

1993

An analysis of the role of principals supervising programs for students with disabilities in effective schools as defined by Virginia's Outcome Accountability Project

Helen Clayton Williams
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Virginia's Outcome Accountability Project**

Williams, Helen Clayton, Ed.D.

The College of William and Mary, 1993

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**AN ANALYSIS OF THE ROLE OF PRINCIPALS SUPERVISING PROGRAMS
FOR STUDENTS WITH DISABILITIES IN EFFECTIVE SCHOOLS
AS DEFINED BY VIRGINIA'S OUTCOME ACCOUNTABILITY PROJECT**

A Dissertation

Presented to

**The Faculty of the School of Education
of The College of William and Mary**

In Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education

by

Helen C. Williams

December 13, 1993

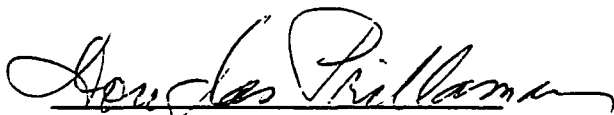
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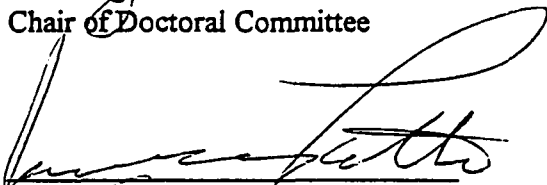
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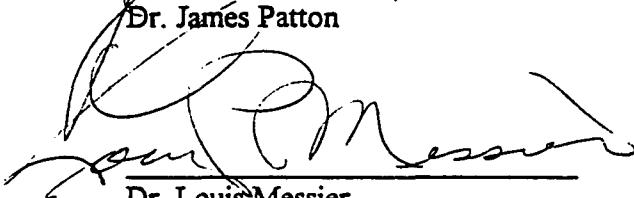
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CHAPTER I

Justification And Background For The Study

In the field of education, one of the most forceful changes has been in the area of special education. Public Law 94-142, The Education for All Handicapped Children Act (EAHCA) of 1975, IDEA 1991, impacted education programs across America. This landmark legislation, postulated on the assumption that education is a civil right (Rebore, 1979), mandated that a free, appropriate education be available to all school age students with disabilities, in the least restrictive environment using an individual education plan (IEP). This meant that pupils with disabilities could no longer be arbitrarily placed in a separate building and excluded from the mainstream of school life. This law further stipulated that each state establish procedures for the identification and evaluation of all pupils with disabilities, and establish and implement due process procedures to protect the rights of the disabled child. Subsequently, curriculum modifications, changes in teaching methods, improved technology, and most of all, philosophical changes for school administrators resulted.

The tremendous impact on educational supervisors and administrators, particularly the principal, was immeasurable. Shuster (1985) noted that the principal, as the school's instructional leader, actually became the "key individual" in implementing EAHCA at the local level and that they were suddenly thrust into a program area, special education, which heretofore they had given little concern. Their responsibilities multiplied and included tasks requiring a knowledge of disabling conditions and programming for

exceptional children. Decisions no longer could be based on a utilitarian philosophy as the principal must now think in terms of the individual needs of students with disabilities.

Prior to 1975 and the advent of The Education for All Handicapped Children Act, it had been common practice for principals and special educators to respect each other's expertise but to make little attempt to understand, work together and mutually accept each other's program territory (Rebore, 1979). Because of the requirements of the law, it now becomes essential for the special education administrator and the principal to work together since both are charged with the responsibility of providing programs and services to disabled youth in the least restrictive environment.

Drake and Roe (1986) emphasize the point that the community within an attendance area of a school holds the principal accountable for the quality of education for each child in the school. Thus, the principal, as the instructional leader of the school and key figure in the special education process at the local level, needs to understand his/her role and how others, such as special education administrators, perceive his/her role. As Vigilante (1969) notes, when the principal and supervisor are aware of each other's role, they "can accelerate positive human behavior" (p. 27), which, in turn, will provide optimum programming for exceptional students.

Purpose Of The Study

The purpose of this study is to analyze the role of principals supervising programs for students with disabilities in effective schools as defined by Virginia's Outcome Accountability Project. It will be done from the perspective of the principal, special education administrator and special education teachers. The principal is selected as the primary focus of this investigation because the literature indicates that the special education mandates of P.L. 101-476, IDEA, and subsequent amendments have had tremendous impact on this position, placing incumbents on the front line in terms of

implementing the law at the local level (Gage, 1979; Raske, 1979; Shepard, 1980; Weisenstein and Pelz, 1986; Burrello, Schrup and Barnett, 1988). As noted by Chandler and Utz (1982), special education challenges the expertise of administrators by constantly forcing them "to look at new methods of education delivery" (p. 56).

This is a significant factor since principals are trained as general administrators, yet they have the responsibility of establishing special education programs and following applicable federal and state regulations. Since principals do not have training in this specialized area, they must establish cooperative efforts with the special education administrator(s) to achieve an effective program (Shepherd, 1979). It was stated by Vigilante (1969) that a mutual respect must exist between the principal and special education administrator; and they must understand their respective roles, territory, and commitment. For example, if these two administrators show support by working to merely develop rules, regulations, procedures and instruction, then mainstreaming will fail and children with disabilities will suffer for it (Rebore, 1979). This type of relationship is termed an "uneasy alliance" (Chandler and Utz, 1982) and points out the need for principals to have a better understanding of their perceptions and role in educating students with disabilities.

To improve education programs, The Virginia Department of Education piloted the Educational Performance Recognition Program (EPR) from 1989-90. This outcome-based performance project identified specific educational outcomes for all students attending public schools in this state. The program is now called the Outcome Accountability Project (OAP) and retains the mission of holding each school district accountable for student achievement and, as noted above, to improve education in Virginia (*Virginia Journal of Education*, 1990). The program objectives include (a) preparing students for college, (b) preparing students for work, (c) increasing the graduation rate, (d) increasing special education students' living skills and opportunities,

(e) educating elementary school students, (f) educating middle school students, and (g) educating secondary school students. Each of these objectives has six to 14 indicators that delineate whether a school is doing a good job of meeting the objectives (*Virginia Journal of Education*). Performance on these indicators will help schools diagnose areas that need strengthening and will allow successfully identified practices to be disseminated to other districts around the state. School districts will be compared to other school divisions with similar characteristics using comparison bands. Each band consists of fifteen school districts.

Specifically, this study will examine the supervisory role of the principal responsible for special education programs in an effective school (defined by Virginia's OAP criteria). The role will be analyzed using input from the principal, special education administrator and special education instructors. The following questions will assist in delineating the behaviors that are significant to the role of a principal supervising a special education program in an effective school (using OAP criteria).

Questions To Be Addressed

1. Does the role of the principal in a school with an effective special education program, as defined by using the OAP indicators, differ from the role of a principal in a school with a lower rating?

2. How does the interaction between the principal and special education administrator in an effective OAP school differ from that of a principal and special education administrator in a school with a less effective OAP rating?

3. What obstacles do building principals face in implementing special education programs for persons with disabilities, and what, if any, effect would they have on the principal's role?

Significance Of The Study

This study is significant because it will focus on the supervisory role of the principal responsible for special education programs and analyze their behaviors in schools that are considered effective based on OAP standards. With the increased responsibility of the principal in working with the disabled, it is essential to identify behaviors that create or improve program effectiveness. The literature indicates that most of the research conducted on the role of the principal was examined in the general education context. Howe (1981) and others (Farley and Billingsley, 1991) point out that there is a gap in the literature as it is applied to special education programs and the role of the principal.

It is particularly critical to examine the principal's role in a special education context, since the program focus is changing from developing policies and procedures to meet the mandates of P.L. 101-476 IDEA to promoting educational quality and effectiveness in programs for students with disabilities (Gerber, 1984); (Farley and Billingsley, 1991). Clearly, this shift in positions suggests that the role of the principal should be analyzed to determine what behaviors are perceived to be most important in providing effective instructional supervision.

Further, the analyzed data resulting from this study will provide principals and special education administrators with an information base for solving role-related problems and those involving organizational structure. These issues are noted in the literature (Chandler and Utz, 1982; Shuster, 1985; Tanner and Tanner 1987) and constitute part of the research gap noted by Farley and Billingsley (1991).

Another area of significance included in this study is the educational training of principals and the obstacles they face in working with students with disabilities. Certification studies such as those conducted by Davis in 1980 and Prillaman and Richardson (1985) suggest that training/certification requirements for the principal could impact their performance in providing services to disabled students.

To summarize, this study is significant because it will analyze behaviors of principals working with disabled students in highly rated OAP schools and identify behaviors that promote effective programs. Role related conflict areas will be identified as well as obstacles that impede the principal's performance in working with special education programs.

Limitations Of The Study

Constraints which limit the results of this investigation are as follows:

1. This study is limited to special education administrators and principals or designees in selected public school districts participating in the Outcome Accountability Project, and therefore, caution is advised in making generalizations.
2. The participants in the study are restricted to school personnel in four school districts in the state of Virginia. This factor requires the researcher to be cautious in making generalizations.
3. Participants for the study are selected from the *Virginia Educational Directory 1992* and, therefore, recent changes in school personnel may not be reflected.
4. Subjects interviewed in this study reflected different levels of training and experience and work in various school situations which restricted generalizations.
5. The time at which the study is implemented during the school year may affect the number of staff available for interviews.

Theoretical Rationale

The theoretical basis for this study is founded on role theory and the literature concerning the problems and responsibilities principals face in working with disabled

youth. Researchers have used role theory extensively in attempts to better understand and predict behavior in organizations (Owens, 1981). There are numerous definitions and uses of the term "role" (Getzels, Lipham, Campbell, 1968); but, for the purpose of this study, it will be defined in the social systems context as will the concepts of role perception and role conflict.

The Getzels and Guba Social Systems Model "postulates that social behavior in a school is affected by institutional expectations, group intention and individual needs" (Hoy and Miskel, 1978, p. 40). The system contains two dimensions which are interdependent but interacting. The institution (school) is the first dimension and is defined in terms of roles which "represent the various positions, offices, and status prerogatives which exist within the institution and are themselves defined in terms of role expectations" (Sergiovanni and Starratt, 1979, p. 64). The second dimension focuses on the individual and is based on the premise that individuals have personal needs and goals which are expressed through their personality and pursued according to their need dispositions (Sergiovanni and Starratt).

As a result of individuals being brought together in the school setting, informal groups develop and serve to balance the bureaucratic expectations and individual needs (Hoy and Miskel, 1978). These groups exert peer pressure "and use their groups' norms to guide their behavior" (Hoy and Miskel, p. 43).

With the school as a social system, Sergiovanni and Starratt (1979) noted that conflict may easily "result from the organization's interaction with its human inhabitants" (p. 65) and is usually in the form of interrole conflict or intrarole conflict (Bullock and Conrad, 1981). For example, in a position such as the principalship, the incumbent may experience interrole conflict if there is disagreement among groups within the school system concerning the role expectations for the position (Hebert and Miller, 1985). The

principal perceives his/her role behavior based on educational training, experience, attitudes, personal needs and beliefs of what others in the system expect from the position.

Intrarole conflict may occur when there is a difference between personal philosophy and institutional practice; but regardless of the cause, if the person is unable to resolve the role conflict, then stress or frustration will result (Kahn, 1964 cited from Symons, 1973). When this occurs, it can filter to other positions within the school framework and possibly affect the entire school environment (Hebert and Miller, 1985).

With this in mind, one is able to see the importance of comparing the perceptions of the principal and special education administrator concerning the role of the principal in educating youth with disabilities. Further, Howe (1981) substantiates the need for research in this area by discussing perceived conflict areas between the principal and special education administrator and by pointing out the paucity of literature regarding it.

Shuster (1985) and Tanner and Tanner (1987) identified several problem areas for principals who work with students with disabilities and discussed how these problems affect the role of the principal. Notably, most of them are ripe for role conflict. They are summarized below and will be discussed further in the review of the literature:

1. Principals are not aware of the extent that they are to participate in the special education process.
2. The organizational structure forces regular administrators, the principals, into the special education administrators' territory.
3. Principals lack special education knowledge and have a low consciousness of EAHCA.
4. Attitudes and approaches toward mainstreaming vary; additionally, there is a lack of standardized procedure to "implement mainstreaming" (pp. 233-234).

Also, the topics listed below will be discussed in the review of the literature as the role of the principal in the special education process is analyzed:

1. How the size of school districts impact the principal's role and supervisory perceptions of the principal's role (Neagley and Evans, 1980; Tanner and Tanner, 1987).
2. How educational training affects the principal's role in providing services to disabled pupils (Symons, 1973; Shepherd, 1979; Stile and Pettibone, 1980; Davis, 1980; Cline, 1981; Joyner and Sabatini, 1981; Podemski, Price, Smith and Marsh, 1984).
3. Responsibilities and competencies required of the principal implementing EAHCA regulations (Leitz and Kaiser, 1979; Crossland, Fox and Baker, 1982; Weisenstein and Pelz, 1986; Burrello, Schrup and Barnett, 1988).
4. Role conflict areas of the principal and special education administrator (Weisenstein and Pelz, 1986; Lipham, Rankin, Hoeh, Jr., 1985).

In summarizing the theoretical rationale for this study, it is essential to note that since 1975 the role of the principal has changed significantly. The mandates of EAHCA have created new responsibilities requiring parallel competencies (Lipham, Rankin, Hoeh, Jr., 1985) and a change in educational philosophy. As a result of these changes, role conflict situations have occurred which affected the principal's perception of his/her role as well as the special education administrator's perception of the role.

A review of the literature suggests that effective delivery of services to pupils with disabilities may have been severely hindered because of the role change allowing special education students to be placed in inadequate special education programs (Shuster, 1985). This, then, substantiates the need for additional research.

This proposed study, based on role theory in a social systems context, by analyzing the behaviors of the principal's role in implementing an effective special education program as defined by the OAP criteria, should identify possible role conflict areas and clarify the

role of the principal. The fact that special education programs may increase in effectiveness makes the need for this research essential.

Definition of Terms

1. **Principal**: The instructional leader of a school who is responsible for the administration and supervision of the instructional staff and all educational programs within the authority jurisdiction defined by the school system. A principal, for example, may be assigned responsibility for several complexes or buildings and have different programs housed in each of them. In such a case, the school system defines the span of control for the principal and, as Drake and Roe (1986) point out, will ultimately hold the incumbent responsible for providing appropriate educational programs for all students within the attendance area. This definition does not include the assistant principal (Drake and Roe).
2. **Principal's Designee**: The assistant principal who has been charged with the responsibility of supervising and providing instructional leadership to the special education program. For the purpose of this study, only the principal or the assistant principal who has been assigned to the special education program will be interviewed.
3. **Special Education Administrator**: The chief public school administrator responsible for the supervision and/or administration of special education within a district (Symons, 1973). In this study, the term special education administrator will be used for the sake of consistency because different school systems use various titles to denote the position.
4. **Special Education Instructor**: The teacher assigned to instruct students with disabilities as defined by the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act and state and local policies.

5. Educational Performance Recognition Project/Outcome Accountability Project: A program developed by the Virginia Department of Education which uses specific educational outcomes to measure performance and progress in educational programs within 133 school districts. It is now called the Outcome Accountability Project.
6. Elementary School Program: The OAP Program defines it as a public school containing a fourth grade program; and for the purpose of this investigation, it must provide special education services.
7. Middle School Program: Each school district will define the program according to accreditation standards set forth by the state of Virginia; and for this study, each program will contain special education students.
8. High School Program: Each school district will define the program according to accreditation standards set forth by the state of Virginia; and for this study, each program will contain special education students.
9. Role: As Bullock and Conrad (1981) emphasize, role and position are complementary with role illustrating "the dynamic aspect of the static or structural arrangements associated with positions" (p. 124). Simply put, these authors note that "role actually represents what a person does in the organization" (p. 124) and that the behavior is based on institutional, personal and situational expectations.
10. Role Perception: How the principal views the "role expectation that another person holds for him or her" (Owens, 1981, p. 69). This perception is based on interpretive components associated with knowledge base experience, educational philosophy and attitudes.
11. Role Conflict: As indicated by Bullock and Conrad (1981), there are two types of role conflict. Interrole conflict occurs "when a principal or other administrator is called upon to enact simultaneously two or more incompatible roles" (Bullock and

Conrad, p. 127). Intrarole conflict occurs when the principal "and one or more of his role partners hold incompatible expectations for a single role" (Bullock and Conrad, p. 127).

12. Students with Disabilities: Those students who are disabled as defined by P.L. 101-476.

CHAPTER II

Review of Related Literature

This chapter contains a review of the literature which focuses on the role and functions of the principal in educating children with disabilities. Research investigating the principal's education, training, attitude, and prior experience working with disabled students as well as the impact of the organizational structure on his/her ability to provide special education services will be explored. A survey of research in the above areas establishes a comprehensive basis for this investigation which will analyze the behaviors of the principal supervising a special education program in an effective school defined by OAP standards. It will be from the perspective of the special education administrator, principal and special education teachers.

The Role and Functions of the Principal Educating Students with Disabilities

The role of the principal in providing special education services is difficult to define (Shuster, 1985). Hebert and Miller (1985) point out that EAHCA does not define the limits of the principal's participation in providing services for students with disabilities, and this contributes to the uncertainty about their roles. Only three state legislatures specifically designate principals as participants in the identification, evaluation or placement of exceptional children (Lietz and Towle, 1978). The Lietz and Towle study (1978) suggests that the service quality for special education programs could improve if state legislatures specify the role of administrators responsible for implementing the mandates of P.L. 101-476.

Herda (1980) and Zettel (1979) note that a result of IDEA is that the principal's role has shifted from being solely managerial to that of being an instructional leader or master teacher. These authors believe that a major part of the principal's role is to work with instructors and assist them in alleviating fears of teaching students with disabilities.

Also, it is pointed out by Gage (1979) that the principal's managerial role became threatened with the implementation of EAHCA due process procedures. Concerned parents and advocates for pupils with disabilities, who actively participate in the special education process, create an adversarial setting causing role conflict. The principal is often intimidated by parents who appear to be experts on the law. As a result, it is necessary that principals as well as all general administrators perceive that the purpose of procedural safeguards "is not to create an adversary relationship or to encourage the use of outside legal experts to debate or determine local educational policy" (Zettel, 1979, p. 23).

Burrello, Schrup and Barnett (1988) have developed a three stage model which shows the complexities involved in the special education leadership role of principals. This model offers a realistic explanation of the principal's role according to the authors because it identifies political, social, economic, cultural, and organizational factors which can interact and interfere with development and implementation of special education programs. It elaborates on the work of Salley, McPherson and Baker (1979) who studied the influence of organizational variables on the principal's role.

Mayer (1982) takes a different approach as he defines the principal's role by identifying areas of responsibility. He believes the principal's primary role to be that of an instructional leader and program advocate. He also notes the principal should be both organizer and manager of the special education program and supportive services in the school (Mayer).

Raske (1979) was more specific in identifying areas of responsibility as he conducted a time/management study and found that almost 15% of the principal's work time is used for special education programs. He noted 15 responsibility functions which include the following: participating in IEP meetings, filling out special education forms, reviewing referrals to special education, supervising the annual review, IEP, and follow-up system processes, providing special education communications, attending special education meetings, preparing and monitoring the special education budget, observing instruction, hiring special education staff, curriculum development, arranging transportation for the disabled, evaluating special education staff, and arranging inservice programs. Raske defined the importance of the responsibility area by the percent of administrative time spent performing it. He found that participation in IEP meetings and working with special education forms were the two responsibility areas which consumed 34.9 percent of the principal's time. The other responsibility time rating ranged from 1.4 to 8.3 percent.

Using a more functional competency based perspective, Drake and Roe (1986) outline eight competency areas which are summarized below:

1. Principals must develop an understanding of disabling conditions and be aware of the school's need to provide special programs.
2. Principals must develop a knowledge base of federal, state and local laws and understand their implications for implementation at the building level.
3. Principals must analyze and determine intervention areas where school personnel may assist in the screening, evaluation, and instruction of students with disabilities.
4. Principals must complete a staffing study examining the organizational structure for delivery of services and determine available resources and

methods of changing staffing patterns to provide for a wide range of individual needs.

5. Principals must determine available local, regional and state special education personnel that may serve as resources for the instructional staff.
6. Principals must devise a staff development plan to include preservice education when appropriate.
7. Principals must, in conjunction with all levels of staff, develop alternative learning programs for students.
8. Principals must conduct a facility inventory to improve use of space and identify architectural barriers (p. 243).

These competencies are also consistent with those noted in the Nevin (1979) study.

Another study sponsored by the Council for Exceptional Children in 1977 (cited from Lietz and Towle, 1979) denoted nine primary task areas for a principal working with exceptional children. These consist of the following: providing and coordinating inservice activities for staff, attending inservice training, evaluating personnel, screening students who may need special education services, maintaining and controlling student record systems, coordinating due process procedures, receiving purchase requests from special education staff and determining those for approval.

Twelve support task areas were designated for the principal. They include designing the special education delivery of services and transportation plan, program evaluation, development of long term policies and objectives for special education programs, recruitment and selection of professional and paraprofessional staff, serving as evaluation and placement committee member, assisting with final placement decision, determining legitimacy of special education referrals, providing evaluations for students referred for special services, and the writing of individualized education programs (cited from Lietz and Towle, 1979).

It appears from the literature that these primary and support tasks serve as a basis for defining the principal's role in special education, regardless of the author's focus in terms of responsibilities, competencies or the instructional leadership model. Further, Urwick's POSDCoRB (Getzels, Lipham and Campbell, 1968) administrative scheme could be used as an organizational device to structure the special education responsibilities and competencies needed by principals. That is, competencies and responsibilities may be organized under the planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting and budgeting functions (POSDCoRB).

Attitude and the Role of the Principal Supervising Special Education Programs

There are several studies which indicate that the principal's attitude toward students with disabilities "can play a major role in their capacity to model and lead others" (Burrello, Schrup, Barnett, 1988, p. 14). For example, Collier (1983) researched the attitudes of elementary school principals toward mainstreaming and the stress that results from implementing the mainstream process. He found that as attitude becomes more positive towards mainstreaming, stress decreases. Similarly, Dozier's research indicated that "when principals viewed persons with disabilities in an accepting or positive manner, they perceived few problems in implementing P.L. 101-476" (cited in Burrello et al., 1988, p. 15). Clearly, then, the principal's attitude is a factor which affects his role and effectiveness in working with special education programs.

Significantly, the Payne and Murray study in 1974 (Educational Research Service, Inc., 1982) found that elementary school principals were more accepting of certain disabled students. The visually handicapped, the hard of hearing, the physically handicapped and the learning disabled were more accepted than the emotionally disturbed and educable mentally retarded (ERS, Inc., 1982). A related study by Smith (1978) focused on mentally retarded students and indicated that principals demonstrated a more

positive attitude if they had taught students with disabilities or had previous contacts with them. A similar correlation resulted from the Steele (1980) study as well. These studies imply that the principal faces role conflict in trying to advocate for or work with programs other than those that are perceived as most accepting, and that attitude is a prediction of program effectiveness.

Cline (1981) noted that principals' attitudes towards students with disabilities seemed to be more positive than those surveyed in earlier studies. He compared the attitudes of principals to those of experts in placing hypothetically disabled students into various placements ranging from the regular classroom to residential settings. It was found that principals consistently placed severely disabled and mentally retarded students nearer the mainstream than would experts.

Overline (1977) conducted another noteworthy study by surveying principals from rural and urban areas. The principals from rural and suburban areas were more accepting of mainstreaming than those from urban areas. This study suggests that there may be significant differences in the manner in which urban and rural principals perceive the students with disabilities and that these differences affect his/her role perception in working with these students.

It was observed by Payne and Murray (1974) and Bullock (1970) that a knowledge and understanding of attitude factors associated with the acceptance of students with disabilities could provide the principal and special educator with some realistic guidelines for implementing integrative programs (cited from Shepherd, 1979). The attitude studies surveyed in this section indicate that the principal's perception of exceptional children impacts programs and confirms the need for more research.

Organizational Structure

Research indicates that the size of a school district affects the extent and quality of supervisory programs and that effectiveness may be hindered in a school district that is too large as well as one that is too small (Neagley and Evans 1980). Salley, McPherson and Baehr (1979) concluded that variables relating to type and size of school districts accounted for the greatest number of differentiations in the way principals described their jobs. They surmised that the organizational constraints on the principal must change before the general role of the principal can change.

Neagley and Evans (1980) surveyed school districts nationwide over a forty-five year period and concluded that school districts could best be described as falling into one of three categories as summarized below:

1. **Small Districts** -- Usually found in rural areas or suburban communities with limited growth potential; the pupil population K-12 is generally less than 2,000; population may be concentrated in boundaries of a small town or may be spread widely through several hundred square miles of a rural county.
2. **Intermediate Districts** -- Found in suburban areas around large cities and in rural regions in which school districts are reorganizing into larger units; the pupil population K-12 is around 10,000; there is a constant concern of rapid expansion, demand for services and the increased enrollment's affect on school leadership.
3. **Large Districts** -- Located in small and medium sized cities and in suburban communities with a large geographic boundary and rapid growth pattern; pupil enrollment is from 10,000 to approximately 100,000 (pp. 612-684).

In reviewing the information concerning the characteristics of the three types of school districts noted above, one is able to see how the organizational structure affects the role of the principal working with exceptional programs. For example, in a small school

district, the chief school administrator may serve in a dual role of superintendent and principal of one of the schools. When this situation occurs in a school district, it is difficult to have a comprehensive program of supervision and curriculum development.

Ultimately, the principal in a small district, faced with fiscal and time constraints, will be responsible for establishing programs for exceptional students and implementing special education policies. With all the constraints caused by the organizational structure of the district, the general school administrator may have to make a choice between observing special education classes and balancing the basketball gate receipts (Neagley and Evans, 1980).

While principals in the small school districts face role conflict constantly, Tanner and Tanner (1987), drawing on the work of Neagley and Evans, summarized that there are four ways in which effective supervisory leadership may be assumed by the principal. These include creating an administrative council, getting into the classrooms, drawing on the available resources for curriculum improvement, and fostering the professional development of the administrative and teaching staffs.

These same authors cited the need for an individual principal at each school and chided school districts using part-time principals in elementary or secondary schools. Supporting their argument, Tanner and Tanner (1987) cited the Brookover study which examined the relation between the school as a social system and school achievement. It was found that student outcomes varied from school to school and could be explained by factors such as the nature of interaction among teachers, administrators, and students. The principal in a higher-achieving school spent as much time or more on activities relating to the educational program as those concerned with administration. Interestingly enough, the lower-achieving schools had part-time principals and more time was spent by these administrators performing administrative functions.

The literature suggests that there are two basic organizational structures that work best in intermediate size districts to optimize instructional supervision by principals (Neagley and Evans, 1980; Tanner and Tanner, 1987). In one organizational scheme, the superintendent directly coordinates the instructional program and the principals have the primary responsibility of supervising instruction. The other organizational plan is best distinguished by having at least one line administrator or coordinator between the superintendent and the principals they supervise.

In each of these organizational hierarchies, the principal's role is affected. In plan one noted above, the principal serves as the instructional leader for his/her school and, thus, is responsible for planning and designing programs. If one follows the Burello model, one can see the social, personal, political, cultural, and economic factors that may affect this administrator's role perception in planning and implementing special education programs. The principal's lack of knowledge about district-wide issues (Neagley and Evans, 1980) as well as special education and curriculum development may hinder the services provided for special education students.

The organizational structure in plan two for an intermediate district usually has the principal responsible to the assistant superintendent or designated instructional supervisor for curriculum and instruction, but directly responsible to the superintendent for other administrative areas (Neagley and Evans, 1980). In this structure, the principal has supervisory expertise to rely on in developing programs for exceptional children but may face role conflict if the supervisory and administrative roles are not well defined for each staff member.

Neagley and Evans (1980) reported that the supervisory role of the principal in a large or mega size school district continues to be that of instructional leader responsible for the administration of his/her school. The superintendent, while offering support, delegates authority and responsibility for the instructional program to either an associate

or assistant superintendent. There are a large number of administrative and supervisory personnel that interact and provide support services to principals and teachers. Role conflicts and territorial problems will arise unless the assistant superintendents keep communication lines open and clearly delineate duties and responsibilities of all staff. Communication seems to be a key problem in large districts (Neagley and Evans, 1980).

Education and Training of Principals in Special Education

Professional preparation is one area of tremendous importance in studying the role of the principal in developing and supervising programs for pupils with disabilities (Shepherd, 1979). It has been suggested (Podemski, Price, Smith, Marsh, 1984; Shuster, 1985) that special education programming difficulties have occurred as a result of a lack of experience and knowledge on the part of principals. It was even stated that "school administrators, especially principals, have been willing to default in the area of special education by permitting supervisory personnel or other specialists (for example, school psychologists) to call the shots" (Podemski et al., 1984, p. 2). Herda (1980) gives an explanation for this.

Educational administrators in local education agencies hold major responsibility for implementing P.L. 94-142 (EAHCA) and Section 504 of the Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1973. But the majority of administrators in the field, including both exceptional and general administrators did not receive pre-service training designed to meet such responsibility (p. 56).

This implies that the principal's role in planning, developing, and implementing special education programs is shaped by the lack of professional training in this area and affects his perception.

An early study by Symons (1973) concludes that the training of elementary principals should include coursework or experience in special education. Raske (1979)

also concluded this after his special education responsibility analysis indicated that 15 percent of the principal's time is allotted to special education administrative duties.

Shepherd (1979) found, too, that the school principals from the Dallas Independent School District had little or no professional preparation through coursework in special education on the undergraduate or graduate level. Confirming this trend, Stile and Pettibone (1980) reported that only twelve states mandate special education coursework for general administrators such as principals; and Prillaman and Richardson (1985) note only 26 states have specific special education certification endorsements for special education administrators.

Other research (Joiner and Sabatino, 1981) shows that principals not only have limited knowledge regarding EAHCA but also exhibit a low consciousness concerning it. Bonds and Lindsey (1982) corroborated these findings when they surveyed teachers to find out if principals acquainted them with the provisions of EAHCA and found that sixty-two percent occasionally, rarely or never received any information or training. It appears that in order to better define the principals' role in special education, that these administrators must possess specific knowledge about special education and students with disabilities (Podemski et al., 1984).

Davis (1980) conducted one of the most comprehensive studies concerning the lack of training for principals in the area of special education. From a sample of 345 elementary and secondary principals, the following information was gathered:

1. Ninety-five percent of the principals in the study had neither majored nor minored in special education; 51% had not taken any special education courses; 30.6% had taken one or two courses.
2. Only 4.7% of the principals surveyed reported high or very high contact with handicapped students; 32.8% reported no contact and 44.9% reported some contact.

3. Sixty-five percent of the principals believed that formal training in special education in the area of administration was moderately and very important with another 19.4% citing it as extremely important.
4. Most of the principals responded that legislation had brought about moderate (45.2%), major (30.1%), extremely significant increases in work time devoted to special education issues (Educational Research Services, Inc., 1982, p. 51).

These four areas studied by Davis significantly impact the principal's role perception. Herda (1980) pointed out that most educators are "trained in programs based on different assumptions than those needed for responding to the highly complex social and political contexts in which schools operate today" (p. 10). Therefore, not only college coursework, but continuous special education training is necessary to meet the principal's needs and to raise the level of consciousness regarding programs for students with disabilities.

Summary of Literature Review

The review of the literature reveals that the principal's role in the special education process is complex (Shuster, 1985) and has undergone change as a result of EAHCA and subsequent amendments. State legislatures contribute to the role uncertainty problem by not clearly defining the principal's duties in identifying, evaluating, and placing students with disabilities (Lietz and Towle, 1979). Further uncertainty occurs as a result of the role change principal's have undergone from being program managers to instructional leaders (Zettel, 1979).

Research in this area further suggests that the principal's role may be described in terms of functions, responsibilities, competencies and the Instructional Leadership Model (Burrello, Schrup and Barnett, 1988; Mayer 1982; Raske 1979; Drake and Roe 1986). The Council for Exceptional Children Study (cited from Lietz and Towle, 1979) which

delineated specific primary and support task functions may serve as the basis for these descriptions.

Studies concerning the principal's attitude toward students with disabilities indicate that it affects his/her special education leadership role. The following conclusions are drawn from the research:

1. As a principal's attitude toward mainstreaming becomes more positive, stress decreases;
2. Principals who view students with disabilities in a positive manner perceive few problems in implementing legal mandates;
3. Principals have a more positive attitude toward students if they have had prior working experience or contact with them;
4. Principals from rural and suburban areas are more accepting of mainstreaming than those from urban areas; and,
5. Principals' attitudes toward disabled students are becoming more positive as noted from the change in earlier studies.

These findings support the argument that attitude is a factor which affects the principal's perception and effectiveness in working with programs for exceptional children.

Klopf states that "if the principal has personal difficulties in dealing with the handicapped or is not committed to the right of the handicapped to an education within the least restrictive environment, then he or she will be unable to promote the changes in the instructional program or among the teaching staff that may be necessary to accommodate the handicapped child. This, of course, will doom the program before it has even begun" (cited from Kaiser, 1985, p. 98).

The organizational structure significantly impacts the principal's role perception regarding special education. Variables such as the size, location, and organizational hierarchy determine how the principal defines and perceives his/her role.

Research regarding professional preparation of the principal suggests that programming difficulties have occurred as a result of a lack of training in the area of special education. Studies in this area recommend special education coursework for general administrators such as principals, but only twelve states mandate it as part of their certification requirements (Stile and Pettibone, 1980). The Davis study (1980, p. 93) noted that 84% of the principals polled believed that formal training in special education in the area of administration was important.

CHAPTER III

Research Design and Methods

This chapter describes the design and methods for the study of the role of the principal operating a special education program in an effective school as defined by the Outcome Accountability Project criteria. The research will analyze behaviors of the principal which affect his/her role in implementing an effective special education program as defined by OAP criteria. The role will be examined from the perspective of the principal and special education administrator, with special education teachers at selected schools providing additional input regarding these two administrators. The study will result in information concerning role conflict areas, effective instructional practices of principals, program obstacles, and the effects of organizational structure and training.

Following a discussion of the research method, the sample selection is explained. Data collection and analysis methods are outlined and reliability and validity issues are discussed.

Research Method

A single case study with embedded or multiple units of analysis was used to conduct the research for this investigation. Yin (1984) noted that this type of case study design yields information not only about a single public program, but allows for the analysis of outcomes from individual projects within the program. This method was useful in understanding the complex processes involved in the implementation of special education programs and the study of the principal's role in an effective OAP rated school.

While qualitative research designs were supported by a number of researchers for studying complex organizations and issues (Miles and Huberman, 1984; Yin, 1984; Schofield, 1990), methodological triangulation was used for this case study. Denzin (cited from Patton, 1980) defined methodological triangulation as "using both quantitative and qualitative strategies to study programs" (p. 108). It was further explained that "multiple methods should be used in every investigation."

This multi-method triangulation blended well into the Yin (1984) definition of case study as "empirical inquiry that: investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context; when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident; and in which multiple sources of evidence are used" (p. 23). Using a case study approach allowed the flexibility which was essential to develop a comprehensive perspective of the issues involved in operating a special education program and determining the role of the principal in the implementation process. As Patton (1980) stated, "... the methods used to study implementation must be open-ended, discovery oriented, and capable of describing developmental processes and program change" (p. 70). More specifically, case studies have often detected significant variables, processes and interactions that deserve extensive attention (Issac and Michael, 1971).

While there were many advantages for using qualitative case study research methods, there were limitations as well. For example, Yin (1984) stressed that resulting conclusions may not always be transferred to other settings because qualitative methods tend to sacrifice breadth of information for depth of information. Also, when using qualitative case study research methods, it becomes difficult to replicate the research. It is noted by Jick (1979) that the use of triangulation methods reduces this limitation. Such methods were used to conduct this study. A third complaint reported by Yin (1984) about case studies, was that they take too long and often result in massive documents. This

limitation, Yin (1984) believed, has resulted from improperly distinguishing ethnography strategies from case study methods.

Sample and Setting

This study, as stated earlier, investigated the effective behaviors associated with the role of the principal implementing a special education program in an effective school defined by OAP standards. It was based on the perspective of the principal, special education administrator, and special education teacher. These two staff were selected because they worked with the principal to ensure that services are provided to disabled youth. Further, the special education administrator provided an administrative view of the principal's role and the special education instructor provided information from the building level, *having daily contact with the principal and students.*

The sample selection process included discussions with Department of Education staff working on the OAP project and a member of the pilot development team. After reviewing various sample selections with these staff members, it was decided that the original pilot sites were the most feasible for the study. The principals and special education administrators in these districts had received training concerning the OAP program and had the added advantage of participating in the pilot project prior to the 1990 implementation. While the other school districts in the state participated in the pilot project, they did so by providing data from their Central Offices, and field staff were not as involved nor trained concerning the program. The original four pilot school districts represent rural, suburban, and urban populations and reflect small, medium, and large school districts as well.

Data Collection

The data collection process for this study was guided by two phases of the Miles and Huberman (1984) implementation model. The first phase of the model was called the anticipatory or pre-implementation phase. Activities accomplished in this phase are documented below.

Pre-Implementation Phase Activities

In order to initiate this investigation, it was necessary to obtain permission from the four Outcome Accountability Program (OAP) pilot school divisions to participate in the study. A letter was sent to Superintendents of each district summarizing the research project and requesting their participation in the investigation (see Appendix B, Survey Instruments). Three of the four targeted divisions responded positively and established contact staff to assist the investigator in coordinating research activities. The fourth pilot program was unable to participate this school year, 1992-93, because principals were engaged in a number of research studies and also involved in school closing activities. As a result, the investigator resorted to the use of a back-up procedure which allowed for the selection of school districts demographically similar. The OAP program had addressed this by placing each district in a band containing 15 systems with similar characteristics. When one of the four designated districts declined to participate in this study, the investigator surveyed districts included in the band until the request to participate in the study was accepted.

To determine which schools within each district had special education programs, the Department of Education Locator Information data was used. To ensure accuracy, it was cross-referenced with the Department of Education membership information from the Division of Management Information Services.

Other front-end activities in this phase included obtaining Outcome Accountability Project Division and School Reports with the most recent information. This report was

used to determine which schools within a division had a high or low performance in terms of meeting outcome indicators. This report was essential to the research because it determined which schools were selected for on-site investigation.

The *Virginia Educational Directory* supplied by the Department of Education was used as a guide for the names and addresses of principals in the designated school districts. Also, the *Superintendent's Annual Report for Virginia 1990-91* and the *1992-93 Fall Membership in Virginia's Public Schools* guide were used to provide background information on the four selected school systems.

Though four school districts were in the original OAP pilot program, as noted earlier, schools in only three could be used in this investigation, with a fourth demographically similar one used as a back-up (the back-up district has participate in the OAP program . This case study conducted on-site visits in two elementary, middle and high school programs. Because one district was too small to accommodate paired schools -- that is, one with a high OAP performance and one with a low OAP performance -- it was asked to participate in the survey process only. To assure the manageability of the study and to create a range of responses indicative of the complexity of the topic being studied, it was necessary to use telephone and on-site interviews to gather and clarify information. All of the special education administrators were interviewed by phone.

Front-end activities included modifying questionnaires developed by Farley and Billingsley (1991) and developing a responsibility chart to be used in the selected districts (see Appendix B, Survey Instruments). After making modifications, the two questionnaires (for principals and special education administrators) and the responsibility chart were piloted with respective staff serving in two local school districts. Also, a panel of five experts (Department of Education, University staff) reviewed these three instruments for comprehensiveness wording and format. Interview questions for special education teachers and special education administrators were also reviewed by this panel.

Furthermore, Farley and Billingsley (1991) had previously piloted and used the principals' questionnaire in a research. A monitoring system was developed to track the surveys sent to principals and special education administrators. This was done by developing a computerized mail label system which would place a code number on the self-addressed, stamped envelopes. Each code number referenced a survey participant's name, telephone number and address. This information was placed on a checklist that allowed the researcher to note the date of receipt. Follow-up calls were made to survey participants to remind them of deadlines based on the checklist return data. By doing this, the checklist computer file also served as the phone log.

Data collection matrices were designed to address information relating to the research questions outlined in Chapter I (see Appendix C, Matrices for Data Analysis). These matrices allowed for the triangulation and synthesis of information from the interviews. Further, documentation, such as policies, memos, or other relevant data, were requested during the interviews and noted on the appropriate data collection matrix. Also, the *Statistica* software package was selected to aid in data analysis.

In order to complete the study, the training outline for four research assistants was developed and implemented. The assistants included two staff with special education backgrounds, a librarian and a former principal. Scheduling of on-site visits was conducted in a manner that allowed interviewers to meet with the special education teachers during planning periods and the principals at a time convenient to their schedule. As a result, the on-site teams varied in size from one to three interviewers.

To establish confidentiality for the three school divisions used in the on-site data collection process, the schools were grouped in three categories -- elementary, middle, and high school -- and were assigned a number. School divisions were assigned an alphabetical letter and general concerns noted in each district were cited according to the

assigned letter. Again, one must be cautioned about generalizations since only four school districts and six schools were involved in the study.

Implementation Phase

Following the Miles and Huberman (1984) model, the second phase of this research began with the implementation of the survey process in the selected school divisions. The survey questionnaires, developed by Farley and Billingsley (1991), and a responsibility chart for principals and special education administrators were coded and mailed. On-site and/or telephone interviews were scheduled and conducted with administrators, principals, and special education instructors (see Appendix B, Survey Instruments for questions), and general observations were recorded.

Supporting data included a schedule of on-site visits, a telephone log, and training notes from sessions with assistants who worked with the investigator. The interviews were conducted on site with the principals and special education teachers using a structured questionnaire process while the investigator recorded answers; clarification of questions was allowed when necessary. The special education administrators' interviews were conducted by telephone and answers were recorded on the question form.

This study does not address the third stage of the Miles and Huberman (1984) model, which is institutionalization, because this research is a preliminary study focusing on the role of the principal. Also, it is anticipated that the OAP project which is being used to define an effective school will be further evaluated.

Data Analysis

The analysis of qualitative and quantitative data requires the development of a convergence system to determine, as Patton (1980) states, "what things fit together". Miles and Huberman (1984), noted that data reduction and data display can also be construed as analysis and they emphasized the use of matrices to accomplish this. Several

of the matrices used in the implementation model (Miles and Huberman, 1984) were relevant to this study and were adapted to assist with data analysis.

Validity and Reliability

In order to ensure validity and reliability of this study, a model developed by Kidder (1981, cited from Yin) was reviewed as well as the work of Patton (1980), Miles and Huberman (1984) and Jick (1979). The following methods, gleaned from these authors, were used.

First, to increase construct validity, multiple sources of evidence were used, which included surveys which were previously piloted, a responsibility chart, on-site and telephone interviews, observations, and documentation artifacts. All data sources were examined to assure that the information related to the questions in this study, and comparisons of the data were made to check for consistency. This use of triangulation challenged the researcher to compare and cross-check consistency of information derived at different times and by different means with both quantitative and qualitative methods (Patton, 1980).

Also, after a draft case study report was completed, the investigator had a key special education expert review and critique it (Yin, 1984). This method allowed for corroboration of the essential facts in the case study. Finally, the researcher had an outside reader review the information and offer an external perspective to increase the likelihood of objectivity in data analysis (Cooke, 1984). The outside reader was familiar with literature concerning the principal's role and the Outcome Accountability Project (OAP). Both the special education expert and the outside reader indicated that the study results were consistent with methods used to answer the research questions.

Summary

This chapter described the case study design used to conduct the research investigating the role of the principal operating a special education program in an effective school as defined by the Outcome Accountability Project criteria. It addressed the selection of the four school districts participating in the investigation and pre-implementation phase activities. Quantitative and qualitative strategies were outlined. These included the survey method, using questionnaires developed by Farley and Billingsley (1991) and modified for this study, and a responsibility chart. Other strategies discussed were on-site observations in paired schools and interviews with principals, special education teachers, and administrators.

To assist with data analysis, the research design emphasized the use of matrices to coordinate the triangulation process or reduction and synthesis of multiple sources of data (see Appendix C, Matrices for Data Analysis). Validity and reliability methods to be used in this study included the cross-checking of information gleaned from various information sources and having a key expert and outside reader review and critique draft results.

CHAPTER IV

Presentation of the Data

The purpose of this study was to examine the role of principals supervising programs for students with disabilities in effective schools as defined by the Virginia Department of Education's Outcome Accountability Project. This chapter discusses implementation phase activities of the case study and the results of the analysis of data for each of the three questions framed in the first chapter. These questions will be addressed by analyzing input from the principals, special education administrators, and special education teachers using multiple data sources including interviews, survey instruments, and observations.

Analysis of Data

The analysis of data for the implementation phase of this case study involved the results from two questionnaires, developed by Farley and Billingsley (1991), which were modified to meet the needs of this investigation (see Appendix B, Survey Instruments). Four districts were surveyed with the questionnaires and responsibility chart, but only three participated in the on-site visit process because one of the small districts could not accommodate paired schools on the elementary, middle, and high school level. The two questionnaires were sent to principals and special education administrators in the four participating school districts and were used to gather descriptive information on effective instructional behaviors of principals supervising special education programs. A third survey instrument, the responsibility chart (see Appendix B, Survey Instruments), outlined

special education duties and was used to survey both principals and special education administrators as well. It was designed to detect possible role conflict areas between the principal and the special education administrator. Other data were gleaned from observations and artifacts collected during the on-site visits to selected schools in the school districts. Visits to the schools included interviews with special education teachers and principals. Telephone interviews were used for special education administrators. (See Appendix B, Survey Instruments.)

Interview questions focused on the role and instructional supervisory practices of the principal and special education administrator. Specifically, questions addressed program support practices which focused on communication, staff development, systematic evaluation of teachers, collaboration and instructional programming. Obstacles to effective instruction were also addressed. Both sets of interview questions correlate to topic areas on the questionnaires used to survey the principals and special education administrators.

Principals and teachers in the three school districts involved in the on-site visit process were extremely cooperative and accommodated the research staff as much as possible in scheduling visits to the six schools and providing space for the interviews. The investigator selected the highest OAP performing high school in District A, the highest performing middle school in District B, and highest performing elementary school in District C (District D did not participate in this process). The superintendent or Research Committee in each of the respective districts allowed the special education administrator to select another school they deemed effective to be paired with the researcher's selection. The instructional staff in these districts were interviewed within the last three weeks of the school year, and it was difficult for staff to volunteer time to be interviewed. IEP meetings, annual reviews and end of the year school reports were being completed. As a result, the number of staff available for interviews caused the sample to be smaller than the

investigator had originally estimated with only 20 teachers volunteering to be involved in the study.

The results of this study allowed the investigator to examine and analyze the role of the principal supervising programs for students with disabilities in effective schools as defined by the Virginia Department of Education's Outcome Accountability Projects. By modifying a questionnaire designed by Farley and Billingsley (1991), the researcher determined the perceived importance and extent of current practice of effective supervisory behaviors of principals (see Appendix B, Survey Instruments). Part I of the survey instrument was formatted to include 31 effective behavior items in the areas of communication, staff development, collaboration, evaluation of instruction and instructional programming. The responses were based on a four point scale which ranged from 1 = no extent to 4 = great extent. The principals and special education administrators in all four school districts were further asked to rate the importance of each behavior using a scale ranging from 6 = not important to 9 = very important. For the purpose of analysis, this scale was recoded as 1 to 4 to ensure consistency in the statistical application process. Basic descriptive statistics were used for analysis and include frequencies, means and standard deviations.

In conjunction with the survey results, supporting data collected from the interviews with the special education teachers, principals, special education administrators and on-site observations addressed the following two questions of the study:

1. Does the role of the principal in a school with an effective special education program, as defined by using the Outcome Accountability Project (OAP) indicators, differ from the role of a principal in a school with a lower OAP rating?

2. How does the interaction between the principal and special education administrator in an effective OAP school differ from that of a principal and special education administrator in a school with a less effective OAP rating?

Part II of the questionnaire focused on instructional barriers, having respondents (Principals $N = 49$; Special Education Administrator $N = 4$) identify obstacles that impede the instructional effectiveness of the principals (see Appendix B, Survey Instruments).

This section answered the third question which follows:

3. What obstacles do building principals face in implementing special education programs, and what, if any, effect would they have on the principal's role?

Staff development needs of principals were also identified in this section.

Demographic Data

Section III of the two survey instruments contained demographic data from the four districts used in the survey process (see Appendix B, Survey Instruments). Principal questionnaires and responsibility charts were sent to 39 elementary school principals, 10 middle school principals and 9 high school principals with a response rate of 49 (84%); two districts had 100% return rates. There were more males (61%) than females (39%) (see Table 1, Survey Participant Demographic Data, in Appendix A). The majority of principals (69%) ranged in age from 41-50 years and most of the respondents (61%) were from elementary school programs. It should be noted, though, that nine high schools (19%) were in the four divisions and responses were received from all of them. Ten (20%) of the middle school principals participated in the survey process. Of 49 respondents to the principal's questionnaire, only six (12%) represented assistant principals. Overwhelmingly, 75% of the respondents were white. While a vast majority of the principals (71%) indicated that they have a great deal of experience in education, 73%

noted that they had been principals for less than ten years. The remainder of the respondents had between 11-25 years of service.

Approximately 33% of the principals had not completed special education college courses, 48% completed between 1 to 4 and the remaining group had taken between 5 to 10 or more courses. In contrast, inservice activities attended by principals reflected that 71% had taken 5 to 10 or more and the remaining group had completed 1 to 4 inservice programs.

The 49 principals in this study reported varied enrollments. One (2%) had less than 200 students, with 7 (15%) having less than 400 and with 28 (58%) having student populations of 400 to 1000. Also, 13 (27%) indicated enrollments of over 1000.

Thirty of these schools (62%) have less than 30% of the students receiving free school lunches, with 19 principals (38%) representing schools with 50% to 75% of the students on free lunch. Two of the school districts had less than 2,500 students, one had less than 25,000, and the remaining one had just over 12,000 students, as referenced in Table 2, Special Education Teacher Characteristics (by school district).

Twenty-seven principals (55%) have five or less teachers in their special education programs with the remainder having between 6 and 10 (see Table 1). No one reported having more than 10 special education teachers working in their school.

The special education administrator sample, as would be expected, was small (4) with one participant from each division. All four of the administrators were females with three in the 41-45 age group and one in the 36-40 group. Two members of this sample were black and two were white; all four were in central office director level positions. These four staff members have extensive experience of between 15 to 25 years and have held their current positions for 5 to 10 years. Three of the special education administrators have taken over 10 courses in special education with one indicating only 3

to 4 courses. It is not surprising that all four members of this group had completed 10 or more inservice training sessions.

In terms of services provided, three members of the special education administrator sample noted that programs were available in all the categorical areas noted on the survey form. Only one of the four administrators indicated that services were not available for the severe and profound or other health impaired disabled students.

In the on-site visit stage of the investigation, twenty special education teachers participated in this case study and each was interviewed at his/her respective school site (see Table 2, Special Education Teacher Characteristics). Overwhelmingly, the teacher sample was composed of female teachers (95%) with 14 (70%) working with Learning Disabled students, 4 (20%) teaching Seriously Emotionally Disturbed youth, and the remaining two participants teaching Educable Mentally Retarded students (5%) and Developmental Delayed pupils (5%) respectively. Most (75%) of the special education teachers worked in pull out or collaborative resource settings, with the rest providing self-contained services. As a group, a majority of the special education teachers participating in the study indicated that they have a great deal of experience in the field, with twelve (60%) having between 6 to 15 years and two instructors noting 16 to 20 years of service. The remaining staff had 5 or less years of experience and it should be pointed out that 3 of this group were first year teachers.

Questionnaire and Field Data

The questionnaire and field data will be presented using the headings from section I of the principal's and special education administrator's surveys. These headings addressed principals' behaviors and are as follows: communication, staff development, systematic evaluation of teachers, collaboration, and instructional programming. The survey data relevant to each topic will be discussed first, rating mean discrepancies

between the principals and special education administrators. Following this, information specific to the topic will be gleaned from the interviews of special education teachers and special education administrators in School Districts A, B, and C (School District D did not participate in the interview stage). The interview questions also correspond to the five headings noted above.

Communication

The survey questions concerning communication reflected effective practices which allow principals to communicate program goals and expectations, responsibilities and special education staff roles. Table 3, Perception of Instructional Supervisory Behaviors of Principals, illustrates that, as a whole, the sample of principals tend to rate the extent of their communication current practice of supervisory behaviors higher than the four special education administrators. The special education administrators ($M = 3.75$, $SD = .50$) agree with the principals ($M = 3.61$, $SD = .57$) that "communicating to teachers that the education of students with disabilities is the responsibility of all staff" is the most important communication practice (See Table 3, Perceptions of Instructional Supervisory Behaviors of Principals). Both principals ($M = 3.56$, $SD = .54$) and administrators of special education ($M = 3.50$, $SD = .58$) further agreed that the principal's role in encouraging shared decision making with staff was very important. There is disagreement however, on the principals extent of performance ($M = 3.40$, $SD = .79$) in this area by the special education administrators ($M = 2.75$, $SD = .96$).

By extrapolating the responses of principals with the highest OAP scores from the sample, the data indicated that these principals rated both the importance and communication practices higher than other principals and the special education administrators in all four supervisory behavior areas. Supporting this, statements from 4 (36%) of the special education teachers who were interviewed at the high OAP schools

conveyed that their principals kept abreast of the latest research and teaching strategies and informed the staff. One teacher stated that the principal's greatest communication method was formal and informal conferences. Others (15%) noted they were able to talk to the principal, frequently seeing them in the hallways and classrooms.

Several (20%) of the teachers from high OAP rated schools felt their principals' communication strength was being supportive of new ideas and being available to discuss issues. Furthermore, it was obvious to the investigator and research assistants that mission statements were visible in all high performing OAP schools and were either boldly displayed in the Office, or centrally located in the school. The mission statements of these schools were also observed in student-parent handbooks as well as other school literature.

Special education administrators ($N = 4$) commented that principals from the OAP schools with the highest outcomes know how to identify resources that are needed. Three of the four administrators noted that these same principals have a sense of shared responsibility for educating disabled students and practice open communication with all staff. The administrator of special education in District C noted that the principal of the high performing OAP school prepared for administrative reviews and addressed corrective action plans.

Staff Development

The items in this section of the questionnaire reflect activities and practices that are representative of effective staff development programs. Some of the activities include allowing collaborative planning time for inservice programs, involving staff in evaluating the usefulness of inservice activities, providing time to apply practices learned from inservice and providing professional growth activities.

The discrepancies in mean ratings between the perceptions of principals and special education administrators regarding staff development importance and current practice levels were not as pronounced as the communication behaviors. Again though, the special

education administrators rated the behavior and importance lower than the principals did on each question. In reviewing the data in Table 3, it was noted that the item rated highest by both groups for current practice was "encourages teacher involvement in activities for professional growth" (principal: $M = 3.76$, $SD = .48$; special education administrator: $M = 4.00$, $SD = .00$). This item also had the highest rating for importance with special education administrators ($M = 4.00$, $SD = .00$), ranking it higher than principals ($M = 3.86$, $SD = .35$).

Consistent with the Farley and Billingsley (1991) study was the relative low rating of "provides incentives for engaging in personal and professional growth activities." It appears principals in all four school districts encourage teachers to participate in professional growth activities, but responses indicate that they do not provide the same level of incentives for doing so. Also receiving similar low practice ratings from all of the principals in the sample were items related to providing inservice planning time and the time to evaluate the usefulness of information learned from the activity. The principals consistently rated all three of these areas virtually the same ($M = 2.94$, $SD = .72-.78$). The special education administrators viewed the current practices of principals similarly in these three areas as well. It is interesting that both the principals and special education administrators rated all the staff development items as being of greater importance than the current practice level.

Teachers (55%) who were interviewed at schools with the highest OAP ratings indicated that they received recertification points, partial remuneration for courses and workshops taken and professional leave time as incentives. Also, one special education instructor noted participation on a school staff development committee, and another stated that "being positively recognized and having achievements broadcast" was an incentive. Staff at one school noted that the special education director alerted them to staff development activities by sending them announcements of workshops.

Overall, the interviews with the six principals receiving on-site visits revealed that most agreed that allowing staff to attend professional growth activities was in itself a type of incentive, because it showed a commitment to help teachers improve themselves. Some (10%) of the special education teachers, however, noted that cars should be made available for them to travel to inservice activities and that more professional time should be made available. Principals from two of the high OAP sites visited (Districts A and B) indicated that they would allow teachers to take administrative leave if they felt the training was beneficial. Special education administrators at these same two sites stated that they supported this same use of administrative leave. Two of the high OAP site principals indicated that their schedules either allowed teachers implementing the collaborative model to plan together or was flexible enough to accommodate the teachers when requested.

Systematic Evaluation of Teachers

There were three items concerning teacher evaluation in this section of the questionnaire. The items focused on observations for the purpose of improving instructional effectiveness, conferences after the observations to analyze and discuss performance effectiveness and evaluation of the teacher using clearly defined criteria. Further, it is necessary to point out that the Systematic Evaluation of Teachers section of the questionnaire had the highest average means given by the principals ($M = 3.56$ current practice; $M = 3.70$ importance) (see Table 4, Composite Means for Extent of Current Practice of Supervisory Behaviors of Principals by Categories, and Table 5, Composite Means for Importance of Supervisory Behaviors of Principals by Categories). Significantly, this suggests that principals believe that the evaluation of teachers is the most important function and they practice this behavior according to this belief.

The special education administrator respondents differed in their opinions of the extent to which principals were demonstrating the three practices noted in this section as

well as the importance principals placed on these same behaviors. For example, on the first item, "Observes teachers for the purpose of improving instruction", principals conveyed that they practiced this behavior to a great extent ($M = 3.54$, $SD = .58$), but the special education administrators disagreed, rating it much lower ($M = 2.75$, $SD = 1.26$). Conferences by principals were rated similarly (principal: $M = 3.54$, $SD = .68$; special education administrator $M = 3.00$, $SD = .82$).

The one item that had the greatest mean difference between the principal and special education administrator was "evaluates teachers using clearly defined criteria developed with teacher input." The principals rated this practice the highest ($M = 3.63$, $SD = .53$) with the administrators of special education rating it the lowest ($M = 2.50$, $SD = 1.29$).

Two principals at the high OAP sites addressed this issue during their interviews noting that time was an obstacle in terms of providing feedback to teachers after an observation. The teachers were very specific responding to questions in this area. In School District C, all the instructors who were interviewed noted that they had just redesigned the evaluation form and had established new timelines for the evaluation.

The teachers (20%) in District A from the high performing OAP high school were very positive about the evaluation process, noting that they had all received training on what was to be evaluated and they did not make any recommendations for change. They also disclosed that the principal was an active part of the observation process and gave specific recommendations to improve instruction while also complimenting them on areas of strength. Comments from the teachers (15%) at the high school with a lower rated OAP score reflected that the assistant principal completed two observations a year and was responsible for the evaluation. Another teacher (5%) felt consideration, in terms of behavior management, was not given to special education instructors who worked with "exceptionally difficult students".

Special education instructors in District B (40%) seemed very comfortable in responding to questions concerning the evaluation process. They reported that they were allowed to develop three annual goals that would be evaluated by the principal. They also indicated that they received observations by the principal, special education chairperson, and assistant principal. At the lower rated OAP school in this district, three special education staff suggested the evaluation form needed to be modified to reflect the needs of special education instruction. Two of these same teachers also stated that multiple staff conducting observation created a lack of consistency in terms of performance.

Collaboration

For the purpose of this study, collaboration was defined as a voluntary effort between educators to develop solutions to mutually identified problems (Farley and Billingsley, 1991). This section of the principals' and special education administrators' surveys contains seven items or practices by principals that would allow special education teachers to interact with each other in such behaviors as determining outcomes for all students, participation in IEP meetings and problem solving. The most highly rated collaboration behavior rated by principals in the sample ($M = 3.54$, $SD = .62$) was "Encourages classroom interventions to accommodate students with disabilities in the regular classroom." This behavior was also rated by them as being the most important ($M = 3.67$, $SD = .48$). In contrast, the special education administrators did not agree with the principals and felt they demonstrated the practice at a much lower level ($M = 2.75$, $SD = .50$), though their responses concerning the importance of the behavior was somewhat higher ($M = 3.75$, $SD = .50$). The two lowest rated behaviors identified by both the principal and special education administrators focused on "Providing opportunities for general and special education teachers to observe each other's teaching strategies" (principal: $M = 3.00$, $SD = .80$; special education administrator: $M = 1.75$, $SD = .96$) and the evaluation and modification of school-based consultation programs (principal: M

= 2.76, SD = .87; special education administrator: M = 2.0, SD = 1.15). These responses were consistent with the results of the Farley and Billingsley study as well.

The Special Education Administrator from District C stated in the interview that the effective principals in that district were "the ones who asked about transitioning and collaborative teaching." Also, the principal from the highly rated OAP middle school in District B indicated that a major concern of the special education administrator in that division was providing enough resources and support to implement the collaborative teaching model. This same principal also disclosed that substitutes were made available to allow the teachers to plan collaboratively and attend workshops to assist them in implementing the model.

The other two principals from the highly rated OAP schools stated that they were having difficulty implementing collaborative teaching activities because they lacked planning time and resources on site as well as from central office. The principals from the schools with lower OAP performance records reported they were working with their special education administrator to implement collaborative teaching strategies, but noted obstacles impeding their progress similar to those noted above.

Teacher input was more explicit. In District B and C, instructors from the schools with high performance OAP scores commented during the interviews citing specific strategies that were in place. The response indicated enthusiasm about implementing the collaborative model. Also, in District A, teachers from both the high and low OAP schools that were visited indicated that they were not moving fast enough in implementing collaborative teaching strategies.

Instructional Programming

The last category of supervisory behaviors characterized practices used by principals to assist teachers in improving their instructional skills. The eleven items in this

section focused on principals helping teachers with such skills as identifying resources, modifying instruction to meet student needs and using research-based teaching strategies.

Principals from the four school districts indicated that they were performing all eleven supervisory behaviors to a greater extent than the special education administrators who rated them. The instructional programming behavior rated most highly by principals ($M = 3.44$, $SD = .62$) for current practice was "Helping teachers identify and obtain resources for instruction." The administrators of special education ($M = 2.50$, $SD = 1.0$) differed in their perception of the extent this practice was performed. Both samples of respondents agreed that this was the most important practice as it received the highest rating in this section (principal: $M = 3.60$, $SD = .64$; special education administrator: $M = 3.50$, $SD = .58$).

The biggest difference between principals and special education administrative staff cited in this section was "Helping teachers interpret and use assessment data that measures progress toward curricular goals and objectives" (principal: $M = 2.98$, $SD = .79$; special education administrator: $M = 1.75$, $SD = .50$). Current practice behaviors of principals rated lowest by both samples of survey respondents were the technical assistance areas of "Helps teachers translate objectives into lesson plans" (principal: $M = 2.62$, $SD = .80$; special education administrator: $M = 2.50$, $SD = 1.29$), "Helps teachers plan objectives for special needs students" (principal: $M = 2.51$, $SD = .78$; special education administrator $M = 1.75$, $SD = .50$), and "Helps teachers develop strategies for students that help students self-monitor instructional behaviors" (principal: $M = 2.66$, $SD = .87$; special education administrator: $M = 2.00$, $SD = .82$).

All of the principals indicated that time was a factor in providing technical assistance to their staff, and two from the low performing OAP sites (Districts A and B) noted that they spent a lot of time working with teachers on behavior management techniques. The special education teachers who were interviewed clearly delineated

technical assistance areas where they felt principals should spend more time. For example, in District A the special education staff (4) noted at the high OAP site that the principal did not assist them in modifying instruction to meet the individual needs of students or assist them with the development of learning objectives and lessons for special needs pupils. Two of these instructors noted that the school was large and help could not be provided by the administrators for everything. The same two staff were comfortable in doing these two tasks themselves and noted they did receive assistance from the Department Chair. Teachers (4) at the low OAP site pinpointed the same two technical assistance areas, but two of them added that they did not receive assistance with research based strategies, behavior management strategies, or the monitoring of student progress.

In District B, at the high OAP school, three teachers (15%) felt very good about the level of technical assistance they received and noted that their principal did not want students to fail. One other instructor felt assistance was not being rendered in the area of behavior management and felt that little help was given in other areas by the principal or special education coordinator. This District had regional special education coordinators to assist their school staff, and the high OAP school housed a coordinator who worked closely with the teachers. Interestingly enough, three teachers from the low OAP school had very similar comments concerning the technical assistance provided by the principal, and they, too, had access to a regional special education coordinator. Again, one special education instructor felt that the principal did not provide adequate support to the instructional program and noted that only supervisors with specific special education endorsements should provide assistance to staff in the department.

District C instructors (20%) in both the high and low OAP schools commented more negatively about instructional programming issues related to special education instruction. Most of the comments noted that people other than the principal provided assistance to the special education teachers and that the system was short of money and

resources. Two teachers stated that the central office administrator of special education needed more help in order to assist them. Also, one of the instructors felt that technical assistance should only be rendered to staff by people endorsed in the specific area of exceptionality requiring help.

The instructional programming section of the questionnaire, it should be pointed out, contained the lowest rated category of current practices by the principals and the special education administrators. Referring to Table 4, the Composite Mean for Extent of Current Practice of Supervisory Behaviors of Principals by Categories shows that principals ($M = 2.96$, $SD = .75$) and special education administrators ($M = 2.27$, $SD = .95$) disagreed on the extent technical assistance was provided to the special education staff in the schools. Further, in reviewing the data from Table 5, Composite Means for Importance of Supervisory Behaviors of Principals by Categories, it appears that both samples of respondents to the questionnaire rated the importance of the supervisory behaviors in the instructional programming area lower than any other group of practices (principal: $M = 3.27$, $SD = .76$; special education administrator: $M = 2.97$, $SD = .79$).

Obstacles to Instructional Effectiveness

Section Two of the principals' and special education administrators' questionnaire specifically addressed the third question of the study which follows: What obstacles do building principals face in implementing special education programs, and what, if any, effect would they have on the principal's role? Also, interview questions with the principals, special education administrators, and teachers provided supporting information in this area.

In this section of the survey, principals were asked to indicate the extent to which they believed specific constraints impeded their instructional effectiveness. Special education administrators were also asked to rate the principals in their district using these same constraints. Both sets of respondents to the questionnaire rated the constraints on a

scale of 1 = never, 2 = sometimes, 3 = often, 4 = always. The responses from the principals reflected that the only serious obstacle to effective instructional supervision was "lack of time" ($M = 2.71$, $SD = .86$). They rated all other constraint items at less than two on the four-point scale (see Table 6, Mean Ratings of Perceived Obstacles to Instructional Effectiveness of Principals).

Administrators of Special Education rated the constraints for principals much higher. All items had a mean rating of 2.00 or above. The three highest rated items that they felt impeded instructional effectiveness were "Lack of time", "Lack of knowledge of special programs and/or curriculum" and "Lack of knowledge about students with disabilities". These three items were given the same rating by the special education administrators ($M = 2.50$, $SD = .57$).

In District B, the principal of the middle school with the highest OAP performance thought that the two greatest barriers to instructional effectiveness were both money and time. Two teachers in this school, however, cited the following as obstacles for their principal in this area: emphasizes regulations too much; lack of positive feedback on implemented strategies suggested by principal; lacks understanding of how to discipline ED students; and sheer size of school.

In the school with a lower OAP performance record the principal noted that lack of resources and time were obstacles. The instructional staff, in their interviews, agreed with the principal concerning these two effectiveness constraints and cited decision-making regarding discipline and a lack of recognition for the special education staff who work with the most difficult students.

In District A, the principal of the high performing OAP high school stated his greatest barriers to instructional effectiveness were facility needs, time, placing students in the least restrictive environment, and teachers who have problems mainstreaming special need students. The four special education teachers in this program reported effectiveness

obstacles as follows: the school is too big to be served by the current administrative staffing pattern (4); the principal has too many responsibilities (1); money (2); and the size of the special education department (1).

The lower rated OAP school principal indicated that time and money were the two greatest instructional effectiveness barriers he faced. The special need instructors (4), however, stated that the principal: lacked knowledge of the regulations regarding special education (1); did not provide feedback regarding discipline problems (2); had limited communication with staff(1); and lacked consistency with discipline (1).

In School District C, the elementary principal of the school with the high OAP rating noted that space was a major barrier to instructional effectiveness. The three special education teachers interviewed agreed with the principal regarding space and also cited money as an effectiveness barrier. Interestingly enough, two teachers indicated that the principal's health was an obstacle, and one stated that central office held the principal back by not providing needed resources. This same instructor stated that there was a lack of communication with the principal and central office.

The lower rated OAP school program principal also gave space and money as the major obstacles to instructional effectiveness. The instructor interviewed from this school stated that the greatest instructional barrier of the principal was lack of a special education knowledge base and a lack of patience in working with exceptional students.

Staff Development Needs of Principals

In Part II of the principals' questionnaire, principals were asked to rate their need for staff development in the areas of supervisory practices surveyed in Part I of the questionnaire. Likewise, special education administrators were also asked to indicate the staff development needs of principals in these same areas. A rating scale of 1 = no need to 4 = great need was used to indicate the degree to which they felt staff development was needed. Table 7, Mean Ratings of Staff Development Needs of Principals, shows the

mean ratings computed for the staff development needs of principals. It indicates that both groups of respondents agreed that the three supervisory practices needing staff development most were collaboration/consultation skills (principal: $M = 2.65$, $SD = .92$; special education administrator: $M = 3.00$, $SD = .81$), staff development needs of special educators (principal: $M = 2.57$, $SD = .79$; special education administrator: $M = 2.75$, $SD = .50$), and pre-referral interventions (principal: $M = 2.48$, $SD = .91$; special education administrator: $M = 3.50$, $SD = .57$). The administrators of special education, while agreeing on three areas needing the most attention, had a different priority ranking and indicated a higher degree of need in all three areas.

Principal Effectiveness

In Part II of the questionnaire, the administrators of special education were asked to rate the overall effectiveness of principals in their system. Principals were asked to rate themselves as well. The extent of effectiveness was indicated using a scale of 1 = not effective to 4 = very effective.

Table 8, Mean Ratings of Overall Effectiveness of the Principal, summarizes the mean ratings of the overall effectiveness of all of the principals ($N = 49$) participating in the survey. It shows that both these samples feel the principals are effective instructional leaders for special programs implemented in the schools. Surprisingly, the administrators of special education gave the principals a higher rating for instructional leadership (special education administrators, $M = 3.25$, $SD = .50$; principals, $M = 3.20$, $SD = .57$). These results appear to be inconsistent with the results from Part I of the questionnaire. Table 4, The Composite Means for Extent of Current Practice of Supervisory Behaviors of Principals, reflects that special education administrators perceived that principals were not doing as good a job as the principals perceived themselves doing.

The instructors of special need children who were interviewed ($N = 20$) were also asked to rate the principals of their schools for effectiveness using a scale 1 = not effective

to 10 = very effective. Some respondents indicated they were reluctant to assign a numerical rating and commented on the effectiveness instead.

In District A, three (15%) of four special needs instructors in the high performing OAP high school rated their principal using the numerical scale. Their ratings of 7, 9, 9 and comments indicated that they felt this school administrator was effective in working with special programs. One teacher (5%) refused to use the scale noting he was not that familiar with the principal's work. Four teachers (20%) were also interviewed in the lower performing OAP school. Two of these noted that the principal was very effective and assigned a rating of 8; one teacher refused to comment and another noted that the school administrators were all supportive.

In District B, the middle school with the highest OAP performance record had four special need instructors (20%) who were asked to rate their principal's overall effectiveness of instructional supervision. Two instructors (10%) stated their principal was very effective and described her as a 10. Two others chose to comment on effectiveness: one being very positive, and the other noting suggestions for improvement in the area of providing praise to teachers. The four teachers of exceptional students (20%) at the lower performing OAP school vacillated in their ratings of overall effectiveness of their principal. One teacher (5%) suggested a rating of 9-10, another (5%) cited 7-8 and a third one (5%) indicated a 3 rating. One teacher (5%) refused to comment.

In District C, the elementary school with the highest OAP performance had three teachers (15%) who felt their administrator was doing a very good job working with the special education programs. They gave ratings of 7, 8, 9 and commented positively about their building administrator. A comparison could not be made with staff from the lower performing OAP school as the one teacher who was interviewed commented by suggesting the principal needed to improve her knowledge base about special education.

Responsibility Chart Findings

The responsibility chart was designed as a tool to measure the way in which principals and special education administrators perceive each other's responsibilities as

well as their own. Both these staff were asked to chart the extent of their involvement in specific special education tasks. The purpose of this task was to have role conflict areas identified since such conflict according to Bullock and Conrad (1981) may impede the performance of the staff involved and thereby weaken the organization.

The chart itself includes specific areas of responsibility taken from the Raske (1979) study. The special education administrator and principal were each asked to review the responsibility functions and then determine the extent of involvement they perceived for both parties. For each area of responsibility, the respondent was given a choice of five possible replies:

- A - APPROVES: a person who is responsible for accepting or rejecting a decision before it is implemented.
- R - RESPONSIBLE: the person who analyzes the situation, makes the initial recommendation and is accountable for the area.
- C - CONSULTED: a person who must be consulted for input before a decision is made but who has no veto power.
- I - INFORMED: someone who needs to know the outcome for other related tasks, but need not give input.
- S - SUPERVISE: ensures that the person responsible completes task accurately and on time.

Upon receipt of the responsibility charts, the responses were recorded and the results examined. Some of the principals did not react to all the items on the Chart and four were returned incomplete, i.e., blank (2) or with less than half the responses to the twelve areas. All of the gathered data was recorded in two categories: the responsibilities of principals and the responsibilities of special education administrators (see Table 9, Responsibility Chart -- Responses from Principals, and Table 10, Responsibility Chart -- Responses from Special Education Administrators). Charting the data in this manner allows a broad interpretation of the overall data.

For the purpose of analysis, the most frequently used response to each of the responsibility functions was considered to be the norm. With this in mind, Table 9 reflects that the majority of principals felt that special education administrators were responsible

for all twelve of the functions. The role of the principal however, appears more diverse with the responses indicating that the principals also felt responsible for reviewing special education referrals, observing special education teachers, recruitment, selection and evaluation of staff, as well as curriculum development and related activities. They felt they should be consulted with the arranging of special education inservice programs and informed concerning provision of special education communications, attendance at special education staff meetings, preparation and monitoring of the special education budget, and coordination of transportation of disabled students. Further, the principals indicated they should supervise the encouragement of teacher participation in IEP meetings, special education paperwork, and the annual review, IEP and follow-up system process. Table 10 illustrates the responses of the 4 special education administrators and because they rated the principals in their respective school districts, observations will be reserved for a comparison of data from each district. One must be cautioned about generalizations from such a small sample, and where appropriate, information gleaned from the interviews will be integrated to provide additional insight.

Analysis of the data from the responsibility chart of School District A showed conflict in the perception of the principal's role in half of the responsibility functions examined. The role conflict areas occurred on the items of annual reviews, communication, staff meetings, budget, curriculum and transportation coordination. Conflicting role perceptions were present in four of the twelve areas concerning the special education administrator. These areas included encouragement of teacher participation in IEP meetings, paperwork, special education referrals and annual reviews. Overall, there was agreement in District A on 50% of the responsibility functions charted by principals, and 66% agreement for the special education administrators. The special education administrator noted during the interview process that her position was one of

shared responsibility for delivering special need services. As a result, the major function is technical support, not a compliance administrative function which is a more assertive role.

Unlike the principal, the administrator of the Special Needs Programs preferred face-to-face visits with principal, but frequently is forced to use electronic mail. The building principals in this district noted that they preferred the phone.

Another point of conflict is also identified in regard to the organizational structure. Several of the principals indicated that they felt it was adequate and services were being rendered; they felt that the chain of command was fine. The special education administrator felt that organizational structure could be improved and suggested one additional administrative position and five technical assistants to the field. The suggestion was followed up with a vision of how these staff would implement a five-year service plan. It should be noted, too, that this special education administrator does observations of staff only when requested -- not as a normal part of the system's evaluation process. This is a conflict area noted by principals and special education administrators in Districts B and C.

In District B, the special education administrator chose to respond to the responsibility items by charting only one role per function. When a response was provided by the administrator, however, it generally conflicted with the response of the principals. In fact, out of the twelve areas of responsibility, only two areas were found to be compatible for both the principal's role and the special education administrator. These two areas of role responsibility agreement focused on special education paperwork and arranging special education inservice programs. The special education administrator in this school district sees her role as a consultant to the principals and staff with day to day field assistants providing technical assistance to instructional staff.

Teachers and principals interviewed in this district indicated that communication and services were provided efficiently using this organizational structure. The principal of the high performing OAP school noted that calls rarely had to be made to the special

education administrator because answers could be gathered by the field specialists. She stated that, as building principal, she was responsible for ensuring that special education students received services. She agreed that the special education administrator was a consultant.

Interestingly enough, there were mixed comments from the teachers concerning the "arranging of special education inservice activities." Some preferred that the principals should be responsible, and some felt that the special education administrator should be responsible. Those holding the latter view usually noted that expertise regarding exceptional students was needed.

In School District C, role conflicts for the principal were cited in the area of paperwork, special education referrals, budget, and observation of instruction. There were two major conflicts regarding supervision of the annual review, IEP and follow-up process and communication of special education information. For the special education administrator, conflicts occurred over the issues of encouragement of teacher participation in IEP meetings and paperwork, as well as a major conflict in the area of special education referrals.

Most of the role conflict issues noted in this district seemed to stem from a lack of resources needed for special education services and recent administrative changes at the principal level. The principal at one school felt that more technical assistance from the special education administrator was needed to implement a new program for exceptional students, but it was also noted that, with only one staff person, time was unavailable. One teacher stated that communication with central office was holding the principal back. Instructional staff also noted a role conflict regarding who was responsible for providing them with training on collaborative strategies. Again, some teachers wanted the special education administrator because of specialty expertise, while others indicated that the

principal should know their needs. Consistent with the responses on the responsibility chart, both principals felt that budgeting for special needs students was a problem area.

Also, observations for teacher evaluations presented a ripe conflict area. The special education administrator is required to do observations as well as the principal, and apparently, time frames are not met. All teachers commented that the process was to be changed to remedy the problem.

School District D provided an interesting pattern of responses. Agreement between the principals and the special education administrator was reached 75% of the time. However, when a discrepancy did occur, it was a major conflict. (For the purpose of this study, "major conflict" shall be defined as a conflict in which the response given by the special education administrator is not matched by any of the principals in the same district.) For principals' responsibilities, major conflicts occurred in the areas of communications, budget and transportation coordination. For the special education administrator's responsibilities, major conflicts were found in the areas of encouragement of teacher participation in IEP meetings, review of referrals, and observation of special education instruction. Outside of the responsibility of attendance in special education staff meetings, all other items received a majority agreement. (As noted earlier, this school system did not receive on-site visits or interviews.)

Finally, when looking at the school districts individually, discrepancies consistently occur in the following areas: for principals' responsibilities -- annual reviews, communications, attendance at special education staff meetings, budget and transportation coordination. Consistent discrepancies for the administrators of special education were found in the responsibility task areas of encouragement of teacher participation in IEP meetings and paperwork.

It should be remembered that a conflict in these areas does not imply that the principal or administrator does not feel responsible for the task, but that there is

disagreement as to the extent of that responsibility. Also, one should keep in mind that the purpose of this analysis was not to condemn or contradict any of the opinions offered by the respondents, but to analyze the results for responsibility task areas in which the roles need finer definition.

Summary of Results

From the results of this study, it can be stated that the role of the principal in a school with an effective special education program, as defined by using the Outcome Accountability Project (OAP) indicators, does differ from the role of a principal in a school with a lower OAP rating. A substantive basis for the best practices was provided by using the site visit summary form, site information summary matrix, summary tables for study questions, and the document summary form. Results were compiled from interviews with special education teachers, administrators of special education and principals, questionnaires, charts and observations, thereby providing the necessary documentation and support of the following best practices among principals in highly rated OAP schools. The best practices must appear on at least two sources of information. The reader is referred to the section on Field Data for practices of low OAP performing schools

Communication -- Principals of high performing OAP schools:

- Communicate that the education of students with disabilities is the responsibility of all school staff;
- Practice open communication with teachers and special education administrative staff;
- Often access input from teachers and administrator's of special education informally and casually. Encourage shared decision making in the schools;
- Keep abreast of latest educational research and teaching strategies and freely share these with staff;
- Support new ideas and innovation in problem solving techniques with the schools;
- Develop and display school mission statements.

Questionnaire data reflected that principals ($M = 3.59$) rated the extent of their current practice in the area of communication slightly higher than their administrator of special education ($M = 3.25$) (see Table 4).

Staff Development -- Principals of high performing OAP schools:

- Understand their role in recommending and implementing staff development activities;
- Know when to request assistance from the special education administrator;
- Have initiated or wish to implement inclusion/collaboration teaching models between regular education and special education classes;
- Encourage teacher involvement in activities for professional growth and provide varying and flexible means of compensation (including issuance of administrative leave);
- Disseminate professional growth activity opportunities to all staff as they become available;
- Gave teachers time to share what they had learned at professional growth activities with other staff members;
- Schedule congruent planning periods for regular and special education teachers implementing the collaborative model;
- Publicly recognize teachers' outstanding achievements on a regular basis.

Both the principal and special education administrator perceive that the importance of staff development is greater than the extent of current practice by the principal.

Interviews and data from other sources suggest that obstacles to instructional effectiveness and role conflicts may affect the perceptions of both these staff concerning the provision of staff development activities.

Systematic Evaluation of Teachers -- Principals of high performing OAP schools:

- Hold conferences with teachers shortly after observations to analyze and discuss performance effectiveness and provide feedback;
- Use clearly defined criteria developed with teacher input;

- Actively participate in the observation process, providing specific recommendations to improve instruction;
- Recognize the additional challenge involved in managing emotionally disturbed students in the classroom;
- Visit classrooms informally as well as at observation time;
- Understand role in the observation and evaluation process;
- Avoid role conflict with special education administrator in recruitment and staff selection areas.

Table 5 illustrates that the principals ($M = 3.70$) perceive the supervisory behaviors in the area of staff evaluation as the most important. They likewise rated their current practice to reflect that it is performed to a great extent ($M = 3.56$) (see Table 4).

Collaboration -- Principals of high performing OAP schools:

- Encourage and suggest specific classroom interventions to accommodate students with disabilities in the regular and special education classrooms;
- Demonstrate interest in and seek help and information about incorporating inclusion/collaboration models in their schools.

The area of collaboration was ranked as the second lowest in terms of perceived importance (see Table 5), but the principals noted their current practices in collaboration as above average ($M = 3.21$) (see Table 4). The highly rated OAP school principals expressed concern that they were having difficulty implementing collaborative teaching activities due to lack of planning time and providing resources on site.

Instructional Programming -- Principals of high performing OAP Schools:

- Help teachers identify and obtain resources for instruction.
- Spend considerable time working with teachers on behavior management techniques.

The supervisory practices associated with instructional programming were rated lowest in terms of importance and current practice by the principals who were surveyed (see Tables 4 and 5). The administrators of special education also agreed in this area.

Data gleaned from the interviews with these two staff and special education teachers indicate that teacher expertise in specific task areas is generally accepted by the principal.

In summarizing the second study question, evidence was presented that the interaction between the principal of an effective OAP school and special education administrator does differ from that of a principal and special education administrator in a school with a less effective OAP rating. The following list represents the best practice behaviors of principals and special education administrators that demonstrate the difference in interactions between the principals in effective systems (high performing OAP schools) and those in low performing OAP schools.

Communication -- High performing OAP school principals interact differently with special education administrators by performing the following best practices:

- Promote communication by directly involving themselves in special education functions (IEP meetings, eligibility, department meetings, etc.);
- Establish informal lines of communication with the special education administrator preferring face-to-face communication, followed by phone contacts and E-Mail;
- Ask for assistance in planning programs and know how to identify what resources they need;
- Effectively use the organizational structure (District A and B had regional special education technical assistance staff) to eliminate unnecessary calls to the special education administrator;
- Frame problems in a more positive manner;
- Discuss issues openly concerning program improvement and personnel issues involving special education staff;
- View special education as a shared responsibility;
- Understand role in communicating regulations and special education information.

Staff Development -- High performing OAP school principals interact differently with special education administrators by performing the following best practices:

- **Jointly plan staff development activities for teachers in the following areas: collaborative/inclusionary model, behavior management techniques, alternative programming, vocational evaluation programs and pre-referral systems;**
- **Clearly communicate goals and role expectations;**
- **Avoid role conflict with special education administrators by modeling "shared responsibility for educating disabled students with all staff";**
- **Allow special education administrator to serve in a consulting role to provide technical assistance;**
- **Use available resources of school and special education administrator to provide incentives to teachers for staff development;**
- **Implement staff suggestions for professional growth activities.**

Systematic Evaluation of Teachers -- High performing OAP school principals interact differently with special education administrators by performing the following best practices:

- **Request assistance with teacher observations when local resources are exhausted;**
- **Seek assistance when dealing with special education personnel requesting teacher certification information;**
- **Ask for training recommendations for specific teacher evaluation objectives;**
- **Understand site based management principles and organizational structure thereby avoiding role conflicts.**

Collaboration -- High performing OAP school principals interact differently with special education administrators by performing the following best practices:

- **Model collaboration/consultation behaviors when problem solving special education program and personnel issues;**
- **Encourage classroom interventions to accommodate students with disabilities in the regular classroom.**

Instructional Programming -- High performing OAP school principals interact differently with special education administrators by performing the following best practices:

- **Consult administrator of special education to request assistance in planning for new programs;**
- **Prepare for Department of Education Administrative Review and addresses corrective action plan initiatives;**
- **Collaboratively work with teachers to evaluate school programs and identify program needs;**
- **Request assistance in implementing research based strategies to improve instruction.**

The principals and special education supervisors rated the current practice of instructional programming supervisory behaviors lower than the other categories. It was suggested, in the interviews with these two staff and the special education teachers, that principals did not provide as much direct technical assistance because many of the items noted on the survey were teacher specific. That is, teachers should have the skills or be able to work with the Department Chair to receive assistance.

Section Two of the questionnaire specifically addressed the third question, providing data that identified obstacles that building principals faced in implementing special education programs. Supporting documentation, including interviews and observations identified some of the effects the obstacles have on the principal's role. The results of the questionnaire data are illustrated in Table 6 and indicate that lack of time received the highest mean rating, followed by lack of knowledge of special program/curriculum and lack of central office assistance. The special education administrators agreed with these three items being the main impediments to effective instructional programming and rated them all the same ($M = 2.50$). Lack of knowledge about students with disabilities was ranked fourth as an instructional barrier, with lack of

cooperation from general education teachers and special education teachers ranked fifth and sixth respectively. Teachers in Districts A and B overwhelmingly cited the large size of the schools as creating a barrier for the principal, and District C teachers cited lack of space.

Effects of these barriers to instruction have been gleaned from the interview notes and observations and are listed below:

- Emphasizes regulations to compensate for lack of knowledge about special education programs;
- Difficulty in disciplining Emotionally Disturbed students due to a lack of knowledge about strategies to use with this group of students with disabilities;
- Principal does not provide feedback to teachers in a timely manner after completing observation;
- Does not recognize special education staff for working with the most difficult students;
- Is not visible to staff because of administrative duties, thereby limiting communication;
- Faces difficulty in determining least restrictive environment decisions;
- Has too many administrative responsibilities to find time to effectively work with teachers in the classroom;
- Delegates observations of teachers to assistant principal.

Significantly, while the principals indicated a lack of knowledge about special education programs and curriculum, they also recognized it as an area of need for staff development. On the survey instrument, it was rated second only to collaboration and consultation skills (see Table 7, Mean Rating of Staff Development Needs of Principals), which are essential to implementing the special education inclusion model.

CHAPTER V

Interpretation and Implications

This case study was concerned with examining the role of principals supervising programs for students with disabilities in effective schools as defined by the Virginia Department of Education's Outcome Accountability Project (OAP). In order to do this, three questions were framed in the first chapter, and after reviewing the literature, a research design was developed which would allow data relative to the study questions to be collected. Multiple data sources were used in this investigation including a questionnaire, responsibility chart, observations, and interviews with principals, special education administrators and special education teachers.

Interpretation of Results

From the data collected and analyzed in this study, three major conclusions may be drawn. The first major finding is that the role of the principal in a school with an effective special education program, as defined by using the Outcome Accountability Project (OAP) indicators, does differ from the role of a principal in a school with a lower OAP rating. Differences were found in practices that addressed behaviors in the following performance areas: communication, staff development, systematic evaluation of instruction, collaboration, and instructional programming.

The second conclusion is that the interaction between the special education administrator and principal of an effective OAP defined school does differ from that of a special education administrator and principal in a school with a less effective OAP rating.

Interviews with principals and special education administrators and the results from the responsibility chart delineated best practice behaviors for principals in effective OAP schools. These include establishing informal lines of communication with the special education administrator, ability to frame questions in a positive manner, modeling shared responsibility and others listed in Chapter Four.

The third major finding from this study identified lack of time, lack of knowledge of special programs/curriculum and lack of central office assistance as the three main obstacles that impede the instructional effectiveness of principals. Supporting documentation from the interviews indicated the effects of these obstacles included the following practices: overemphasis of regulations, difficulty with disciplining special need students, delays in providing feedback after observations, failure to recognize special education staff for working with difficult students, limited visibility and communication, and the delegation of special education functions to other staff.

Implications

This study provides information anticipated to be useful to a variety of people concerned with providing special education services and programs for students with disabilities. The following implications are presented and grouped by categories of people who might possibly be interested in this study as a resource.

State- and Federal-Level Agencies

The State Department of Education should consider reviewing accreditation standards concerning administrative requirements for schools with student enrollments of 700 to 1000 and over. Instructors in this study cited the sheer size of schools in this category as being an obstacle to instructional effectiveness for the principals. It would seem that this may also be an area ripe for consideration at the federal level as well. State and federal mandates restrict class sizes for students with disabilities so it seems logical

that schools with programs for special need students should also be viewed differently in terms of administrative staffing. Also, if national standards are established for student performance, as is currently being advocated by various political factions, school size and administrative requirements should be reviewed.

Furthermore, state and federal agencies should assess the possibility of developing strategies to increase and sustain support and resources for local-level staff charged with implementing new special education initiatives such as the implementation of inclusion models. On the state level, perhaps, the Outcome Accountability Project could serve as a catalyst in making recommendations to establish these resources which could possibly improve the OAP standard performance in the state's local school divisions. The Virginia Department of Education may also assess the credentialing needs of principals and possibly require coursework in a general special education program. Most principals are trained as general administrators, and this study reflected that 33% of the principals had no coursework in the area of special education.

Inservice Education Coordinators and Higher Education Staff

The results from this study are expected to be of interest to inservice coordinators and higher education staff. First, the results provide evidence that should encourage provision of inservice training to principals in the use of collaboration/consultation skills, pre-referral interventions and staff development needs of special educators. As stated above, the demographic data for the principals further substantiates a need for additional coursework in special education. This implication should be of significant interest to higher education staff who determine curriculum content and program requirements for students in school administration. Also, the results of this study indicated that special education instructors felt that inclusion/collaborative models should be implemented to meet the needs of students now and in the future. Again, higher education staff, should

consider including coursework and skill training in this program area to better prepare instructional and administrative staff.

Education Administrators

Principals providing technical assistance to special education teachers is an area that this study pointed out needs to be examined by local school divisions. Both the survey data and staff interviews indicated that principals did not see this as a vital function for them. This seems to be particularly critical given the trend that most school divisions are moving toward site based management and this movement will place more responsibility for staff development on the principal.

Another implication from the study results indicates that principals who had recently been in school shared information with their teachers and demonstrated a better understanding of special education problems. Teachers felt they were more creative and flexible in problem solving.

Clear communication of goals and role expectations reduce role conflicts for principals and administrators of special education as well as for regular and special education teachers. Modeling shared responsibility for educating disabled students helps reduce feelings of frustration and reinforces program goals. Another implication for school administrators centers on scheduling planning time for regular and special educators to work together on collaborative strategies. Planning periods varied in many schools and schedules prevented teachers who work together from planning lessons and activities together.

Systematic evaluation of teachers provided several major implications for principals and they are listed below:

1. Principals need more time to follow up observations with individual conferences, particularly in schools with large enrollments. Time management issues need to be reviewed and strategies developed to address this problem.

2. Similarly, consideration is needed for implementing more informal observations by administrative staff to provide a more accurate picture of a special education teacher's actual performance. Evidence also supports that additional attention be given to establishing time for teachers to observe others who exhibit good teaching strategies.
3. Principals need to provide positive feedback to special need teachers and make suggestions for improvement. Teachers should receive guidance and support in this area.
4. Principals and administrators need to view themselves as providing support service to teachers and not see their role as strictly managerial.

Special Education Teachers

The results of this study support the need for better behavior management techniques to be taught at all levels of teacher preparation and in the local school systems. Conversely, administrators need to understand behaviors exhibited by special need students. Interviews with teachers who worked with emotionally disturbed youth found that they were extremely critical of principals and general school administrators because of behavior management interventions and lack of feedback concerning behavior management strategies.

Researchers and Program Evaluators

Researchers and evaluators interested in examining the role of the principal supervising programs for students with disabilities could find useful the information in the qualitative and quantitative elements of this paper. This paper adds to a growing, yet still relatively small, body of literature concerned with the role of principals implementing special need programs.

Advocacy Groups

Advocates for persons with disabilities may be interested in the results of this study since the principal plays such a key role in developing and implementing special education programs. The study does highlight a number of supervisory practices that could possibly improve services for students with disabilities.

Suggestions for Further Study

It is hoped that the results of this investigation will serve as a catalyst for other research projects that involve the principal supervising programs for students with disabilities. In view of some of the conclusions and implications drawn from this study, it might be useful to conduct in-depth research in the following areas:

1. The four school districts studied may not be representative of the state as a whole, and thus a comprehensive, state-wide study might provide more insight regarding the role of the principal supervising programs for students with disabilities.
2. Organizational structures of school systems should be studied to determine the best model(s) to provide adequate technical assistance to school staff. This study should reflect staff and student ratios for administrators providing services to special education programs.
3. It would also be helpful to examine the behavior management functions of building principals. Special need teachers in this study were particularly critical regarding intervention methods, disciplinary actions and feedback provided to them.
4. Teacher incentives for staff development need to be researched in order to provide principals and special education administrators more effective options

to entice special need staff to attend training activities that would improve knowledge and skills.

5. The evaluation processes and forms of school divisions need to be studied to determine if they reflect the challenges special education staff face.
6. Additional study also needs to be implemented to determine who provides feedback to the principals concerning special education instructional supervision. This is particularly critical with the site-based management movement and with the special education administrators as support staff, not line staff, in most organizational hierarchies.
7. The Outcome Accountability Project needs to evaluate the use of the data provided to local school districts and to determine effective practices for program improvement.

It is important to stress that the findings from this study may serve not only as a resource to other persons but as a basis for additional study concerning the role of the principal providing supervision to programs for exceptional need students. The results from this sample of four school districts present a starting point for determining effective practices in schools that perform well in meeting OAP performance measures. It also determines behaviors and areas where additional support should be given from local, state and federal agencies.

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Table 1

Survey Participant Demographic Data

Characteristics	Principals (N=49) Total (%)	Special Education Administrators (N=4) Total (%)
<u>Age</u>		
26 - 40	5 (10)	1 (25)
41 - 45	20 (41)	3 (75)
46 - 50	14 (29)	0 (0)
51 - 60	10 (20)	0 (0)
<u>Sex</u>		
Male	30 (61)	0 (0)
Female	19 (39)	4 (100)
<u>Race</u>		
White	37 (75)	2 (50)
Black	12 (25)	2 (50)
Other	0 (0)	0 (0)
<u>School Level</u>		
Elementary	30 (61)	(System-wide, N/A)
Middle	9 (19)	
High	10 (20)	
<u>Years in Current Position</u>		
1 - 3	18 (37)	0 (0)
4 - 10	18 (37)	4 (100)
11 - 19	10 (20)	0 (0)
20 +	3 (6)	0 (0)
<u>Years of Educational Experience</u>		
1 - 10	2 (4)	0 (0)
11 - 19	12 (24)	2 (50)
20 - 25	35 (72)	2 (50)
<u>Special Ed. College Credit Courses</u>		
0	16 (33)	0 (0)
1 - 2	18 (37)	0 (0)
3 - 4	7 (14)	1 (25)
5 - 10	3 (6)	0 (0)
10 +	5 (10)	3 (75)

(continued)

Table 1, continued

Characteristics	Principals (N=49) Total (%)	Special Education Administrators (N=4) Total (%)
<u>Enrollment Size of Individual Schools</u>		
Less than 200	1 (2)	(System-wide,
200 - 400	7 (15)	N/A)
400 - 1000	28 (58)	
1000 +	13 (27)	
<u>Students Receiving Free Lunch</u>		
Less than 30%	30 (62)	3 (75)
30% - 75%	19 (38)	1 (25)
75% +	0 (0)	0 (0)
<u>Number of Special Education Teachers</u>		
1 - 5	27 (55)	0 (0)
6 - 10	22 (45)	0 (0)
10 +	0 (0)	4 (100)

Table 2

Special Education Teacher Characteristics (by school district)

<u>School District A *</u>							
<u>Experience (yrs.)</u>		<u>Sex</u>		<u>Endorsement Area</u>		<u>Resource</u>	<u>Self Contained</u>
1-5	2	Male	0	LD	5	6	2
6-15	6	Female	8	MR	1		
				ED	2		

** - Large Urban School District; 20,000 to 25,000 students*

<u>School District B *</u>							
<u>Experience (yrs.)</u>		<u>Sex</u>		<u>Endorsement Area</u>		<u>Resource</u>	<u>Self Contained</u>
1-5	2	Male	1	LD	6	7	1
6-15	6	Female	7	ED	2		

** - Large Suburban School District; 12,000+ students*

<u>School District C</u>							
<u>Experience (yrs.)</u>		<u>Sex</u>		<u>Endorsement Area</u>		<u>Resource</u>	<u>Self Contained</u>
1-5	1	Male	0	LD	3	2	2
6-15	3	Female	4	DD	1		

** - Small Rural School District; less than 2,500 students*

** - School District D was surveyed using questionnaires only because it had only one school for each level. It represents a small rural school district, with less than 2,500 students.

Table 3
Perceptions of Instructional Supervisory Behaviors of Principals

<u>Supervisory Behavior</u>	<u>Group (N)</u>	<u>Current Practice</u>								<u>Importance</u>										
		<u>Frequency</u>				<u>M</u>				<u>SD</u>										
		1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	1	2	3	4	M	SD					
<u>Communication</u>																				
1. Communicates to teachers that the education of students with disabilities is the responsibility of <u>all</u> staff.	Prin (49) Admin (4)	0	2	17	30	3.57	.58	0	2	15	32	3.61	.57	0	2	0	1	3	3.75	.50
2. Provides clear direction and active support to teachers and related services personnel regarding the goals and expectations of special education programs.	Prin (48) Admin (4)	0	9	19	20	3.23	.75	0	3	15	30	3.56	.62	0	1	2	1	3.00	.82	
3. Encourages shared decision-making in the planning of special education programs.	Prin (48) Admin (4)	2	3	17	26	3.40	.79	0	1	19	28	3.56	.54	0	0	2	2	3.50	.58	
4. Communicates the various roles of related services personnel (psychologists, therapists, aides, etc.) to teachers and staff.	Prin (48) Admin (4)	1	9	24	14	3.06	.76	0	5	23	19	3.42	1.05	0	1	3	0	2.75	.50	
<u>Staff Development</u>																				
5. Provides staff with opportunities for collaborative planning of inservice activities.	Prin (49) Admin (4)	1	13	23	12	2.94	.77	0	4	24	21	3.35	.63	0	0	3	1	3.25	.50	
6. Involves staff in evaluating the usefulness of information or skills presented in inservice programs.	Prin (49) Admin (4)	0	14	24	11	2.94	.72	1	3	29	16	3.22	.65	0	0	3	1	3.25	.50	

(continued)

Table 3, continued

	<u>Group (N)</u>	<u>Current Practice</u>						<u>Importance</u>						
		Frequency						Frequency						
		1	2	3	4	M	SD	1	2	3	4	M	SD	
<u>Supervisory Behavior</u>														
7.	Provides opportunities to apply, practice, and reflect upon new skills presented in inservice programs.	Prin (49)	0	7	26	16	3.18	.67	0	3	20	26	3.47	.62
		Admin (4)	0	0	4	0	3.00	.00	0	0	1	3	3.75	.50
8.	Encourages teacher involvement in activities for professional growth (coursework, workshops, professional organizations).	Prin (49)	0	1	10	38	3.76	.48	0	0	7	42	3.86	.35
		Admin (4)	0	0	0	4	4.00	.00	0	0	0	4	4.00	.00
9.	Provides incentives to encourage personal and professional growth.	Prin (49)	1	15	19	14	2.94	.78	2	4	23	20	3.24	.78
		Admin (4)	0	2	1	1	2.75	.96	0	1	2	1	3.00	.82
10.	Provides ongoing instructional support and assistance to all teachers.	Prin (49/48)	0	1	20	28	3.55	.54	0	0	9	39	3.81	.39
		Admin (4)	0	2	1	1	2.75	.96	0	0	1	3	3.75	.50
<u>Systematic Evaluation of Teachers</u>														
11.	Frequently observes teachers for the purpose of improving instructional effectiveness.	Prin (48)	0	2	18	28	3.54	.58	0	0	13	35	3.73	.45
		Admin (4)	1	0	2	1	2.75	1.26	0	0	2	2	3.50	.58
12.	Schedules conferences following observations to analyze and discuss instructional effectiveness.	Prin (48)	0	5	12	31	3.54	.68	0	2	10	36	3.71	.54
		Admin (4)	0	1	2	1	3.00	.82	0	0	3	1	3.25	.50
13.	Evaluates teachers using clearly defined criteria developed with teacher input.	Prin (48)	0	1	16	31	3.63	.53	0	0	14	34	3.71	.46
		Admin (4)	1	1	1	1	2.50	1.29	0	1	2	1	3.00	.82
<u>Collaboration</u>														
14.	Models collaboration/consultation behaviors for all teachers and staff.	Prin (47)	0	4	23	20	3.34	.64	0	2	21	23	3.40	.68
		Admin (4)	0	2	2	0	2.50	.58	0	0	3	1	3.25	.50

(continued)

Table 3, continued

	<u>Supervisory Behavior</u>	<u>Group (N)</u>	<u>Current Practice</u>				<u>Importance</u>							
			Frequency				Frequency							
			1	2	3	4	M	SD	1	2	3	4	M	SD
15.	Provides staff with opportunities for developing student outcomes for <u>all</u> students.	Prin (48) Admin (4)	0	7	22	19	3.25	.70	0	5	19	24	3.40	.68
16.	Encourages classroom teachers to actively participate in IEP meetings.	Prin (48) Admin (4)	1	3	21	23	3.38	.70	0	2	16	30	3.58	.58
17.	Provides opportunities for general and special teachers to observe each other's teaching strategies.	Prin (48) Admin (4)	1	12	21	14	3.00	.80	0	4	24	20	3.33	.63
18.	Encourages classroom interventions to accommodate student with disabilities in the regular classroom.	Prin (48) Admin (4)	0	3	16	29	3.54	.62	0	0	16	32	3.67	.48
19.	Provides opportunities for teachers and related services personnel to learn, solve problems, and interact in small groups or teams.	Prin (48) Admin (4)	0	7	23	18	3.23	.69	0	3	17	28	3.52	.62
20.	Evaluates and modifies school-based consultation program.	Prin (46) Admin (4)	4	12	21	9	2.76	.87	3	8	21	14	3.00	.87
<u>Instructional Programming</u>			2	0	2	0	2.00	1.15	0	1	3	0	2.75	.50
21.	Helps teachers identify and obtain resources for instruction.	Prin (48) Admin (4)	0	3	21	24	3.44	.62	1	1	14	32	3.60	.64
22.	Helps teachers organize and arrange space and materials for instruction.	Prin (48) Admin (4)	2	9	21	16	3.06	.84	2	9	21	16	3.06	.84
			1	1	2	0	2.25	.96	0	1	3	0	2.75	.50

(continued)

Table 3, continued

<u>Supervisory Behavior</u>	<u>Group (N)</u>	<u>Current Practice</u>					<u>Importance</u>						
		Frequency					Frequency						
		1	2	3	4	M	SD	1	2	3	4	M	SD
23. Helps teachers modify instruction to meet the individual needs of all students.	Prin (48) Admin (4)	0	10	23	15	3.10	.72	1	1	24	22	3.40	.64
24. Helps teachers use various research-based strategies to improve instruction.	Prin (48) Admin (4)	1	1	2	0	2.25	.96	0	1	1	2	3.25	.96
25. Helps teachers translate student objectives into daily lesson plans.	Prin (47) Admin (4)	1	6	27	14	3.13	.70	1	2	25	20	3.33	.66
26. Helps teachers plan appropriate learning objectives for special needs students.	Prin (47) Admin (4)	1	1	1	1	2.50	1.29	1	0	2	1	2.75	1.26
27. Helps teachers interpret and use assessment data that measures progress toward curricular goals and objectives.	Prin (47/46) Admin (4)	3	22	17	5	2.51	.78	3	14	15	15	2.89	.94
28. Helps teachers monitor student progress on an ongoing basis.	Prin (47/46) Admin (4)	1	3	0	0	1.75	.50	0	1	2	1	3.00	.82
29. Helps teachers provide special need students with feedback and praise.	Prin (47/46) Admin (4)	1	12	21	13	2.98	.79	2	10	19	16	3.04	.86
30. Helps teachers develop strategies that help students self-monitor instructional behaviors.	Prin (47/46) Admin (4)	1	0	3	0	1.75	.50	0	2	2	0	2.50	.58
31. Helps teachers evaluate the effectiveness of special programs and incorporate needed modifications.	Prin (47/46) Admin (4)	0	11	27	9	2.96	.66	1	5	18	22	3.33	.76
		1	0	3	0	2.50	1.00	0	1	2	1	3.00	.82
		0	10	18	19	3.19	.77	1	2	14	29	3.54	.69
		1	0	2	1	2.75	1.26	0	0	2	2	3.50	.58
		2	22	13	10	2.66	.87	3	8	15	20	3.13	.93
		1	2	1	0	2.00	.82	0	2	1	1	2.75	.96
		0	15	16	16	3.02	.82	1	4	15	26	3.43	.75
		1	1	1	1	2.50	1.29	0	1	2	1	3.00	.82

Table 4

**Composite Means for Extent of Current Practice of
Supervisory Behaviors of Principals by Categories**

Category	Principals (N=49) Mean (SD)	Special Education Administrators (N=4) Mean (SD)
Communication	3.31 (.71)	2.43 (.72)
Staff Development	3.21 (.66)	2.91 (.50)
Evaluation	3.56 (.59)	2.75 (1.11)
Collaboration	3.21 (.71)	2.32 (.72)
Instructional Programming	2.96 (.75)	2.27 (.95)

* Response choices: 1 = No Extent
to
4 = Great Extent

Table 5
Composite Means for Importance of
Supervisory Behaviors of Principals by Categories

Category	Principals (N=49) Mean (SD)	Special Education Administrators (N=4) Mean (SD)
Communication	3.51 (.59)	3.25 (.59)
Staff Development	3.48 (.56)	3.25 (.46)
Evaluation	3.70 (.47)	3.25 (.62)
Collaboration	3.41 (.64)	3.21 (.64)
Instructional Programming	3.27 (.76)	2.97 (.79)

* Response choices: 1 = No Extent
to
4 = Great Extent

Table 6

**Mean Ratings of Perceived Obstacles to
Instructional Effectiveness of Principals**

Obstacles	Principals (N=49) Mean (SD)	Special Education Administrators (N=4) Mean (SD)
Lack of Time	2.71 (.64)	2.50 (.57)
Lack of Knowledge of Special Programs/Curriculum	1.85 (.54)	2.50 (.57)
Lack of Knowledge About Students with Disabilities	1.75 (.48)	2.50 (.57)
Lack of Central Office Assistance	1.79 (.73)	2.00 (.00)
Lack of Cooperation From Special Education Teachers	1.30 (.46)	2.00 (.00)
Lack of Cooperation From General Education Teachers	1.63 (.56)	2.25 (.50)

* Response choices: 1 = Never
2 = Sometimes
3 = Often
4 = Always

Table 7

Mean Ratings of Staff Development Needs of Principals

Need	Principals (N=49) Mean (SD)	Special Education Administrators (N=4) Mean (SD)
Communication Skills	2.20 (.70)	1.75 (.50)
Staff Development Needs of Special Educators	2.57 (.79)	2.75 (.50)
Systematic Evaluation of Special Educators	2.26 (.90)	2.50 (.57)
Collaboration/Consultation Skills	2.65 (.92)	3.00 (.81)
Pre-referral Interventions	2.48 (.91)	3.50 (.57)
Curriculum-based Assessment	2.44 (.82)	2.25 (.50)
Individualized Education Plans	1.81 (.83)	2.00 (.81)
Evaluation of Special Education Programs	2.20 (.84)	2.50 (.57)

* Response choices: 1 = No Need
to
4 = Great Need

Table 8**Mean Ratings of Overall Effectiveness of the Principal**

Respondents	Number	Mean (SD)
Principals	<u>N</u> = 49	3.20 (.57)
Special Education Administrators	<u>N</u> = 4	3.25 (.50)

* Response choices: 1 = Not Effective
to
4 = Very Effective

Responsibility Chart
Responses From Principals

- A = APPROVES** - a person who is responsible for accepting or rejecting a decision before it is implemented.
- R = RESPONSIBLE** - the person who analyzes the situation, makes the initial recommendation and is accountable for the area.
- C = CONSULTED** - a person who must be consulted for input before a decision is made but who has no veto power.
- I = INFORMED** - someone who needs to know the outcome for other related tasks, but need not give input.
- S = SUPERVISE** - ensures that person responsible completes task accurately and on time.

<u>Area of Responsibility</u>	<u>Principals</u>					<u>Special Ed. Administrators</u>				
	<i>Responses are rated from most popular to least (1 to 5).</i>									
	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
1. Encourages teacher participation in IEP meetings	S	R	A	C	I	R	S	A	I	C
2. Special education paperwork (forms)	S	I	R	A	C	R	S	C	I	A
3. Review of special education referrals	R	S	I	C	A	R	S	I	C	A
4. Supervise the annual review, IEP and follow-up system process	S	R	I	A	C	R	C	S	A	I
5. Provide special education communications (written) or by telephone	I	S	A	R	C	R	S	A	I	C
6. Attend special education staff meetings (inside and outside of school district)	I	R	S	A	C	R	S	A	C	I
7. Prepare and monitor special education budget	I	R	A	C		R	S	A	I	C
8. Observe special education instruction	R	S	A	C	I	R	S	C	I	A
9. Recruit, select and evaluate special education staff	R	C	A	I	S	R	C	S	A	I
10. Develop special education curriculum and approve related activities such as field trips, etc.	I	R	A	S	C	R	A	S	C	I
11. Coordinate transportation for handicapped students	I	C	R	S	A	R	S	A	C	I
12. Arrange special education inservice programs	C	R	I	S	A	R	A	S	C	I

TABLE 10

Responsibility Chart
Responses From Special Education Administrators

- A = **APPROVES** - a person who is responsible for accepting or rejecting a decision before it is implemented.
- R = **RESPONSIBLE** - the person who analyzes the situation, makes the initial recommendation and is accountable for the area.
- C = **CONSULTED** - a person who must be consulted for input before a decision is made but who has no veto power.
- I = **INFORMED** - someone who needs to know the outcome for other related tasks, but need not give input.
- S = **SUPERVISE** - ensures that person responsible completes task accurately and on time.

<u>Area of Responsibility</u>	<u>Principals</u>					<u>Special Ed. Administrators</u>				
	<i>Responses are rated from most popular to least (1 to 5).</i>									
	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>5</u>
1. Encourages teacher participation in IEP meetings	S					R	S			
2. Special education paperwork (forms)	S	R				S	AR			
3. Review of special education referrals	R	CS				ARS				
4. Supervise the annual review, IEP and follow-up system process	I	RC				R	S			
5. Provide special education communications (written) or by telephone	RS					R	A			
6. Attend special education staff meetings (inside and outside of school district)	S	RI				R	AS			
7. Prepare and monitor special education budget	C					R	A			
8. Observe special education instruction	R	S				ARS				
9. Recruit, select and evaluate special education staff	R					R	A			
10. Develop special education curriculum and approve related activities such as field trips, etc.	R	C				R	A			
11. Coordinate transportation for handicapped students	C	A				R	A			
12. Arrange special education inservice programs	R	C				R	A			

HELEN C. WILLIAMS
Director of Special Programs
Department of Correctional Education
101 North 14th Street, 7th Floor
Richmond, VA 23219

April 13, 1993

Dear Superintendent:

I am the Director of Special Programs for the Department of Correctional Education as well as a Doctoral Student in the Special Education Administration Program at the College of William and Mary. The course requirements include a dissertation research project. My research focus is on the special education role of the principal working in an effective school program. Effective schools are defined as a school program with a high Outcome Accountability Project (OAP) rating.

The case study research design for this project allows the investigator to select a highly rated OAP High School with a special education program in your school division to study the special education role of the principal. The School Division is asked to select another school that is considered effective regardless of the OAP rating.

A Survey and Responsibility Chart will be mailed to the school division special education administrator and principal of each school in the district with special education programs. These forms should take no more than 30-45 minutes each to complete. Interviews will then be conducted in the "paired" schools and will involve the principal and special education instructors. It is anticipated that the principal interview would take 30-45 minutes. Teacher interviews would be 30-45 minutes and scheduled by the principal to minimally disrupt the school schedule. The special education administrator's interview will be scheduled at his/her convenience.

I would like to conduct my research in your school division because you participated in the OAP Pilot program and have a track record. Every precaution will be taken to maintain confidentiality of information from school staff and individual student records will not be involved. Results from the data collected from your schools will be presented in a confidential manner.

April 13, 1993
Page Two

Thank you for your consideration in this matter. I have included a copy of the proposal abstract for your review. If you have any questions, please call me at (804) 225-3328. My advisor for this research is Dr. Douglas Prillaman and he can be reached at (804) 565-0682. Study results will be available to participants and school staff upon their request. The Superintendent of each division will be sent a copy of the results at the conclusion of the study.

Sincerely,

Helen C. Williams
Director of Special Programs

enclosures

HCW/jrp

PRINCIPAL'S SURVEY

Please fill out this questionnaire by placing the number that most clearly reflects your opinion on the line(s) beside each question. For questions 1 - 31, please give your opinion for both current practice and importance. Questions 32 - 68 require a single answer.

<u>Current Practice</u>				<u>Importance</u>			
<u>No</u>		<u>Great</u>		<u>Not</u>		<u>Very</u>	
<u>Extent</u>		<u>Extent</u>		<u>Important</u>		<u>Important</u>	
1	2	3	4	6	7	8	9

I. In the area of Teacher and Program Support:

Communication

CP I

- ___ ___ 1. I communicate to teachers that the education of students with disabilities is the responsibility of all staff.
- ___ ___ 2. I provide clear direction and active support to teachers and related services personnel regarding the goals and expectations of special education programs.
- ___ ___ 3. I encourage shared decision-making in the planning of special education programs.
- ___ ___ 4. I communicate the various roles of related services personnel (psychologists, therapists, aides, etc.) to teachers and staff.

Staff Development

- ___ ___ 5. I provide staff with opportunities for collaborative planning of inservice activities.
- ___ ___ 6. I involve staff in evaluating the usefulness of information or skills presented in inservice programs.
- ___ ___ 7. I provide opportunities to apply, practice, and reflect upon new skills presented in inservice programs.
- ___ ___ 8. I encourage teacher involvement in activities for professional growth (coursework, workshops, professional organizations).
- ___ ___ 9. I provide incentives to encourage personal and professional growth.
- ___ ___ 10. I provide ongoing instructional support and assistance to all teachers.

Systematic Evaluation Of Teachers

CP I

- ___ ___ 11. I frequently observe teachers for the purpose of improving instructional effectiveness.
- ___ ___ 12. I schedule conferences following observations to analyze and discuss instructional effectiveness.
- ___ ___ 13. I evaluate teachers using clearly defined criteria developed with teacher input

Collaboration (A voluntary effort between educators to develop solutions to mutually identified problems)

- ___ ___ 14. I model collaboration/consultation behaviors for all teachers and staff.
- ___ ___ 15. I provide staff with opportunities for developing student outcomes for all students.
- ___ ___ 16. I encourage classroom teachers to actively participate in IEP meetings.
- ___ ___ 17. I provide opportunities for general and special teachers to observe each other's teaching strategies.
- ___ ___ 18. I encourage classroom interventions to accommodate student with disabilities in the regular classroom.
- ___ ___ 19. I provide opportunities for teachers and related services personnel to learn, solve problems, and interact in small groups or teams.
- ___ ___ 20. I evaluate and modify school-based consultation programs.

Instructional Programming

- ___ ___ 21. I help teachers identify and obtain resources for instruction.
- ___ ___ 22. I help teachers organize and arrange space/materials for instruction.
- ___ ___ 23. I help teachers modify instruction to meet the individual needs of all students.
- ___ ___ 24. I help teachers use various research-based strategies to improve instruction.

- ___ 25. I help teachers translate student objectives into daily lesson plans.
- ___ 26. I help teachers plan appropriate learning objectives for special needs students.
- ___ 27. I help teachers interpret and use assessment data that measures progress toward curricular goals and objectives.
- ___ 28. I help teachers monitor student progress on an ongoing basis.
- ___ 29. I help teachers provide special need students with feedback and praise.
- ___ 30. I help teachers develop strategies that help students self-monitor instructional behaviors.
- ___ 31. I help teachers evaluate the effectiveness of special programs and incorporate needed modifications.

II. In this section, please indicate the degree to which you feel each of the following seriously impede your instructional effectiveness

- | | <u>Never</u> | <u>Sometimes</u> | <u>Often</u> | <u>Always</u> |
|---------|---|------------------|--------------|---------------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| ___ 32. | Lack of time | | | |
| ___ 33. | Lack of knowledge of special programs/curriculum | | | |
| ___ 34. | Lack of knowledge about students with disabilities | | | |
| ___ 35. | Lack of central office assistance | | | |
| ___ 36. | Lack of cooperation from special education teachers | | | |
| ___ 37. | Lack of cooperation from general education teachers | | | |

Please indicate your need for staff development in each of the following areas

- | | <u>No Need</u> | | | <u>Great Need</u> |
|---------|--|---|---|-------------------|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| ___ 38. | Communication skills | | | |
| ___ 39. | Staff development needs of special educators | | | |

- ___ 40. Systematic evaluation of special educators 96
- ___ 41. Collaboration/Consultation skills
- ___ 42. Prereferral interventions
- ___ 43. Curriculum-based assessment
- ___ 44. Individualized education plans
- ___ 45. Evaluation of special education programs

Not		Very
<u>Effective</u>		<u>Effective</u>
1	2	3
		4

- ___ 46. Please rate your overall effectiveness as an instructional leader for special programs at your school.

III. Demographic Information

Please note that the number of response options varies for each item. Please provide the following information about yourself by blackening the corresponding circle on the opscan sheet.

- ___ 47. (1) Male (2) Female
- ___ 48. Age (1) 25 or less (2) 26-30 (3) 31-35 (4) 36-40 (5) 41-45 (6) 46-50 (7) 51-55 (8) 56-60 (9) 61+
- ___ 49. Please indicate the racial or ethnic group with which you identify:
- (1) White
(2) Black
(3) Other
- ___ 50. Current position: (1) Principal (2) Assistant Principal
- ___ 51. Organizational Level: (1) Elementary (2) Middle/Jr. High (3) High School
- ___ 52. How many years have you been in your current position?
- (1) 1 (2) 2 (3) 3 (4) 4 (5) 5 (6) 6-10 (7) 11-14 (8) 15-19 (9) 20-25 (10) 26+
- ___ 53. How many years have you been in education altogether?
- (1) 1 (2) 2 (3) 3 (4) 4 (5) 5 (6) 6-10 (7) 11-14 (8) 15-19 (9) 20-25 (10) 26+

- 97
- ___ 54. How many college credits courses have you completed in Special Education?
(1) 0 (2) 1-2 (3) 3-4 (4) 5-10 (5) 10+
- ___ 55. How many inservice programs have you completed in Special Education?
(1) 0 (2) 1-2 (3) 3-4 (4) 5-10 (5) 10+
- ___ 56. How many students are currently enrolled in your school?
(1) less than 200 (2) 200-400 (3) 400-700 (5) 1,000+
- ___ 57. What percentage of students in your school receive free lunch?
(1) less than 10% (2) 10% - 30% (3) 30%-50%
(4) 50% - 75% (5) 75%+
- ___ 58. How many special education teachers are in your building?
(1) 1 (2) 2 (3) 3 (4) 4 (5) 5 (6) 6 (7) 7 (8) 8
(9) 9 (10) 10+

Please indicate which of the following categorical programs are delivered at your school:

- Yes (1) No (2)
- ___ 59. Educable mentally impaired
- ___ 60. Trainable mentally impaired
- ___ 61. Severe and profound
- ___ 62. Learning disabled
- ___ 63. Emotionally disturbed
- ___ 64. Hearing impaired
- ___ 65. Visually impaired
- ___ 66. Physically handicapped
- ___ 67. Speech/Language impaired
- ___ 68. Other health impaired

Thank you for your assistance
Please return to:

Helen C. Williams
Director of Special Programs
Department of Correctional Education
101 N. 14th Street - 7th Floor
Richmond, Virginia 23219-3678

Questionnaire developed by Farley and Billingsley (1991).
Used with permission.

SPECIAL EDUCATION ADMINISTRATOR'S SURVEY

Please fill out this questionnaire by placing the number that most clearly reflects your opinion on the line(s) beside each question. For questions 1 - 31, please give your opinion for both current practice and importance. Questions 32 - 68 require a single answer.

<u>Current Practice</u>				<u>Importance</u>				
<u>No Extent</u>		<u>Great Extent</u>		<u>Not Important</u>			<u>Very Important</u>	
1	2	3	4	6	7	8	9	

I. In the area of Teacher and Program Support, the principal:

Communication

CP I

- ___ ___ 1. communicates to teachers that the education of students with disabilities is the responsibility of all staff.

- ___ ___ 2. provides clear direction and active support to teachers and related services personnel regarding the goals and expectations of special education programs.

- ___ ___ 3. encourages shared decision-making in the planning of special education programs.

- ___ ___ 4. communicates the various roles of related services personnel (psychologists, therapists, aides, etc.) to teachers and staff.

Staff Development

CP I

- ___ ___ 5. provides staff with opportunities for collaborative planning of inservice activities.

- ___ ___ 6. involves staff in evaluating the usefulness of information or skills presented in inservice programs.

- ___ ___ 7. provides opportunities to apply, practice, and reflect upon new skills presented in inservice programs.

- ___ ___ 8. encourages teacher involvement in activities for professional growth (coursework, workshops, professional organizations).

- ___ ___ 9. provides incentives to encourage personal and professional growth.

- ___ ___ 10. provides ongoing instructional support and assistance to all teachers.

Systematic Evaluation Of Teachers

CP I

- ___ ___ 11. frequently observes teachers for the purpose of improving instructional effectiveness.
- ___ ___ 12. schedules conferences following observations to analyze and discuss instructional effectiveness.
- ___ ___ 13. evaluates teachers using clearly defined criteria developed with teacher input

Collaboration (A voluntary effort between educators to develop solutions to mutually identified problems)

CP I

- ___ ___ 14. models collaboration/consultation behaviors for all teachers and staff.
- ___ ___ 15. provides staff with opportunities for developing student outcomes for all students.
- ___ ___ 16. encourages classroom teachers to actively participate in IEP meetings.
- ___ ___ 17. provides opportunities for general and special teachers to observe each other's teaching strategies.
- ___ ___ 18. encourages classroom interventions to accommodate student with disabilities in the regular classroom.
- ___ ___ 19. provides opportunities for teachers and related services personnel to learn, solve problems, and interact in small groups or teams.
- ___ ___ 20. evaluates and modifies school-based consultation programs.

Instructional Programming

CP I

- ___ ___ 21. helps teachers identify and obtain resources for instruction.
- ___ ___ 22. helps teachers organize and arrange space/materials for instruction.
- ___ ___ 23. helps teachers modify instruction to meet the individual needs of all students.
- ___ ___ 24. helps teachers use various research-based strategies to improve instruction.
- ___ ___ 25. helps teachers translate student objectives into daily lesson plans.
- ___ ___ 26. helps teachers plan appropriate learning objectives for special needs students.
- ___ ___ 27. helps teachers interpret and use assessment data that measures progress toward curricular goals and objectives.

CP I

- ___ 28. helps teachers monitor student progress on an ongoing basis.
- ___ 29. helps teachers provide special need students with feedback and praise.
- ___ 30. helps teachers develop strategies that help students self-monitor instructional behaviors.
- ___ 31. helps teachers evaluate the effectiveness of special programs and incorporate needed modifications.

II. In this section, please indicate the degree to which you feel each of the following seriously impede the principal's instructional effectiveness:

- | | <u>Never</u>
1 | <u>Sometimes</u>
2 | <u>Often</u>
3 | <u>Always</u>
4 |
|---------|---|-----------------------|-------------------|--------------------|
| ___ 32. | Lack of time | | | |
| ___ 33. | Lack of knowledge of special programs/curriculum | | | |
| ___ 34. | Lack of knowledge about students with disabilities | | | |
| ___ 35. | Lack of central office assistance | | | |
| ___ 36. | Lack of cooperation from special education teachers | | | |
| ___ 37. | Lack of cooperation from general education teachers | | | |

Please indicate the principal's need for staff development in each of the following areas

- | | <u>No Need</u>
1 | 2 | 3 | <u>Great Need</u>
4 |
|---------|--|---|---|------------------------|
| ___ 38. | Communication skills | | | |
| ___ 39. | Staff development needs of special educators | | | |
| ___ 40. | Systematic evaluation of special educators | | | |
| ___ 41. | Collaboration/Consultation skills | | | |
| ___ 42. | Prereferral interventions | | | |
| ___ 43. | Curriculum-based assessment | | | |
| ___ 44. | Individualized education plans | | | |
| ___ 45. | Evaluation of special education programs | | | |

<u>Not</u>				<u>Very</u>
<u>Effective</u>				<u>Effective</u>
1	2	3		4

___ 46. Please rate the overall effectiveness of the principal(s) in your school district as an instructional leader for special programs.

III. Demographic Information

Please provide the following information about yourself by blackening the corresponding circle on the opscan sheet if applicable. Please note that the number of response options varies for each item.

___ 47. (1) Male (2) Female

___ 48. Age (1) 25 or less (2) 26-30 (3) 31-35 (4) 36-40 (5) 41-45 (6) 46-50 (7) 51-55 (8) 56-60 (9) 61+

___ 49. Please indicate the racial or ethnic group with which you identify:
 (1) White
 (2) Black
 (3) Other

50. Current position title: _____

___ 51. Organizational Location: (1) Elementary
 (2) Middle/Jr. High (3) High School (4) Central Office

___ 52. How many years have you been in your current position?
 (1) 1 (2) 2 (3) 3 (4) 4 (5) 5 (6) 6-10 (7) 11-14 (8) 15-19 (9) 20-25
 (10) 26+

___ 53. How many years have you been in education altogether?
 (1) 1 (2) 2 (3) 3 (4) 4 (5) 5 (6) 6-10 (7) 11-14 (8) 15-19 (9) 20-25
 (10) 26+

___ 54. How many college credits courses have you completed in Special Education?
 (1) 0 (2) 1-2 (3) 3-4 (4) 5-10 (5) 10+

___ 55. How many in-service programs have you completed in Special Education?
 (1) 0 (2) 1-2 (3) 3-4 (4) 5-10 (5) 10+

___ 56. How many students are currently enrolled in your school district?
 (1) less than 2,500 (2) 2,500-10,000 (3) 10,000-15,000
 (4) 15,000-25,000 (5) 25,000+

___ 57. What percentage of students in your school district receive free lunch?

(1) less than 10% (2) 10%-30% (3) 30%-50%
(4) 50%-75% (5) 75%+

___ 58. How many special education teachers are in your district?

(1) 1 (2) 2 (3) 3 (4) 4 (5) 5 (6) 6 (7) 7 (8) 8 (9) 9 (10) 10+

Please indicate which of the following categorical programs are delivered in your school district:

Yes (1) No (2)

___ 59. Educable mentally impaired

___ 60. Trainable mentally impaired

___ 61. Severe and profound

___ 62. Learning disabled

___ 63. Emotionally disturbed

___ 64. Hearing impaired

___ 65. Visually impaired

___ 66. Physically handicapped

___ 67. Speech/Language impaired

___ 68. Other health impaired

Thank you for your assistance
Please return to:

Helen C. Williams
Director of Special Programs
Department of Correctional Education
101 N. 14th Street - 7th Floor
Richmond, Virginia 23219-3678

Questionnaire developed by Farley and Billingsley (1991).
Used with permission.

PLEASE NOTE

**Page(s) missing in number only; text follows.
Filmed as received.**

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RESPONSIBILITY CHART

Directions for Responsibility Charting: Using the responsibility chart below, place one of the following codes in the columns designated for the principal or special education administrator:

- A = APPROVES** - a person who is responsible for accepting or rejecting a decision before it is implemented.
- R = RESPONSIBLE** - the person who analyzes the situation, makes the initial recommendation and is accountable for the area.
- C = CONSULTED** - a person who must be consulted for input before a decision is made but who has no veto power.
- I = INFORMED** - someone who needs to know the outcome for other related tasks, but need not give input.
- S = SUPERVISE** - ensures that person responsible completes task accurately and on time.

Areas of Responsibility	Principal	Special Ed. Administrator
1. Encourages teacher participation in IEP meetings		
2. Special education paperwork (forms)		
3. Review of special education referrals		
4. Supervise the annual review, IEP and follow-up system process		
5. Provide special education communications (written) or by telephone		
6. Attend special education staff meetings (inside and outside of school district)		
7. Prepare and monitor special education budget		
8. Observe special education instruction		
9. Recruit, select and evaluate special education staff		
10. Develop special education curriculum and approve related activities such as field trips, etc.		
11. Coordinate transportation for handicapped students		
12. Arrange special education inservice programs		

ON-SITE TEACHER INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

COMMUNICATION

1. How does your principal communicate that the education of students with disabilities is the responsibility of all school staff?

2. What methods does your principal use to provide direction and active support to teachers and related services personnel regarding the goals and expectations of special education programs?

3. Give examples of how teachers have participated in the decision making in the planning of special education programs.

4. What is your principal's greatest strength in communicating with special education program staff?

5. How does your principal encourage your participation in professional growth activities and provide you with opportunities for collaborative planning of inservice activities?

6. Discuss examples of strategies your principal uses to provide ongoing assistance to you.

7. What do you think the staff development emphasis should be for special education staff at your school?

8. Should the principal or special education administrator plan and provide staff development activities? Why?

9. What incentives are provided by your principal for special education staff to participate in personal and professional growth activities?

What incentives would you recommend?

10. Identify the steps your principal uses in establishing clearly defined criteria to evaluate your performance.

11. What input does the special education administrator have in the teacher evaluation process at your school?

12. Cite examples of suggestions given by your principal during the evaluation process which would improve instructional effectiveness.

13. What would you suggest to improve the evaluation process currently used in your program?

COLLABORATION (Educators voluntarily working together to solve mutually identified problems)

14. What collaborative behaviors or strategies are encouraged by your principal?

15. Identify other collaborative behaviors you would like to see implemented by your principal.

INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAMMING

16. Cite examples of how your principal helps you identify and obtain resources for instruction.

17. How has your principal offered support in the following areas:

a. organizing and arranging space/materials for instruction

b. modify instruction to meet the individual needs of all students

- c. use of various research-based strategies improve instruction

- d. plan and develop learning objectives and lessons for the special needs students

- e. with behavior management strategies

- f. monitor student progress

- g. interpret and use assessment data to measure progress toward curricular goals and objectives

- h. evaluating program effectiveness using Outcome Accountability Standards

18. What would be the success factor you would use to rate the overall effectiveness of the instructional supervision you receive from your principal?

19. What observations or suggestions would you make to your principal concerning his/her overall supervisory effectiveness?

20. What observations or suggestions would you make regarding the support you receive from your special education central office staff?

21. Would you like to receive more feedback and assistance from your principal and special education administrator?

22. What obstacles do you feel impede your principal's effectiveness in working with the students and teachers in the special needs program?

**SPECIAL EDUCATION ADMINISTRATOR'S
INTERVIEW QUESTIONS**

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1. How does your relationship differ with principals who you consider to operate effective special education programs?

2. Identify the types of issues you discuss with principals who have effective programs.

What is your preferred method of communication with them?

3. What methods do you use to discuss the Outcome Accountability Project standards with principals of special education programs?

4. What are the major concerns of principals regarding their special education programs?

How are the concerns different from principals with effective programs?

5. How often do you visit schools housing special education programs and talk to the teachers and principal?

Do you participate in the teacher evaluation program? _____

- 6. Identify some projects jointly planned with principals who supervise special education programs.

- 7. Do you feel the organizational structure of your school division is effective in delivering special education services to the schools? Why or why not?

- 8. Could the structure be organized to better deliver assistance to principals and teachers?

- 9. What is your role in the staff development process for special education teachers and other staff working with disabled students?

ON-SITE PRINCIPAL INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. How would you describe your relationship with the Special Education Administrator in your district?

2. Identify the types of issues you discuss with your Special Education Administrator.

3. What methods do you use to discuss the OAP (Outcome Accountability Project) standards with your special education staff?

What are the teachers' concerns about them?

4. What are the major concerns of your special education administrator about your program?

5. What is the best method to communicate with your special education administrator?

6. How often does your Special Education Administrator visit your school?

7. Identify some projects jointly planned with the Special Education Administrator.

8. Do you feel the organizational structure of your school division is effective in delivering special education services to the school? Why or why not?

9. Could the organizational structure be organized to better deliver assistance to principals and teachers?

10. What is the greatest obstacle you face in implementing a special education program(s)?

SITE VISIT SUMMARY

Date: _____

Location: _____

Informants:

Documents/Artifacts Collected:

General Observations:

HELEN C. WILLIAMS
Director of Special Programs
Department of Correctional Education
101 North 14th Street, 7th Floor
Richmond, VA 23219

July 8, 1993

Dear Superintendent:

My research analysis of the role of the principal in Special Education programs is nearly at a close. I would like to take this opportunity to thank you and your staff for your participation in this project.

A research project such as this can be, at times, tedious and always a monumental task. The information provided by the administrators, teachers and principals in your school district is a tremendous asset. It will be of great assistance in my endeavor.

Again, thank you for your generous support and timely response. All that remains, after the data from each school district is complete, is to analyze the results. Once this is accomplished, these findings will be made available to you upon your request. If you have any further concerns or would like a copy of the results of the research, you can reach me at (804) 225-3328.

Sincerely,

Helen C. Williams
Director of Special Programs

HCW/jrp

DATE:

DISTRICT:

SCHOOL:

STAFF:

SITE INFORMATION SUMMARY MATRIX

Communication:

Staff Development:

Systematic Evaluation of Teachers:

Collaboration:

Instructional Programming:

SUMMARY TABLE FOR STUDY QUESTIONS #1 AND #2

Communication:

Staff Development:

Systematic Evaluation of Teachers:

Collaboration:

Instructional Programming:

**SUMMARY TABLE FOR QUESTION #3
INSTRUCTIONAL BARRIERS**

Questionnaire Results:

Interview Documentation:

Observations:

DATE:

DISTRICT:

SCHOOL:

STAFF:

DOCUMENT SUMMARY FORM

Name or Description of Document:

Related Event:

Significance of Document:

Summary of Contents:

Value to Study:

1. Introduction to the Outcome Accountability Project (OAP)

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Two of the primary roles of the State Board of Education and the Department of Education are to focus on the progress of Virginia's schools and monitor the overall condition of public education in the Commonwealth. Virginia's Outcome Accountability Project (OAP) helps fulfill these roles by reporting each division's and school's progress toward improved student performance. OAP provides information that emphasizes student performance which can be used to improve state and local policies and programs that support student learning. OAP also represents a commitment by the Board of Education to reorient school accountability in the state. School accountability in Virginia has traditionally monitored the allocation of school resources. OAP instead focuses accountability on student performance, and puts Virginia within the mainstream of other states that are changing school and division accountability.

OAP is an integral part of Virginia's World Class Education (WCE) initiative to restructure public education in grades kindergarten through 12. The WCE initiative is designed to enable all children to attain important outcomes and competencies through their educational experiences. OAP will serve as a source of information to assist educators and the public in determining the progress of students in meeting the goals of WCE.

Both WCE and OAP focus on student outcomes. As WCE is implemented in Virginia schools, OAP will evolve to reflect the new student outcomes approach to designing and delivering education. This evolution may require revising, adding, or deleting information contained in the OAP reports. Information may be regrouped to better represent expectations for students specified by WCE and the Common Core of Learning, Virginia's statement of expected outcomes for all students as a result of their K-12 experience. The changes in OAP will be systematically phased in as the WCE reform effort progresses. Specific elements that will contribute to the revision of OAP include information from school based transformation sites, development of new measures for assessing student outcomes, and changes in Standards of Quality and Standards of Accreditation requirements. Although the indicators and the organization of indicators will change, OAP reports will continue to reflect each division's and school's progress in meeting educational goals.

Purpose of OAP

The OAP reports help educators and the public determine the success of their schools, recognize schools for their progress and achievements, and use available resources more effectively. The emphasis is on providing information to local educators to initiate changes to increase student learning and performance based on local needs. To achieve this goal, a broad range of indicators of student performance and progress have been developed for Virginia's education system.

While the OAP reports inform state policymakers, local educators, parents, and the public about the progress schools are making toward improved student performance, the information does not provide definitive answers on what constitutes

effective instructional practices, or exactly where changes should be made to division or school educational programs. Such decisions can only be made through more intensive evaluation. OAP data serve only as broad indicators of the educational condition of the state, a division, or a school. The reports measure many important educational outcomes but do not provide information on all aspects of a division's or school's educational program. There are many desirable outcomes resulting from unique or innovative programs that the reports do not address or measure. 123

The OAP reports are not a diagnostic tool; however, they can be used to flag areas that merit further attention. This function of the OAP indicators can be compared to that of a thermostat in an automobile. The thermostat monitors an automobile's cooling system and warns the driver if the engine is overheating — but it does not diagnose the cause. In the same way, the OAP indicators can help in monitoring the overall health of the state's educational system and assist in identifying areas that warrant further review.

Development of OAP

The concept of outcome accountability was formally established in 1988 through the state's Standards of Quality. The Board of Education also endorsed the state's role in developing an outcome accountability system for public schools. The 1993 OAP reports represent the third year of information on school divisions, and the second year of data on individual schools.

In addition to the revision of the OAP system of reports discussed on page 3, another aspect of long-term change relates to the development of criteria for assessing the educational performance of school divisions and schools. As prescribed in the 1992 Standards of Quality, "the Superintendent of Public Instruction shall develop and the Board of Education shall approve criteria for determining and recognizing educational performance in the Commonwealth's public school divisions and schools. Such criteria, when approved, shall become an integral part of the accreditation process and shall include student outcome measurements." The OAP team, under the direction of the Superintendent, will continue to develop alternatives for establishing criteria for review and subsequent approval by the Board.

Lastly, state and local strategies will be developed for using OAP information to improve practices and increase student performance statewide. Future development of indicators, criteria, and utilization processes will be areas in which input and feedback will be actively sought from educators across the state. The OAP reports are part of an ongoing research and development process.

** Reproduced from the Virginia Department of Education's
1993 Interpretive Guide to Reports (a public document).

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**AN ANALYSIS OF THE ROLE OF PRINCIPALS
SUPERVISING PROGRAMS FOR STUDENTS WITH DISABILITIES**

ABSTRACT

This case study was concerned with examining the role of principals supervising programs for students with disabilities in effective schools as defined by the Virginia Department of Education's Outcome Accountability Project (OAP). In order to do this, three questions were framed in the first chapter, and after reviewing the literature, a research design was developed which allowed data relative to the study questions to be collected. Multiple data sources were used in this investigation.

From the data collected and analyzed in this study, three major conclusions may be drawn. The first major finding is that the role of the principal in a school with an effective special education program, as defined by using the Outcome Accountability Project (OAP) indicators, does differ from the role of a principal in a school with a lower OAP rating. Differences were found in practices that addressed behaviors in the following performance areas: communication, staff development, systematic evaluation of instruction, collaboration, and instructional programming.

The second conclusion is that the interaction between the special education administrator and principal of an effective OAP defined school does differ from that of a special education administrator and principal in a school with a less effective OAP rating. Interviews with principals and special education administrators and the results from the responsibility chart delineated best practice behaviors for principals in effective OAP schools.

The third major finding from this study identified lack of time, lack of knowledge of special programs/curriculum and lack of central office assistance as the three main obstacles that impede the instructional effectiveness of principals. Supporting documentation from the interviews indicated the effects of these obstacles.

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