of teacher consultation is that it manifests itself as expert, collaborative, or a combination of the two (Brown et al, 1979; DeBuse &

Shoemaker, 1993; Idol & West, 1987; Phillips & McCullough, 1990). In practice, the distinction between these styles of consultation is often cloudy. “Professionals routinely fluctuate between these styles and play dual roles” (Phillips & McCullough, p. 292). These styles of consultative services occur across a variety of formal consultation models (West & Idol, 1990), and may be distinguished primarily by the level of shared knowledge or experience which each party brings to the process initially.

Expert style. In the expert style of consultation, the relationship between the consultant and consultee is hierarchical with the expert having a higher level of discrete knowledge than the consultee (DeBuse & Shoemaker, 1993; Pryzwansky, 1974). Little research exists specifically in the area of expert consultation possibly due to the widely held belief that an egalitarian method of consultation is a promising approach when working with two or more professionals, and the word “expert” seems to neutralize this term. Pugach (1988) makes the point that often special educators’ goals in consultation are to reform general educators. Gold and Hollander (1992) found in their study that there is much resentment on the part of the classroom teacher toward this type of expert “intruder” in their class (p. 36). Some researchers believe that the “collaborative ethic” may discourage special education consultants from making instructional or behavioral suggestions so as to not appear to be the “expert” (Voltz, Elliott, & Harris, 1995, p. 135). Barone (1995) explains these educational egalitarian beliefs as a mutation of the Deming model in business aimed at fostering a sense of ownership and responsibility for an organization. He goes on to say that, “. . . to regard the expertise of each employee as directly interchangeable with that of any other is a frank misappropriation of human resources” (p. 35). As emphasized by Friend and Cook (1996), the consulting relationship exists only because of a problem the consultee is experiencing that the consultant has the capability of solving due to his or her expertise. While the consultee prefers consultation in which the consultant offers specific suggestions which can be embedded into the class environment (Erchul, 1993; Rosenfield, 1995), a delivery of these suggestions is accepted more readily through a facilitative, empathic, and collegial mode (Bossard & Gutkin; 1983, Friend & Cook).

Collaborative Style. In the collaborative style (sometimes referred to as collegial), peers who share some basic body of knowledge join in exchanging specific ideas and experiences to solve problems encountered in areas of mutual concern (Phillips &

McCullough, 1990). Collaboration is an important style of consulting because it breaks through the hierarchical barriers of expert versus student. First, it increases the chances that all members of the consultation team will enjoy a sense of belonging and therefore take ownership of the problem and solutions (Bandura, 1986; Nevin, Thousand, Paolucci-Whitcomb, & Villa, 1990; Villa, Thousand, Nevin, & Malgeri, 1996). Second, as Pryzwansky (1974) argues that special education teacher/consultants will encounter little success using the traditional expert consultative approach. He advocates a consultation relationship based on a collaborative model since collaboration allows for the synergy of solutions. The solutions created are enhanced over original solutions produced individually (Idol, Nevin, Paolucci-Whitcomb, 1995). As Nevin et al. explain, “collaboration is an interactive process that enables people with diverse expertise to generate creative solutions to mutually defined problems” (p. 170).

Idol et al. (1986) credit themselves with the development of the model of service delivery appropriately referred to as the Collaborative Consultation Model, to which they apply the process of collaborative consultation. This model can be applied to various service-delivery options such as team teaching (Idol et al., 1995). It began as a model for application to any category of learner with special education needs who could be appropriately educated in the general education class with consultative support. Since then, it has been applied to the education of learners who may be at risk for school failure for a variety of reasons (Idol et al., 1995). The goal of the Collaborative Consultation Model is “to provide comprehensive and effective programs for learners with special needs within the most appropriate learning environment” (Idol et al., 1995, p. 349).

Proponents of collaborative consultation suggest that effective school-based collaborators bring about the following positive changes. School systems change from a bureaucracy to “ad-hoc” problem-solving teams (Villa et al., 1996). Individuals involved in collaboration change their skills, attitudes, and behaviors (i.e. teaching practices) (Idol et al., 1995). As teachers strengthen personal and professional ties through collaboration, they develop a heightened sense of community and belonging (Laisiter, 1996). This sense of community leads teachers to establish collegial relationships and a shared vision about educational practices, which leads to a deeper collaborative commitment (Englert & Tarrant, 1995). These supportive environments allow teachers to become more confident in risk-

taking (Englert & Tarrant; Hargreaves, 1992; Laisiter). As their confidence increases, teachers begin to feel more self-efficacious, to feel that they have the knowledge and skills to teach all of their students successfully (Englert & Tarrant; Fuchs, Fuchs, & Bahr, 1990; Pugach & Johnson, 1995). Benefits of collaboration for students include improvement in academic and social skills (Idol et al., 1995; Phillips & McCullough). These benefits to students are poorly documented in the research literature; however, researchers of collaborative teams have noted a positive relationship between teaching efficacy and student achievement (da Costa, 1995; Englert, Tarrant, & Rozendal, 1993). Also as a result of collaboration, teachers may offer students more choices and devote more time to student-directed learning (Voltz, Elliott, & Harris, 1995). These strategies may lead to improved student achievement. Finally, teachers involved in collaborative efforts reduce the total number of students referred to special education who are ineligible for services (Fuchs, Fuchs, & Bahr; Pugach & Johnson). Perhaps this reduction in referrals implies that teachers have improved their classroom practices to the point where they can be successful in teaching a diverse group of students. Conversely, teachers may be learning to cope with differences, and students with disabilities may not be identified, leaving one to wonder if these students are receiving the individualized services that are at the heart of special education.

Erchul (1993) expresses another viewpoint. He believes that both concepts “consultation” and “collaboration” are “slippery terms” (p. 3); therefore, “collaborative consultation” compounds the perplexity. He does, however, feel that clearer definitions of consultation strategies are needed for research in this area so that collaborative consultation needs can be precisely determined. He notes commonalities between the collaborative consultation defined by Idol, Paolucci-Whitcomb, and Nevin (1986) and school-based behavioral consultation as described by Bergan (1977). Some of these shared features are the triadic model, the problem-solving focus, the basis in behavioral theory, and the clear emphasis placed on reinforcement theory, functional analysis, and consultant interviewing skills. Erchul observes that collaborative consultation emphasizes the equality of the consultant-consultee relationship more than behavioral consultation does. However, he believes that in the practice of behavioral consultation, consultants are “. . . attuned to relationship issues, if only for pragmatic reasons” (p. 4). The delivery of expert advice must

be done in a collegial, parity-based fashion in order that it be accepted and therefore implemented.

Obviously, the lack of common goals or shared visions would hamper a collaborative ethic in schools. However, beyond the obvious hindrances, structural, administrative, and cultural characteristics of schools may constitute major barriers to maintaining collaborative projects. In the United States, most teachers work alone (Stephens & Moskowitz, 1997). Individualism can be considered a form of isolation. This isolation offers privacy and can be an expression of creative originality and principled disagreement (Hargreaves, 1992; 1994). Yet, one potential barrier to a collaborative environment lies in schools that discount individuals whose opinions are different or controversial within the culture of the school. Furthermore, although valuing the individual creativity and opinions of teachers is important, isolation in individualistic cultures can become problematic when it shuts out sources of praise and support (Hargreaves, 1994). Also, isolation as a matter of habit in schools leads to perpetuation of the status quo because little discussion or thinking occurs about needed changes in classroom practice (Hargreaves 1994; Hamilton & Richardson, 1995) and thus classroom practices remain stagnant.

A secondary form of isolation is termed balkanization, which is a culture where teachers form subgroups of colleagues and do not work closely with teachers outside of this clique (Hargreaves, 1992; 1994). These subgroups acquire power from the status of their teaching area. In general, high school teachers enjoy higher status than elementary teachers, and teachers in math departments enjoy greater status than those in special education departments (Deal, 1987). Balkanization is more common at the secondary level than elementary schools because of the complex staffing that results from more differentiated roles (Hargreaves, 1992; 1994). Since teachers approach the collaborative process from their position in the school (Hargreaves, 1992), general education teachers may view special education teachers as assistants or may want special educators to relieve them of the responsibility of educating students with disabilities because they do not see this as their role. Balkanization leads to poor communication, indifference, jealousy, and rivalry among groups (Hargreaves, 1992; 1994); therefore, where balkanization is thriving, collaboration can not. Consequently, poor continuity in student programs exists and students suffer.

Contrived collegiality or congeniality, according to Hargreaves (1992), is characterized by a set of formal, specific bureaucratic procedures designed to increase the attention devoted to joint teacher planning and consultation. Collegial support and partnership are mandated rather than fostered. When administrators choose formal rules as a quick fix to problems within the school and do not allow time for change to take place, this method of moving schools to more genuine collaboration often fails (Hargreaves, 1994). “Collaboration names the current zeitgeist in consultation” (Fuchs & Fuchs, 1992, p. 94). However, it names different realities to different people at different times. Many authors view the interpersonal interaction aspect of collaboration as the center for its being (see, e.g., Friend & Cook, 1996, Gable, Arllen, & Cook, 1993). The expectation is that teaching interpersonal skills such as problem-solving, conflict management, and active listening will automatically create attitudes of “sharing, trust, equity, collegiality, and community; broker a partnership of general education and special education; and facilitate an environment of empowerment shared by teachers, support staff, and administrators alike” (Fuchs & Fuchs, p. 94).

Resource/Consulting Teacher model. A combination of direct and indirect strategies, namely the Resource/Consulting Teacher (R/CT) model, has been discussed in professional literature and used in case studies (Idol, 1989). This service delivery option is integrative because it builds upon the basic direct instruction framework of the resource room, yet uses indirect consultative support as well (Idol, 1989). Problems with the implementation of this strategy are ubiquitous in the literature. According to Huefner (1988), “The consulting teacher is . . . not the equivalent of a resource teacher who simply spends more time consulting with the regular classroom teacher” (p. 404). Miller and Sabatino (1978) explain the distinction between the consultant and resource models. “The teacher consultant model differs from traditional resource room models in that it employs an itinerant special educator whose major focus is to serve handicapped children through the direct skill improvement of regular teachers in regular classrooms” (p. 86). In efforts to meet the needs of students with disabilities and other students at risk for failure, the combination of the two strategies has less than sufficiently regarded components essential for success: training and time (Haight, 1984; Huefner; Whittaker & Taylor, 1995).

Related research. Relatively few studies can be found regarding the expert style, possibly due to its lack of palatability in our currently “politically correct” world. However, numerous studies have been completed related to collaborative and Resource/Consulting Teacher model of which select findings are worthy of review here due to their implications for positive outcomes given appropriate administrative support.

Levine (1997) conducted an action research study on the impact of collaborative consultation on LD and at risk secondary students. Although the need for resource room did not decrease as hypothesized, students’ progress continued through the year at unpredicted high levels. Other positive findings include that teachers continued to collaborate and seek the support of the resource/consultant teacher on a more frequent basis than before the study. This study gives credence to the theory that teachers have a positive attitude toward properly delivered consultative services even when the outcomes are not immediately seen nor are drastic

Karge, McClure, and Patton (1995) completed another secondary school study of a combination of collaboration and traditional pull-out models done at the middle/junior high school levels in California. The subjects consisted of resource teachers from 69 schools grades six through eight. All teachers in the county were invited to participate in the investigator-designed survey study, however, a 75% response rate was noted. The survey consisted of eleven Likert-type questions (strongly agree to strongly disagree) about collaboration and a demographics section about the teacher, the resource program, and the students served. The respondents had a variety of teaching backgrounds and experiences with a mean of 15 years of experience. The subjects were 94% Caucasian and 86% were female, and mirror the teaching population of this California region.

The findings from this survey include that nearly 50% of the participants indicated that they served more than 33 students, which is in violation of the California Special Education Code (Karge, McClure, & Patton, 1995). This could be in part due to the fact that teachers are serving nondisabled learners as well as identified special education students. Caseload for consultants is an area in need of more research in order to establish best practice and is an important consideration for principals. Planning time was primarily limited to the daily preparation period, and the teachers felt that they did not have adequate time to effectively implement a collaborative program. Most respondents indicated that most of their

time was spent with students and 47% reported spending between zero and twenty percent of their time per week with teachers. This finding suggests that administration simply gave the resource teachers the responsibility of consultation in addition to their other duties without a corresponding consideration for time constraints. Teacher attitude was viewed as the most important factor for successful collaboration (91%). Teacher attitude toward collaboration (87%) and lack of time (84%) were the two highest ranked factors hindering collaboration. Sixty-four (71%) of the teachers indicated that they prefer a combination of consultation/collaboration and traditional pull-out services for their students.

Limitations of this study include that the authors did not make clear what types of student the teachers were serving which could have wide-ranging implications for the outcome of the study. Since collaboration is based on interaction between general and special education teachers, the general educators' perspectives could have added much information. Similarly, there may have been a discrepancy between how teachers feel they should respond for professional reasons and their actual perceptions.

Marks and Gersten (1998) studied the change process of teaching practices using an expert style of consultation referred to as "coaching." The main focus of the study was to examine selected teachers on a case-by-case basis to determine factors that led them to invest time in learning new strategies and altering how they teach in order to meet the needs of students with learning disabilities. The purpose of the study was to understand the complexities of the process of change in teaching practice. Twelve teachers of grades one through six were chosen. The administrators were asked to choose special educators using the following criteria: (a) potential to communicate information to other teachers in a collegial manner, and (b) ability to effectively teach students with learning disabilities in the general classroom.

The coaching model sought to help teachers redesign and reconceptualize their lessons so that each of the target students was actively involved in the lesson, successful 75% to 90% of the time, and challenged, but not frustrated. Typically, the special educator/consultant would begin the coaching process by observing the students' learning environments including involvement levels, success rates, quality and quantity of feedback, and clarity of explanations. Soon after the observation, the consultant would share perceptions and informal data with the teacher. Next, the teacher and "coach" would agree on

a plan of action and the teacher began to experiment with the new strategies. The special educator/coach typically visited the class twice a week during the school year to support the continued use of the agreed upon strategies.

Data collection consisted of transcripts of researcher interviews with the teachers and coaches and a collection of documents including informal memos and field notes. Interviews were conducted with the teachers by the research staff three times during the year. These documents were coded to determine the general focus and specific suggestions made to the teachers as well as to ascertain the teachers' levels of implementation of the plans.

Cross-case analysis was conducted to examine a range of factors that may have had some bearing on a given teacher's level of engagement or disengagement with the coaching process. Levels of engagement were related to the intensity of involvement of the teacher. Impact of the process was also determined through the interviews. Teachers demonstrated higher levels of impact than of engagement. Special education coaches became frustrated when they perceived that changes in teaching practices were taking too long and when they felt that the general education teachers did not believe that the strategies were important. The primary influences on a teacher's level of engagement related to a teacher's perceived needs along with previous experiences working in a collaborative teaching situation. In general, when the needs of the teachers, whether expressed or not, were capitalized on, engagement levels tended to be higher and the impact of the coaching process was higher. When expressions of concern regarding differing styles between the teacher and coach were noted, and teachers fell into high engagement/moderate impact group, these teachers typically found the differences to be interesting. When teachers spoke of these issues as problems or difficulties, they fell into the low engagement/low impact group. In addition to these differing views of teaching, the focus of the suggestions, whether peripheral or core, seemed to affect levels of engagement and impact. Suggestions that dealt with core changes in teaching were more difficult to implement and had a greater possibility of conflicting with teachers' beliefs. Therefore, core changes resulted in higher levels of stress or conflict between the teacher and coach. Consultation plans must be acceptable to the consultee or stress and conflict will result in disengagement from the process which necessarily leads to low impact for students.

Wade, Welch, and Jenson (1994) conducted a survey to determine whether regular educators and specialists are interested in collaborating; what kind of concerns, needs, beliefs, and attitudes about participating in collaboration may be characteristic of teachers at various levels of interest; and if level of interest and attitudes are related to teacher and school characteristics. They hypothesized that both regular educators and specialists would vary in their level of interest. Further, they believed that teachers at higher interest levels would (a) find collaboration more compatible with their values and practices, (b) report less concern about their own skills and knowledge in carrying out the change, (c) believe that the change would not adversely affect their autonomy and decision-making power, (d) have a more positive attitude toward the value of the innovation, and (e) believe that they would be adequately compensated in terms of personal satisfaction and administrative support. Third, they hypothesized that teachers with the most experience with special education would report a higher level of interest and a more positive attitude toward collaboration than those with little exposure or knowledge.

Subjects were volunteer regular classroom teachers, special education teachers, and reading specialists of 12 schools in Utah. Two kinds of schools were involved: collaborative and noncollaborative schools as identified by participation or nonparticipation in a three-year, federally funded project to promote collaborative efforts to facilitate inclusion of students with disabilities. Using a stratified random-sample design, three elementary schools and three secondary schools were selected from a list of 15 collaborative schools and were confirmed as implementers of collaborative efforts. Similarly, three elementary and three secondary schools were selected from the remaining schools and designated as noncollaborative. The questionnaire examined whether and to what extent teachers have an interest in participating in a collaborative project to include remedial students in the regular education setting. The second part examined the concerns, needs, beliefs, and attitudes of teachers regarding collaboration. The third section requested information regarding teacher and school characteristics that were hypothesized to affect teachers' level of interest. The instrument was field tested for content validity and revised revealing an interrater agreement was .93. The five concern factors (a) Compatibility With Teachers' Basic Values, Attitudes, Role Expectations, and Experience; (b) Fears and Uncertainties Associated With the Change; (c) Concerns About Autonomy and Participation in Decision Making; (d) Impact on Students

and the School; and (e) Personal Cost Appraisal were collapsed into one factor following a factor analysis. The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient of .94 indicated that the one factor had high internal consistency. A factor analysis was conducted on level-of-interest which resulted in a three factor solution of Interest and Technical Assistance (I & TA), No Interest (NI), and Collaboration/Leadership (C/L). An ANOVA was performed to determine if teachers with different levels of interest had different levels of concern. A significant difference was found and a Tukey's test found that all groups were significantly different from one another. Those teachers who demonstrated a higher level of interest manifested a lower level of concern. A chi-square test indicated that level of interest was statistically related for the collaborative/noncollaborative group and for the regular/specialist group. Faculty that was already engaged in collaborative work was also more interested in collaboration, and specialists had a greater interest in collaborative participation than general educators. ANOVAs were performed for ordinal data and chi-square tests were performed for nominal data. Two characteristics significantly related to interest level were number of years of teaching experience and years in the same school. The NI group was composed almost exclusively of teachers with 10 or more years of experience who had been at their schools for 10 years or more. The majority of the C/L group had less than 10 years experience. Whether teachers had been to a workshop was not related to interest level. The size of the school, both the size of the student body and the number of faculty, was found to be a characteristic related to interest level. Faculty from schools where the student body exceeded 1,000 was less interested in collaboration and leadership than was faculty from smaller schools. Based on these findings, both school size and prior experience are perspectives or variables to consider when planning a study of administrative support for cooperative models of service delivery.

This study brings to the forefront the idea that teachers in stagnant positions (more than 10 years in the same school) have more difficulty with change such as collaboration, than do teachers with more diverse experiences. It also suggests that if teacher concerns are addressed, training is conducted, and exposure to collaboration is allowed, interest level in collaboration will be high. However, since the results do not provide information about causal relationships and the questionnaire only indicates respondents' intentions, not their actual behavior, caution must be used in drawing such conclusions.

## Co-teaching

Co-teaching is a non-pure form of consultation. Still, it is a viable, flexible alternative to a strictly consultative method of service delivery, and many professionals use the terms consultation, co-teaching, and team-teaching interchangeably (Walther-Thomas, Bryant, & Land, 1996). Some cooperative teaching structures include peer collaboration (Pugach & Johnson, 1995), peer coaching (Joyce & Weil, 1980), and team teaching. Bauwens and Hourcade (1995) describe the co-teaching process as “a restructuring of teaching procedures in which two or more educators possessing distinct sets of skills work in a co-active and coordinated fashion to jointly teach academically and behaviorally heterogeneous groups of students in integrated educational settings” (p. 46). According to Walther-Thomas (1997), co-teaching teams share the responsibility for instruction, assessment, curriculum development and modifications, discipline, and communication with families.

Related research. In the spring of 1993, Baker and Zigmond embarked on a noteworthy qualitative case study involving five restructured schools in five states that used some popular form of co-teaching to educate their students with disabilities in heterogeneous classrooms (1995). The service delivery models used are thought to be supportive of inclusive environments and included the collaborative teaching model, co-teaching, class-within-a-class, and mixed methods such as pull-out combined with regular class instruction. Some of the popular practices engaged in included learning strategy instruction, curriculum based measurement (CBM), alternative reading instruction, peer tutoring, cooperative learning, and collaborative planning. The goal of Baker and Zigmond was to determine the nature of special education provided to elementary students with LD in heterogeneous classrooms.

The sites represented a wide geographic apportioning and were located in Virginia, Pennsylvania, Minnesota, Kansas, and Washington. The sites were chosen from a review of professional conference proceedings and federally funded programs. The researchers collected data during a two-day visit to each site through interviews with two students with LD, his or her parents, general and special teacher, the principal, and special education supervisor for the building. The investigators observed each student and teacher during a core curriculum class for two consecutive days and took notes on the teachers’ actions, the classes’ actions, and the target students’ actions at five-minute intervals. The researchers

reviewed students' records including Individualized Education Programs, report cards, and achievement level documents. Other documents that were gathered include parent/student handbooks and local descriptions of the inclusive model employed in each district. The target students and classmates were given the Basic Academic Skills Samples (BASS), and individual scores for each class were compared to each target student's reading level score.

Data from observations, documents, and interviews were coded into four areas: context for inclusion; model of inclusion; role of special education teachers; and educational experiences of students with LD. Preliminary analyses of the cases, including patterns depicted, were shared with peers and participants for peer review and member checks respectively. Next, a matrix was developed to display data for each of the sites in the four categories. Common themes and important distinctions among sites were found and reported. The four themes that were determined to be important in this study (already noted) revealed key differences between each site. The contexts for inclusion differed markedly in each setting. For example, the number of students served in the schools ranged from 315 to 2,060 with 4% to 14% of the population served as students with LD. The models of inclusion were as simple as a local model focusing on learning strategy instruction to a university model with multiple components. All sites required the special education teacher to fill multiple complex roles as part of the service delivery model employed in their district. All sites provided one-on-one assistance from either peers or paraprofessionals, some form of remediation either in the general education setting, as a pull-out service, or before and after school, and modified assignments, materials, and tests.

Implications of this important descriptive case study are outlined by Baker and Zigmond (1995) and responded to by a variety of key scholars in the field of inclusive education. As noted by McLaughlin (1995), Baker and Zigmond's inquiry goes beyond their stated goal of describing how students with LD are being educated in heterogeneous classrooms to attempting to answer the question, What is special about their education? In response to this inquiry, the researchers believe that "students with LD in these models of inclusive education were getting a very good *general* education" [italics in original] (p. 175). When consensus was that a student needed more than a general education, peer and paraprofessional tutoring was provided or "pull-out services were 'reinvented'" (p. 175). The method of peer and paraprofessional tutoring forces "the *least well trained* individuals to

teach the *most difficult to teach!*” (p. 177). In their review of Baker and Zigmond’s study, Crockett and Kauffman (1998), make note of an important detail missing from the five sites’ co-teaching models. “Collaborative meetings were used to plan what and how something would be taught, rather than who would be taught it. Instructional decisions were neither personalized nor databased, nor were accommodations planned or individualized” (p. 505-506). According to Baker and Zigmond, financial reasons were thought to drive the placement of some students in a part-time pull-out placement in order to justify the continued assignment of special education personnel in the building. Furthermore, one site lost some special education faculty due to the declining referrals, although fewer referrals was one of the goals of their co-teaching model. Lastly, the authors share implications of their findings vis-a-vis personnel preparation. They state that since the effectiveness of the special educators was derived from both experience and in-service training that novice special education teachers may be ill-prepared to perform the multiple roles of co-teacher.

From the investigators’ descriptions of the five sites, it is apparent that the models differ widely and are both effective and ineffective in different aspects of educating students with disabilities. It might be safe to conclude from this information that a generic program that has the greatest likelihood of working in most settings with most students should be developed and modified with care, documentation, and continual evaluation for individual students. In this manner, the next generation of educators may learn from the present educators’ mistakes and successes, thereby developing models similar to ones that worked for similar students and refining these instructional delivery systems with the same care, documentation, and evaluation for future educators to learn from as well.

Walther-Thomas (1997) describes a three-year study of 18 elementary and seven middle schools involved in developing and implementing co-teaching teams as an integral part of their service delivery models. The goal of the study was to investigate the benefits and problems that 23 school teams encountered during this implementation. The school teams consisted of approximately five members: one principal; one or more general educators; and one or more special educators. District-level administrators recommended school teams. Then they were observed to determine whether inclusive programs were being implemented and that co-teaching was an integral part of their model. The researcher included only teams that were unanimously in favor of participating. The teacher participants had 12 to 18 months

of experience as co-teachers and taught with their partners on a daily basis for at least one hour. One hundred forty-three participants (119 teachers and 24 administrators) participated in one or more years of the investigation. The students served by the teams represented all IDEA special education categories.

Data sources for the naturalistic inquiry were 45 to 90 minute classroom observations done at least once per school year by pairs of trained graduate students. The observers kept notes on the co-teachers' use of instructional procedures, collected data on students and classroom characteristics. Following the observations, the graduate pairs interviewed the teachers about the prior instructional period and compared notes to ensure reporting accuracy. Semi-structured interviews, that lasted 45 to 90 minutes, were conducted with participants each spring to review the service delivery model, including the co-teaching process, facilitators, and problems. Interviews were audiotaped and notes were taken. Relevant documents were viewed when participants mentioned them or they were used during classroom observations. All data were coded, reviewed, and analyzed systematically. Member checks and peer reviews were used as accuracy checks.

The findings resulted in a high level of agreement among participants on the benefits and problems of the models. Benefits for students with disabilities were related to their performance, the performance of their teachers, and school culture. Participants believed that student self-confidence and self-esteem improved as well as academic and social skills. The benefits for students without disabilities include improved academic performance, especially for unidentified, low-functioning students, more time allotted to each student, increased emphasis on study skills and social skills, and improved classroom communities. The benefits noted for teachers are increased professional satisfaction, opportunities for professional growth, and less isolation. The persistent problems grew more serious over the three years of the inquiry and there was more general agreement about the problems than about the benefits of the model. The most persistent problems reported involved scheduled planning time, student scheduling, caseload concerns, administrative support, and staff development opportunities. These findings have important implications for a study of administrative support for a cooperative service delivery model. Most importantly, the length of implementation will be a noted variable between schools in my study.

The benefits noted in this study have been noted by other authors (see Friend & Cook, 1996; Thousand & Villa, 1989) and have been refuted by other authors (see Affleck et al., 1988; Carlberg & Kavale, 1980; Schumm et al., 1995). However, the problems are consistent with problems that other researchers have found when studying similar collaborative models of service delivery. This consistency across models and types of studies leads one to believe that the problems are truly hindrances to the success of a collaborative model and must be addressed.

Another important study related to co-teaching was completed by Boudah, Schumacher, and Deshler (1997). They use a four-part experimental design to examine the effects of a collaborative instructional model in inclusive secondary classes in which students with mild disabilities and low-achieving students were enrolled. The results were mixed, but have implications for policy and implementation practice of cooperative service delivery models. Four experimental and four comparison classes from a large, metropolitan area were used during part of the 1993-1994 school year. Classrooms were matched by grade levels 6, 7, 8, and 10. Four teams volunteered for the experimental classes and four for the comparison classes. Students were selected based on having mild disabilities or being low achieving as defined by the authors as equivalent to the students with mild disabilities. Most of the students with disabilities were classified as having learning disabilities. The teachers in the experimental group were trained in the Collaborative Instruction (CI) Model in which one teacher presents content and the other enhances the delivery by teaching strategic skills to the students. Training was conducted in two four-hour sessions four weeks apart. Short debriefing sessions were conducted after observations of the implementation of the CI Model.

After training, teachers were measured using a fixed ratio observation every 10 seconds during whole-group instruction. Social validity was measured using a satisfaction questionnaire comprised of 14 seven-point Likert-type items. Students were measured on engagement, mastery of strategic skills, and content test performance. Engagement was measured through observation. Each time a selected student was engaged with a teacher, the teacher with whom the student was engaged, the initiator of the interaction, the type of academic engagement, and the correctness of the student response was noted. Interrater reliability was determined by having two independent observers simultaneously record

actions for at least 20% of all observations before and after the experimental teachers were trained. Reliability after training ranged from 86 to 90% for teacher and student observations. Students were also measured on their mastery of paraphrasing, skills at mastering information, skills at analyzing concepts, and strategic skills in organizing information. Experimental students were measured on their performance on in-class unit tests and quizzes.

Engagement of students was compared from baseline to intervention conditions. The only significant difference in the engagement of students with mild disabilities (MD) between experimental and comparison conditions was in their use of strategic skills, favoring the experimental group. Students who were deemed low achieving (LA) showed significant differences with regard to strategic skills, favoring the experimental group, and the special education teacher interacted significantly more often with LA students during intervention than during baseline. LA students were engaged significantly more often than MD students both during baseline and after intervention. Regardless of condition, the general educators involved LA students more than they involved MD students, LA students were more involved in recalling previous content knowledge, and LA students responded to teacher prompts correctly more often than MD students. Regardless of student designation, significant differences were found in the posttest scores between the comparison and experimental classes, favoring the experimental classes, on scores for the analysis of concepts test and the information mastery test. For MD experimental students, scores on in-class tests and quizzes decreased, while LA students' scores increased an insignificant amount.

The researchers found that teachers spent the majority of their time on noninstructional tasks and very little time presenting content. This remained a problem after training in the CI model; however, teachers increased their time mediating the learning of students and exchanged instructional roles more frequently after implementation of the CI model. Conversely, the percentage of time that teacher teams presented content and circulated to work with individual students decreased. The limited time spent on instruction may have translated into minimal change in student engagement and therefore minimal test score improvement. Yet, teachers were generally satisfied with the performance of their team.

Although such a short amount of time, a portion of one school year, should not be expected to produce lasting or even visible changes according to change theory specialists (see Fullan, 1982; Illback & Zins, 1984), the lack of engagement of students with disabilities is cause for concern in light of literature suggesting that achievement is related to student engagement (Greenwood, 1991). The poor student outcomes for MD students (i.e., failing grades) make apparent the inherent challenge in inclusive education for these students at least at the secondary level. These findings along with Baker and Zigmond's (1995) findings call into question policies that seek to fully eliminate pull-out type services in which students with disabilities have been shown to master learning strategies that enable them to succeed in educational settings (Schumaker & Deshler, 1992). Moreover, research is needed to determine if improvements in teacher instruction can be successful in improving teachers' collaborative efforts such that both teachers are highly engaged during most of the class time since highly engaged teachers tend to produce higher student performance (Marks & Gersten, 1998).

While all studies have not shown positive outcomes for students, the majority of the highest quality ones have depicted that given the appropriate circumstances cooperation of services can result in effective programs for students with disabilities.

#### Administrative Barriers to the Practice of Consultation and Co-teaching

It is relatively easy to conceive how consultation, including co-teaching, might make an excellent service delivery model for students with disabilities and students at risk of failure. Unfortunately, turning theory into effective practice is not an easy matter in any organization and especially in schools (e.g., see Sarason, 1996). Rosenfield (1995) makes the point that "fears and anxieties about political and legal issues around the entitlements of Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) and Section 504 and the complex puzzle of state and local regulations and case law paralyze administrators and frontline professionals" (p. 320). This remains the case today in spite of the flexibility built into the regulations that actually provides more latitude than many school districts realize. IDEA does require states to establish procedures assuring that students with disabilities are educated, to the maximum extent appropriate, with students without disabilities. However, most districts have still not realized this imperative (Danielson & Bellamy, 1989; York & Vandercook, 1990). One reason for this failure is that teachers are not prepared to provide individualized

instruction to students with disabilities in general education settings (Kearney & Durand, 1992; Osborne & Dimattia, 1994). Problems such as this must be anticipated and prepared for in order to enhance the effectiveness of a consultation model.

As Idol (1990) makes clear, consultation consists of both scientific and artful aspects. The scientific component of school consultation is comprised of the content or technical teaching and intervention strategies used to solve classroom problems. The artful component consists of the process of consultation and is comprised of the various communicative, interactive, problem-solving, and decision-making skills used in the process. Obstacles can occur at any of these levels of consultation, and many can and should be dealt with at an administrative level. Idol (1988) distinguishes guidelines for establishing special education consultation programs which include: financial issues; prereferral and referral practices; performances standards for consulting teachers; appropriate case loads; scheduling systems; and ongoing evaluation systems. While these are not an exhaustive list, the areas listed were mentioned repeatedly by school personnel in several states as critical to the establishment of a special education consultation program. Some of these areas have been covered thoroughly in the literature since their conception 10 years ago; however, others have merely been touched upon if not totally ignored. In fact, eight years after Idol (1988) introduced these pertinent barriers, Villa, Thousand, Nevin, and Malgeri (1996) found that virtually identical problems plagued schools. The authors synthesized the explanation for schools' difficulties in providing a consultative service delivery model for students with special needs as (a) inadequate teacher preparation; (b) ineffective organizational structures, policies, and procedures; (c) loss of the familiar dominant school culture; and (d) poor leadership. These administrative barriers will be highlighted in the next sections.

#### Inadequate Teacher Preparation

Consultation, in any field, becomes a utilized option because of a high number of clients with a need and the lack of qualified personnel to serve these clients. The number of students placed in special education services continues to increase yearly. In 1988-89, the cumulative placement rate (CPR) for all students with disabilities was 94 (i.e., 94 out of every 1,000 students between the ages of six and 17 were identified with a disability). By 1994-1995, 106 out of every 1,000 school-age students were identified with disabilities, an increase of 12.8% (McLeskey, Henry, & Hodges, 1998). A corresponding increase in the

cumulative placement rate (CPR) for students with disabilities who are placed in general education classrooms has been noted. In 1988-89 the CPR was 30, but in 1994-95 the CPR was 48, displaying an increase of 60% (McLeskey, et al.). With this increased need for special education service providers has not come a similar increase in special education teachers (U. S. Department of Education, 1997). This situation, an increased need and a lack of qualified service providers to accomplish the job, is the classic reason for the use of consultation services in any field.

Most researchers agree that teachers in the collaborative role need formal training in consultation (Erchul & Conoley, 1991; Johnston, 1990; Showers, 1990; Thousand & Villa, 1989). Gersten, Darch, Davis, & George (1991) found that if teachers are not adequately trained in collaboration skills, they tend to avoid the consultation role. Bauer (1975) stated that consultation is important and “requires a working understanding of the functioning of both individuals and of systems, and of ways in which such function can be modified for the benefit of both, thus leading to additional and improved problem solving” (p. 300). Lilly and Givens-Olge (1981) discuss the need for specific changes in the field of teacher consultation and call for “More systematic attention to preparing future (and current) special educators for consultation activities . . . research on various aspects of teacher consultation . . . and . . . increasing attention to teacher consultation in the professional literature” (p. 75). Others have also called for improving teacher education, recognizing that programs are not sufficient for service needs and that the burden of training should be removed from employers (Neel, 1981).

Aside from the importance of preparing general educators to take their position as consultee, teacher education programs must be cognizant of the fact that some general education teachers may become consultants. Baltimore Public Schools began a program in 1992 in which they taught 50 general education teachers to become full-time consulting teachers in three weeks (Solomon, 1996). Their duties were to design and implement special education pre-referral procedures as well as inclusive practices to be used in their schools. Studies indicate that state requirements for training general education teachers have not changed despite the passage of the IDEA (Johnson, 1990). We must prepare all prospective teachers to use effective communication skills and collaboration strategies that will allow

them to work with other professionals in solving problems and making effective decisions for students.

### Ineffective Organizational Structures, Policies, and Procedures

The organizational level for which change is targeted (individual pupils, individual teachers, or educational systems) often categorizes school-based consultation services. The levels of organization that may be targeted include individual pupils, individual teachers, or educational systems. The greatest difference within this categorical scheme exists between services designed to affect educational outcomes for individual pupils and those that are designed to influence system norms, practices, or behaviors. Since special education law and intent is to offer individualized instruction to students with disabilities in order that they benefit from their education, client-centered implementation of consultation services meets this intent most appropriately. These client-centered services, however, are implemented within a system, and articulating the possible system effects of consultation would allow school consultants to set a systems level agenda describing how educational systems might profit from the introduction of school-based client-centered consultation and assist consultants to plan evaluations of their services across organizational levels, a step notably lacking in much implementation literature. As described by Idol (1988), systemic structures that affect consultation include financial considerations; prereferral and referral practices; caseload, scheduling, and evaluation systems; and school culture and leadership. These topics will be discussed further in this section.

Financing consultation programs. Although Idol (1988) and Cancelli & Lange (1990) state that finance is an important variable of consultation to administrators, no research and very little professional commentary can be found in this area. Kratochwill and Van Someren (1995) mention that consultation is “sold” to administrators as a cost-effective means of service delivery for students with disabilities and at-risk students (p. 132). Yet, they go on to opine that supplementing consultation with appropriate resources and training can be quite expensive as well as time-consuming. Intuitively, a consideration for the financial aspects of school-based consultation would be at the forefront of administrators’ thoughts. Still, more research and sharing of ideas must be done in this area.

Establishing prereferral and referral practices. Cancelli & Lange (1990) highlight some of the questions that arise when attempting to introduce prereferral consultation into

existing organizational systems. How much and what type of training is necessary for consultants to implement and maintain prereferral consultation services? How should potential consultees be trained for and indoctrinated into consultation services? How should administrators be prepared to oversee prereferral consultation? Although these questions were posed nearly a decade ago, no recent research can be found regarding these issues.

Fuchs, Fuchs, and Bahr, (1990) considered the hypothesis that teacher behavioral consultation would improve classroom teacher perceptions of their difficult-to-teach students and therefore decrease referrals for testing and possibly special education placement. The consultation process was described as collaborative and prescriptive, but the authors made no specific mention of whether a direct or indirect strategy was used. The researchers conducted their experiment in a metropolitan school district using guidance counselors and special education graduate students as consultants. Interventions of shorter and longer duration were used in order to determine whether a consultant-driven prereferral intervention might be shortened in duration, thereby improving its efficiency without reducing its effectiveness. Subjects were 60 general educators, their 60 most difficult-to-teach students without disabilities, and 22 consultants in 17 elementary schools. Analyses indicated that the short and long versions of consultation were equally effective. Reducing the number of misidentified students would tend to make classes more heterogeneous even in schools with inclusive practices. Therefore, the intent of IDEA, to have natural proportions in classrooms (Lipsky & Gartner, 1998) would be met more fully. Limitations of the Fuchs et al. study include the use of teacher ratings and the differences between long and short versions of consultation were minimal (i.e., 14-22 days versus 18 to 28 days). These ratings may have been influenced by confounding variables such as intensity and duration of the student behavior rather than solely by its frequency. Even with these qualifying factors, initial findings are positive for a shortened length of consultative services reducing inappropriate referrals. A common problem in the field of special education is over identification of some disability types. If short consultation periods for prereferral inhibit this problem; the practice would be ethically and financially stable.

Determining an appropriate caseload for consulting teachers. Again, although Idol (1998) stated this to be an administrative concern, little if any research and professional commentary has been published regarding the appropriate caseload for consulting teachers.

Perhaps this is an area of more concern to the consultants directly rather than to the administrators. It may also be important to the students and their parents since consultant caseload ultimately effects the quality and amount of individualized instruction available for students with disabilities. Idol states, somewhat cavalierly, that “special educators whose responsibilities are only consultative may be expected to serve up to 35 students” (p. 54). Seemingly forgotten from this decree are extenuating circumstances such as severity of the disabling condition, travel time for itinerant teachers, the amount of paperwork required for 35 students, and the number of teachers with which a consultant may need to consult for this number of students.

Designing a scheduling system to provide time for consultation. With the busy schedule of most people in today’s world, time is an important element of every aspect of our lives. We all want more of it to spend in productive ways. Since the manufacturing of time is impossible, the reorganizing of how we spend it is imperative. This parallels the discussion in the consultation literature. More time is needed to consult directly with teachers, paraprofessionals, and parents. More time is needed to work directly with students with disabilities. Consultants must continue to complete vast quantities of paperwork for each child on their caseload, and this takes more time. The list could continue, as do the concerns in the literature. For the most part, the literature states these concerns with the apparent wish for more time to be found; however, Idol (1988) is the exception. Idol has given six scheduling options to be used as a basis for structuring individual consultation programs. These options tie closely to her Resource/Consultant Teacher model.

Idol’s first scheduling option requires that the consultant split time between consulting and resource teaching half-and-half, mornings and afternoons. Her rationale for this option relates to elementary school scheduling of core curriculum. The second scheduling plan offered, and one that has been used by graduates of her consultant program, is to rotate the days and times of day when the consultant is available. Idol reports that this results in approximately 40% of the consultant’s time in consultation and 60% directly teaching. The third scheduling option assigns the consultant to two days of consulting and three days of resource teaching. The fourth option has been used successfully at middle and high school levels. According to this scheduling plan, the consultant is assigned to one course at one grade level at a time. The consultant gradually fades services, picks up another course,

and begins the process again. Another scheduling option is to assign the consultant to a particular curricular unit or department in which the consultant works with small groups of teachers to develop teaching and management strategies for students with disabilities. The sixth option is for consultants and teachers to select high-need courses that have numerous students with disabilities and at-risk students. The consultant provides consultation time during the time these courses are offered.

Organizational structures that facilitate structured formal scheduling increase the likelihood of effective consultation; informal consultation without structure and predictability generally proves ineffective (Phillips & McCullough, 1990). Although Idol (1988) gives suggestions, gaps are evident. There appears to be a lack of consideration for allowing time for any activity other than consultation and direct resource teaching although special education consultants must accomplish many other duties. One distinct scheduling problem is the apparent disregard for consultation concerned with individual students' educational plans. With the rigidity of most of the options, consultants may not be available when needed to meet with general education teachers at a time that they are available to discuss or work with a specific student. A more current reflection on the subject is necessary for adequate answers to the scheduling dilemma.

Designing and implementing an ongoing evaluation system. As Mostert (1998) has pointed out, evaluation is a necessary but often lacking element of a consultation program. Most implementation articles include evaluation as an integral part of their plan (e.g., Wiedmeyer & Lehman, 1991), however, scholars in the field of consultation believe that evaluation is typically not done well if at all (Bergan, 1995; Phillips & McCullough, 1990; Witt, Gresham, & Noell, 1996). Phillips and McCullough propose informal standards for the ecological evaluation of consultation programs especially in terms of a collaborative standard, an ecological relevance standard, and an efficacy standard. The ecological standard requires that the format should be feasible in terms of logistics of operation, cost, side effects, organizational structure, and staff development. The collaborative standard requires that the format of consultation should maximize staff talents and resources, a "think tank" atmosphere, problem-solving and intervention skills, joint responsibility, and a collaborative ethic (p. 296). Phillips and McCullough's efficacy standard requires that the format be demonstrated as effective by research, social validity measures, and generalized benefit.

Witt, Gresham, & Noell criticize behavioral consultation evaluation because of over reliance on indirect methods of behavior assessment and behavior change. They point out that the plan should be monitored during treatment with the objective of making decisions regarding the continued implementation of treatment. However, the quality of these decisions is limited by the adequacy of the data on which the decision is based. For example, if monitoring shows no progress or minimal progress, then the plan may be modified. However, if there really has been progress and the plan is modified, effectiveness may decrease.

Evaluation of consultation programs does exist as is evidenced by the published evaluations (e.g., Paolucci-Whitcomb & Nevin, 1985; O'Neill, Williams, Sprague, Horner, & Albin, 1993). Still, more emphasis on an evaluation plan prior to full implementation of the consultation program will necessarily make a stronger more durable program.

#### Loss of the Familiar Dominant School Culture

As professional educators are pressured to share resources, time, and even students, a resistance to these collaborative efforts may become evident. Change is difficult and human nature may overpower even the most enthusiastic teacher causing them to steer toward the more familiar "I work alone; my business in none of your business" culture of many schools, particularly secondary schools (Deal & Peterson, 1990). According to Deal(1987), "When attachments to people or objects are broken . . . people experience a deep sense of loss and grief" (p. 7). Consequently, change threatens the existing culture and school personnel tend to "dig in their heels and put up a strong resistance" (Villa, et al., 1996, p. 176).

Isolation. Obviously, the lack of common goals or shared visions would hamper a collaborative ethic in schools. However, beyond the obvious hindrances, structural, administrative, and cultural characteristics of schools may constitute major barriers to maintaining collaborative projects. Individualism can be considered a form of isolation. In the United States, most teachers work alone (Stephens & Moskowitz, 1997). This isolation offers privacy and can be an expression of creative originality and constructive disagreement (Hargreaves, 1992; 1994). Yet, one potential barrier to a collaborative environment lies in schools that discount individuals whose opinions are different or controversial within the culture of the school. Furthermore, although valuing the individual creativity and opinions of teachers is important, isolation in individualistic cultures can become problematic when it shuts out sources of praise and support (Hargreaves, 1994). Also, isolation as a matter of

habit in schools leads to perpetuation of the status quo because little discussion or thinking occurs about needed changes in classroom practice (Hargreaves 1994; Hamilton & Richardson, 1995) and thus classroom practices remain stagnant.

Balkanization. A secondary form of isolation is termed balkanization, which is a culture where teachers form subgroups of colleagues and do not work closely with teachers outside of this clique (Hargreaves, 1992; 1994). These subgroups acquire power from the status of their teaching area. In general, high school teachers enjoy higher status than elementary teachers, and teachers in math departments enjoy greater status than those in special education departments (Deal & Peterson, 1990). Balkanization is more common at the secondary level than elementary schools because of the complex staffing that results from more differentiated roles (Hargreaves, 1992; 1994). Since teachers approach the collaborative process from their position in the school (Hargreaves, 1992) general education teachers may view special education teachers as assistants or may want special educators to relieve them of the responsibility of educating students with disabilities because they do not see this as their role. Balkanization leads to poor communication, indifference, jealousy, and rivalry among groups (Hargreaves, 1992; 1994). Therefore, where balkanization is thriving, collaboration can not. Consequently, poor continuity in student programs exists and students suffer.

Contrived collegiality. Contrived collegiality or congeniality, according to Hargreaves (1992), is characterized by a set of formal, specific bureaucratic procedures designed to increase the attention devoted to joint teacher planning and consultation. Collegial support and partnership are mandated rather than fostered. When administrators choose formal rules as a quick fix to problems within the school and do not allow time for change to take place, this method of moving schools to more genuine collaboration often fails (Hargreaves, 1994).

The expectation is that teaching interpersonal skills such as problem-solving, conflict management, and active listening will automatically create attitudes of “sharing, trust, equity, collegiality, and community; broker a partnership of general education and special education; and facilitate an environment of empowerment shared by teachers, support staff, and administrators alike” (Fuchs & Fuchs, p. 94). However as noted previously, hidden variables such as isolation, balkanization, role confusion, and contrived collegiality can become administrative barriers if not acknowledged.

Role ambiguity. Since consultation is typically known as a triadic process, three main roles exist, the consultant, consultee, and client. The consultation roles are created by the circumstances that target the needs and change according to the situation. According to Dettmer, Dyck, and Thurston (1996), in order for the consultation process to exude a collaborative spirit, appropriate role delineation and clarification is a necessity. Until educators become familiar with expectations that will be placed on them due to their new roles, confusion will plague the process (Bradley, 1994; Dettmer, Dyck, & Thurston).

Since the early 1980s, talk of the increased demand on teachers has filled the literature (e.g. Hart, 1981; Aloia, 1983). Traditionally, teachers' work has centered on the classroom, helping children learn. But in recent years, the call to improve schools has pulled a growing number of teachers outside their traditional roles to help (Paulu, 1998). Graden and Bauer (1992) note that collaborative approaches to inclusive services for students with disabilities could diminish the existing role distinctions among professionals and may discount the priority of autonomy that so many teachers covet. These demands place teachers in various roles such as instructional, specialist, leadership, consultant, and consultee roles. In a synthesis of five case studies, Baker and Zigmond (1995), found that each of the special education teachers involved in inclusive practices took on a new role. Minimally, they provided direct services to students with learning disabilities, provided instruction to students without disabilities, and collaborated with other professionals. As regular education teacher Julie Ferriss of Mississippi says,

I'm most comfortable in my classroom, teaching with my children. If I could choose to be anywhere, that's where I would be. And 20 years ago, I could do that. I could leave the policy making to the policy makers and the administrating to the administrators, and parenting to the parents, and teaching to me. But it's just not like that anymore. (Paulu, p.2)

Terri Chasteen, the Council for Exceptional Children's 1998 Clarissa Hug Teacher of the Year says, "The role change [of special educators] is very exciting. It adds another layer of challenge to what we do" (CEC Today, 1998). Pat Guthrie, past president of CEC, says that another advantage to the changing role of special educators is that schools must take responsibility and ownership of students with disabilities so that the special teacher does not shoulder that full responsibility (CEC Today). However some, like Don Deshler, president of

the Division of Learning Disabilities and a professor at the University of Kansas, fear that teachers will not be able to give students the individualized, intensive, relentless instruction needed. Deshler goes on to state the well-founded concern that in some situations, rather than learning specialists, special education teachers may become more of a paraprofessional (CEC Today). When this happens, the students lose as well as the teachers because students miss the chance to learn specific necessary skills.

Related research. Wood (1998) asserts that inquiry into role perceptions of professional educators may have critical implications in the service delivery for students with disabilities. For her study, she chose elementary sites where inclusive strategies were being used for children with severe disabilities. The practice of placing these children back at their home schools from a segregated placement was in its second of a five year plan, and teachers still had the opportunity to opt out of participating. The researcher used purposeful sampling to seek out teachers who had special knowledge to share, were experienced, and were willing. The teachers of students with disabilities chosen taught at least one student with moderate to severe disabilities with self-care and academic needs. The students were included in the general education setting for much of the day and were not experiencing any transitional service delivery complication such as being assigned to a first-year teacher.

Three semi-structured interviews over a one-year period sought information about teachers' perceptions regarding collaboration, communication, and team building. All data were analyzed with reliability checks provided by the participants and the researcher's peers. At the beginning of the school year, special and general educators perceived the classroom teachers role to include responsibilities related to social goals for the student and very little responsibility for IEP related activities, not even goals and objectives. Educators craved clarification as to what their roles were and what was expected of them. Territoriality was an issue with both types of educators studied. Special education teachers tended to purposefully limit the general educators' responsibilities toward the students with disabilities, and general educators felt as though the special educators' presence was an intrusion on their space. With the lack of clarification of roles, general educators felt that services to the students were disconnected and fragmented and that the special educators' talents were being wasted in a position they found similar to that of a paraprofessional. Still, Wood (1998) reports that the model employed became more cooperative as the year progressed; hence, the role

perceptions became less rigid. These diminishing role distinctions may help educators make better use of the team's expertise, as Wood notes. But she also makes the point that role confusion and ambiguity can have a negative effect on job satisfaction and retention of teachers, both major issues facing the field of education.

The next study related to the roles that teachers play in the consultant model is a case study completed by a practitioner (Goldberg, 1995). The researcher analyzed the consultant teacher's (CT) roles and found that the CT served as a liaison between all school staff members, the child, and the family. The CT maintained an active ongoing role with each of these individuals and implemented programs and strategies as a consultant and instructor. The CT and the regular education teacher shared responsibility for communicating with the parents and educating the student with disabilities. According to Goldberg, the diverse and numerous roles played by the CT evolved as a result of increased trust between the educators. All concerned parties accepted that the roles would mature as time passed. Five essential system-based conditions were reported to be in place when the CT program was initiated (a) mutual expertise, (b) access, (c) fluency, (d) time, and (e) administrative support. Access refers to the ability to have an open interaction between the CT and the general educator as well as to the physical access to the classroom in which the student with disabilities is being educated. Fluency means consultants must be conversant in the consultees' language including common vocabulary and sharing a common viewpoint about the learning environment. Time is the ultimate variable. All other conditions depend on the time allowed to comply with best special education practices. The last systemic condition that Goldberg finds to be supportive of CT services is administrative support. Policies made by administration effect the access and time issues. Furthermore, administrators' attitudes influence faculty attitudes. These rudimentary findings support the literature by citing a number of consultee roles and the facilitators of the consultative model.

Aloia (1983) studied the levels of confidence of special educators when required to perform as consultants to regular classroom teachers and, conversely, when functioning as resource room teachers. Five subscales yielded significant differences in confidence as consultants and as resource teachers. In each case, the special educator consultant rated confidence significantly lower than the resource role. these findings suggest that special

educators had hesitance in their abilities in the roles of assessor, ambassador to other professionals and parents, and supervisor when functioning in the role of consultant.

When individuals are asked to fill a role for which they feel less than confident, their self-efficacy suffers (Guskey & Passaro, 1994). Low self-efficacy may have a detrimental effect on the person's effectiveness as well (Ashton, 1984), causing a snowball effect where the teacher is unsure of the new role in which she is expected to function; therefore, she feels a lack of confidence and a corresponding lack of self-efficacy. This causes her to perform less effectively, which in turn leads to lower confidence and the cycle begins again. Without proper leadership, this cycle may not be stopped and doubt and confusion will proliferate.

### Poor Leadership

A final reason cited for failure of schools to institutionalize the innovation of collaboratively delivered consultation is that many leaders are naive and/or ineffective (Sarason, 1996). Naivete of leaders originates from a failure to fully realize the intricacies of the change process such as the length of time it takes for change to take place and other complex issues of systems change. Leaders are also naive in their failure to communicate to the staff how the implementation of a consultation model fits into the overall mission of the school. Leaders are ineffective when they refuse to deal with the turmoil and conflict that accompanies the implementation of an innovation such as consultation. Many leaders leave their positions before the change they have begun has taken hold, causing the innovation to fade away (Villa, et al., 1996).

Organizational support for consultation is imperative for the success of the program. In a meta-study of 12 educational innovation projects in 10 states, Huberman and Miles (1984) identified organizational variables that help programs endure. Implications of this study include that administrators should be certain that enough resources are available to carry the project through the initial stages and keep it running smoothly afterwards and because massive amounts of resources and support made adoption of the program run smoothly. Administrators must remain flexible in their style so that a balance between task-oriented leadership and supportive leadership is struck which includes immediate, on-time training and adequate amounts of time. However, a smooth initial phase was usually a sign of bad times ahead due to a watered-down project. The decision to initiate consultation approaches should be made with full appreciation for the unique needs of the setting since a

proper fit between the innovation and the site means less substantial modifications. Finally, administrators of consultative programs should be prepared to push hardest for the program during critical decision-making periods such as budgeting and hiring times in the organizational cycle.

Administrators have a clear idea about the benefits gained from school-based consultation (Cancelli & Lange, 1990), which differ somewhat from the idea consultants have. For instance, consultants focus on the behavior change of consultees and students. Yet, administrators may be more concerned with variables such as the cost of implementing and conducting consultation; savings accrued in the assessment and placement in special education; the number of children referred for special education; and consultant, consultee, student, and parent satisfaction (Cancelli & Lange).

### Theoretical Issues

#### Systems Change Process / Process of Implementation

Consultation, by nature, requires change to occur. Evaluative measures of the consultation process seek changes in teachers, students, parents, and organizations. For lasting change to occur, a minimum of two to three years must be given (Fullan, 1982; Lippitt, Langseth, & Mossop, 1985). Attempts to rush the process may be met with resistance and failure. However, it is common to find schools rapidly adopting one change plan after another in response to political and other pressure (Illback & Zins, 1984). Consequently, innovative programs fail before they have been given time to be implemented with integrity, evaluated, and modified. Giaquinita (1975) noted that schools are complex organizations with a defined set of positions or statuses that have related norms and expectations. When change is generated by the introduction of an innovation, an element of risk arises and one's status, as well as the status quo, is challenged. Participants then begin to weigh the benefits and risk of the involvement in the change. He suggested that by reducing the uncertainty and perceived risks, administrators could reduce resistance, making change a smoother process. Much of what we know about the implementation of change in schools we have learned from failure. Top-down and externally mandated innovations are less successful (i.e., do not result in improved student outcomes and more satisfied teachers and constituents) than are changes in which the participants feel ownership of the process; high levels of participation increase the chances that an innovation will be successful (Dunn & Swierczek, 1977).

Illback and Zins (1984) argue that a major reason for innovation failure is the lack of systematic, planned organizational change. A synthesis of key scholars in the field of change provides a framework for considering planned organizational change.

1. Organizations can be viewed along a developmental continuum, and are constantly evolving and changing (Illback & Zins).
2. Organizational change occurs as a function of both internal and external factors. Durable change is more likely to result when key persons in the organization share similar definitions of the problems and take “ownership” of the intervention (Illback & Zins, p. 22).
3. There is no singular, effective method of organizational change. Many change efforts fail because they simplistically focus on people, technology, processes, or structures of the organization in relative isolation (Illback & Zins)
4. Successful change programs are likely to be based on timely, relevant, and technically adequate assessment data. Continual self-evaluation as well as implementation evaluation should become routine part of the school. (Illback & Zins)
5. The organization’s readiness for change including perceived need for change, sources of resistance, availability of resources to mount the change program, and prevailing circumstances to a large degree dictate the degree to which change can occur (Illback & Zins).
6. Organizational intervention programs must recognize the the conflicts that arise at multiple levels and affect other aspects of the school program. Additionally, change facilitators must recognize that intended change in one area may produce unintended changes in other areas, due to the interdependency of organizational parts. Failure of administration to support and protect the innovation during implementation may result in failure (Curtis & Zins, 1981; Gaddis, 1978; Illback & Zins).
7. Intervention programs should clearly link change activities to distinct goals and objectives for the intervention.
8. The way in which a program is delivered and sold to others in the school is crucial to its acceptance and utilization because staff opposition to the implementation of an innovation will result in failure (Gaddis; Illback & Zins).
9. Administration must provide staff with training and materials during the change process in order that faculty acquire new knowledge, skills, attitudes, and values (Chin & Benne, 1976; Gaddis).

Another variable to be considered for organizational change is small-group team development (Wellins, Bryham, & Wilson, 1991). Change initiatives that concentrate their energies on small-group teams “have the greatest chance of success” (p. 21). The complexity of change in schools is such that generally it is unrealistic to expect to bring about large-scale reform all at once. Progress occurs when small steps are taken to increase the number of people involved.

Implementation of change. According to Huberman and Miles (1984), there are three organizational considerations associated with the implementation of innovation: structure, procedure, and organizational climate. Structural changes include creating new units or teams to manage the change or creating new linkages with internal or external groups. Procedural changes, which are especially critical at the secondary school level, involve scheduling, new evaluation or supervision methods to facilitate increased coordination between teachers and building administrators and the central office. Organizational climate changes center on creation of new norms, for example developing a shared belief that educating most students in heterogeneous classrooms for most of the school day is best educational practice or that the service delivery model for students with disabilities will require consultation rather than isolation.

Change process participants only infrequently anticipate the link between procedural changes and climate changes, and administrators often lack the overall vision of the entire undertaking and resist anticipating problems. They seem to prefer to resolve them one at a time as they arise (Huberman & Miles, 1984). These are important considerations in the implementation of consultation programs due to the far-reaching nature of the required role changes, scheduling, record keeping, and the need for intensive and on-going in-service training.

Havelock (1973) presents several models of change based on varying assumptions. One assumption, Organizational Development (OD) is a problem-solving model that applies behavioral science research findings and statistical techniques to improving the organization. OD views the school organization as a system and innovation as a change to that system. The OD process is managed externally using consultants to plan intervention strategies and train school staff to problem solve collaboratively. Thus, interpersonal relationships and goal compatibility are important features of this model. Organizational theory applied to schools states that change, by itself, does not create adaptability or self-renewal in the school setting. It does, however, require schools to become flexible and to identify and respond effectively to perceived need for change while maintaining an effective school program. The OD change model fosters a more collaborative, flexible organizational structure in which individuals are more open to risk taking and more imaginative in problem solving (Havelock).

Hall and Hord (1987) specifically relate the change process to the end participants of change, teachers, and firmly believe that institutionalization of change is dependent on teacher acceptance of the innovation. They developed a Concerns-Based Adoption Model (CBAM) that uses some facets of Havelock's model to identify diagnostic dimensions useful in examining if and how an innovation has been or will be used. Organizations in the process of change can achieve their goals and still acknowledge the humanness of process participants if attention is paid to the personal side of change.

#### Need for Research

Unfortunately, the aspects of consultation that we do not know about far outweighs the aspects of consultation of which we do know (Gresham & Kendell, 1987), and even worse, what is known about consultation has little effect on practice. Positive change is not taking place at a rate equivalent to the rate of new knowledge. A major impediment of positive change in consultation is the continued use of traditional methods for researching a topic that can not be adequately defined. A standard operational definition of consultation at this time is impractical since the process is situationally defined for specific districts, schools, teachers, and even individual students. Traditional, strictly quantitative, methods rely exclusively on group means and significance tests to evaluate the magnitude of effects in consultation. These group means necessarily ignore variability within groups by treating this variance as error. Group mean comparisons ignore findings that some subjects improve, some remain the same, and some digress. Treating these individual differences as error discards important information regarding how different individuals respond in different settings. Therefore, quantitative research tells us essentially nothing about the practical significance of consultation. While quantitative research has clearly informed the area of consultation by pointing out the need for time and administrative support, qualitative research is needed to augment quantitative data and to provide rich, thick description on a variety of complex issues that are important to schools as they seek alternative service delivery options for students with disabilities. There is a knowledge base for most consultation models from which the consultant is to derive methodology (West & Idol, 1987), yet research that practitioners find impractical, incomprehensible, or insignificant to daily use will likely not be utilized.

Although meta-analyses of consultation processes and outcomes indicate that, overall, consultation tends to be effective (see, e.g., Medway, 1979, West & Idol, 1987, Sheridan, Welch, & Orme, 1996), the database is too small and of low quality. As Gresham and Kendell (1987) say:

To say that there are “experts” in consultation is an oxymoron because expertise denotes that an individual has special knowledge in a particular field. We simply do not know enough about consultation, how it works, under what conditions it works, or the most important variables in predicting consultation outcomes. (p. 314)

The problem is compounded by the probability that much of the database may be inaccurate and misleading because many studies have been determined to be poorly conceptualized and executed (see, e.g., Gresham & Kendell, 1987; Medway, 1979; Pryzwanski & Noblit, 1990). Only a small handful of studies have been experimental in nature (Fuchs, et al., 1992).

The problem that this study will focus on is lack of administrative support. Lack of adequate support from administration has been cited frequently as a barrier to effective consultation; however, little is known about many aspects of administrative support as they effect the cooperation between general and special educators. No studies were found that outlined the problems administrators must overcome to be supportive in the manner that teacher consultation investigators find to be useful. This gap renders the research impractical for those responsible for the supervision or administration of cooperative models between general and special educators.

The vast majority of research refers to consultation approaches and whether they influence teachers’ attitudes and behaviors. We know a great deal about how and when to use behavioral consultation in a generic manner. Yet little is known about the one variable that scholars acknowledge as pertinent to the success of consultation and which by its nature has far-reaching effects, administrative support for cooperation between a special and general educator. Knowing that a model of cooperation between a special and general educator can be an effective service delivery model is not enough. We must study how administrators can support this innovative process in ways that consider the promise it holds for individual students. In this way, we will be able to have a greater effect on practice.

## CHAPTER THREE

### METHODOLOGY

I take it that lots of the results I offer, people can see for themselves. And they needn't be afraid to. And they needn't figure that the results are wrong because they can see them . . . As if we found a new plant. It may have been a plant in your garden, but now you see it's different than something else. And you can look at it and see how it's different and whether it's different in the way that somebody has said (Sacks, 1992, p. 408).

#### Statement of the Problem

As the literature review reveals, educators need the support of administration in order to institutionalize a collaborative consultation model between special educators and general classroom teachers. Therefore, it is necessary to study how principals view their role in supporting this model. The research informs us that administrators must support teachers in seven specific areas: (a) financing consultation programs; (b) establishing prereferral and referral practices; (c) establishing performance standards for consulting teachers; (d) determining essential skills consulting teachers will need to meet these standards; (e) determining an appropriate caseload for consulting teachers; (f) designing a scheduling system to provide time for consultation; and (g) designing and implementing an ongoing evaluation system (Idol, 1988). Eight years later, Villa, Thousand, Nevin, and Malgeri (1996) found that virtually identical problems plagued schools. These authors synthesized the explanation for schools' difficulties in providing a consultative service delivery model for students with special needs as (a) inadequate teacher preparation; (b) ineffective organizational structures, policies, and procedures; (c) loss of the familiar dominant school culture; and (d) poor leadership. Little research has been done from the administrative perspective, so minimal practical documentation of specific areas of concern and methods to overcome hindrances have been made available to practitioners.

#### Purpose of the Study

Since teacher consultation has been shown to be a promising practice for service delivery to students with special needs, describing the administrative perspective regarding implementation of this practice should illuminate pertinent aspects for administrators to consider when establishing or improving their school's consultation model. The intent of this

study is to describe the phenomena of administrative support for the cooperation between special and general educators from the unique perspective of principals who have previously been in a cooperative situation as either the special or general educator. The primary goal is to gain a deeper understanding of the facilitators and inhibitors that principals face when attempting to support cooperation between these educators. A secondary goal is to describe methods that principals have used, successfully and unsuccessfully, to avoid barriers to partnerships between general and special educators.

### Questions

As prior teachers in a cooperative situation between special and general educators, these principals have a unique and well-informed perspective to share. The questions that guided the study follow: What administrative supports are needed to facilitate cooperative partnerships between special and general educators? What barriers and facilitators do administrators believe are present in support of this cooperation? How are the barriers overcome, if at all?

### Significance

The consultation model has been documented as an effective model for service delivery to students with disabilities. The facilitators and barriers are well delineated through a 20 year span of research (i.e., Bergan, 1977; Bergan, 1994; Fuchs, Fuchs, & Bahr, 1990; Idol-Maestas & Ritter, 1985; Marks & Gersten, 1998; Medway, 1979; West & Idol, 1987). The results consistently find that lack of administrative support is a major barrier to the successful implementation of a consultant model between special and general educators. However, the research has been completed almost exclusively under conditions such as grant-funded settings or university settings that may in fact be potentially researcher reactive. Many times these findings rely heavily upon self-report of teachers, both consultants and consultees (Gresham & Kendall, 1987). There is scant data addressing the administrative difficulties in providing sufficient support to this promising practice. This qualitative inquiry of principals responsible for providing and ensuring appropriate educational services to exceptional learners sheds light on the problem of administrator support from the administrative perspective using both interviews and document inspection. This study fills a needed niche in the instructional leadership literature.

## Procedure

### Assumptions and Rationale for a Qualitative Design

Like consultation itself, qualitative research is a mixture of art and science. Gaining access and avoiding bias during data collection are some of the art forms of qualitative studies. Systematic methods for drawing conclusions and for testing them carefully -- methods that can be used for replication by other researchers -- surface as scientific issues in qualitative research.

Many of the types of research questions that are appropriate for qualitative methods parallel the conditions found in special education (Mertens & McLaughlin, 1995). Peck and Furman (1992) believe that following a positivist approach may lead researchers to draw shallow conclusions regarding why students with disabilities are not succeeding in school. The authors also note that qualitative methods have led to a variety of findings about cultural values, institutional practices, and interpersonal interactions that influence special education practice.

Consultation is particularly suited to qualitative research due to its situational nature; the context changes the nature of the program. Each consultation experience reflects the people involved including the obvious triad, but also including the person in charge of administering the program. Depending on their attitudes, philosophies, beliefs, and needs, the consultation exchange is altered. Each consultation experience reflects organizational factors related to the encounter. For instance, time variables such as quantities of time and scheduling and financial constraints alter the consultation process. Therefore, a true operational definition as required by quantitative methodology is impossible to acquire.

### The Type of Design

“When the focus is the ‘how’ and ‘why’ question and concerns a bounded system like a consultation, qualitative case studies are appropriate” (Pryzwansky & Noblit, 1990, p. 298). Also, the use of a qualitative case study slows the urge to define events quickly by enabling the researcher to be more systematic, reflective, and objective (Pryzwansky & Noblit). I chose a multiple site case study design or collective case study (Stake, 1995) and collected data in the following ways: (a) interviews with principals and one or two of their teacher teams; (b) observations and field notes from on-site meetings and visits; and (c) analysis of documents (policy manuals, meeting agendas, teacher handbooks, administrative memos).

The design of this grounded theory case study allowed theoretical considerations to permeate the study while not being based on one theory. The design can discover new theory or refine existing theory. Case study design based on the consultation theory, but sensitive to dynamics of the cases, was used for this research. Use of the constant comparative method of analysis contributed to my ability to remain flexible while analyzing the data.

### The Researcher's Role

Investigator as instrument. In qualitative case studies, researchers are the instruments (Guba & Lincoln, 1994). This metaphor is useful because it emphasizes that the investigator cannot fulfill qualitative research objectives without using a broad range of her experience, imagination, and intellect in ways that are unpredictable. The experience I gained as a special education teacher for 10 years is the backdrop for my professional experiences. I have also earned a graduate degree in educational leadership. As McCracken (1988) states, "The investigator listens to the self in order to listen to the respondent" (p. 33). Given these experiences with administrative support for models of cooperation between general and special educators, I was prepared to seek out matches between the data gathered and my past. Strategizing about how to achieve objectivity was a dominant focus of the design phase of the study. This involves being consciously emic, or open to issues revealed by the participants, and holistic as well as being committed to reflection about my own subjectivity and role in the school setting. According to Pryzwansky and Noblit (1990), conducting a case study well requires the researcher to change questions as she becomes more familiar with the case. Therefore, upon reflection my questions were altered to match the information accumulated during the research process. I constantly searched for better questions that address the basic inquiries: "What administrative behaviors support the partnerships between special and general educators? What barriers and facilitators do administrators believe are present in support of this partnership? and How are barriers overcome, if at all?"

Access and entry. I gained participants' trust by being open and honest about who I am, why I was conducting the study, and my specific goals in accumulating information from them. During the study I realized that I was unable to communicate effectively with three principals over the telephone to gain initial information. Unfortunately, even though follow-up phone calls were made to confirm willingness and the principal-chosen appointment time and a written reminder letter was sent (see Appendix A), upon arrival at two of these

principals' schools I was asked, "How long is this going to take?" One principal who was ill and somewhat less communicative on the phone had to reschedule twice which gave me the opportunity to express my desire again that my participants be both interested in and willing to discuss the topic. Upon arrival at her school, she was more informed than were the principals at the other two schools. I continued the interview with the other principal concerned with time. Although he appeared somewhat unwilling to give of his time, his interview was thorough, and he spent extra time with me afterwards to show me his school and introduce many of his teachers. The other principal who was less communicative on the telephone than the average principal was not interviewed. However, she did speak with me at length and found out what information I hoped to gain – information also discussed in telephone conversations and in the written reminder. She expressed a desire to reschedule, but after my data analysis reached an end, I found that I had a wealth of information from my six schools and the decision was made to end data collection.

During the interviews, I maintained a nonjudgmental attitude toward the participants' statements and actions. This facilitated communication with and acceptance of me as a group member/learner by the participants. As a learner rather than an evaluator or critic, I was less threatening and the participants were more willing to share information and confidences about the situation (Stainback & Stainback, 1988).

Participant principals were chosen by contacting central office personnel, university professors, and fellow education leadership graduate students who work closely with principals in the Southwest Virginia area and can vouch for their knowledge of collaborative models between general and special educators. Next, the nominated principals were contacted by telephone to determine that they demonstrated an interest in the subject and derived their perspective from previously teaching in a collaborative model and currently administering one. The principals who volunteered to participate, using knowledge and interest of their current model as criteria, nominated special educators. These teachers were contacted to determine their interest in the model and in participating in the study. They each nominated a general education teacher with whom they work closely. Again, these teachers were contacted to determine interest in their current model and a willingness to participate.

During the first contact, the purpose and procedure of the study was revealed in order that full disclosure could be met and full cooperation could be expected from the participants

during data collection. One guarantee of capturing a principal's knowledge in a real way is through the choice of participating principals who are committed to their work, able to articulate their points of view, and interested in doing so. Oral verification that their schools were implementing a form of cooperation between special and general education and a willingness to participate was sought. Times and dates were set for my arrival, the subsequent interview process, and the document review based on principal and teacher team preferences. Approximately one week prior to the agreed upon interview date, I mailed an interview reminder note and a demographics survey (see Appendix B) to be filled out at the leisure of the principal. Prior to beginning the interviews, I had the interviewees read and sign an ethics protocol/participant release agreement (see Appendix C). Interviews with principals lasted from 45 minutes to one hour and 15 minutes, and teacher team interviews lasted from 20 to 50 minutes.

#### Data Collection Procedures

During the third nine-week period of the school year, an intensive study of six elementary school principals who had previously served as teachers within a cooperative model between special and general educators was executed. The principals' policies that affected consultation within their schools were considered. Structured interviews focusing on the research questions was conducted with each principal and one or two teacher teams. Field notes were taken on the analysis of documents related to the cooperative model. Interviews were tape recorded and transcribed. Substantive field notes were maintained and reviewed at the end of each on-site visit. Documents that were examined include the following: (a) teachers handbooks; (b) policy guides; (c) school board or faculty meeting minutes and agendas; (d) administrative memos; (e) and other printed matter deemed relevant to this study.

Prior to beginning the study, a short pilot study interview was conducted with one cooperating team: a principal, special education teacher, and general education teacher. During the exchange, I practiced listening unobtrusively, not active listening, taking notes as necessary, and using floating probes and planned prompts as necessary. From this interview, the questionnaire was substantively modified.

#### Participant Selection

The sample for this qualitative study was a unique sample and purposeful sampling of critical cases was used. Sampling of critical cases entails selecting cases that are particularly important based on a specific criteria of significance (Patton, 1990). In this study, participants were principals who had experienced successful or unsuccessful cooperation between a general and special educator first hand where they were teachers. They professed to possess an interest in collaborative or cooperative service delivery to students with special needs. The belief behind the choice of principals with this perspective is that being informed parties who are interested in the topic they will give thorough and well thought out information. This minimized access problems as well as heightened the amount of rich data I was able to collect. Teacher teams were interviewed in order to verify the amount and type of support the principal gives. I strove to use principals from a variety of situations within southwest Virginia and the surrounding area. However, in order to control the variables that may have confounded my findings, I limited the parameters and fully described all other variables in order that others might replicate this study. Participants were chosen from elementary schools serving kindergarten through fifth or sixth grade. The size of the schools was small to moderate, serving between 190 to 529 students with between 8 and 12 % of the student population qualifying for special education services. Since these are typical percentages in public schools, using a school with less or more would have confounded the findings since they would be unusual circumstances. Since funding efforts are different between school divisions in Virginia, this variable was not controlled for. Fiscal issues for each district included in the study are described because funding matters have a significant effect on administrative support. Similarly, schools were chosen from rural, suburban, and urban areas, but these settings are discussed fully in order that readers may determine individually the extent to which these variables may have had an impact on the findings. Written consent was gained from each participant in the research study and exemption status was received from the Institutional Review Board prior to initiating data collection. Confidentiality has been assured to the participants; therefore, names and other identifying information has been changed to pseudonyms.

#### Questionnaire Construction

Qualitative questions in interviews allow respondents to tell their stories in their own words. I sought to be an unobtrusive listener, not an active listener (McCracken, 1988). The

interview/conversation began with a set of biographical questions in the form of a demographics survey. This was followed by guiding questions, a copy of which was handed to the respondent indicating there was an agenda to be followed (Stake, 1995). Testimony was sustained as unobtrusively as possible through the use of “floating prompts” (McCracken, p. 35) such as nodding, a tilt of my head, or repeating a key term with an interrogative tone to prompt the respondent to expand on an issue. Planned prompts were prepared in advance for a proactive and slightly more obtrusive approach to encourage the respondent to cover a topic more fully. According to McCracken, the most important planned prompt is the contrast prompt that at first uses only terms the respondent has introduced and later may use terms from the literature as necessary. Another planned prompt strategy is category questions. When specific topics under a category were not addressed spontaneously, and the aspect was important enough that I needed to gain the respondent’s insight about it, I asked prompting category questions. A third planned prompting strategy is to ask respondents to recall specific, out of the ordinary occasions when administrative support either was or was not implemented. These planned prompts were used only in cases where the material they are designed to elicit failed to surface spontaneously (see questionnaires in Appendix D).

### Interview Procedure

As McCracken (1988) states, “The investigator listens to the self in order to listen to the respondent” (p. 33). Given my experiences with administrative support for models of cooperation between general and special educators, I was prepared to seek out matches between the data gathered and my past teaching experience. Although the formal questions and planned prompts were prepared in advance of the interview, I remained flexible and ready to modify questions in order to provide the respondents the opportunity to shape the direction of the content. In this way, respondents were able to tell their story with regard to administrative support for the cooperation between general and special education teachers without being inadvertently led in their answers. According to Stainback and Stainback (1988),

The advantage of increasing the structure in interviewing is a corresponding increase in the probability that comparable data across participants will be collected; however,

there is also a corresponding decrease in the probability of gaining an understanding of how each participant him or herself structures the topic under study. (p. 53)

I followed the guidelines synthesized from the work of Stainback and Stainback, McCracken, and Stake (1995) for engaging in interviewing. I was controlled in my reaction to information, never evaluative or unsympathetic. With the assistance of the principals, because I traveled to their district, I chose an interview environment and conditions in which they felt comfortable, secure, and at ease enough to speak openly as well as one that was virtually free of interruptions. I asked open-ended questions and encouraged the respondents to elaborate and share their perspectives fully. I studied the respondents' demeanor to determine the appropriate approach to take in questioning and to listen for impression management, topic avoidance, deliberate distortion, minor misunderstandings, and total incomprehension. As suggested by McCracken, I thought ahead to what roadblocks the conversation might come upon and determined strategies to detour the conversation while still arriving with the best possible data. The interviews were audio taped for later detailed transcription.

#### Document Data Collection and Recording

The documents I collected serve as substitutes for activities that I was unable to observe, such as faculty meetings, and as cross verifications of data gathered during the interviews. During our telephone conversation and in the reminder letter prior to arriving at the school site, I asked the principals and cooperating teachers to gather information they felt might be pertinent to the study of administrative support for their model of cooperation between general and special educators. I made clear that this list of documents would necessarily be incomplete until the interview during which we would determine other documents that were important to the study. Again prior to the interview, I asked for permission to gather the documents in their totality and for permission to view them on site in order to request clarification as questions arose. I attended to minor discrepancies as well as to information that may have corroborated data received through the previous interview. During review of the documents, caution was taken to be relatively suspicious of the lack of accuracy and the bias that might be present. Yin (1994) cautions against accepting documents as literal recordings of events. He continues by stating that the researcher must be aware that the documents being reviewed during a study were written for a specific purpose, often to

persuade, and for a specific audience other than the researcher. This suspicion of documents rendered me less likely to be misled and more likely to be a critical interpreter of the evidence.

As document data was collected, the same systematic and standard format was followed for coding as was used for interview data, the constant comparative method (Creswell, 1998). Upon initial viewing open coding was employed in which I formed initial categories of information about administrative support by segmenting information. Within each category, I found several subcategories and sought data that displayed extreme examples of the property.

#### Data Analysis Procedures

Interviews were transcribed verbatim so as not to inadvertently impose my sense of reality on the interviewees although my questions did shape the flow of topics. Close, repeated listening to recordings revealed previously unnoted recurring features of the organization of the discussion, extended the range and precision of observations and minimized personal preconceptions. Data derived from these extensive interviews, field notes, and documentation were reviewed for recurring themes utilizing the constant comparative method (Creswell, 1998). I gathered information in the field, conducted initial analyses of the data, went back to the field to gather more information, analyzed this data, and so forth, the whole while, comparing new information to emerging categories. Creswell refers to this as a “zig-zag” approach (p. 58). Data display including diagrams, charts, and trees allowed for the sorting and categorization of data in a way that seemingly discrete data were linked in previously unrecognized ways (Bogdan & Biklen). Developing themes were labeled, and all data was coded using Qualitative Solutions and Research, Non-numerical Unstructured Data \* Indexing Searching and Theorizing (QSR NUD\*IST 4<sup>TM</sup>), a qualitative analysis software package. Quotations were extracted from transcripts and collected into node files, with each node representing a distinct idea or theme. Quotations in nodes retained identifying codes that link them to their source interview. These theme nodes were then read, edited, and organized into a core set of ideas about principal administrative support. The core set of ideas were then reorganized by linking, splitting, and eliminating themes until a satisfactory framework for reporting the findings was found.

Concurrent with the data analysis of the interviews, the analysis of the document data occurred. As previously discussed, an initial open coding was already completed on the documents. Following open coding, I continued the analysis using the constant comparative method as used for analyzing the interview data.

### Data Management

Data collected from this study was managed through the use of Crockett's (in press) five core principles that support special education's practices that comply with the provision of a free appropriate public education (FAPE) in the least restrictive environment (LRE): making ethical and legally defensible decisions; focusing on individuality and exceptionality; equity under the law; effective programming; and productive partnerships. Through an analysis of multiple data sources, Crockett argues that these five principles represent special education's conceptual core. As she points out, "Special education in the United States is considered not merely nice but necessary. American legislation reflects an underlying societal presumption that students with disabilities are worthy of educational expectations - - both academic and social - - and belong in schools alongside their non-disabled peers" (p. 24). In light of this, these five principles should parallel the method of service delivery provided to exceptional learners.

While aware of the danger of forcing data into a preconceived matrix, my belief was that without an externally imposed form, the data could easily become unmanageable. With this in mind, initial themes were decided upon separately from Crockett's (in press) core principles. Two independent peer reviewers were used. One review took place after two schools' data had been initially analyzed. The second review occurred after all schools' data had been analyzed using the constant comparative method within QSR NUD\*IST at least two times. Both peer reviews proved helpful in consolidating and defining themes. The themes that were discovered fit well within the five core special education principles with the addition of leadership skills which were refined through the work of the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE, 1995) and constraints or barriers of the administrative support.

More in-depth analysis involved looking at the issues for each relational pair, the principal and the teacher team(s), to show that their stories are not isolated extracts but run through the body of the data. In this way, generalization is possible without violating the

recognition of the interview as a situated encounter with a virtual stranger. The one deviant case, Belle View Elementary, was useful in refining my analysis. The principal, Mr. Baker, had little prior experience as a cooperative teacher, was distressed by cooperation as a middle-school assistant principal, and had only two years experience as a principal. He and his team do not express similar support as frequently as more experienced principals.

#### Quality Control

Multiple strategies, explained under credibility, transferability, and dependability, were used as a means of verifying that a correspondence exists between the way that the participants perceive administrative support of the partnerships between general and special educators and the way I portray their viewpoints.

Credibility. I monitored my developing hypotheses and documented the process of change from the beginning of the study until the end. This method of verification has been referred to as progressive subjectivity by Mertens (1998). These hypotheses and current themes were shared for what Mertens calls peer debriefing. My key peer debriefer was a doctoral student who completed her dissertation in the area of instructional technology while I began my data collection. My second peer debriefer was my academic advisor. I shared field notes and current themes and hypotheses. They posed questions from unique perspectives and helped guide the next steps in the study.

According to Mertens and McLaughlin (1995), member checks are the most important criteria in establishing credibility. In order to meet these criteria, I verified with the participants the themes that developed as a result of data collected and analyzed. After the interviews, I orally summarized the interview to the participants and asked if my notes accurately reflected the participants' position. Once themes had been determined and held firmly during subsequent analyses, I contacted the principals to discuss the accuracy of these themes. All six principals felt comfortable with the accuracy and comprehensiveness of the themes.

As a final check of factual data, I used the method of checking credibility called triangulation. The multiple methods from which information was collected and checked within schools are interviews, short observations, and document review. Second, I sought to confirm themes by triangulating data across multiple sources (the six principals, their teacher teams, and documents).

Transferability. My responsibility in the area of transferability is to provide descriptive details sufficient to allow readers to compare and contrast this study to other studies. Thick description in the form of extensive details of time, place, context, and culture is provided. I have included an explanation concerning the principals' prior experiences with a cooperative model between general and special educators, especially a time frame, and demographics such as setting and experiences. I also delineate the principals' current situations including setting and organizational factors.

Dependability. As Yin (1994) suggests, I maintained a case study protocol that details each step taken in the research process. In this manner, I can document changes in design created by increasingly refining my understanding regarding emerging themes and patterns in the data.

Each interview was a learning experience. Cooperation, collaboration, working together, partnerships - -this language game was a linguistic phenomena too complicated to address fully. Words have different connotations for different people under varying circumstances. The prevalence of discussion in the education arena related to collaboration between general and special educators tended to inadvertently draw people into a conversation about inclusive practices. For example, during my search for probable participants, two Special Education Directors explained to me that I was looking for inclusion and they did not have "inclusion schools." One of these directors even told me that no principal in the United States had been involved in inclusion because it was too new and that I needed to rethink my topic. Based upon this knowledge, I used the words interchangeably until I noticed a reaction from the participants that matched my meaning of the words. A second connotation problem was often exhibited regarding the words model, evaluation, and resources. Principals seemed hesitant to describe their partnerships as a model. Perhaps because the term model gives the impression of formality and most of these leaders volunteered that their school had adopted partnerships based on a loose and informal principle. Principals and teachers from my first interviews took the word evaluation and switched it to assessment, allowing for more in-depth answers. This prompted a similar change in my questionnaire. The word resources tended to draw monetary responses while I was seeking a more wide range of replies. For subsequent interview/conversations, I chose to

prompt these replies with a hypothetical scenario after using the standard “resources” prompt.

### The Qualitative Narrative

“Voice is the research instrument, echoing the self . . . of the portraitist -- her eyes, her ears, her insights, her style, her aesthetic” (Lawrence-Lightfoot & Davis, 1997, p. 85). The qualitative narrative relies heavily on the voice of the researcher to tell a story. As the investigator of this study, I use my voice to express myself as a witness and interpreter and to use the participants’ voices as first-hand actors in the story. In this manner, readers will be apt to make sophisticated decisions regarding the applicability of this story to other similar stories, including their own.

Since the respondents have generated a great deal of detailed and diverse testimony about administrative support from their perspectives, my job has been to winnow down this complex data to a concise form for the audience to read. In this study of the depths and limitations of administrative support with regard to the cooperation between general and special educators, I believe I have captured with accuracy and discipline the reality that turns image into essence through documentation, interpretation, analysis, and narrative.

## PROLOGUE

Data for chapter four are derived from the study of six elementary principals with prior experience as teachers in collaborative relationships and currently supporting general and special education teachers in a similar, yet more evolved practice. The focus of this analysis is on the principals' perspectives of administrative support for general and special education teacher partnerships. Chapter four describes how these principals facilitated these partnerships and the obstacles that interfere with their endeavors.

### How to Read This Story

Each portrait stands alone and highlights unique characteristics and approaches to supporting collaboration between general education and special education. You will see principals with varying leadership styles in different situations, struggling through unpredictable contexts in their efforts to foster an environment conducive to productive teaching and learning.

Cases III and IV illustrate what might be termed as the emergent level of leadership for teacher teams. Both administrators were relatively new principals with under two years experience leading their own building. The other four perspectives illustrate experienced leadership, demonstrating comfort with the unique leadership needs of teacher partners. Principals with this orientation focused on the development of teachers as professionals. These principals encouraged teacher input in decision making, supported the development of teachers' knowledge and skills, and promoted risk-free environments to increase creative solutions to the challenges inherent in educating a diverse group of students (see Appendix E for demographics of all schools).

While each school is a unique case, all have commonalities that bind them. The data reflected a bifocal perspective of educational leadership and special education concerns. While educational leadership has been defined by various leadership theories, I have chosen to use the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education guidelines (NCATE, 1995), because the data tended to parallel these four domains, strategic, instructional, organizational, and political and community leadership. The data also tended to parallel special education perspectives that Crockett (1999) conceptualized in her "cubed analysis" (p. 19). This analysis guides a responsive leadership curriculum for inclusive schools. The lens of special education views the provision and assurance of a full education opportunity as

reequired by law from the aspects of special education's conceptual foundation: individualization and exceptionality of the learner; equity under the law; effective programming; and productive partnerships. Appendix F describes each domain and gives the definition used for the six case studies. These stories will be organized according to the responses of the principal as the school leader and will reflect the domains of strategic, instructional, organizational, and political and community leadership. The reader will be reminded of elements of special education's core when encountering terms such as exceptionalities, individualization, equity, effective programming, and productive partnerships. Following individual principals' perspectives, themes across the six case studies are explored.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

The study results are based on 13 interviews with six principals and seven teacher teams and a review of documents including, but not limited to, teachers handbooks, faculty meeting minutes and agendas, an evaluation of one principal, administrative memos, and banners from the six school sites. The schools were in a variety of stages of collaboration between general and special educators, yet all school missions included collaboration as a priority goal.

#### Case I: Rubbing on People

##### The Case of Civil Elementary

Civil Elementary must be near; school zone signs and street markings were within my sight. I turned off a major thoroughfare in this small town, passed the grocery and fast food restaurant, and followed the curvy road to a dirt and gravel lot -- one end filled with portable buildings made homey with wooden pathways and handrails. I entered the main building. It must not have been time for any class transitions. The hall was quiet. Mr. Cedric Cisco<sup>1</sup> was the first person I met.

Mr. Cisco, the principal of Civil Elementary, struck me as a person who gets straight to the point. When setting up our meeting times he was concerned about my travel time. He made certain that I could meet efficiently with the teacher team directly after meeting with him. Despite our best laid plans, I made a second visit to Civil Elementary. After completing both the interviews with Mr. Cisco and the teacher team he had selected, I scheduled an interview with a second teacher team that had been in Civil Elementary with Mr. Cisco for at least one full year. The first team, a learning disabilities teacher and a fifth grade teacher, had previously worked with Mr. Cisco at another school but at Civil Elementary only during the school year currently under discussion. The second team included a preschool special education teacher, Pam, and a kindergarten teacher, Kristen.

Mr. Cisco had been at Civil Elementary for five years when I met him, but he had been a principal for 12 years and had served in the district for 26 years. He had previously taught high school math for 10 years, from 1976 to 1986. He had spent eight of these years

---

<sup>1</sup> Pseudonyms have been used for all schools and persons in order to protect confidentiality.

cooperating with a special educator. This partnership began with discussions about the appropriate curriculum for a number of students with disabilities and the similarity of their programs to what was being taught in the Basic Skills math class. This innovative Basic Skills class was Mr. Cisco's "baby" (Line 19). He had seen the need in the mid-1970s for what he called "fourth grade math for eighth graders" and, as the teacher leader, proposed his idea to the school's administration. When the special education teacher pointed out the benefits of this class for students with disabilities, he said, "Bring 'em on" (Line 29). By the time Mr. Cisco took a position as an assistant principal, his program was being phased out possibly due to stronger math programs at the earlier grade levels. He indicated that as the years passed, a higher percentage of his students had been identified as needing special services. This made sense, as the special education law was in its infancy concurrent to Mr. Cisco's math program's infancy.

He appeared to have carried forth his experiences of cooperation between special and general education to his principalship, particularly here at Civil Elementary with its 22 member general education staff and five special education teachers. Together, these teachers are responsible for the education of 351 students from preschool class through grade five, 26 who are identified special education students. Following is Mr. Cisco's story of how he accomplished this (see Table 4.1 for Civil Elementary demographics).<sup>2</sup>

### Strategic Leadership

As may be most suitable for an all-business principal who began his educational career in the 1970s, Mr. Cisco spoke little directly about his vision sharing and motivation techniques. Even when asked specifically about these strategic leadership traits, he humbly skirted the issue by discussing how others had accomplished these tasks and then sometimes added mildly, if prompted, that he also worked this way. Without prompting, the preschool teacher team referred to their principal's strategic leadership skills. They knew that, as needed, Mr. Cisco would take "an active role" (Line 69) in problem solving and decision making, but that as professionals they were given autonomy to work together in the best interests of their students. They felt this trust on a daily basis, but one incident greatly affected the special education preschool teacher, Pam, and she relayed it in this manner:

---

<sup>2</sup> Complete demographic information for each school can be found in Appendix E.

Table 4.1

Demographics for Civil Elementary and Mr. Cisco

Age	35-49
Major area of teacher training	General Education
Highest degree earned	Master's
Level of majority of teaching experience	High School
Subjects taught	Math
Years worked as a teacher	10
Years as a teacher in a partnership	8
Years worked in current division	26
Years as full-time principal	12
Years as principal at current site	5
Location of school site	Small town
Special education teachers	5
General education teachers	22
Students qualified for free or reduced lunches	20.5%
Special education students	28 (7.9% of total school population)
Total number of students	351

He went to an elementary principal's conference, about 2 years ago I guess it was. And he had listened to me rattle on about it's cheaper to do it now, it's more effective to do it now. Get these kids . . .do the intervention now. And he took a lot of that on faith. He believed me, but at that conference, they gave him real numbers. He was a math teacher. They gave him real numbers. "Statistics say that this is what you can expect. This is how much it costs to do it here and this is how much it costs to do it later." And he came back and he said, "I've got numbers. You were right." And when he said that, it struck me, "You've been taking a lot of this on faith. You believe in what we're doing and you believe that to be true. But you never heard it from the experts." But he was willing to trust his professionals to do what they do, what he hired them to do. That's kind of rare. He's wonderful. (Lines 132-143)

She continued by discussing his strategic plan and high expectations. While conversing about how he evaluated teachers through assessments of students, she said:

His expectations are that everybody is going to give 110% to teaching kids, caring about kids, and looking at the whole picture. Of course, that's easy given the support that we have. But you also have to have people who want to do that. (Lines 173-177)

Having a veteran staff working with a highly experienced principal over an extended time seems to create a stable environment in which the strategic plan is almost second nature or at least well institutionalized within the organization.

### Instructional Leadership

All three interviews and the document review referred substantially to instructional leadership and made up nearly half of the data for Civil Elementary. While exemplary, this occurrence was atypical even in this study which sought out principals interested and informed about cooperation for the educational benefit of students with special needs.

Mr. Cisco expressed his instructional leadership with reference to special education programming. He discussed individual programming with regard to the "cascade" (Line 146) of services available to preschool students who are at-risk or formally identified as in need of special education services. In this school district, the cascade ranged from placement in a private preschool with monitoring, to working in the general education kindergarten with support from a special education assistant, to the student being in a self-

contained class. He described his school's preschool program as "pretty as anything you're ever going to see in your life" (Lines 175-176). Yet, the indicators he used for this judgement were difficult to determine.

Supervision of instruction. Although he stated that the preschool program "is working really well" (Line 176), he confessed that his supervision and assessment of the partnerships and programs in his buildings was through "not much more than observations . . . I like to know my kids, so I don't think of it in terms of supervising my teachers" (Lines 483-484). His preschool teacher team supported his assertion that he evaluated his teachers through the progress reports of individual children. Kristen said, "Even if he's tinkering on your computer, . . . he's paying attention to what Johnny's doing or Suzy's doing. He's very in-tuned to what's going on. Sometimes I think he thinks of excuses to come in your room and tinker with the wires or check the thermostat just so he can see the kids" (Lines 156-160).

Teacher assignment. Mr. Cisco readily admits that in order to achieve not only appropriate instruction but also the best instruction available at Civil Elementary for the students with disabilities, he chose their general education teacher carefully. He described his method for choosing homeroom teachers like this:

I've got a fourth grade teacher who works well with special needs kids. Guess who gets a lot of them . . . Not all of them, but a lot. It isn't so much most kids as most needy. She's the one who would get the most needy." (Lines 353-355 & 361-362)

Cecil Cisco also explained that he divided special education students throughout the classes at each grade level. He was concerned that this practice led to the necessity of special educators working with a high number of general educators, but attempted to alleviate this problem by assigning each special education teacher to only two or three grade levels.

Child study teams. Mr. Cisco emphasized prereferral and referral strategies. The prereferral process at Civil Elementary consisted of what the principal referred to as informal, but was set up with formal guidelines set by the special education coordinator under Mr. Cisco's supervision that held the general education teacher responsible for modifications and adaptations. The general education teacher was fully supported by a predetermined team that included a special educator and his grade level colleagues. At the beginning of each year, this prereferral and referral process was discussed in small groups

consisting of all teachers from two consecutive grade levels, the special education team, and the principal. Each conversation centered on specific children who were at risk of failure or were identified special education students. A notebook devised by the special education coordinator, Pam, guided their discussion of the steps necessary for prereferral and referral called child study. Mr. Cisco had this to say about child study teams at Civil Elementary: “When we do get to child study, we refer because we’ve tried reading centers, we’ve tried tutors, we’ve tried reduced assignments, and we’ve tried a lot of different things by the time we get there” (Lines 397-400).

Resource management. Although occurring at Civil Elementary as evidenced by the preschool program and the teacher team’s testimony, early identification did not seem to be a priority for Mr. Cisco. Erudite literature, however, promotes intervention at young ages (i.e., Salisbury & Smith, 1993). He unemotionally stated:

We don’t have too many first graders being served. As the years go along, second grade seems to be a good year, third grade year seems to be a good year to identify. So a lot of my kids getting services are fourth and fifth graders. (Lines 312-314)

According to Mr. Cisco, “It seems like every kid who transfers here does so with an IEP” (Lines 571-572). Therefore, Civil Elementary’s special education caseload has continued to increase and the program has become “a function of personnel and number of kids those personnel [had] to serve” (Lines 579-580). The principal would like to have been able to serve more students in a more inclusive environment, but said, “That’s personnel intensive, which means my division is never going to go for that” (Lines 582-583). He felt that with the number of personnel he had at the time, an inclusive environment would be nothing more than clustering the students with special needs into one regular class, and “that’s not really an inclusion setting” (Line 588).

Partnerships. Mr. Cisco’s instructional leadership style converged with special education’s emphasis on productive partnerships. Since the interview questions and the main topic of this study were the administrative support of partnerships between general and special education teachers, naturally one would expect to find much of the text related to this special education domain. Yet, the amount of partnership text derived from Civil Elementary’s interviews and document review exceeded expectations. More than half of the total text focused on partnerships. Mr. Cisco struggled with how to limit the number of

teachers with whom a special education teacher had to collaborate in order to streamline service provision to students.

You would think if I have two special ed teachers, that I would have one doing K-2 and the other doing three through five. But it doesn't work like that. At least not like I've got it now. You've got to take those fourth and fifth graders who are coming down to the language arts and divide them so that this teacher and this teacher each have some. Based on who that is, is what homeroom teacher you've got to make contact with. So, a given teacher might be working with seven or eight homeroom teachers which isn't ideal. Ideally, you would be working with three or four. But it's better than working with 20. (Lines 314-322)

The principal had plans to enforce mandated classroom schedule changes in order to organize partnerships for the following school year. He believed the problem stemmed from the rigidity of educators in teaching language arts and stated:

Elementary teachers really believe that you can only teach language arts in the morning. First grade's worse than that. First grade, I've never! This is my 12<sup>th</sup> year as an elementary principal! First grade believes that not only does it have to be done in the morning, but it has to be done first thing in the morning. (Lines 307-310).

One alternative to formalized training that Mr. Cisco used was partnerships between the special education coordinator and other teachers in the building. He indicated that Civil Elementary's coordinator was seen as a resource person throughout the building and the preschool team, to which the coordinator belonged, corroborated this. Mr. Cisco described the situation:

She is pure gold is what she is. I'm a little bit aware of how intense a special education coordinator's job is because when I was a principal at Fairlawn Elementary some years ago, for three years in a row, I was my own special education coordinator . . . which means when I ask somebody else to do it . . . [I] pretty much know what [I'm] asking . . . Pam is good. She is viewed by the teachers here as a resource. The teachers will describe a situation. "Do you think I should go to child study? Do you have any suggestions?" . . . And my people aren't proud. They go ask for help . . . "Now look at this, see the reversals, this is a fourth grader and can't spell anything.

Do you think I should go to child study? Do you have anything I can try?" (Lines 379-392)

A third, and perhaps most important, way that instructional leadership and productive partnerships correspond in Mr. Cisco's style is what he calls "rubbing on people. You rub, and you nudge. You kid, and you prod, but your objective is to make sure people are talking to each other" (Lines 393-394). He sums up his philosophy about instructional leadership and building partnerships, "My style is to rub on them a little bit rather than to order them around. They seem to like that" (Line 501-502).

Exceptional learners. As an instructional leader, Mr. Cisco was keenly aware of the importance of knowledge about exceptionalities. He interviewed and hired a person trained as a preschool special educator to teach the preschool at-risk program. To him, it was important that this teacher have knowledge about both early childhood and the specialized needs of students not yet identified as special education. He also extolled the virtues of inclusive environments for some children with disabilities in order to have role models that are more positive. He seemed aware that exceptionalities frequently concern life and death issues. He related:

We have one severe/profound program somewhere in the county. I've always felt like I should have the severe/profound handicapped (SPH) program because I am three minutes from the hospital. A lot of times SPH gets into a lot of medical needs. I haven't had room. So far, they haven't wanted to bring me a trailer. But I would take the SPH class in a heartbeat because it just makes sense. Well, I think the SPH class is at Hill Valley. From there, it's probably 15 minutes to a hospital. I should have them by virtue of location. (Lines 270-276)

Mr. Cisco's knowledge of exceptionalities helped him become an active part of team decisions. He felt confident in his ability to provide appropriate services through aides, related services providers, and other resources. Speaking of a kindergarten student with intense needs, he said:

[He] had a cord wrapped around [his] neck at birth. Some brain damage. Of course, he's labeled right now as developmentally delayed, as you might expect. Shows a lot of characteristics of an autistic child. We don't know. Has made some progress. We don't know what his ceiling is. He gets some service from the LD resource teacher.

Obviously the occupational therapist comes. The physical therapist comes. (Lines 282-289)

Mr. Cisco's main theme concerning exceptionalities and instructional leadership lay in his beliefs about individual students.

I hear principals talk about special ed and it's almost like they are spitting out those two words . . . Special ed is just one more piece of the puzzle. In my opinion, the idea is to help kids. Special ed is one more place you can get some help. It's not the answer . . . What I find is there is [only] an answer for a particular kid. (Lines 470-475)

Equity under law. The physical constraints of instructional space had become an equity consideration at Civil Elementary. This was evident when Mr. Cisco discussed having two teachers share a 34 by 24 foot classroom, the SPH class in his building, or that occupational and physical therapy were offered in the hallway. Of the latter, he said, "I don't have anywhere. Every closet I've got is in use for something" (Line 291-292). When the preschool program was initiated at Civil Elementary, Mr. Cisco struggled with central office for physical space. He described his struggle this way:

I've had to fight a little bit. At that time, I had special ed in a little closet up here that was about 10 ft wide and 20 ft long with one little window high up on the wall at one end and entirely too many kids for that space. I had one teacher serving about 15-17 kids. We fought for space. We eventually got the school board to lease some space so I had a regular classroom for special education.

Mr. Cisco's instructional leadership also affected another equity issue, that of personnel. He made certain, through the interview process, that he had general education teachers who were particularly qualified to teach students with special needs. His teacher teams corroborated this without being prompted. Although he admitted that finding certified special education teachers was a difficulty, the preschool team explained how one under-certified teacher was chosen:

Kristen: He said, "I know she doesn't have an education background, but she's the right person."

Pam: But when he hired [her as the second] LD teacher, he and I did talk about that. I said, "She lights up when she works with kids. We are better off with that light."

Forget the license. We can't get anybody with a license anyway." He said, "We can't [find a licensed teacher]." And that's what he was looking for - - someone who works well with kids.

Kristen: He's a people person. (Lines 503-509)

He attempted to support his new LD teacher by placing her in the same resource room with a certified and highly experienced LD teacher in a mentor/protege situation.

### Organizational Leadership

The observation that Mr. Cisco was a "people person" was apparent in his organizational leadership, especially as it related to personnel issues. Because his special education coordinator, Pam, was working on her doctorate in educational leadership, he knew that she would soon leave her current position. He used his organizational management and interpersonal skills to theorize how she might be replaced. Mr. Cisco believed that he needed to find someone who was well suited to "rubbing on people" or facilitating interactions among people. He hoped to replace the coordinator with another preschool teacher who was able to be a mediator.

Mr. Cisco's equity concerns included financial resources. His school, in cooperation with Head Start, acquired a \$55,000 grant from the state for the four-year-old at-risk program that included identified special education students. The grant funded a full-time assistant.

Mr. Cisco discussed the programming issues of supervision and assessment, related to general and special education partnerships in particular, by relating a story:

I had a situation last year where there were 2 teachers, the homeroom teacher and a special ed teacher. The special ed teacher is no longer here. But I just knew they didn't get along. So I would have tried the best I could this year to avoid a situation of having those two working together. Because they were just like oil and water. You don't put people in that position. (Lines 493-497)

Partnerships within the school were an essential component to Mr. Cisco. He described his belief concisely:

One of the absolute requirements is you've got to communicate with the blamed homeroom teacher. Communication has got to be daily. I mean if we're not on the same page, since I have no children who are in the special education room all day, if

they're going to do that [mainstream], they need to know the program. (Lines 267-270)

He went on to discuss in detail how some special education coordinators do not have the personality to communicate as well as others. The trait that he held in the highest regard related to partnerships was facilitating communication, which he called "rubbing on people" (Line 412). He expounded on his facilitation theory by noting that it works differently for everyone and depends on the make-up of the faculty. In other words, it is a systemic process. Other means that Mr. Cisco used to facilitate communication among the staff included conducting faculty meetings often, but for short periods of time, and giving the special education coordinator an open invitation to present at each meeting. In order to promote the credibility of the coordinator with the entire staff, Cedric left her in charge when he had to be out of the building. About this, he said, "What that means is that teachers understand that Pam has my full confidence if she is going to be the one to deal with the dirty situation when the boss is gone and all hell breaks loose" (Lines 436-438). Mr. Cisco seemed to rely on his interpersonal relationship skills to assure a smooth running organization.

#### Political and Community Leadership

Involvement with both parents and the larger community appeared to be of importance to Mr. Cisco. A review of the documents, including faculty meeting minutes, teacher handbooks, their child study manual, and the teacher evaluation handbook, revealed that Cecil was involved in parental and community relations. Teachers were applauded for joining the Parent Teacher Association and asked to communicate often and positively with parents. During our conversation, the principal explained that attendance at IEP meetings was high and credited his school's community relations for this feat. He continued by saying that having the parents as well as other team members in attendance increased the likelihood that an appropriate plan of study would be achieved for individual students. He displayed his knowledge of special education issues when he discussed addendums to IEPs, some he felt were of the "useless variety" (Line 531) such as teacher mistakes and others due to needed changes. One example of the "useless variety" of addendums is when teachers indicated on the IEP that the student would be taking state mandated testing, but testing was not offered for the student's grade level.

Mr. Cisco's preschool teacher team gave an example of his political and community leadership. He treated the preschool class like full members of the school although some local and state policies, such as the statewide attendance program called Colombia Attendance, did not recognize preschool at all. His attitude affected the rest of the school community's reactions to this class and its staff. When it was Civil Elementary School's turn to host the school board meeting, Mr. Cisco chose to highlight the preschool and special education programs. According to the teacher team, other principals had highlighted gifted and talented programs or content area programs like science.

The preschool teacher team also indicated that the principal's political and community leadership extended to central office partnership issues. When the special educator had written the grant for the at-risk four-year-old program, she needed to communicate directly with the central office but was shunned because she was not on the same hierarchical level. She detailed Mr. Cisco's assistance in facilitating this communication. The kindergarten teacher brought other partnership issues to light when she expressed a concern about inservice programs that all elementary teachers had been required by their central office to attend. During the same time, the special education coordinator, Pam, had planned an early elementary and special education inservice, but even with the assistance of Mr. Cisco, the kindergarten teachers were not allowed to attend.

Issues pertaining to equity under the law corresponded with the principal's political and community leadership. Mr. Cisco discussed state formulas for determining approximate numbers of preschool students with special needs in the county, information needed when writing Civil Elementary's preschool grant, and showed an understanding of benefits he could acquire for his school by using special education law to his advantage. He used aides to cover classes so that the homeroom teachers could attend IEP meetings and was adamant that his IEP teams "not just get the signature, but be in the meeting" (Lines 515-516). He also displayed puzzlement about principals who did not use special education for the betterment of their schools' educational programs when he stated, "But I don't know why you wouldn't try to get as much of the special ed piece [as possible]. At least that piece is going to be there. The law says it's going to be there" (Lines 478-480).

### Summary

As a high school math teacher for 10 years -- eight of these in cooperation with special education and adapting instruction -- four years as an assistant principal, and 12 years as an elementary principal, Mr. Cisco had a variety of educational experiences. His moderately sized elementary school (351 students) only served 21 students with learning disabilities and seven preschoolers, 7% of the total student population, yet had five special education teachers. This gave each teacher the responsibility for an average of less than six students each. Yet, the elementary aged students were all served in a resource setting. Mr. Cisco believed that although some students might be served in regular education classes, he did not have enough teachers to adequately handle this service delivery model.

Cedric Cisco trusts his teachers and has high expectations, but investigates through informal observation and the example given by Pam, the preschool teacher, about providing early intervention and later discovering at a conference that research supports this practice. Still, he apparently did not translate this information to early identification of students not identified in the preschool years. Another way he shows his trust is that when out of the building he leaves Pam in charge. This also serves the purpose of modeling cooperation with special education and increases special education credibility in the eyes of general educators. Beyond this, he highlighted the special education preschool program at the school board meeting.

The criteria he used to evaluate teachers was through informal observations of how they work with students and how well students appeared to be functioning academically and socially. Formal criteria and indicators for a satisfactory or better teacher were not noted.

With a reportedly low turnover rate of his teachers, he had little need to hire, but when he did, the decision was shared with teachers and based on the ability of the candidate to work cooperatively with other teachers and a record of accomplishment with students. The one teacher he had hired this year, the LD teacher, had no education background but had experience as an assistant in kindergarten at Civil Elementary. The criteria that she worked well with students was met because of process not substantive objectives, such as , “she loves the kids.”

Mr. Cisco supported partnerships between general and special educators by using Pam, the special education coordinator, as a training resource both formally through

inservices an informally with one-on-one discussions. He also gave her a time slot in every faculty meeting to share relevant information. He planned to champion partnerships through mandatory classroom schedule changes and modeled partnering through “rubbing on people.”

## Case II: Planting Seeds

### The Case of Link Elementary

I found Ms. Lynn Linkous through the special education director of her county, Mrs. McCafferty. When I inquired of Ms. McCafferty whether she knew of possible candidates in her county, she nominated two elementary principals. Ms. Linkous was the first nominee I contacted and she volunteered. She was brusque and slightly impatient during our initial telephone conversations, which foreshadowed what was to come. Although Ms. Linkous agreed to discuss her administrative support to collaboration between general and special education in her building, she cancelled the first two interviews. The second appointment was not cancelled until my arrival at her school. Ms. Linkous was ill. She had a student in her office, so I was unable to meet her in person although I waited 15 minutes. The main office, and the principal's as well, were bustling with student activity. I rescheduled the meeting with the secretary and arrived to an office filled with students two weeks later. Ms. Linkous was again busy with student matters but was able to meet with me shortly after I arrived.

I took the opportunity to investigate the building. Some of the walls were literally covered with encouraging banners, mottoes, and philosophies. Most of these sayings dealt with cooperation in some form; between the community and the school, between parents and the school, or between teachers. Other adages spoke of teaching each child as an individual and teaching to his or her strengths. The school lacked a teachers' workroom, so the principal had turned an adult's bathroom into a makeshift lounge with books, videos, and more maxims. As I entered the principal's office, I read another motto on her door that said in part, "TEAMWORK listening together, thinking together, working together" and sighed with relief. This would be a fruitful discussion after all.

Ms. Linkous gave a wholly different impression in person than on the telephone. She appeared relaxed, confident, and interested in the topic of my study. At the time of our conversation, Lynn was in her second year as a principal, both of which she had experienced at Link Elementary. She explained that her confidence as an administrator grew from the 10 years she spent as a central office supervisor in a neighboring state. She reported that her prior experience as an English as a Second Language (ESL) teacher from approximately 1976-1986 had also given her the background to understand the complexities of cooperation between general and special educators. Lynn found that the general education teachers with

whom she had worked did not distinguish between ESL and special education students. Reportedly, these general educators sought advice from her for both groups of students, which gave her the impetus to learn more about special education populations from the special educators in her previous school. She brought this knowledge and skills and these attributes to this 271 student rural school with 38% of its students qualifying for free or reduced lunches. Thirty-one of the students at Link Elementary were identified with disabilities; 29 students had learning disabilities and two students had emotional or behavioral disorders. The school was staffed with 13 general education teachers and 1.5 special educators (see Table 4.2 for Link Elementary demographics).

### Strategic Leadership

Ms. Linkous did not refer to her experiences in other schools; she dealt with the present and planned for the future. As she said, “So, what I’m doing is planting seeds here. This year is seed planting; sharing information” (Lines 62-63). Ms. Linkous was committed to empowering her teachers because she believed they were the people with the expertise about specific children, curriculum at their grade level, instructional strategies, and materials. She alluded to this by saying:

They would come in and say, “What do I need to do about this?” And I would say, “What do you think you need to do? You’re a professional. You’re the expert in grade two. You’re the expert in kindergarten.” They would just stop. One teacher told me, “I’ve never been asked to think before.” And I said, “Well, I’m asking you to think. You’re a professional educator, and I trust your judgement. I have to because I can not know everything in every grade level, so I depend on you to be the expert.” (Lines 282-288)

With only informal observations of the majority of her staff, the question is raised as to how Lynn holds her teachers accountable for the expertise that she depends upon. Ms. Linkous saw progress in the mutual responsibility of shared decision making. The teachers were beginning to express their opinions more and make plans as teacher teams without as much input from the principal. Lynn expressed her reserved optimism with this statement, “We’re probably on the second rung of moving toward collaborative decision making” (Lines 289-290).

Table 4.2

Demographics for Link Elementary and Ms. Linkous

Age	35-49
Major area of teacher training	General education
Highest degree earned	Master's
Level of majority of teaching experience	Elementary
Subjects taught	English as a Second Language
Years worked as a teacher	9
Years as a teacher in a partnership	4
Years worked in current division	2
Years as full-time principal	2
Years as principal at current site	2
Location of school site	Rural
Special education teachers	1.5
General education teachers	13
Students qualified for free or reduced lunches	38%
Special education students	31 (11.4% of the total student population)
Total number of students	271

Shared decisions and differential instruction. This principal made a concerted effort to allot resources as a catalyst to achieving her goals - - shared decision making for faculty and differentiated instruction for students. Ms. Linkous, the counselor, the general education teacher most hesitant to cooperate, Ms. Allen, and the full-time special education teacher, Sydney, traveled over an hour to a workshop dedicated to disseminating information about educating students with disabilities in the least restrictive environment. Lynn Linkous felt that the trip “helped a great deal” (Line 185), but that they still “need[ed] more movement” (Line 186). Lynn had unusual plans for further staff development because she saw a definite need for her teachers to learn how to differentiate instruction. She described her strategy this way:

I would like to do is not call it special ed and not link it to special ed, but just in general. And then work in those areas through the side door. Because sometimes they have this mental barrier, attitudinal, which is a barrier, of well, Sydney should take care of special ed and I’ll take care of mine. Well, that’s why if you say staff development is on how to work with special ed students, some of them are going to shut down. [So] this needs to be how do we work with children who are at various levels of ability and needs. And then you work in all the areas of needs. (Lines 549-556) We’ve done just the basic awareness. That’s the first step. That was at the beginning of the year. . . . And then, working our SOLs [Standards of Learning] training. . . . So, . . . I try to link to that. . . . And what I’m getting at are these other things [differentiation of instruction], but I’m using the tag of SOLs. So, there’s a method to my madness. Not everybody knows what it is. (Lines 558-564)

Unfortunately, Ms. Linkous was correct in her assertion that not everyone knew her plan. Her teachers exhibited a trust that was commendable but when asked how Ms. Linkous had tried to develop a collaborative climate for educating a diverse group of students, plainly stated that they had not “seen much done in that area” (Line 143).

At the beginning of the school year, Lynn consulted with Ms. McCafferty, the special education director, and decided to buy a teacher-friendly book that described each disability area and gave instructional suggestions. This book was coupled with a packet, and Ms. Linkous gave the teachers her expectation that they use these to become more aware of how

to differentiate instruction for students who were not “middle of the road” (Line 274). She explained the discussion she had with her teachers about productive partnerships this way:

We are not good at working with the gifted child. And we’re not good at working with the special needs child. We need to work at that as a school. And they take that real well. They know that I’m not putting them down because I say we. And I mean that. I mean me too. (Lines 274-278)

Ms. Linkous’ strategic leadership plan included both plans for partnerships among the faculty and partnerships with the larger community. She indicated that she let her staff know that she expected them to communicate with their colleagues at other schools and to use the internet to discover what teachers around and outside of Virginia were doing. The teacher team that I interviewed corroborated that they planned to meet this expectation, but explained that they were not on-line yet.

A final area of strategic leadership related most directly to Link Elementary’s three first-year teachers. Ms. Linkous hired these teachers with the express desire that they be willing to learn from her and collaborate with her. Lynn described her role as a “teacher of teachers” (Line 230), and she planned to facilitate their level of comfort in differentiating instruction.

### Instructional Leadership

Supervision and assessment. As an instructional leader, Lynn Linkous focused on developing a positive school culture, assessing student progress and staffing patterns. With regard to special education programming, she supervised and assessed her collaborative staff, especially her first-year teachers. As a supervisor, she tried to gain their trust by observing and giving suggestions. Lynn had explained her expectations when these new teachers were hired. She told them:

I don’t have all the answers, but I do expect dialogue. I do expect that when you are struggling, you come to me and share with me that you are struggling. I may offer some suggestions, I may ask other teachers to. We may dialogue about it. We may come up with some strategies. I’m not out to get you. I’m out to support and help you move from this point to this point, just like you’re going to help me as a principal move. (Lines 235-241)

Lynn felt that this form of instructional leadership and supervision had helped her to gain their trust so that assessments were useful. She explained her evaluation style this way:

They know I'm going to evaluate them. And that's very scary. So, they've got to know that there's a point of all support and no evaluation. And there's a point of now we assess where we are. They do the assessment too; I ask them to evaluate themselves. Then I do one, and we do a joint consultation and say, "Where are we different? Where are we the same, and why? What are the documentations and indicators for that?" (Lines 248-253)

Although Ms. Linkous had a thoughtful plan for assessing her new teachers' individual abilities and she was committed to partnerships and shared decision making, this principal had no formal method for assessing partnerships. She explained:

Informally I can tell you which one collaborates well, which one does not, by listening to the conversations that I hear between the two; listening in on the IEP dialogue and the discussion because I am in on every meeting from the initial one through the formation of the IEP. Going into the classroom, knowing what the accommodations are for the children is another responsibility of mine. Knowing which of the children are special ed, what category, what are their accommodations. When I walk in the classroom, is that being carried out? That's my role. And then I can see, if the teacher is following the accommodations. Sydney comes and shares a lot with me. . . . I go back and talk with the teacher, a lot with Ms. Allen, and then have conversations with her. Listen to what she's saying, look at what she's doing with them, ask her how she's working with this child. And find out. I can make an assessment. If I did a checklist, it would make it formal. (Lines 302-317)

Though Ms. Linkous and I spoke at length about her supervisory and assessment duties, it was her teacher team who informed me that she had not, as of her second year at Link Elementary, begun formally evaluating the teachers she had inherited from the previous principal. The lack of formal evaluation was due to a trust issue.

Readiness for collaboration. The principal informed me that her staff had lost faith in administrators based on the treatment that they had received from their last principal. Ms. Linkous said:

When I first came, the principal who was here before was asked to leave and transferred. And there were lots of hard feelings between him and the staff. So, my whole first year was [spent] building confidentiality, rapport, and trust because they did not trust administrators at all. It was a very anti feeling of administration, very closed and very defensive. . . . There are a lot of things that I see that need to be changed instructionally, and I am having to move at a much slower pace than I would like to. (Lines 39-46)

This statement informed me that Lynn's focus on productive partnerships began when she was first hired at Link Elementary. From her informal observations and the openness of some teachers, Lynn realized which teachers were most ready and willing to collaborate. The full-time special education teacher, Sydney, was ready. Her teacher team supported this assumption, but when asked about special and general education collaboration within the rest of the school, both team members had this to say:

Sydney: I don't see much of it happening.

Georgette: No. I think that the majority still is nestled in their little rooms doing their own thing. I think overall, that would be it. I think that when they saw Sydney and me doing that last year, they said, "That's neat, that's neat." But they weren't willing to try it. (Lines 129-133)

The teacher team did not recognize efforts that Ms. Linkous had made to facilitate a collaborative climate between general and special educators. While scheduling a joint planning time for general and special educators was a priority for the teachers and an aspect of special education programming, the principal said:

There is no joint planning time. And that creates a problem. But there's no way to have one when you're working with K-5 or 1-5, and we have 13 classroom teachers. So, Sydney tries to talk with them. But there is still a problem in terms of fulfilling that. (Lines 219-222)

Lynn's answer to the problem of preparing her staff for collaboration was to gently "plant seeds" or verbalize her goal of having teachers work together to educate students. Ms. Linkous expressed her awareness that teacher partnerships were "nowhere close to where they need to be" (Lines 542-543) but that the readiness of teachers is of utmost importance in

moving forward. However, informal observations may not be enough to inform Ms. Linkous when her teachers are ready to move to the next rung of the collaborative ladder.

Exceptional learners. Lynn Linkous worked diligently, perhaps to the point of diminishing returns, in the area of individual programming for exceptional learners. Because Link Elementary had such a small population (271 students), Lynn was acutely aware of the students who were having difficulty, including students with identified special education needs. She attended and was an integral part of all IEP meetings and sometimes questioned the appropriateness of goals and objectives. She spoke of individual students by name and explained her plans for educating them. Her awareness that some of her teachers were not “child-centered” (Line 48) but knew “their content areas” (Line 48) caused her to take a more active role in individual students’ education. The principal and the teacher team both spoke of one specific incident. Sydney, the special educator, had this to say:

I came in here yesterday for something and the student that I was talking with her about was sitting right over there in that chair. . . . She was showing me what she had been doing with him, and she was saying she wanted to buy some materials at a lower level. At first she was looking at having me take him more time and work with him in those subject areas. I told her I couldn’t take him more than 49% of the day because that would be considered self-contained, and I’m not legally allowed to do that. So, if I’m considered resource, I can’t have a student more than 49% of the day. So she was looking at the materials for the other teachers, and she really wants to help this student, but I think she’s looking at doing it herself now. She wants to do everything. when really the teacher is going to have to do some of it. (Lines 163-175)

Prereferral and referral. Ms. Linkous relayed a concern that Link Elementary had previously over-identified students for special education services. She sought to overcome this problem through more thorough and stringent prereferral and referral processes for special education eligibility. The responsibility of prereferral at Link Elementary fell on the shoulders of the general education teachers. Lynn explained, “I’ll ask them to keep a file on [students having difficulty], put together some things. I also ask that they stay in close contact with the parent, because I don’t want any parent to be caught off guard” (Lines 350-352). In this way, parents were kept informed of each step the school staff took in their efforts to accommodate for the student’s difficulties in school.

Teacher assignment. Another programming issue was that of class assignment of students with disabilities, which was decided based less on the student's needs than on which teacher would be most cooperative. Students with disabilities were typically placed in one of the two grade level classes, and Title I was placed in the other. Lynn reported that the issue of class assignment and the goal of heterogeneous classes were difficult dilemmas for her to overcome.

### Organizational Leadership

Ms. Linkous showed that she found interpersonal relations important by her actions and her words. She respected, trusted, and was interested in her teachers, although one particular teacher, Ms. Allen, caused difficulties in building a cooperative climate, Ms. Linkous made a special effort to spend time with her and to understand her specific needs. Lynn had this to say about Ms. Allen, "She doesn't want to set [students] apart. She and I have this ongoing dialogue of the yes-buts. You know yes-but this and yes-but that. This year, she's finally open and she's smiling" (Lines 59-61). Lynn Linkous asserted that Ms. Allen's behavior this year was a positive change.

One major organizational constraint that Ms. Linkous recognized was that the staff felt "overwhelmed" (Line 71). Reportedly, they sought her out occasionally and said, "I've had it. I don't know what to do. Help me. What do I do here?" (Lines 244-245). Due to this sense of being overwhelmed, areas in need of change remained the same. For instance, Link Elementary had plans to use a written form for school-wide communication. The form had been developed for some time, but the principal was waiting for the special education teacher to distribute it. "She's just been too overwhelmed to do it" (Lines 255-256), said Lynn.

Lynn Linkous also worked for change in how her teachers assessed materials to provide instruction to their diverse range of students. Although each teacher had two or three computers and approximately \$350 per year to spend on materials and supplies, some teachers utilized these resources for the benefit of specific students, and others bought things more randomly. To encourage more targeted and thoughtful purchasing, Lynn held a meeting for teachers across grade levels to find out about their new students from the previous teachers as a precursor to ordering materials for particular children. Also, she authorized the purchase of school-wide software for use within the entire building. Link Elementary did

fund raising to build the general account, and Ms. Linkous notified the staff that this money was available for materials beyond their allotted \$350.

Conflict management. Ms. Linkous exerted energy toward diplomatically managing conflict between teachers. For example, Sydney, the special educator, felt uncomfortable and unwanted in one regular education class. Lynn suggested ways of drawing this general educator into a cooperative relationship such as modeling teaching strategies. When a part-time special educator was hired, Lynn asked the teacher of the regular education class if she would prefer to collaborate with the new teacher, but she declined, saying she wanted Sydney. Ms. Linkous felt that upon relaying this information to Sydney, that Sydney put even more effort into building a collaborative relationship with Ms. Allen. Sydney, however, was oblivious that Ms. Linkous had done anything to pave the way for a more collaborative relationship between the two teachers.

#### Political and Community Leadership

Lynn was also involved in parent conferences with teachers, especially if there was concern about conflict. She felt that she treated the teachers with respect and took seriously her commitment “to help them explain their side” (Lines 511-512). “From the initial child study . . . I am in the meeting with the parents” (Lines 339-340). This statement from Ms. Linkous along with the posters she has covering Link Elementary’s walls, exemplify her political and community leadership beliefs. Lynn fostered parental involvement in education, especially during prereferral, referral, and eligibility discussions. Acclimating parents to the school’s procedures helped parents feel less intimidated by heightening their level of knowledge about educational and service delivery issues. Ms. Linkous felt a special sense of pride that she had implemented parental involvement in eligibility meetings prior to the change in IDEA that mandated this practice. She noted that she was able to accomplish the task of including parents in educational decisions through her close relationship with Sydney. Ms. Linkous made a point of talking with the special educator daily, and their offices were connected to one another. Lynn had a calendar on her desk, which Sydney checked prior to scheduling meetings with parents. Lynn penciled in tentative meetings and when they were firm appointments, changed them to red ink, establishing that these meetings took priority over other duties. Ms. Linkous had attended all, except two or three, prereferral, referral, and

eligibility meetings during her two-year tenure at Link Elementary, which allowed her the opportunity to work directly with parents of students with disabilities.

### Summary

Link Elementary was a relatively low-income small rural school with 11% of its student population identified as needing special education services. Its 1.5 special education teachers served the equivalent of approximately 20 kindergarten through grade five students each full time. In order that her special education teachers not have to partner with every general education teacher in the building, Lynn Linkous had placed as many as 10 students with disabilities in one classroom and placed all students receiving Title I services in the only other class at the grade level. She believed that this made the classes parallel and prevented her special education teachers from having to work closely with every general education teacher in the building. Unfortunately, concern for her teachers had clouded her goal of child-first leadership, because assigning all students with identified disabilities in one classroom cannot be considered placement on an individual needs basis. These practices might also cultivate burnout for the heavily used regular educators.

As an administrator for 12 years, a principal for two of those years, and nine years of ESL teaching experience, four of those years in a partnership with classroom and special education teachers, Lynn Linkous brought to our conversation much varied experience. She came to Link Elementary two years earlier to find a faculty untrusting of administrators and had been “planting seeds” for collaborative decision making and differentiated instruction since.

Lynn trusted her teachers to be the experts at their grade level, in their area of teaching, and about their student’ abilities. At the same time, she saw the need for differentiated instruction not being met and sought to train her teachers in the importance of teaching individual students differently in order to affect learning. The criteria and indicators she used to determine this need were not formalized. Similarly, she only informally evaluated her experienced teachers, raising the question of whether she trusted her teachers to be experts based on founded reasoning. For her three first year teachers, she used a more formalized assessment measure that included self-evaluation by the teachers and broadly discussed documentation and indicators. In her assessments of partnerships between general and special educators, Lynn observed the process of collaboration, group interactions, and

follow through of plans. Yet, she did not explicitly mention substantive indicators such as the outcomes of these processes. Ms. Linkous indicated, however, that she personally evaluated individual progress for students with special needs, a substantive outcome of both individual teachers and partnerships.

### Case III: Guessing Games

#### The Case of Buchanan Elementary

As I pulled through the circular parking lot, I saw a small-town school building that resembled a business that had gone bankrupt, desolate and quiet. The walk to the building filled me with trepidation. Was this the right place? Where were all the children? Where was all the childish commotion common to an elementary school? But yes, the steel block lettered sign said, Buchanan Elementary. The suction created by the heavy metal door as I pulled it forced the pungent odor of the bathroom past my nose. Teachers discussing the neglect of parents to attend to their children's homework reached my ears. Yes, this was the place. Passing the bathroom, I noticed cheerful boisterous boys emerging to gaze at the stranger entering the school office where I was greeted by the secretary and introduced to the principal, Mr. Bob Baker.

New to the principalship and to elementary schools -- his two years here at Buchanan had been his only experience with either -- Bob appeared to be a more hurried than Southern gentleman in his 40s. Previously a secondary physical education/health teacher and middle school assistant principal, Mr. Baker was not new to this school district. Although both he and his special services director remarked on the telephone that Mr. Baker had teaching experience in a cooperative situation, when I arrived he stated that he felt he had little to share with me and minimal time for this conversation. After clarification of my study's purpose, he seemed anxious to share his special education adventures with me. In fact, Mr. Baker found time after the interview to boast about his school's accomplishments, to give me the grand tour, and make numerous introductions. The ice was broken.

Bob Baker politely assisted me with my audio equipment, unplugging his own computer for electrical space, and we began. Initially, our discussion focused on the demographics of this small-town intermediate school (grades 4-6) of 361 students. I found that five special education teachers and 22 general education teachers were employed and that the school qualified for Title I services due to 32% of its students qualifying for free or reduced lunches. Forty-four identified students with disabilities were being served at Buchanan, mostly through a resource room model (see Table 4.3 for Buchanan demographics).

As a teacher from 1973-1995, Mr. Baker had received little support from either administrators or special education teachers in his quest to teach students with disabilities. His first experience with students with special needs was a relatively negative one during his student teaching. Although his assignment was to study under a P.E. teacher, he was often hired to substitute in self-contained special education classes in a separate portion of the building. He displayed his frustration in this way:

I did more substituting teaching than I did anything. . . . I was stuck at times a lot in special education class because it was hard to get subs. It's [still] tough to get subs. I had no idea of what I was doing or anything else. . . . I did not see a whole lot of administrators around most of the time during the day in that section of the building.  
(Lines 97-100 & 102-104)

This principal's experience with programming and partnerships were largely based on caseload issues. As a coach teaching physical education, he felt overloaded with students, both general and special education. "They loaded me with as many kids as they could get in there at one time. Special ed and all. And told me to handle it." (Lines 119-121). Bob Baker did not assertively seek assistance to deal with educational, behavioral/emotional, or physical needs he observed in his students. "I never asked . . . for help. . . . The only thing I ever asked them was don't put everybody in there at one time. Separate them. I didn't know a whole lot about it" (Lines 136-138). Mr. Baker reiterated the lack of partnership experience during his teaching years by saying: "While I was in the classroom, I didn't have a whole lot of input" (Lines 146-147).

This principal's only comments with regard to the unique educational needs of exceptional learners was made about his teaching experience. Speaking of students with disabilities, he indicated:

Well, you've got to understand, as a coach, I knew who my kids were in special ed. . . . I taught myself to work within their boundaries. I made sure . . . by gosh, "you could do this." . . . They were normal people to me, in that environment. In the classroom, they weren't normal people, because they couldn't do things. . . . I guess I got along with those kids, and a lot of other people couldn't, because I was the coach. I was more than just a teacher to them. I was the provider, comforter. (Lines 149-156)

Table 4.3

Demographics for Buchanan Elementary and Mr. Baker

Age	35-49
Major area of teacher training	P.E./Health
Level of majority of teaching experience	Secondary
Subjects taught	P.E./Health
Years worked as a teacher	22
Years as a teacher in a partnership	5
Highest degree earned	Master's
Years worked in current division	6
Years as full-time principal	2
Years as principal at current site	2
Location of school site	Small town
Special education teachers	5
General education teachers	22
Students qualified for free or reduced lunches	32%
Special education students	44 (12% of total school population)
Total number of students	361

Mr. Baker appeared to believe that, while he was teaching, individual children's education was his responsibility. As an administrator, he saw children's progress as a teacher's responsibility while he was responsible for the overall functioning of the school -- a matter he saw as simple trust of teachers to do their jobs.

### Strategic Leadership

Although it seems prudent for a relatively new principal to make strategic leadership a priority, Mr. Baker tended to avoid discussion on this topic. The theme for his strategic beliefs seemed to be summed up by his reply to the question, "How do you support a cooperative climate in your school?"

I really don't have an explanation for some of the things I do. I just go by the experience I have had. They can give you all the books in the world in college and stuff but it's when you go in there and say, "Mr. Baker, I'm not going to do that." How are you going to handle that? . . . I don't think any teacher is afraid of me. If they need to talk to me, they will come in and say I need to talk to you. I work hard on morale and stuff. With as much as these people have got on them now - - all of us do in education - - morale is something that dwindles very quickly. (Lines 69-72 & 75-78)

### Instructional Leadership

When he became the head of Buchanan Elementary, Mr. Baker sought to ameliorate the problems he had experienced and observed as a teacher through physical proximity. He stated, "I've always given to my special ed teachers. And I would try to schedule those children in the most accessible places in the school system for the teachers . . . to give them the opportunity to be successful (Lines 31-33). His teacher team, Gina the general educator and Sally the special educator, supported his assertion that he used proximity as a strategy to encourage teacher partnerships. Sally noted that he mandated monthly grade-level meetings. Unfortunately, these meetings separated special education teachers into their own department meetings rather than including them with the general education teachers with whom they shared students.

Teacher assessment. Mr. Baker chose many other strategies in exercising his instructional leadership. He began our conversation discussing scheduling concerns. "Hand-scheduling" (Line 52) special needs students was the tactic this principal took to overcome

scheduling difficulties. Mr. Baker assigned students with disabilities to a general educator first; then he developed computerized class lists for regular education students around the assignment for students with disabilities. He believed that his general educators were unconcerned about having special education students assigned to them. Mr. Baker also believed that he scheduled students with disabilities with their special education teacher according to times that were feasible for that teacher. His special education teacher, Sally, felt that Mr. Baker was helpful at cutting through some of the bureaucracy of special education scheduling by allowing her to temporarily change a child's daily schedule, not the services, without doing paperwork, although there is no regulatory requirement to change an IEP in this instance. Still, when speaking about a specific student's schedule, Sally did believe there was room for Mr. Baker to improve. She said:

See this is just his second year here, and I think the scheduling, well, he knows there is a problem. . . . I don't want to say he doesn't understand, but there are things that just come up all the time that are hard to get across. (Lines 38-44)

This particular difficult-to-handle student had been placed in the self-contained classroom for students with emotional and behavioral problems during a time that the special educator had no aide and 2 lessons in progress that did not include the student. Other examples of Mr. Baker's apparent lack of empathy for the special educator's scheduling problems included placing students on Sally's roll during her lunch period, and the practice of teachers sending disruptive students to the special education class for disciplinary measures even during a busy section of her day. Even so, she applauded his attempt to alleviate this type of difficulty through a proactive stance. "I see that he sees that, but I still see that as an area that's hard for anybody, not just him. The scheduling is a nightmare" (Lines 55-56). Still, scheduling in the best interests of students with disabilities seemed to be a deficit area for this school as evidenced by the comments of the special education teacher. Both teachers reported that their communication was typically in the form of notes rather than face-to-face discussions due to short and separate planning times.

Supervision and evaluation of instruction. Supervision and appraisal of teacher teams was done strictly through observations. Mr. Baker hesitated, as did his teachers, when asked about his evaluation methods. Speaking as though talking to his teachers, he answered:

I'm not going to come in your classroom and tell you how to teach. I'm going to come in there and evaluate you. If I see things that need to be improved, I'm going to let you know. You wouldn't be here if you couldn't teach. That's how I approach it.  
(Lines 83-86)

His teachers replied to my evaluation questions and prompts that asked simply for information about how their principal assessed their partnerships as follows:

Gina: We have an evaluation form, fairly long. But I think I remember even cooperation of parents [being on it].

Sally: Right, cooperation of teachers, with parents, with other teachers, with students. (Lines 310-315)

Evaluation seemed to be a sensitive subject. Although I prompted Mr. Baker five times for more information, no more information was forthcoming. A set of criteria had not been set for evaluating the partnerships between general and special education teachers.

Prereferral and referral. While prereferral and referral processes were discussed abundantly by the general educator, Mr. Baker stated simply that his school had a "true" child study process that was in the special education teachers' realm of responsibility. [Technically, the child study process as a prereferral strategy in Virginia is a shared responsibility between general and special education.] However, according to the teachers, he maintained the responsibility of observing the students. The teachers agreed that a more appropriate observer would be a psychologist or counselor because the principal carries authority and therefore students' behaviors might be modified in his presence.

Staff training. Mr. Baker relied heavily on his special education teachers' knowledge, skills, and abilities in order to meet the requirements of special education law. When probed about training for his teachers his remarks emphasized compliance over specialized instruction. He replied:

Training? I send them out to as many programs as I can . . . I get them out as much as I can. Whenever they ask to go, I make sure that they go. My chair person, if I feel like there's a need to go for any type of update on laws and stuff like that, she's going because I tell her, "You keep me out of trouble. Make sure I know what I'm doing." But then again, it goes back to trust. We're in it together. (Lines 166 & 173-177)

This was the extent of his comments about training and this information was gained only after specific questioning, not spontaneously. Upon probing his teacher team on the subject of training, both teachers reported at length that professional development was grossly lacking in areas appropriate for support of teachers' efforts to collaboratively educate students with special needs. Gina had this to say about the emphasis on technology training to the exclusion of special education training:

Ok, there's another wild hair I've got. A few years ago, before we had to put technology into place, . . . we used to have classes offered to us on a regular basis which the school board paid for. They were college credit hours. We had all taken everything from working with the gifted to working with behavioral students or working with LD students. We've all taken classes galore. And then when the money was shifted toward getting all this technology in place, we have not had any classes [regarding special education] offered to us, I guess, in about 4 or 5 years. . . . And I think we need them. I think that we need . . . to be refreshed on new methods and different ways of coping, because the problems are becoming different than they were five years ago. (Lines 339-347 & 349-351)

Sally believed that the focus of inservices provided to all teachers by the special education coordinator should be on prevention and management of aggressive behavior. The general educator emphasized what she saw as the difference between inservice and training:

Most of our inservice on special ed is not necessarily on how to handle the student, or how to teach the student, it's usually briefing us and keeping us abreast of all new laws and different procedures. . . . But as far as really saying, "Ok, this is what you do if a kid pulls a gun on you". We don't have that and those are the kinds of things that I mean by training. (Lines 363-368)

### Organizational Leadership

Organizational Leadership also seems to warrant particular attention for new principals or principals who are new to a building. Mr. Baker conversed more easily and readily regarding this area of leadership. He believed that an integral part of his school's cooperative partnerships between general and special educators was open communication within the organization. Mr. Baker held high the ideal that listening and fostering open communication builds trust within an organization. However, his teachers appeared frustrated

by the lack of a common planning time during which they could have open communication about students. Bob Baker allowed teachers the autonomy to teach as they believed appropriate, both because it built trust from his teachers and because he trusted his teachers to perform their job. He summed up this belief by saying, “We’ve got to trust each other. . . . An administrator is only as good as his assistants are. If I had sorry teachers, I wouldn’t be here very long” (Lines 86-88). Along with this trust comes the realization that teachers know that they can express their opinions, to which he retorts, “Sometimes that’s good, and sometimes that’s just tough. There’s [only] so much you can do at a time. I just think they know if they need help they’re going to get it.” (Lines 80-82).

### Political and Community Leadership

A major concern of Sally’s centered on legal and policy components of special education. Although we met 18 months after the reauthorization of the IDEA ’97, she spoke vociferously regarding the new requirements of which she was “just informed” (Line 145) and the additional paperwork demands produced by this reauthorization. The sources of her frustrations do not appear to be clear, however, because she tended to contradict herself as she spoke at length and with significant emotion. The functional behavior assessment requirement struck her as particularly overwhelming, and she mistakenly equated this analysis with initial evaluation requirements:

“We do it anyway, we do it anyway. We do it at eligibility. We’re doing a functional behavior analysis. Not technically, but when we go through all the records we talk about this, we do all the testing, we do all the scoring, we put everything together.” (Lines 157-161)

Yet she equivocated herself when she said, “If I have less [students], I’ll still have to do the same work, but nobody can watch my room, I can’t go out and do it” (Lines 176-177). She vehemently defended her principal as not being responsible for her frustration. “It’s not with the principal. It’s really all the federal mandates, the federal laws . . . that we’ve got to do. It’s for global understanding” (Lines 182-184).

Although the legal aspects of the special education were a concern for the Sally and the principal, Mr. Baker’s comments did not reflect that implementation of the IDEA was a concern of his political and community leadership. Even when asked directly about legal concerns in the area of special education, his comments focused on his special educator’s

responsibility to “keep [him] out of trouble” (Line 176). Gina steered the conversation in the direction of discipline and did not comment on any other legal or policy issues, even the involvement of family or community.

### Summary

During his 22 years as a P.E./Health teacher in the late 1970s and 1980s, Mr. Baker felt little support from his principal in his efforts to educate students with disabilities. This experience as a secondary coach, his one year as an assistant principal at the middle-school level, and his two years as principal at Buchanan Elementary left Mr. Baker to rely on his special education teachers, to inform him about special education issues. Yet, Sally was misinformed about basic regulations and even the intent of the law in some cases, such as in her understanding of the IDEAs application of functional behavior analysis. A lack of full understanding of the legal aspects for implementing IDEA led this principal to run his special education program on blind faith, and trial and error. He trusted his five special education teachers to keep Buchanan in compliance with the law and to educate students with disabilities. The special education coordinator, Sally, was a teacher of students with emotional and behavioral disorders, and unfortunately, few collaboration programs are reported in the literature that deal specifically with students with emotional or behavioral disorders. Besides, there is little indication that teachers of students with emotional disturbance receive sufficient preservice preparation to furnish adequate technical assistance to their general education counterparts (e.g., Gable, Hendrickson, Young, & Shokoohi-Yekta, 1992). This alone calls into question the wisdom of placing complete trust in the special education coordinator to keep Buchanan in compliance with IDEA. Furthermore, the special education coordinator indicated that she relied on Mr. Baker and central office personnel to inform her about the intent and procedures for special education. This lack of quality information and the wherewithal to acquire it caused this special education team to act as though special education processes were guessing games with no way to find out if their guesses were correct until sometime after implementation. This lack of a proactive stance caused a degree of demoralization, ambivalence, and a feeling that the rules were arbitrarily determined.

Beyond compliance issues, Mr. Baker trusted his special education teachers to work with general education teachers to teach students with disabilities. Yet, he was not able to

describe the criteria and indicators with which he appraised the teacher's progress. A lack of formal supervision and evaluation, especially of special and general education teacher partnerships, appeared to be a reflection of his general absence of an instructional focus. Mr. Baker's discussion of inservice training reflected this absence as well. While he said that he sent his teachers to training as often as possible, there was no discussion of training as a group or quality of instructional training. The focus was again on compliance with the law. The teacher team's training focus was on management of students rather than on their instruction. Furthermore, they reported that the central office focus was on compliance issues.

While the school served an average percentage of students with disabilities (12%), the special educators served an average of only 9 students each. The exceptional learners at Buchanan were learning disabled, mentally retarded, emotional or behaviorally disordered, or other health impaired. All, except the students with mental retardation, were served in a resource room setting. Twelve percent of the total student population could be considered relatively high when considering the experience and expertise that Mr. Baker had with supporting cooperation between general and special education.

All three participants at Buchanan emphasized different topics when discussing their involvement in the cooperative nature of educating students in heterogeneous classrooms. Their remarks portray the picture of teacher isolation and disjointed service delivery for students with disabilities in their school. While the principle focus of all members of the special education team seemed to be on students, all three were working in different directions rather than coordinating their efforts. With the best intentions of these professionals, a coordinated and planned effort along with a deep and shared knowledge of special education law and its intent could easily lead to the synergistic effects discussed in erudite collaboration literature.

## Case IV: Rolling Up Your Sleeves

### The Case of Ocean Elementary

Ms. Olivia Olsen seemed well organized from our initial conversations, and this trait proved true to the very end of our contact with one another. She was one of only two principals who met with me during the first scheduled time and date without needing to reschedule. While principals are often met with conflicting demands for time, Ms. Olsen seemed able to resolve these conflicts without straining others' schedules, including her teachers'. The special educator from the participating teacher team, Suzy, concluded, "She spends the time to talk to you and to figure out how do we approach this." (Lines 203-204). The general educator, Gillian, had this to say, "I feel like she's opening the door communication-wise to hear what I want to say" (Lines 264-265).

On the day we met, I arrived at this suburban school, Ocean Elementary. The building was surrounded with towering evergreens and dense shrubbery that guarded the affluent students within from the sounds of traffic bellowing from a busy interchange. Crocus and daffodils were emerging on this bright sunny day that matched the atmosphere of the building. Inside, two bubbly primary-aged children were busily discussing their "illnesses" with the school secretary whose concerned face met their concerns at eye-level from behind her desk. Outside the office door, a fourth or fifth grade class was returning from P.E. with an abundance of friendly sounding conversation, which the teacher allowed and even joined in with good humor. A second secretary, in this kindergarten through sixth grade school of over 500 students, informed Ms. Olsen that I had arrived.

Ms. Olsen, a woman in her 40s, promptly came to the foyer to greet me and escorted me to her office where she had gathered documents such as weekly faculty memos and handbooks with duties for my review. Instead of seating herself across the desk from me for our interview, she pulled our chairs together so that we could participate in a more intimate conversation.

The conversation flowed smoothly as she introduced herself and her school to me. Ms. Olsen shared with me that she had been an assistant principal the previous year and was now in her first year as a principal but had an assistant with whom she worked well. Together, they were in charge of 25 general education and three special education teachers. These teachers were directly responsible for 529 students, 59 who were identified special

education students. Prior to becoming the leader of her own school, Ms. Olsen had been a special educator, teaching students with emotional and behavioral disorders for 22 years, from 1975-1997. The last nine of these years had been spent cooperating with general educators to educate the students for whom placement in regular classes was appropriate. Up until her appointment as principal of this middle-to-high socio-economic school, she had been pursuing a doctoraal degree but due to the high demands of the principalship was delaying the completion (see Table 4.4 for Ocean Elementary demographics).

During this first year as a principal, Ms. Olsen was understandably all consumed with the happenings within her school building. When prompted about her political and community leadership, she responded in a hypothetical fashion. Correspondingly, she made no explicit comments about special education law.

### Strategic Leadership

Ms. Olsen was planning for change and problem solving in the areas of individual programming for students with special needs and partnerships. Both teachers from the participating team recognized this leadership. Olivia explained her work in these areas with teachers this way:

I have been working with them a lot and we've been talking a lot. Their plan for next year is for one of them to take kindergarten through third grade and the other to take fourth and fifth grade. . . . I'm trying to help them figure out ways to solve their issues that greatly affect them. (Lines 303-309)

One area of concern at Ocean Elementary was that of a common planning time for general educators and special educators to collaborate. Ms. Olsen arranged to have classes covered in specific situations, such as when third grade was first integrating science and social studies into language arts and scheduling for students whose model of service delivery was the resource room became difficult. However, the teacher team did not acknowledge Ms. Olsen's attempt to support collaboration and complained that no designated common planning time had been established. The teacher team reported that they met before and after school but that other teachers did not make this effort for open collaboration.

The teacher team discussed Ms. Olsen's strategic leadership in the context of an inservice she provided.

Suzy: However, most of us didn't know what she was doing.

Table 4.4

Demographics for Ocean Elementary and Ms. Olsen

Age	35-49
Major area of teacher training	Special Education: Emotional and Behavioral Disorders
Highest degree earned	Master's plus hours
Level of majority of teaching experience	Elementary
Subjects taught	Elementary Special Education
Years worked as a teacher	22
Years as a teacher in a partnership	9
Years worked in current division	2
Years as full-time principal	1
Years as principal at current site	1
Location of school site	Suburban
Special education teachers	3
General education teachers	25
Students qualified for free or reduced lunches	3%
Special education students	59 (11% of the total student population)
Total number of students	529

Gillian: She would not let fourth grade teachers sit together. She mingled the groups. And this was a very uncomfortable situation for most teachers. It was very uncomfortable.

Suzy: And then I come from a different perspective because I work with so many different people. So, I have never even thought of your perspective. (Lines 125-131)

Suzy: That was more how to treat your children.

Gillian: And how to treat others.

Suzy: To be aware of how children learn.

Gillian: And to be more sensitive to each other's feelings.

Suzy: But we, nobody ever knew. She purposely didn't give us a clear objective, she said. So, we went through this exercise not really knowing what we were doing.

Would you agree?

Gillian: Yes. All the way. It was very frustrating because we didn't know what we were supposed to be getting.

Suzy: Or if we got it. (Lines 450-461)

A clear strategy for improving problem solving and collaboration between general and special education had apparently not been set in this school.

### Instructional Leadership

Ms. Olsen's priority as a school leader lay in the area of instruction. Her instructional leadership overlapped all areas of special education programming -- individual and supervision/assessment most heavily -- and productive partnerships between teachers.

Specialized instruction. Ms. Olsen strongly believed that her special education teacher provided exceptional learners with a high quality education through a number of venues. Individual programming at Ocean Elementary consisted of students being given instruction in the general education classroom by the classroom teacher or with an aide's or special education teacher's assistance. Exceptional learners were also taught in a separate class by the special education teacher or with an aide's assistance. Lastly, a combination of these delivery systems was used for some children. Speaking of Suzy, Ms. Olsen indicated:

So, from my perspective administratively, she's taken the ball and run. Because she does such a good job, and I'm just there to try to help in any way I can with

scheduling or support system with coverage if she needs some time to be some other places and I can help in any way. (Lines 115-119)

Unfortunately, Ms. Olsen was unable to delineate her criteria for determining that her special educator was doing a “good job.”

Olivia Olsen still struggled with constraints to developing and implementing individual programming. Barriers to individualization also affected the appropriate placement of students and ability to provide adequate instruction to these students. Parental pressure to place children in the general education setting full-time seemed to be overwhelming in some cases. Ms. Olsen related her story.

The two that we have that are fully included, it is parental pressure. Bottom line. One, in my opinion, is very appropriately placed. The other should have more pull-out and more direct special ed services. I worry, a lot, and I think. The one that I think is appropriate is a first grader. The one that I think is not very appropriate, is a third grader, and it [inclusion] may have been appropriate when he was younger. But the gap has widened so much that his curriculum cannot be modified to meet his needs to be anywhere close to the inclusive concept that he is doing something similar or the same task as the other children, because he is so far below ability-wise. I see a little boy who is getting more and more frustrated. He’s tuning out. Many times, when I go into the room to observe or to see what’s going on, he’s tuned out, rolling on the floor, his feet are up on the chair, or his head’s down. And his instructional assistant and the kids are working. His instructional assistant does a nice job with his third grade work. But I’m not sure he [the student] does much of it. And that’s kind of frustrating. That’s when inclusion is totally inappropriate, and pushed to the extent that it’s too much, and not designed on the needs of the children. (Lines 138-154)

Supervision and evaluation of instruction. Even given this one situation, the principal felt that individualized services were being provided in most instances and gave numerous examples of this occurring. However, she did not provide any specialized supervision or evaluation to assess the productivity of the collaborative process between general and special educators in her school. Unfortunately, since this was her first year, she tended to hypothesize again about how she would evaluate her teachers’ partnerships in the future. She said:

I would go in, do an observation, and give feedback to both of them. Sometimes, most of the times, when it's a pretty cohesive collaboration, I would give them both the same feedback as a team as opposed to evaluating this one on their instructional skills and evaluating this one. I would do it jointly. And if I see them being a pretty equal balance, I guess what I look for is how one complements the other. A lot of that is what teaming is all about. And how they keep it flowing, that balance. (Lines 223-229)

The teachers affirmed that Ms. Olsen had not yet completed any evaluation of them at this mid-point in the school year.

Ms. Olsen did however read and signed each Individualized Education Plan and had a general level of knowledge about areas and types of instruction and modifications necessary for individual students. She said:

Basically, if I think something is not being met, like if I thought a child was going to be getting certain instruction in the LD program and I'm seeing they never get down there, or I think they are supposed to get certain modifications in the regular classroom and I never see that happening, then I would address that particularly with the professional that's responsible. (Lines 258-263)

Student and teacher assignment. Assignment of teachers was another programming area of which Ms. Olsen spoke, although minimally and again in a sense of what she might do the next year. She explained that she planned to choose the general educators for particular students through collaboration with the special educator and then seeking buy in from the regular classroom teacher. The teacher team shared Olivia Olsen's concern in this area and had actually put more thought into these issues than had the principal. The following is an example of concerns the teachers spoke of when asked specifically about the scheduling of planning time.

Suzy: With the situation the way that it is, I feel that we'll have some better opportunities next year. That the scheduling will be different. But the scheduling has been really bad this year.

Gillian: Very tight. (Lines 30-33)

They continued by discussing teacher assignments. Suzy said:

Suzy: We have four teachers at every grade level. And the same teachers get the most difficult kids because they are so good. And she [Ms. Olsen] did say to me the other day, that it was unfair, that it caused a high rate of burnout for those really good teachers who in turn should be rewarded, not dumped on. She didn't use that terminology, but it is dumped on. (Lines 40-49)

General programming proved an important theme within instructional leadership for Ms. Olsen. Not only did she answer with ease when questioned about her prereferral and referral program, but throughout the documents that were reviewed general programming issues were consistently present. According to the school handbook, duties of the principal included:

- (a) Assuming leadership and supervision of:  
personnel, the effectiveness of the educational program of the school, public relations, pupil placement, evaluation of pupil progress.
- (b) The coordination of services of all persons who work in the school to provide a healthful stimulating environment and an efficient and effective operation.
- (c) Efficient work schedules for instructional and supportive personnel (Lines 29-36)

Concerning partnerships, Ms. Olsen indicated that in past years the general and special education teachers had more chances to work collaboratively than she had been able to allow them this year due to the increase in special education caseloads. She asserted that people with similar personalities and teaching styles “gravitate” to one another to form partnerships. She explained:

And then their creative juices start flowing and they figure out what good professional things they can do together. And it's not something I can say, “You two have to be in the same room, and you two have to work together.” That's not going to -- it's going to blow it all if it comes from the other end. (Lines 129-133)

However, she believed that modeling cooperative behavior could speed the process of forming partnerships. She asserted:

I hope I model it. When I am in the classroom, I'm not the administrator just sitting there, but I interact. I'm part of what kids are doing. If I see a team or group working together on a project, I'll sit down and work with them as opposed to standing back and not getting involved. And I think that's a lot of what partnerships and teaming are

all about. It's everybody just getting involved and working together when you are working with kids. So, that's pretty much how I do it. (Lines 275-281)

### Organizational Leadership

Ocean Elementary's documents were laden with general programming information and explicit references to the prereferral processes. The school handbook explained the purpose of the child study committee to recommend instructional support informally through in-school resources or formally through referral for special education for children having trouble.

When prompted, Ms. Olsen was hesitant to discuss the issue of fiscal resources. Initially, she stated that the teachers had only their yearly supplies budget. After further questioning, she said, "There are all kinds of little holes for certain moneys if they [the teachers] want to go to conferences, to get paid for that or different things" (Lines 269-270). She also noted that there was very little money and that the majority of the funds were available only for running the day-to-day building affairs.

Given that our conversation was purposefully directed toward collaboration, partnerships were a frequent topic. Ms. Olsen seemed to be a hands-on leader who worked with her teachers and students, not for or above them. At the time of our interview, she was struggling to work with teachers who had not yet accepted her as part of their school community. Her weekly faculty memos revealed some of her struggle for cooperation because she frequently reminded her staff that the goal of faculty meetings was "to establish a setting where colleagues interact with one another to improve instruction" (Lines 11-12). In a smooth running school that accepted cooperation amongst all faculty and administration, this type of vision setting might not be necessary. Suzy also commented, "There are quite a few unhappy people here I would say" (Line 229). Although Ms. Olsen did not comment on interpersonal skills she used to assure a positive climate in her school, her praise and encouragement of the staff was apparent from the weekly faculty memos. Suzy felt that the principal gave out positive feedback, while Gillian indicated that she was prepared to leave the building due to lack of "positive strokes" (Line 167).

Ms. Olsen learned what type of administrator she did not want to be as a teacher. She said of her previous principal, "I can't say that he added anything to what I was trying to do, but he didn't really take away anything either" (Lines 52-53). Olivia was determined not to

be a principal who abandoned her teachers by allowing complete autonomy. She went on to explain what she had learned from her principal this way, “What I think I do is roll up my sleeves and get in there. I think that’s what I do as a principal” (Lines 68-69). However, her teachers had this to say about her leadership:

Suzy: We really are left to . . .

Gillian: To do for ourselves. (Lines 271-273)

However, when comparing her to previous principals, they equivocated, suggesting that her predecessor provided little guidance.

Suzy: You were left to float. But she [Ms. Olsen] is so knowledgeable that she will help me come up with how to deal with this. (Lines 198-199)

Suzy also added: “I have the feeling that the principal before did so little, was not involved at all, and now people are having to deal with a principal who comes in and has something to say” (Lines 388-390). Gillian agreed.

### Summary

Ms. Olivia Olsen was a teacher of emotional and behavioral disordered elementary children for 22 years and had nine years experience collaborating with general education teachers. She had been an assistant principal for one year and was in her first year as principal, with assistant principal, in this large school of 529 students. As a new principal and new to this building, Ms. Olsen was having difficulty mobilizing her teachers toward a unified goal. Perhaps inadvertently, she sometimes kept her intentions hidden from her teachers. While she tried to model the way she wanted her teachers to behave and even told her faculty her goals for the school, she had not yet successfully made them part of these goals.

Ocean Elementary had a moderate number of special education students, 11%. Three special education teachers were responsible for the 59 special education students who were divided in this way: students with emotional and behavioral disorders, 15; learning disabilities, 40; multiple disabilities, 1; autism; 1; developmental disabilities, 2. Placement of these students was a continuing problem at Ocean Elementary. Ms. Olsen inherited the problem of parents who were not fully prepared to make technical educational decisions having the final word in programming and placement decisions. As a Virginia State Department of Education consultant stated, principals too often “allow families to make

inappropriate decisions” regarding their children’s education (L. Bradford, personal communication, April 1, 1999). Most of the students with special needs were served for the majority of their school day in regular classrooms, with one EBD student being served in a self-contained special education classroom. However, the principal had not classified any of the teachers as self-contained, only as resource teachers. The special educator had to leave this EBD student with an aide if she needed to work with a general education teacher. Also, the number of students with disabilities was higher this year than it had been in previous years, as reported by Olivia, causing some difficulty with continuing partnerships.

Ms. Olsen tended to de-emphasize supervision and evaluation of teachers and evaluated teachers on one criteria – the functioning of individual students. She worked directly with students in the classrooms when she observed and focused on individualization as an indicator of teacher effectiveness. Although the teacher team felt that they were left to fend for themselves to some extent, they also acknowledged that Ms. Olsen was involved at the student level.

Ms. Olsen worked diligently to keep lines of communication open. Examples of this included the inservice she offered her teachers that focused on instruction of children and partnering, and positive feedback. Once she was informed that some teachers craved positive feedback, she began to give it more frequently through weekly memos, in faculty meetings, and individually.

## Case V: We're All in This Together

### The Case of Kent Elementary

Kent Elementary was an inviting school. Its bright red roof beckoned visitors from the hilltops for miles around. I learned that this was a new facility that the current principal, Dr. Karl King, had opened five years prior. He and his handpicked staff had chosen a decor of primary colors and huge school tools, such as pencils and rulers, for a cheerful entrance. Windows and skylights let the sun pour into the bright entryway. Minutes before arriving by foot, I heard the exuberant cries of children on what would prove to be an inviting playground. Conversely, inside the building calm and quiet prevailed. While waiting for my meeting with Dr. King, I was fortunate to meet a few of the 470 Kent students.

The students at Kent Elementary were mostly the children of professors or graduate students from the nearby university. Kent was a nationally recognized school for its efforts in inclusive education, and some families of children with disabilities were known to move to the district specifically to take advantage of its programming. Enough families of Kent students qualified for free or reduced lunches, 35%, to qualify this school for Title I services. With the Title I federal funds received, Dr. King hired two full-time reading specialists - - a great asset to this student body with a large number of foreign born students as well as low-income members. Both the teacher team, Starr the special educator and Genie the general educator, and the principal spoke of the gap between the “have” and the “have-not” students in their small-town school. The staff of 24 classroom and four special education teachers served this diverse group of students of whom 59 had identified disabilities (see Table 4.5 for Kent Elementary demographics).

Karl King was well trained to lead his staff. He had recently received his doctorate from the nearby university and had embarked on continuing his education through training in Boyer's (1995) Basic School model. The Kent staff was divided into four teams or “families” named community, curriculum, character, and climate. Each of these reflected one of Boyer's four priorities.

Prior to his 13 years as a principal, Karl prepared himself to be a school leader through seven years as a high school English teacher. His first year as a teacher, in the mid 1970s, was spent in close cooperation with a special education teacher mostly for the benefit of one special education student. Although he was not immediately informed that she needed

Table 4.5

Demographics for Kent Elementary and Dr. King

Age	35-49
Major area of teacher training	General Education
Highest degree earned	Doctorate
Level of majority of teaching experience	High School
Subjects taught	English & Journalism
Years worked as a teacher	7
Years as a teacher in a partnership	1
Years worked in current division	22
Years as full-time principal	13
Years as principal at current site	5
Location of school site	Small town
Special education teachers	4
General education teachers	24
Students qualified for free or reduced lunches	35%
Special education students	59 (12.5% of the total student population)
Total number of students	470

modifications, he soon recognized that there was a problem, and that the student “had a lot of social issues to deal with” (Line 7). Karl made the initial contact with the guidance counselor and the special education teacher. He felt that his principal had been supportive because he became involved. However, this involvement was due to parental pressure. The parents were apparently concerned because, in their opinion, their child was not being given an appropriate education at this school. Karl described the principal’s support this way:

He was almost considering himself the defensive person for us, that he was going to be there to guard us against the parents who were probably going to have a lot of concerns. And they did. I mean they had lots of things that they wanted us to do differently which we weren’t accustomed to doing. But I don’t remember him actually coming into the classroom and giving me direct assistance with instruction or anything. (Lines 55-61)

As his mentor, this principal had an impact on Karl’s leadership style. In fact, Karl King’s teachers spoke of him in words similar to those Karl had previously used to describe his first principal. Genie, the general educator, said:

He understands how important it is for us to stay in the confidence of the parents. . . . He’s willing to be there and be the person that helps so that we don’t have to jeopardize our relationship. He can be the bad guy if he has to. . . . He’s there if we need for him to say, like in my situation, “You may not step foot in the building any more.” (Lines 19-24 & 31-33)

### Strategic Leadership

Karl King’s strategic leadership beliefs began long before his principalship at Kent Elementary. One experience he had as a principal at his previous school explained his long-term loyalty to inclusive settings. University researchers had purposefully chosen Karl, his teachers, and many parents to be interviewed for a study on the principal’s role in inclusive programs. They were chosen because Dr. King had undertaken a planned effort to increase the integration of students with moderate or severe disabilities into general education classrooms, and his district had applied for technical assistance from a statewide project to aid in the effort. The outcomes of the study were to serve as advice for both principals and teachers, but Dr. King focused on “what teachers want principals to do” (Line 281). These pieces of advice included, “being a support when things got tough and they needed some

more help either in the classroom or with planning or time” (Lines 282-283), setting a positive tone, providing information and training, and giving teachers the autonomy to work through challenges. He tried to follow this advice in his everyday management of Kent Elementary.

The most profound strategy he and his staff had undertaken for the current school year was one he described as “experimenting a little bit” (Line 134). The goal of this experiment was to take away some IEP responsibilities from the special education teacher so she “could actually begin to see the whole child and be involved more with the entire fifth grade setting rather than those specifics” (Lines 146-147). Examples of this experimental program are discussed more fully under the Organizational Leadership section.

A less intense strategic plan of Karl King’s relied on in-house training. Dr. King felt that his faculty held expertise in many areas and that utilization of that proved beneficial to the functioning of Kent Elementary. He explained one aspect of Kent Elementary’s on-the-job training this way:

So many times inservice training of a general nature doesn’t necessarily help as much as just putting everybody in the situation and then saying” What do you need in order to be successful?” Our aides for example, who are working with our kids with significant disabilities, there’s no way that we could train them in a general session because each of those kids is so different, so unique . . . Starr does a lot of one-on-one training. When we have to hire an aide in the middle of the year, she’ll clear her schedule so that she can be able to train the person for a week or so in how to work with those students. (Lines 582-590)

### Instructional Leadership

Interpersonal relationships. There is no doubt that Dr. King believed himself to be an instructional leader. During data analysis, 43% of his transcript was coded as instructional leadership. Dr. King left instructional decisions up to “teacher choice” (Line 333). The teaming of general and special education was one example of an instructional element that was based on teacher decisions. “They pick and choose where they want to go” (Line 337). He did, however, continue a leadership role. Karl gave this example:

There was a teacher here a couple of years ago that I was concerned that the next year we would probably need to put on another grade level because there were some

personality conflicts going on. She moved, so I didn't have to deal with that. But that would have been the first time I would have had to say, "You aren't going to be able to work with this grade level anymore." (Lines 344-349)

This awareness shows that Dr. King was cognizant of interpersonal relationships and the impact they have on the instructional climate of the school. He had a theory about how teachers form collaborative partnerships. He explained:

Partnerships are not so much based on teachers having a similar teaching style as much as having a similar teaching style and being a similar age or having similar interests even. . . . I began to see that there are young teachers - - this is a very broad generalization, very broad -- who tend to spend a lot more time here at school working together cooperatively. Experienced teachers sometimes go home and do the work at home but they aren't spending as much time here. So, as far as teachers cooperating together, like two general ed teachers, I think that's one of the things I have realized. But it also kind of works with the special ed and the regular ed teacher, kind of the same thing. Similar philosophies and similar ages. (Lines 437-439 & 444-452)

When asked, Dr. King's teacher team spoke eloquently about how Karl enhanced the climate of the school to support collaborative relationships. Starr, the special educator said:

He is the climate. He sets the tone. . . . It's like Karl's standing at the door whistling a tune when people walk in in the morning, and by the end of the day everybody that walks out is whistling that tune. (Lines 190-193)

Georgette made the point that one of the benefits of opening Kent Elementary was that all hiring decisions were made with the express consideration of open cooperation between the teachers in support of an inclusive environment. Both teachers found it important that Dr. King let teams stay together over a number of years. Starr emphasized, "He doesn't feel threatened by strong relationships forming" (Line 347). "When you've got chemistry that works, he supports that. I think Karl really does try to let people that work well together stay together" (Lines 356-357).

Planning time. Another partnership issue that Karl dealt with as an instructional leader was creating common planning times to support cooperative teaching and, therefore, student outcomes. He pushed successfully for district-wide early release planning days, and

his school utilized the opportunity fully when these two half-days per month were integrated into the yearly calendar. The students were released early on these days, and families were notified at the beginning of each school year via the yearly academic calendar. Kent Elementary teachers used this valuable time to plan together what they would be doing for the next three weeks. Dr. King believed that planning together was a crucial issue for teaching in a school where collaboration was a large part of the teaching philosophy. He expressed his belief this way:

As I have seen other schools and gone through this process myself and made mistakes, that's a crucial piece. That if you don't give the time for planning, then it's going to be hard for teachers to do it. Now the good teachers are going to. They're going to do it on weekends, and they're going to do it before school and after school and any other time. But if you can find the time during the day to provide it, it's just very very important to the success of the cooperative relationship. (Lines 506-512)

Karl King was aware of the constraints to partnerships within a school the size of Kent Elementary (470 students). He indicated that if special education teachers had to work with several different grade levels, cooperation would be difficult for both general and special educators. In this situation, the general educators would state that they did not feel supported by the special educator in their efforts to educate a heterogeneous group of students that included students with disabilities. Karl said that special educators would state that they were, "spread so thin that I can't get around to everybody I'm supposed to see" (Line 569). Dr. King said that caseload continued to be a problem, but that it was improving each year. The teacher team felt that caseload issues had improved to such an extent that it was not a dilemma at this point. Improvement in the area of caseload had been accomplished through the concerted effort of Dr. Van Dyke and Starr, the special education coordinator, to keep special education teachers working with only one or two grade levels. In this way, the curriculum as well as the number of teachers and students with whom the special educators worked was kept to a minimum.

Individual placement. Dr. Karl King's instructional leadership also extended to effective programming. Dr. King had the final decision about individual student placement, but the initial stages of placement decision involved teacher teams, including special

education teachers, working together. Students with more significant disabilities were placed first, and other students were placed subsequently. Karl explained:

That kind of works out better because we want to have a circle of friends for them. . . . There are some parents, sometimes a teacher, sometimes a student, will have reservations, for whatever reason, with a child being in the classroom with a particular student with disabilities. So, we intentionally place that student somewhere else. Or sometimes it's the exact opposite. Because of one of those recommendations, we place students together. (Lines 367-374)

Following the assignment of the students with the most severe disabilities, the teachers filled out a form on each student that gives information such as standardized test scores, any special needs, and behavior concerns. The grade level teachers with the input of the current special education teacher then assigned students accordingly, in heterogeneous groups. Issues considered while grouping included identification as special education or gifted, racial or ethnic background, and gender. Following class assignments, teachers met across grades to share specific information upon which to develop effective programming. Although grouping of students appeared to be the highest consideration for this principal, he made the point that some decisions had to be made in order to best meet the needs of students with disabilities. He noted that parental requests were sometimes an issue, but once he explained the thorough process by which students are grouped for instruction, parents tended to acquiesce.

Assessment and supervision. This area of instruction fell a close second after class assignments in Dr. King's list of instructional responsibilities. Karl stated that evaluation at Kent Elementary was accomplished through informal observations to see "how teachers work together and if it is working well" (Line 434). When pressed for more information about what "working well" meant, he replied:

When you see that it's like a seamless classroom in that you don't see all of the kids together, but then over here on this side here are the special ed kids being pulled aside and worked with by the special ed teacher. It's more when you walk into the classroom and it's very much mixed and heterogeneous. It could be that the special ed teacher is at the front working with a majority of kids and the classroom teacher is in the back working with a group of kids with learning disabilities or something. I think just informal observation a lot of times will tell me that. Of course, you can always

look at IEP goals and how they are met and mastered and that sort of thing too. (Lines 465-474)

The teacher team confirmed that Karl used informal observations as his primary evaluation tool. They felt that he was a sentient evaluator in that he knew that each teacher was at different stages in their ability to collaborate. Starr recalled a self-check assessment guide for evaluating partnerships they had received from a long-term training project in which Kent had been involved, but said they had never used it because it just never seemed necessary.

Prereferral and referral. Dr. King said that the special education coordinator, Starr would be more able to discuss prereferral and referral services. However, he gave me the history of prereferral at Kent Elementary. At Kent's inception, prereferral was called child study, which carried with it the connotation that the child was definitely going to be referred for special education services. Therefore, the staff temporarily renamed their prereferral team and any student's case could be brought before the committee to seek solutions to the student's challenge. Karl said this about prereferral:

Taking a child to child study simply means that there are some concerns. They may be special ed, they may be gifted issues. . . . We say to the teachers, through that whole process, the classroom teacher is in charge, not the special ed teacher. Again, that's a different way of looking at it. Used to be once a child was referred it immediately became a special ed issue and the special ed teacher took over. But we say to the teachers, it's not, until we get to the point to where we have identified, that's when the special ed teacher begins taking over. So, the classroom teachers know that when they take them they're going to get advice the first couple of times they come to the meeting to try to work with problems and issues. And then once it goes on, the special ed teacher will kind of take over and kind of help the teacher work through it. And I don't mean for it to sound like the special ed teacher is not helping before. We want the classroom teacher to accept the responsibility of the child. (Lines 529-542)

### Organizational Leadership

The experimental program discussed as Dr. King's sense of strategic leadership flowed into Karl's organizational leadership. The idea for integrating a special educator into a grade level began with an in-service workshop at Kent Elementary. Starr brought it to the

attention of Dr. King who then called a meeting. The coordinator said, “Wouldn’t it be wonderful if we could figure out a way that we wouldn’t have to spend all of our time focusing on the students’ disabilities, but looking more at them as whole kids?” (Lines 237-239). With some hesitation and questioning by the fifth grade teachers, the experiment began. Dr. King saw himself as the facilitator of partnerships in this programming innovation. He described his function this way:

So, my role in all of this was more just facilitating and saying, “Yes, let’s do it, let’s go. Let’s talk about it.” I was certainly not the person to instigate it. I was certainly not the person to tell anyone you have to do this. It was more like, “Yeah, let’s talk about it. Let’s have a conversation.” (Lines 243-247)

Partnerships. Karl continued discussing productive partnerships. He believed that since he founded Kent on a team philosophy that he should model collaboration. Karl said that he made few decisions based on only his perspective, but that he asked two or three teachers’ opinions. He felt that in this way the teachers “feel that they have a part in it” (Line 495), and that it would be a better decision for the school community. His teacher team supported this assertion. Starr said, “He has a way of sharing the responsibility without dumping it” (Line 58). Both teachers from the team went on to give detailed examples of when this responsibility sharing had occurred. Dr. King also stated that he liked to sit in on team meetings and “throw little suggestions and ideas to think about and if they are interested to just keep the conversation going and be supportive of them” (Lines 263-265).

Fiscal resources. Resource allocation and equity were organizational considerations for Karl King. He described the evolution of the allocation of instructional funds as previously being divided into two categories, general and special education. More than five years prior, the money was meshed together at the building level, a central office decision. Kent Elementary formed a team that decided how to divide the money. Dr. King said:

Special ed doesn’t necessarily come into play. . . . It’s a wonderful, wonderful experience as an administrator to sit and watch. I’ve seen this evolve to the point where it used to be that when the money would come to the building that kindergarten through fifth grade would sit down and say, “OK, we’ve got 4 classes per grade level, we divide it up six ways.” . . . Now, the teachers come to this meeting with a list of things they need and kindergarten might say, “We need two tricycles and some sets of

books and that's all." . . . So I don't remember anyone ever bring up special education. It's more what the total classroom needs. (Lines 310-321)

Karl reported that other individual needs are taken care of through the central office and that he had never had a problem acquiring necessary materials for students with special needs. The teacher team corroborated Karl's perception of how instructional money was spent. Starr said:

We wouldn't discuss issues that come up because of disabilities. In the fifth grade, it would come up as part of fifth grade stuff, not as a separate department. So, we have the same access as any of the other grade levels has. In addition to that, we have the special ed office that we can pull resources from. (Lines 102-106)

Georgette, the general educator, explained:

I think the way we have things set up, it's not separate. I have three students with IEPs this year in kindergarten, but they are just as much a part of my class and they get the same things as any others do. (Lines 110-113)

#### Political and Community Leadership

Fiscal resources. Dr. King focused on the fiscal aspects of how money flows from the state department level to the district level and finally to the sites. He exhibited some frustration with the rigidity of the system and how this rigidity affected his ability to implement the innovative program at Kent. Karl said of his central office:

They don't look at how many students are on each grade level, they just say you've got that many students therefore you get this many teachers. And so that's where it gets real complicated. We try to explain those things, but it's a matter of numbers and statistics and that's what people are looking at. They're not looking at individual people and that we may be trying to do things differently in order to better meet students' needs. (Lines 198-203)

Dr. King found the lack of flexibility of state and local politics to be a barrier for implementing the ideal collaborative model in Kent Elementary. The manner in which money flows from the state to the local education agency and then down to the individual schools did not allow Dr. Karl King to hire the staff that he felt was needed to adequately meet students' needs through cooperation between general and special educators.

Public relations. While Karl personally reported minimal political and community leadership information, the review of school documents, such as weekly bulletins, letters to and from parents, the school mission statement, the teacher handbook, and special education memos, revealed more information. Dr. King's outreach to the community was apparent from letters he had sent to parents and especially one letter he had received from a parent thanking him for creating a "school with a caring atmosphere for [my child] to learn and grow in" (Lines 6-7). Also, one of the goals for Kent was, "to build partnerships between families, school personnel, and other community members" (Lines 18-19). Lastly, a paper headed "Then, Now, and Always" that was disseminated to all teachers and assistants described special education services at Kent. The sheet highlighted the intent of IDEA '97 and the self-imposed policies of Kent Elementary. One example was this:

Then: Participation in IEP meant attendance at meeting. Classroom teacher participation optional.

Now: Participation in IEP means input (attended meeting, reviewed draft or final copy, etc.) Classroom teacher participation an important part (IDEA).

Always: If students with IEPs are routinely pulled from class for separate instruction in IEP areas by the special education teacher or aide, this service must be protected for IEP students only. Instruction of non-IEP students by the special education teacher must be part of a flexible, collaborative, teaching arrangement. (Lines 46-53)

The last Kent Elementary policy may cause confusion because IDEA allows non-IEP students to receive incidental benefits from special education services and says nothing about arranged instructional times for the non-IEP population. Other policy items dealt with the functional behavior assessment requirements and the reporting of student progress clauses of IDEA.

Beyond Karl's willingness to diffuse conflict between parents and teachers, discussed previously, the teacher team believed his political and community leadership was apparent in his knowledge of district politics when developing a budget. They remarked that if the school needed something beyond the budget, for instance more personnel, he often could work through the bureaucracy to acquire what was needed.

## Summary

Years ago, as a first year teacher, Dr. Karl King began to form his leadership skills from his principal. He took the best of what he saw from his first principal, becoming the barrier between his teachers and possibly irate parents. Karl also purposefully chose to become an instructional leader, opposite the example of his own principal.

Dr. Karl King taught high school English and journalism classes for seven years with only the first year completed in a collaborative situation with a special educator. He possessed an earned doctorate in educational leadership and policy studies from the nearby university and had been principal at Kent Elementary since its inception, five years prior. He had devoted his work life to becoming the best elementary principal possible. Among his goals were participatory leadership with his staff and collaboration between faculty and staff members, especially between general and special educators.

This relatively large elementary school had 470 students, which included 59 students with disabilities, or 13% of the total student population. Four special education teachers were responsible for these 59 students who were educated exclusively in the regular education classrooms and who represented all levels of severity and all special education categories as defined by the IDEA. This ratio of certified staff to students with diverse needs, approximately 1 to 15, called for a cohesive and collaborative staff and a well formulated plan of action. There was ample evidence that Dr. King had chosen and cultivated a staff that worked well together and that common planning time was used for collaboration. Although the staff followed the process of collaboration: meetings with involved parties; discussion, both formally and informally; and brainstorming ideas, there was a lack of evidence that detailed research into all programs adopted at Kent had been done. The “experiment” that Kent Elementary was conducting, that focused on integrating the special education teacher into a grade level as an equivalent member of the team, appeared to lack research other than the one inservice program from which the program grew. Strikingly absent was a real focus on monitoring each students’ educational benefit; the emphasis was on the process of teaching, not the product of learning. Without a strong formalized evaluation, the benefits of Kent Elementary’s experimental program for students remain undocumented.

While prereferral and student placement processes were well institutionalized at Kent Elementary, individualization of programs was not as evident. The participants reported that

resources were allocated equally to all, and the experiment was purposefully to have the effect of taking the responsibility for IEP duties, or individualization, away from the special educator. Furthermore, Dr. King's assessment and supervision of teachers was informal and the indicators of high quality teaching tended to be processes, such as having students physically mixed throughout the regular education classroom, rather than substantive outcomes for teachers and students.

The general and special education teachers both spoke to the belief that the students with special needs were "getting the same thing" educationally as general education students. The discussion of resource allocation also tended to avoid matters of individualization. Starr said, "Students with disabilities have the same opportunity to access resources as other people" (Line 144). Genie said, "I have three students with IEPs this year in kindergarten, . . . but they are just as much a part of my class and they get the same things as any others do" (Lines 111-113). Following six prompts from me, Starr said that the IEP process was the conduit to extraordinary resources a student might need to benefit from the educational process. She expanded on this to say that resources could be accessed through the central office.

Even with Dr. King's support for partnerships of hiring adequate personnel, acquiring a common planning time, creating a positive climate, and assuring timely training, without individualization of services for students with disabilities, what is special about special education at Kent Elementary?

## Case VI: Gentle Push

### The Case of Opportunity Elementary

Mr. Ob Oliver was nominated for this study by his district's special services director and was obviously interested and knowledgeable about cooperation between general and special educators. The conversation took place immediately after Opportunity Elementary's Christmas break, so I had not spoken with the principal or his teacher team for nearly one month.

School had been cancelled, begun late, or ended early every day that week due to weather conditions. Although this rural school of 190 students would have had ample excuse to be disheveled, everyone and everything seemed orderly. The office was quiet with an itinerant staff person completing paper work and chatting with the secretary, a cafeteria worker calling parents for lunch money, and a few children coming in to buy school supplies. No discipline problems were seen during the two hours I was in the office. As I arrived, a parent volunteer was speaking with this principal about testing and proper homework for her child. It was apparent that this school was in preparation for Standards of Learning (SOL) testing, which aroused my curiosity concerning how they assessed their 18 students with disabilities in these assessments.

Mr. Oliver had spent 12 of his 13 years as principal at Opportunity Elementary which had recently lost its Title I status due to low numbers of students who qualified for free or reduced lunches. His prior experience was mostly spent out of state as a K-12 music teacher for nine years, from approximately 1976-1986, during which time he had acquired his Master's degree. He taught in a cooperative situation with special educators for five of those years (see Table 4.6 for Opportunity Elementary demographics). He remembered his cooperative experience mostly through his experience with exceptional learning needs of the students with whom he worked. He expressed concerns about modifications for his special students and during our conversation discussed the extra help he gave them after school. Mr. Oliver felt that the collaboration he had experienced as a teacher was done because the involved teachers wanted to do it; they wanted to include all children. He also expressed the belief that during his career as a non-classroom teacher his closest colleagues had been special education teachers. He said, "We were always itinerant people on the outside, so we naturally did a lot of collaboration together and helped each other out" (Lines 37-38). These

Table 4.6

Demographics for Opportunity Elementary and Mr. Oliver

Age	35-49
Major area of teacher training	Music
Highest degree earned	Master's
Level of majority of teaching experience	High School
Subjects taught	Music
Years worked as a teacher	9
Years as a teacher in a partnership	5
Years worked in current division	14
Years as full-time principal	13
Years as principal at current site	12
Location of school site	Rural
Special education teachers	4
General education teachers	10
Students qualified for free or reduced lunches	24%
Special education students	18 (9.5% of the total student population)
Total number of students	190

experiences might have affected the beliefs for collaboration that he brought with him to the principalship.

Mr. Oliver was an experienced instructional leader. He still planned strategically for a successful year educating students, was concerned with the organizational management aspect of running a school, and realized the importance of both policies and public relations. He appeared to be a well-rounded elementary school principal.

### Strategic Leadership

Ob Oliver planned for the future success of his students through the development of productive partnerships. Once a goal was recognized, whether bottom-up through school-based teams or top-down from central office, this principal used teams to strategize how to accomplish this goal. One top-down mandate happened about five years prior to this study. The central office administration informed Mr. Oliver that Opportunity Elementary, then the special education regional school (all students with disabilities were bussed in) was going to lose students whose home school was not Opportunity. Ob and his staff decided to research the inclusive situations throughout the state and develop a plan that fit the needs of Opportunity Elementary before the district mandated processes that might not work for this school. Teams of teachers went to four schools throughout Virginia and reported their findings to Opportunity. Together the faculty determined how they would proceed.

### Instructional Leadership

Programming. The district mandate for inclusive environments caused Ob to use his instructional leadership skills as well. He continued using his staff partnerships to determine what the school environment would look like. The teams based their decisions on current published research as well as their own hands-on research/observations throughout the state. The teams also determined that regular education teachers would have to volunteer for having students with disabilities in their class with minimal to no pullout for special education services (inclusive classes). Mr. Oliver believed that the general education teachers saw having a special educator working with them as a positive attribute to their classrooms because both teachers worked with all the children. This principal relied on special educators to perform in-house training, either formally with the entire school or informally with individual teachers. However, he also emphasized that partnerships work best when both teachers “have ideas that they bring to the table and share” (Lines 226-227). This principal

made the point that giving special educators the opportunity to display their skills to the general educators through inclusive environments “elevated the special ed teachers to equals in the sight of everybody because they see how much skill these people really have” (Lines 300-301). He also felt that his staff knew how strongly he felt about working together because he modeled it. Ob Oliver collaborated openly with the special education coordinator during faculty meetings. The staff knew that the coordinator was Mr. Oliver’s assistant and that the two worked as a team to solve problems and make decisions. Ob attended meetings for special education students unless there was an emergency. He also struggled through the bureaucracy of central office to acquire a reading specialist when they lost their Title I teacher because he believed they had lost a vital part of their prereferral process. When they had a Title I reading teacher, many classroom teachers worked with her to find appropriate instructional modifications. Title I was also a midpoint for some students prior to formal referral and testing if this was deemed necessary. Mr. Oliver felt that this strategy had “been very effective” (Line 368) for “fix[ing] those confusions” (Line 367) of students with reading difficulties without identifying them immediately as students with learning disabilities.

Teacher assignment and student placement. Mr. Oliver also emphasized balanced programming when planning for teacher assignment and individual student assignment to classes. With only two regular educators per grade level, he strove for heterogeneous classes but with only one designated inclusive classroom. This allowed for the special education teacher in charge of inclusive classes to work with fewer teachers and to schedule her time more advantageously. According to the special educator, Suzanne, she was able to divide her time among only three classes due to having only one inclusive classroom per grade level. Other issues included co-planning times for general and special educators. Mr. Oliver allowed teachers working in inclusive settings to be dismissed from bus duty so they would have an hour at the end of each day to work together. He reported that there were no conflicts due to this special treatment, but the teacher team disagreed saying:

Georgia: There are people that are not inclusion that constantly feel that the inclusion people are treated differently.

Suzanne: And it’s kind of ironic because they feel that inclusion people are treated differently, but a lot of them want to be inclusion then, for those little perks. But those same people don’t always choose to do inclusion.

Georgia: Right. . . . It's just a few people and some people are going to complain no matter what. They just feel like they are being mistreated. (Lines 38-50)

Supervision and assessment. Other individual programming issues that Mr. Oliver dealt with were in the assessment of student progress. He was proud of the fact that he had implemented reporting of students' with disabilities progress at the same duration as general education students' years prior to the federal mandate calling for this action. According to both him and his teacher team, Ob read report cards, writing, other work samples, and IEPs for all students with disabilities each six weeks period along with equivalent materials for general education students. He commented on each student's report card individually and questioned teachers if there was a discrepancy. This principal believed that if the IEP goal was reasonable, "the child ought to be able to get that [meet the goal or objective] independently by the end of the year" (Lines 201-202). While this belief is not based on research and might be an unfounded expectation, Mr. Oliver did seem well aware of the progress of each student based on the aforesaid method and observations. Opportunity Elementary staff also assessed students prior to entering Kindergarten both as a developmental screening and as a proactive method of identifying students in need of special services early in their school careers.

Mr. Oliver used these student assessments in an organized fashion to follow teacher progress. Together with the staff, he determined assessment tools, such as student writing samples, and due dates. These were posted and strictly adhered to for all students and all teachers. He viewed each student's report card, IEP progress report as applicable, and writing samples and compared to previous indicators. Following this appraisal, he discussed progress indicators and criteria for each student with each teacher. In this fashion and through formal observations following district guidelines, Mr. Oliver evaluated each of his teachers individually. His evaluations of partnerships were much less formalized. He said that he did informal observations at key times, such as after school, lunch time, and before school, and watched for teachers working together.

Retention. Ob Oliver reported that although Opportunity Elementary tried to "get [students] up to speed as quickly" (Line 338) as they could, "we do believe in retention. Retention is done on an individual basis. We take a look at it through the child study team" (Line 339-340). The teacher team spoke of one Kindergarten student who was cognitively

and physically disabled who had been held back for one year. This discussion led into a personnel discussion.

Personnel. The general education teacher, Georgia, equivocated as to the reasons that she had an aide. At first, she stated that she had an aide because she had “one child that is on a walker” (Line 57). Later she stated that she thought the aide was hired for the “little group” (Line 68). Suzanne made clear that the aide was hired “specifically because that one little boy had to have one” (Line 70), but that the aide assisted the entire Kindergarten classroom, not just the individual child. Georgia continued her thought that if classrooms have special education students, they need a full-time aide even if the special education teacher spends part of her day in the classroom. Georgia then modified this by stating that “if you have a classroom with quite a few inclusion children, I think that it should be a requirement to have an aide” (Lines 96-97), to which the special educator retorted, “Or the inclusion teacher should be there all day” (Line 98). Both teachers agreed that Mr. Oliver was committed to hiring the right person for the job and that it made a difference in the quality of education given to students. Ob had this to say about equity under the law and personnel:

The key is when you have openings . . . there is no job that is more important than making sure you have the finest personnel in your school. So, when I have an opening, I spend a lot of time finding the very best person to take that position. That’s paid off for us big time because when you find the best person you are going to have a good team. (Lines 376-380)

The final personnel issue for Mr. Oliver was that of principal stability. He felt that since he had been at Opportunity Elementary for 12 years, he had been able to implement a program and follow it through to institutionalization. He said that he had been able to keep “the vision the same for all of us” (Line 382).

### Organizational Leadership

Fiscal resources. Mr. Oliver was open about resource allocations and explained his financial management in this way:

We give everyone an allotment, an instructional allotment. The special ed teachers get a pretty good chunk of change, just like the classroom teachers do. So, not only is it nice because those special ed teachers can bring that money to the classroom with them. (Lines 260-264)

Ob Oliver believed that implementing the inclusive program at Opportunity Elementary had a positive impact on other students' perceptions of students with disabilities. He said, "[The students] stay in the classroom, the teacher comes in. Things are modified, but other kids really don't know too much about the modifications" (Lines 276-278). He remarked that this fact seemed to have made an impression on parents.

#### Political and Community Leadership

Without any prompting, Mr. Oliver described parental perception of Opportunity Elementary's inclusive education program. He stated:

When we stopped [mainstreaming] and started keeping their child in the classroom in an inclusive setting, the very next time we had an IEP, those parents said, "We hope you never go back to the way you were doing it. My child's self-esteem is much higher because they are in there with the regular kids." (Lines 271-275)

Other indications that Ob was savvy to public opinion included his awareness of ways to utilize a Title I reading teacher to benefit the entire school as well as how to acquire a specialist once the school did not qualify for Title I. About this he stated, "We're real proud of that" (Line 364). He also displayed an awareness of when to struggle with central office (i.e., asking for extra personnel) and when to make the best of central office directives (i.e., move to inclusive environments). His wherewithal to prepare a plan of action for an inclusive setting prior to directions from central office gave him the leverage to make a compromise. He explained to me, "We said, 'Look, we will send [the students with disabilities] back [to their home school] when we feel they can make it with support'" (Lines 73-74). In this way, Opportunity Elementary maintained power over individual students' educational programs to the benefit of these students in Mr. Oliver's mind.

#### Summary

Mr. Ob Oliver's experience included teaching high school music for nine years with five years in a collaborative situation with a special educator. He had been a principal for 13 years and had spent 12 of those years at Opportunity Elementary, a small rural school of 190 students. Of these students, 18, or 9%, were identified as needing special education services. Three full-time special educators were responsible for 14 of these students with learning disabilities, mild to moderate mental retardation, developmental disabilities, hearing impairments, and other health impairments. The other four pupils, students with severe to

profound mental retardation, were the responsibility of one other full-time special educator. No resource classes were offered this year, but Starr noted that space and personnel accommodations were ready for implementation in case any students required resource services.

Mr. Oliver tended to be a proactive leader who used research-based actions for many of his strategies. He was stifled in his ability to make instructional grouping diverse and individualized for students with disabilities due to the small size of his school. He turned to the use of one teacher's classroom per grade level as the identified "inclusive class." This practice, while debated in the literature, has strong support by many practitioners in the field. However, Mr. Oliver's practice of giving "inclusive teachers" privileges or special treatment held the possibility of causing conflict rather than building partnerships between teachers. The teacher team reported a certain amount of conflict. Yet, Ob modeled actions that he wanted emulated such as being an organized educator, completing projects in a timely manner, and displaying trust and confidence in the special education team leader. There was ample evidence from the teacher team and the principal's evaluation completed by his staff that these actions were both valued and imitated by his teachers.

Mr. Oliver displayed trust in his teachers, in particular his special education coordinator, Starr, but completed formal district mandated evaluations of each teacher based on the district's set guidelines. Individual teacher evaluation criteria were not reported and evaluations of partnerships that were strictly an informal process based on observations of teachers talking together. Substantive issues used to evaluate teachers were student report cards, IEP progress reports, and student writing samples.

Mr. Oliver's experienced ability to work through the bureaucracy achieved many benefits for his school including extra personnel. The environment that he was able to create made individualization of services to students less complex and more likely to happen than if he did not have adequate personnel. Another factor that appeared to affect the climate of the school was the stability and experience of the staff and administration. Mr. Oliver's long-term commitment as principal of Opportunity Elementary had given him the opportunity to implement a change process to the point of institutionalization. His philosophy of change seems to naturally follow Zins and Illback's (1995) theory that:

Change initiatives that concentrate significant energy on [the] activity have the greatest chance of success. The complexity of change in schools is such that generally it is unrealistic to expect to bring about large-scale reform at once. Progress occurs when small steps are taken to increase the number of people involved. (p. 240)

## CHAPTER FIVE

### LESSONS LEARNED

“The problems associated with the implementation of instructional innovations are many and highly complex. Clarification of these problems should greatly improve implementation efforts” (Guskey, 1988, p. 69).

#### Overview

Because collaboration between general and special educators appears to be a promising practice for service delivery to students with disabilities and students at-risk for failure, the intent of this study was to discover how principals at six elementary schools in southwest Virginia view their ability to foster this collaboration. The goal was to gain an understanding of the facilitators and barriers that these principals face when attempting to support this cooperation and to describe methods that they have used to overcome constraints. The questions that guided this study include: What administrative supports are needed to facilitate cooperative partnerships between special and general educators? What barriers and facilitators do administrators believe are present in support of this cooperation? and How are the barriers overcome, if at all?

This chapter begins with a review and discussion of the participant and setting variables followed by the findings of the study. These are followed by a consideration of how the study results might contribute to theory development. In conclusion, implications of the research findings for practice and future research are offered.

#### Participant and Setting Variables

Variables associated with the principals and the settings in which they work are discussed in the next sections. These factors tended to be external to the principals' immediate control, such as school size, experience of the principals, and students with disabilities to special education teacher ratio.

#### School Size

The size of the elementary school in this study appeared to have an impact on the comments from the principals concerning facilitators and barriers to their schools' struggle to implement a collaborative model between general and special educators. Smaller schools tended to report fewer barriers to collaboration, and the reported barriers were followed by

methods the school had used to overcome these inhibitors to collaboration. Larger schools tended to report barriers that were from external sources and that the schools felt powerless to overcome.

Opportunity Elementary, the smallest school with 190 students, found top-down imperatives, such as the call six years prior to this study for district-wide inclusive classes, relatively uncomplicated to implement. They gathered teams of general and special educators together to visit school sites throughout the state that had already begun educating their students with disabilities in regular education classes. Link Elementary, with 271 students, reported the barrier of one general educator who was initially unwilling to differentiate instruction and a small number of others who were unsure how to differentiate instruction for students with disabilities. Ms. Linkous initiated a personal campaign to individually disseminate knowledge about the importance of and methods for differentiating instruction. Civil Elementary had 351 students. The principal, Mr. Cisco, found the most profound barriers to collaboration were from outside sources. Examples of these external barriers include receiving late information about the participation of students with disabilities in state-level assessments and state guidelines for the maximum caseload of special education teachers. Because Mr. Cisco felt that Civil did not have enough personnel to support special education teachers within regular education classes, which he felt would be most beneficial to students with disabilities, he determined that his school district would not support that model. The special education team at Buchanan Elementary, with 361 students, reported a variety of barriers, but each member of the team had a differing perspective regarding constraints to collaboration. The principal reported none; the special educator reported that federal mandates were barriers rather than solutions to Buchanan's special education problems; and the general educator found that lack of training in how to control special education students was her main constraint in collaboration. Both teachers reported that finding a common planning time had been impossible. Neither of these educators believed that Mr. Baker could address these problems, and therefore appeared resigned to bend to these barriers. At Kent Elementary, with 470 students, Dr. King was the only participant to realize constraints to collaboration. He reported that state guidelines for the number of special education teachers needed at the district level, and similar district guidelines that do not consider building-level constraints, hindered his ability to support collaboration due to

the low number of special educators at Kent Elementary. Dr. King reported that he attempted to overcome this problem by shifting special education teachers mid-year as student numbers grew. The participants at Ocean Elementary, the largest school with 529 students, determined that lack of a common planning time was their most prevalent barrier to collaboration. The teacher-participants met before school and after school to discuss the education of individual students, but reported that other teachers did not collaborate. Ms. Olsen, the principal, reported that she attempted to solve this problem by covering classes on a need basis so that the teachers could have time during the school day to work together. The teacher team, however, did not recognize her attempts.

This finding conforms to school size research, the majority of which suggests that small size had a positive effect on the interpersonal relationships within schools (Cotton, 1996). Meier (1996) summarized the benefits that she found in directing small schools, one of which was that small schools allow teachers to simplify the organization, therefore allowing schools to accommodate for individuality.

#### Principal Experience

The two principals in this study with the largest number of years of experience as teachers, Ms. Olsen and Mr. Baker, both had previously been teachers for 22 years and only full-time principals for one and two years, respectively. Ms. Olsen was a female in a relatively affluent suburban school of 529 students, 11% of whom were special education and served by three special education teachers and 25 regular educators. Mr. Baker was a male in a relatively low socioeconomic small-town school with 361 students, 12% who were special education and served by 5 special and 22 general educators. Both of these principals displayed difficulty expressing their support of the collaborative effort in their schools in comparison to the other four principals in the current study. Ms. Olsen discussed most of her support in the hypothetical, how she planned to support collaboration in the future. Mr. Baker tended to report his support as through high expectations of his teachers to educate students. The most apparent similarity between these two principals and their schools that is not seen with the other principals, who were more able to explain their support for collaboration, is the demographic factor of experience; specifically extensive teaching experience and minimal administrative experience. Even with the small sample size of the current study, this

observation calls into question the effectiveness of these principals in fostering a collaborative model between general and special educators within their schools.

Student to Teacher Ratio

The ratio of special education teachers to students with disabilities is a factor that dominates each of the other factors. If the fewer students a special educator has on her caseload, the less numerous the issues will be for teams of general and special educators, then the more in-depth cooperation may be between these educators. Table 5.1 displays the ratios of special education teachers to students with disabilities for each school.

Table 5.1

Ratio of Special Education Teachers to Special Education Students

School	Ratio of Special Education Teachers to Special Education Students
Civil Elementary	5/28
Link Elementary	1.5/31
Buchanan Elementary	5/44
Ocean Elementary	3/59
Kent Elementary	4/59
Opportunity Elementary	4/18

Opportunity Elementary, with approximately five students of varying disabilities per special educator, reported only one barrier, which was external to the building. The participants at Opportunity felt able to overcome this barrier of top-down mandated inclusion with teamwork. Civil Elementary, with approximately six students (the majority of whom had learning disabilities) per special education teacher reported relatively few barriers (noted earlier such as state guidelines for maximum caseload for special education teachers), and all constraints were external to the building. Mr. Cisco, even with Civil Elementary’s low ratio of special educators to students, still reported a desire to hire more special educators in order to develop a more inclusive environment in which to educate Civil Elementary’s students with disabilities. Buchanan Elementary supported approximately nine students with varying disabilities per special education teacher. Mr. Baker did not express any constraints; yet, his teachers reported that the opportunity to work together was nearly nonexistent. Dr. King at

Kent Elementary, with approximately 15 students identified with varying disabilities per special education teacher, reported that guidelines for the maximum number of special education teachers he was allowed to hire caused him the greatest problem in fostering a collaborative environment between general and special education. With approximately 20 students (mostly with learning disabilities and emotional and behavioral disorders) per special educator, Ocean Elementary participants each reported that finding a common time to collaborate was a constraint. Link Elementary had approximately 21 students, the majority of whom had learning disabilities. Ms. Linkous, the principal, believed that finding a common planning time for collaboration was impossible, while the general educator emphasized that if anyone would develop a schedule for collaborating, that the principal would support this effort. The schools with a high number of students with disabilities per special education teacher tended to have more difficulty finding methods for collaborating for the benefit of students with disabilities than did schools with a lower ratio.

### Findings

Results of this study are discussed in terms of the research questions concerning what principals did that influenced the collaboration between general and special educators. Ten primary areas are defined: (a) supporting partnerships; (b) hiring selectively; (c) modeling cooperative behavior; (d) establishing special education as integral to the school's mission; (e) utilizing validated practices; (f) making common time a common practice; (g) being knowledgeable about special education issues; (h) utilizing prereferral and referral processes; (i) developing in-house special education training; (j) assigning teachers and students. These ten administrative factors that affected collaboration for the six case studies are summarized in Table 5.2.

### Administrative Factors That Influenced Collaboration

Administrative factors that affected collaboration, either positively or negatively, across the six case studies are discussed in the following sections. These variables are considered in terms of actions that principals took or felt incapable of performing.

#### Supporting Partnerships

The principals at Kent and Ocean Elementary Schools expressed that allowing partnerships to begin incidentally and to evolve naturally without intervention from administrators benefited the growth of productive collaboration. Dr. King, at Kent Elementary, and Ms.

Olsen, at Ocean Elementary, both indicated that teachers with similar personalities, interests, and teaching philosophies naturally gravitated to one another and became effective partners. The teachers at Kent Elementary praised Dr. King for supporting strong partnerships. This teacher team insisted that many principals are concerned that they, as administrators, will lose their control or power if they allow teachers to collaborate for an extended time. The teacher team at Kent Elementary reported that the collaborative teams at their school felt more empowered at Kent than they had at their previous schools, and that the climate at Kent was challenging and enriching. At Civil Elementary, Mr. Cisco explained that the stability of partnerships ideally should extend to the stability of the principal in the school. He believed that the practice of allowing the leader of a school to begin a partnership program and continue it, for at least a five-year period, allowed productive partnerships to become an integral part of the school. Mr. Cisco had led Civil Elementary for five years and had been a principal in the district for twelve years. Mr. Oliver from Opportunity Elementary found that allowing general educators to volunteer for a partnership with the “inclusive” special educator and then choosing the best candidate from each grade level supported partnerships in his school. Choosing the best teachers from a group of volunteers allowed Mr. Oliver to use teachers who had high-quality skills and ideas to share toward the education of students with disabilities. Ms. Linkous had high expectations for cooperation between general and special educators at Link Elementary. She made cooperation a focus of discussion between individual teachers and herself when conversing about specific students with disabilities. She also focused faculty meetings on the importance of working together toward the goal of educating students. Mr. Baker, at Buchanan Elementary, did not have an explanation for how he supported partnerships other than using his experience as a tool.

Table 5.2

Summary of Administrative Factors Affecting Collaboration for the Six Case Studies

Administrative Factors Affecting Collaboration	(a) Supporting Partnerships	(b) Hiring Selectively	(c) Modeling Cooperative Behavior	(d) Establishing Special Education as Integral to School's Mission	(e) Utilizing Validated Practices
Case I: Buchanan Elementary, Mr. Bob Baker	- -.	- -	Fostered open communication.	Part of IEP team.	- -
Case II: Ocean Elementary, Ms. Olivia Olsen	Allow teams to evolve naturally.	Self-starters and ability to work with variety of people.	Modeling cooperation in classes with students.	Part of IEP team.	- -
Case III: Civil Elementary, Mr. Cecil Cisco	Long-term principal.	Staff enthusiastic about partnerships and fit well within the school climate. Difficult finding certified special education teachers.	Fostered communication. Cross-grade level meetings.	Part of IEP team. Showcase special education to community. Designated special educator as building-level assistant. Liaison between teachers and central office.	Sought supporting information regarding teachers' claims of best practices.

Note. A dash (- -) has been used to signify that no data were reported by the corresponding school for this cell.

Table 5.2 continued

Administrative Factors Affecting Collaboration	(a) Supporting Partnerships	(b) Hiring Selectively	(c) Modeling Cooperative Behavior	(d) Establishing Special Education as Integral to School's Mission	(e) Utilizing Validated Practices
Case IV: Link Elementary, Ms. Lynn Linkous	High expectations for cooperation.	Personnel willing to learn and dialogue with the principal.	Win the trust of teachers through openness. Cross-grade level meetings	Part of IEP team and all other meetings with parents.	--
Case V: Kent Elementary, Dr. Karl King	Long-term teams that evolve naturally.	Personnel enthusiastic about productive partnerships.	Facilitate communication.	Designated special education coordinator as administrator for IEP meetings.	Personal research about support of collaborative teams.
Case VI: Opportunity Elementary, Mr. Ob Oliver	Best candidates for collaboration are chosen from a group of volunteers.	Personnel with good skills and ideas to share.	Collaborated openly with special education coordinator.	Part of IEP team. Designated special educator as building-level administrator.	Team-based research about inclusive instructional practices.

Note. A dash (- -) has been used to signify that no data were reported by the corresponding school for this cell.

Table 5.2 continued

Administrative Factors Affecting Collaboration	(f) Making Common Time a Common Practice	(g) Being Knowledgeable About Special Education Issues	(h) Utilizing Prereferral and Referral Processes	(i) Developing In-house Special Education Training	(j) Assigning Teachers and Students
Case I: Buchanan Elementary, Mr. Bob Baker	Teachers saw lack of common planning time as a barrier. Principal did not comment.	Principal expected special educator to inform him, yet she was misinformed. Focus was on compliance rather than instruction.	- -	Focused training on compliance.	Principal hand-scheduled special education students first. Then developed computerized class lists around the assignments for students with disabilities. Plans to assign students to volunteer teachers.
Case II: Ocean Elementary, Ms. Olivia Olsen	Principal felt the lack of common planning time was a barrier.	Experience as a teacher with exceptional learners.	The school held formal prereferral and referral meetings.	- -	Plans to assign students to volunteer teachers.
Case III: Civil Elementary, Mr. Cecil Cisco	- -	Experience as a teacher with exceptional learners. Experience with compliance issues as a special education coordinator.	The school held formal prereferral and referral meetings.	Formal and informal training through special educators. Focus on student education.	Spread students between teachers. High number of partnerships for special educator.

Note. A dash (- -) has been used to signify that no data were reported by the corresponding school for this cell.

Table 5.2 continued

Administrative Factors Affecting Collaboration	(f) Making Common Time a Common Practice	(g) Being Knowledgeable About Special Education Issues	(h) Utilizing Prereferral and Referral Processes	(i) Developing In-house Special Education Training	(j) Assigning Teachers and Students
Case IV: Link Elementary, Ms. Lynn Linkous	Teachers saw lack of common planning time as a barrier. Principal felt that arrangement of common planning time was impossible.	Experience as a teacher with exceptional learners.	The school held formal prereferral and referral meetings.	One-on-one instruction for the teachers from the principal. Focus on student education.	Due to small size of the school, difficulty developing heterogeneous classes. High number of partnerships for special educator.
Case V: Kent Elementary, Dr. Karl King	District-wide half-day per month without students used strictly for planning and collaborating.	Based on knowledge from research, the principal lobbied central office for common planning times for teachers.	Formal prereferral and referral meetings. Delegated the administrative responsibility to the special education coordinator.	On-the-job training. One-on-one with the special education coordinator. Focus on student education.	Large school. High number of partnerships for special educators.
Case VI: Opportunity Elementary, Mr. Ob Oliver	Teams were dismissed from bus duty.	Principals' knowledge or law and best practice research allowed him to lobby effectively for extra personnel.	The school held formal prereferral and referral meetings.	Special educator was a resource for general educators. Focus on student education.	Due to small size of the school, difficulty developing heterogeneous classes. High number of partnerships for special educator.

Note. A dash (- -) has been used to signify that no data were reported by the corresponding school for this cell.

### Hiring Selectively

Mr. Cisco, in his small-town school setting, found that hiring the best personnel surfaced as a problem. The lack of a qualified, certified, special education pool of applicants from which to choose diminished the quality of general education/special collaboration. Although Civil Elementary enjoyed the lowest ratio of special education students per special educator, Mr. Cisco also felt that he needed more special education staff in order to offer a high quality continuum of services to the students of his school. Dr. King, due to the luxury of inaugurating Kent Elementary and being in a college town, hired each teacher personally and with a keen eye toward finding personnel who shared his enthusiasm for productive partnerships. He felt this was the key element to supporting cooperation within his school. Mr. Cisco seconded that notion and considered how well a potential staff member would fit into the climate of Civil Elementary before the hiring team made a decision. Ms. Olsen, while not at Ocean Elementary long enough to have made hiring decisions, appreciated the teacher who was a self-starter and able to work well with a variety of teachers. Mr. Oliver expressed the need for teachers who were involved in a collaborative situation to have skills and ideas to share with their partner. Ms. Linkous found that the lack of willingness and lack of knowledge among some general educators to provide differentiated instruction caused barriers for collaboration between the special educators and these particular general educators. Therefore, Ms. Linkous hired only teachers who were willing to grow and learn as well as to discuss with her problems they may encounter while teaching.

### Modeling Cooperative Behavior

Principals mentioned the importance of listening to their teachers and opening the lines of communication. Lynn Linkous, at Link Elementary, explained that she had to win the trust of her teachers through her own openness before they felt open enough to share their opinions and ideas. She firmly believed that this had moved the school closer to her goal of collaborative decision making and productive partnerships. Mr. Cisco and Dr. King pointed to facilitation of communication as an important factor for improving partnerships throughout their schools. Both principals purposefully gathered teachers together to discuss issues and stood back to allow teachers the opportunity to work together. When these principals did become involved, it was with the purpose of promoting further discussion. Ms. Linkous and Mr. Cisco both called cross-grade level meetings to discuss modifications,

adaptations, and the purchase of materials for specific students. Ms. Olsen relied on modeling cooperative teaching while in classrooms to speed the process of forming productive partnerships. Mr. Oliver collaborated openly with the special education coordinator, and the teachers saw how they worked as a team for decision making and problem solving. Mr. Baker said that he fostered a sense of openness and trust. He exhibited an open-door policy, and believed that teachers were willing to share with him any problems or concerns they might have.

#### Establishing Special Education as Integral to the School's Mission

When Mr. Cisco showcased special education at the school board meeting, he used another modeling technique to motivate general educators to work with special educators. In an effort to facilitate effective communication between the two, Mr. Cisco extended his work with the central office so he might become the liaison for his teachers. Dr. King, Mr. Cisco, and Mr. Oliver each designated a special educator as their building-level assistant. This technique encouraged respect and theoretically the desire in general educators to cooperate with special educators. All principals, except Dr. King, the principal of the largest school, made an effort to be a part of each IEP meeting, and Lynn Linkous attended all special education meetings from the initial child study. She was an integral part of the meetings and sometimes knew enough about the individual child and the aspects of exceptional learners to suggest more appropriate goals than the teachers had written. Dr. King, as was typical in his district, had designated the special education coordinator to attend IEP meetings on his behalf.

#### Utilizing Validated Practices

Mr. Oliver discussed the influences of team-based research. He believed that researching a topic, such as inclusive education, brought the entire staff close together. Dr. King spoke about the role research had played in his professional endeavors to support collaboration. As a recent doctoral student, he had made an effort to keep abreast of many educational leadership issues, one of which was the administrative support necessary for inclusive education. Mr. Cisco's teachers explained that he sought out information at workshops and conferences that supported the teacher's claims about best practices in special education. The other principals in this study did not refer to their efforts in the area of researching validated practices.

### Making Common Time a Common Practice

While lack of common planning time between general and special educators has long been a topic of discussion in the collaboration literature, all principals except Ms. Linkous and Ms. Olsen reported that they had either found solutions to the problem or found it to be a non-issue in their schools. Ms. Linkous stated simply that finding this needed time was impossible due to other constraints such as the high number of teachers with whom the special educator had to collaborate and the caseload the special educator carried. Ms. Linkous spoke of only one particular time when she, the special educator, a non-collaborative general educator, and the counselor had traveled over one hour to a workshop. During the travel time, Ms. Linkous noticed the benefit of ensuring a common time for special and general educators to work together without students. Ms. Olsen, as a first-year principal, found that the organization of the school day inhibited the general and special educators from finding a common planning time. She found the lack of a common planning time to be a hindrance to her support of collaborative partnerships and had already implemented common planning times on a small scale. Neither Mr. Cisco nor his teacher teams mentioned the necessity of a common planning time for the support of their partnerships. Both teams noted, however, that physical proximity to one another allowed for spontaneous collaboration. The teachers at Buchanan Elementary found the lack of a common planning time frustrating; yet, Mr. Baker made no explicit reference to this practice. Allowance for a common designated time for general and special educators to work together was discussed as a facilitator to collaboration between general and special educators by two principals, Mr. Oliver and Dr. King. These principals made special arrangements to ensure that common times occurred at designated intervals. Mr. Oliver arranged for general educators of inclusive classes and special educators to be dismissed from bus duty each day, so they could work together at the end of every school day. Dr. King had successfully lobbied with the central office for a half-day each month without students for all teachers. This time was used for planning and collaborating, not administrative meetings.

### Being Knowledgeable About Special Education Issues

Ms. Olsen's, Ms. Linkous', and Mr. Cisco's background as teachers of students with disabilities and at-risk students in general gave them insight into what an appropriate education for individual students looks like. Mr. Cisco also drew insight from his experience

as a building-level special education coordinator. Mr. Oliver, Dr. King, and Mr. Cisco specified that their knowledge of special education law, exceptionalities, and best practices facilitated the collaborative models in their schools. Based on their knowledge, these principals were able to acquire monetary resources, personnel, or time without students specifically for the benefit of educating students with disabilities using a collaborative model. Mr. Baker expected his special education coordinator to inform him regarding special education compliance issues; yet, she lacked this information.

#### Utilizing Prereferral and Referral Processes

All principals except Mr. Baker noted that the processes occurring prior to formal referral of students for special education services, such as Virginia's child study, a requirement for prereferral teams, promoted teacher collaboration. In order for the prereferral process to operate efficiently, Mr. Cisco held cross-grade level meetings early each school year to refresh teachers' memories about the process, and to discuss individual children. Mr. Cisco and Dr. King emphasized the importance of ensuring that general education teachers carry the responsibility of the student in the prereferral process with the support of the special educator. Ms. Olsen, Mr. Oliver, and Dr. King spoke of their schools' prereferral process only after being prompted. Dr. King had delegated the administrative responsibility to the building-level special education coordinator. Ms. Linkous brought up the subject of referral as an area where she supported collaboration, but had to be prompted to discuss her school's prereferral process.

#### Developing In-house Special Education Training

Using the expertise of special education teachers to inform the rest of the faculty, staff, and administration seemed to be a popular method for principals to promote collaboration between special educators and others within the school. Mr. Cisco believed that the method of training individual teachers through the special education teachers was an ingrained function of Civil Elementary, and therefore, general educators sought out counsel from the special educators spontaneously. The building-level special education coordinator also arranged inservices for the entire staff. Ms. Linkous' form of in-house training consisted of her personal efforts to directly educate the teachers about the importance of collaborating with one another and differentiating instruction. She accomplished this through a makeshift teacher's library and by dispensing to each teacher books and a packet of materials on the

topic of best practices in educating students with diverse needs. Mr. Baker's idea of in-house training incorporated relying on the special educator to train himself and the other teachers in matters of compliance issues. Dr. King relied on his special education coordinator to provide formal, structured training for any general educator who needed expert advice and with all special education aides. Mr. Oliver found that his special education coordinator had naturally become the in-house training provider for special education issues. The general educators sought her out for advice. Each principal, except Ms. Olsen, the only first-year principal, discussed within-school resources as a practical solution to the challenges of supporting collaboration between general and special educators.

### Assigning Teachers and Students

The assignment of teachers tended to be a common dilemma for principals. Both Ms. Linkous and Mr. Oliver found that having relatively small schools inhibited their ability to assign students in a heterogeneous manner and to allow special educators to work closely with a small number of teachers. Dr. King, with the largest school, had a similar problem. While assignment of students to general educators in a heterogeneous manner proved a relatively simple task, Dr. King also wrestled with the predicament placed on his staff when the special educators were assigned to collaborate with a large number of general education teachers each day, mostly due to having relatively few special educators working in Kent Elementary. In order to develop heterogeneous classrooms, Mr. Baker "hand-scheduled" students with disabilities prior to computerized scheduling of other students. He noted that the teachers of regular education classes were not concerned with their class lists. Ms. Olsen's plans for the next school year included assigning students to general educators who volunteer for specific students with special needs in order to ensure teacher participation in these students' education. Mr. Cisco spread students with disabilities across teachers at each grade level in order to keep classes heterogeneous and to alleviate overloading of any one general educator. He found that his special educators were forced to form a high number of partnerships due to this practice, but that assigning the special educator to only one or two grade levels minimized this problem.

### Theory Development

Two conceptual frameworks were used to guide the examination of principals' supports of collaboration between general and special educators for the educational benefit of

students with disabilities in this study. The leadership domains described by the NCATE Guidelines (1995) gave direction to the exploration of factors affecting administrative implementation of collaborative instruction, and Crockett’s (in press) model of special education domains provided a conceptual framework for the description and categorization of special education administration for principals. For this study, principals needed to reply to educational leadership and special education areas, so I required two lenses from which to view their responses. These theoretical frames helped me imagine the work of an educational administrator responsible for special instruction through collaborative teaching. NCATE’s educational leadership domains included: (a) strategic leadership; (b) instructional leadership; (c) organizational leadership; and (d) political and community leadership. Crockett’s special education domains included: focusing on (a) exceptional learners; (b) equity under law; (c) effective programming; and (d) productive partnerships. These frameworks provided a vocabulary that allowed a conversation about administrative and special education responsibilities of the principals. These are set out against the variables that emerged in this study as elements that might explain why principals were either able to overcome or be overcome by factors affecting their support of general and special education collaboration for the educational benefit of students with disabilities.

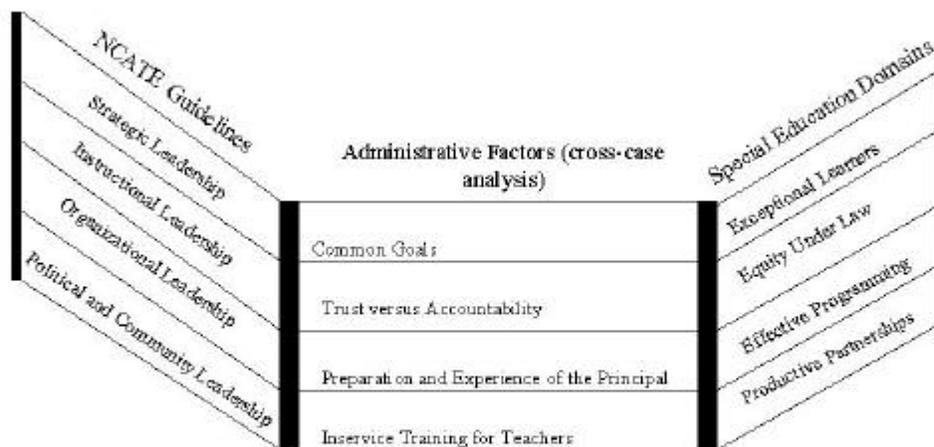


Figure 5.1. Factors found to be common across the six cases when viewed from both the leadership domains of the NCATE Guidelines and the special education domains.

### Implications for Research and Practice

Each of the four variables that were found to transcend all data sources and cases will be discussed in turn. Following the discussion of each variable, a question that might guide future research will be posed.

Common goals. In order for schools to move toward educating students with disabilities in a cooperative and collaborative manner, each member of the collaborative team must share similar goals. It is critical that each member understands the need for and the nature of the changes being implemented as a collaborative model is begun. Teachers involved in collaboration learn from one another and increase their repertoire of intervention strategies including problem-solving skills. Additionally, collaboration provides educators with the support to persist in what can be a challenging and isolating profession. Because the history of the teacher has been one of isolation and a balkanized culture (Hargreaves, 1994), many principals may respond to the call of research for collaboration through contrived collegiality, or mandated collegial support. Contrived collegiality may be useful in moving a school toward more genuine collaboration, but may be problematic when administrators use this type of support to implement quick fixes (Hargreaves). Communication of these goals by the principal must be direct, “rigid, nonnegotiable, inflexible, and fanatical” (Dufour & Eaker, 1987, p. 84). A question for future research might be this: Is it possible for a school to remain focused on its goals unless its principal clearly and constantly establishes and reestablishes the goals?

Trust versus accountability. While trust holds an important place within any relationship including the principal/teacher relationship, teachers must be held accountable for the goals that have been clearly communicated by principals as expectations. Inattention to monitoring a particular factor indicates that the factor is less than essential, regardless of how often its importance is verbalized. If principals wish to communicate the importance of collaboration between general and special educators for the educational benefit of students with disabilities, they must be willing to confront those who disregard that value. Confrontation may be in the form of face-to-face counseling in which the alternatives and consequences are clear. Confrontation need not be antagonistic, but confronting acknowledges that progress toward goals is imperative. Another question for research might be: How can principals who wish to cultivate a laissez-faire atmosphere with an informal

collaboration model also monitor progress toward the common goal of increased educational benefit for students with disabilities?

Preparation and experience of the principals. Twenty years of research strongly suggest that principals have a tremendous impact in shaping the education that goes on in a school (Murphy & Louis, 1994). Louis and Marks (1998) explain that good principals spend much time on what they call “structuring the story of the school” (p. 254). Principals who plan to promote the goal of collaboration between general and special educators for the educational benefit of students with disabilities must be formally prepared. Knowledge of special education law and validated practices for students with disabilities seemed to make a difference in the satisfaction of staff and administrators in the current study. Nationally, there are three types of requirements used by states relating to principal certification and special education (Bateman, 1998). Of the states responding to a national survey, 18 required only an introduction to special education course, nine required other competencies, and 20 required no special education coursework (Bateman). Intuitively, one would assume that without specific training in special education issues a principal would not be able to clearly define and communicate a goal to his or her staff regarding collaboration between general and special educators. This might lead to the question: Does preservice preparation in special education contribute to principals’ instructional leadership?

Inservice training for teachers. Only one in five teachers feels “very well prepared” to work in a modern classroom, according to a report released by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) (January 1999). Virtually all teachers in the national Likert-style survey had participated in professional development. These teachers reported that short-term sessions were of low quality, but reported that long-term training helped their teaching ability. Likewise, teachers who were involved in frequent planning and collaboration with other teachers were more likely to report that it improved their ability to teach. Secretary Richard Riley of the United States Department of Education discussed inadequate professional development opportunities. In his January 28<sup>th</sup>, 1999 press conference, he said:

A primary cause for limited professional development opportunities is American custom. While doctors and lawyers routinely confer with colleagues, teachers often remain isolated in classrooms. Among teachers whose schools dedicate time for team planning, 40% say it improves their teaching “a lot” and another third say it improves

their teaching “moderately.” Yet, it is an uncommon practice.

([www.ed.gov/Speeches/990128.html](http://www.ed.gov/Speeches/990128.html))

The NCES survey reported that teachers who are given the opportunity for inservice training programs that are long-term and of high quality benefit in their practices. Yet teachers’ beliefs also play a remarkable role in their professional practices (Guskey & Passaro 1994; Pajares, 1992); so, hiding special education collaboration inservices behind the mask of Standards of Learning or basic general education training may hinder changes in attitude toward special education. Initial acceptance may be promoted through the facade of general education professional development, but long-term disadvantages might outweigh this benefit. Disadvantages might include inadvertently reinforcing a negative feeling about educating students with special needs and minimizing the importance of individualizing education for students whose needs differ from others. This leads to the question: What is the effect of inservice training for teachers on effective collaboration in instructing students with disabilities?

#### Implications for Future Research

While several of the participants seemed well versed in issues of exceptionality, their focal point was often not on instruction. This study assumed that collaboration between general and special educators was a promising practice and that teachers and principals were concerned with programming for individual students. There is a possibility that the interview protocol focus on collaboration during our conversations was so overwhelming that the main purpose of education, higher outcomes for students, was lost. However, even Ms. Linkous who was focused on individual instruction had problems marshalling her teachers to differentiate instruction.

Another assumption of this study was that all principals who had experience, were informed, and were trying to implement collaboration in their schools, would be focused ultimately on the benefit this collaboration would have on students with disabilities. However, some principals seemed to have lost sight of the goal for meaningful educational benefits that should theoretically be derived for students with disabilities from collaboration between general and special educators. Collaboration with the goal of collaboration is not meeting the ultimate objective of individualized instruction for students with disabilities. The one school that was least able to discuss the supports for collaboration and where the teachers

did not feel that the circumstances were such that they could collaborate effectively, Buchanan Elementary, was also the school where all three participants expressed their focus as being on individual children. Unfortunately, without collaboration, there was a disjointed and therefore somewhat inefficient method for meeting individual students' educational needs. Still, in order to meet the need for appropriateness in educating students with disabilities, school personnel must remain focused on the education of individual students, not on the goal of collaboration.

Using hindsight, I would be more careful in choosing participants, especially principals, if I were to complete a study similar in nature to the current one. I would complete an initial interview to evaluate if the principal is truly informed and interested. The more informed principals were about collaborative instruction between general and special educators, the better able they were to fully answer my interview questions. Informed principals knew the history of the collaborative situation within their schools and what community or society pressures were in force at the commencement of the collaborative model that may have supported the model chosen rather than another service delivery model. Informed and interested principals were able to contemplate how well their model was working, what might increase its effectiveness, and what barriers were inhibiting the effectiveness of their collaborative model.

The use of teachers to verify the amount and type of support that principals provided for collaboration between general and special educators proved to be a wise decision. The conversations with Mr. Cisco and Dr. King were fruitful and mostly fact-based; yet, the discussion with their teacher teams added insight into how the principals supported a collaborative climate in general within their schools. For instance, Mr. Cisco acknowledged that he had experience as a building-level special education coordinator and drew on this experience in support of teacher teams. One of his teacher teams expanded on Mr. Cisco's explanations of his experiences with special education through information about special education workshops and conferences he had attended. Dr. King explained how he fostered communication between general and special educators, but his teacher team described the modeling techniques he utilized in the area of collaboration and the charismatic effect he had on his faculty and staff that set the tone for a collaborative environment at Kent Elementary. The teacher team at Opportunity Elementary corroborated Mr. Oliver claims about the

supports reported he using in fostering a collaborative environment between general and special educators. The parallel versions given by both the principal and the teacher team at Opportunity Elementary gave me confidence that I had been given an accurate picture of supports for collaboration at this school. Although the teachers at Link Elementary did not necessarily find the behaviors that Ms. Linkous exhibited and extolled as supportive to be facilitative of a collaborative environment at their school, the teacher team did verify these principal behaviors as existing. In the cases of Buchanan Elementary and Ocean Elementary, a second teacher team might have added needed information to the data gathered. Although his teacher team corroborated the supports for collaboration at Buchanan expressed by Mr. Baker, numerous barriers were discussed by the teacher team that Mr. Baker had not explained. The teachers insisted that Mr. Baker had no control over these hindrances to cooperation between general and special educators; however, I feel that a second teacher team might have been able to more fully explain the discrepancy between the two interviews. The general educator at Ocean Elementary appeared to have a personal problem with Ms. Olsen that may have clouded her perception of the supports given by this principal to facilitate collaboration between the special educator and herself. This problem was expressed through the tendency of the general educator to fluctuate between extolling the virtues of her principal, although typically when imitating the special educator's thoughts, and expressing her displeasure with the lack of support she received from the principal. An interview with a second team could have clarified the accuracy of the accounts given. Generally, the use of a general and special education teacher team added credibility to the findings in this study.

### Conclusion

Implementation of a collaborative service delivery design for the educational benefit of students with disabilities requires a cooperative plan of action that is agreed upon by all members of the educational team. All team members must work in unison toward the same goal for students with disabilities, increased educational benefit. In order that progress toward this goal is monitored during incremental steps, members of the special education team - - the general educator, the special educator, and the principal - - must be held accountable through evaluations. The trust for teachers that so many principals seem to value must be based on a valid accountability system so that progress continues and the goal of increased educational benefit is not lost. For cooperation toward a common goal and

measurement of progress to transpire, both principals and teachers must have adequate preparation and experience. Principals without a proper background in exceptionality, equity under law, effective programming, and productive partnerships as well as educational leadership skills will not be prepared to foster a collaborative environment for the educational benefit of students with disabilities. Likewise, without proper training in similar special education areas, especially productive partnerships, general and special education teachers will be unable to collaborate for the educational benefit of students with disabilities.

## References

- Affleck, J. .Q., Madge, S., Adams, A., & Lowenbraun, S. (1988). Integrated classroom versus resource model: Academic viability and effectiveness. Exceptional Children, 54, 339-348.
- Aloia, G. F. (1983). Special educators' perceptions of their roles as consultants. Teacher Education and Special Education, 6 (2), 83-87.
- Ashton, P. T. (1984). Teacher efficacy: A motivational paradigm for effective teacher education. Journal of Teacher Education, 35 (5), 28-32.
- Assistance to states for the education of children with disabilities, 34 C. F. R. Part 300 (1992).
- Baker, J. M. & Zigmond, N. (1995). The meaning and practice of inclusion for students with learning disabilities: Themes and implications from the five cases. The Journal of Special Education, 29, 163-180.
- Bandura, A. (1986). Social foundations of thought and action. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Bateman, D. F. (1998, February). A national survey of state requirements relating to special education for prospective principals. Paper presented at the meeting of the Eastern Education Research Association, Tampa, FL.
- Bauer, H. (1975). The resource teacher: A teacher consultant. Academic Therapy, 10, 199-304.
- Bauwens, J., & Hourcade, J. J. (1995). Cooperative teaching: Rebuilding the schoolhouse for all students. Austin, TX: PRO-ED.
- Bergan, J. R. (1977). Behavioral consultation. Columbus, OH: Charles E. Merrill.
- Bergan, J. R. (1995). Evolution of a problem-solving model of consultation. Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation, 6, 111-123.
- Bogdan, R. C., & Biklen, S. K. (1992). Qualitative research for education: An introduction to theory and methods. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Bossard, M. D. & Gutkin, T. B. (1983). The relationship of consultant skill and school organizational characteristics with teacher use of school-based consultation services. School Psychology Review, 12, 50-56.

Boudah, D. J., Schumacher, J. B., & Deshler, D. D. (1997). Collaborative instruction: Is it an effective option for inclusion in secondary classrooms? Learning Disability Quarterly, 20, 293-316.

Bradley, D. F. (1994). A framework for the acquisition of collaborative consultation skills. Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation, 5, 51-68.

Brown, D., Blackburn, J. E., Wyne, M. D., & Powell, W. C. (1979). Consultation: Strategy for improving education. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc.

Cancelli, A. A., & Lange, S. M. (1990). Considerations for future research in the institutionalization of school-based consultation. Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation, 1, 87-98.

Carlberg, C., & Kavale, K. (1980). The efficacy of special versus regular class placement for exceptional children: A meta-analysis. Journal of Special Education, 14, 295-309.

CEC Today (April/May, 1998). Special education today – Opportunities and challenges (pp. 1 & 15).

Chin, R., & Benne, K. D. (1976). Strategies for effecting changes in human systems. In W. G. Bennis, K. D. Bebb, R. Chin, & K. E. Corey (Eds.). The planning of change (pp. 22-45). New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston.

Conoley, J. C., & Conoley, C. W. (1982). School consultation : Guide to practice and training. New York: Pergamon Press.

Corbett, H. D., Dawson, J. A., & Firestone, W. A. (1984). School context and school change: Implications for effective planning. New York: Teachers College Press.

Cotton, K. (1996). School size, school climate, and student performance. School Improvement Research Series. Portland, OR: Northwest Regional Educational Laboratory. (<http://www.nwrel.org/scpd/sirs/10/c020.html>).

Council for Exceptional Children. (1987). Position statement on the relationship between special and general education. Reston, VA

Creswell, J. W. (1998). Qualitative inquiry and research design: Choosing among five traditions. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Crockett, J. B. (in press). Viable alternatives for students with disabilities: Exploring the origins and interpretations of LRE. Exceptionality, 8 (1).

Crockett, J. B. (1999). Cross Training Responsive Leaders for Inclusive Schools. Manuscript submitted for publication, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University at Blacksburg.

Crockett, J. B., & Kauffman, J. M. (1998). Classrooms for students with learning disabilities: Realities, dilemmas, and recommendations for service delivery. In Bernice Wong (Ed.), Learning about learning disabilities (2<sup>nd</sup> ed., pp. 489-525). San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Curtis, M., & Zins, J. E. (Eds.). (1981). The theory and practice of school consultation. Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas.

da Costa, J. L. (1995). Teacher collaboration: A comparison of four strategies. The Alberta Journal of Educational Research, 41, 407-420.

Danielson, L. C., & Bellamy, G. T. (1989). State variation in placement of children with handicaps in segregated environments. Exceptional Children, 55, 448-455.

Deal, T. (1987). The culture of schools. In L. Shieve & M. Schoenheit (Eds.), Leadership: Examining the elusive (pp. 3-15). Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Deal, T. & Peterson, K. (1990). The principal's role in shaping school culture. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.

Dettmer, P. A., Dyck, N. T., & Thurston, L. P. (1996). Consultation, collaboration, and teamwork for students with special needs (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

DeBuse, M., & Shoemaker, B. J. E. (1993). The changing role of TAG Teachers: An Oregon case study. Roeper Review, 16, 58-61.

DuFour, R., & Eaker, R. (1987). The principal as leader: Two major responsibilities. NASSP Bulletin, 17, 80-89.

Dunn, W. N., & Swierczek, F. W. (1977). Planned organizational change: Toward grounded theory. The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, 13, 135-157.

Englert, C. S., & Tarrant, K. L. (1995). Creating collaborative cultures for educational change. Remedial and Special Education, 16, 325-336.

Englert, C. S., Tarrant, K. L., & Rozendal, M. S. (1993). Educational innovations: Achieving curricular change through collaboration. Education and Treatment of Children, 16, 441-473.

Erchul, W. P. (1993). Question #2: Is collaborative consultation non-directive? In D. Fuchs (Chair), Questioning popular beliefs about collaborative consultation. Symposium presented at the meeting of the Council for Exceptional Children, San Antonio, TX, April 5-9, 1993.

Erchul, W. P., & Conoley, C. W. (1991). Helpful theories to guide counselors' practice of school-based consultation. Elementary School Guidance & Counseling, 25, 204-211.

Friend, M. (1985). Training special educators to be consultants: Considerations for developing programs. Teacher Education and Special Education, 8, 115-120.

Friend, M., & Cook, L. (1996). Interactions: Collaboration skills for school professionals (2<sup>nd</sup> ed.). White Plains, New York: Longman Publishers.

Fuchs, D., & Fuchs, L. S. (1992). Limitations of a feel-good approach to consultation. Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation, 3, 93-97.

Fuchs, D., Fuchs, L., & Bahr, M. W. (1990). Mainstream assistance teams: A scientific basis for the art of consultation. Exceptional Children, 57, 128-139.

Fuchs, D., Fuchs, L. S., Dulan, J., Roberts, H., & Fernstrom, P. (1992). Where is the research on consultation effectiveness? Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation, 3, 151-174.

Fullan, M. (1982). The meaning of educational change. New York: Teachers College Press.

Gable, R. A., Arllen, N. L., & Cook, L. (1993). But - Let's not overlook the ethics of collaboration. Preventing School Failure, 37 (4), 32-36.

Gaddis, M. T. (1978). Organizational and personal constraints on the successful institutionalization of individually guided education. Madison, WI: Wisconsin University. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 141 932)

Gersten, R., Darch, C., Davis, G., & George, N. (1991). Apprenticeship and intensive training of consulting teachers: A naturalistic study. Exceptional Children, 57, 226-236.

Giaquinta, B. (1975). A central issue in the initiation of public school innovations. Journal of Research and Development in Education, 9, 102-114.

Gold, R. F., & Hollander, S. K. (1992). The status of consultant teacher services in special education on Long Island, New York: 1989-1990. Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation, 3, 25-38.

Goldberg, I. (1995). Implementing the consultant teacher model: Interfacing multiple linking relationships and roles with systemic conditions. Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation, 6, 175-190.

Goodlad, J. I. (1984). A place called school: Prospects for the future. New York: McGraw Hill.

Graden, J. L., & Bauer, A. M. (1992). Using a collaborative approach to support students and teachers in inclusive classrooms. In S. Stainback and W. Stainback (Eds.) Curriculum considerations in inclusive classrooms: Facilitating learning for all students (pp. 85-100). Baltimore: Paul H. Brooks.

Greenwood, C. R. (1991). Longitudinal analysis of time, engagement, and achievement in at-risk versus non-risk students. Exceptional Children, 57, 521-535.

Gresham, F. M., & Kendall, G. (1987). School consultation research: Methodological critique and future research directions. School Psychology Review, 16, 306-316.

Guba, E. G., & Lincoln, Y. S. (1994). Competing paradigms in qualitative research. In N. K. Denzin & Y. S. Lincoln (Eds.), Handbook of qualitative research (pp. 105-117). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Guskey, T., & Passaro, P. D. (1994). Teacher efficacy: A study of construct dimensions. American Educational Research Journal, 31, 627-643.

Haight, S. L. (1984). Special education teacher consultant: Idealism versus realism. Exceptional Children, 50, 507-515.

Hall, G. E., & Hord, S. M. (1987). Change in schools: Facilitating the process. Albany State University of New York Press.

Hamilton, M. L. & Richardson, B. (1995). Effects of the culture in two schools on the process and outcomes of staff development. The Elementary School Journal, 95, 367-385.

Hargreaves, A. (1992). Cultures of teaching: A focus for change. In A. Hargreaves & M. G. Fullan (Eds.), Understanding teacher development (pp. 216-240). New York: Teachers College Press.

- Hargreaves, A. (1994). Changing teachers, changing times: Teacher's work and culture in the postmodern age. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Hart, V. (1981). Mainstreaming children with special needs. New York: Longman.
- Havelock, R. G. (1973). The change agent's guide to innovation in education. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Educational Technology Publications.
- Huberman, A., & Miles, M. (1984). Innovation up close – How school improvement works. New York: Plenum Press.
- Idol, L. (1988). A rationale and guidelines for establishing special education consultation programs. Remedial and Special Education, 9, 48-58.
- Idol, L. (1989). The resource/consulting teacher: An integrated model of service delivery. Remedial and Special Education, 10, 38-48.
- Idol, L., Nevin, A., & Paolucci-Whitcomb, P. (1995). The collaborative consultation model. Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation, 6, 347-361.
- Idol-Maestas, L., & Ritter, S. (1985). A follow-up study of resource/consulting teachers: Factors that facilitate and inhibit teacher consultation. Teacher Education and Special Education, 8, 121-131.
- Idol, L., & Paolucci-Whitcomb, P., & Nevin, A. (1986). Collaborative consultation. Rockville, MD: Aspen.
- Illback, R. J., & Zins, J. E. (1984). Organizational interventions in educational settings. In C. E. Maher, R. J. Illback, & J. E. Zins (Eds.), Organizational psychology in the schools (pp. 21-49). Springfield, IL: Charles C. Thomas.
- Individuals with Disabilities Education Act of 1997, 20 U. S. C. §1400 et seq.
- Johnson, D. W., & Johnson, R. T. (1989). Cooperation and competition: Theory and research. Edina, MN: Interaction Book.
- Johnson, N. S. (1990). School consultation: The training needs of teachers and school psychologists. Psychology in the Schools, 27, 51-56.
- Joyce, B., & Weil, M. (1980). Models of teaching. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Karge, B. D., McClure, M., & Patton, P. L. (1995). The success of collaboration resource programs for students with disabilities in grades 6 through 8. Remedial and Special Education, 16, 79-89.

Kearney, C. A., & Durand, V. M. (1992). How prepared are our teachers for mainstreamed classroom setting: A survey of postsecondary schools of education in New York state. Exceptional Children, 59, 6-11.

Kouzes, J. M., & Posner, B. Z. (1995). The leadership challenge. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc.

Kratochwill, T. R., & Bergan, J. R. (1990). Behavioral consultation in applied settings: An individual guide. New York: Plenum Press.

Kratochwill, T. R., & Van Someren, K. R. (1995). Barriers to treatment success in behavioral consultation: Current limitations and future directions. Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation, 6, 125-143.

Laisiter, D. C. (1996, April). Humanitas: Learning Communities that Transform Teachers' Professional Culture. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New York, NY.

Lawrence-Lightfoot, S., & Davis, J. H. (1997). The art and science of portraiture. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass Publishers.

Lazerson, M. (1973). Revisionism and American educational history. Harvard Educational Review, 43, 269-283.

Levine, E. Z. (1997). Using collaborative consultation for learning-disabled and at-risk students. Teaching and Change, 4 (2), 107-121.

Lilly, M. S., & Givens-Olge, L. B. (1981). Teacher consultation: Present, past, and future. Behavioral Disorders, 6, 73-77.

Lippitt, G. L., Langseth, P., & Mossop, J. (1985). Implementing organizational change. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Lipsky, D. K., & Gartner, A. (1998). Determining the 'true' definition of an inclusive classroom. Inclusive Education Programs, 5 (9), 3.

Louis, K. S., & Marks, H. M. (1998). Does professional community affect the classroom? Teachers work and student work in restructuring schools. American Journal of Education, 21, 254-259.

McCracken, G. (1988). The long interview. Sage University Paper Series on Qualitative Research Methods, Vol.13. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

McLeskey, J., Henry, D., & Hodges, D. (1998). Inclusion: Where is it happening? Teaching Exceptional Children, 31 (1), 4-10.

Marks, S. U., & Gersten, R. (1998). Engagement and disengagement between special and general educators: An application of Miles and Huberman's cross-case analysis. Learning Disability Quarterly, 21, 34-56.

Medway, F. J. (1979). How effective is school consultation? A review of recent research. Journal of School Psychology, 17, 275-282.

Meier, D. W. (1996). The big benefits of smallness. Educational Leadership, 54 (1), 12-15.

Merriam, S. (1988). Case study research in education: A qualitative approach. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Mertens, D. M. (1998). Research methods in education and psychology: Integrating diversity with quantitative and qualitative approaches. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Mertens, D. M., & McLaughlin, J. A. (1995). Research methods in special education. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.

Miller, T. L., & Sabatino, D. A. (1978). An evaluation of the teacher consultant model as an approach to mainstreaming. Exceptional Children, 45, 86-91.

Mostert, M. P. (1998). Interprofessional collaboration in schools. Boston: Allyn and Bacon.

Murphy, J., & Louis, K. S. (Eds.). (1994). Reshaping the principalship: Insights from transformational efforts. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

National Center for Education Statistics (January 28, 1999). Teacher quality: A report on teacher preparation and qualifications of public school teachers. (NCES Publication at <http://nces.ed.gov.Pressrelease/tq1.html>) Washington DC: U.S. Department of Education.

Neel, R. S. (1981). How to put the consultant to work in consulting teaching. Behavioral Disorders, 6, 78-81.

National Certification and Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) (1995). NCATE guidelines: Curriculum guidelines for advanced programs in educational leadership for principals, superintendents, curriculum directors, and supervisors. Alexandria, VA: The

Educational Leadership Constituent Council, c/o Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.

Nevin, A. I., Thousand, J. S., Paolucci-Whitcomb, P., & Villa, R. (1990). Collaborative consultation: Empowering public school personnel to provide heterogeneous schooling for all - - or who rang that bell? Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation, 1, 41-67.

O'Neill, R., Williams, R., Sprague, J. R., Horner, R. H., & Albin, R. W. (1993). Providing support for teachers working with students with severe problem behaviors: A model for providing consulting support within school districts. Education and Treatment of Children, 16 (1) 66-89.

Osborne, A. G., Jr. & Dimattia, P. (1994). The IDEA's least restrictive environment mandate: Legal implications. Exceptional Children, 61, 6-14.

Pajares, F. (1992). Teachers' beliefs and educational research: Cleaning up a messy construct. Review of Educational Research, 62, 307-332.

Paolucci-Whitcomb, P., & Nevin, A. (1985). Preparing consulting teachers through a collaborative approach between university faculty and field-based consulting teachers. Teacher Education and Special Education, 8, 132-143.

Patton, M. Q. (1990). Qualitative evaluation and research methods. Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Paulu, N. (April, 1998). Teachers leading the way: Voices from the National Teacher Forum. Washington DC: U. S. Department of Education.

Peck, C. A., & Furman, G. C. (1992). Qualitative research in special education: An evaluative review. In R. Gaylord-Ross (Ed.), Issues and research in special education (Vol. 2, pp. 1-42). New York: Teachers College Press.

Phillips, V., & McCullough, L. (1990). Consultation-based programming: Instituting the collaborative ethic in schools. Exceptional Children, 56, 291-304.

Pryzwanski, W. B., & Noblit, G. W. (1990). Understanding and improving consultation practice: The qualitative case study approach. Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation, 1, 293-307.

Pugach, M. C. (1988). The consulting teacher in the context of educational reform. Exceptional Children, 55, 273-275.

Pugach, M. C., & Johnson, L. (1995). Collaborative practitioners: Collaborative schools. Denver: Love.

Robbins, J. R., & Gutkin, T. B. (1994). Consultee and client remedial and preventive outcomes following consultation: Some mixed empirical results and directions for future researchers. Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation, 5 (2), 149-167.

Rosenfield, S. (1995). The practice of instructional consultation. Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation, 6, 317-327.

Salisbury, C. L. & Smith, B. J. (1993). Effective practices for preparing young children with disabilities for school. Reston, VA: Council for Exceptional Children (ERIC Clearinghouse on Disabilities and Gifted Education, ED 358675).

Sarason, S. B. (1996). Revisiting "The culture of the school and the problem of change." New York: Teachers College Record.

Schulte, A. C., Osborne, S. S., & McKinney, J. D. (1990). Academic outcomes for students with learning disabilities in consultation and resource programs. Exceptional Children, 57, 162-172.

Schumaker, J. B., & Deshler, D. D. (1992). Validation of learning strategy interventions for students with LD: Results of programmatic research effort. In B. Y. L. Wong (Ed.), Contemporary intervention research in learning disabilities: An international perspective (pp. 22-46). New York: Springer-Verlag.

Schumm, J. S., Vaughn, S., Haager, D., McDowell, J., Rothlein, L., & Saumell, L. (1995). General education teacher planning: What can students with learning disabilities expect? Exceptional Children, 61, 335-352.

Sheridan, S. M., Kratochwill, T. R., & Elliott, S. N. (1990). Behavioral consultation with parents and teachers: Delivering treatment for socially withdrawn children at home and school. School Psychology Review, 19, 33-52.

Sheridan, S. M., Welch, M., & Orme, S. F. (1996). Is consultation effective? A review of outcome research. Remedial and Special Education, 17 (6), 341-354.

Showers, B. (1990). Aiming for superior classroom instruction for all children: A comprehensive staff development model. Remedial and Special Education, 11 (3), 35-39.

Solomon, R. P. (1996). Inclusion in practice: The Baltimore City Public Schools consulting teacher model: Supporting inclusion from the inside out. Journal of Staff Development, 17(3), 32-33.

Stainback, S., & Stainback, W. (1988). Understanding and conducting qualitative research. Reston, VA: The Council for Exceptional Children.

Stake, R. E. (1995). The art of case study research. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Stephens, M., & Moskowitz, J. (1997). Overview of teacher education policy and practice: Results of the exploratory survey. In From College to First-Year Teaching: How the United States Compares to Several Other Countries (Chapter 2). Washington D.C.: Department of Education.

Sugai, G. M., & Tindal, G. A. (1993). Effective school consultation: An interactive approach. Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole Publishing.

Tharp, R. G., & Wetzel, R. J. (1969). Behavioral modification in the natural environment. New York: Academic Press.

Thousand, J. S., & Villa, R. A. (1989). Enhancing success in heterogeneous schools. In S. Stainback & W. Stainback (Eds.), Educating all students in the mainstream of regular education (pp. 89-103). Baltimore: Brooks.

Vargo, S. (1998). Consulting teacher-to-teacher. Teaching Exceptional Children, 30(3), 54-55.

Villa, R. A., Thousand, J. S., & Nevin, A. I., & Malgeri, C. (1996). Instilling collaboration for inclusive schooling as a way of doing business in public schools. Remedial and Special Education, 17, 169-181.

Voltz, D. L., Elliott, R. N., & Harris, W. B. (1995). Promising practices in facilitating collaboration between resource room teachers and general education teachers, Learning Disabilities Research and Practice, 10, 129-136.

Wade, S. E., Welch, M., & Jensen, J. B. (1994). Teacher receptivity to collaboration: Levels of interest, types of concern, and school characteristics as variables contributing to successful implementation. Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation, 5, 177-209.

Walther-Thomas, C. S. (1997) Co-teaching experiences: The benefits and problems that teachers and principals report over time. Journal of Learning Disabilities, 30, 395-407.

Walther-Thomas, C. S., Bryant, M., & Land, S. (1996). Planning for effective co-teaching: The key to successful inclusion. Remedial and Special Education, 17, 255-265.

Wellins, R., Bryham, W., & Wilson, J. (1991). Empowered teams: Creating self-directed work groups that improve quality, productivity, and participation. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

West, F. J., & Idol, L. (1987). School consultation (Part I): An interdisciplinary perspective on theory, models, and research. Journal of Learning Disabilities, 20, 388-408.

West, F. J., & Idol, L. (1990). Collaborative consultation in the education of mildly handicapped and at-risk students. Remedial and Special Education, 11, 22-31.

Whittaker, C. R. & Taylor, L. S. (1995). Do resource room teachers have sufficient planning time? Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation, 6, 247-256.

Wiedmeyer, D., & Lehman, J. (1991). The "House Plan" approach to collaborative teaching and consultation. Teaching Exceptional Children, 23 (3), 6-10.

Witt, J. C., Gresham, F. M., & Noell, G. H. (1996). What's behavioral about behavioral consultation? Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation, 7, 327-344.

Wood, M. (1998). Whose job is it anyway? Educational roles in inclusion. Exceptional Children, 64, 181-195.

York, J., & Vandercook, T. (1990). Strategies for achieving an integrated education for middle school students with severe disabilities. Remedial and Special Education, 11 (5), 6-16.

Zins, J. E., & Illback, R. J. (1995). Consulting to facilitate planned organizational change in schools. Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation, 6, 237-245.

## Appendix A

### Sample Interview Reminder Note

Virginia Tech  
202 East Eggleston  
Blacksburg, VA 24061-0302

Dear \_\_\_\_\_:

Thank you for agreeing to assist me in my studies. I know how valuable your time is as a principal, and you may be assured that the time I spend with you is very important to me. I hope to disseminate important information to principals from the data that I gather through talking with you and your teachers and viewing your various documents.

On \_\_\_\_\_, I plan to be in your school building for an interview with you at 1:00. Our conversation will focus on what teacher partnerships between general and special education consisted of for you as a teacher, what administrative supports assisted you or would have assisted you, and what your school's general/special education partnerships consist of currently. Following our conversation, I would be grateful for the chance to review documents such as teacher handbooks, administrative and school memos, meeting minutes, and policy manuals that may assist me in understanding the administrative function for the collaborative process in your building. Any documents that you have gathered ahead of time will be greatly appreciated, but we will quite possibly determine other documents that may be pertinent during our conversation.

Your teacher team \_\_\_\_\_ and \_\_\_\_\_, and I plan to meet at 2:15 for an interview concerning teacher partnerships. The interviews with you and with the team should take approximately one hour each. They will be audiotaped with each party's approval, and I will transcribe them for use in my dissertation. All information gleaned from the interviews will be kept strictly confidential. Any identifying information will be kept in locked storage and disposed of after completion of the study.

Please find enclosed a demographics survey for you to fill out.

Thank you for agreeing to give of your time. If you or your teachers have any questions or need to contact me, I can be reached at (540) 961-3543 or by e-mail at [pburdett@vt.edu](mailto:pburdett@vt.edu).

Sincerely,

Paula Burdette

Encl.  
demographics survey  
teacher team reminder letter

Appendix B

Principal's Demographics Survey

Principal's Demographics Survey

Please indicate the one answer that best describes your circumstance for each question.

1. What is your age?  
A Under 25                      C 35-49  
B 25-34                         D 50 or over
  
2. Including this year, how many years of full-time principalship experience have you had?  
\_\_\_\_\_
  
3. How many of these years have been experienced at your present school site? (This answer may be the same as #2.)  
\_\_\_\_\_
  
4. How many years have you worked in this division? \_\_\_\_\_
  
5. In total, how many years did you work as a teacher? \_\_\_\_\_
  
6. At what level was the majority of your experience as a teacher? \_\_\_\_\_
  
7. If applicable, what subjects have you taught? \_\_\_\_\_
  
8. What other teaching experiences did you have? \_\_\_\_\_
  
9. How many years did you work as a teacher in a successful or unsuccessful partnership between a general and special educator?  
\_\_\_\_\_
  
10. What was the size of the school (approximate student body #) where you gained the majority of your experience in a teacher partnership?  
\_\_\_\_\_
  
11. In all, how long were teacher partnerships between general and special educators employed before you were involved in them?  
\_\_\_\_\_



- Orthopedic Impairments (number \_\_\_\_\_)  
What environment?  
 Regular Class    Resource Room    Separate Class
- Autism (number \_\_\_\_\_)  
What environment?  
 Regular Class    Resource Room    Separate Class
- Emotional Disturbance (number \_\_\_\_\_)  
What environment?  
 Regular Class    Resource Room    Separate Class
- Traumatic Brain Injury (number \_\_\_\_\_)  
What environment?  
 Regular Class    Resource Room    Separate Class
- Sensory Impairments (number \_\_\_\_\_)  
What environment?  
 Regular Class    Resource Room    Separate Class
- \*Other Health Impaired (number \_\_\_\_\_) \*served under IDEA/special education  
What environment?  
 Regular Class    Resource Room    Separate Class
- Developmentally Delayed (number \_\_\_\_\_)  
 Regular Class    Resource Room    Separate Class
20. How many of your special education teachers function in each of the following categories? (Please count each of your teachers in only one function)
- \_\_\_\_\_ Self-Contained Class
- \_\_\_\_\_ Resource Room
- \_\_\_\_\_ Resource Room / Consulting Teacher
- \_\_\_\_\_ Resource Room / Co-Teacher in the Regular Class
- \_\_\_\_\_ Co-Teacher in the Regular Class
- \_\_\_\_\_ Consulting Teacher
- \_\_\_\_\_ Other, please explain \_\_\_\_\_

Appendix C

Ethics Protocol / Participants' Release Agreement

(To be read by interviewer before the beginning of the interview. One copy will be left with the respondent, and one copy will be signed and kept by the interviewer.)

I am the researcher on the project entitled: Administrative support of cooperative models between general and special educators. This project is part of my doctoral work through the Department of Educational Leadership and Policy Studies at Virginia Tech. I may be contacted at (540) 231-5925 or [pburdett@vt.edu](mailto:pburdett@vt.edu) if you should have any questions.

Thank you for your willingness to participate in this research project. Your participation is important to my doctoral studies and is very much appreciated. Before we start the interview, I would like to reassure you that as a participant in this project you have several definite rights.

First, your participation in this interview is entirely voluntary.

You are free to refuse to answer any question at any time.

You are free to withdraw from the interview at any time.

This interview will be kept strictly confidential and will be available only to members of the research team, which includes my professors and myself.

Excerpts of this interview may be made part of the final research report, but under no circumstance will your name or identifying characteristics be included in this report.

I would be grateful if you would sign this form to show that I have read you its contents.

\_\_\_\_\_ signed

\_\_\_\_\_ printed

\_\_\_\_\_ dated

I would be happy to furnish you with a copy of the final dissertation document. Would you like one?

YES            NO

Address if you desire a copy of the final dissertation.

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

Appendix D  
Principal Questionnaire

1. Tell me about the teaching partnerships between general and special education in which you worked as a teacher.

Prompts:

For what reason were these partnerships first implemented?

What was your caseload?

What administrative supports assisted you or would have been beneficial?

If you had been the principal in that building, what supports would you have given to the teachers in support of partnerships between general and special education?

How did you evaluate the appropriateness of the IEP?

How did you ensure IEP compliance?

2. Tell me about the teacher partnerships at your school now and your administrative function related to them.

Prompts:

Are these partnerships formalized or are they loosely formed?

When, how, and why were these partnerships initiated?

How are students with disabilities placed in general settings?

Who decides which students with disabilities go to which teachers? How? When?

What ratio of special to gen ed students does the typical general ed teacher have?

What are these students like?

How many students do each of your special ed teachers serve?

How are teacher teams trained for their positions?

How do you supervise partnerships between general and special ed teachers?

How do you evaluate partnerships?

How do you evaluate IEP appropriateness?

How do you ensure IEP compliance?

How are teacher teams' classrooms financed?

In what ways do you enhance the school climate to support partnerships?

How have you set up prereferral and referral programs in support of partnerships?

3. What barriers do you find when working to support your teacher partnerships?

## Teacher Team Questionnaire

1. How well and in what ways does your principal understand and support your needs as teacher partners?

2. How could this be improved upon?

How is the general education teacher's list of students generated?

How are special education placements made?

How are students' with disabilities schedules made?

How is your time scheduled?

How are you assessed as a team?

What does your principal do to support your efforts as a team to educate special education students in the settings in which they are placed? (resources, technology, supplementary aids and services)

How have you been trained for your role in a cooperative situation?

How would you describe the climate in your school especially related to your collaborative situation? How has the principal tried to develop a collaborative climate?

Appendix E

Demographics Information for Each School and Principal

<b>School Principal</b>	<b>Principal Age</b>	<b>Teacher Training/ Highest degree earned</b>	<b>Number of years taught in partnership/Total years taught</b>	<b>Level of majority of teaching/ subjects taught</b>	<b>Number of years as principal/Years as principal at current site</b>	<b>Location of current school</b>	<b>Special education teachers/ General education teachers</b>	<b>Percentage of free or reduced lunches</b>
<b>Ocean Elementary Ms. Oakes</b>	35-49	Special Education/ Master's plus hours	9 / 22	Elementary/ Emotional Disturbance	1 / 1	Suburban	3 / 25	3%
<b>Buchanan Elementary Mr. Baker</b>	35-49	General Education/ Master's	5 / 22	High School/ P.E. & Health	2 / 2	Small town	5 / 22	32%
<b>Opportunity Elementary Mr. Oliver</b>	35-49	General Education/ Master's	5 / 9	High School/ Music	13 / 12	Rural	4 / 10	24%
<b>Civil Elementary Mr. Cisco</b>	35-49	General Education/ Master's	8 / 10	High School/ Math	12 / 5	Small town	5 / 22	20.5%
<b>Link Elementary Ms. Linkous</b>	35-49	General Education/ Master's	4 / 9	Elementary/ English as a Second Language	2 + 10 years in central office administration / 2	Rural	1.5 / 13	38%
<b>Kent Elementary Mr. King</b>	35-49	General Education/ Doctorate	7 / 1	High School/ English & Journalism	13 / 5	Small town	4 / 24	35%

<b>School Principal</b>	<b>Number of special education students / Total students</b>	<b>Percentage of special education students</b>	<b>SLD number / Typical environment</b>	<b>MR severity – Number - Typical environment</b>	<b>Multiple disabilities number / Typical environment</b>	<b>Orthopedic impairments number / Typical environments</b>
<b>Ocean Elementary Ms. Oakes Buchanan</b>	59 / 529	11%	40/Resource room	0	1/Regular	0
<b>Mr. Baker</b>	44 / 361	12%	17/Resource room	Mild-3-separate class Moderate-1-separate class	0	0
<b>Opportunity Elementary Mr. Oliver</b>	18 / 190	9.5%	7/Resource room	Mild-1-regular class Moderate-1-regular class Severe-4-separate class	0	0
<b>Civil Elementary Mr. Cisco</b>	28 / 351	7.9% including preschool	15/Resource room	0	1/Separate preschool class	2/Separate preschool class
<b>Link Elementary Ms. Linkous</b>	31 / 271	11.4%	29/Resource room	0	0	0
<b>Kent Elementary Mr. King</b>	59 / 470	12.5%	17/Resource room	Mild-2-regular class Moderate-1-regular class Severe-1-regular class	2/Regular class	1/Regular class

<b>School Principal</b>	<b>Autism / Typical environment</b>	<b>Emotional and behavioral disorder / Typical environment</b>	<b>Traumatic brain injury / Typical environment</b>	<b>Sensory impairment / Typical environment</b>	<b>Other health impairments / Typical environment</b>	<b>Developmental delay / Typical environment</b>	<b>Special education teachers' function</b>
<b>Ocean Elementary Ms. Oakes</b>	1/Regular class	15/Resource room	0	0	0	2/Regular class	3-Resource
<b>Buchanan Elementary Mr. Baker</b>	0	10/Resource room	0	0	13/Resource room	0	1-Self-contained 4-Resource /Consulting
<b>Opportunity Elementary Mr. Oliver</b>	0	0	0	2/Regular class	1/Regular class	4/Regular class	1-Self-contained 1-Resource /consulting 2-Co-teach in regular class
<b>Civil Elementary Mr. Cisco</b>	0	0	0	0	5/Resource room	5/Resource room	1-self-contained 2-Resource 1-Resource /consulting 1-Co-teach in regular class
<b>Link Elementary Ms. Linkous</b>	0	2/Resource room	0	0	0	0	.5-Resource 1-Resource /consulting
<b>Kent Elementary Mr. King</b>	3/Regular class	4/Regular class	1/Regular class	1/Regular class	16/Regular class	10/Regular class	3-Co-teach in regular class 1-Consulting

## Appendix F

### Educational Leadership Domains/Themes

Strategic Leadership	The knowledge, skills, and attributes to: develop a shared vision and a strategic plan; motivate, problem-solve; make decisions, initiate, manage, and evaluate change; follow a professional code of ethics and values; conduct needs assessments; assess programs, engage staff in the study of best practices.
Instructional Leadership	The knowledge, skills, and attributes to: collaboratively create a positive school culture; base curriculum on research, assess student progress; use various staffing patterns, student grouping, scheduling, and facilities design in the support of desired student outcomes; supervise and appraise instructional and non-instructional staff; formulate a self-development plan; recruit with attention to equity; provide student personnel services such as counseling and health and welfare through working with parents and the community.
Organizational Leadership	The knowledge, skills, and attributes to: establish operational plans that apply a systems perspective; use group processes to define roles, delegate, monitor, and assess activities; use appropriate interpersonal skills such as sensitivity, respect, tact, trustworthiness, written, verbal, and nonverbal communication, conflict management; identify fiscal and nonfiscal resources; acquire assets.
Political and Community Leadership	The knowledge, skills, and attributes to: analyze community and district power structures; articulate a vision; communicate with diverse people, involve family and community in program planning and assessment processes; apply federal and state regulations, case law, and common law; make decisions based on moral implications of policy options and political strategies.

Modified from National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) Guidelines (1995).

### Special Education Domains/Themes

Exceptional Learners	Attentive to unique educational needs requiring the extraordinary response of specialized instruction; learner characteristics.
Equity Under Law	Committed to informed implementation of disability law, public policies, and fiscal and nonfiscal resource options that may include training, personnel, materials, and physical space.
Effective Programming	Skilled at supervising and evaluating academic, social, functional, and behavioral programs in general and individualized programming in particular. Provides and ensures educational programming designed to produce positive student outcomes that may include prereferral and referral processes, early identification, scheduling, attention to caseload, individual educational planning, and assessment of progress.
Productive Partnerships	Effective in communicating, negotiating, and collaborating with others, including within the school, with parents and the community, and central office, on behalf of students with disabilities.

Adapted from Crockett's (in press) special education domains.

## PAULA J. BURDETTE

### EXPERIENCE

---

Summer 1997 Council for Exceptional Children Reston, VA  
*Intern in Policy Department*

Worked on a national team writing 3 grant proposals

- Analyzed and summarized Congressional bills for dissemination
- Consulted with diverse population through Ask ERIC

1989-1996 Western Heights School District Oklahoma City, OK  
*Lead Teacher/Consultant (LD, EMH, & Cross-categorical)*

- Taught individualized curriculum and led IEP/triennial evaluations.
- Consulted at schools with specialized academics and behavioral issues.
- Counseled superintendent with Jr. High/Middle School transitions and technology-upgrade bond issue election and ensuing retrofit of buildings

1988-1989 Dale Rogers Training Center Oklahoma City, OK  
*Teacher of the Trainable Mentally Handicapped*

- Instructed severe/profound students in all subjects
- Began job coach program including training associates
- Managed staffings with parents, counselors, and administrators

1987-1988 Adams Elementary Enid, OK  
*Teacher of the Educable Mentally Handicapped*

- Taught basic skills
- Led staffings with parents and related service providers

### EDUCATION

---

1996-1999 Virginia Polytechnic Institute & State Univ. Blacksburg, VA  
Ph.D candidate, Special Education Administration

1989-1992 University of Central Oklahoma Edmond, OK  
M.Ed. in Special Education

1982-1987 Oklahoma State University Stillwater, OK  
B.S. in Special/Elementary Education

### OTHER EXPERIENCE

---

1998-present Advise on compliance and best practice issues as an independent IEP consultant for SoftPubs. Blacksburg, VA

August 1996-May 1997 Internship Special Services Director and Elementary Principal. Coordinated staff development workshops, consulted with teachers concerning all aspects of special education. Giles

Co., VA

Aug. 1996-May 1997 Teaching Assistant for Family Child Development professor. Coordinate infusion of Special Education into program. Consult with undergraduate students concerning special needs children in their practicums. Co-taught "Working with Families and Children." VA Tech

Aug. 1996-May 1997 Consultant's assistant with Southwest Virginia's Training and Technical Assistance Center. Coordinate workshops and participate in school-based consultations as a graduate assistant. Blacksburg, VA

1995-1996 Training in Traumatic Brain Disorder, Multiple Disabilities, Deaf and Blind, and Autism. One-year training program for Inclusive Environments Oklahoma University Affiliated Programs.

#### PRESENTATIONS AND PUBLICATIONS

---

"An Exploration of Consultation Approaches and Implementation in Heterogeneous Classrooms" In press. Education and Training in Mental Retardation and Developmental Disabilities, December 1999.

"Empowerment: What is it and Why do We Need It?" Co-authored paper accepted for publication with revisions in Administration in Society, March 1999.

"An Exploration of Consultation Approaches and Implementation in Heterogeneous Classrooms" March 1999. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Virginia Education Research Association, Richmond, VA.

"An Exploration of Consultation Approaches and Implementation in Heterogeneous Classrooms" February 1999. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Eastern Education Research Association, Hilton Head, SC.

"An Exploration of Consultation Approaches and Implementation in Heterogeneous Classrooms" February 1999. Paper presented at the Pacific Rim Conference on Disabilities, Honolulu, Hawaii.

"An Exploration of Consultation Approaches and Implementation in Heterogeneous Classrooms" February 1999. Paper presented at the International Conference on Mental Retardation and Other Developmental Disabilities, Maui, Hawaii.

"Internships in Leadership Preparation: Research Issues" (2<sup>nd</sup> author) November 1998 Paper presented at the Southern Regional Council on Educational Administration, Savannah, GA.

"Internships as an Integral Part of Preservice Training for School Leaders"

February 1998. Paper co-presented at the Annual Meeting of the Eastern Education Research Association, Tampa, FL.

“Requirements of the IDEA '97: Functional Behavior Assessment” October 1997, VA Tech principal preparation class and Giles County Special Education staff development.

“Readings About Secondary Administrators’ Role in Special and Gifted Education” ERICEC minibibliography EB19.  
<http://www.cec.sped.org/ericec/digests.htm>

“Inclusion: It’s Coming” panel presentation, April 1996, CEC chapter meeting, Oklahoma City, OK.

“The Use of Directed Reading Activities with Mentally Retarded Elementary Students” October 1993, Oklahoma Federation of Council for Exceptional Children Fall meeting.

“Modalities for Special Needs Students” October 1992, Council Grove Elementary, Western Heights Public Schools, Fall professional development.

Date prepared: June 1999