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Small Scale Media Methods for Inservice Planning: Models and Approaches for Attitude Change  
with Classroom Teachers of Integrated Special Needs Pupils

G. Robert McNutt

A Thesis  
in  
The Department  
of  
Education

Presented in Partial Fulfilment of the Requirements  
for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy at  
Concordia University  
Montreal, Quebec, Canada

January 1992

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## ABSTRACT

Small Scale Media Methods for Inservice Planning: Models and Approaches for Attitude Change with Classroom Teachers of Integrated Special Needs Pupils

G. Robert McNutt, Ph.D.

Concordia University, 1992

This project was prompted by the 1986 New Brunswick governmental edict integrating special needs children from hospitals, shelters and designated classrooms into regular classes.

Teachers receiving these children reported little background, training or preparation. The size, nature and manner of this change, mixed with folklore and rumour, produced high levels of concern. Teachers expressed fright and antagonism.

Relevant literature on mainstreaming outside this jurisdiction was consulted. Consideration of innovation, as well as integration, developed background for influencing attitudes.

One idea suggested attitudes could be processed as though they were skills. A skills training model was modified accordingly and one aspect tested. A videotape of selected children demonstrating success in regular classes was shown to two of four groups in education courses and post-test responses analyzed.

Related aspects arose: (1) collection of reactions to the tape and (2) whether attitudes and concerns of New Brunswick teachers would parallel those elsewhere.

New Brunswick attitudes towards integration did match other studies. With reservations

about bias, viewers liked the tape and the concept of videotaped experiences. The questionnaire, however, revealed no useful differences between viewing and nonviewing groups.

This study examined an existing educational problem, proposed a model to treat one aspect, tested one segment and presented conclusions.

It produced two particularly gratifying results. First was the identification of a wealth of material on integration. The matter of special needs children is receiving intense examination--a level more profitable had it been reached prior to implementation.

The more important result was the expressed desire to help children achieve their best, even in the face of daunting difficulties. With the growing complications education experiences, this deserves to be supported and encouraged.

## PREFACE

### Selected Quotations: Attitude, Integration and Innovation

...there can be no significant innovation in education that does not have at its centre the attitudes of teachers, and it is an illusion to think otherwise. The beliefs, feelings and assumptions of teachers are the air of a learning environment; they determine the quality of life within it (Postman & Weingartner, 1969, p. 33).

...attitudes seem best modified when the shift is generated from within the individual as a result of new environmental experiences, such as information about the handicapped, as well as direct experience with them. Such change may be facilitated if the professional group affiliation is supportive and, as such, group affiliation acts as a facilitator of attitude change...programs which not only provide information and experience but also include teachers in the decision making process would foster feelings of greater self-responsibility and thereby insure more effective transition into integration (Harasymiw, 1976, p. 394).

...it is possible that the sine qua non will be the human factor. Consider the concept of the teacher who perceives himself to be quite competent having earned the respect of colleagues and is suddenly confronted with the thought of failure. No program will succeed unless we attempt to share in the feelings or try to understand the fears of teachers so that we can provide them with ongoing supports, and otherwise create a school environment that will guarantee a reasonable degree of success (Budnick, 1981, p. 4).

...the manner in which the regular classroom teacher responds to the special child's needs may be a far more potent variable in ultimately determining the success of mainstreaming than any administrative or curricular strategy (Larrivee, 1981, p. 26).

...lack of conclusive results in defining the crucial variables affecting development of a positive attitude toward mainstreaming provides evidence that further examination of teacher attitude is warranted (Larrivee, 1981, p.35).

...as the review of the literature indicates, teacher attitudes towards the handicapped and toward mainstreaming are not overwhelmingly supportive. Training programs aimed at developing knowledge, skills and positive attitudes needed for effective integration of handicapped learners are therefore crucial (Leyser,1984, p. 253).

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## CHAPTER I

### Introduction

#### Background of Problem

The movement of children with special needs into the public schools of the province of New Brunswick had been slowly evolving from one set of circumstances to another. For years individual school districts had been dealing with their responsibilities toward children with special needs by moving some of them from total segregation into sheltered classes within school buildings, then to inclusion in a few classes and, for a few pupils, into total integration with other students. Thus there was wide variation in the treatment special children have received in different districts. This situation was terminated in 1987.

In April of that year the legislature of the Province of New Brunswick amended the provisions of the act governing the public schools of the province by proclaiming Bill 85. Among other considerations, this repealed the Auxiliary Classes Act, chapter A-19 of the Revised Statutes, 1973. This was a major change.

Bill 85 passed through the legislature in 1986 and was proclaimed in 1987. The new Schools Act was proclaimed in 1990.

Bill 85 comprised governmental intentions of establishing a program which would end the established practice of categorizing pupils by degree of disability. The mandatory segregation of exceptional pupils would stop. All exceptional pupils would be placed in regular classrooms "...to the extent that is considered practicable by the Board having a due regard for the educational needs of all pupils" (Bill 85, An act to amend the schools act, 1986, 45,(2)(1).

The Minister of Education reaffirmed the provincial position in response to the teachers' association brief which reacted to the department's 1986 working paper supporting Bill 85.

The intent of Bill 85 is to insure every child has the right to the educational program that is based on the results of continuous assessment and which includes a plan containing specific objectives and recommendations for educational services that meet the needs of that child (Ouellet, J.P., NBTA News, April 25, 1988, p. 4).

The position of the provincial teachers's association has been supportive of the general principles behind Bill 85, but critical of the implementation process and the resulting structures. One example is the difference between the government funding level for integration based on five percent of the student population and the association's claim that a more accurate need is between 12 and 17 percent (NBTA News, May 18, 1987, p. 2).

Another view of the department's philosophic position can be obtained from the level of agreement and support expressed in the NBTA philosophy statement and staffing model which, while disagreeing with some, endorses many of the provisions proposed by the department.

In particular, the NBTA recognizes the rights of all exceptional children to be provided with (a) publicly supported educational programs, (b) educational programs designed and taught according to the various individual needs of these children, (c) the most suitably trained and qualified teachers possible and (d) the provision of education in the most appropriate setting as defined by the child's needs and with equal due regard for the needs of the all other children within that setting. Furthermore, the New Brunswick Teachers' Association includes in its definition of exceptional children all those children requiring special education and related services if they are to realize their full human

potential (Brief to the legislative committee on social policy development sub-committee, NBTA News, May 18, 1987, p. 4.).

Another expression of the government's position, and the level of the association's agreement with the basic conviction, can be found in the conclusion of that association's public reaction to the department's working paper on school integration.

The NBTA is of the opinion that it will not serve the best interests of pupils and teachers to dwell on the inadequacy of the working paper. What is required is the preparation of a positive philosophy and a realistic implementation plan. The philosophy must include defensible definitions of "exceptionality", "integration", "least restrictive environment" (or better still, "most enhancing environment") and the other commonly used but rarely understood special education terms. The implementation plan should not be restricted to a single model (that model which has been most closely identified with the philosophy of The Canadian Association for Community Living.)...An acceptable program should be designed to provide services to a wide range of exceptional pupils in a flexible design that considers the needs of all pupils. Concomitantly, it must reflect the resources currently available to school districts and provide the necessary resources to effect integration (NBTA News, May 18, 1987, p. 2).

A later viewpoint on the governmental position, stating a mixture of support and reservation concerning the intentions underlying Bill 85, is presented in the 1989 report which followed a review of integration carried out by a sub-committee of the provincial legislature.

After receiving more than 250 briefs during its public meetings throughout the province, the committee concluded that:

...Bill 85 has created a fundamental change in the educational system of New Brunswick...The committee, however, came to realize that the system was not adequately prepared for these giant steps in integration. The precipitous implementation of this process in 1987 raised high hopes for parents and children without providing adequate planning, funding, resources, training and staff (Conclusions, The Sixth Report of the Special Committee on Social Policy Development to the Second Session of the Fifty-first Legislature, October 31, 1989).

The recommendations from the legislature's sub-committee are presented below as concluding background on the governmental position on integration in the schools of the province.

#### RECOMMENDATIONS

1. In view of the overwhelming province-wide support for the concept of integration, the Committee recommends:

that the Government of New Brunswick reaffirm its commitment to Bill 85, without any changes in the Schools Act at this time, and furthermore that the students identified in the said act (Section 1.1) be provided with appropriate educational services throughout New Brunswick.

2. Because discrepancies in the interpretation and implementation of Bill 85 were evident during the public hearings, the Committee recommends:

that the Minister of Education reconcile the differences in the interpretation and implementation of Bill 85 and provide strong and clear directives to all School Boards regarding the

processes required to fulfil the spirit and intent of the said Bill; and furthermore that the Minister review and bring into effect modifications or revisions in the guidelines and/or statement(s) of principles to interpret Bill 85 consistently to ensure the rights to education for all children in New Brunswick.

3. In response to the universal call for increased funding for integration, the committee recommends:

that the Minister of Education immediately address the financial needs of individual Boards to meet the requirements of implementing Bill 85. The Committee's final report will contain a number of additional recommendations with financial implications.

4. Throughout the hearings, the Committee heard repeatedly of the need for additional training for teachers, both pre-service and in-service, to meet the challenges of integration. The Committee recommends:

that the Minister of Education consult immediately with the Minister of Advanced Education and Training and the institutions of post-secondary education in New Brunswick to improve their programs to enable them to better prepare teachers for the education of exceptional students.

Furthermore, the Committee recommends that the Minister of Education address the need for increased professional development for teachers through in-service programs, and primarily at the local level.

5. In the course of the public hearings and the school visits, the Committee became aware of the existence in New Brunswick of fears and misconceptions concerning integration. Therefore the Committee recommends:

that the Minister of Education provide strong leadership towards the full implementation of Bill 85 in every District by promoting the positive aspects of integration, the successes of the process and the expectations for the future good of all students and of society in general

(Recommendations, The Sixth Report of the Special Committee on Social Policy Development to the Second Session of the Fifty-first Legislature, October 31, 1989).

#### Particular Amendments to The Schools Act

As noted earlier, the Schools Act amended with the provisions of Bill 85 was proclaimed in 1990. Section 1 of the Act was amended by adding after section 1 the following:

1.1 Where qualified persons employed by or acting as agents of a school board determine that the behavioural, communicational, intellectual, physical, perceptual or multiple exceptionalities of a person are such that a special education program is considered by them to be necessary for that person, that person shall be an exceptional pupil for the purposes of this act (Bill 85, An act to amend the schools act, 1986).

The wording of the amendment has become section 52(3) of the Schools Act assented to on June 20, 1990.

Section 5 of the Act was amended by adding after subsection (1) the following:

5(1.1) Notwithstanding the Age of Majority Act, the minister shall provide free school privileges to persons from three to twenty-one years of age inclusive who are exceptional pupils receiving special education programs and services that would, before the commencement of this subsection, have been provided under the authority of the Auxiliary Classes Act

(Bill 85, An act to amend the schools act, 1986).

The wording of this amendment was slightly modified for the Schools Act of 1990 which states:

The Minister shall provide free school privileges to persons from three to twenty-one years of age inclusive who are exceptional pupils receiving special education programs and services that would have been provided under the authority of the Auxiliary Classes Act (Section 52(2), The Schools Act, 1990).

The section of the current act which enables the new situation of integration reads as follows:

A school board shall place exceptional pupils such that they receive special education programs and services in circumstances where exceptional pupils can participate with pupils who are not exceptional pupils within regular classroom settings to the extent that is considered practicable by the school board having due regard for the educational needs of all pupils (Section 53(4), The Schools Act, 1990).

### Implications

The changes produced meant that all special purpose facilities, services and classes would close and exceptional children would be placed in regular classrooms with regular children and regular classroom teachers "...to the extent considered practicable by the school

board having due regard for the educational needs of all pupils" (Section 53(4), The Schools Act, 1990).

While preparations for this change had been underway for some time, the realization that exceptional children would now be in regular classes with regular teachers with little or no training for them was startling. Evidence for this can be found in the 1988 NBTA Survey. In addition, through a variety of public and private settings, parents of nonexceptional children, as well as teachers, expressed the feeling that they had received insufficient warning and generally reacted with apprehension, if not fear and anger. Stories of bizarre situations and behaviours which could be expected from this integration were common in the province. The knowledge that local boards had considerable flexibility, particularly in the speed and degree of implementation, to deal with this situation was not as widely expressed. Some boards were unprepared for this responsibility while others had been involved in special programs which would make the transition to the new system less troublesome. This variation added to the general feeling of concern expressed when it was realized that the "fast track" to integration [mainstreaming] had become an established reality in the schools of the province.

#### The Terms "Integration" and "Mainstreaming"

Mainstreaming. This term is generally accepted as meaning the placing of exceptional children into a continuum of educational settings which may be appropriate to their needs at that time. Removal from education with nonexceptional children would occur when the intensity of the special needs cannot be satisfied in a nonexceptional environment. Thus children with special needs would be moved in and out of the mainstream as part of the planned program.

Integration, on the other hand, is seen as moving the special needs child into the existing system with removal only for specific reasons. Here the stress is on permitting the



pupil to demonstrate inability to function before being withdrawn, as opposed to having this inability anticipated, planned for and scheduled.

A representative meaning for "mainstreaming" was provided by Dejnozka (1989) : "mainstreaming, the practice of assigning handicapped students to classes of nonhandicapped students" (Dejnozka, 1989, p. 99).

A comment on the results was provided by Barrow and Milburn (1986).

Many educators now regard mainstreaming as an over-simple solution to a series of very complex problems related to the education of handicapped students. While mainstreaming may benefit some students, as some ages, in some locations, programmes designed to apply to all handicapped students appear misguided. The range of disabilities that must be accommodated and the social issues related to the education of handicapped students require consideration of much more sensitive solutions than mainstreaming seems to provide (Barrow & Milburn, 1986, p. 146).

Integration. The use of this term is frequently employed to describe the transportation of identified pupils to certain school settings to achieve some sort of balance in the school population. This meaning has been expanded to describe the intended goal: "integration, racial, in a sequel to school desegregation, achieved when comfortable social interaction among students of all races and all ethnic background becomes reality. see desegregation and racial balance "(Dejnozka, 1989, p. 87).

Those involved in the New Brunswick setting chose to use the term "integration" in the sense of moving exceptional persons from the setting of the Auxiliary Classes Act and integrating them into the setting provided by the amended Schools Act. This approach shares the direction noted by Good and Merkel (1973) when they described the use of the word in terms of: "integration, social. (2) the fusion or harmonious interrelation of the values and

functions of two or more persons or groups to make them an identifiable entity"(Good & Merkel, 1973, p. 309).

While the terms are often used interchangeably in both written and oral communication, the New Brunswick intention is to describe the education of exceptional pupils in regular classrooms. An example of the local usage appeared in the teachers' association newsletter when the then president summarized the teachers' position (Fitzpatrick, 1989).

...We were led to believe, at the time, that proper in-service would be carried out, that resources would be put into place in local regions to offset the loss of the Roberts Hospital School, and that the required resources would be made available to assist in making the integration of exceptional pupils a smooth and painless process....We know from surveys of our members that most are positive towards the concept of integration...We know that many of our members continue to have serious concerns regarding the implementation of integration (Fitzpatrick, 1989, p. 3).

A detailed treatment of the terminology is contained in Bowd (1990). The opening passages of the paper are presented below:

The movement towards providing exceptional children with an education "appropriate to needs" has become known as mainstreaming in the United States, although the connotations of this term have received little formal examination. The use of this term in Canada and elsewhere (cf. Australia, and to a very limited extent the United Kingdom), represents a cultural-linguistic borrowing. "Mainstreaming" is an American coinage, accompanied by several institutional assumptions about society and education, a reflecting a model for integration which has been codified in Public Law 94-142, the Education of All Handicapped Children Act of 1975. The term integration is most commonly employed in this country to describe the placement of exceptional children

in settings which foster interaction between them and their non-handicapped peers. For the most part these settings are identified as regular classrooms within neighbourhood schools.

It is notable that contributors to the Canadian literature frequently fail to discriminate between 'mainstreaming' and 'integration', which are sometime used interchangeably within a single source... (Bowd, 1990, p. 1).

#### The New Brunswick Teachers Association Survey

Among other reactions to this massive change in established procedures was a 1988 survey conducted with licensed teachers by the New Brunswick Teachers' Association. This instrument was created in an attempt to determine what preparation the teaching population had for dealing with the new situation, what their experiences were with it and how they felt about this sudden change in their professional lives.

A total of 3,177 employed teachers returned the forms. Of these, 1,666 reported that they already had special needs children in their classrooms. A high percentage [75 percent/ 2,393 individuals] of the returned forms indicated that no special education courses had been taken during the teacher's pre-service training. Of those who reported having had some specialized content experience, 70 percent reported 2 courses or fewer.

The same survey indicated that teachers in the classrooms were not satisfied with the existing level of inservice training provided by the provincial department. In addition, fewer than 25 percent of the teachers with special needs children in their classes reported having had any inservice contact at all. At the same time, the teachers surveyed indicated a strong desire for inservice training tailored to the problems of integration (NBTA Survey on Integration, 1988, p. 19).

### Faculty of Education Activity

One of the functions performed by the Faculty of Education of The University of New Brunswick is the provision of graduate courses to students who are in part-time programs leading to various levels of teacher certification. [There are 6 levels of basic certification in NB. Certificate 4 requires a bachelor's degree.] These courses are the same as the ones offered to full time students on campus. While some part-time students are able to fit into the campus schedule, most of the part-time students are employed in school districts outside the Fredericton area. It is common for faculty members teaching a particular course on campus to travel to extension locations where the demand for that course is strong. In this way, the Faculty is directly concerned with the planning and delivery of inservice programs and is, therefore, directly involved in the manipulation of attitudes toward the new situation in the schools of the province.

### Attitude Implications

As can be gathered from the quotations used as a preface to this study, the attitudes of teachers are considered an important component in the success or failure of integration. Indications were clear that the reactions of the teachers in New Brunswick to this sudden change were influenced by their attitudes. In addition to those attitudes created throughout their personal background, there appeared to be a negative reaction to some aspects of the new situation caused largely by a lack of detailed information from the department, as well as a general perception that they would be unable to deal with the new challenges.

### Statement of Problem

This thesis is intended as a study of procedures involved in the organization of inservice activities for teachers serving in regular classrooms who are confronted with the mandate of having special needs children placed in their care. Recent developments in the

policies of the New Brunswick public school system provide an opportunity to consider some *inter-related aspects of this type of integration.*

Accordingly, a review of literature examined material related to the areas of attitude formation, school and non-school change approaches and the provision of inservice experiences for classroom teachers.

Graphic models of three major change theories were developed to illustrate these approaches. A fourth model was presented to assist those involved with the planning stages underlying inservice contacts. One aspect of the fourth model was tested through a quasi-experimental process.

Thus the problem involved in testing one part of the planning model is to identify and examine any differences recorded by a survey questionnaire administered to two groups of students registered in graduate courses offered by the Faculty of Education of the University of New Brunswick. With other aspects of the setting kept as similar as possible, one group will view a videotape treatment designed to influence attitudes towards a positive response to the integration of special needs children into regular classrooms, the other will not. The initial hypothesis is that a significant difference between these groups will be revealed through a non-parametric analysis of responses to the questionnaire form.

The following chapters expand on these procedures.

## CHAPTER II

### Review of the Literature

#### Introduction

A review of literature, particularly items published since 1975, dealing with the topics of change, mainstreaming, teacher inservice contacts and teachers' attitudes towards these concepts was conducted.

Briefly put, these readings confirm the expected: teachers do not completely support the idea of integrating handicapped children into regular classrooms. The literature generally indicates that the attitudes held by teachers are crucial components for success in integration, that inservice activities can contribute toward more positive attitudes on the part of regular classroom teachers and that there are many suggestions as to the nature and content of desirable inservice activities to achieve successful innovation.

#### NBTA Survey

Integration was imposed on the schools of the province by government action. Teachers in the province were asked about their situation and their reaction to integration in a 1988 survey carried out by the New Brunswick Teachers' Association. This provides a rich source of information, since 3,177 teachers returned completed survey forms.

Support for inservice. Among other considerations, this survey identified many close similarities between provincial responses and those reported by other sources. One example is the agreement found when NB teachers report regarding inservice as necessary and valuable, a general trend reported in the literature. The NB survey showed 78% of NB respondents supporting a need for inservice at the provincial level, 90% supporting it at the district level, and 92% supporting inservice at the school level (NBTA, 1988). More interesting parallels could have been drawn, but at this point it is sufficient to conclude that teachers in NB share

with teachers elsewhere a sense of inadequacy when approaching the realities of integration and regard inservice activities as helpful in coping with the new situation.

Need for information. The NBTA survey states that of the 80 % who reported already having special needs children in their classroom, 48% believe it has been a positive experience for the special children while 24% describe it as a negative experience for the special needs individuals. Over a quarter, 28%, believe integration has had no effect on the special needs pupil (NBTA, 1988).

The report identifies one desirable component of an inservice experience. Convincing information that integration can be beneficial to the exceptional pupil must be made available as a first step. Additional evidence suggests that information alone can assist in the formation of positive attitudes (Haring, Stern & Cruickshank, 1958). If nothing else, information alone can at least be effective in reducing anxiety levels without reducing negative attitudes (Harasymiw & Horne, 1976).

Following the argument that information by itself is a positive step, a logical inservice activity would be the provision of background information on the appearance, nature and capabilities of the various handicap levels likely to be encountered. Reinforcing this recommendation found in the literature surveyed, the NB survey revealed a provincial need for such background, since only 25% of the responding NB teachers reported having had a university course in special education. Of that 25%, 70% reported two courses or fewer. At the same time, 55% reported that they already had special needs pupils in their classrooms (NBTA, 1988). There is a need for the inservice planner in New Brunswick to provide for transfer of available information.

Entry fear. For the sake of argument it can be assumed that the general entry behaviour of inservice clients will be largely based on fear. The teachers joining the activities

will be resentful, suspicious, worried about specific knowledge deficiencies and deeply concerned over what effects the mainstreamed may have on their classroom control and the learning environment for the other students.

Their largest private fear will probably be that they will be unable to cope with the demands of the exceptional children on a personal level, as well as on a professional one. Much of the relevant research reviewed supports the widespread existence of similar concerns.

Positive self-image. On the other hand, classroom teachers do have a positive self-image since they have controlled children in the past, they have been able to communicate with a range of learning needs and they are concerned about children or they would not have become teachers in the first place.

Another approach to the design of inservice activities could be from the direction that teachers are professional in the best sense of the word and that their situation can be considered to be lack of focused information, rather than skills deficiency. Information on the extent of the problem and ways of coping with change in general, and integration in particular, would follow. This should be structured to lead away from a "cook-book" collection of handy hints towards a more comprehensive and self-expanding development programme.

In addition to a need for an information component to deal with the implications of the various laws and regulations involved in mainstreaming, there is a logical requirement for details on the availability of support services and the procedures involved in activating them. In NB this will vary from district to district.

Teachers have had experience with a great number of change situations in recent years, but the degree of resentment and fear involved in integration strikes at the heart of their self-image in that they have been working with reasonable expectation of measurable results within traditional time limits. It is unlikely that the exceptional will display the degree of



progress teachers unconsciously expect. Thus, the gap between the expected progress teachers feel children should make, and the progress special children can make, is a major problem. Teachers may well feel they are failing to help the integrated when, in fact, they are assisting the pupils' efforts a great deal. Information on reasonable expectations should be added to the basic list of content items for inservice activities.

### Change and Implementation Strategies

As a traditional background for the examination of change, an updating of a 1945 text, How to solve it, suggests that the most rewarding approach to the daunting issue of change is to follow the four step process of: 1. understanding the problem, 2. devising a plan, 3. carrying it out and 4. looking back at the results (Polya, 1957).

### Planned Change

An expanded approach was provided by Lippit, Watson and Westley (1958) in the book The dynamics of planned change. The stress of the phrasing of the title provides a focus for the examination of change in that it establishes that change can and should be planned for, rather than occurring as a reaction to an event. It also directs attention to the idea that change is a process rather than a single circumstance.

While the content of this book centred on the roles and responsibilities of change agents, often resented as outsiders, its coverage expands to spend considerable time presenting what the author calls seven phases of the change processes. These are instructive for the planner of inservice activities.

Phases of change. First of the seven phases presented was the development of a need for change. This is seen as not only obvious, but also as the first opportunity for the resisters of change to play their part. The perception that something is wrong, that something needs to be done and that something can be done will not necessarily be clear. The authors suggest

this is a twofold problem. People deeply familiar with the ways of the system may not only resist the idea that they have failed and thus changes have become necessary, but also they may counter any attempt to achieve change, since they are so keenly aware of the need for those changes, which they had been unable to accomplish. They may greet any suggestion with a deep seated reluctance to accept a possibility of betterment in the face of so many obstacles with which they are familiar. When people have what are usually termed "vested interests" in a system, they may find it easier to reject awareness of problems than to admit to what is, after all, a statement of personal incompetence. In addition, when the group or individual change agent is regarded as coming from outside the establishment, the tendency to form the metaphoric circle of defence is very strong. Establishing and communicating a need for change is an essential first step if any of the other phases are to prove effective.

The second phase developed was the establishment of a change relationship. While the concerns under this item centre on the role of the change agent coming from outside, they do have some bearing on the role of any inside change agent as well. A major concern identified by the authors is the state of what they termed "wishful thinking" which occurs when those involved perceive both the concept and the steps of change to be easier, faster and cheaper than can actually be possible. An overdose of enthusiasm may lead to an equally strong negative reaction if things go astray. The second major aspect of this phase is the clear requirement that all the sub-systems have to agree to work together for the common good, actually mean it and function accordingly. The authors identified this as the crucial, the most important step towards successful change. They also offer some advice as to how to achieve this state of affairs. The third phase identified was clarification of the problem. The authors identified it as being fraught with difficulty. First there is the major matter of framing the questions and analyzing the answers appropriately. A second concern is that the act of

gathering data can be regarded by the subjects as outsiders snooping into the corners. As results suggest the problem to be more complicated than expected and thus that more blame exists to be shared among those being questioned, defense mechanisms may be activated. In particular, the vested interests involved may begin a process of passive or active sabotage of the data gathering, the analysis of that data and the personal reputations of those involved.

Next was the phase listed as examination of alternative routes and goals. This step can be summarized in what Polya called "...the first heuristic principle: the ends suggest the means" (Polya, 1945). While the process of deciding just where to go with the organization being studied is not easy to achieve in the light of the various philosophic and political principles available for adoption, the nature of the organization itself should be of assistance.

Phase five was identified as transformation of intentions into actual change efforts. Here the obvious problem of resources comes into play. Since resources have always been considered scarce, and there is likely to be increasing demands on dwindling resources, this phase may be the end of the process. The costs of change may be perceived as outweighing the costs of the status quo, even though it is generally felt that the costs of not adapting usually outweigh the costs of change. Reallocating of existing resources to meet the new situations is a common solution. Even more common is the drive to do more with the same resources. While trimming the fat is a worthwhile political and economic goal, the metaphor of cutting to, and then into, the bone is a common comment. Clearly the way and the will must function in cooperation if change is to be accomplished. At this stage, one must assume that the changes involved have been identified as positive, beneficial and desirable.

Phase six of the list deals with the stabilization of change. The authors regard this as more than a simple internal monitoring of events and results. The often referred to 'vested interests' are seen as possible trouble spots, especially when the initial excitement of the new

situation subsides. Outside pressures may be brought to bear in unexpected ways as the change affects the environment outside the system.

This area is complicated for the authors since they were primarily concerned with the role of the change agent from outside the boundaries of the system and thus more or less isolated from the actual workings of the new situations. In much the same way the phase they identified as achieving a terminal relationship was less useful than the others (Lippit, Watson & Westley, 1958).

While the idea of bringing in an outside consultant to identify and promote change might be a common process in industry, the military and certain aspects of organized religions, the matter of how educational systems should change has often been decided by governmental decree.

Response to imposed, or planned, educational change has been often rapid since it usually affects children in observable ways that parents and grandparents notice. Since everyone has some contact with school under some circumstance, there is a strong perception of how things really should be in a school system. This degree of certainty is not present in most other kinds of organizations. Thus reaction to change has to be anticipated. The well intended slogan that "education is everybody's business" identifies the impact society in general has on innovation in the schools, but the teachers continue to be the most directly affected.

### Teacher Behaviour

The term "crisis" used in a book title in 1968 suggests that the perceived problems facing western education following the launch of Sputnik had not yet been solved. The world educational crisis: A systems analysis, examined the wide range of factors which affect an

educational system (Coombs, 1968). At this point, we are most interested in the material on the influences which affect teacher behaviour.

First mentioned was the ability and inclination of the teacher to comprehend and then to practice new procedures. These limitations exist on a personal and professional level and affect both the possibility and rate of change in one way or another. Then too, the acquisition of new knowledge is not always translated into new behaviours.

This latter point becomes especially clear when the second influence on teacher behaviour was examined. The author identified this as the influences of the home background and general social environment in which the individual teacher originated. A middle-class, solidly conservative, mindset is not considered likely to produce fertile ground for the acceptance of radical ideas.

The third influence mentioned by Coombs was the scope of the teacher's education, training and experience. It has long been a truism in the profession that the most conservative teachers are those in their first five years who have not yet managed to overcome the limitations of their training. This directed attention to the existing patterns of teacher education.

Teacher education is a central issue since those involved in the organization and delivery of that training most probably have been subjected to the same type of limitations in personal background and educational experiences which they are expected to help their students transcend. Change in a human system is difficult to manage since it is so difficult to know where and with whom to begin.

The other influences dealt with by Coombs can be covered more quickly since they are closely related to those mentioned earlier. The aspirations and motivations of the teachers involved in a change situation are highly individual. In general terms, money is not seen as

the main drive. Teachers like to think of themselves, as helpers, guides, role models, and generally as moulders of tomorrow. The bulk of the negative comments coming from teachers faced with integration has centred on the nature of the impacts on the children first and on themselves second.

System description. A major factor to be considered in the change pattern covered by Coombs is the frequently used term "system". The literature presents a variety of approaches to the question of how to define a system and establish its limits. One representative description suggests that a system is "an organized collection of interrelated elements that performs one or more functions" (DeVito, 1986). School systems are organized by both tradition and legislation, they embody an impressive list of inter-related elements and both intended and unplanned consequences result from their performance. Since we are about a process of examining the concept of change which influences levels of organization, interaction and function at one and the same time, DeVito's expansion of the definition into a discussion of a systems approach to organization is helpful.

### Systems Thinking

The systems approach idea has become extremely popular in both the academic and public mind. Cultural experiences in dealing with the rapidly changing organizational levels, the extremely complex interrelationships and the mix of intended and accidental functions involved in the operations of the Second World War, as well as the uneasy societies it produced, indicate that new approaches to the matter of change are necessary. The systems approach embodies many of the most appealing aspects of the philosophies contained in the scientific habit of mind as well as those usually linked with more humanistic concepts.

The systems approach to organization can be viewed as emphasizing the point that any organizational construct is composed of sub-systems which influence, and are influenced by, a

wide range of interactions with other sub-systems in the selected environment defined as the system under consideration. In an ideal world human elements would not be overpowered or exploited by the mechanistic requirements involved in the operational aspects required.

At the same time, the smooth operations required by the system can be influenced by the human elements. Thus a systems approach is an argument for the consideration of both the physical and physiological factors of the scientific management approach and the social and psychological functions of the human relations vector. Both would be considered valid and capable of influencing all the sub-systems.

Thus the organizational ideal would be viewed as an open system; that is, open to new ideas from outside the immediate boundaries and responsive to those environmental impacts, thus preserving a kind of vitality by being dynamic in the operations needed to achieve its purposes. In contrast, a closed system would be isolated from new information, unresponsive to environmental concerns surrounding it and static in its operations.

The nature, including the organizational patterns, of the communication within the system must be considered as more than merely the transfer of information. The manner of encoding, the routing of materials, the use of "trigger" words which can be interpreted in a variety of ways, must all be part of the package of problems presented under the heading of communication. An example is the dropping of the term "retarded" from professional use.

#### Resistance to Change

Most of the preceding comments have been predicated on the idea that the human elements of the system, whether seen as controllers or controlled, are interested in at least considering the idea of change in that particular system. Assuming this to be true, then the next step would be to persuade those involved that change is a good idea in general and that

specific changes are a really good idea. Unfortunately, human beings have proved to be consistent in their reluctance to change, as well as in their inability to do so easily.

Treating resistance. Watson (1973) suggests that one way to deal with resistance to change is to involve all participants in diagnostic efforts so that all concerned can agree on what the basic problem actually is. This process would then expand so that any adaptation would be a group decision arrived at through consensus, rather than resulting from a leadership role by one level of the structure.

Watson suggests that this process will produce great benefits from the opportunity for change proponents to interact with change opponents. This dual contact will enable valid objections to be sorted out and dealt with openly, a process which should eliminate suspicion and relieve unnecessary fears at an early stage.

This process is firmly grounded on the assumption that innovations are likely to be misunderstood and misinterpreted. Thus provision must be made for feedback of perceptions. Watson (1973) argues that if sufficient attention were paid to these early components of the change process, the participation factor would enhance the levels of acceptance of, and support for, the innovation. This would have additional benefits when the stages of the project had to be open to reconsideration and revision at various points as developments suggested rethinking.

Opinion leaders. Linked to personal impact on the process of innovation is the consideration of methods for influencing those perceived as opinion leaders who would in turn influence those who follow such leaders. In this case, the mass media have usually been thought of as the best tuned instruments for changing attitudes by making the opinion of the leaders more readily available in terms that are easily communicated and understood.



Television, in its mass commercial form, has long been considered to be the most effective medium, at least since 1945 when the radar sets began to be beaten into picture tubes for the mass market. On the other hand, the idea that the mass media had become all powerful in a sort of 1984-Orwellian explosion has not held up under the impacts of the years since the establishment of the large television networks.

The view of the value of the media as opinion leaders rapidly gave way to the easily comprehended related idea that people were much more likely to be profoundly changed by contact with new ideas through spouses, relatives, friends, and others they considered important than they were by the mechanisms and personalities of the mass media (Etzioni, 1972). While the account book records were crammed with merchandising changes in buyer preference for soap or cola variations, deeply held attitudes and values have turned out to be more difficult to change than anticipated. Advertising techniques have not been enough.

What is becoming increasingly apparent is that to solve social problems by changing people is more expensive and usually less productive than approaches that accept people as they are and seek to mend not them but the circumstances around them (Etzioni, 1972, p. 72).

One of the points from the preceding glimpse into communication theory is the easily accepted idea that a system of schooling offers a convenient place to incorporate the idea of following respected and familiar leaders and then by changing the content, perhaps the circumstances, of the schooling organization patterns, deep seated changes in the general pattern of thought and attitude could be achieved. World history has been full of examples of groups who wished to control the future in specific ways by obtaining mastery over children for quite short times. Not all of the motives involved in this control theory were praiseworthy; in the same way, not all were evil.

### Non-school Change

One of the main judgement points in a non-school situation is the decision either to change a particular organization or to shut it down. This possibility is not often available to public school authorities.

Leavitt (1965) identified four aspects that must be considered when deciding whether or not it is possible to achieve successful change. While these come from the world outside the boundaries of the school system, they present considerations which do apply to modifying an aspect of a school system such as attitudes held by teachers.

Goals. First is the massive step of examining the primary goals or objectives of the organization. This is followed by a detailed examination of the sub-tasks or sub-goals which are necessary for the attainment of the main goals. Any important differences between these levels must be resolved.

Personnel. The second area is the equally detailed examination of members of the organization, largely to discover any counter-productive influences.

Existing procedures. The third area for careful evaluation is the existing set of work procedures and the machinery available to implement these procedures effectively. This process often hinges on human reluctance to integrate new equipment into the existing system.

Social structure. By far the most difficult stage is a detailed, and impartial, scrutiny of the social structure of the organization. This would include such matters as the nature of the system of communication actually used by employees, the authority relationships and resentment problems, role perceptions considered valid by those involved in them and the manner in which work flow systems function (Leavitt, 1965).

Most of this guidance, in some form, is familiar ground. A useful addition to it is the slightly different viewpoint developed from studies which examined the introduction of tools and procedures into cultures which were described as "simple" when compared to the level of sophistication present in the society of the change agent.

Acceptable innovation. Some of the principles, derived from these technical innovation situations, identify properties of the process which prove important in making the innovations acceptable to those undergoing the change process—one of the main points in any change event.

The most obvious properties are the ease of explanation bound into the nature of the change itself and the ease with which the change can be communicated given the boundaries of the situation. Following from these are the related factors of the difficulty involved with using the new procedures, the possibility of trial on a limited basis, and the congruence with existing values and patterns of behaviour entrenched in the situation. A superiority of the new over whatever was in use beforehand is assumed (Rogers & Shoemaker, 1971). The possibility of trial on a limited basis is most familiar to practising educators under the phrase "pilot project".

#### Basic Strategies for Innovation

The literature identified two broad strategies for change achievement which are basic to the field.

Knowledge. The first of these is the strategy which stresses knowledge and understanding by maintaining that any successful organizational change is dependent on the extent to which the personnel involved are helped, or forced, to gain awareness and understanding of the benefits inherent in the innovation (Eidell & Kitchel, 1968).

This strategy presumes that the innovation is acceptable and capable of being clearly communicated, as well as assuming that the participants have the necessary skills and background to assimilate the values of the new construct. It is based on the idea that reasonable people will change their behaviour if they can be convinced of the validity of the new procedures.

The relationship of knowledge to behaviour, however, is far from linear. Among other examples usually cited is the tendency to continue cigarette smoking while intellectually aware, even convinced, of the statistical evidence on the dangers involved. In short, willingness to change may not be a direct result of understanding.

Commitment. The second broad strategy emphasizes the development of commitment on the part of the personnel involved. Assuming they have been convinced of the value of the innovation is one thing, getting them to alter behaviour is another. This is particularly evident when the emotional costs of change are considered. Clearly the greater the degree of commitment people have to supporting change, the greater will be the degree of success for that innovation. Since it is wise to anticipate some degree of reluctance to make this necessary commitment, tactics involved in achieving a degree of involvement and motivation must be examined.

#### Complexity of Innovation Acceptance

The literature can be viewed as emphasizing the position that adaptation factors are complex groups of interrelationships. Such areas as the clarity of the innovation to those who will enforce it and those who will be affected by it, the degree of understanding and personal commitment to the general and specific aspects of the innovation and the native ability of the various groups to comprehend and carry out the new ideas are considered to be crucial factors. Factors such as the availability of adequate material resources to import the innovation and

then to support it properly, the degree of compatibility with the existing organizational structures and values, and the nature of sustained leadership had to be added to the list of key components necessary if the decision to innovate were actually to result in a permanent modification to the system (Gross, Giacquinta & Bernstein, 1963).

### School Change

The philosophy, content and approach of a school system reflect the society which produces it. Tensions from that outside environment may apply to schooling organizations. People have firm ideas of what a school should be based on their own experience and viewpoints. Most would agree that changes are necessary so that the procedures of the past that have not proved beneficial for them are not repeated. At the same time, new approaches must not be allowed to destroy what they perceive as valuable and constructive from their own experiences. Demands for school reform have been as much a part of human experience as the view that the current generation of youngsters is inferior to the previous ones in matters involving respect for their elders, seriousness of purpose and basic politeness.

As Deal, Meyer and Scott (1974) put it:

Philosophical and cultural developments have contributed to a prevailing climate in education where innovation and change are highly encouraged by both the educational research community and the general lay public. But the adoption of innovation has been largely unsystematic and uncoordinated with the result that innovations adopted may not have the organizational support necessary to move them toward implementation and installation (Deal, Meyer & Scott, 1974, p. 125).

This would suggest that attention must be directed toward internal aspects of schooling which make change difficult. Since human relationships are a major aspect of this reluctance to adjust the system from within or without, it was clear that change procedures can

never stray very far from the human domain and its idiosyncrasies. Introducing new machinery is not enough.

Another basic point common to the literature on change possibilities is the idea that "...any substantial intervention in an existing social system is very likely to have important unintended effects, reflecting the system's effort to respond and accommodate to the new stimulus" (Pincus, 1974, p. 114). The term "accommodate" returns us to the concerns expressed earlier about vested interest and possible sabotage of the change process.

#### Organizational Change in Schools

The philosophies underlying the organizational mannerisms of the public schools were not exempt from the changes in society that marked the 1960's and 1970's.

Giaquinta (1973) supported the idea that the extent of a change and the speed of its establishment depended on multiple factors which were inter-related. Many of these are familiar factors such as the nature of the innovation involved, its philosophical acceptance match with existing structures, the tactics used to introduce it and their acceptance match with the existing structures. The characteristics of the existing school personnel who must deal with accepting the innovation and implementing it and the properties of the school structure into which the innovation was being introduced are other factors (Giaquinta, 1973). The last two have been often covered under the topic of "the mental health" of the school and traditionally are attached to the philosophical stance of the school's principal.

Giaquinta also points out that many examples of successful innovation in schools have focused on adaptation of a particular curriculum change such as another new math. Equally familiar is the imposition of an altered time sequence for established material. Experiences gained from this activity are often thought to be transferable to any change activity. Thus three common components of successful change were identified and described as the initiation

stage, the implementation stage and the incorporation stage (Giaquinta, 1973, p. 179). This does not differ a great deal from earlier suggestions (Polya, 1957).

School patterns are however, quite different from military organizations, systems to make trains run on time and related cash flow situations. Schools have always been in the fluid situation of having to deal with the future at the same time as they coped with the present in terms of the past.

Schools are different. Siber agrees with the general tone of the literature surveyed which provides support for the existence of differences between school situations and the rest of society. In particular, school systems are presented as most difficult to change because they exist in a state of vulnerability to the social environment that surrounds them. A second special factor is the self-image and the value systems of the educational personnel who function within the schools, not all of whom are teachers. Perhaps the most complex problem is the debatable nature of the diffuse educational goals which underlie public education. Then too, the practical need for co-ordination and control of both clients and employees is more of a factor in a school situation than in other organizations (Siber, 1968).

School change factors. Giacquinta (1973) presented a guide for inducing change in school systems in the form of "postulates" for the acceptable and successful implementation of innovation. These postulates offer additional background for inservice planning.

The first postulate restates the notion that organizational change, when successfully completed, can be seen as having proceeded in three distinct stages: initiation, implementation and incorporation. The successful accomplishment of one stage does not, however, guarantee the successful accomplishment of another. The second postulate is that the preceding stages are influenced by attributes of the innovation itself, the manner in which the innovation was introduced, the individual and group characteristics of the school personnel involved and the

structural properties of the school setting. Third is the suggestion that these factors do not influence the initiation stages in the same way as they influence the later implementation or incorporation stages. The final postulate is that the school's vulnerability to the demands of the surrounding society may make the innovations desired by that community inevitable, whether or not the school pattern is in agreement (Giacquinta, 1973, p. 200).

One particular item of practical advice came from Lindquist (1974) who observed that "... knowing where the power lies and how it works is crucial for the reformist" (Lindquist, 1974, p. 324). This author also suggested that most of the writing on research theory and innovation had tended to regard a decision made to adopt the change as being equivalent to the successful achievement of that adaptation.

Shared change factors. Haig and Aiken (1970) suggested that there are a number of properties which school systems share with other types of organizations. The suggestion was that these common properties should be added to the consideration of how to implement change in schools and thus could not be ignored.

These properties are presented as "complexity", described as the number of occupational specialties in an organization and the degree of professionalism of each. [Professionalism is undefined in this listing.] Next is: "centralization", the degree of power concentrated in the hands of a few. This is followed by the term "formalization" which is described as the extent of job codification and rule enforcement present in an organization. The term "stratification" is explained as a measure of how much the rewards, such as money and prestige, of the jobs extend to those at the bottom of the organizational chart. "Volume of production" is described as a measure of quantity as compared to quality while the term "efficiency" describes the degree of control enforced on the consumption and cost of resources.



The final term in this listing is "job satisfaction", defined as a measure of the morale of the job occupants (Haig & Aitken, 1970).

The recurring nature of the same published ideas from roughly the same time period suggests that a common body of knowledge on the theory and practice of implementation exists and that its supporting ideas are generally held to be true, useful and directly beneficial to all concerned. This material dates from just before the US adaptation of the major educational change usually called "mainstreaming" which resulted from the legislation of 1975.

#### Importance of Involvement

The crucial nature of personal involvement has been found in statements published in many of the articles reviewed for this thesis. Lindquist (1974) offers an observation representative of those found in the literature.

Human-relations research suggests innovations which require changes in human behaviour are not likely to be adopted unless they link to the potential user's needs and problem solving activities, thus an important strategy is to gather information which clarifies needs of the various kinds and levels (Lindquist, 1974, p. 342).

Roles and the organizational structure. The social system model presented by Getzels and Guba (1957) described structure as an organizational and administrative property of "roles" and "role expectations". Following this, co-ordination aspects, systems of hierarchial communication, the degree of specialization and the clarity of the different roles performed by those in the line and staff approach to the chain of command all served as a means of defining the structure of the organization against which the innovation procedures would be applied.

A later note in this regard comes from a special interest group on organization theory of the American Education Research Association which met in Washington in April of 1975. One of the papers presented stated that the structure and capability of an organization might be

thought of as internal variables while the linkages might be thought of as external variables (Paul, 1975). This scheme allows each to be considered separately, but also enables thought to be focused on the relationships among types of variables. More importantly, it enables the needs of the separate entities to be examined against a less cluttered background.

#### A Group Process Model

The consideration of individual and group roles was discussed by Delberg and VandeVen (1976) when they presented a detailed model described as a group process model for problem identification and program planning. The PPM [program planning model] was identified as "...a sociological model suggesting a planning sequence which seeks to provide an orderly process of structuring the decision making at different phases of planning" (Delberg and VandeVen, 1976, p.283).

Stressing the need to establish and follow a coherent structure for innovation, the PPM model identified five components of successful implementation. These focus on group activities and emphasize steps in the complex type of change envisioned as a suitable goal for inservice activities.

Problem exploration. This stresses the involvement of major groups of clients or consumers and internal or external experts. These individuals were placed into what were called "nominal groups" for a variation of the commonly known 'brainstorming' technique. This requires the individual, in the presence of others, but with no interaction allowed, to generate ideas on paper. Criticism comes later. These authors claim that the depth and breadth of the ideas so generated by individuals working alone in this way are superior to those produced by brainstorming aloud while others listen.

Knowledge exploration. This term stresses the involvement of groups of external scientific personnel with groups of internal or external specialists. The process serves the

twofold purpose of getting them acquainted with each other, as well as involving these participants in a wider, perhaps more balanced, examination of the problems explored in the first phase. The most productive result is said to be the tendency of those involved to develop shared ownership of the problems, thus increasing the ability to cooperate toward a common goal, while, at the same time, widening the knowledge base and suggesting previously unthoughtof tangents for consideration.

Priority development. This stresses the involvement of both resource controllers and key administrators. The process enables review and examination of the particular impacts of both the problem definition and the related critical solution elements identified earlier.

Program development. Here both administrators of the existing structure and the technical specialists provide a review and focus input. Working with knowledge, opinion and direction from the previous phases, those involved in this one produce a final, specific program to guide the changes. This process requires that the specialists who are responsible for developing the details remain sensitive to those critical elements that had been discussed earlier.

Program evaluation. This final phase in the process involves the client and consumer groups from the first phase as well as the relevant administrative personnel of the organization. The process is suggested as a means of reinvolving people who might have become distanced during the intermediate stages. It serves as the final check on how the operational plans actually follow the design intentions. It is the final opportunity to negotiate any major changes. It is also the last time for minority opinions to be considered. Another value for this part of the model is its usefulness as a means of re-kindling interest in those changes which had been identified some time ago, as well as renewing the basic attitude that change will be a good thing (Delberg and VandeVen, 1976).

This model contributes a definite format which would enable those involved to monitor the results of each stage and the overall results of the process in an orderly fashion. The model is most useful as a focus device for planners and a summary statement of one approach. In particular, it avoids the imposition of change from above, or "top-down" model, which has been criticized so often in the literature reviewed for this thesis.

#### The Top-down Process

The most common tactic for successful change mentioned in the literature is a need to establish some means of avoiding the impression that the innovations are being imposed by higher authority as non-negotiable. Experience suggests that resistance to that manner of implementation breeds reluctance, possible anger and probable sabotage. The reverse of this concern has been raised. One writer suggested that there was "...no firm understanding of the effects of participation on the change process or of the efficacy in bringing about change of participation strategies as compared to strategies of imposition from the top." (Giacquinta, 1973, p. 186).

Avoiding the appearance of dictatorial imposition may be worth the effort until more convincing evidence to the contrary is produced. It is difficult to reject the idea that asking for cooperation would be more effective than demanding it.

Giacquinta deals with the issue of changing values as a preamble to changing behaviour. "Grossly underplayed, however, and often ignored, is the difficulty of effecting changes in people's basic values, attitudes and behaviour, especially on the enormous scale that many programs propose." (Giacquinta, 1973, p.193). Attitude change is more difficult than forcing obedient behaviours.

### Strategies for Change in Human Systems

While it may be true that there is a lack of convincing evidence for a need to avoid the top-down approach, it is certainly true that much of the literature reflects the notion of attempting to avoid the difficulties perceived as related to a top-down approach.

This can be seen in the guidelines for change in schools provided by Chin and Benne (1976) when they set out three strategies for change in human systems. It is clear they side with those who feel that knowledgeable and co-operative involvement of the people involved in the system is crucial.

...one element in all approaches to planned change is the conscious utilization and application of knowledge as one instrument or tool for modifying patterns and institutions of practice ...processes of introducing such strategies must be based on behavioral knowledge of change and must utilize people technologies based on such knowledge (Chin & Benne, 1976, p. 22-23).

The authors present and discuss three major groups of strategies in detail. These categories are identified as "empirical-rational", "normative-reeducative" and "application of power". Since this classification appears basic to the analysis of change procedures, the labels are discussed in the following paragraphs.

Empirical-rational. The first assumes that humanity is rational. It suggests that self-interest will drive individuals to adopt the changes being proposed so long as they can be convinced of the benefits inherent in the proposal. Here the provision and dissemination of knowledge and information are prime activities.

The first approach, that humanity is guided by reason, holds that basic research in all fields is necessary to produce knowledge which could be disseminated. The general level of education and experience present in the population under consideration must be high enough

so that the need to change can be comprehended in a fashion which is both rational and convincing. The need awareness factor must precede the willingness factor.

This approach has been the base position for elaborate systems of schooling, training, government and communication. A major problem exists since humanity has demonstrated weakness over the years in the crucial area of knowing enough about how people learn, make decisions and behave. Enough has been learned, however, to be able to state that one of the factors governing acceptance of an innovation has been the degree to which it "fits" into established patterns of thought and feeling.

Another barrier facing the change agent is personnel selection and replacement. This difficulty of having the right person in the right place at the right time can be enormous if that place is crucial to the change process.

In organizational terms this has been complicated by the strong possibility that the person is the wrong person in that right place because that particular individual actually has most to gain by not changing the status quo. The problem would be complicated if the change were attempted, sabotaged, and then seen to fail.

A related concern is the need for the change agents to conceive of themselves as playing the roles of both analysts and catalysts. Line and staff, the hierarchy of an organization, must be convinced on both rational and emotional levels that change has become a necessary function for the organization. Planners of inservice activities can be thought of as acting as change agents.

Experience with this rational approach suggests that it works best in situations where the research has clear links with systems for the diffusion of the new information; that is, situations where the roles and communication media of the organization are arranged so that the possibilities of development, diffusion and adaptation exist. If the organization is

incapable of those three functions, then change will not occur as desired. Planned change will occur only if it can be conceived, communicated and accepted in shared terms between the agent of change and those undergoing that change. This communication aspect may be as important as any changes in goals or organizational procedures.

Normative-reeducative. The second approach assumes that humanity is reluctant to change its orientation to old patterns of behaviour in order to develop commitment to new ones. Thus more is required than new knowledge, new information or new intellectual rationales. Here the change agent is faced with the problems of changing orientations in the areas of attitudes, values and skills, as well as changes in relationships which have become significant, comfortable as well as comforting, over time.

The normative-reeducative concept, firmly based on the idea that roles and the way they are played are central to organizational life, went well beyond the identification and communication of information and knowledge. Indeed, it was so broad in its applications that it was difficult to establish boundaries, let alone decide on the most effective beginning point.

Changes in patterns of action or practice are...changes, not alone in the rational informational equipment of men, but, at the personal level, in habits and values as well, and, at the sociocultural level, changes are alterations in normative structures and in institutionalized roles and relationships, as well as in cognitive and perceptual orientations (Chin and Benne, 1976, p. 31).

Thus, while regarding the problem solving capabilities of a system as capable of being improved, the process must be regarded as active rather than passive. The human components of the system must acquire a knowledge of why and how to function together in the required processes of problem identification and solution. The benefits of realizing and fostering growth in the people who make up the system to be changed involve both the organization and

the change agent in a cooperative, action oriented process. In addition, the system pattern of the organization must identify and institutionalize support mechanisms for the maintenance and improvement of these processes.

Application of power. The third approach assumes that humanity can be enabled to behave in identified patterns which are in harmony with the innovation. Here the change agent must work on ways to achieve compliance from those with less power as they follow the direction and leadership of those with more power in the organization. This power coercive approach to effecting change has been historically the most common one to be established, function over time and then fail. There are many reasons suggested for the lack of efficiency in what appears to be the most efficient approach. General cybernetic theory, for example, suggests that those who are in positions of control cannot manage to comprehend, let alone control, all of the variety states generated by those who are to be controlled and thus, over time, the coercive model must fail on that inability to control everything that needs to be controlled.

One of the more disturbing aspects of the power-coercive concept is that it regards knowledge as power reserved for an elite group. In order for the system to function, some people must have more knowledge than others. Those kept from that knowledge and power perceive it as desirable and take steps to acquire it, whether or not those who do control it are willing to share.

#### The Outside Change Agent Working Inside

There is disagreement between the idea of change being best accomplished by the use of outside change agents and the opposing idea that change is best accomplished by working from positions within the organization.



McDonald (1989) approached the dilemma from a position of advice to the outside change agent. While this material draws on a body of advice referred to earlier (Lippitt, Watson and Westley, 1958), McDonald incorporates a wider viewpoint.

While all the major school reform efforts in American history have relied on state policy and on the bully pulpits of outside reformers, they have also depended on champions of school change who work inside the schools...what may be extraordinary...is the deliberate effort by some outside reformers to achieve an insiders' perspective; they show up on the doorsteps of actual schools eager to work inside (McDonald, 1989, p. 207).

McDonald (1989) acknowledged drawing on (Coleman, 1966; Sarason, 1971; Wolcott, 1977; Eisner, 1979; Lipsky, 1980; Shulman, 1986) when he observed that:

The robustness of this bottom-up activity is at least partly due to the result of two long-term trends...First, school evaluation and research on schools have both drifted from an emphasis on the adoption of innovation and the measurement of inputs and outputs to an appreciation of individual schools as complex worlds in which implementation schemes often go awry and the instruments of positivist research often fail to detect what really matters ...the second trend is a product of increased research on teaching and of the growing tendency of this research to peer beneath the surface of teachers' behaviours to analyze their thinking, knowledge, and systems of belief (McDonald, 1989, p.207).

Internal change strategies. McDonald (1989) presents advice for the inside agent in a series of construction strategies intended to work in an interdependent fashion. The goal is a co-operative model involving the personnel being most directly affected in a personal, consultative and largely non-confrontational process. While this advice guides change agents

working within a system, they do apply to the outside planner of inservice activities. They to have direct bearing on any attempt to be perceived as a co-operative part of the change process rather than a representative of distant authority.

First of McDonald's seven strategies is the process of "acknowledging values", a process of examination of the basic assumptions and value driven processes of the organization which are the most important entries on the system's list of overall goals. Second is "problem setting", based on the assumption that the most difficult part of solving a problem is identifying what it is that needs fixing: that is, framing the problem clearly is the most important step in finding a solution to apply. Third is called "short circuiting the system". This is based on the assumption that the establishment of new channels for information exchange is necessary, often to establish a bridge between existing channels rather than following the established networks. This has direct bearing on the planner of inservice for teachers.

Fourth in the list of seven is the processes called "one-legged conferencing". This broadens the human contact aspects from formal meetings and interviews to the more colloquial 'passing in the hall and water cooler' images of networking which grow from the base level of polite greeting and inquiries into how things were going. Experience suggests that people often detail just how things are going because the question comes in a non-threatening fashion in a familiar setting. This too has merit for the inservice planner. Fifth is a process of "text making", this is a type of action research process whereby those involved are encouraged, perhaps pressured, to think and write about problems in a more formal time frame which produces a proactive rather than a reactive response. Sixth is termed "curriculum making". This is presented as a sorting-things-out-on-paper process best regarded as a narrative approach to the problem rather than a listing of objectives and methods. The process

is seen as more productive in that there is a requirement for connected thought and detail which might be missed while establishing general headings and sub heads.

The final label is "observation with feedback". This process is presented by McDonald as very powerful and very effective because of the threat it implies. It is regarded as a focus device with a rapid feedback implication which forces the observed to think about what had happened, what results have been demonstrated, what might have resulted and what processes would have proved effective in achieving a more satisfying and successful result. This type of post-conferencing is a frequent part of inservice activities which feature microteaching or roleplay. If nothing else, feedback from observation is seen as a statement that actions taken produce effects for which someone is held responsible.

#### Altered Practice Precedes Change Model

Quite a different point of view is presented by the Guskey (1989) model of ways to influence teachers' attitudes. This author claims that significant change in teachers' attitudes and perceptions is likely to take place only after improvement in student learning becomes apparent. This is a major shift from the established approach of working on, or with, the teachers before an innovation is implemented.

When teachers see that an innovation enhances the learning of students in their classes,-- when, for example, they see students attaining higher levels of achievement, becoming more involved in instruction, or expressing greater confidence in themselves or in their abilities to learn--then, and perhaps only then, is significant change in teachers' attitudes and perceptions likely to occur (Guskey, 1989a, p. 5-12).

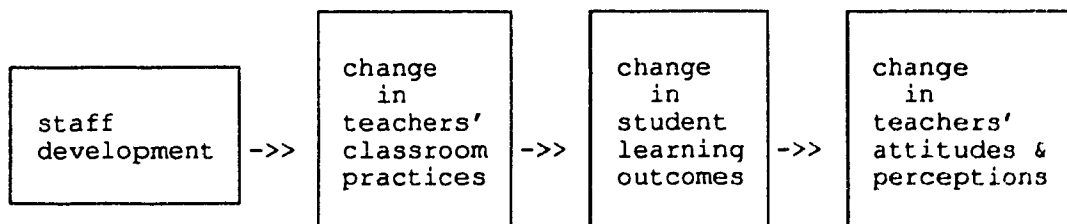
The premise of the Guskey model of change is that change is a learning process for teachers that is both developmental and experimental.

It holds that the instructional procedures which experienced teachers [usually defined as those who have taught for more than five years] employ are fashioned largely from their experience with what has worked for them in earlier situations (Lortie, 1975). Since this experience is the base for the "shop talk" so common to formal teacher gatherings, to say nothing of staff room conversations, it is logical to suggest that the attitudes and perceptions about teaching and instructional practices can be communicated and adopted, or rejected, in a similar fashion. Holly (1982) reported that this exchange of ideas with other teachers is generally what teachers like best about inservice workshop opportunities.

The approach Guskey outlined is based on three guiding principles considered central for planning effective staff development. Guskey stresses that any staff development effort must include mechanisms through which the teachers directly involved, and those only connected to the grapevine, can receive regular feedback messages on the improved performances of the relevant students. Additional principles maintain the position that staff developers must be aware that change is a gradual and difficult process for those concerned and that the matter of continued support and follow-up activity after initiation into the new situation is essential.

The Guskey model presented 4 stages:

Figure 1. Guskey's Model of Change



(Guskey,1989a.)

This model starts with the assumption that the processes of identifying an innovation, testing and designing a program and delivering it effectively has been operational in the design of the staff development process and that the individual teacher has not altered, or sabotaged, the innovation by mistake or on purpose.

Attitude improvement without staff development. While assuming that teacher shop talk would reflect a positive attitude from those with positive experiences, Guskey does not cover all of the ground since an improvement in attitude can be argued as coming from the experience and student outcome sections without necessarily being a result of the staff development section which precedes them. Then too, changes in classroom practices might have been forced on the teachers by sudden demands of the situation. In that case the change agent would be the personal demands of the individuals being integrated-a slightly different form of coercive power in practice.

Critique of Guskey. One critique of the approaches behind Guskey's model argues that the model is grounded on a view of the teacher as a non-reflective person who is passively adaptable if manipulated in correct ways (Tom, 1986).

Instead of assuming that the teacher is an active, inquiring professional capable of directing his or her own professional development or of collaboration with other teachers, Guskey's model presumes that the teacher is a recipient of externally generated staff development goals and activities. In an 'altered practice precedes attitude change' model, little is done to enhance the decision making opportunities of the teacher, nor to develop the self-regulating capacities of the teacher....in the end, the concept of the teacher implicit in Guskey's model is an object to be manipulated, an inert recipient of new and improved practice and to the beliefs necessary to support the continuation of these practices (Tom, 1986, p.10-15).

Guskey's response. In reply, Guskey (1986) accepts the charge that the model assumes teachers to be generally nonreflective. His initial position is considerably expanded when Guskey maintains that the model does not suggest teachers are incapable of reflection or of careful, well-reasoned decisions about their teaching. He states that the situation is more that they lack the time, encouragement and role setting environment to be reflective about what they have been doing, should be doing or could be doing because they are far too busy doing something. The claim is that the model simply recognizes that the demanding conditions of the classroom environment so consume most teachers that deeper thought and more rational probing are rendered impractical, even impossible. The defence is that the model was not presented as a criticism of the profession, but rather of the conditions in which it labours.

It [the model] reflects the dynamics of the change process as it typically takes place among dedicated professionals working in a very demanding environment...if, in the future the classroom environment is reshaped to afford teachers more opportunities for reflection, or if teachers are helped to deal with classroom demands more efficiently so that greater thought can be given to the reasons for their professional decisions, perhaps this model will need revision. Until that time, however, the model seems to be an accurate picture of change events (Guskey, 1986, p.449).

Not a lot of this material is of much help in coming to grips with the basic gap between the top-down coercive and the interactive knowledge proponents since the Guskey model suggests that an attitude change largely would occur only after experience with the innovation had been perceived as positive. Whether the staff development box is described as coercive, co-operative or non-existent does not seem to matter. The location of the change agent is mixed for the model in that the staff development officer might not be an outsider,

even if the impetus for the change comes from outside. Should this be accepted as true, then the outside change agent would be wise to consider investing most of the efforts of innovation into support features which would be helpful in achieving improved student outcomes, rather than spending the resources in trying to modify teacher attitudes before the innovation takes place. Such mundane items as class size, new materials, support personnel and general teacher "stroking" would seem logical areas for attack.

Additional views. There is research available which suggests the existence of a hierarchy of teacher reluctance to accept special students based on the nature of the difficulty (Warren & Turner, 1966; Shears & Jensema, 1969; Tringo, 1970; Rapier et al, 1972; Shotel et al, 1972; Vacc & Kirst, 1977; Williams & Algozzine, 1977; Mooney & Algozzine, 1978; Moore & Fine, 1978; Hirshoren & Burton, 1979; Williams & Algozzine, 1979; Cartwright, 1980).

Guskey's model is based on a feedback idea suggesting the improvement noted will improve the attitudes and, one assumes, the improvement would then be greater for the next round of performance because of the improved attitudes.

It is safe to say that teachers are reluctant to adopt new practice unless they feel they can make it work for them (Lortie, 1975). This highly individual and personalized concept is complicated by the view that the likelihood of an innovation being successfully implemented depends largely on teachers' judgement of the magnitude of the change required for implementation (Mann, 1978). Those responsible for guiding the innovation are themselves informed by the judgement of those writers who suggest that if a new program requires major changes, it would be better to ease into its use rather than expect comprehensive implementation at once (Fullan, 1985).

Another related view that weakens the Guskey model arises from the literature on the subject that presents the idea that time and experimentation would be necessary in order for teachers to fit the new practice to their unique class room conditions (Berman, 1976). In order to follow the Guskey pattern, that time would have to be allotted in the first and second stages of the model.

A further complication with the model is found in the human communication factors which suggest staff development programs concerning new innovations are most successful when teachers can meet regularly to discuss their experiences in an atmosphere of collegiality and experimentation (Little, 1981).

#### General Statement of Change Considerations

Judging from representative samples dating from the end of the Second World War to the mid 1980's, the major bodies of thought concerning change procedures can be identified as either top-down directives incorporating various degrees of intellectual and social force, or the opposing co-operative sharing of knowledge and information in order to reason together towards a common goal. There are many subdivisions and combinations referred to in the literature, but these two positions appear basic to the field. The lack of one definitive position on the question can be seen for the matter of the preferred location of the change agent; whether inside, outside, or outside trying to be inside the organization.

The literature reviewed offers a wide range of methods for getting on with the job by considering the nature of the change, the social fabric into which it is to be inserted, the wider environment from which it comes and the relative comfort of various methods of conducting the insertion, easing the passage and evaluating the results as a base for the next process of change. These fit, more or less neatly, under the umbrella of one of the two schools of thought: co-operative or coercive.



The material reviewed shares a general agreement to the extent that change has been accomplished in a variety of ways, that some are more acceptable than others, that all changes result in the need for new change and that there are no guarantees of long term success built into any of the approaches found in recent, or ancient, human experience with change. In short, the status quo is not, has not been, and will not be, static.

### Attitude and Attitude Change

#### Background

A common starting point is to examine reference materials for applicable definitions. Accordingly, several variations of meaning for the term "attitude" were identified as follows:

.a predisposition to respond for or against an object, person, or position (Devito, 1986, p.26).

.Learning is sometimes defined as the process through which some aspect of human behaviour (e.g. beliefs, attitudes or actions) is acquired or changed through an individual's encounter with events, mental or physical (Jamieson, 1985, p. 5).

.Attitudes are the internal mental and emotional states that affect how we react to outside persuasion (Williams, 1984, p. 111).

.An attitude is an mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related (Allport, 1935, p. 810).

A basic position. An informative position is provided by Allport (1937) when he argues that "traits" are determining tendencies or predispositions to respond. He further described them as:

a generalized and focalized neuropsychic system (peculiar to the individual) with the capacity to render many stimuli functionally equivalent, and to initiate and guide

consistent (equivalent) forms of adaptive and expressive behaviour (Allport, 1937, p. 295).

As one of a group of trait theorists he felt that traits are not linked to specific stimuli. He presented a classification which continues to be useful. The first type he called 'general' which produce broad consistencies in behaviour. He remained convinced of the existence of highly generalized predispositions he labelled 'cardinal' traits. Less pervasive but still generalized predispositions were called 'central' traits. He used the term 'attitudes' as applying to more specific, narrow dispositions identified under the 'secondary' label. For Allport, traits are the ultimate realities of mental organization in that they are used as constructs to explain consistency of observed behaviour in relation to an environment.

Behaviour, according to Allport, is motivated originally by instincts, but later the behaviour may become capable of sustaining itself without reinforcement from the environment. He develops the idea of "functional autonomy" based on changes in motivation. He finds little connection between the motives of the early development of the person and the more mature motives.

The character of motives alters so radically from infancy to maturity that we may speak of adult motives as supplanting the motives of infancy (Allport, 1940, p. 545).

In Allport's view, the past is not central to current motivated behaviour unless it can be shown that there is a similarity in the motivational structures present at both times. He uses the term "proprium" to identify the root of the consistency which he feels characterizes attitudes, goals and values. He argues that this proprium is not innate; it develops over time (Allport, 1940). "Propriate striving" is the term used to identify the motivated behaviour which is of central importance to the self as opposed to behaviour which is outside. The term can be applied to any form of behaviour that involves self-realization rather than extrinsic

rewards. He uses the examples of the scientist, explorer or craftsman when so driven. Thus in addition to de-emphasizing the person's early motivations and distant past, Allport focuses on the individual's currently perceived experiences informed by his unique pattern of adaptation and ambition. He favours a holistic view of humanity as an integrated, bio-social organism rather than a creation driven by instinct (Mischel, 1976).

Allport's initial position defines an attitude as a construct that can be influenced by outside forces such as inservice activities. The next step is to develop effective ways of delivering that outside influence.

A needs approach. Katz (1960) emphasized attitude formation activities based on close examination of the psychological needs of the individual which are satisfied by the development and preservation of attitudes.

The Katz classification of needs was presented on four levels. The first of these is the "knowledge function" which suggests that the frames of reference within which the individual organizes the world are knowledge based and thus learned. Thus "...modifying attitudes based upon the knowledge function would seem to involve leading the receiver to attend to different cues about the object and to learn new discriminations" (Katz, 1960, p. 170).

The second level is termed the "utilitarian function" which suggests that people have positive feelings towards things which they perceive as providing rewards and negative feelings towards those which do not. Enabling the learner to maximize reward and minimise perceived punishment is an established teaching procedure. Katz's third type is the "value expressing function" which assists the learner in holding values which provide a measure of clarity for the self-image. To put it another way, the learner demonstrates its identity through associating itself with positively perceived values by holding positive attitudes towards those values. This is considered to be a learned process.

The final need is closely related to the third. Katz labelled it the "ego defense function" whereby the learner can defend its self-image against perceived attack by taking refuge in attitudes which are often prejudicial. The holder of the self-image is not at fault, failures are due to actions of "those" people who keep interfering as part of the plot.

The Katz discussion of needs satisfied by attitude development offers further support for the planning of inservice activities for classroom teachers who bring established attitudes to that inservice.

Changing attitudes. Additional information to guide attitude change was presented when Fleming and Levie (1978) dealt with the direct manipulation of materials and procedures with the intention of influencing learning. Here an attitude is defined as "...a latent variable...not directly observable but inferred from behaviour" (Fleming & Levie, 1978, p. 196). A connected note is the comment that: "...opinions are more transitory and subject to change. This distinction between attitudes and opinions lies in the importance the object holds for the individual, and in his/her involvement with the issue" (Fleming & Levie, 1978, p. 198).

Further to an understanding of attitude, the authors developed a number of expanded implications. These include the ideas that attitudes have objects; that is, people have attitudes towards specific items, and classes of things, as well as events and behaviours. Attitudes have an affective component; that is, the emotional avoidance/approach tendencies can vary in direction, degree and intensity of impact. Fleming and Levie state that attitudes have a behavioral component; that is, attitudes held impose a predisposition to perform in certain ways. They do note, however, that any behaviour must be considered to be determined by a number of variable factors. "Any particular act is the product of a blend of several personal predispositions (only one of which is attitude) and of the demands the particular situation places upon the performer" (Fleming & Levie, 1978, p. 197).

A third component discussed is the cognitive component of attitudes. It holds that people do not issue from the womb with complete sets of inbuilt attitude structures. These are learned. More to the point of an examination of inservice programs for teachers was the observation, echoed elsewhere, that the provision of information, by itself, is not sufficient for changing attitudes. The authors also note that people can be seen behaving in ways which are clearly dissonant when compared with the information they possess.

Based on the principles gleaned from the social sciences, the Fleming and Levie text can be used as a handbook for those involved in message design. A sample of these principles would include such notions as source-receiver similarity contributes to the attractiveness of the source, that more effective communication occurs when the source and receiver are similar and that this familiarity correlates with source attractiveness. They feel that attitudes perform psychological functions, that attitude change is facilitated by relating message content to these psychological functions and that attitudes can be changed when the receiver becomes involved with a human model (Fleming & Levie, 1978).

The literature reinforces these notions that attitudes, however defined in detail, are considered to be influential for human behaviours, are seen as capable of being learned and modified, as well as being responsive to a variety of persuasion techniques. All of this offers direct guidance for the planning of inservice procedures.

Should attitudes be changed? A related matter was raised when the authors noted "...educators express increasing concern with changing attitudes, not only toward subject matter, but also attitudes about social issues such as treatment of minority groups" (Fleming & Levie, 1978, p. 195).

This poses the basic question of whether a democratic society has a right to attempt the changing of attitudes with which it disagrees, instead of attempting to provide for the

expression of a variety of attitudes. A basic response to this question was put forth by Jamieson (1985) when he pointed out in connection with "... the ethical problem of moulding attitudes?...It is in the intention behind all forms of persuasive communication that the resolution of the value, positive or negative, of persuasion lies" (Jamieson, 1985, p. 75).

#### Summary of Attitude Positions

A conclusion for the consideration of the general topic of attitude is provided by Tannenbaum (1984) when he remarked: "The field of study encompassed by attitudinal formation, maintenance, and change through communication is alive, but not completely well and still looking for a comfortable theoretical home" (Tannenbaum, 1984, p. 119). He went on to outline the approaches taken to the topic during the 1950's, 1960's and 1970's. He concluded that, while Attribution Theory is still a current favourite at his time of writing, some key questions involved in attitude theory remain to be explored. An examination of the areas covered by Tannenbaum's questions will assist the planner of inservice activities in reviewing coverage of background necessary for careful planning and delivery of attitude change procedures.

Questions. The first of these is presented as "Are attitudes solely pseudo-theoretical constructs-figments of the social science imagination so to speak-or do they have some basis in fact?" (Tannenbaum, 1984, p. 120). He admits personal uncertainty, but mentions the clear evidence of basic approach/avoidance reactions which are generally accepted as revealing attitudes.

The second question is phrased as "Do attitudes shape cognitions, or vice-versa, or is there no relation between the two?" (Tannenbaum, 1984, p. 121). Tannenbaum supports the contention that more immediate responses are often emotional feelings which are similar to

attitudes in that they exist before conscious cognitive activities and often influence the cognitive conclusions.

Third on his list is "What about the relation between attitudes and behaviour?" (Tannenbaum, 1984, p. 122). In this regard he accepts evidence that attitudes do predispose individuals toward certain behaviours, that the reverse is often true and that he can find no reasons for either; or, for that matter, for the many examples where the two do not appear related at all.

The fourth question is "What is the role of communication messages in attitude formation and change?" (Tannenbaum, 1984, p. 122).

It has been generally accepted that the format of the message package has influence other than straight content, but Tannenbaum stresses that too much power has been attributed to the media which present repeated persuasions. He points to evidence that mediated messages can be discounted when their content contradicts personal experience with that view. He also suggests that the consumer of these messages tends to become less influenced when higher levels of familiarity with the particular message are reached through repetition.

A final concern is raised when he asks "To what degree are attitudes based on information?" (Tannenbaum, 1984, p. 124). This is clearly a critical question for the planners of inservice activities for classroom teachers. Tannenbaum supports the evidence that the contextual setting of the message has more impact than does the information content. He refers to such items as the credibility of the message source, the nature of argument presented and the existing predisposition of the audience. He concludes that: "...it is more appropriate to think of 'belief systems' relatively stable over time but also dynamic in that change in one or more of their central elements can indirectly lead to change in associated elements" (Tannenbaum, 1984, p. 125). This type of change is one of the goals of inservice.

### Inservice Programs

The National Education Association (1978) identified some factors which were associated with negative attitudes towards mainstreaming. Among these were the influences of overcrowded classrooms, rigid teaching schedules, inadequate facilities, biased testing and evaluation procedures and inadequate preservice and inservice programs.

This material offers additional support for attempting to influence those mental constructs commonly referred to as attitudes. It reinforces the notion that attitudes do exist, are developed over time and can be modified to some extent through external influences such as pre and inservice programs. While the literature is not unanimous on the success of every inservice activity, it is clear that teachers and administrators react positively to the idea.

Another support for the concept of inservice as a way of approaching the nature of teacher attitudes was offered by Jones (1978) when he noted that the nature of teachers' attitudes towards individuals with special needs may stem from factors which can be addressed through specified inservice activities, since preservice education is limited both in exposure to, and adequate information about, children with special needs. These aspects lend themselves to an inservice approach.

Then too, teachers have been exposed to the conformity of prevailing social norms and educational values which formerly meant that there was little necessity for teachers to design instructional programs for children whose needs and abilities were outside the usual limits of the public schools. Thus inservice is seen as a means of filling in gaps in preservice preparation so that teachers can satisfy a need to feel both confident and competent in their role as a teacher (Jones, 1978).

These comments support the contention that the provision of information which the teachers had never received, or had forgotten, was a keystone for any inservice activity. This



position was expanded by Larrivee (1987) when that study identified additional factors which influence teacher attitudes which centre around the general philosophy of mainstreaming and its effects on handicapped and non-handicapped students. These are linked to the expected behaviour of students with special needs, the teachers' feeling of confidence in this special area, classroom management strategies in general and the potential for academic and social growth of all students.

#### Desirable Attitudes for Teachers

At this point it is instructive to examine a detailed list of attitudes identified as being required for all teacher trainees at one American university. This is one of many attempts to specify desirable attitudes. Once identified and agreed to, the planner of inservice activities has a solid framework upon which to organize whatever activities are feasible.

Among other items, the list centres on particular attitudinal competencies which the authors present as crucial. These are based on the need to accept as basic truth the following ideas: handicapped students have a right to free and appropriate education in the least restrictive environment, handicapped students can learn in the regular classrooms, these students are able to contribute to their own development and that of the wider community, and handicapped students are entitled to all of the same rights as the non-handicapped population (Clark, Miller & Quizenberry, 1981).

While it would be difficult to insure that such admirable beliefs are transmitted successfully to the majority of participants in inservice training, it is clear that they are a basis for successful integration.

#### Additional Views on Inservice

Many authors have added to the growing list of requirements for inservice activities by ensuring the inclusion of such generally accepted ideas as the development of teaching

strategies which facilitate individualized programs and effective classroom management, the development of procedures for enhancing communication among all involved professionals, the use and adaptation of instructional materials and the availability of resources, an awareness of relevant laws and their implications, the ability to formulate individualized educational programs and information on characteristics of individuals with special needs (Birch, 1978; Jensen & Schaefer, 1978; Holloway & Kerr, 1979; Powers, 1979; Tymitz, 1980; Boyle & Slater, 1981; Lee, 1981; Lehr, 1982).

In addition, a number of authors supported elaborate processes of sensitivity training and experiential exploration of the teachers' existing beliefs. They also suggested activities which simulate handicaps so participating teachers could partially identify and relate to difficulties faced in the classroom by special needs pupils (Birch, 1978; Holloway & Kerr, 1979; Boyle & Slater, 1981; Stoner, 1981; Allen, 1982; Lehr, 1982).

The right to education position. Gallagher (1985) presents a number of related concerns. In particular, Gallagher points out that the preoccupation with the practical implications of the term "mainstreaming" have obscured the basic point that all children have a right to education: a right, not a privilege. This author states that all individuals can be thought of as slow, average, or bright depending on the task at hand and the standards of the judges and, as persons advance in age, all acquire disabilities. Thus all pupils must be approached as both learners and unique individuals deserving of what individualization of educational experiences can be provided. Gallagher concludes with the observations that labels can be disabling mechanisms for all concerned, that disabilities do not need to be handicaps and the education of exceptional children is a process requiring exceptional amounts of teamwork (Gallagher, 1985).

### Curricula for Inservice

Competencies. A direct checklist format for items to be included in planning for inservice activities was presented by Reynolds (1979) in the form of competency areas to be achieved. These were based on the idea that inservice planning had to be concerned with more than the provision of packets of information, however useful they may be as a first step. Skills, many of which are standard components of preservice programs, will have to be assessed, reviewed and developed if participants in inservice are to achieve competency in the planning and delivery of classroom education to special children.

The Reynolds presentation can be divided into three areas. First is the need for participants to be exposed to information which may be needed. This would be accomplished through the study of, and first-hand experience with, curriculum guides and structures at all levels. This leads to opportunities to gain knowledge of classroom management procedures, such as applied behaviour analysis, group alerting, guiding transitions, materials arrangement, crisis intervention techniques and group approaches to creating a positive affective climate. Added to this knowledge base would be experience with effective consultation and other forms of professional communication. This would form a foundation for the concept of mainstreaming that would include the regulations involved.

A second major division suggested by Reynolds would be the provision of planned experiences to assist the participants in developing interpersonal skills in the areas of dealing with parents and siblings of students with handicaps, as well as skills needed to assist all students in relating to one another in positive and constructive ways.

The third component would be the provision for the participants to achieve some level of mastery over such direct tasks as the ability to teach basic skills, including literacy, life maintenance, and personal development skills to the range of students involved. In addition,

participants in a Reynolds format would develop skills of referral, such as assessment, observation techniques and knowledge of available resources and how to implement them (Reynolds, 1979).

Cognitive and affective checklist items. Another set of considerations to assist the design and implementation of inservice activities is presented by Wood (1985). These considerations are useful in that Wood reaffirms the need to include both affective and cognitive components. Wood also expands this need to be part of preservice education for all teachers. Wood shares the views of other authors who insist that inservice activities must be well planned in consultation with teachers and well delivered so that teachers will receive reinforcement from on-going inservice training to maintain a positive attitude.

Teacher identified requirements. An additional perspective can be found in an Ontario study by Crealock (1982). This study reported that a majority of the teachers indicated a preference for the use of available special education materials by in-school colleagues during a workshop with two follow up sessions for a half day at the school site. The list of topics suggested by teachers involved in this study is useful as a statement of what teachers want in inservice. Teachers indicate that they feel they lack information on such commonplace topics as the availability and proper use of materials, ways of identifying the learning disabled child, the emotionally disturbed or socially maladjusted child as well as the gifted. Teachers want help in developing ways of teaching self-help and socialization skills to pupils at varying levels. They also want direct advice on accepted ways of modifying both curriculum and methodology in a regular class to support the integration of a handicapped child. All of these requested items are constructive in that the teachers are looking for assistance in dealing with the problems rather than ways of avoiding them.

### Formats for in-service

An interesting preamble to a consideration of format came from a trio of prerequisites for successful inservice identified by Jensen and Schaefer (1978) when they suggested that teachers must be actively involved, and perceived as involved, in planning the objectives, content and format of the inservice programs, that the topics so identified should be chosen in accordance with teacher needs and that those used as presenters should have background and experience which match the identified needs. This material is reinforced by additional specifics presented when Powers (1983) provided a list of format implications for inservice activities. This itemized preferences that teachers indicated for a variety of locations within and outside the school environment, direct learning experiences, preferably hands-on where feasible, as well as live demonstrations of techniques, materials and strategies. Role playing techniques, simulation activities and demonstration lessons were included, as was the use of inter-classroom and inter-school visits to carefully chosen situations.

A comprehensive checklist. Another approach to the problem of what to include in an inservice activity can be found in Haisley and Gilberts (1978). This is a long example of the check list approach to identifying desirable individual skills. [It is too long to be included here.] These desirable skills are identified and presented so that the operators of the activity can evaluate the product, and thus the program, on a consistent basis.

Very few of these skills are original with this list. The value of the complete Haisley and Gilberts checklist lies in its concise mapping of what should be achieved by the participants in an inservice program. Of particular interest is the stress placed on skills identification and development rather than information provision, as well as the number and complexity of what are usually referred to as interpersonal skills when dealing with professionals and parents. Areas of curriculum modification abilities, diagnostic efforts and

classroom management skills are identified, many in relation to the individualized educational plan [IEP] approach (Haisley & Gilberts, 1978).

### Existing Teacher Attitudes

Much of the literature surveyed dealt with the problem of identifying what existing attitudes were held by the target population. Many of the studies suggested further research was needed to reduce large assortments of attitudes to more manageable clusters through factor analysis techniques. Once the key factors are identified, then they can be treated to produce attitudes considered positive.

It must also be noted that the idea that teachers are reluctant to accept integration, and that this reluctance is based on fear and lack of clarification of responsibilities and competencies needed, is a common finding (Byford, 1979; Perkins, 1979; Dixon, 1980; Paul & Wamock, 1980).

Several studies emphasised the position that successful integration depends on positive teacher attitudes (Haring, 1957; Hariymiw & Horne, 1976; Huges, 1978; Hudson, Graham & Wamer, 1979; Williams & Algozzine, 1979; Baker & Gottlieb, 1980; Larrivee, 1981).

Other studies indicated that there was a need to examine regular, [non-specialist] teachers' attitudes (Blakenship & Lilly, 1977; Boyle & Sleeter, 1981; Buttery, 1981). Further examination indicated that regular classroom teachers believed themselves to be poorly equipped for mainstreaming and were resentful at being pressed into it (Shotel, Iano & McGettigan, 1972; Gickling & Theobald, 1975). Others cautioned against oversimplification and pointed out that attitudes are difficult to measure in that they are highly individual and multidimensional (Algozzine & Curran, 1979; Smith, 1979; Stephens & Braun, 1980; Kunzweiler, 1982).

Several studies report findings which provide a base for the general idea that teachers do hold negative attitudes towards mainstreaming.

These studies held that teachers were unwilling to provide services not required by regular pupils in the classroom (Major, 1961; Charles & Malian, 1980). Many teachers indicated that handicapped children belonged in special classes (Barngrover, 1971), but it must be noted that this study predated the American federal legislation.

Other papers offer support for mainstreaming (Wolensberger, 1972; Keogh & Levitt, 1976; MacMillan & Becker, 1977). Some researchers indicated teachers feel mainstreaming will dilute the programs offered in the classrooms (Bradfield, Brown, Kaplan, Ricker & Standard, 1973; Hudson, Graham & Warner, 1979). This appears matched by the commonly held attitude that children with special needs were likely to cause disturbances (Blazovik, 1972; Vacc & Kirst, 1977; Hudson, Graham & Warner, 1979), and that they would require far too much time which would have to be taken from the regular children (Brulle, Berton, Berton & Wharten, 1983).

A final note in this regard comes from the paper that reported that not all teachers are well suited to mainstreaming (Mandel & Strain, 1978).

Additional views. A number of other studies must be noted at this point, since they offer support for inservice by suggesting that teacher willingness to accept integration is related to the number of special education courses taken and to the basic belief that the handicapped can function in society (Stephens & Braun, 1980).

This indicates that inservice contacts should provide new background, as well as filling in gaps in the pre-service study. Support for this was found in the papers which indicate that exposure to and knowledge about exceptionalities positively influenced attitudes (Glass & Meeker, 1972; Harasymiw & Home, 1976; Larrivee, 1978; Mandell & Strain, 1978).

A related point was strongly supported by a number of studies which offer evidence that hands-on experience with the handicapped resulted in improved attitudes towards them (Haring, 1957; Cendell & Tonn, 1965; Proctor, 1967; Brooks & Bransford, 1971; Glass & Meckler, 1972; Yates, 1973; Higgs, 1975; Leyser, Abrams & Lipscomb, 1982; Sanche, Haines & VanHestern, 1982).

On the other hand, this does not always seem to be the case, since three studies examined held that positive attitudes actually declined after hands-on contact with the handicapped (Hall, 1970; Schottel, Iano & McGettigan, 1971; Buttery, 1979).

The amount of material consulted indicates that there is a general agreement that the attitudes held by the classroom teacher, faced with the new experience of mainstreaming, are a critical factor in the successful implementation of this approach to the needs of special children. It was equally clear that there are differences between and among authors as to what should be done about the complexities of the attitudes held and, more to the point, how to go about changing them in ways which are both effective and acceptable. Since there is general agreement that inservice activities of some kind are an acceptable way to approach the areas of concern, the matter of design for these activities arises. To that end a model is presented in Chapter III of this thesis.



## CHAPTER III

### Visual Representations Summarizing Change Methods

#### Background.

Following consideration of many of the points made by the selected literature reviewed, an attempt was made to consolidate this material into graphic models. These are intended as guidelines for examining the interrelationships of the phases of a change process. The aim is to assist with describing and implementing organized innovation.

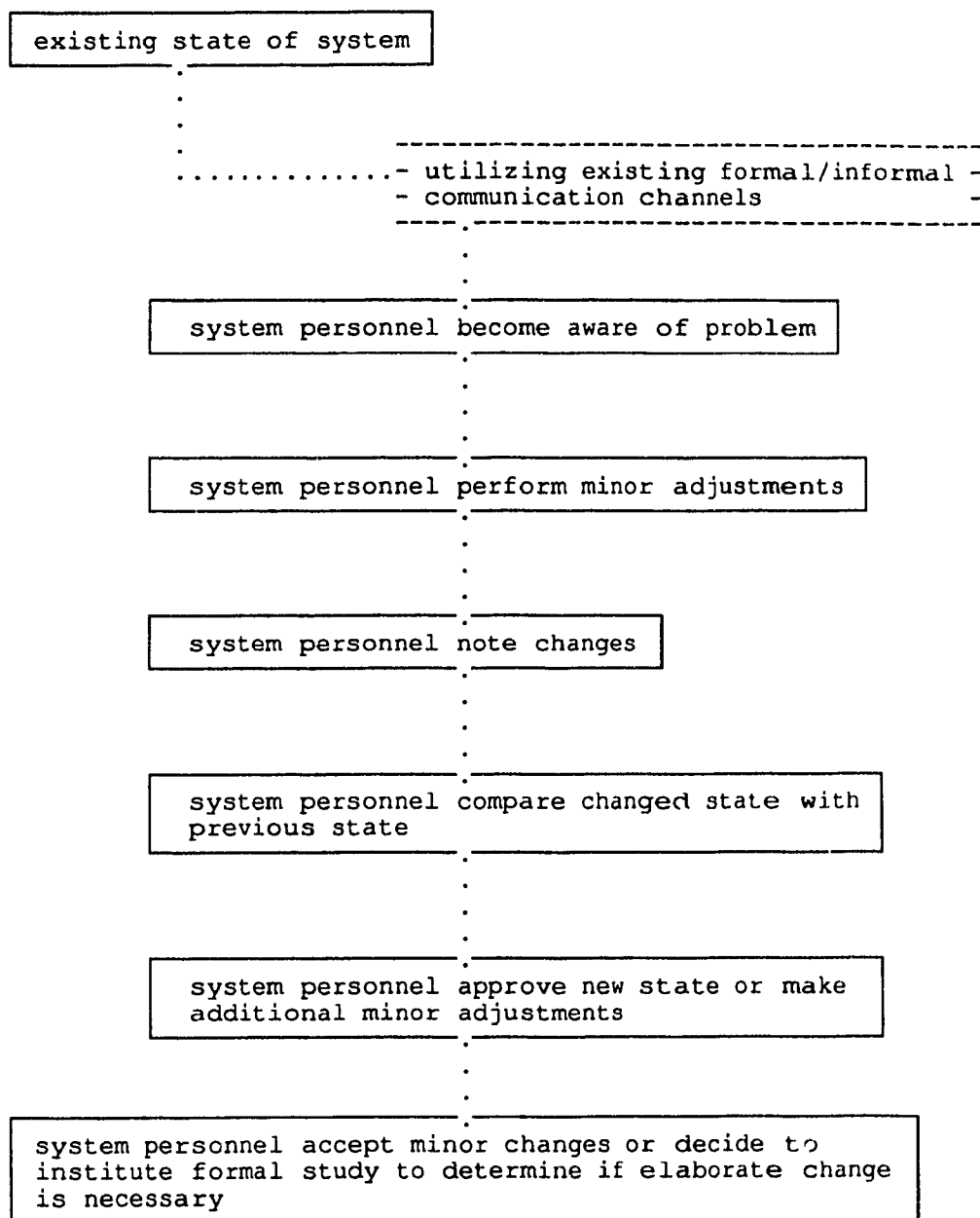
This process draws heavily on general aspects of established thought. The approach expressed in these models embodies a good deal of generalization concerning the way enterprises are organized and the ways in which they function. In addition, there is considerable oversimplification of the complex matter of communication channels and message variables inherent in any chain of command or grouping of responsible people.

While three models are presented, only one is developed in detail. The Co-operative Change Model embodies the processes of innovation which best fit the author's personal attitudes and prejudices formed by direct experience with a series of career changes and the indirect experiences provided by selected readings. It also provides an opportunity to incorporate, within this wider scope, a proposed model for influencing attitudes of teachers involved in an innovation situation.

This process resulted in model formats that present related areas of concern. All three assume that those concerned with the organization are willing, more or less, to undergo some change process; that there is an element of free choice involved. The models also assume that a system of organization has been in place over time. The planners are not faced with the task of establishing aims and goals on a blank sheet of paper.

The models are labelled as Self-induced, Coercive and Co-operative.

Figure 2. Self-Induced Change Model



Discussion of self-induced model. This visualization is based on the notion that an organization composed of humans is self-aware in the sense that those individuals involved in activity are able to tell when a role or action is not functioning as intended. Those individuals would be supportive enough of the functions of the organization to care about its success.

They would, on their own, be both willing and able to make small scale changes without attracting a great deal of attention from those above or below them. The reward would be a kind of self-satisfaction and self-knowledge.

The structure of the organization would have to be loose enough to allow a degree of flexibility before formal notice had to be taken of a variation in procedures. Thus a change in coffee break times for individuals staffing one service counter might be easily made without difficulty while a shift to flexible time for the entire department might not. Many modifications in teacher timetables occur at this base level.

The process developed in the model begins with an awareness, transmitted through existing formal and informal channels, that a particular procedure is not quite right. The particular point is not considered to be a major problem by those involved with it. They may be in error, but there would be no sabotage involved. Without involving much communication beyond their own level, the personnel directly involved perform some adjustment function and evaluate the immediate results. This process, the sixth box of the model, is regarded as a decision point.

If the new state is considered to be inferior to the old, or in the more probable situation that the solution is causing problems for others in the system, a formalized decision has to be made to proceed with the next step. This requires a degree of autonomy to approve the new condition as satisfactory, to identify it as requiring some additional low visibility tinkering or to decide that a more elaborate process is indicated by the reactions to the initial innovation.

The most interesting aspect illustrated by the model is the process involved in deciding whether or not the problem can be handled on the metaphoric shop floor or must be sent up the line to the front office. The human relationships involved in this process, to say nothing

of traditional union rules of job classification, determine the viability of this small scale process. The model assumes that any problem important enough to attract what would usually be regarded as supervisory attention would exceed the limits of the informal process.

The following illustrations deal with situations of a different order of importance than can be accommodated by the preceding model.

Figure 3.      **Cocrcive Change Model**

```

leadership notices mis-match between what is and what is required
  by goals and aims of organization
      |
leadership establishes responsibility network to deal with problem
      |
responsibility network examines problem
      |
project leader, budget and time allotments identified
      |
new procedures identified and refined
      |
  new procedures distributed
      |
  new procedures implemented
      |
  feedback procedures followed
      |
  minor realignment procedures followed
      |
  modified procedures implemented
      |
      loop cycles until top
      level leadership acts
***** feedback procedures followed *****
*
*
*   responsibility realigned if changes prove unsatisfactory   *
*
*
*   modified procedures implemented                               *
*
*
***** feedback procedures followed *****

responsibility realigned [ or ] implementation abandoned
      |
successful implementation
  
```

Discussion of coercive change model. This model assumes that the organization already has a well defined leadership role system, that the organization has developed clear channels of command-oriented rather than discussion-oriented communication methods, and that the organization has existed over time. This model represents one of the most common approaches found in the literature on innovation, the top-down concept so often associated with the military patterns of a hierarchical organization chart.

The model develops the change process from the initial point when the leadership becomes aware that a problem exists because those further down the line have considered it important enough to direct upwards for treatment.

It could be argued that the leadership may have become aware of the problem through pressures from the environment surrounding the system and not through reports from within the system. Indeed, this process has become common in recent political history, where those below the senior leadership level decide to filter out the bad news, either through a desire to protect the leadership or to avoid admitting their own failures.

At any rate, the model begins with the metaphoric buck being passed to the top of the model where the leadership, individual or group, becomes aware of a discrepancy between what is and what should be. The model assumes the limits of 'what should be' have already been established to the satisfaction of the leadership.

The first step at the second level of the model illustrates this process as a responsibility network, since the role may well be assigned to a group rather than an individual, even though a single individual would normally be regarded as responsible.

This responsibility network performs both an enquiry and a decision function. The identified problem would have to be examined, possibly in consultation with experts from outside the network or organization, in view of the established goals of the organization and

the values of the environment in which it operates. This is a time consuming process leading to a major decision. A decision must be made either to ignore the problem or to do something about it.

The model uses the term "examines" as a way of condensing a complex set of activities into one piece of terminology.

The remaining levels of the model present fewer problems. Responsibility is again delegated to a project leader with the role of establishing practical procedures for time and money investment for the change. Three levels down from the top is not an unlikely area for practical activity. Part of this level of responsibility extends into the next level of the model where the process of codification necessary for clear communication takes place.

The next two steps suggested by the model, the distribution of new procedures and their implementation, involve some type of trial period with connected feedback processes. The process could lead directly into the feedback procedure level where activities decided on earlier would be applied to determine whether established limits of acceptability have been reached by the innovation. Should this be the case, then the model suggests that some minor adjustment would be required in view of the feedback procedures. A second implementation of the revisions would be activated and the feedback process reapplied.

At this point the model illustrates that a loop may be possible between the second level of feedback and the final decision to adopt or abort the innovation. This loop involves the levels of responsibility in a process of revision which centres, not on the nature of the innovation passed down from the responsibility network and leadership levels, but rather on the capability of those involved at this level. This fire-the-messenger metaphor is often associated with the phrase "If you can't do it, I'll find someone who can!". The number of

times the suggested loop would recycle, or the level and number of subordinate employees involved in its process, is difficult to foresee.

The end result of the loop is a final decision point with three possibilities. The first is that the feedback suggests the problem has been solved and no further action is necessary from the leadership level. The second is that the feedback activities on the main vertical line of command result in a realignment of the responsibility network level, since top level realignment is unlikely, although always possible. With the responsibility network reworked, the line would be followed as before.

The third decision possible from the working of the model could be a decision to abandon the innovation and return to the pre-existing patterns of organizational behaviour.

This, however, might lead to a restart for the process if the leadership became interested. An awareness of the shortcomings of the attempt at innovation might involve leadership in a process of re-examining the information procedures which had led to the initial awareness of the mis-match perceived as the starting point for the model. The information may have been incorrect, the value environment may have changed during the process, or the innovation may have been mis-handled. The buck has returned to the top.

The nature of authority represented by this type of top-down model is an established one. It had been argued that there is no solid evidence suggesting the concept is inherently weak. It has also been argued that the vaunted efficiency associated with the top-down process has been over emphasized. Experiences with bureaucracy are commonplace with the worst cases suggesting a system had come to regard its existence as important for the sake of its own internal demands rather than for the purposes applicable, often laudable, which empowered it in the first place.

The following third attempt to create a model for use in the examination of a process of innovation is presented in more detail than the others. This pattern is based on the frequently encountered notion that people were more likely to implement change successfully when they have been, or at least have the perception that they have been, involved in the process from the beginning and their contributions have played a part in the finished product.

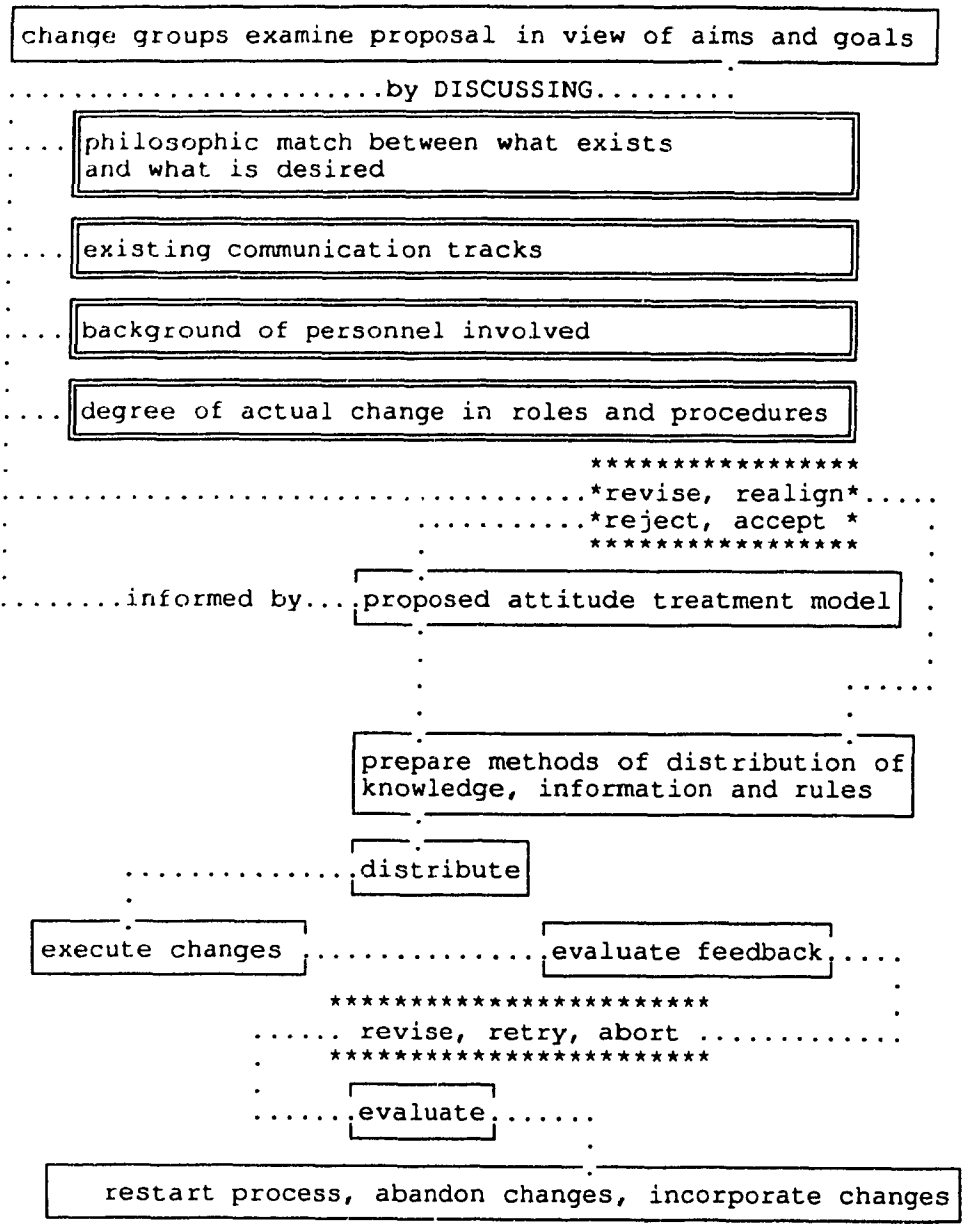
The model does not illustrate an unfocused mix of opinions offered with varying degrees of volume and emotional intensity. Rather it attempts to outline a procedure whereby the knowledge, skills and attitudes of the personnel involved at different stages of the organization could contribute to an acceptable solution.

If nothing else, following the established notion that the best way of learning something is teaching it to someone else, the process of attempting innovation through co-operation rather than coercion would provide the benefit of requiring the leadership groups responsible to evaluate more carefully the intentions of the innovation, the persuasion techniques involved in implementation, and the impacts of successful adoption, as well as the impacts of partial success or failure.

The refocusing required might well have the additional advantage of increasing awareness of previously hidden skills valuable to the organization, as well as valuable human personality factors involved in both directions along the chain.



Figure 4. Co-operative Change Model



Discussion of Co-operative Change Model. This model begins at the point where the need for a change has been established, either as a result of information received or as part of a planned review process. At this point, the organization has established the first level of activity required for change. It has both noticed the need and identified those first responsible for attending to it.

Details on establishing membership of the change groups are often found within the terms of existing procedures, sometimes spelled out in sub-sections of collective agreements and often derived from the personalities and interests of those in leadership roles. An attempt is often made to have this type of group representative of various levels of skill, experience, background and responsibility.

In addition, those involved should have time available for the activity, be willing to take part and have the co-operative communication skills necessary for both the discussion levels and the persuasion activities associated with this. In short, whether coming from within the organization or not, they would exhibit aspects of a leadership role without an imbalance of conservatism, radicalism or inappropriate individual ambition.

The model charges this group arrangement with the responsibility of "examining" the proposal. This includes some practical matters of time schedules, budget limitations and available meeting and work spaces.

The central point of the model, however, focuses on the meanings implicit in the word "DISCUSSING". Long established usage has associated the term with such two-way communication words as "argue", "debate", "dispute", "comment", "explain", "contest", and "wrangle", or as the Oxford Concise Dictionary (1944) stated: "...examine by argument or debate". This precludes the presentation of prefabricated solutions presented by upper levels of authority for a rubber stamp approval. Should those involved in the process of innovation not accept, and behave according to, these implications, the model would cease to function at this early stage.

The model displays four major areas of discussion. These inter-related connections between and among the areas form sub-areas for consideration. In addition, the model suggests that part of the background for consideration of these areas and sub-areas is formed

by aspects presented in the proposed "Attitude Treatment Model: Inservice Planning" discussed later in these pages.

Aims and goals. The first step, often seen as neglected by groups caught up in the mystery of hardware considerations, is the detailed consideration of the aims and goals of the organization. This is informed by meta-motives which have been in place for some time. If these are unworkable, then the process of innovation must wait until they had been re-established.

Fit. The activity of the second box is concerned with the degree of fit between the meta-motives and the modifications implied, or demanded, by the impact of the innovation. If no match is found to be possible, then the particular innovation should not be attempted. A re-design process for the innovation might well emerge from this part of the discussion.

Communication. Another requirement is an extensive review of the communication channels which actually function within the operation, especially those which are not formalized on the organizational chart. This discussion would include the "traditional who-reports-to-whom-over-whose-head-when-necessary" links. It is expected that some modifications in communication links would result. Topic groups, workplace conferences, posters, training materials, focused small group sessions and such related procedures might be identified as necessary concerns for wide ranging discussion.

People. The next segment of the model guides those concerned to the matter of the personnel affected by the change. Some mundane items of safety and workplace suitability, such as standards for VDT's and smokefree workspace, could be expected to surface. These types of friction points have proved to be major barriers rather than minor annoyances in many innovative situations. In the same way, the provision of expensive training materials for

people who do not read well, or at all, in the language of the supervisors has been a recurring nightmare for innovators.

The model assumes that the employees are already satisfactory performers at the established task patterns. If not, then necessary training or recruitment procedures would have to be performed before the next stage of the model could be approached.

The main proposition of the model is the identification of the process of discussion as the preferred approach. The second is the awareness of the crucial importance of the attitudes of the employees faced with new role demands.

The existing innovation in the schools of New Brunswick which sparked the present study created a host of problems, real, anticipated and imaginary, for those involved when the implementation was perceived as having ignored both the need for discussion prior to the change and the need to deal with the existing attitudes, rather than the skills, of those involved. Material centred on the general issue of attitude change was presented earlier in these pages.

Inquiry. The detailed processes offered by both practice and the literature as a means of determining what attitudes exist are outside the limits of this discussion. Even so, two cautionary notes need to be added at this point. The first is that instruments of inquiry have built-in limitations. The second is that limitations have been often intensified by the simple human tendency to be mischievous, present a slanted version of actual beliefs or just plain lie when faced with attempts to determine actual attitudes. A related point exists in the degree of privacy to which one should be entitled as an employee. Dramatic examples have surfaced in such areas as alcoholic pilots, racist teachers and the newer dilemma of what to do about carriers of the AIDS potential.

Actual change. The box depicting the need to identify "the degree of actual change in roles and procedures" directs attention toward the careful identification of exactly what would happen if the innovation were to take place. This is a process which cannot be left to either chance or wishful thinking. The need for clarity here is strong enough to rate a separate compartment, even though it is a part of the first major step. Solid advice offered to beginning educators has long been the idea of designing the tests to measure the desired outcomes before organizing the course materials.

As well, modern views on propaganda suggest that withholding full information on what would happen if the innovation were to be successfully implemented forms one of the identification marks which separates propaganda from information. Religious, political, military and taxation examples could be found in abundance from recent history. Seen in terms of most business enterprises, the most important considerations under this heading of "actual change" are job security and rates of pay. This has proven true in good times and would be expected to become more important in bad times. A depressing sidenote related to this aspect of attitude formation is the growth in racist, sexist and other prejudiced attitudes noted in times of financial and political upheaval.

Once a satisfactory consensus has been reached on the wide ranging concerns represented so far, the next step would have to be on the policy level of making and recording a decision to revise the innovation, realign the people and formats involved, reject the whole idea or accept it as suitable for passing on to the rest of the innovation process.

Time. The model is weakest in identification of the time investment required for both the discussion and decision steps outlined. These might occur together or in some logical order dictated by the demands of the enterprise. The point of interest is that the time required

would have to be invested before the organization rushed to the implementation stages of innovation.

The concluding segments do not offer much modification to conventional ways of achieving practical goals. The preparation of materials, the distribution of information and new rules of procedure leading to a trial run, evaluation techniques and the balance of the innovation sketch are seen as traditional. The points that needed to be made have been made.

Summary. Briefly put, the approach taken by this model stresses the need for wide and detailed discussion. This discussion would involve those directly involved with those less directly involved. The involvement begins on the philosophic or policy level, with an honest and respected chance of influencing decisions implemented by the organizational structure.

The second requirement is that the attitudes of all involved be considered as important as the skill levels present. Those attitudes must be identified, accepted or manipulated in order for any successful implementation to occur. Once these aspects of the model have been accepted as honest, valid and workable, the rest of the process is familiar territory.

Within these parameters, the decision to incorporate the innovation, abandon the whole idea of change or go back to the metaphoric drawing board for a restart of the process would not vary a great deal from similar decisions common to other models. The buck has to stop somewhere.

This model approached the travel plans for that metaphoric buck in a co-operative and group oriented fashion with the hope that no step in the series would be sabotaged by ill will, incompetence or personal vendetta implications brought to the communication events indicated by the model.

### Attitude Addition to the Co-operative Change Model

As a result of the material surveyed on the general area of innovation and the impact of the attitudes of those involved in the planning and implementation of change, a model intended to serve as a guide to one aspect of inservice planning was developed and tested during this study.

Embedded in the central area of the Co-operative Change Model presented earlier is a box labelled "proposed attitude treatment model" which is intended to influence the discussion processes and decision aspects of the Co-operative Model. The focus of this development is that the attitudes of the people involved in a co-operative change method play a major part in any full or partial success. Accordingly, the attitude treatment model segment is designed to plug into the Co-operative Change Model and would influence the processes proposed by that model.

### Background for Model to Guide Inservice Planning for Attitude Change

In 1946 a series of ideas, dealing with a progression from contact with real objects to symbolic representations thereof, was solidified into a famous model which Dale called the Cone of Experience. This organized types of experience which might befall the learner into a broad based cone rising from the first level of direct contact experience with objects, through dramatized experiences, mediated experiences of various formats to visual symbols, and, at the top, verbal symbols.

One use for this approach lies in the selection of instructional methods and materials based on what is known about the fit between the audience and the options available to the planner in terms of the learner's ability to profit from either concrete experience and/or increasingly abstract symbol systems.

Bruner (1966) developed similar ideas into the three label descriptive scheme of enactive, iconic and symbolic. It is necessary to note, however, that Bruner and Piaget were more concerned with the nature of the mind's operations and the developmental progression of related stages than they were with directly manipulating the nature of the stimuli presented to the learner.

These ideas have some bearing on the matter of designing inservice programs for classroom teachers. The main stumbling block, however, remains: how can we effectively organize a series of instructional events which will influence attitudes held by the receivers of these events? Underlying this is the related need to work within accepted ethical behaviours, deal with political pressures and function within organizational constraints.

A possible approach was presented by Romiszowski (1981) when he observed that:

...Gagne suggests that attitudes are either learned directly (by experiencing pleasure or success in activity) or indirectly (by copying a human model which the learner respects or with which he identifies). Thus the main types of tactics for the development of attitudes are (a) re-enforcement of participation in desirable activities or of desirable reactions to given situations and (b) the setting of an example or the creation of a human model of the desirable attitude (Romisowski, 1981, p. 191).

Romisowski goes on to speak of the need to provide opportunities to practice the newly acquired attitudes. In a later chapter he adds:

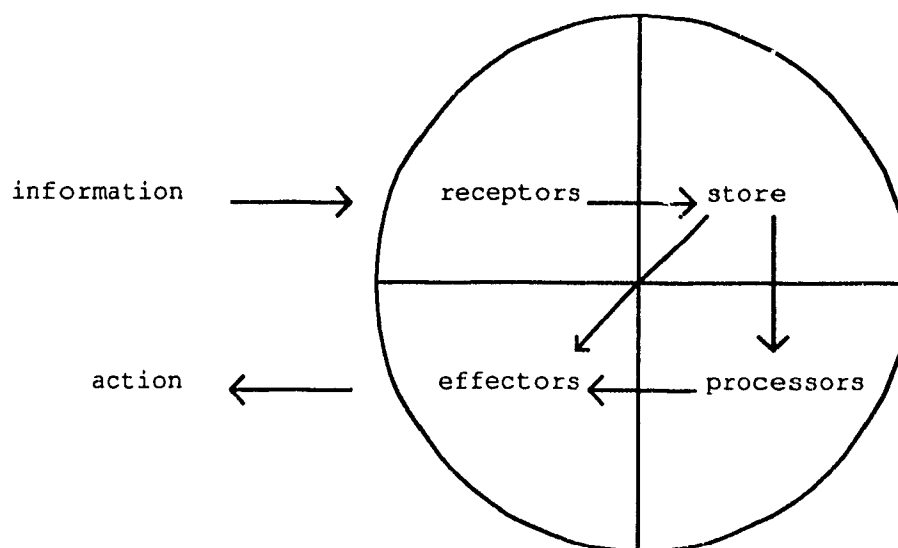
...in so far as attitudes can be learned and are exhibited by the learner's behaviour, it is quite useful to treat them as acquired skills. They have the characteristic of skills, in that one may hold a particular attitude in varying degrees of strength (Romisowski, 1981, p. 242).



This suggestion provides a logical direction for inservice programs. If we decide to treat attitudes as though they are skills which can be identified, taught, learned and evaluated, then well established techniques may be useful in clarifying the problem.

Model of the learner. Romisowski models the individual learner as a circle with elements interacting within the organism and having directional links with the environment.

Figure 5. Model of The Learner



(Romisowski, 1981, p. 259).

The model applied to inservice clients. If one applies this model to an inservice activity, it can be seen that the organizers would have considerable control over the content, sequencing and delivery techniques involved in the information in direction.

Very little control can be exerted over the accuracy of the translation of this information produced by the receptors, since everything received will be modified in some way by the individual doing the receiving according to what is already in store in the way of knowledge and attitudes.

Outside control is also very limited when looking at how the store interacts with and controls the processors and the effectors. At the end, the outsider can only observe, measure

and react to the action output if that output is indeed observable and measurable. Much of what inservice activities are concerned with will become observable only through modified behaviours exhibited in the classroom following the inservice activities.

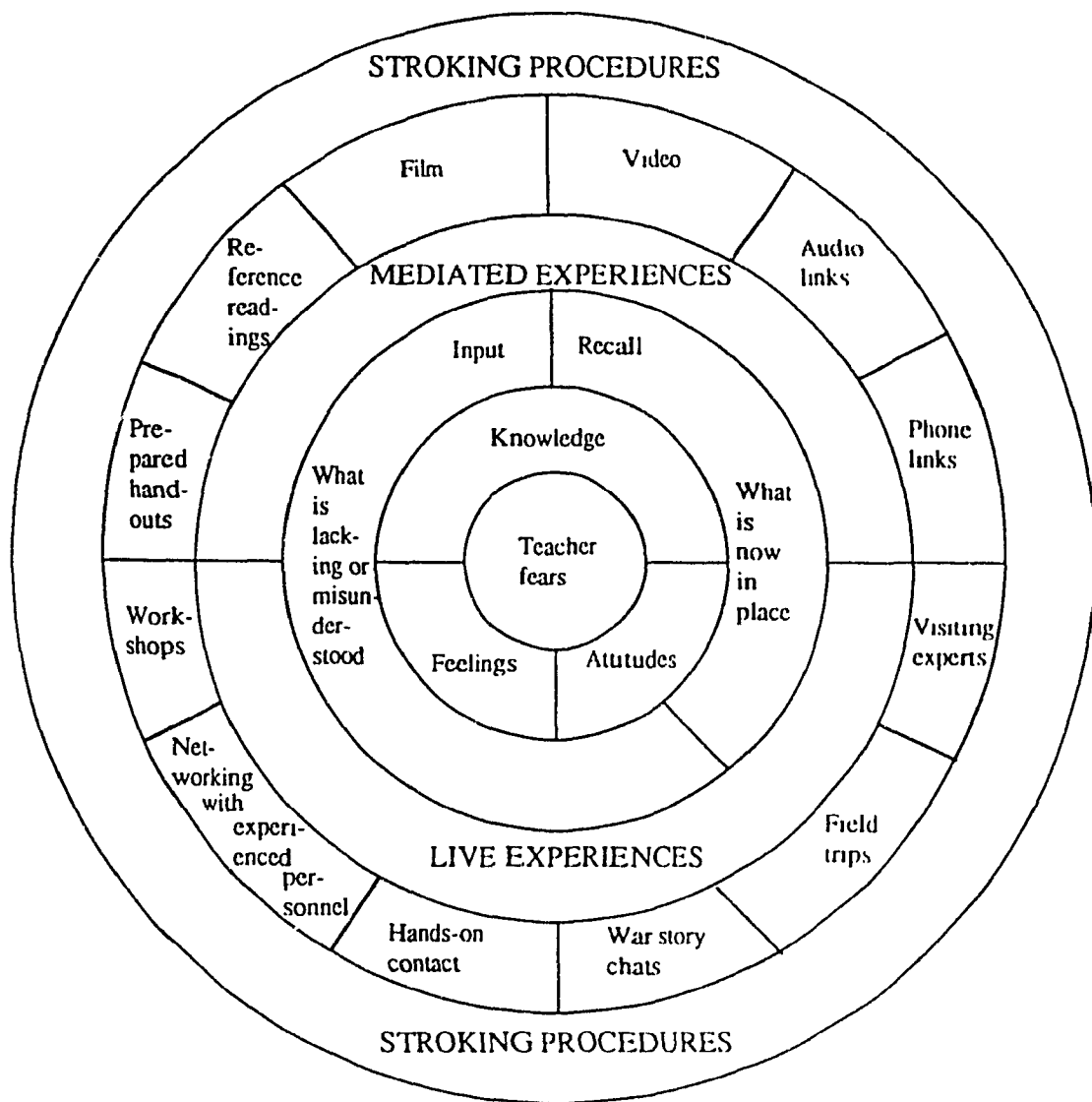
Drawing on the preceding ideas as a base, some priorities can be identified. It is necessary to concentrate on insuring that the store is provided with suitable information by providing review experiences, new information input and comforting reassurances to add to, or replace, what is already there.

A practical implication is the need to control the inservice environment in which the learner, not always a volunteer, is expected to function. Mundane barriers can be eliminated by providing a non-threatening atmosphere with effective materials presented with expertise. It will be difficult, however, to arrange opportunities to realistically practice what is being learned. Substitute experiences will have to be provided, not an uncommon educational and training problem.

#### Model to Guide Inservice Planning

The following diagram, drawing as heavily on the work of Romisowski as it does, is an attempt to organize overall components for a workshop planning process. It is presented with a view to considering the relationships among and between related components. Detailed planning is a later step, often circumscribed by the reality of available resources.

Figure 6. Attitude Treatment Model: Inservice Planning



### Discussion of Attitude Treatment Model

Fear. The centre of the diagram illustrates the heart of the problem: those fears which the regular classroom teachers hold. They will be many and varied, often not fully worked out, but powerful nonetheless.

Much of the literature suggests that these fears can be reduced to one overriding concern: the fear of failure, both in their own eyes and in the eyes of their colleagues. Society has come to expect a staggering list of competencies from teachers as they struggle with the roles of presenter, babysitter, role-model, police officer, and increasingly, social worker. The new challenges posed by the sudden legislated inclusion of special children with special needs adds to the already heavy burden—a burden which can be described as conferring responsibility for the development of the whole child, while providing neither the power nor the budget to do the job properly.

One approach to dealing with fear is to provide some direct assistance in identifying and facing up to its implications. From this point of view, one can move from the central focus to the next ring of the diagram. It assumes that the fear component is composed of some form of knowledge, valid or not; a set of feelings which may or may not have come from conscious thought about the situation, and a set of attitudes which may or may not have had behavioral expression. Thus knowledge, feelings and attitudes are identified as target areas for inservice activities.

Knowledge The knowledge component is a commonly mentioned area in the literature. Familiar treatment consists of traditional methods of transferring information. These can be divided into dual processes of assisting the learner to recall information already in place and adding information to correct omissions or misunderstandings. These omissions and misunderstandings could be identified by traditional means, but the identification process

would have to be as non-threatening as possible to avoid being counterproductive. It is clear that failing an entry exam is not the most sympathetic way of attracting the learner's attention to an opportunity to deal with personal deficiencies.

Three areas of knowledge which should be addressed have been referred to throughout the literature reviewed for this thesis. In such studies as the 1988 NBTA survey, teachers have indicated that they feel a lack of specific information about the types of handicaps they might be facing in their classrooms, the implications of these handicaps for the special child and for the other children involved and workable strategies for dealing with disruptive behaviour. These needs this should be approached by the subject area specialists who can draw on the basic instructional methods of providing selected learning experiences in a live classroom manner or through the advantages of mediated experiences. Selection of method and content would be influenced by the usual constraints of determined entry behaviour, time and related practical constraints. The basic umbrella of the diagram stresses the need to "stroke" the learners in terms of their obvious ability and qualities.

Feelings. Feelings are generally considered to be less firmly fixed and far more easily modified than attitudes. The model indicates that the feelings component can best be approached from the input only direction through the provision of selected live and mediated experiences. The providers of the inservice activity would be most interested in providing comforting input, not in recalling feelings which the bulk of the research indicates will most likely be negative. This negativity is closely related to the type of handicap involved. The physically disabled are easily accepted while the most negative feelings are reserved for those special children labelled as behaviourly disruptive. In general, teachers are reported as not differing from the general public in this regard. It must be noted, however, that teachers are

more likely to refrain from disclosing the presence of these feelings since they run counter to the public and private image of the loving, and well-loved, teacher of legend.

The problem is complicated by the cultural fact that feelings are hidden in our society and do not often surface for public performance. A useful example is the requirement for the salesclerk to smile and perform as though the customer were indeed right. The actual feelings of the successful clerk may well be less friendly, and far less charitable, than the outward performance would indicate. Shakespeare summed up the problem rather neatly in Hamlet when the main character referred to his uncle's performance of smiling villainy. One must assume that the classroom teacher has learned to dissemble at least as effectively, although the difficulty of fooling children in this way is well known.

Attitudes. The circle diagram is predicated on the theory that, while feelings might be private matters outside of the planner's area of effectiveness, the attitudes component is composed of skills which can be acted on in a deliberate manner with an identified end in mind. Changes in attitude may only become visible back in the classroom, but that is, after all, the point. Much of the literature surveyed supports the view that attitudes do affect performance and, in particular, negative attitudes have a negative impact on performance.

A disagreement, between the studies which found hands-on experience to be beneficial in attitude change and those which found it counter productive, served to focus attention on one specific aspect of an inservice experience. Provision should be made to expose the clients to carefully selected examples of representative types of children with special needs. Doing this on a live basis through field trips will be difficult to administer on a large scale, since visits to functioning classrooms often backfire.

Mediated experience. Mediated experiences impact on both segments of the next circle, as they provide both recall and input possibilities. Common examples provided in this

ring are not the only possibilities for transfer of information, but they do have the advantage of familiarity.

Print. The provision of reference readings, and prepared handouts to explain and amplify those readings, would be taken for granted by both students and instructors, although experience suggests that more attention should be paid both to the selections involved and the design elements of the handouts.

Video. Film and video productions can provide assistance, but the items chosen or produced should benefit from the presentation and selection techniques which have been demonstrated as more effective than the traditional formats usually identified as "the talking head" style.

The production of special purpose, shot on demand for specific courses, small format video inserts offers impressive possibilities for inclusion of real-life experiences for the clients of inservice. Again, the impact of a good role model on the inservice clients should be considered. A cautionary note concerning model releases, parental permission and professional usage of the materials must be raised for homegrown productions. Problems of copyright clearance will also need to receive more attention than has been the case in the past for both print and non-print materials.

Audio. The learning impacts possible from audio materials, with or without supporting visuals, continue to be a much underrated aspect of instruction. The availability of new forms of technology for playback of recorded materials in a self-paced mode has become an observed social phenomenon. Again, careful selection of available programming, copyright concerns and provision for instructor produced materials for specific points in course design would have to be approached with the usual concerns of suitability, instructional flexibility and available budget.

Telephone Developments in technology have made the bringing of students and instructors together by means of telephone lines a more common educational experience than ever before. Aside from the one-way delivery uses in distance education, the ability to interact with remote subject experts on a real time basis offers possibilities for questioning and clarification during a class session not possible before. The links between individuals now possible with modem connections to personal computers and on-line conferences should add to the possibilities of telephone line usage.

Live experiences The live experiences segment of the diagram can be applied to a distance education format, but most probably would be a component of the workshop type where clients come together with instructors for various periods of time. Content for this type of experience is a major concern often addressed in the literature. Ideas dealing with format and capabilities which should result from successful inservice have been addressed earlier.

Teacher wants. At this point, attention would be directed toward the studies which identify the areas which the teachers themselves identify as desirable. Examples from the literature would include the point that teachers want training in behavioral management techniques (Ainsa, 1980), and that they want components covering knowledge, awareness and hands-on experiences (Birch, 1978; Holloway & Kerr, 1979; Boyle & Sleeter, 1981; Stoner, 1981; Allen, 1982; Lehr, 1982). Teachers also indicate a desire for the opportunity to develop network contacts between schools (Boyle & Sleeter, 1981). One study stressed that teachers want to have inservice activities at the school site level, since they feel this would provide better assistance and more individual help (McCaffrey, 1979).

Observation. The concerns noted previously can all be approached through activities in the live experiences segment of the circle diagram. Attendance at workshops of various kinds is a familiar part of the profession's responsibilities. Field trips to successful operations



are also familiar, but are often ineffective because the hosts are aware of the visitors and perform accordingly.

Hands-on. This type of practical experience has always been difficult to schedule for the best time in the development of the experience and, even with the best of intentions and selection of the participants, uncertain in effect. Some form of internship contact is a common attempt to deal with this aspect of teacher education. The availability of the role model is again important here. Internships would, however, provide a lead-in for the suggested networking and "war story chat" components. The use of visiting experts dropping in to share their knowledge is both familiar and fraught with danger, since the individual nature of the contact is difficult to plan for and deal with. Successful experience with this type of information sharing is best described as variable.

Stroking. In short, under the general umbrella of attempting to make the clients feel as comfortable as possible with the situation and with themselves, the inservice diagram outlines an attempt to reduce anxiety levels by combining a number of experiences of different types. Much of this activity will be the communication of information deemed necessary for the clients to have as part of the knowledge background they should be capable of bringing to integration.

All of this content material, and all of the activities, intends to influence the existing attitudes of the regular classroom teachers with a view to making them more positive in their approach to both integration as a concept and to exceptional children in their care.

Among other business addressed would be such items as information that things will not be as bad as they fear, that the numbers involved are actually quite small, that they already have demonstrated most of the skills needed to work with the handicapped and that assistance is available.

The proposed guide for design also provides for the inclusion of what the integrated classrooms are really like. Whether these examples are live or mediated, they should offer evidence that the mainstreamed can learn, that they can be controlled in ways that are not wholly unfamiliar, and, probably most important of all, that not all children with special needs resemble the stereotypes so commonly found in folklore.

Shared experience. Following the concept of the acceptable role model, the diagram provides opportunity to offer well chosen and comforting examples of experiences other adults have had with handicapped children in different educational jurisdictions, in school settings with other children and in contact with other organizations such as youth groups and sports camps.

In addition, the model illustrates a requirement to provide opportunities for the clients to voice their concerns in non-threatening situations with each other, with experienced colleagues and with experts in the various areas which connect with the integration of the handicapped into regular classrooms.

Details on the testing of one aspect of this model is presented in the following chapters of this thesis.

## CHAPTER IV

### Method

#### Design

The quasi-experimental part of this thesis can be described as a nonequivalent control group design (Campbell & Stanley, 1966), although it differs in that pretest results were not used because subject attendance in the original four classes could not be maintained so that pre and post test results were available for comparison.

The nonequivalent control group is outlined as "...the control group and the experimental group do not have pre-experimental sampling equivalence. Rather, the groups constitute naturally assembled collectives such as classrooms, as similar as availability permits" (Campbell & Stanley, 1966, p. 47). The complete nonequivalent control group design is considered to be effective in controlling for such effects as history, maturation, testing and instrumentation effects (Campbell & Stanley, 1966). Regression effects are partially controlled in this study since the groups were not selected on a basis where extreme scores would have impact.

Findings from the four classes were combined into two groups in order to reach a usable sample size. These two groups were compared by use of the same questionnaire following the exposure of only one group to the videotape treatment. Subjects were not assigned randomly to the groups. An attempt was made, however, to make the groups intact in that all subjects were enrolling in 5000 level courses at the Faculty taught by the same professor whose content and approach to the material were as similar as possible. The treatment was randomly assigned to two of the four groups.

The treatment videotape was shown during the first session of each class used as a viewing group. The attitude measurement scale questionnaire was administered by the professor during the last class session to all groups.

Results from the four groups were collapsed into two, viewing and non-viewing, because the anticipated population of 25 for each of the four classes had not occurred as expected. Along with demographic information spaces, there were 20 Likert-type items on the response form.

### Sample

Students registered in four existing graduate courses taught by the same professor were used for this study during the fall and winter of 1988-89. Each term one class was on campus in Fredericton, the other was off campus in Florenceville. During the fall term only the Florenceville class was shown the videotape chosen as a treatment. During the winter, the same tape was shown only to the Fredericton class.

The Groups. Class 1 [FFNT] had 21 students, was in Fredericton during the fall and did not view the tape. Class 2 [FEFT] had 21 students, was in Florenceville during the fall and did view the tape. Class 3 [FWT] in Fredericton started with 20, met during the winter and saw the tape while Class 4 [FEWNT] started with 16 in Florenceville during the winter and did not see the tape. There was some attrition during all of the courses and some students joined after the initial questionnaire was administered during the first class. Classes 2 and 3 were combined for a treatment group of 32. Classes 1 and 4 were combined as a control group of 27.

### Demographics

The initial segment of the response form was demographic in nature. It asked for information on seven areas: sex, age, status, experience, grade taught, academic achievement and presence of special needs child in classroom. Not all respondents answered all questions, while some made two or more choices on some items. Identification procedures for

individuals were not employed. Results from all completed forms are presented in the following paragraphs since they provide background detail.

Sex and age. More than half, fifty-seven [73.1%], of those responding were female while 21 [26.9%] were male. Ages recorded by those who filled in the form ranged from 21 to 55 with the largest group being the 16 [21.6%] who identified themselves as 22, 5 [6.8%] were 23, 4 [5.4%] were 27, 4 were 32 and 6 [8.1%] were 38. Other categories had 1 or 2 respondents.

Status. The majority, fifty-four [69.2%], identified themselves as trained teachers, 8 [10.3%] as teachers in training, 2 [2.6%] were school administrators and 3 did not answer the item. The "other" category was chosen by eleven individuals [14.1%]. Some made more than one choice, usually "trained teacher" as well as "other".

Licensed teachers employed as day care workers or special group employees in out-of-school contexts have been common in New Brunswick. Those choosing "other" described their roles as vocational support workers [3], adult employment counsellors [2], job trainer [1], vocational trainer [1] and supervisor with handicapped adults [1]. "Parent" was noted by one respondent who did not indicate if a special needs child existed in the direct family unit.

Experience. The "Years of Teaching" responses were spread out from 1 to 26. The largest group was composed of 8 [10.3%] who had taught for 19 years. Next largest was the group of 5 [6.4%] with 1 year in a classroom. Other categories had 1 or 2 members. The total group had 27 [34.6%] who had taught 10 years or fewer while 19 [23.2%] had taught more than 10 years. The item was left blank by 32 individuals [47%].

Current grade. The "grade now teaching" item was either left blank or the term 'other' was selected by 42 respondents. The largest group answering the item, 18 [23.1%], were

primary teachers, 10 [12.8%] taught junior high school, six [7.7%] were secondary teachers, and two individuals [2.6%] were employed in upper elementary grades 4-6.

Qualifications. Twenty-four did not reply to the qualifications item. The identification of two or more courses in their background was made by 30 students [38.5%], 13 [16.7%] claimed a single course while 11 [14.1%] said they held some form of certificate.

Presence of special needs child. The 1988 NBTA survey had reported 54.9% of the respondents as claiming to have a special needs child already in their regular classrooms. Only a fourth, 20 [25.6%], of those involved in this study made the same claim.

### Materials

#### The Videotape Used as Treatment

The Department of Education of the Province of New Brunswick has embarked on an extensive program of integrating children with special needs into the existing educational system. Most of the regular classroom teachers in the province have had no professional or emotional preparation for this development in their professional lives.

The Instructional Resources Branch of the provincial Department of Education became involved in the production of videotapes created for that particular teacher audience. One of these government productions has the title Growing Together, a title which clearly supports the basic idea of integration. Since the intent of this videotape is to move its viewers toward a positive view of the process of integration, it was chosen as a suitable example of a mediated attempt to influence attitudes.

Description of content and approach. The carefully edited tape, with voice over techniques providing continuity as well as direct content, shows several special needs children in existing integrated situations. All of placements have been successful. In addition, the tape presents short interview segments dealing with points related to the examples. These selected

comments are positive, even enthusiastic, in both tone and content. While there is little point in providing a shot by shot description of the tape, some details will be discussed in the following paragraphs.

The tape opens on a wide shot of children skipping in a school yard while the title "Growing Together" is superimposed. The background shifts to a medium closeup of school age children, one of whom is identifiable as a special needs child, reading together. During this scene shift, a male voice gives background information on the situation in New Brunswick. The wording of the voiceover stresses the benefits of the innovation with such terms as "inspired", "imaginative" and "problem solving skills".

This is followed by a close up shot of a teacher, identified by name, speaking to an unseen interviewer who is not identified. The female teacher stresses that teachers have always done ability grouping, that stronger social skills are a worthwhile goal and that all children need patient understanding. These comments are made while the visual changes from the teacher's face to a close up of a handicapped child cutting out shapes from paper. The male voiceover continues to point out that teachers set the tone for this successful innovation. While the visual continues showing the child cutting successfully, the voiceover changes to a female, identified by name, who seems to be the child's mother but may be another teacher, speaking enthusiastically about the child's experiences. The viewer does see the woman's face in medium close up for some of her comments. Very few of these segments show faces directed to the camera, they are usually directed toward the interviewer off to one side.

The scene shifts to wider coverage of a classroom setting where a number of children are working together at something which allows them to speak to one another while a female teacher moves about the room. The voiceover is from another female, identified by name, as her face is intercut with the group shots of the children at work. The content of the segment

is summed up in the comment that integration cannot be a problem at the primary level since they all start together and each teacher will surely deal with each child as an individual.

The viewer is presented with a new voice, later identified by name, who is the mother of a special child. Her comments, again to the unseen interviewer just off camera, centre on the idea that the child has never been treated differently or made to feel different from the other children. During this segment, there are a few cutaway shots showing a handicapped child being helped by another pupil.

The style of presentation continues to intercut shots of different children, some of whom are identifiable as handicapped because of wheelchairs or other visible cues, with close up shots of various adults providing a voiceover which stresses the message that all children are learning from the integration process. The unseen male narrator continues the voiceover technique to provide continuity between segments as the tape progresses.

A change in procedure is used when the scene shifts from young children to more mature young adults whose direct responses are led by an off screen interviewer whose questions are often answered in a yes/no fashion. This content stresses how much social growth is happening and how much is being accomplished. The format shows the interviewee agreeing that "yes, he has lots of friends". This style of interview is continued as the viewer sees a young woman with a vision problem talking about and using a monocular viewing aid during classroom instruction.

Important sequences. Probably the most effective sequence consists of an articulate grade six male student who speaks of how he is able to help his friend accomplish a lot of things he cannot do for himself. There are several shots of the two of them working together while the sound track continues to be the voice of the helper stressing how his friend has some difficulty, but is learning. This helpful child is performing as an unpaid teachers' aide for the



special needs child. This particular segment was chosen as the most effective sequence on the tape by the subjects of this study who filled in a response form after viewing the program.

There are additional strong sequences where two male principals comment individually on the lack of trouble the integrated pupils are causing to their school operations. One of them points out that the key to the success in his school is the positive attitudes of the teachers involved. He goes on to stress that his teachers need more inservice, more information about what they should be doing and more support mechanisms.

The tape continues to present very positive images of success through group shots of children working together while the voiceover is from an adult commenting on how well things are going. On a few occasions the interviewers leading the speakers are barely visible in the corner of the shot, but they are not identified. All of the other adults visible in the presentation were named, if not always identified by occupation.

Additional information. Material for the 18 minute tape was shot in two elementary schools, three primary classes, one junior high and two high schools, most of which are located in an area of the province with a strong history of special education programs on an out of school basis. While the people who are seen in the corner of some shots in the interviewing role are not identified, anyone familiar with them as individuals would be aware that they are the two employees of the Department of Education who are most directly concerned with the successful implementation of the program of integration in the province. While this background information is not mentioned, they, as individuals, are given credit at the end as being responsible for the concept and direction of the tape.

Viewer response. The responses of the viewing group to the experience were gathered through the use of a feedback form. A sample form and all recorded answers are appended to

this study. A discussion of the reactions gleaned from this form comprises the first part of Chapter IV.

#### The Attitude Measurement Instrument

While the feedback form collected following the viewing of the tape by the treatment groups was developed for this study, the attitude measurement scale employed in this project was used with the permission of its developer.

Background. In a paper presented to the 24th. International Congress of Psychology in Sydney in September of 1988, this instrument was described as being a scale of 20 items meeting demands of brevity and ease of application with satisfactory validity and reliability ratings. The factor analysis procedures applied during its development identified three major dimensions which revolved about the positive and negative impacts of mainstreaming exceptional students into regular classroom settings with regular classroom teachers (Winzer & Chow, 1988).

Development. Winzer and Chow described an earlier 32 item version of this instrument, acknowledging the work on teacher attitudes published by such writers as Cook, Harasymiw, Horne, Larrivee, Rose, Stevens and Williams. A revised 25 item version had been used with 1071 subjects in British Columbia, Ontario, Newfoundland and Australia. Of these items, 13 centred on the costs of integration to the regular teacher and 12 on the perceived impacts on both the regular and exceptional pupils. The authors reported that this scale had a reliability determined by a Hoyt estimate of .85 to .86 on dimension A and .59 to .79 on dimension B, while the Cronbach alpha for composite ranged from .76 to .85.

The 20 item scale. Following equally successful application of a 20 question version of the scale with educators and non-educators in several geographic areas, Winzer and Chow stated that: "...the statement groupings are logical and findings from the survey are generally

consistent with other research conclusions about teacher attitudes toward exceptional children and mainstreaming" (Winzer & Chow, 1988, p. 8). They reported that oblique rotation factor analysis had identified dimensions based on variables with loadings of .40 or higher. "Effects of Mainstreaming on students and setting" were identified as Factor 1 accounting for 26 percent of the variance. These survey statements were directed at how the respondents felt both types of student would be affected by integration. "Negative Effects of Mainstreaming on children and settings" formed Factor 2 with 12 percent of the variance. These responses expressed negative views of the process. "Teacher Work Load" items formed the third Factor for six point five percent of the variance. The standardized alpha reliability rating determined for this scale was reported as .836 (Winzer & Chow, 1988).

The authors observed during the conclusion to the paper that while practising teachers generally favour integration, the level of this support is not strong. For example, students are described as demonstrating a more strongly positive attitude than teachers in the field. This observation reinforces the view that teachers retain misgivings about the general impacts of integration, as well as the ones more directly related to their personal situations. Findings that higher grade levels taught and larger amounts of exposure to exceptional children tend to be associated with more negative attitudes were also reported during the development of this instrument.

### Procedures

One aspect of a detailed model designed to guide planners in the process of delivering inservice activities to classroom teachers was selected for experimentation using a quasi-experimental design with two groups.

The treatment involved a videotape presentation produced by the Department of Education and distributed as part of the governmental attempt to promote integration of special

needs children into regular classrooms in the province of New Brunswick. The videotape presentation utilized a series of smoothly edited onsite video recordings showing children in various activities mixed with interviews with teachers, parents, children and school administrators. The carefully edited videotape was essentially a guided field trip through some successful examples of integration. Because of the background of teacher preparation in the province, the producers could safely regard the intended audience as unfamiliar with the types of disabilities involved, as well as the nature of the reactions of those involved in the imposition of the new situation. The 18 minute production is an attempt to bring positive experiences to an audience which cannot be taken directly to the experience for personal contact.

An Attitude Measurement Instrument questionnaire (Winzer, 1988) was selected for use with all subjects participating in the study. This 20 item questionnaire was administered as a pretest and a posttest with only the posttest results being examined because of changes in class size which could not be controlled.

The cooperation of the faculty member who was conducting regularly scheduled courses as part of the programme of the Faculty of Education was obtained. Members of the four classes involved were asked to participate in the study. No penalty or reward was involved in this request. Identity of individuals participating was to be confidential. This process was accepted by the Faculty Ethics Committee charged with examination of projects involving live subjects.

Four classes were involved in the study. The survey instrument was administered during the first class session. The videotape was shown by the professor during the first session of the viewing classes. Those viewing the tape were asked to complete a feedback form. All of the groups were asked to process the same attitude survey instrument during the

last class of the course at the end of term. Some students had dropped out during the courses while some had joined following the first class. The four classes were in Fredericton and Florenceville during the fall and winter terms. The tape was shown in Florenceville during the fall and in Fredericton for the winter session.

Results on the survey instrument from the four classes were organized into two, viewing and non-viewing, because the expected population of 25 in each class had not occurred. The final numbers when the posttest questionnaires had been collected were 32 for those who saw the tape and chose to answer the questionnaire and 27 for those who completed the questionnaire without seeing the tape. Results from each of the 20 Likert-type items were processed with a chi-square technique to determine if any differences existed between the groups responding to the instrument.

#### Statistical Analysis

A non-parametric process was chosen because the assignment of subjects to groups had not been random. The chi-square distribution is often used as a test of significance when data is expressed in frequencies, percentages or proportions which can be transformed to frequencies (Downie & Heath, 1974). Additional support for the use of non-parametric methods was offered when Moses (1952) observed that non-parametric tests were useful at a specified significance level, had a high level of ease of application, could be applied with rank data, were usable when two sets of observations came from different populations, and could be the only alternative when sample size is small.

In the same way, Bradley (1968) provided a detailed listing of the advantages and disadvantages of distribution-free statistical tests. Among the major points mentioned were the ease and speed of application procedures, the scope of possible applications, the type of suitable measurements required, and the influence of overall sample size.

Working within limitations of the design and the analysis procedures, the results from viewing and non-viewing groups on each questionnaire item were processed with a chi-square test to determine if any differences existed between the groups responding to the instrument.

When the data of research consist of frequencies in discrete categories, the chi-square may be used to determine the significance of differences between two independent groups. The measurement involved may be as weak as nominal scaling...The hypothesis under test is usually that the two groups differ with respect to some characteristic and therefore with respect to the relative frequencies with which group members fall in several categories (Siegel, 1956, p. 104).

#### Hypotheses

The first hypothesis is that a significant difference in positive attitudes towards integration will be revealed through an analysis of responses to a common questionnaire administered to subjects who have seen the videotape used as a treatment when compared to those who have not viewed the treatment.

The second hypothesis is that the process of examining materials associated with this thesis will reveal major differences in attitudes towards integration expressed by teachers outside New Brunswick and those working within it.

The results of the procedures just described are presented in the concluding chapters of this study.

## CHAPTER V

### Results

Background on the experimental segment detailing procedures, demographic information and an explanation of the attitude survey instrument has been presented earlier.

This chapter first presents the results of a response form administered to the treatment group immediately following exposure to the videotape. The second part discusses results recorded by the attitude questionnaire administered to all subjects by an examination of responses to each of the 20 items on the form.

#### Results of Videotape Response Form

##### Viewer Responses

The tape was shown at the beginning of the course. Students were asked not to identify themselves. The forms were distributed and collected by the professor conducting the courses. A transcript of the form used and all responses to it is appended.

Even though many responses pointed out the one sided nature of the presentation, the results from the forms [N=19 and N=11] were positive.

Responses to question 1. This requested respondents to react to three requests. First was to identify any segment of the videotape which particularly caught their attention. A group of three did not identify one specific segment, but did record their feeling that the tape was too positive. While some attempts to comply with the request of question 1 were on the level of an unadorned "yes", it was possible to determine the trend of longer responses. Those who did attempt identification and comment on a single segment were most attracted to examples of children demonstrating some level of success in the classroom situation.

Of these, seven identified segments showing a "regular" child engaged in helping, or reporting on helping, a "special" child. The most frequent reference was to an interview segment with a neat, clean, articulate male child who spoke convincingly of his experiences.

This positive reaction to the peer group possibilities inherent in integration was a recurring theme in the answers provided in all sections of the feedback form.

Of the other respondents, five selected specific instances which showed special children having success at something, five suggested a general positive reaction to all segments, while two reported being struck by what they termed "interviews" with special children who spoke about their successes.

A minor point of interest arose when four respondents noted that they knew some of the teachers and administrators on the tape. The comments made by this small group suggested the result of this personal familiarity was a feeling that "if he's having success with integration, then so can I!"

For the second area of the first response section, respondents were given an opportunity to provide additional detail as to whether or not an identified segment had any effect on their support for the concept of integration.

Answers to this challenge were vague. There was a tendency to indicate the tape increased supportive attitudes, but many affirmed that they were already supportive and the tape had no impact.

In short, the responses to the first part of the response form stressed the value of seeing real people with a variety of skill levels in real situations. The respondents reported this had a positive effect, even though they claimed to be aware of bias in the production.

Two direct quotations from the forms illustrate this tendency:

...seeing some teachers that I know being so supportive of the program. These testimonials will swing anyone to be more supportive. Seeing the joy those M.R. kids and learning disabled kids get out of being integrated.

and



...segment where peer tutoring is displayed. Very supportive of integration however I feel they should say why it works-"teachers" and what they do to make it work. This could be difficult at times. I feel this way because nothing works without great effort. This makes it seem too easy.

Responses to question 2. The second section of the response form asked the students to indicate their reasons for either showing or not showing this particular tape to identified groups.

2A: Classroom. The first possibility was a showing to the pupils in their own classrooms before a special child arrived to be integrated. There were three who indicated they would not show the program to this audience. The view expressed was based on avoiding setting up preconceptions in the class, thus letting the regular children develop their own natural and "honest" ways of dealing with the situation.

The opposite position was taken by 11 viewers. Their general feeling was that the tape provided positive role models for the children in the class. One quotation represents this view.

...I would show this film because it shows how other children react. It demonstrated positive interaction between exceptional and other children. They see for themselves that it will work. They also have a chance to hear how these children feel and how important it is for them to go to school.

A group of six indicated they would show the tape to their class because of what they saw as the generally positive nature of the experience for their pupils. A group of four indicated that their pupils would benefit on the forewarned is forearmed level expressed by one teacher in the words "...let them know what is in store".

2B: Parents of regular children. All of the 24 students who responded to this segment agreed they would show this tape to parents of regular children before a special child joined their children in the classroom. The most common opinion expressed was that the tape showed that integration was having positive impacts on both special and regular pupils.

Slightly over half shared this point of view. As one put it:

...it would give the parents an opportunity to see how such a classroom works and to distinguish [extinguish?] some anxieties they may have. Can see the benefits for both regular and special children.

While seven shared this optimistic view of the videotape's power, their answers centred on the idea that the positive aspects of the tape would provide general comforting background information for the parents and would thus lessen anxiety. In addition, two responses suggested the videotape would be useful for parents who wished to prepare their regular children for integration at home.

2C: Colleagues. The form provided an opportunity to address the question of whether or not to show the tape to colleagues. Of the 21 responses offered, only one was negative: "I think my colleagues would think it was a bit too pro, not showing the immense difficulties".

The question was avoided by one student who contributed:

... ?. It depends if we are promoting total integration for all special needs children. I would not use it to promote the case for every child.

This response was considered negative.

The other 19 said they would show this tape to their colleagues. Of those, 12 indicated their reasons as being related to the general positive nature of the program. They felt it would be convincing: "yes-give sceptical teachers an opportunity to see positive

results!". A smaller segment of seven respondents was more specific. They indicated a role for the tape in actually reducing anxieties they expected to be present in their colleagues.

...Yes,so they won't react to the MR as if they would catch anything from them. They do have special needs but they can go on in life as all of us do.

and

...other teachers would see how these classrooms work and this could lead to more positive attitudes throughout the school.

2D: General public. When asked if the general public could benefit from seeing this tape, one respondent replied only that it was "-not useful". Most, 14, indicated that the tape would provide a general positive background which would be beneficial. As one put it:

...this would be a great opportunity for the general public to see exactly how integration can work positively and for the benefit of all involved. It could enhance positive attitudes from everyone. The attitudes featured here could be brought into the community as well.

A group of nine supported this approach by suggesting much more general approval for the positive attitudes they identified with the tape.

On the other hand, one answer raised a number of questions which, while pertinent to the evaluation of the tape in general, made it difficult to tell whether or not the individual would show this production to a general public audience.

...appropriate-the film isn't totally "rounded", the film just shows the success stories-very realistic? What about the stories of integ. that did not work? Why. Doesn't show view of regular parents attitudes toward integ.

While this material is off track for the particular segment of the feedback form, the concerns it identified were often mentioned in the responses.

Responses to question 3. The third section of the feedback form was a Likert-type scale on which students were asked to indicate their reactions to a statement by placing a mark under the headings: "Strongly Agree", "Slightly Agree", "Can't Tell", "Slightly Disagree" or "Strongly Disagree". Generally speaking, the results on the scale mirrored the responses to the other parts of the form: the respondents strongly indicated that they liked what they had seen and were positive in their opinion that it would be helpful in a number of situations. In particular, the values of the tape for developing positive attitudes, desirable actions and valuable discussions of the concept of integration were supported.

Details are available in the appendix, but a general picture follows. When asked "if the tape developed worthwhile attitudes", over 100% [some made two choices] either strongly or slightly agreed. In much the same way, 97% indicated strong or slight agreement with the idea that "the tape developed desirable actions", while 93% were in agreement with the idea that "the tape would stimulate discussion". A smaller group of 67% chose strongly or slightly agree for the statement that "the tape encourages seeking new information".

The same level of approval appeared for the few statements which were worded so that choosing "Slightly Disagree" or "Strongly Disagree" actually indicated a positive response to the gist of the content.

A majority, 77%, indicated these choices for the statement that "the commentary [voice-over continuity] got in the way of what they wanted to learn". A very similar 76% disagreed to some extent with the idea that "the tape covered too much material too fast" and 77% disagreed with the comment that "the tape had too much 'expert' talk".

Most interesting responses. The most interesting responses were those to items "d" and "i". Statement "d" said the tape provides new information. Answers were spread out on

this item. Over half, 57%, slightly or strongly agreed with it; 23% either slightly or strongly disagreed, while 17% chose the neutral "Can't Tell" column.

Since the respondents were registered in a course where one would expect them to have very little background on the areas covered by the videotape, the 57% seemed logical. The 23% who indicated the tape provided little new material felt they had more background. Since the motivation to take particular courses off campus often has more to do with the availability of any course which can be counted for certification than with the advertised content of that course, the 23% figure was not particularly surprising.

One puzzling note was provided by the five individuals who could not decide if the material presented on the tape was new to them or not.

Item "i", children used are not accurate samples of integration, produced a spread of responses. Roughly 47% slightly or strongly agreed with the statement, while 40% or so slightly or strongly disagreed with it. This indicates a split between those who had enough confidence in their background experience with special children to be able to tell if representative samples were presented and those who lacked that confidence. The 10% or so who indicated they were unable to judge the representative nature of the samples are probably registered in the right course for them at this time.

Responses to additional comments section. The students were provided with space to add additional comments. There were two main concerns derived from those contributing. [The complete text of the nine responses is in the appendix.]

First is the awareness of the producer's clear intention to present positive images of integration. Concern was expressed that this reluctance to show any negative aspects would result in a cover-up or whitewashing of perceived problems the respondents felt existed, but

which the sponsoring agency was determined to ignore. Those responding clearly express a desire for a more balanced approach to this type of mediated experience.

The second point drawn from the responses is that the videotape format is accepted as a worthwhile device. In particular, there was a desire expressed to have more productions which present reality-a reality which expands into problem areas and provides additional support for the theory and practice of this new situation with which teachers are now forced to cope.

#### Results of Attitude Survey Instrument

Items on the questionnaire which gathered demographic information were discussed in Chapter IV. Results from the attitude measurement items on the questionnaire were analyzed using the Statistical Analysis System, Version 5.18, program on the UNB mainframe computer and are discussed in the following pages.

The items dealing with the attitudes of the respondents were of the five choice type. Students were provided with 20 statements and asked to indicate whether they "strongly" or "slightly agreed", were "undecided", "slightly" or "strongly disagreed" with each statement. The questionnaire form was used with the permission of its author.

The approach taken was to hypothesize that a significant difference in positive attitudes toward integration would be revealed through an analysis of responses to a common questionnaire administered to subjects who had seen the videotape used as a treatment when compared with those who had not viewed the treatment. This hypothesis was not supported.

The chi square tests, reported as Table 1, identified no individual items where there was a difference between the treatment and control groups which was statistically significant.

The number of choices made by members of each group for the 20 questionnaire items are presented as Table 2. Post-test Results: Treatment Group and Table 3. Post-test Results: Control Group.

Table 1.

Test of Difference between the Treatment and Control Groups on Post-test Results from 5  
Choice Questionnaire

Item	Degrees of Freedom	Probability Value	Chi-square Value
1.	3	.076	6.889
2.	4	.275	5.122
3.	3	.458	2.595
4.	3	.360	3.209
5.	4	.995	0.204
6.	4	.801	1.642
7.	3	.702	1.413
8.	3	.481	2.471
9.	4	.259	5.283
10.	3	.363	3.190
11.	3	.792	1.037
12.	4	.787	1.720
13.	3	.564	2.039
14.	4	.628	2.594
15.	3	.073	6.978
16.	2	.864	0.293
17.	3	.559	2.067
18.	4	.631	2.575
19.	3	.498	2.376
20.	3	.486	2.444



Table 2.

Post Test Results: Treatment Group

Item	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Undecided	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1.	21 [66%]	11 [34%]	0	0	0
2.	4 [13%]	11 [34%]	2 [6%]	9 [28%]	5 [16%]
3.	20 [63%]	8 [25%]	3 [9%]	1 [3%]	0
4.	18 [56%]	7 [22%]	6 [19%]	0	0
5.	5 [16%]	10 [31%]	6 [19%]	7 [22%]	3 [9%]
6.	8 [25%]	12 [38%]	7 [22%]	2 [6%]	3 [9%]
7.	14 [44%]	12 [38%]	4 [13%]	2 [6%]	0
8.	0	0	4 [13%]	7 [22%]	21 [66%]
9.	3 [9%]	6 [19%]	4 [13%]	15 [47%]	3 [9%]
10.	25 [78%]	7 [22%]	0	0	0
11.	21 [66%]	6 [19%]	3 [9%]	1 [3%]	0
12.	8 [25%]	11 [34%]	7 [22%]	5 [16%]	1 [3%]
13.	23 [72%]	8 [25%]	0	0	1 [3%]
14.	1 [3%]	8 [25%]	5 [16%]	10 [31%]	8 [25%]
15.	27 [84%]	4 [13%]	0	1 [3%]	0
16.	20 [63%]	11 [34%]	1 [3%]	0	0
17.	26 [81%]	4 [13%]	1 [3%]	0	0
18.	2 [6%]	7 [22%]	7 [22%]	11 [34%]	5 [16%]
19.	1 [3%]	4 [13%]	0	5 [16%]	22 [69%]
20.	20 [63%]	8 [25%]	4 [13%]	0	0

Note. N=32. Rounded percentages of N are in square brackets.

Table 3.

Post Test Results: Control Group

Item	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Undecided	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1.	10 [37%]	14 [52%]	1 [4%]	2 [7%]	0
2.	9 [33%]	9 [33%]	1 [4%]	7 [26%]	1 [4%]
3.	15 [56%]	6 [22%]	2 [7%]	4 [15%]	0
4.	11 [41%]	5 [19%]	9 [33%]	1 [4%]	0
5.	4 [15%]	10 [37%]	5 [19%]	6 [22%]	2 [7%]
6.	8 [30%]	6 [22%]	6 [22%]	3 [11%]	2 [7%]
7.	11 [41%]	8 [30%]	4 [15%]	4 [15%]	0
8.	0	1 [4%]	6 [22%]	6 [22%]	14 [52%]
9.	7 [26%]	7 [26%]	4 [15%]	6 [22%]	3 [11%]
10.	17 [63%]	8 [30%]	1 [4%]	1 [4%]	0
11.	18 [67%]	7 [26%]	1 [4%]	1 [4%]	0
12.	8 [30%]	7 [26%]	4 [15%]	6 [22%]	2 [7%]
13.	19 [70%]	7 [26%]	1 [4%]	0	0
14.	2 [7%]	11 [41%]	3 [11%]	6 [22%]	5 [19%]
15.	15 [56%]	9 [33%]	2 [7%]	1 [4%]	0
16.	15 [56%]	11 [41%]	1 [4%]	0	0
17.	22 [82%]	4 [15%]	0	1 [4%]	0
18.	0	7 [26%]	7 [26%]	7 [26%]	6 [22%]
19.	0	3 [11%]	0	8 [30%]	16 [59%]
20.	13 [48%]	10 [37%]	3 [11%]	1 [4%]	0

Note. N=27. Rounded percentages of N are in square brackets.

### Item by Item Discussion

This follows the numerical order of items used on the response form. Selected entries from tables 2 and 3 provide convenient reference for the wording of each item and the choices made by the groups. Related observations from the literature are referred to at appropriate points.

#### Item 1. "Mainstreaming the exceptional child will promote his/her independence."

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Undecided	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<u>Treatment:</u>	21 [66%]	11 [34%]	0	0	0
<u>Control:</u>	10 [37%]	14 [52%]	1 [4%]	2 [7%]	0

Support for this notion of improved independence through integration was found in some literature items which suggested that plans for the social acceptance and social integration of the exceptional child were important for successful mainstreaming (Redden & Blackhurst, 1978; Levine, Hummel & Salzer, 1982).

It is difficult to understand how taking a child out of isolated care and substituting a classroom would not promote some level of independence, even if an aide were provided. Thus the three individuals from the control group who were undecided or in slight disagreement are most probably unsure of their attitudes towards integration in general.

Item 2. "Teachers already have a heavy workload without the responsibility of exceptional students."

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Undecided	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<u>Treatment:</u>	4 [13%]	11 [34%]	2 [6%]	9 [28%]	5 [16%]
<u>Control:</u>	9 [33%]	9 [33%]	1 [4%]	7 [26%]	1 [4%]

This item assumed that special needs children would require time investments above that considered normal for a classroom teacher. The treatment group had 44% in disagreement, while 30% of the control group expressed the opinion that teachers could manage additional duties. Either those concerned felt special needs children would not add much or they felt teachers are not overworked without them.

While it was true that large percentages agreed with the item [47% and 67%], it may be that, since the respondents were not experienced with having special needs children in their classrooms, they might have been reacting to anticipated problems rather than actual difficulties.

Since 80% of the respondents had identified themselves as either "trained teachers" or "teachers in training" on the demographic section, those who chose options expressing the idea that teachers are not already equipped with a heavy work load may share the non-teachers' assumption that teachers are through at 3:30, have all summer off and thus do not work very hard. It is difficult to imagine that employed teachers would admit to not having a heavy load, although the seven percent who identified themselves as school administrators may not share that view.

The videotape content should have suggested that teachers do have time for these children, since the tape stressed the lack of trouble the samples caused, thus not adding to the perceived work load.

One of the items noted in the literature suggested that regular classroom teachers viewed mainstreamed pupils as demanding too much time (Brulle, Barton, Barton & Wharten, 1983). Others expressed the opinion that regular classroom teachers felt mainstreaming would dilute the quality of school programs (Bradfield, Brown, Kaplan, Ricker & Stannard, 1973; Hudson, Graham & Warner, 1979). This concern with time sharing and the impact on other children will be discussed later.

Item 3. "Exceptional children will find it much easier to mix with their peers after leaving school if they have been taught together in regular classrooms."

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Undecided	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<u>Treatment:</u>	20 [63%]	8 [25%]	3 [9%]	1 [3%]	0
<u>Control:</u>	15 [56%]	6 [22%]	2 [7%]	4 [15%]	0

The strength of agreement here was not surprising. The statement is logical. Disagreeing with the idea that exceptional children would benefit from exposure when it came time to mix suggested that no experience would make it easier for the prospective mixer to deal with a totally new situation. It may be that the few who expressed disagreement were reacting to a perception that regular children might be less willing to mix as a result of their school experience. There was some support in the literature for the idea that exposure might

reduce acceptance, but it is difficult to argue that this opinion would influence the disagreement registered on the forms.

Item 4. "It is hypocritical to talk about the school representing a microcosm of society if it excludes exceptional children."

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Undecided	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<u>Treatment:</u>	18 [56%]	7 [22%]	6 [19%]	0	0
<u>Control:</u>	11 [41%]	5 [19%]	9 [33%]	1 [4%]	0

It was puzzling to find 33% of the non-tape viewers stating that they were undecided about the truth of the statement while 19% of the treatment group chose this response. The idea that a percentage of any sample is likely to pick the middle column of a questionnaire offers only a partial explanation. Since it was difficult to understand why any parts of the videotape treatment would influence respondent choice on this item, the conclusion could be drawn that the wording of the item was confusing.

The content of the item offered a logical statement which called for no expression of opinion about the merits or pitfalls of integration as a theory or as a practicality, since it is clear that society does indeed contain exceptional children. While it is uncomplimentary to suggest that a group of this nature would be unsure of vocabulary items such as "hypocritical" and "microcosm", a lack of confidence over the language of an item seems a logical reason for choosing the middle ground.

Item 5. "In the classroom, the exceptional child will take more than his/her share of the teacher's time."

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Undecided	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<u>Treatment:</u>	5 [16%]	10 [31%]	6 [19%]	7 [22%]	3 [9%]
<u>Control:</u>	5 [15%]	10 [37%]	5 [19%]	6 [22%]	2 [7%]

In the case of this item, disagreement expressed support for integration. Since the rounded percentages for the undecided in both groups are identical and the percentages for both agreement and disagreement are similar, there is no clear consensus on this item. The matter of a fair share of teacher time for all students is a major concern when respondents consider the practical aspects of integration.

Viewing the videotape made very little difference. In this case, the explanation most probably lies in the emotional baggage which the respondents brought to the question. While the responses to Item 2 about whether or not teachers already have a heavy work load can be approached from the point of view that answers might depend on whether or not the respondents were teachers, the fear that integration will have the fairness effect isolated in Item 5 is widespread.

NBTA survey (1988). A brief digression to the New Brunswick Teachers' Association 1988 report on its survey of teachers supports the extreme weight given to this time investment concern.

Almost without exception, the respondents addressed the notion of time. Some write that time is so precious in school that any disruptions are too costly to be worthwhile.

Extra time spent is a sacrifice of time from others. Repeatedly, most remark on the temporal unfairness of integration. The below average and modified students are taking a back seat in the educational process. One teacher writes that 90% of the time is spent on half of the class. Any gains made by the special needs students are at the expense of the regular ones. Another writes, "We were told last spring that each student should receive 1/30 of the teacher's time, which I think is----!" (NBTA, 1988, p.11).

Additional support for time concerns. Many of the studies consulted from other sources suggested strong and widespread support for this fairness concern. There were references to the idea that regular classroom teachers felt mainstreaming would dilute the quality of school programs (Bradfield, Brown, Kaplan, Ricker & Stannard, 1973; Hudson, Graham & Warner, 1979). Other studies suggested that regular classroom teachers were unwilling to provide conditions not available for regular pupils (Major, 1961; Charles & Malian, 1980). The authors of one study in particular showed that regular classroom teachers viewed mainstreamed pupils as demanding too much time (Brulle, Barton, Barton & Wharten, 1983). This was amplified by three studies which suggested that regular classroom teachers viewed mainstreamed pupils as potential disturbers (Blazovik, 1972; Vacc & Kirst, 1977; Hudson, Graham & Warner, 1979). This question will be addressed again in this discussion.



Item 6. "The image of a particular school benefits from the presence of exceptional children."

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Undecided	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<u>Treatment:</u>	8 [25%]	12 [38%]	7 [22%]	2 [6%]	3 [9%]
<u>Control:</u>	8 [30%]	6 [22%]	6 [22%]	3 [11%]	2 [7%]

Since the videotape presented integration in a very positive manner which portrayed teachers and pupils involved as happy and productive, one would have expected those who saw the tape to attach a positive value to the presence of exceptional children. The level of agreement from those who had not had the videotape experience is more difficult to explain.

New Brunswickers have been deluged with material in the public press from both government and pressure groups which presented two major points of view. The first was that the government was taking enormously successful steps to provide a worthwhile improvement to its system. The second major message, allied to the pride of ownership, was the repeated idea that "good" teachers could deal with the challenge.

It is likely that this wide spread message would have been perceived by all those involved in this study. The respondents may have identified with the positive nature of the messages and responded to Item 6 accordingly.

Item 7. "The integration of exceptional students into regular classes is beneficial to regular pupils."

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Undecided	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<u>Treatment:</u>	14 [44%]	12 [38%]	4 [13%]	2 [6%]	0
<u>Control:</u>	11 [41%]	8 [30%]	4 [15%]	4 [15%]	0

The viewers of the videotape could be expected to show the enthusiasm they did because the tape is so weighted with examples of regular children being helpful and thus demonstrating at least one type of learning benefit. Reasons for the control group reaction to this item are less clear. Perhaps the idea of peer acceptance is counterproductive, since if one child is helping another it can be seen as that time has to be taken from their own work, first to notice a problem and then to provide assistance. This time-off-task reservation is a recurring theme in the literature.

Impact on regular pupils. Responses on this item directed attention towards the existence of a greater degree of caution in the minds of the respondents about the benefits to regular children than was evident when they considered any advantages applying to the exceptional.

Those who saw the videotape reported that they were aware of the bias the producers had demonstrated through the continual use of positive images of helpful regular pupils. Even so, they reported a strongly positive reaction to the statement in Item 7. Those who did not see the tape also reported a strongly positive reaction to the statement.

A 1990 publication produced by the provincial government's Department of Education, and widely distributed by it, presented a series of glowing reports from teachers and others involved with integration. This carefully selected series of enthusiastic reports on how well everything was going addressed many of the concerns which had been expressed earlier by the less selected groups of teachers surveyed by the professional association in 1988. Given the strength of the government and special interest group's presentation of this point of view in both the pressure campaigns which preceded the implementation of the programme and the glowing reports from the same sources which followed that implementation, it seems logical to suggest that the attitude expressed by the positive statement has been held prior to the exposure to the class materials examined by this study.

Item 8. "Extra costs involved in educating exceptional children should be borne by the parents."

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Undecided	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<u>Treatment:</u>	0	0	4 [13%]	7 [22%]	21 [66%]
<u>Control:</u>	0	1 [4%]	6 [22%]	6 [22%]	14 [52%]

Strong disapproval of this item was expected. The provincial system, since 1967, has accepted responsibility for the educational costs for all the school districts in the province. While this Equal Opportunity Act did permit districts a degree of taxation power to supplement the provincial budget, this has been rarely used. With the exception of small scale items such as field trips and consumable workbooks bought by parents, there are no provisions for charging individuals for special services in the school. While some charges may be

assessed if a parent places a child in a district other than the one nearest to the place of residence, the idea of imposing special costs for individual children in the public schools of the province is contrary to theory, policy and practice in the system with which the respondents in this study were most familiar. The principle expressed by Item 8 would be a difficult change to make in New Brunswick.

Item 9. "The teacher cannot give equal time to all students if there are exceptional children in the classroom."

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Undecided	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<u>Treatment:</u>	3 [9%]	6 [19%]	4 [13%]	15 [47%]	3 [9%]
<u>Control:</u>	7 [26%]	7 [26%]	4 [15%]	6 [22%]	3 [11%]

Disagreement with this item suggests support for integration. Since the responses to Item 7, "The integration of exceptional students into regular classes is beneficial to regular pupils.", showed a degree of caution as noted earlier, one would have expected answers to Item 9 to reveal greater concern, since the wording of this item is more specifically threatening. This concern was apparent when the treatment group showed disagree ratings of 47% and 9% while the control had disagree ratings of 22% and 11%. The number of undecided was identical at four individuals for 13% and 15%. The treatment group showed slightly more support, roughly 20%, for integration by disagreeing with the item than did the control group. These figures cannot be claimed as direct proof for the power of the videotape in this regard, but the producers did find them encouraging.

Comparison of Items 5, 7 and 9

This notion of disparate amounts of time required by special children had been addressed by Item 5 of this survey which stated that "In the classroom, the exceptional child will take more than his/her share of the teacher's time." Item 7 also implied an impact on regular children. It is difficult to understand why some respondents interpreted Item 9, "The teacher cannot give equal time to all students if there are exceptional children in the classroom", as having a meaning different from that of Item 5. Yet this was the case.

The probability figure was .995 for Item 5 and .259 for Item 9. The chi square value was 0.204 for Item 5 and 5.783 for Item 9. As can be gathered from the following extract from Table 2 and 3, there are differences in the choices made by the groups.

.....

Treatment Group

Item	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Undecided	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5.	5 [16%]	10 [31%]	6 [19%]	7 [22%]	3 [9%]
9.	3 [9%]	6 [19%]	4 [13%]	15 [47%]	3 [9%]

Control Group

Item	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Undecided	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
5.	4 [15%]	10 [37]	5 [19%]	6 [22%]	2 [7%]
9.	7 [26%]	7 [26%]	4 [15%]	6 [22%]	3 [11%]

.....

The figures for Item 5 are similar. This item is phrased in a negative fashion so that disagreeing with it indicates support for integration.

Item 9 is also phrased so that disagreeing with it indicates support for integration. Yet the responses to Item 9 are more spread out than the responses to the earlier item. Extracting the undecided choices of 13% for the treatment group and 15% for the control group produces 28% of the treatment group at some level of agreement while 56% are at some level of disagreement. In the same way, 52% of the control group agree while 33% disagree with the intent of the item.

The control group is consistent in its reaction to the intent of both items. They indicated 52% in agreement with both Item 5 and Item 9. This group had 30% disagreeing

with Item 5 and 33% disagreeing with Item 9. Since both items said roughly the same thing; that is, equal time for all is not possible with exceptional children present in the classroom, the control group supports the point of the two items.

The treatment group is not so consistent. When the undecided are extracted, 19% for 5 and 13% for 9, 47% indicate a level of agreement with Item 5 while only 28% indicate agreement with Item 9. A level of disagreement with Item 5 was chosen by only 31%, while 56% chose to disagree with Item 9.

Nothing in the content of the videotape treatment explains why respondents would indicate this difference when the items are so close together on the form. Perhaps an answer lies in the words "equal time" used in Item 9. The connotations of that phrase embody a stronger negative sense than the words "more than his/her share..." from Item 5. Should this be true, it would help to explain the reaction of those who saw the tape and reported being so very much aware of the slanted picture of the successful integration examples provided on it.

All that can be claimed at this point is that those responding to the questionnaire, whether or not they had viewed the tape, are worried about the time which they perceive as necessary to invest in special children and are concerned that this investment will be detrimental to other children. Support for this concern was frequently expressed in the literature examined for this study.

Item 10. "Mainstreaming offers mixed group interaction which fosters understanding and acceptance of differences."

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Undecided	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<u>Treatment:</u>	25 [78%]	7 [22%]	0	0	0
<u>Control:</u>	17 [63%]	8 [30%]	1 [4%]	1 [4%]	0

It was difficult to respond to this item because it presents its content on two levels. Clearly mainstreaming offers mixed group interaction because mainstreaming is a mixing of groups in a classroom setting where interaction is a given.

Reactions to this item suggest that the content offers no threat to the respondents in that there is no negative language. The images presented are neutral, presenting a type of definition with which they agree. The statement hinges on something "offered" and then amplifies that offering with positive value words such as "foster", "understanding" and "acceptance". Both groups of respondents accept this positive note of hope.



Item 11. "As a teacher, I would be willing to have an exceptional child in my classroom."

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Undecided	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<u>Treatment:</u>	21 [66%]	6 [19%]	3 [9%]	1 [3%]	0
<u>Control:</u>	18 [67%]	7 [26%]	1 [4%]	1 [4%]	0

Members of both groups are ready to try integration, but it should be noted that teachers in the New Brunswick system do not have the choice of refusing a special child assigned to them. Obviously some personal manoeuvring is possible, but not on an official level. In the same way, there are no officially organized reductions in class size when an special needs child is added, although individual principals are reported as attempting to do this. An aide may not be provided.

The four individuals who were undecided may be honest respondents. They know they are unsure of themselves. The others who so strongly expressed willingness may already have an exceptional child in their classroom, or possess the self image of being a caring, willing teacher. At any rate, all the respondents have volunteered to acquire additional knowledge in the area.

Stephens and Braun (1980) suggested that teacher willingness to accept the handicapped is related to the number of special education courses taken and to the basic belief that the handicapped could function in society. Two other studies expressed the idea that teachers must have positive views of themselves in relation to successful mainstreaming (Haring, Stern & Cruickshank, 1958; Horne, 1979). In addition, other studies suggested that

positive attitudes are linked to teacher perception of success in dealing with the demands of mainstreaming (Larrivee & Cook, 1979; Williams and Algozzine, 1979). Stephens and Braun (1980) found that teachers' positive attitudes are linked to confidence in their ability to teach special needs children.

A particular note that held out some additional hope for teacher attitudes was found in four studies which reported that regular classroom teachers' reluctance to accept mainstreaming is based on fear and a lack of clarification of responsibilities and competencies needed (Byford, 1979; Perkins, 1979; Dixon, 1980; Paul & Warnock, 1980). All of the foregoing suggest content areas for which inservice can be designed and delivered.

Item 12. "Classroom teachers should make the decision as to whether or not to take an exceptional child in the classroom."

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Undecided	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<u>Treatment:</u>	8 [25%]	11 [34%]	7 [22%]	5 [16%]	1 [3%]
<u>Control:</u>	8 [30%]	7 [26%]	4 [15%]	6 [22%]	2 [7%]

#### Comparison of Item 11 and 12

When compared with the figures for Item 11 where so many described themselves as willing to take a special needs pupil, the conclusion can be drawn that respondents were reacting to Item 12 as a theory item which applied more to others than it did to them. If so, then the number who suggested that teachers should not have that kind of power may be reacting to the provincial situation where administration makes placement decisions. The main legal protection teachers have in New Brunswick is a set of standard class sizes which is part

of the province wide teachers' contract. The numbers can only be exceeded when the school boards claim necessity.

Since it would have been common knowledge to all the respondents that teachers in the provincial system were not burdened with the responsibility of decision making involved, they were expected to agree with the statement. There was, however, considerable unhappiness expressed by the respondents on this item. While over half of each group agreed with it, almost half did not.

It can be suggested that these respondents are willing to accept the idea of integration and go along with it. Since they personally are willing, they did not feel that other teachers should have the right to refuse. A less cynical view would suggest that, while they were willing on a personal level as indicated by the responses to the preceding item, they felt unsure that classroom teachers had the necessary background to make placement decisions of this nature. These students have volunteered to obtain more background information by enrolling in these courses, thus, after covering the material, they may well have used the post test to indicate that other classroom teachers lack the required knowledge they themselves had just gained.

Item 13. "Mainstreaming will give exceptional students a better chance to readily fit into their community."

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Undecided	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<u>Treatment:</u>	23 [72%]	8 [25%]	0	0	1 [3%]
<u>Control:</u>	19 [70%]	7 [26%]	1 [4%]	0	0

Since the figures for agreement with this item are so high for both groups, it seems the respondents accept the notion expressed by the item. One would expect nothing else, since disagreeing with the item would suggest that special needs children would have a better chance at fitting in if they continue to be isolated. Even so, one individual in each group expressed reservations.

This same percentage of the treatment group kept showing up in ways suggesting unhappiness with integration. Given the percentage of teachers, licensed or in training, in the classes being surveyed, there appears to be one unhappy teacher enrolled in a programme designed to increase knowledge about the theory and practice integration. Exposure to the videotape used clearly did not influence the attitudes expressed so often by this small percentage.

The philosophy expressed in this item can be considered the backbone of the entire integration movement. While much of the thinking about integration centres on helping the individual develop to the highest possible potential, the practical implications often work out to helping the individual fit the handicap into the existing social pattern with as little turmoil as possible. If the onus is on the school system to prepare a child for this wider community, it

appears that the respondents to this questionnaire support the theory that mainstreaming will help integrate the special child into the world outside the school. Since the item was phrased as a "will give" rather than a "might give" statement, it seems that both groups involved see schooling as a positive and practical activity.

Item 14. "The exceptional child is likely to be socially isolated by regular students."

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Undecided	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<u>Treatment:</u>	1 [3%]	8 [25%]	5 [16%]	10 [31%]	8 [25%]
<u>Control:</u>	2 [7%]	11 [41%]	3 [11%]	6 [22%]	5 [19%]

Almost half of those who had not seen the tape agreed that social isolation would occur while only 28% of those who had seen the tape foresaw problems. While it would be satisfying to suggest that close to a 20% improvement in positive attitudes resulted from being exposed to the videotape, the small numbers involved do not support such a claim. The spread of opinions expressed on this item offers some support for the notion that integration is not a simple concept with totally predictable components. Teachers, along with the general population, bring preconceptions to any consideration of integration. This idea was often referred to in the relevant literature.

#### A Recurring Percentage

It should be noted that one individual in the treatment group chose to strongly disagree with Item 13; an item which suggested that mainstreaming would work to help fit the special into society. The treatment group again had one individual who chose to strongly agree with Item 14; an item which stressed that mainstreaming would not work because the other students

would not be helpful. In the same way, one individual of the same group chose to strongly agree with Item 19; an item which suggested that mainstreaming might be harmful to regular students. Again, one individual chose to be undecided on Item 16; an item which suggested that the presence of an exceptional child would be beneficial to the regular children in adjusting to exceptionality.

Thus the group of 32 who saw the tape had a recurring 3% who expressed unhappiness on items which relate to the basic tenets of integration. This leads one to wonder if it might be the same individual expressing to the basic concept of mainstreaming. Since the identity of the recurring percentage cannot be determined, it can only be observed that, if it were the same individual, the tape clearly did not have a positive impact on the attitudes of that particular participant.

Item 15. "With the help of experienced teachers, support services and special equipment, exceptional students can do well in a regular classroom environment."

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Undecided	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<u>Treatment:</u>	27 [84%]	4 [13%]	0	1 [3%]	0
<u>Control:</u>	15 [56%]	9 [33%]	2 [7%]	1 [4%]	0

The desirable circumstances listed were not in place in New Brunswick when integration was implemented, and are still lacking in most placements. Thus the respondents must be reacting in a positive way to a hypothetical situation. Given experienced teachers, support services and special equipment, most innovations could be expected to prosper.

The authors of many of the studies consulted had investigated perceived and available support services. Examples are provided by three of the more often cited studies whose authors suggested that positive attitudes were linked to teachers' perception of available support services and that positive attitudes were linked to teachers' perception of administrative support (Larrivee & Cook, 1979; Williams & Algozzine, 1979; Stephens & Braun, 1980).

Item 16. "The presence of exceptional children in the regular classroom helps the regular child understand and accept them in an empathetic and realistic manner."

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Undecided	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<u>Treatment:</u>	20 [63%]	11 [34%]	1 [3%]	0	0
<u>Control:</u>	15 [56%]	11 [41%]	1 [4%]	0	0

Comparison of Item 14 and 16

The import of this item dealt with the positive idea of acceptance. Item 14 had taken the negative tack that regular students would isolate exceptional students. Responses to these two items suggested a difference of opinion. Both groups agreed with Item 16 that the presence of exceptional children would help others adjust to them in a positive fashion; a situation which would be unlikely if there were no contact in the classroom. On the other hand, responses to Item 14 were quite different.

Looking back to Item 14, "The exceptional child is likely to be socially isolated by regular students.", the responses indicated that 57% of the treatment group disagreed with the idea that social isolation would occur and 41% of the control group also disagreed. Since the

undecided formed 16% and 11%, this left 28% of the tape viewers agreeing that isolation would happen while 48% of the control group indicated it would occur. Since the tape used portrayed regular students as helpful and enthusiastic, the slightly over half who saw the tape and disagreed with the item suggested that the treatment might have had some effect when just half of the control group felt isolation would happen.

Opinions on Item 16 are not so polarized. No one in either group disagreed with the idea of acceptance. It was difficult to explain the apparent difference in reaction between these related items separated by one item which members of both groups supported. Item 15 suggested that, with support in place, exceptional children could succeed in a regular classroom.

#### Acceptance Items

At this point it is instructive to examine the pattern of responses on items dealing with acceptance of exceptional pupils. Item 13, "Mainstreaming will give exceptional students a better chance to readily fit into their community.", was phrased in a positive manner and both groups supported it. Item 14, "The exceptional child is likely to be socially isolated by regular students." was phrased in a positive sense, but disagreeing with it revealed a positive attitude towards integration. Both groups did so. Items 15 and 16, "With the help of experienced teachers, support services and special equipment, exceptional students can do well in a regular classroom environment." and "The presence of exceptional children in the regular classroom helps the regular child understand and accept them in an empathetic and realistic manner.", were phrased in a positive manner and both groups supported these items. If the response to Item 14 had been as one directional as the others, then it could be suggested that the respondents were being influenced by the "positive means negative" phrasing. Since the responses to Item 14 were more spread out, this did not appear to be the case.



It could be suggested that the different responses to Items 14 and 16 could be explained by the logic that the presence referred to would be necessary for the rest of the item to happen. An explanation might also lie in the use of the four positive value words which end the sentence. "Understand", "accept", "empathetic" and "realistic" concluded the thought of presence and completed it in a way that both denoted and implied a happy situation with which one would want to agree.

Item 17. "As a teacher, I would be willing to take extra training so as to be better able to handle exceptional children in my classroom."

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Undecided	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<u>Treatment:</u>	26 [81%]	4 [13%]	1 [3%]	0	0
<u>Control:</u>	22 [82%]	4 [15%]	0	1 [4%]	0

Since all of those responding were performing in accordance with the item, the single individual in each group who registered either undecided or slightly disagree is in an odd situation. Perhaps a personal decision about the benefits of taking the course was being made here, although it is possible that the classroom reference might distract respondents who do not plan to function in that setting.

Support for inservice. The degree of interest shown by the respondents in additional educational opportunities is supported by the 1988 NBTA survey which reported that 77% of those surveyed rated inservice training activities as "important", while 63% had rated inservice as "very important". The desire NB teachers expressed in achieving additional background is shared by teachers elsewhere, forming an important rationale for the inservice planning

proposals of the present investigation. For example, a number of authors reported that inservice training was seen as important for successful mainstreaming (McMurray, 1979; Blietz & Courtnege, 1980, Glick & Schubert, 1981). Several others suggested that it should be provided as a priority (Reynolds & Birch, 1977; Tymitz & Wolf, 1982; Crealock, 1982).

This demand for inservice opportunities was emphasized by the number of researchers who found that participation in quality inservice programs was associated with favourable attitudes towards handicapped pupils and with confidence in working with them (Farrer & Guest, 1970; Glass & Meckler, 1972; Roth, 1975; Haley, Prothro & George, 1976).

In addition, other authors suggested that inservice was more likely to succeed if teachers saw it as relevant and having recognizable benefits (Burello & Orbaugh, 1982; Conran & Chase, 1982). Joyce and Showers (1980) linked the idea of relevancy and benefit when they suggested that teachers saw the two main purposes of inservice as being the improvement of skills and the learning of new strategies. This supported the earlier contention that regular classroom teachers needed new skills and competencies for mainstreaming (Reynolds, 1978). Another author suggested inservice programs must be focused on attitudes and feelings as well as skills and competencies (Meyen, 1978).

This identification of needs was supported by the idea that Buttery and Horne echoed when, in separate publications, they maintained that teachers must be prepared both cognitively and affectively for mainstreaming (Buttery, 1981; Horne, 1983). A slightly less encouraging note was struck when it was suggested that while regular classroom teachers believed themselves to be poorly equipped for the demands of mainstreaming they were, to some degree, resentful when required to participate (Shotel, Iano & McGettigan, 1972; Gickling & Theobold, 1975). Indeed, while agreeing that it is needed, teachers were reluctant to take retraining when it was available (Flynn, Gacha & Susdeen, 1978; Vandivier and

Vandivier,1979). A related concern that teachers were expressing difficulty in finding suitable retraining for mainstreaming was reported by Byford (1979), and Dixon (1980).

A demand for background knowledge and practical help with problems no longer theoretical has been clearly enunciated by teachers in New Brunswick. This demand has been expressed both by individuals applying for university courses and by the professional association's requesting additional inservice funding from the Department of Education.

One area of the background reading for the present study consisted of specific course suggestions, curriculum areas and implementation schemes proposed for various educational jurisdictions. While the degree of practicality and depth of coverage varied, there were common threads running through their rationales. The strongest of these was that exposure to, and knowledge about, exceptionalities positively influenced teachers' attitudes (Glass & Meeker, 1972; Harasymiw & Home, 1976; Larrivee, 1978; Mandell & Strain,1978). A second was that workshops were felt to be useful (Ingrom, 1976; Schorn, 1976; Singleton, 1977; Fiorentino, 1978; Becker, 1979; Larrivee & Cook, 1979; Larrivee, 1981; Horne, 1983; Hudson, Reisburg & Wolf, 1983). A third was that the provision of information, by itself, could reduce anxiety about dealing with the handicapped (Haring, Stern & Cruickshank,1958). A study by Harasymiew and Home (1976) recorded the finding that anxiety about dealing with the handicapped could be reduced without reducing the existence of negative attitudes towards them.

A major part of inservice design has been the matter of how much actual contact with special needs children should be part of the experience. Both sides have been put forth in the literature. Positive support was expressed by the idea that hands-on experience improved attitudes towards the handicapped (Haring, 1957; Cendell & Tony, 1965; Proctor, 1967;

Brooks & Bransford, 1971; Glass & Meckler, 1972; Yates, 1973; Higgs, 1975; Leyser, Abrahms & Lipscomb, 1982; Sanche, Haines & VanHestern, 1982).

The opposing point of view was that positive attitudes declined after hands-on contact with the handicapped (Hall, 1970; Schotel, Iano & McGettigan, 1971; Buttery, 1979). The negative feelings were amplified by studies whose authors suggested attitudes towards mainstreaming became less positive as the grade level and subject content importance increased (Larrivee & Cook, 1979; Powers, 1979; Stephens & Braun, 1980). In addition to this, secondary teachers were seen as much less supportive of mainstreaming than were elementary teachers (Dodd, 1980).

In short, the willingness of the respondents for the present study to take extra training, indicated by the figures for Item 17, cannot be termed unusual in view of the strength of the attention paid to inservice training in the literature. While not the only format for inservice training in New Brunswick, university courses of the type surveyed have been a long standing and accepted manner of dealing with the needs expressed by teachers in the field. The preservice programs offered in New Brunswick are also being modified to deal with the new demands of integration in the classroom.

Item 18. "The parents of regular children will object to the presence of exceptional children in the regular classroom."

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Undecided	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<u>Treatment:</u>	2 [6%]	7 [22%]	7 [22%]	11 [34%]	5 [16%]
<u>Control:</u>	0	7 [26%]	7 [26%]	7 [26%]	6 [22%]

Roughly half of both groups disagreed with the item, thus expressing a belief that parents of regular children would not object to integration. Indicating indecision were 22% and 26% while 28% and 25% expressed some agreement with the statement. If roughly half believed parents would be accepting, roughly a quarter did not share the point of view, while roughly a quarter were unable to decide their position on this item.

This spread of opinion was beside the point in the New Brunswick situation being surveyed. Parents of regular children in NB had no role to play in integration decisions, other than the obvious one of moving the child out of one district to another or out of the public system altogether. Some inschool pressures could be brought to bear in individual cases, but the publicly stated intention of the provincial department did not provide provision for parental withdrawal from integration. The main pressure group for exceptional children was publicly supportive of this position.

As has been mentioned, some of the background for this study suggested that resistance to mainstreaming increases both with the grade level concerned and the degree of experience with the innovation (Ryor, 1978; Dixon, Shaw & Benshy, 1980; Larrivee & Cook, 1979; Powers, 1979; Stevens & Braun, 1980; Dodd, 1980).

Item 19. "The contact which regular class students have with mainstreamed exceptional students may be harmful to the regular students."

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Undecided	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<u>Treatment:</u>	1 [3%]	4 [13%]	0	5 [16%]	22 [69%]
<u>Control:</u>	0	3 [11%]	0	8 [30%]	16 [59%]

Comparison of Item 19, 16 and 7

Item 19 dealt with the same concepts as Item 16, "The presence of exceptional children in the regular classroom helps the regular child understand and accept them in an empathetic and realistic manner.", but presented them in negative phrasing: "The contact which regular class students have with mainstreamed exceptional students may be harmful to the regular students." Disagreement with this item offered support for one key feature claimed for integration: the positive impact on the other pupils. The negative phrasing may have had an impact on the respondents since support for the content of Item 19 dropped from 97% to 84% for the treatment group and from 96% to 89% for the control group from what had been recorded for Item 16. There were no choices of undecided for Item 19.

This item also related to Item 7, "The integration of exceptional students into regular classes is beneficial to regular pupils." The treatment group had 26 [81%] and the control group had 19 [70%] who shared some level of agreement with the positive attitude expressed in Item 7. A level of disagreement with item 19 indicated a positive attitude towards integration and 85% of the treatment group and 89% of the control group did so. Attitudes recorded by the respondents did not change much between these two items.

Since the responses were so similar and the change in phrasing required respondents to carefully choose a negative for Item 19 in order to support integration, responses to this item should be a reliable indication that the majority of both groups do not fear integration will be harmful to regular students. Nothing on the tape should have influenced respondents against integration since all of the examples used were well-behaved and all the situations shown were positive.

Much of the research consulted for the present study suggested that any reluctance to deal with mainstreamed children in classrooms was linked to generalized uncertainty, rather than to focused concern on the impact for regular children. This seemed valid for the respondents involved in this study, since so many of them reported not having special children in their classrooms. General contact with the special needs child would have been lacking because of the social isolation tendency existing prior to the sudden implementation of integration in New Brunswick.

Some studies suggested that regular classroom teachers' reluctance to accept mainstreaming was based on fear and a lack of clarification of responsibilities and competencies needed (Byford, 1979; Perkins, 1979; Dixon, 1980; Paul & Warnock, 1980). Particular emphasis was placed on the nature of the handicaps involved and their influence on the teachers' attitudes.

While this avenue was not explored during the present study, some of the literature suggested that teachers would readily accept mainstreaming for the hearing, speech, visual and physical handicapped, but were less willing to accept the mentally retarded, behaviourally disorderly and socially maladjusted (Warren & Turner, 1966; Shears & Jensema, 1969; Tringo, 1970; Rapier, Adelson, Carey & Croke, 1972; Shotel, Iano & McGettigan, 1972; Vacc & Kirst, 1977; Moore & Fine, 1978; Hirshoren & Burton, 1979; Williams & Algozzine, 1979;

Cartwright, 1980). This attitude of differential reluctance was also identified when Mooney and Algozzine (1978) observed that behaviours of learning disabled children were seen as less bothersome than behaviours of emotionally disturbed children. Williams and Algozzine (1977) had reported that physically handicapped and learning disabled children were more accepted than mentally disturbed or retarded pupils.

Item 20. "Regular students quickly become accustomed to having exceptional pupils in the school and naturally accept them as peers."

	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Undecided	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<u>Treatment:</u>	20 [63%]	8 [25%]	4 [13%]	0	0
<u>Control:</u>	13 [48%]	10 [37%]	3 [11%]	1 [4%]	0

This was one of the few items on the form which referred to the "school" rather than to the "classroom". In the New Brunswick system abandoned for total integration there had been many school situations where special classes had been termed "opportunity" or had been given a code number intended to be a non-threatening label. With this in mind, many New Brunswick teachers may have recalled experiences where peer acceptance had been high for music, gym, shop classes or playground activities and reacted to the item accordingly.

#### Comparison of Item 20, 10 and 16

Responses for Item 20, "Regular students quickly become accustomed to having exceptional pupils in the school and naturally accept them as peers.", should have been about the same as responses to Items 10 and 16. Item 10 stated "Mainstreaming offers mixed group interaction which fosters understanding and acceptance of differences.", while Item 16 said "The presence



of exceptional children in the regular classroom helps the regular child understand and accept them in an empathetic and realistic manner."

While slightly less enthusiastic than the more than 96% level of agreement for Items 10 and 16, the percentages of agreement for Item 20 were very high with 88% of the treatment group accepting the message, 13% identified themselves as undecided with no entries in the disagree columns. The control group had 85% in agreement, 11% expressing uncertainty and one individual [4%] disagreeing. It appears that there is a high level of expectation for supportive qualities in regular children. This is particularly pleasant when one realizes how many of the respondents are teachers.

#### Summary of Results

The approach taken was to hypothesize that a significant difference in positive attitudes toward integration would be revealed through an analysis of responses to a common questionnaire administered to subjects who had seen the videotape used as a treatment when compared with those who had not viewed the treatment. This first hypothesis was not supported.

Detailed examination of responses recorded on the form, and possible reasons behind those responses, suggest that the New Brunswick groups involved in the university classes surveyed support the theory and practice of integration. The major concerns revealed centre around a feeling that the special needs child would impact most heavily on the classroom in terms of time taken from other children. Small groups of teachers consulted during this study in unofficial ways, as well as those teachers who completed the 1988 New Brunswick Teachers' Association survey, agree with most of the findings presented in the literature consulted. As well, many supported the point of view that teacher time involved in special

preparation must be considered separately as an important addition to the demand of inclass contact time involved with the demands of the exceptional.

A major theme underlying both the literature and additional contacts has been the matter of fairness. Teachers feel it is unfair to keep the special needs child from probable growth through contacts in regular classrooms. At the same time, they feel it is unfair to take time away from other children in order to invest it in the exceptional.

The comments just noted are seen as evidence for not supporting the second hypothesis of this thesis which suggested that the process of examining materials associated with this thesis would reveal major differences in attitudes towards integration expressed by teachers outside New Brunswick and those working within it.

It should be noted that very few teachers have publicly expressed the fear that this investment may be wasted. The philosophy that every child deserves a chance to develop whatever potential exists is widely held. Whatever else can be said about integration, this underlying sense of mission expressed by so many teachers in so many places and in so many ways offers both comfort and hope for the success of this educational innovation.

## CHAPTER VI

### Discussion

#### Background

This thesis was prompted by the sudden integration of special needs children into regular classrooms in New Brunswick by governmental edict in 1986. Although as Bowd (1990) pointed out, the terms are often interchanged as having the same meaning, the word "integration" was used in New Brunswick instead of "mainstreaming". Those involved in legislating the change regarded the process as more of an integration of all children into the existing educational situation, rather than a need to "fix" deficiencies in only certain children through a planned process of moving them in and out of segments of the standard program.

The development of integration on this province wide scale disregarded two areas of concern. First was the nature of the preservice education patterns in New Brunswick that had not included material on special needs children since the system in place excluded them from the public schools for which teachers were being trained. Thus most of the teachers involved in receiving these special children had little or no training in dealing with the range of disabilities which might involve their classroom. The second concern was that teachers reported feeling they had not been consulted and had received little advance information about the implementation of the new province wide program (NBTA Survey, 1988).

This situation came about with the implementation of Bill 85 [Amendments to the Schools Act] in 1986. This required all school districts in the province to respond to the educational needs of exceptional children by a widespread process of integration. Bill 85 required that all students receive an education in public schools "...to the extent that is considered practicable by the board having due regard for the educational needs of all pupils" (NB Schools Act, Section 45 (2.1), 1986).

Those individuals identified as having special needs had been receiving a range of special education programs and services within auxiliary class operations in hospital settings, shelters and designated school classrooms. This existing system was abandoned under the new legislation. As would be expected from the wording of the act, there were inconsistencies in the degree to which the more than thirty districts in the province implemented this ruling. Some moved to a rapid and total compliance, others were less abrupt in the integration of exceptional pupils.

It was logical to assume that the attitudes of teachers in the province toward the innovation, whether or not their individual classroom was directly involved, would have some impact on the degree of success experienced with this new process. One example comes from a study by Hudson, Graham and Warner (1979) which held that a matter of "primary importance" was the willingness of regular teachers to accommodate the principle of integration and that teachers' attitudes were crucial in this respect for the success of integration.

#### Attitudes

The first requirement for this thesis was to examine what had been reported about the attitudes expressed by teachers outside of the limited New Brunswick jurisdiction who had been faced with similar, if not so sudden, challenges. This led to a search of selected literature.

During this process, the term "attitude" was found to generally follow the description taken from Allport's work as being "...a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related..." (Allport, 1935).

The interest in the impact of the attitudes of teachers, the general tone of which was summarized by the citations used as preface to this thesis, led to an examination of ways attitude formation might be influenced. This, in turn, led to a survey of material dealing with the concepts of change, inservice education and the applications of these concerns to classroom teachers.

Because of the amount of material found which dealt with the notion of teacher attitude, findings from the literature survey which seemed to stand on common ground were grouped into suitable subtopics and then collapsed into a series of summary headings which provided a rapid overview of the items surveyed and their inter-relationships. These summary headings and references to the items supporting them are attached to this study as Appendix A.

### Change

Consideration of attitudes held by teachers led to a consideration of change in organizations and ways of approaching that aspect of the integration situation in the province. Accordingly, an attempt was made to identify existing notions of the change process. Some of these were developed into models which were presented and discussed in Chapter III.

Interest in the related notions of innovation and attitude formation resulted in an attempt to develop a method of influencing those attitudes present in the system. A profitable approach was offered by the basic idea that an attitude could be usefully worked with if approached as though it were a skill that could be identified, examined and processed as such. Accordingly, one part of this study took the form of proposing an adaptation of a skills training format (Romiszowski, 1981) into a model to guide the processes of influencing attitudes involved in the educational challenge under discussion.

### Testing One Model

The proposed model was examined to see if it would have value in guiding a change in attitudes through the planning of inservice activities. Only one aspect, that of mediated experience with sample special needs children, was chosen for limited experimentation.

This took the form of a videotape, produced by the provincial Department of Education, being used as a treatment with two of four classes enrolled in existing university courses conducted in different locations by the same professor. Two other classes from the same courses did not see the tape.

This quasi-experimental aspect of this study can be thought of as a nonequivalent control group design (Campbell & Stanley, 1966), although it differs in that pretest results were not used because subject attendance in the original four classes could not be maintained so that pre and post test results were available for comparison.

Findings from the four classes were combined into two groups. These two groups were compared by use of the same questionnaire following the exposure of only one group to the videotape treatment. Subjects were not assigned randomly to the groups. An attempt was made, however, to make the groups intact in that all subjects were enrolling in 5000 level courses at the Faculty taught by the same professor whose content and approach to the material were as similar as possible. The treatment was randomly assigned to two of the four classes.

The treatment videotape was shown during the first session of each class used as a viewing group. The attitude measurement scale questionnaire was administered by the professor during the last class session to all groups.

Results from the four classes were collapsed into two groups, viewing and non-viewing, because the anticipated population of 25 for each of the four classes had not occurred

as expected. Along with demographic information spaces, there were 20 Likert-type items on the response form.

Analysis. A non-parametric process was chosen because the assignment of subjects to groups had not been random. The chi-square distribution is often used as a test of significance when data is expressed in frequencies, percentages or proportions which can be transformed to frequencies (Downie & Heath, 1974).

Acknowledging limitations of the design and the analysis procedures, the results from viewing and non-viewing groups on each questionnaire item were processed with a chi-square test to determine if any differences existed between the groups responding to the instrument. The nature of the items { strongly agree, slightly agree, undecided, slightly disagree and strongly disagree } on the questionnaire often produced a problem with the size of the cells involved during the analysis. The reactions to the content of many items was often so strongly recorded as primarily on one side or the other of the small number of undecided that cell sizes were small, reaching 0 when no respondents chose that particular option.

It is generally agreed that cell sizes smaller than five produce an inflated calculated value, thus creating a possible distortion. Since cell sizes were so small for most of the items, any conclusions drawn from the chi square analysis must be approached with caution. The raw score results were helpful, however, because they did often show large scale swings of opinion where the group responses agreed with the intent of the item, this providing insights for opinions held by the respondents in the university classes used as subjects.

In addition, any differences could not be directly attributed to the treatment, since they might have been related to other considerations, such as a variation in the professor's delivery. Differences might have resulted from unexpected events in the lives of the subjects as they followed the course material. It was also impossible to ascertain what effects the developing

system of integration in the school system was having on the subjects since it was happening around them, perhaps to them, independently of the course content. The matter was also receiving considerable attention in various media available to the subjects.

Conclusions based on the experimental segment. More directly to the point of this concluding chapter, the findings of the experimental segment of this project did not support the hypothesis that viewing the videotape would have a positive effect on the teacher attitudes revealed by the survey instrument used. There were no useful differences recorded between those who saw the tape and those who did not. Those who had seen it reported that they liked it, while expressing reservations about its presentation of an accurate version of the realities involved.

While the analysis procedures did not support the hypothesis that the videotape treatment would influence different responses on the instrument, the process of examination and discussion did shed considerable light on the hypothesis that the attitudes and concerns of New Brunswick teachers dealing with integration would be in agreement with the attitudes and concerns found in the literature reviewed during the present study. Attitudes in New Brunswick towards integration revealed by the survey instrument used in this study, considered along with attitudes referred to in other studies, and those indicated by the large 1988 survey of over a thousand teachers conducted by the New Brunswick Teachers' Association suggested that New Brunswick teachers did share attitudes and concerns about integration with teachers outside the province.

Audience response. A related concern arose during the study. An audience feedback form was created and administered to those who had viewed the selected videotape to determine how they felt about the experience. The results of this process were presented earlier.



### Shifting Attitudes

The first publications examined for this thesis dealt with jurisdictions outside New Brunswick. While these early findings suggested a reluctance to accept integration, some more recent studies have suggested that teachers are becoming increasingly supportive of the concept. Winzer and Rose (1986) and Winzer and Chow (1988a,c) found that teachers surveyed were becoming more positive about integration. Earlier support was found in Ogletree and Atkinson (1982) and Ringlaben and Price (1981) when their work with regular classroom teachers found that the majority expressed a favourable attitude toward integration and would accept special needs children in their classrooms. Indications suggest that this position is shared by many New Brunswick teachers who have now experienced success within their own classrooms and schools.

### Hierarchy of Reluctance

Although the present study did not address this part of the issue, it is important to note that the type and degree of the special requirements of the individual child were widely reported as playing an important part in the willingness to accept special children. The least disturbing problems, such as deafness, were clearly more easily accepted than the more disruptive problems which would require extensive socialization procedures (Warren & Turner, 1966; Shears & Jensema, 1969; Tringo, 1970; Rapier, Adelson, Carey & Croke, 1972; Shotel, Iano & McGettigan, 1972; Vacc & Kirst, 1977; Moore & Fine, 1978; Hirshoren & Burton, 1979; Williams & Algozzine, 1979; Cartwright, 1980).

### Provincial Reactions

The 1988 NBTA Survey reported that many New Brunswick teachers feel they had been forced into the new format without adequate preparation. They express unhappiness with the existing level of government inservice activities. In addition, they are willing to enrol in

situations they perceive as assisting them in dealing with the anticipated problems. This is not unique. Leysner and Abrams (1984) and Hudson, Reisberg and Wolf (1983) had reported that practising teachers who participated in an inservice program which provided an overview of philosophy, as well as information on teaching skills, classroom and time management and diagnostic assessment skills held significantly more positive attitudes toward integration at the end of the experience.

It is important to note the existence of a general feeling in the literature when teachers reported feeling that integration itself was valuable in that the special children were perceived as needing, and deserving, opportunities to develop whatever potential existed. New Brunswick attitudes reported agreed. The principle did not bother the New Brunswick teachers so much as the manner of the implementation.

#### Perceived Problems

The major problem mentioned, both in and outside this jurisdiction, was that the special needs children required so much teacher time that the regular children would suffer. The second major problem identified was the perception that the level of classroom assistance that the teachers, and the public, had been led to believe would be provided was not, in fact, available.

There were comparable concerns expressed about the stress on the children who, while not labelled as candidates for integration, were considered less able. This was matched by concerns mentioned about the impact of integration on gifted children and their need for teacher time in the light of the expectation that the school should provide opportunities for challenge and growth for all children.

As one teacher put it while an aide dealt with a minor upheaval in the classroom during an observation visit: "Your intern is great, the aide is wonderful, but I feel guilty about

stealing the time from the others" (personal communication, Sunny Brae School, Moncton, May 1990).

[ Terms heard to this date had been the weaker ones of "taking" teacher time or "cheating" the others by having to invest time with the special needs child. While the demands of the moment must have influenced the choice of words, the tenor of the thought reflects the general uneasiness teachers expressed about the most obvious problem they face with integration. It is interesting to note that the main pressure group supporting integration in New Brunswick is clear in its statement that special needs children do not take unfair amounts of time if the teacher is "good".]

#### Implications for Further Investigation

The major area of uncertainty, however, lay in the question of whether the particular model proposed to assist in attitude change was faulty or whether the individual tape used as one part of that model failed to achieve a degree of success because of some aspect, or combination of aspects, in its production or application. Since the matter of attitudes, and the factors which produce and change them, comprises an enormous regimen of change and development, continued development and testing of the proposed model would be the first recommendation of this project.

The second recommendation for further investigation would be the establishment of a process of examining the attitudes of those New Brunswick teachers who by now have had direct and personal experience with integration. This should be approached in the light of both the government's public pronouncements on the topic, as well as its very real attempts to assist the teachers in the classroom which have been implemented since the present study was begun.

A related interest would be an examination of changes in the public role of the New Brunswick Teachers Association. Its pronouncements on real world situations in the schools has been much more vocal following integration than it had been prior to the imposed change.

It would be particularly interesting to determine if the threatened significant number of teachers leaving the profession as a result of integration has been taking place since the 1986 revision of the schools act.

Another profitable investigation would be the question of whether those preservice and inservice activities, which have suddenly become popular and available in the last three years, are having a beneficial effect on the teachers' ability to deal with the integration of special needs children into New Brunswick classrooms. The matter of having information about, as opposed to having experience with special needs pupils, continues to challenge those designing pre and inservice activities, as well as those exposed to them.

#### Summary Statement

This thesis examined a body of published literature dealing with an existing educational problem, proposed a model to assist with one aspect of that problem, tested a possible approach based on a segment of the model and came to some conclusions based on these activities.

There was no support found for the hypothesis that there would be differences on a survey instrument which could be attributed to the videotape used as a treatment. Support was found, however, for a high level of similarity between concerns expressed by teachers in the New Brunswick jurisdiction and those outside.

#### Observations

This study has identified two particularly gratifying notions. First was the identification of so much material from both provincial and out of province sources which had

direct bearing on the concerns raised by this innovation. Integration is clearly continuing to receive a more intense level of examination--a level which could have been reached prior to the political decision which established integration in New Brunswick.

Second, and by far the more important, was the strong support the teachers of this province expressed for the basic role of doing the best job possible for the children involved, even in the face of daunting difficulties and lack of effective support mechanisms. Teachers continue to want to teach children, not programs. Given the growing list of obstacles our educational systems continue to experience, this note of optimism deserves to be noticed, supported, and encouraged. Indeed, this most desirable attitude should be cherished.

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## APPENDIX A

### Notes on Research Readings

A computer search of the ERIC collection was conducted in April of 1988. The search began with a 1975 date, the time of the major US legislation. The headings used to direct the search were:

1. "mainstreaming": this produced a list of 4,215 documents
2. "teacher-attitudes": this produced a list of 15,812 documents
3. "inservice-teacher-education": this produced a list of 10,530 documents
4. a combination of 1 and 2 and 3: this produced a list of 81 documents

Following examination, 24 of the initial list of 81 documents appeared most useful for the purposes of this study. These received detailed attention.

Since there were common areas which reoccurred in so many of these selections, it seemed useful to identify the main themes and organize them into broad topic statements. Attached to these topic statements, in chronological order, are the author identifications which support the concern. This process oversimplifies the material surveyed since it does not take into account such things as research design and geographic location. For example, the respondents referred to in these papers vary from 14 teachers in one school to over 500 in one state.

### BACKGROUND

.definitions of the term "attitude":

(Allport, 1935; Keman, 1973)

.definitions of the term "mainstreaming":

(Kaufman, 1975; Davidson, 1980)

.comments on the process of mainstreaming:

(Deno, 1973; Weintraub, Abeson, Ballard & LaVor, 1976; Reynolds & Birch, 1977; Turnbull & Turnbull, 1978; Berliner, 1979a; Semmel, Gottlieb & Robinson, 1979)

.attitudes towards mainstreaming:

(Schom, 1976; Sarason & Doris, 1978)

.teacher expectation affects pupil performance:

(Rosenthal & Jacobson, 1968; Brophy & Good, 1974)

.explanation of competency based teacher education:

(Houston, 1974; Blackhurst, 1977; Medley, 1977, 1979)

.differences in requirements for special education and regular classroom teachers:

(Safer, Morrissey, Kaufman & Lewis, 1978)

.identified competencies needed to teach exceptional children in regular classrooms:

(Middleton, Morrison & Cohen, 1979; Redden & Blackhurst, 1978)

.more research on specific competencies required for successful mainstreaming is needed:

(Byford, 1979; Paul & Warnock, 1980)

.list of 6 generic competencies needed by special education teachers:

(Stamm, 1980)

## MAINSTREAMING

.by themselves, mandated laws and physical placement are not enough to insure successful mainstreaming:

(Keogh, 1976; Diamond, 1979; Frostig, 1979; Kunzweiler, 1979; Vandivier & Vandivier, 1979)

.the public holds negative attitudes towards the handicapped:

(Wright, 1960; Richardson, Hastorf, Goodman & Dornbush, 1961; Yukev, 1965; Warren & Turner, 1966; Noonan, 1967; Connie, 1969; Tringo, 1970; Panda & Bartel, 1972; Harasymiw & Horne, 1976; Parish, Dyck & Kappes, 1979; Leyser & Abrams, 1982)

.teachers' attitudes do not differ much from those of the public:

(Haring, Stern & Cruickshank, 1958; Murphy, Dickstein & Dripps, 1960; Bell, 1962; Gaskin, 1963; Warren & Turner, 1966; Tringo, 1970; Panda & Bartel, 1972)

.teachers show general support for mainstreaming:

(Wolfensberger, 1972; Keogh & Levitt, 1976; MacMillan & Becker, 1977)

.teachers are not supportive of mainstreaming and have negative attitudes toward it:

(Jordan & Proctor, 1969; Shotel, Iano & McGettigan, 1972; Gickling & Theobald, 1975; Alexander & Strain, 1978; Moore & Fine, 1978; Hudson, Graham & Warner, 1979)

.the climate for accepting mainstreaming has changed little since 1968:

(Alexander & Strain, 1978; More & Fine, 1978)

.resistance to mainstreaming is increasing as problems are experienced:

(Ryor, 1978; Dixon, Shaw & Bensky, 1980)

.public attitudes towards social integration need improvement:

(Goodman & Miller, 1980; Buttery, 1981; Clark, Miller & Quisenberry, 1981)

.plans for the social acceptance and social integration of the exceptional child are important for successful mainstreaming:

(Redden & Blackhurst, 1978; Levine, Hummel & Salzer, 1982)

.there is need to examine regular classroom teachers' attitudes towards mainstreaming:

(Blakenship & Lilly, 1977; Boyle & Sletter, 1981; Buttery, 1981)

.successful integration depends on positive teacher attitudes:

(Haring, 1957; Haring & Phillips, 1962; Kingsley, 1967; Martin, 1974; Higgs, 1975; Harasymiw & Horne, 1976; Huges, 1978; Hudson, Graham & Warner, 1979; Williams & Algozzine, 1979; Baker & Gottlieb, 1980; Larrivee, 1981)

.success of mainstreaming depends on the competence and credibility of the resource room teacher, the competence of the classroom teacher and the attitudes of those two professionals towards each other and towards the student:

(Mitchell, 1976)

.availability of a resource teacher is critical for the success of mainstreaming:

(Mandel & Strain, 1978)

.administrative training, development of positive attitudes, and adjustments to the organization of the system are seen as essential for successful mainstreaming:

(Myers, 1975; Cochrane & Westling, 1977; Robinson, 1977; Kursberg, 1978; Kendall, 1979; Duhamel & Johnson, 1979; Cartwright, 1980; Dodd, 1980; Herde, 1980; Powell, 1980)

.training, materials and support services are essential for successful mainstreaming:

(Plyne & Murray, 1974; Vacc & Kirst, 1977; Alexander & Strain, 1978; Larrivee & Cook, 1979; Powers, 1979; Graham, 1980; Stephens & Braun, 1980; Boyle & Sletter, 1981; Larrivee, 1981)

.special education specialists must give up ownership of the problems and co-operate in mainstreaming:

(Harasymiw & Home, 1975; Jones, 1978; Paul & Warnock, 1980)

.not all teachers are well suited to the demands of mainstreaming:

(Mandell & Strain, 1978)

### CHANGE

.effect of attitudes on educational change:

(Postman & Weingartner, 1969; Overline, 1976; Jones, 1978; Powers, 1979;

Williams & Algozzine, 1979; Buttery, 1981)

.list of obstacles to innovation:

(Mahan & Chickedantz, 1977)

### ATTITUDES

.the context of teachers' attitudes is important:

(Massie, 1978; Jones, 1981; Larrivee, 1982)

.attitudes are highly individual and multidimensional:

(Algozzine & Curran, 1979; Smith, 1979; Stephens & Braun, 1980;

Kunsueiler, 1982)

.teacher skills and attitudes are perceived as critical to the success of mainstreaming:

(Paine & Murray, 1974; McGinty & Keoh, 1975; National Committee on the

Handicapped, 1976; Ryor, 1977; Alexander & Strain, 1978; Hudson, Graham

& Warner, 1978; Gickling, Murphy & Mallory, 1979; Ringben & Price, 1981)

.regular classroom teachers believe themselves poorly equipped for the demands of mainstreaming and are resentful when required to participate:

(Shotel, Iano & McGettigan, 1972; Gickling & Theobald, 1975)



.negative teachers' attitudes are related to unfamiliarity with the handicapped:

(Kraft, 1973; Payne & Murray, 1974; Hudson, 1979; Dodd, 1980; Boyle & Sleeter, 1981)

.teachers will readily accept mainstreaming for the hearing, speech, visual and physical handicapped, but are less willing to accept the mentally retarded, behaviourally disorderly and socially maladjusted:

(Warren & Turner, 1966; Shears & Jensema, 1969; Tringo, 1970; Rapier, Adelson, Carey & Croke, 1972; Shotel, Iano & McGettigan, 1972; Vacc & Kirst, 1977; Moore & Fine, 1978; Hirshoren & Burton, 1979; Williams & Algozzine, 1979; Cartwright, 1980)

.behaviours of learning disabled children were seen as less bothersome than behaviours of emotionally disturbed children:

(Mooney & Algozzine, 1978)

.physically handicapped and learning disabled children are more accepted than the mentally disturbed or retarded:

(Williams & Algozzine, 1977)

.use of labels has biased teacher judgments:

(Foster, Yessedyke & Reese, 1975; Foster, Schmidt & Sabatino, 1976)

.attitudes towards mainstreaming become less positive as the grade level and subject content importance increases:

(Larrivee & Cook, 1979; Powers, 1979; Stephens & Braun, 1980)

.secondary teachers are much less supportive of mainstreaming than are elementary teachers:

(Dodd, 1980)

.positive attitudes are not significantly related to these variables: sex, age, marital status, size of municipality, number of years since bachelor's degree, years of teaching experience, having exceptional children in family or neighbourhood, teaching experience in schools with special education classes ,and experience in recommending children for special education evaluations:

(Stephens & Braun, 1980)

#### POSITIVE ATTITUDES

.teachers hold positive attitudes towards mainstreaming:

(Harasymiw & Horne, 1975; Higgs, 1975)

.teacher willingness to accept the handicapped is related to the number of special education courses taken and to the basic belief that the handicapped can function in society:

(Stephens & Braun, 1980)

.teachers must have positive views of themselves in relation to successful mainstreaming:

(Haring, Stern & Cruickshank, 1958; Horne, 1979)

.positive attitudes are linked to teacher perception of success in dealing with the demands of mainstreaming:

(Larrivee & Cook, 1979; Williams & Algozzine, 1979)

.teachers' positive attitudes are linked to confidence in their ability to teach special needs children:

(Stephens & Braun, 1980)

.positive attitudes are linked to teachers' perception of available support services:

(Larrivee & Cook, 1979; Williams & Algozzine, 1979)

.positive attitudes are linked to teachers' perception of administrative support:

(Stephens & Braun, 1980)

.years of teaching experience is unrelated to teachers' attitude:

(Combs & Harper, 1967; Semmel, 1979)

.there is a negative correlation between years of experience and positive attitudes towards mainstreaming:

(Harasymiw & Horne, 1975; Mandell & Strain, 1978)

#### NEGATIVE ATTITUDES

.teachers hold negative attitudes towards mainstreaming:

(Meyers, Sundstrum & Yoshida, 1975; Keogh & Levitt, 1976; MacMillan, Jones & Meyers, 1976)

.teachers' negative attitudes impact negatively on mainstreaming:

(Silverman, 1966; Brophy & Good, 1970, 1972; Ytiandis, 1971; Shotel, Jano & McGettigan, 1972; Bradfield, Brown, Kaplan, Rickert & Stannard, 1973; Martin, 1974)

.psychotic disorder labels are regarded more negatively by teachers than are neurotic, retarded or neurological labels:

(Combs & Harper, 1967)

.regular classroom teachers' reluctance to accept mainstreaming is based on fear and a lack of clarification of responsibilities and competencies needed:

(Byford, 1979; Perkins, 1979; Dixon, 1980; Paul & Warnock, 1980)

.regular classroom teachers feel mainstreaming will dilute the quality of school programs:

(Bradfield, Brown, Kaplan, Ricker & Stannard, 1973; Hudson, Graham & Warner, 1979)

.regular classroom teachers are unwilling to provide conditions not available for regular pupils:

(Major, 1961; Charles & Malian, 1980)

.regular classroom teachers view mainstreamed pupils as demanding too much time:

(Brulle, Barton, Barton & Wharten, 1983)

.regular classroom teachers view mainstreamed pupils as potential disturbers:

(Blazovik, 1972; Vacc & Kirst, 1977; Hudson, Graham & Warner, 1979)

.regular classroom teachers want special classes for the handicapped:

(Barngrover, 1971)

#### INSERVICE and RETRAINING

.most writing on inservice is more ornamental than useful:

(Cruickshank, Lorish & Thompson, 1979)

.inservice is more likely to succeed if teachers see it as relevant and having recognizable benefits:

(Burello & Orbaugh, 1982; Conran & Chase, 1982)

.the main purposes of inservice are to improve skills and learn new strategies:

(Joyce & Showers, 1980)

.regular classroom teachers need new skills and competencies for mainstreaming:

(Reynolds, 1978)

.inservice programs must focus on attitudes and feelings as well as skills and competencies:

(Meyen, 1978)

.teachers must be prepared both cognitively and affectively for mainstreaming:

(Buttery, 1981; Horne, 1983)

.inservice training is seen as important for successful mainstreaming:

(McMurray, 1979; Blietz & Courtnage, 1980; Glick & Schubert, 1981)

.inservice training should be provided as a priority:

(Reynolds & Birch, 1977; Tymitz & Wolf, 1982; Crealock, 1982)

.participation in quality inservice programs is associated with favourable attitudes towards handicapped pupils and with confidence in working with them:

(Farrer & Guest, 1970; Glass & Meckler, 1972; Roth, 1975; Haley, Prothro & George, 1976)

inservice training increased skills and positive attitudes:

(Haring, Stern & Cruickshank, 1958; Schofer, 1961; Warren, Tur...r & Brody, 1964; Carlson & Potter, 1972; McCoy, Prehm & Lambert, 1980; Yates, 1983)

.a difficulty is perceived in finding suitable retraining for mainstreaming:

(Byford, 1979; Dixon, 1980)

.while agreeing that it is needed, teachers are reluctant to take retraining:

(Flynn, Gacha & Susdeen, 1978; Vandivier & Vandivier, 1979)

.teachers see inservice programs as inadequate:

(Sabatino, 1981)

.inservice programs are seen as inadequate due to lack of relevance and transfer activities:

(Devore, 1971)

.the rewards from, and the motivations for, inservice are seen as needing upgrading:

(Jensen & Schaefer, 1978; Cartwright, 1980; Powell, 1980)

.exposure to, and knowledge about, exceptionalities positively influences teachers' attitudes:

(Glass & Mecker, 1972; Harasymiw & Home, 1976; Larrivee, 1978; Mandell & Strain, 1978)

.workshops are useful:

(Ingrom, 1976; Schorn, 1976; Singleton, 1977; Fiorentino, 1978; Becker, 1979; Larrivee & Cook, 1979; Larrivee, 1981; Home, 1983; Hudson, Reisburg & Wolf, 1983)

.the provision of information, by itself, can reduce anxiety about dealing with the handicapped:

(Haring, Stern & Cruickshank, 1958)

.anxiety about dealing with the handicapped can be reduced without reducing the existence of negative attitudes towards them:

(Harasymiew & Horne, 1976)

.hands-on experience improves attitudes towards the handicapped:

(Haring, 1957; Cendell & Tony, 1965; Proctor, 1967; Brooks & Bransford, 1971; Glass & Meckler, 1972; Yates, 1973; Higgs, 1975; Leyser, Abrhams & Lipscomb, 1982; Sanche, Haines & VanHestern, 1982)

.positive attitudes declined after hands-on contact with the handicapped:

(Hall, 1970; Schotel, Iano & McGettigan, 1971; Buttery, 1979)

.a sample of 301 teachers showed no significant improvement following inservice training:

(Safer & Agard, 1978)

.inservice activities produced no measurable attitude change, but changes in teacher behaviour and willingness to apply what had been learned was noted:

(Bradfield, 1973)

.students of teachers who received inservice training showed significant behavioral improvement, but did not improve their academic achievement:

(Clore & Keffrey, 1974; Trotter, 1977)

#### WHAT TEACHERS WANT IN INSERVICE

.those concerned should be consulted and their needs assessed prior to inservice:

(Edenfelt & Johnson, 1975; Howey, 1976; Dawson, 1978; Davis, 1980; Joyce & Showers, 1980; Conran & Chase, 1982)

.planners need to consider interests and strengths of participants,as well as their needs:

(Burello & Orbaugh, 1982)

.identified desired prerequisites for successful inservice training:

(Jensen & Schaefer, 1978; Okun & Warger, 1981)

.teachers want training in behavioral management techniques:

(Ainsa, 1980)

.teachers want a combination of increased knowledge, awareness, and hands-on experience with the handicapped:

(Birch, 1978; Holloway & Kerr, 1979; Boyle & Sleeter, 1981; Stoner, 1981; Allen, 1982; Lehr, 1982)

.teachers want networking contacts between schools:

(Boyle & Sleeter, 1981)

.teachers prefer school level inservice training since they feel it provides better assistance and more individual help:

(McCaffrey, 1979)

.teachers state concentrated formats are more effective than brief contacts:

(Brooks & Bransford, 1971; Larrivee, 1981)

#### SPECIFIC INSERVICE MODELS AND COMPETENCIES

.a list of content, situational and participant variables seen as valuable for inservice programs:

(Cronbach & Snow, 1977)

.survey of Vermont's attempt to identify competencies needed by regular teachers dealing with mainstreaming:

(Robic, Pierce & Burdett, 1979)

.list of competencies required for classroom teachers dealing with mainstreaming:

(Reynolds, 1979)

.list of information needs of regular classroom teachers dealing with mainstreaming:

(McNamara, 1981)

.nine needs for regular classroom teachers dealing with mainstreaming:

(Zigmund & Sansone, 1981)

.W6 model of needs assessment for Inservice Training for regular classroom teachers dealing with mainstreaming:

(Crealock, 1982)

.individual lists of topics seen as valuable additions to inservice education programs:

(Birch, 1978; Jensen & Schaefer, 1978; Holloway & Kerr, 1979; Powers, 1979; Shaw & Bensky, 1980; Ymitz, 1980; Boyle & Sleeter, 1981; Lee, 1981; Allen, 1982; Lehr, 1982)

.collapsed 9 area list of 322 information and 128 performance competencies required for mainstreaming:

(Homer, 1977; Haring, 1978)

.collapsed 6 function list of 271 specific tasks from 32 competencies identified as required by regular elementary classroom teachers dealing with mainstreaming:

(Redden & Blackhurst, 1978)

.collapsed list of 25 competency statements in 7 categories needed for mainstreaming:

(Lilly, 1974; Crisci, 1981)

.training model for regular classroom teachers dealing with mainstreaming presented under 3 main categories:

(Byford, 1979)



.model course for regular classroom teachers developed to deal with specific requirements:

(Alberto, 1978)

#### PRESERVICE

.there is a general feeling among teachers and administrators that existing preservice programs require changes to prepare students for the demands of mainstreaming:

(Hall, 1975; Dente, 1976; Alberto, 1978; Corrigan, 1978; Reynolds, 1978; Blankenship & Lilly, 1979; Medley, 1979; Robie, 1979; Williams & Algozzine, 1979; Dodd, 1980; Carberry, Waxman & McKain, 1981; Kunzweiler, 1982)

.Canadian universities need to expand special education programs:

(Hammil, Bartel & Bunch, 1984)

.regular classroom teachers see survey courses in special education as useless, lacking specifics which they view as important:

(Alberto, Castricone & Cohen, 1978)

.all teachers must be exposed to a variety of instructional models during preservice experience:

(Longo, 1982)

.individualizing, diagnostic and remedial techniques should be included in preservice education for all teachers:

(Powers, 1979; Reynolds, 1979; Dodd, 1980; Kunzweiler, 1982)

.teachers feel that a combination of knowledge acquisition and hands-on experience in dealing with the handicapped is needed as part of preservice education:

(Johnson & Cartwright, 1979; Leyser & Lipcomb, 1981; Swanson, 1981; Segow, 1982)

.most secondary teachers have taken no special education courses during their training:

(Price, 1979)

## APPENDIX B

## Feedback Form From Videotape Treatment: Text and Responses

The wording of the feedback form is underlined in this appendix. Responses to each item were transcribed as deciphered with some words added for clarity in [ ]. All respondent underlining, structures and spelling were maintained. Responses were further identified with a "-" as prefix. Feedback from both the September 1988 [N=19] and the January 1989 [N=11] groups are presented together following the text of the questions.

Videotape Feedback

We need your opinions on the short videotape experience you have shared. Without identifying yourself, please respond to the questions on this form. Feel free to write on the back of the page.

1. Can you identify any segments which particularly caught your attention? Did you feel they made you more or less supportive of the concept of integration. Any idea why you feel that way?

===first group responses: Sept. 1988===

- the non-handicapped child who was helping the special needs student was so accepting & proud to be able to help someone. I am very supportive of integration anyway. Any one of us could through accident, etc, either have a child that requires special instruction or become that person ourselves.
- Enjoyed kids helping kids. Probably in a classroom all help would be needed.
- Seeing some teachers that I know being so supportive of the program. These testimonials will swing anyone to be more supportive. Seeing the joy those M.R. kids and learning disabled kids get out of being integrated
- More supportive

-Closing section on the aspect of it being a togetherness concept. Colleagues working together make it work, if at all.

-The aspect wherein special needs children were allowed a "hands on" approach particularly in science classes-shows positive results.

-a.[1st statement]Students working together

students doing tutoring on teaching

-b.[2nd]more supportive

-c.[3rd]Integrated students need to feel wanted, loved etc,

-The film as a whole was very positive and supportive of the concept of integration. It made me feel more supportive of integration.

-The segment on the peer support. It indicated to me the positive aspect of integration on the "average" student.

-I am as a rule very much in favour of integration. However, I feel the children used do not show the real(more)difficult students.

-more supportive of the concept of integration, but only at the elementary level. No matter what the disability, these students must be with children who share the same mental age.

-General, amateurish

-enjoy the special needs students themselves

-more supportive

-It helps dispel the myth that these students are all severely retarded.

-the integration of the young lady with telescopic vision equipment and the young man with posture board

- This film only showed the very positive side of those students who have been integrated-this tends to make one more supportive of the concept.
- The special needs children participating in normal classroom activities eg. laboratory. I feel very supportive of integration. Every child should be given the chance to receive an education regardless of any handicaps.
- I am completely in favour of integration into the school system. There was nothing in this film that particularly caught my attention.
- More supportive of integration because I feel every child has a right to an education and that even if that child sits and listens he will get something out of a integrated class. We have no right to say they can't attend a normal class.
- segments where special needs children were interviewed
- didn't change concept of integration

\*\*\*second group responses: Jan. 1989\*\*\*

- all integrated students were "integratable"
- Good idea, but should not be taken as an example.
- Concept that everybody benefits: children need to be exposed to exceptional children, and given the opportunity to accept others as they are. Children learn patience and understanding at an early age. They see these children as children with needs the same as their own, though they may need more assistance and direction from others. I feel this is one of the most important facets of integration.
- The part with the young boy explaining how he worked with an exceptional child in his classroom exemplifies the benefits of integration. It displays how understanding and helpful students can be when given the opportunity.

-positive attitudes of the teachers made me more supportive of the concept of integration

-the part where [principal identified by name] talked about helping the handicapped boy was very interesting. I felt more supportive of integration. Both individuals benefited from the tutoring sessions.

-the young boy who explained how he helped a fellow student do his work. We should remember that not all cases are as great as those described on the film.

-This is a very positive view of integration but is it realistic?

-Direct interviews with the special needs kids were interesting and yet I've always seen their place [as being] in the regular classroom. It didn't change my opinion.

-other children are very willing to help these children, this is one of the reasons I feel supportive of the concept of integration.

-segment where peer tutoring is displayed. Very supportive of integration however I feel they should say why it works-"teachers" and what they do to make it work. This could be difficult at times. I feel this way because nothing works without great effort. This makes it seem too easy.

-the idea of moving the child to different places in the classroom so he gets a chance to sit by everyone-great idea

-supportive for integ. in the elementary grades-for secondary schools? Mostly social integration ie: typing, phys. ed, dance, biology lab

2. Identify reasons why you would or would not show this tape to these groups:

A. to your pupils before accepting a special child into class-

===first group responses: Sept. 1988===

-positive attitude

- would not-may suggest preconceived notions. Would want students to readily accept because they made own relationship & would want relationship to be honest & forthright.
- let them know what is in store
- to get their mind frame set on a positive "it can work" attitude.
- yes-gives students some idea of what special needs children are like
- would not-regular students will probably discover well to have to get along with M.R. kids.
- I would because it would be a good introduction to prepare the class for the new student.
- Yes, to show them how helpful they can be
- it would show the special needs children are children also
- Yes-to help prepare the students for the change that will occur in their classroom
- an. adequate overview but not particularly helpful on specifics
- would-shows students they can help and learn in the integration process.
- yes-alleviate fears
- I would show this tape because of the positive attitudes to all these groups
- I would show this to pupils because they would possibly get an idea of other students opinions.
- I would show it to the pupils because it would show them that it is alright to be a friend or pal to a handicapped person as in the film.
- would not because children should be allowed to accept spec. needs child on their own

\*\*\*second group responses: Jan. 1989\*\*\*

-I would show this film because it shows how other children react. It demonstrated positive interaction between exceptional and other children. They see for themselves that it will work. They also have a chance to hear how these children feel and how important it is for them to go to school

-I would show this to them because it would show the children how rewarding integration can be and that it can work.

-they can see examples of it working. It would give them feelings about their "integrated" classroom

-shows that special needs kids are not aliens but rather human beings who have feelings, need friends, etc.

-it is an informative tape for adults concerned-addresses these issues but not those which might be held by young children. Yes for those high school and some junior high school students

-would show tape because the children would have a better understanding of what may occur in the classroom. Also, the tape was so positive that I think it would present and result in positive attitudes from the children.

-yes, appropriate for everyone-elem/senior/teacher aids/attendants

B. to parents of regular children before a special child comes-

===first group responses: Sept. 1988===

-would-shows benefits to special child

-shows ready acceptance by regular students

-shows integration works for both

-so that they may work with the child at home

- to reason with them that this can be educational for "regulars" as well.
- Yes-as above![gives students some idea of what special needs children are like]
- would-to show them that it really works and is beneficial to regular students
- I would because it would be educational for them and would make them more understanding & comfortable with the idea.
- Yes, to show them the many positive aspects of integration
- same as above,[...show that special needs children are children also]particularly the section that shows the normal child helping the special needs child.
- yes-to show how the integration process is going to work and assure them that their child will not lose any instruction
- dito[would-shows students they can help and learn in the integration process]
- yes
- so they can talk and explain to their children to be more tolerant of children less fortunate than themselves
- Yes, I would show them this so that they can realize what types of attitudes the future holds for their special needs child. It appeared to be a very positive attitude that would be encouraging.
- I would also show them to a parent so they could realize they have no right to show their children to be ignorant to the ways of[special children]
- would show because of the fear parents might have of what is/would happen once the placement has been made

\*\*\*second group responses: Jan. 1989\*\*\*

- demonstrates to parents that integration can work without any harmful affects to their children-see the positive comments of other parents



- I would show it so parents would know that the integrated children were children too
- show to parents for same reasons as above[rewarding and can work]
- shows benefits that normal children get from dealing with special child
- I would show this tape to parents so they could see the positive side of integration
- same as above[special kids are kids and have common needs]
- yes, it addresses some of their questions they might hold, shows where integration works
- it would give the parents an opportunity to see how such a classroom works and to distinguish some anxieties they may have. Can see the benefits for both regular and special children
- great orientation tape for parents

C. to colleagues-

===first group responses: Sept. 1988===

- would -ease the mind
- shows excellent use of peer tutors
- again, awareness, and, as follow-up to a year's experiences.
- Yes-give skeptical teachers an opportunity to see positive results!
- would-for the reason above[...it really works and is beneficial to regular students]
- I feel it would be educational would promote awareness of the benefits of integration
- Yes, to show them that other teachers have had success
- I think my colleagues would think it was a bit too pro, not showing the immense difficulties.
- Yes-to make them aware of the positive aspects of integration

-yes-emphasizes the importance of the teachers/administrators attitude to make the process work.

-yes-for support and encouragement

-This was very positive and would be good to show to colleagues

-show how they can adapt to have a special needs kid in their class

-certainly presents positive side

\*\*\*second group responses: Jan. 1989\*\*\*

-colleagues should see that it can be a positive experience

-parents and colleagues should see the child first and not the handicap first. Too many people see the handicap and not the person.

-same[rewarding and can work]

-to reg. teachers; they can see egs. of integration working. It may not work all the time, but there are egs. of integ. being successful

-probably no surprise to them

-definitely-very informative

-other teachers would see how these classrooms work and this could lead to more positive attitudes throughout the school

-and to a teacher who will be receiving a spec. needs student

D. to the general public-

===first group responses: Sept. 1988===

-would -above reasons [unclear as to which reasons meant, comments were generally positive]

-they should know and be aware

- all of the above[all groups?]-similar reasons-presents a "fairly" reasonable view of the benefits to all people involved in the integration process
- not useful
- Yes-an eye-opener!!
- would-to get rid of preconceived notions
- Educational
- Yes, to show them money spent on integration is useful.
- same as first line.[...special needs children are children also]
- Yes-to make them aware of the positive aspects of integration
- it would help explain what the school is attempting to do.
- shows how students-special and normal can [work together?]
- yes-education of how integration can work
- This could be very beneficial to show to the general public. It is good public education and creates awareness
- Yes so they won't act to the MR as if they would catch anything from them. They do have special needs but they can go on in life as all of us do.
- would because it shows the positive side of integration-although it misses negative side

\*\*\*second group responses: Jan. 1989\*\*\*

- this tape should be shown to general public to make them aware of how integration works. Though some may feel it is looking at integration through rose coloured glasses, however it does demonstrate that some exceptional children can function in the regular classroom

-too many people see the handicap and not the person. However, in this film, the kids were all integratable kids. They aren't like many of the real kids in classrooms.

-same[rewarding and can work]

-? It depends if we are promoting total integration for all special needs children. I would not use it to promote the case for every child.

-same as A & B[special kids are kids and have common needs]

-make people aware of the capabilities of the mentally retarded. May be a little too positive(didn't show children who may have more severe disabilities)

-yes, shows that integration works

-this would be a great opportunity for the general public to see exactly how integration can work positively and for the benefit of all involved. It could enhance positive attitudes from everyone. The attitudes featured here could be brought into the community as well.

-appropriate-the film isn't totally "rounded", the film just shows the success stories-very realistic? What about the stories of integ. that did not work? Why. Doesn't show view of regular parents attitudes towards integ.

3. Please circle the number which most closely expresses how you feel about the statement.

Table 4.Scores on Videotape Response Feedback Form

Item	Strongly Agree	Slightly Agree	Undecided	Slightly Disagree	Strongly Disagree
a. tape develops worthwhile attitudes	{ 16} (6) [22]	{ 4} (5) [9]	{ 0} (0) [0]	{ 0} (0) [0]	{ 0} (0) [0]
b. tape suggests desirable actions	{ 11} (4) [15]	{ 7} (7) [14]	{ 1} (0) [1]	{ 0} (0) [0]	{ 0} (0) [0]
c. tape would stimulate discussion	{ 10} (5) [15]	{ 9} (4) [13]	{ 1} (0) [1]	{ 0} (0) [0]	{ 0} (1) [1]
d. tape provides new information	{ 2} (2) [4]	{ 10} (3) [13]	{ 3} (2) [5]	{ 4} (2) [6]	{ 0} (1) [1]
e. tape encourages you to seek new information	{ 3} (3) [6]	{ 8} (6) [14]	{ 3} (2) [5]	{ 3} (0) [3]	{ 2} (0) [2]
f. commentary gets in the way of what you want to learn	{ 0} (1) [1]	{ 3} (1) [4]	{ 1} (2) [3]	{ 9} (6) [15]	{ 7} (1) [8]

g. tape covers	{1}	{1}	{1}	{10}	{6}
too much material	(0)	(3)	(1)	(6)	(1)
too fast	[1]	[4]	[2]	[16]	[7]
h. tape has	{1}	{2}	{1}	{8}	{7}
too much "expert"	(1)	(1)	(1)	(7)	(1)
talk	[2]	[3]	[2]	[15]	[8]
i. children used	{4}	{3}	{2}	{5}	{4}
are not accurate	(4)	(3)	(1)	(3)	(0)
samples of integration	[8]	[6]	[3]	[8]	[4]
j. tape identifies	{1}	{3}	{4}	{7}	{5}
problems which you had	(0)	(2)	(2)	(5)	(2)
not thought of before	[1]	[5]	[6]	[12]	[7]

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Notes: Responses of first group: N=19 shown in { }

Responses of second group: N=11 shown in ( )

Total Responses: N=30 shown in [ ]

Some subjects made 2 choices, others made no selection

ANY COMMENTS YOU'D LIKE TO MAKE:

===first group responses: Sept. 1988===

- missed the negative side which made it quite bias. I feel this would turn people off the film/ indirectly integration-although it certainly would give grounds for discussion
- good video
- There are negatives. To do justice to this some time should be given to address negative concerns. What about parent views?

\*\*\*second group responses: Jan. 1989\*\*\*

- children with more severe problems should be shown-show how integration does not work for all children
- this film presents a rosey picture of integration. There must be many downfalls that we have not seen. Also these children are probably the types of children that should be integrated, how about the more severe cases, ie. autistic, C.P., terets
- terribly rosy picture, makes a great case for integration
- too rosy a picture
- tape is general & paints a rosey picture.
- these were not the worst cases available. They almost program how you will feel before you see the film
- put in a few children which aren't quite so integratable. Looks awfully rosey.