

A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF SUPERVISORY SKILLS
AMONG SPECIAL EDUCATION DIRECTORS

By

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The beginning of the end of the final phase of a quiet revolution to achieve public policy affirming the right to an education for every child with a handicap was on November 29, 1975. On that day, President Gerald Ford signed into law Public Law (P.L.) 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, which became fully effective September, 1978. This law was built heavily on the victories that were won in the nation's courts and state legislatures, and concluded the policy revolution begun in 1970. From the beginning, P.L. 94-142 was based upon principles of sound educational practice that were pioneered and articulated by special educators (Abeson and Zettel, 1977). In 1954, the Supreme Court handed down a decision that influenced the advocates for the handicapped in the case of Brown v. Board of Education (1954) (Corrigan, 1978). The right to an education for exceptional children had a judicial awakening in the latter part of the 1960's and had roots in the 1960's Civil Rights Movement. It was felt that segregation had harmful effects on both the individual who is segregated and the individual who does the segregating (Friedman, 1969). Parents of handicapped children joined with Civil Rights lawyers to attack segregated settings for the handicapped on many of the same issues that were used by other advocates who were attacking segregation based on race (Corrigan, 1978). A growing amount of evidence as to the ability of exception children to benefit from an education had been emerging from such cases as Vought v. Van

Buren Public Schools (1969), Soglin v. Kauffman (1968), and Dixon v. Alabama State Board of Education (1961). School districts, for a variety of reasons, had not responded to such information with any degree of urgency. Those districts that were providing special services were often alienating already frustrated parents by: (1) failing to consult with them over testing and placement procedures, (2) failing to provide adequate and sufficient resources, facilities, and staff to accommodate all the children needing special help, and (3) failing to eliminate long waiting periods between diagnosis and placement. Finally, parents and various groups began turning to the courts for help. They relied upon expert testimony that exceptional children could benefit from a program of education and training (Gee and Sperry, 1978). In 1972, the hard work by advocates for the handicapped paid off when the decision in the landmark court case in Pennsylvania (Pennsylvania Association for Retarded Children (PARC) v. Commonwealth (1972) ordered zero rejection for a free education in the public schools for retarded children. Out of the 15,000 retarded children previously denied admittance to the public schools, approximately 52% were only mildly retarded (Gilhool, 1976). The Peter Mills case in Washington, D.C. (Mills v. Board of Education of the District of Columbia 1972) extended the zero rejection to all handicaps. Parental rights to due process hearings, as well as integration, were recognized in these and other cases (Weintraub et al., 1976).

A widely cited U.S. Supreme Court decision, Goss v. Lopez (1975) served as the precedent for many later cases involving the suspension or expulsion of special education students. In Goss, the Court decided that students facing temporary suspension from school were entitled to protection under the due process clause of the Fourteenth Amendment (Davis, 1986).

An extremely important and controversial issue of bias in assessment in the identification of black students as mentally retarded, and their subsequent placement in special classes was addressed in Larry P. v. Riles (1972). The original complaint was filed in 1971 on behalf of black students in California who had been placed in special classes for the educable mentally retarded, as well as on behalf of those black students who, in the future, might be inappropriately placed in such classes. The major issue and complaint in the case was that the standardized intelligence tests used to identify and place black students in special education classes were racially biased. The defendant was Wilson Riles, Superintendent of Instruction in California. In 1972, the Court ruled that the original case could proceed as a legitimate class action suit on behalf of all black children in San Francisco who had been placed in EMR classes as a result of the stated intelligence tests. In 1974, the Court prohibited the use of culturally biased tests with black students in California, along with the placement of black children in EMR classes based upon culturally discriminatory test results.

An amended complaint was filed by the plaintiffs in 1977, and they were joined by the U.S. Department of Justice as amicus curiae during the same year. In 1979, Judge Robert Peckham ruled in favor of the plaintiffs (Davis, 1986).

In a landmark decision (Pennhurst State School v. Halderman, 1981), the U.S. Supreme Court interpreted the Developmental Disabilities Assistance and Bill of Rights Act of 1975 (P.L. 94-103) as an encouragement to provide a continuum of services to mentally retarded and mentally ill persons, including those in an institutional setting. The Supreme Court's ruling did not require the closing of Pennhurst, but required the state to provide community placements only for those residents of

Pennhurst who were judged to be capable of succeeding in lesser restrictive settings. Each placement was to be determined on a case-by-case basis. However, in July of 1984, after 10 years of litigation, Pennsylvania officials finally agreed to a settlement to shut down the Pennhurst facility by July 1, 1986 (Davis, 1986).

Prior to the closing of Pennhurst, another landmark U.S. Supreme Court case, Youngberg v. Romeo (1982), established for the first time the right of institutionalized mentally retarded persons to habilitation and protection from harm. Nicholas Romeo, a profoundly retarded person, sued (through his mother) the administrators of Pennhurst State School on the grounds that he had been injured several times and that he had not been protected from injury. Also, they claimed he was not provided with adequate habilitation, was kept in physical restraints unnecessarily, and that his constitutional rights had been violated. They asked that he be awarded monetary damages.

The U.S. Supreme Court ruled unanimously in favor of Romeo and an undisclosed amount of money was awarded to him for damages sustained. The decision clearly established the protection that the U.S. Constitution affords mentally retarded persons who are institutionalized, emphasizing their rights to: (1) be free from harm, (2) be free from unnecessary restraints, and (3) receive minimally adequate or reasonable training to assure safety and freedom from restraint (Davis, 1986).

S-1 v. Turlington (1981) is one of the most frequently cited rulings on the subject of disciplining special education students, especially when the disciplinary action involves proposed suspension or expulsion. Based on Turlington and other judicial decisions, short-term emergency suspensions (not to exceed three school days) can be imposed on handicapped students. Also found in P.L. 94-142 is the regulation that

states, "A school district may use its normal procedures for dealing with children who are endangering themselves or others." However, the Court reaffirmed that students who are expelled are entitled to full due process hearing procedures as outlined in P.L. 94-142 and Section 504 of P.L. 93-112 (Davis, 1986).

On September 1, 1965, P.L. 88-164, an expansion of P.L. 85-926 and P.L. 87-276, provided assistance for the preparation of administrators and coordinators of programs of special education in state and local school systems. Implicit in the directives of P.L. 85-926 was the notion that state and local leadership personnel in special education acquire a unique and specific kind of training to fill that position, even though much of their training and background has a commonality with regular education. It was deemed essential that special education state directors and supervisors be selected on the basis of special training, special experiences, special merit, and leadership abilities (Milazzo and Blessing, 1964).

When President Ford signed the Education for All Handicapped Children Act in 1975, the quiet revolution to achieve the basic education rights of all children with handicaps came into existence. Abeson and Zettel (1977) noted that Congress wrote into this comprehensive law extensive management and financial aspects; for example, the mandate to operationalize the concept of "least restrictive environment." The regulations established a need for special education administrators/directors; i.e., personnel who have a clear understanding and interpretation of this law for the establishment and maintenance of a comprehensive special education program. Now, the two most common methods of preparation for the role of special education administrator/director have been special education coursework for teacher certification with

on-the-job experience and through a program with specific standards for developing leadership and management skills in regular and special education.

Background of the Problem

Lack of training for Oklahoma's special education directors came to the attention of the researcher when employed by the Oklahoma State Department of Education as administrator of the Tulsa-Okmulgee Regional Education Service Center. She discovered that a high percentage of new special education directors required extensive inservice and consults after assuming that position. For the vast majority of the new directors, their only previous experience was as a special education teacher or therapist. Very few of the new directors had administrative experience or training. In most of the situations, they were trained by their predecessor prior to the director leaving, with limited information being exchanged. Specific supervisory tasks such as providing the curriculum, developing learning materials, dealing with staffing issues, providing inservice, and evaluating the instructional process were learned through on-the-job experiences.

Special education administrators are recognized publicly as the head of the special education program with considerable authority to plan, organize, budget, and otherwise control the programs (Marro and Kohl, 1981). With the public demanding more accountability in education (accountability refers not only to the products of the education enterprise, but also to the responsibility for those products), it is increasingly important that educational leaders attend to the results of schooling. Equally important is the development of knowledge that can help school leaders improve the products of education (Silver, 1983).

Bureaucracy theory is directly concerned with outcomes or products. Theoretically, the more closely an organization approximates the ideal bureaucracy characterized by Weber (1973), the more efficient and rational it is. In education, this would mean that goal attainment is most direct and cost effective when schools and school districts have the characteristics of bureaucracies. Weber's theory of bureaucracy identified characteristics of legal structures that both individually and interactionally maximize organizational efficiency. These features are: hierarchy of offices, rules and regulations, specialization of tasks, impersonality, written records, salaried personnel, and organizational control of resources. One of the characteristics or key constructs is specialization of tasks. All the work performed within an organization is divided among offices, and each office is associated with one type of work. This enables employees to become highly proficient at particular tasks and to acquire specialized training to enhance their expertise.

Specialization of tasks, for example, may mean division by grade level, subject, hierarchial position, or particular functions, and enables staff members to become highly proficient in their areas by gaining expertise in a particular area. Supervisory and administrative tasks, when performed by specialized educators, can affect to some extent the degree of bureaucratization within their own school organization. The regular tasks associated with supervision required by the school organization are considered the official duties of the specialized educator. This characteristic of bureaucracy can have some bearing on student outcomes. According to Weber's (1973) theory, it can be a useful framework for generating knowledge to guide administrative practice. Applying Weber's theory to special education directors and requiring specialized training in administrative tasks, supervision in particular, as the

directors' official duties, promotes educational success and learning in the classroom.

While working with special education directors from various sized public schools, the researcher discovered that the amount and type of assistance requested varied by the size of the school district. In a study of 252 public personnel agencies, Blu, Heydebrand, and Stauffer (1966) found that organizational size was directly related to functional specialization, but not to other aspects of bureaucracy.

The amount of inservice time the researcher spent with special education directors appeared to be influenced by the number of years of experience as director. Bridges (1965) found that elementary school principals become more similar to each other in behavior patterns the longer they serve. This was found also in a study in a nonschool setting that people tend to adopt the behavior patterns and value orientations of those in their organization over time (Denhardt, 1968). This suggested that employees in bureaucracies become more bureaucratic as tenure increases.

The researcher noticed that in Oklahoma there are more female special education directors than male directors. Leader behavior studies that considered school administrators' personal characteristics have indicated that principals' gender and conceptual complexity affect their behavior patterns. In a study of 30 secondary schools (15 headed by women and an equal number headed by men), the female principals were found to obtain significantly higher representation, demand reconciliation, predictive accuracy, integration, and superior orientation scores, but lower tolerance of freedom scores than did male principals (Morsink, 1969). It could be conjectured that if gender affects behavior, it would

influence how directors perceived their supervisor skills according to gender.

Jones (1990) analyzed 147 gender difference tests reported in the first 22 volumes of the Educational Administration Quarterly (EAQ), and found that just 6 of these 147 statistical tests provided sufficient evidence to support a gender difference hypothesis. A gender difference was detected for only 4 (6%) of the 71 statistical tests published in the EAQ between 1972 (volume 8) and 1976 (volume 12). A gender difference was detected for only 2 (3%) of the 76 statistical tests published in the EAQ between 1978 (volume 14) and 1984 (volume 20).

Morris (1992) stated that in the Department of Labor report for the first three quarters of 1991, women earned an average of 74 cents for every dollar earned by men. The size of the gap varied from one profession to the next. In fields where there was a predominance of women, such as teaching and nursing, the gap was smaller still. But female-dominated fields tended to be lower paying than did male-dominated fields with comparable training requirements.

A virtual flood of federal and state regulations has been adopted to implement legislation and judicial mandates involving handicapped students. Local education agencies have seen their staffs, their programs, and their budgets grow rapidly to meet and to satisfy those regulations. Ebersdorfer (1973) wrote that administration of special education has become exceedingly complex since the 1960's. Not the least of these problems is locating qualified individuals to direct and coordinate special education services at the local level.

To date, no clear conceptualization has emerged concerning the responsibilities and competencies of special education administrators or directors. Several patterns, however, are noticeable. Some local

districts have elevated a successful teacher to the position, perceiving the role to be largely that of consultant to classroom teachers. Other districts viewed the job to be one of management and appointed an experienced general administrator (Whitworth and Hatley, 1982). Yet, the actual role of special education director remains an ambiguous one that has led to a great deal of confusion. Weatherman and Dobbert (1975) wrote that in considering the development of programs for directors, a need has become apparent to find a precise definition of the curriculum which is difficult because of the frequent ambiguity of the special education administrator's role.

Statement of the Problem

The focus of this research was to determine the perceived supervisory competencies of special education directors and to compare these skills among special education directors who are certified and noncertified, among male and female special education directors, among special education directors from various district sizes, and supervisory skills among special education directors with various years of experience.

The following questions were developed for this project as the result of previous suppositions:

1. Do certified special education directors perceive their supervisory competencies significantly different from noncertified directors in: (a) five major task areas, and/or (b) 23 subcompetency areas?

2. Do special education directors perceive their supervisory competencies significantly different from various sized public school districts in: (a) five major task areas, and/or (b) 23 subcompetency areas?

3. Do special education directors perceive their supervisory competencies significantly different by male and female directors in: (a) five major task areas, and/or (b) 23 subcompetency areas?

4. Do special education directors perceive their supervisory competencies significantly different with various years of experience in: (a) five major task areas, and/or (b) 23 subcompetency areas?

Significance of the Study

The intent of Congress was to ensure that P.L. 94-142 provided for the education of all handicapped children and was reflected in its four major purposes:

1. To assure that all handicapped children have a free appropriate education which emphasizes special education and related services to meet their needs.

2. To assure that the right of handicapped children and parents are protected.

3. To assist states and localities in providing for the education of all handicapped children.

4. To assess and assure the effectiveness of efforts to educate handicapped children (Johnson, 1983).

In recent years, a dramatic increase has been seen in the number of identified handicapped children as evidenced on the yearly federal child count resulting in more services and programs being provided in the local district (Whitworth and Hatley, 1982). Cole and Dunn (1977) wrote that, as a result of P.L. 94-142, special education has come out of the closet and general education may be forced to change as well.

In response to this problem, a research project was funded by the U.S. Office of Education, Bureau of Education for the Handicapped. Its

purpose was to define the role and needed skills of the special education administrator. A component of this study was a series of structured interviews with local administrators of special education in Kansas and Missouri (Whitworth and Hatley, 1982). Responses to a number of the questions posed by that interview revealed several facts.

First, the largest percentage of directors enjoyed the creative aspect of their jobs most of all. A number of directors expressed satisfaction, particularly with the task of developing new delivery systems and solving problems relating to individual students. A large percentage of directors also enjoyed working with parents and children. In this category, the director's interactions included speaking to civic and parent groups and teaching other professionals. Problem-solving was listed as the least most enjoyable activity. In this case, problem-solving involved the financial and legal aspects of special education (Whitworth and Hatley, 1982).

Second, there are several activities which directors clearly disliked. Leading the list is the amount of paper work involved in the administering of special education programs. Most directors were specifically concerned about the confinement involved in working with budgets and forms and were jealous of the time these activities kept them from spending with teachers and students. Close behind paper work on directors' lists of dislikes were inservicing and changing the attitudes of regular educators. An additional dislike was the task of constantly being forced to defend the work and efficacy of special education to regular educators (Whitworth and Hatley, 1982).

A third finding was the difficulty of locating adequately trained personnel because of the diversity and uniqueness that exists in the role and responsibilities of local directors of special education. Along with

this problem went the task of locating special training programs for these professionals due to the variability of the job functions. On the other hand, it was suggested that careful development of training programs and standards might result in standardization and clarity in the job descriptions of special education directors (Whitworth and Hatley, 1982).

Heller (1983) stated that standards can provide a basis for institutional excellence. They provide the basis for evaluating practice and personnel preparation. Standards, in fact, derive their meaning through interpretation by those who are expected to abide by them. To the reader who is unfamiliar with either accreditation or quality control, review procedures and processes, it may appear that standards are really nothing more than statements of good practice or preparation. This is supported by the tendency of standards not to state how much is enough or how little is too little. Heller believed that it is important to recognize that a standard does not delineate program perspective, context, or philosophy. Instead, it provides a measure against which to compare individual performance or the relative equality of preparation programs.

Heller (1983) believed that in judging performance against a standard, a reasonable range of flexibility, latitude, and creativity is assumed. It is important that interpretation does not become so rigid and precise that the field of special education produces a series of clones. The value of a standard is that it provides a judgmental framework within which to evaluate performance.

The need for preparation programs and certification requirements imposed on special education directors emerges from: (1) conflicting views of how their role is perceived, and (2) what skills are necessary to meet the challenges and demands of that role. Generally, the scanty

literature described special education leadership as heavily saddled with administrative responsibilities but with a high consciousness of the need for instructional supervision as well (Anderson, 1982). Administration, counseling, school psychology, and special education have all attained a prominence in the colleges of education that have generally been denied to instructional supervision, although instructional supervision is essential to the achievement of educational purposes (Alfonso and Firth, 1990). P.L. 94-142 defined special education as being a specially designed instruction to meet the unique needs of a handicapped child, including instruction in the classroom, physical education, home, hospitals, and institutions. This supported the premise that a strong instructional program promotes educational success. Therefore, requiring courses in supervision can be justified on the basis that it promotes learning in the classroom.

First and Carr (1987) believed that if one scans current literature from legislatures, panels, and committees dealing with educational reform, the word "supervision" seems to come to the forefront. In the absence of any commonly accepted and refined definition of supervision (other than to improve instruction), research has historically been fragmented. The problem of definition extends to practice, where supervisors are called on to perform a variety of tasks, many only remotely related to monitoring and improving teacher performance. Alfonso and Firth (1990) felt that research in instructional supervision should be based largely on the realities of life and work in school organizations. Although we need to encourage visions of the future of radically different forms of school organization and professional interaction, instructional supervision, at the moment, most needs systematic, focused inquiry. Previous studies have indicated only minor differences between

preparation programs and certification requirements for supervisors and administrators. This research was developed to explore what supervisory competencies are perceived as being possessed by special education directors when considered by specific categories. The results of this study were to add information to help clarify the aforementioned concerns.

Without question, the key to any profession is the quality of the professionals who practice as its members. The success of special education throughout history has been the result of individuals who cared, who were highly capable, and who served competently (Heller, 1983).

Since the preparation of directors of special education is varied and inconsistent, unique supervisory skills may not be essential to successfully interact within a system for improvement of instruction. Because of the vague roles and diffused nature of supervision in schools, this research was an attempt to investigate the supervisory competencies of directors of special education.

Limitation of the Study

This study was limited to special education directors in Oklahoma and Kansas. A list of all the "Local Directors of Special Education" was obtained from the Special Education Section, Kansas State Department of Education. The directors of special education in Kansas were administrators who were assigned that role in the various organizational structures of local educational agencies, special education cooperatives, and interlocals. Kansas' directors of special education are required to possess certification that is acquired by successfully completing a training program that includes coursework requirements from general education and special education. Hours in supervision are listed as a prerequisite for

admission to the program. All special education directors from the list were contacted and were asked to participate in the research study.

A list of special education directors from Oklahoma was obtained from the Oklahoma Directors of Special Services (ODSS). ODSS is a state-wide organization and is open to directors from all areas of Oklahoma. The directors of special education in Oklahoma were administrators in local educational agencies and special education cooperatives. The single stipulation for Oklahoma directors of special education is certification in one area of special education if their salary is paid from federal flow-through funds. No general or special administrative courses are required to hold the position as director of special education in Oklahoma. However, there may have been some special education directors who were included in the Oklahoma population and who had been certified in other states before coming to work in Oklahoma.

The instrument used in this study focused on one area, supervision. The five major task areas on the instrument were related to the function of supervision. The respondents made their selections based on their perceived skills, which may or may not be realistic perceptions.

Definition of Terms

For the purposes of this study, terms which were important for its understanding are defined as follows:

Accreditation. A public or other official declaration that a given school has conformed to a prescribed set of standards. As a process, educational accreditation is designed primarily to assure the general public that schools do meet standards of quality, and to identify the deficiencies of schools that do not (Gee and Sperry, 1978).

Delivery System. The method of providing services to handicapped children.

Exceptional Children. Children who deviate from the average in physical, mental, emotional, or social characteristics to such an extent that they require special educational facilities or services (Gee and Sperry, 1978).

Free Appropriate Public Education--Special Education and related services which: (1) have been provided at public expense, under public supervision and direction, and without charge; (2) meet the standards of the State Educational Agency; (3) include an appropriate preschool, elementary, or secondary school education in the state involved; and (4) are provided in conformity with the individualized education program (Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, 1977).

Handicapped Children. The mentally retarded, hard of hearing, deaf, speech impaired, visually handicapped, seriously emotionally disturbed, orthopedically impaired, or other health impaired; or children with specific learning disabilities, who by reason thereof, require Special Education and related services (Educational for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, 1977).

Interlocal. Any legal entity which relates to educational services and is limited to one or more of the following: special education, vocational education, career education, media services, curriculum development, and inservice training for staff programs (Kansas Statutes Annotated, 12-2904, 72-8230).

Least Restrictive Environment. The concept of the handicapped student placed in the least segregated environment in which an appropriate educational program can still be delivered. The handicapped child's educational environment should not deviate from that made available to

nonhandicapped children, except to the extent that the individual educational needs of the child dictate the change (Oklahoma Policies and Procedures for Special Education, 1991).

Public Law 94-142. The purpose of this act was to assure that all handicapped children have available to them a free appropriate public education which emphasizes special education and related services designed to meet their unique needs, to assure that the rights of handicapped children and their parents or guardians are protected, to assist states and localities to provide for the education of all handicapped children, and to assess and assure the effectiveness of efforts to educate handicapped children (Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, 1977).

Related Services. Transportation and such developmental, corrective, and other supportive service (including speech pathology and audiology, psychological services, physical and occupational therapy, recreation, and medical and counseling services, except that such medical services shall be for diagnostic and evaluation purposes only) as may be required to assist a handicapped child to benefit from special education, and includes the early identification and assessment of handicapping conditions in children (Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, 1977).

Special Education. Specially designed instruction, at no cost to parents or guardians, to meet the unique needs of a handicapped child, including classroom instruction, instruction in physical education, home instruction, and instruction in hospitals and institutions (Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, 1977).

Special Education Director Any administrator recognized publicly as the head of the Special Education Program with considerable authority to

plan, organize, budget, and otherwise control the program (Marro and Kohl, 1981).

Supervision. Instruction that school personnel do with adults and things to maintain or change the school operation in ways that directly influence the teaching processes employed to promote pupil learning. It is directed toward both maintaining and improving the teaching-learning processes of the school (Harris, 1985).

Summary

The role and responsibility of each school organization for the education of all handicapped children is well defined in P.L. 94-142. However, the roles and responsibilities of directors of special education are nearly as varied and diverse as the number of school organizations found in Oklahoma and Kansas. With such ambiguity existing in the schools regarding the functional tasks in special education administration, the researcher limited the study to only one area in administrative training--supervision. Supervision was listed as a prerequisite for admission into the training program for directors of special education in Kansas. The relationship of supervision to special education becomes clearer when the focus is placed on the improvement of the instructional program and designed instruction to meet the unique needs of a handicapped child.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

In reviewing the literature on leadership in special education programs, several areas have been identified for emphasis: the training programs for directors of special education, specific training programs for directors of special education, and the leadership role of directors of special education.

Training Programs for Directors of Special Education

The education profession has a continuing commitment to improve the quality of teacher and administrator training programs, and ultimately, to improve the quality of education for all American children and youth. This commitment is exemplified by the advocacy of equal opportunity, unlimited access, unconditional acceptance, and total responsiveness to individual differences. The support for the education of all exceptional individuals is not only an endorsement of a mandate, which is the culmination of a struggle on behalf of a neglected minority, it exists as part of our continuing quest for quality education to maximize the potential of each individual (Corrigan, 1978). Corrigan found that:

Such a concept of education requires a modification of existing roles as well as the creation of new roles. The professional educator will need to be a person with new skills, attitudes, and personal qualities--a person who is a non-traditional

thinker, one who is a change agent, a conserver of human resources, one who values knowledge production. His/her orientation will be dynamic, based on a continuing renewal concept of knowledge, attitude, and behavior acquisition. This professional is an accepting person--capable of giving unconditional acceptance to students' differences, as well as recognition to the contributions of parents and others who share responsibility for a child's education. He/she is trained as a member of a differentiated instructional team, able to utilize both human and technological resources, able to function as a team member--sometimes in a leadership role, other times as a supportive observer, sometimes as a catalyst, and other times as a consumer of technical assistance (p. 45).

It is the task of schools, colleges, and departments of education engaged in the preparation of professional educators to design training programs responsive to their needs.

Looking back at training programs for administrators and directors of special education, it appears that in 1906, Teachers College, Columbia University in New York was the first to offer a course in administration of special education. A few other universities followed by adding one course, usually an elective, to be taken when something more suitable was not available that semester (Henderson, 1968).

Very few universities had faculty members who were qualified, or who desired to teach a course in special education administration. The qualified, well prepared, experienced administrator of special education was out in the field working and at salaries which were unavailable to the university faculty (Henderson, 1968).

Connor (1966) noted that in the third year (1965) of P.L. 88-164, the U.S. Office of Education announced that fellowships would be available for preparation in special education administration, as well as disability categories. The provisions of these grants were geared toward stimulating variations in administrator preparation, advancing new and creative trends for advanced students, and employing full time university personnel specializing in special education administration.

Henderson (1968) stated that, even with P.L. 85-926, allowing each state two graduate fellowships for preparing ". . . leadership personnel for the mentally retarded" (p. 381), university programs did not change dramatically. However, with the extension of P.L. 85-926 to all areas of the handicapped by the amendments contained in P.L. 88-164, a separate category of administration and supervision programs was established, with a special ad hoc committee developed to evaluate proposals for funding. The first committee took the position that any preparation program for administrators should be an identifiable program of study at the advanced graduate level, with qualified, experienced staff members devoting major effort to the program exclusively.

Implicit in the directives of P.L. 85-926, as amended by Title III of P.L. 88-164, is the notion that state and local leadership personnel in special education require a somewhat unique and specific kind of professional apprenticeship if they are to fulfill their leadership role and function--servicing handicapped children and youth. Granted, their basic role was in the field of public education and much of their training and background had a commonality with regular education, but it was essential, nonetheless, that special education state directors and supervisors be selected on the basis of special training, special experiences, special merit, and demonstrated leadership ability (Milazzo and Blessing, 1964).

Several areas should be explored when considering training and accrediting directors and supervisors of special education. They were listed by Milazzo and Blessing (1964) as follows:

1. The background of experience and preparation which is most valuable for both directors and supervisors is the field of education rather than psychology, social work, medicine, or some other closely related discipline.

2. Personnel aspiring to leadership positions in state level service will receive more training and experience in college and university regional centers which have been accredited in the areas of supervision and coordination of local and state programs for exceptional children. These centers will have already been previously accredited for teacher preparation in general and in several areas of special education by national accrediting agencies.
3. Centers for training state and local leadership personnel should meet as high level qualifications and criteria as those applied by the Commissioner of Education to recipients of Section 1 fellowships under P.L. 85-926. Since, in many of the regional centers staff members will undoubtedly be utilized in both: (a) teacher training, and (b) advanced preparation of directors and supervisors, accreditation should be based upon ability to provide adequately for training of the latter group.
4. Accredited programs in supervision and coordination should serve broad areas on a regional basis, as there is currently a dearth of skilled experienced instructors in this phase of the total special education program.
5. Accredited training centers should have developed cooperative arrangements with extra-school agencies and resources to assure leadership trainees opportunities for diverse kinds of observation, field experiences, and internships. Provisions of these additional training arrangements will insure candidates of broad experiential backgrounds and will fill gaps in these backgrounds where indicated.
6. In educational centers where training is designed to equip individuals for college teacher training and special education research, provision should be made for the cooperative utilization of these staff members in the graduate level training of supervisory and director personnel.
7. In these educational centers, accreditation will have already been obtained, or be sought, for the undergraduate preparation of teaching personnel in at least two (and preferably more) areas of exceptionality. This would also conceivably include the advanced preparation of graduate level personnel in at least two areas of special education. Breadth in theory and practice opportunities in special education should be the criteria sought.
8. It is assumed that candidates seeking training in an advanced program of special education supervision or coordination will have already met the requirements for teaching, both in the major area of exceptionality and in the teaching of normal children. Candidates lacking this experience background should be required to fulfill this requirement through tailored course sequences and teaching internships

- before being recommended as competent to serve as a state supervisor, coordinator, or director of special education.
9. It is presumed that trainees would be required to have a comprehensive understanding of general educational administration and/or supervisory functions, as well as the related aspects of the relationships of special education to general education.
 10. Graduates of these training institutions would meet state certification requirements in supervision and/or administration developed through reciprocal agreements by cooperating state departments in the states served on a regional basis.
 11. The status and training of the special education director and/or supervisor is currently such that consideration needs to be given by the states to the development of separate and distinct certification standards for these specialists. Such a provision would call for mutual agreement among the states with respect to training and accreditation standards and would require reciprocity of certification regulations (pp. 130-131).

The whole process for personnel preparation programs with a clear special education administration identity was initiated by Milazzo and Blessing (1964). They pointed out the need for specific training programs that resulted in the awarding of program development grants from the U.S. Office of Education from 1965 to 1970. The awards were distributed to 19 institutions for the development of a categorical program of special education administration. Vance and Howe (1974) did a study as a follow-up to the awarding of the grants from the U.S. Office of Education /Bureau of Education for the handicapped (USOE/BEH). The major purpose of the investigation was to compare the USOE/BEH trainees with normative data available on special education administrators nationwide, to determine the present status of the former students of special education administration who had received fellowships from USOE/BEH from 1965 through the spring of 1971, and to examine the relevance of certain components of the university training program as perceived by the former students.

Administrative leadership positions in special education were held by 120 (57.7%) of the former students out of the 108 (91.6%) of the nationwide population who responded. Leadership positions were defined as:

1. Positions in which the administrator was responsible for three or more categories of exceptionality and spent 50% or more of his/her time in the administration and supervision of special education programs.

2. State and federal regulatory and leadership position, such as state directors or coordinators of special education.

3. Administrators of special education programs and projects, such as principals of schools for the deaf or mentally retarded and directors of Title III special education projects.

Vance and Howe (1974) stated that it appeared that the grant program was successful in increasing the supply of trained personnel. The following is a summary from that investigation:

1. Universities and USOE/BEH should intensify their efforts to forecast manpower needs in special education administration. The current practice is one almost exclusively of training personnel at the doctoral level. This is expensive, time consuming, and ignores the need for training at the subdoctoral level for those individuals just beginning a career at the management level in special education.

2. Universities show little evidence of training significant numbers of women and members of various minority groups for leadership roles in administration.

3. Training institutions need to formalize regular feedback mechanisms as one way of evaluating their curricula and of providing a basis for change. The internship is viewed as particularly valuable and needs strengthening in some universities.

4. The role of the administrator of special education is becoming more complex as the field moves away from a separate system of special classes and isolated programs to more of a mainstreaming approach of support to the regular class teacher. Such a change of emphasis had implications for training of directors and suggests the need for more competence in general administrative processes and practices. Full certification in general school administration would seem to be a desirable component of the training program.

5. Largely as a result of the recent entrance of the courts into programs for the handicapped, the director of special education needs the skill of being able to understand "due process" and to organize programs of alternatives for children which guarantee the rights of the handicapped.

Attention to the training of supervisors in special education was the mission of another BEH-funded special training project at the University of Texas at Austin. The Special Education Supervisory Training (SEST) Project, from 1972-75 focused on the identification of competencies needed for the improvement of instructional leadership in special education (Burrello and Sage, 1979).

After the initial beginning, only a handful of other institutions initiated training programs, while a few of the programs were discontinued after federal funds were no longer available. Nowhere outside of that small group of institutional training programs had there been any concerted, goal-directed efforts made for administrative personnel preparation. The individuals occupying leadership positions in special education came from other than "official" training programs (Burrello and Sage, 1979).

The initial development of training programs for special education administrators from 1965 to 1970 took place almost exclusively within the department of special education, rather than the department of educational administration. It reflected the normative primary identification of the role and predicted the philosophic slant found in the programs (Burrello and Sage, 1979).

However, Burrello and Sage (1979) noticed that special education administration training programs evolved from the same general educational administrators' training programs that were designed to prepare superintendents, principals, school business managers, educational planners and, in more recent times, personnel directors, contract negotiators, and so on. The developers of the special education administration programs observed that the special education administrators had to possess the same credentials, talk the same language, and sometimes bid for the same positions as those vying for superintendencies. This created a situation where the curriculum drew from the same courses, training activities, and foundations as the general administrative training programs. Gearheart (1977) observed that a majority of special education administrators spend one fourth to one half of their time on what might be called general administrative duties and responsibilities. They are duties that require reviewing requisitions for curriculum materials or equipment: preparing the budget for the following year, getting the wheels in motion for preparation of reimbursement claims, meeting with the superintendent's cabinet, meeting with the director of elementary education regarding additional space needs for next year, consulting with parents or with visiting educators, meeting with the architects relative to special education needs in a building being planned, meeting with university officials regarding staff needs of the undergraduate training

programs, interviewing teacher applicants, meeting with state or federal officials about proposed legislation or any of a hundred similar day-to-day responsibilities. Nevin (1979) noticed that the specialists drew from the generalists more than the generalists drew from the specialists, indicating that a need existed for reorientation in educational administration programs, if all exceptional children were to be served well in the regular and special classrooms. Nevin believed that teachers, principals, and supervisors should receive specialized training, which included training from research data designating effective instructional programs for exceptional children, as well as keeping data-based records, planning programs, interpreting mandates, assisting in program redesign, assessing training needs, and using evaluation data from program revision.

Stiles and Pettibone (1980) completed a study to determine the status of training and certification of the education administrators in the field of special education throughout the United States. The results from their investigation found that 23 of the states did not require separate special education administrative credentials.

As a follow-up to the Stiles and Pettibone (1980) study, Bennett (1985) conducted a survey to the 23 states that did not require special education administrative certification to see if their certification requirement had changed. It was reported that Mississippi, Montana, North Carolina, Ohio, and Texas had installed separate special education administrative credentials. Missouri and New Hampshire were to initiate the certification requirement beginning in September, 1986. Only California, Connecticut, Florida, Hawaii, Nevada, New Jersey, New Mexico, New York, Oklahoma, Oregon, South Carolina, Tennessee, Utah, and West Virginia did not require specific certification for special education

directors. Corrigan (1978) felt that educators should eliminate the dualism of special education-regular education in the colleges of education. Stiles and Pettibone agreed that separate administrative certification in special education was not desirable.

Summary

Whether the dualistic educational environment is liked or not, it exists. This is visible in our schools, universities, and state departments of education. If this situation is to be corrected, a restructuring of the concept of special education/regular education in these three entities would have to take place. At this time, there is nothing to indicate this is under consideration in Oklahoma.

Specific Training Programs for Directors of Special Education

From 1972-75, the Special Education Supervisory Training (SEST) Project focused on the identification of competencies needed for the improvement of instructional leadership in special education. The SEST Project identified three domains: problem solving, human relations, and supervisory instructional leadership. This implied a distinction between the training for manager/administrator versus program supervisor. When the role of special education director is examined, the skills needed become clearer and the training program requirements are more easily identifiable. Even though there are variations from program to program, certain areas should be covered, such as:

1. Policy planning (needs assessment, advisory task force utilization, forecasting, long-range goal setting).

2. Change management (diffusion of innovation, utilization of knowledge, organization development).

3. Advocacy promotion (client involvement, assurance of due process, consumer rights).

4. Conflict accommodation (role differentiation, tolerance of ambiguity, personnel contract negotiation) (Burrello and Sage, 1979).

Henderson (1968) stated that another problem facing universities in preparing directors and supervisors was the extreme variations of job expectations existing between the states. Some considerations for the type of service required are: population density, urban versus rural, declining versus increasing school population.

In her study, Nevin (1979) found a training need, acknowledged by general education administrators, to acquire and maintain current knowledge of research, trends, and programs for the effective education of handicapped learners. Connor (1966) stated that many questions for specific training standards are answered when the program is based upon the twin foundations of general education administration and its relationships to special education. Most general education administration programs set their entrance requirements and minimum preparation standards at two to three years of graduate study from an accredited institution of higher learning. The master's degree work should be in a teaching field of special education and should vary in length and specifics according to prior training. The sixth or seventh year of graduate work in special education administration requires an emphasis upon professional competence rather than research skills.

Prior to P.L. 94-142, Milazzo and Blessing (1964, p. 131) suggested that trainees ". . . be required to have a comprehensive understanding of

general education administration and/or supervisory functions as well as the related aspects of the relationships of special education to general education." Milazzo and Blessing included this statement in a paper on the training of administrators and supervisors:

Greater attention [should] be directed to the involvement of prospective special education leadership personnel in internship activities, particularly at the state department level. Clarification of desirable internship and practical experiences is indicated in this area to assure the provision of necessary breadth in experiential background (p. 140).

An internship is defined as the full-time assignment to a particular setting for a block of time (several weeks, a semester, a year), during which time a broad scope of observations, participation, and work activities is involved. This is different from a practicum experience, defined as an isolated, single, or brief experience of limited duration. A practicum experience would incorporate, for example, a one-day observation of a special class or program and periodic inservice meetings with teachers, or working intermittently on a bulletin or publication.

Willenberg (1964) also expressed concern that colleges and universities were offering courses in special education leadership without the basic tool of a textbook on the subject. Willenberg stated:

In any event, it is becoming increasingly evident that formulation and solution of basic administrative problems in special education must not remain the exclusive province of any single group of school management specialist (p. 194).

Connor (1966) proposed that special education administrators be certified for their position at the master's level, plus 30 semester hours with a minimum of three years of teaching experience while they continued their coursework towards a doctorate in education. Connor's plan included a post master's program (30 graduate semester hours) containing courses in:

- a. Fundamentals of Administration (12 hrs.)
 - 1) General education administration (6 hrs.)
 - 2) General education administration (6 hrs.)
- b. Administrative Internship (up to 6 hrs., at least one semester full-time)
- c. Advanced study of an exceptionality (6 hrs.)
- d. Concomitant fields (6 hrs.) (p. 165).

Geer (1966) felt that because special education was an integral part of the educational effort of the community, the special education administrator should have a background in general education. General education courses should be included in the training program. This could be accomplished by identifying the major administrative and supervisory functions necessary for an effective program and developing a curriculum to address these functions. Geer listed 15 areas of content dealing with various administrative and supervisory functions.

Henderson (1968) indicated a strong need to develop internships in local, state, and national offices providing services to exceptional children. The responsibilities of a special education director are complex and numerous and should be attempted only after a period of close, continuous contact for a substantial period of time. Only through a year-long, full-time internship can the necessary skills and techniques be acquired before assuming direct responsibilities as a director.

Summary

There are many concerns regarding the training of directors of special education existing in the research literature. Issues regarding the necessity of offering programs with special standards for training directors of special education are considered in the light of the value of requiring general education courses along with special education courses,

and the need for an internship prior to certification with hours above the master's level. Other related problems include: acquiring appropriate textbooks, developing a curriculum that addresses the needs of a diverse student population, and maintaining a higher level of expertise in the instructional staff in the institutions of higher education.

Leadership Role of the Director of Special Education

In 1963, Connor made the statement that educational administration was the art of leadership for school programs. As part of that school program, special education administrators must be knowledgeable about the attitudes and competencies that make up the field of general education. Administrators of special education should recognize that the foundations of their profession lie in educational administration. Administration is common to all human organization. It is the process of directing and controlling life in some kind of social structure. "For special education, the field of social science is represented by education" (Connor, 1963, p. 43).

Raske (1979) felt that his study indicated that the duties of general administrators and special education administrators were very similar. The major difference between the two was the amount of time allocated to the various tasks.

Maher and Bennett (1984) made the statement that administrative services coordinate all aspects of the special education service delivery system. The responsibility of making the system work is left up to the management branch. Administrative services focus on programs handling demands and constraints of the delivery systems, including student case

management, program-compliance monitoring and reporting, program planning and evaluation, cost analysis, and staff supervision.

Mackie and Engel (1955) made the following comment pertaining to the role of special education directors and supervisors:

This deepened understanding of elements which contribute to effective leadership is needed by directors and supervisors themselves as a basis for measuring their own competency; by school systems as a basis for the selection of directors; by colleges and universities offering professional preparation for special educators as a basis for the development of curriculum (p. 2).

From their study emerged 11 different competency areas needed by the special education leader. The list included:

1. Personal competencies.
2. Administration and leadership.
3. Evaluation and development of programs.
4. Teacher recruitment and selection.
5. Motivating professional development of staff.
6. Supervision.
7. Budget and finance.
8. Research.
9. Coordination with community agencies.
10. Legislative procedures.
11. Public relations (Mackie and Engel, 1955. p. 399).

Mayer (1982) defined the following terms to clear up any confusion regarding roles, functions, and tasks as they are applied to special education administrators. Mayer's definitions were:

1. Role is a general term that defines an area of responsibility. For example, an individual functions in a leadership role.
2. Functions are action-oriented responsibilities that relate to the more general role. For example, it is a function of the principal's leadership role to involve staff and students in the process of new program development. Functions are subsets of roles.
3. Tasks are the operational, day-to-day actions that contribute to accomplishment of one's assigned functions. For example, it is an administrator's task to meet with the faculty to discuss implementation of a new special education class. Tasks are subsets of functions (pp. 116-117).

Mackie and Engel (1955) felt that the most important ability for a special education director was the ability to give leadership to the entire special education program, from selection of qualified staff to integrating the special education programs into the regular school, to communicating effectively with parents.

Wisland and Vaughan (1964) did a study with 180 individuals who spent a minimum of 50% of their time in administration and supervision of special education programs. The purpose was to identify the kinds of problems directors and supervisors of special education programs experienced in 13 western states and to see if there was a relationship to the size of the program, type of program, and length of time the individual had been employed in his/her current position. Their study did not find a significant difference regarding problems related to the size, type of program, or experience. However, they were able to identify problem areas that implied a need for training programs. The major problem identified from this study was obtaining adequately prepared personnel.

In a study by Marro and Kohl (1981) it was found that when special education administrators were asked the primary reasons for becoming an administrator of special education, about one third indicated they considered administration especially important, and 22.8% said they were encouraged by others. Others, (13.5%) responded that they preferred administration and supervision to classroom teaching. A few indicated the reason was to have a larger income, while others viewed it as a personal challenge. Marro and Kohl defined the special education administrator as the one who usually deals directly with the superintendent or assistant superintendent and is involved with the total special education program. The criteria for selecting an administrator for special education were: "(a) that he administer three or more categories or

exceptionality and, (b) that he spend 50 percent or more of his time in affairs pertaining to administration and supervision" (Marro and Kohl, 1981, p. 6).

Podemski et al. (1984) described the role of special education administrator as a position not on the same level of authority, control, and decision-making responsibility as professional school administrators, but as performing assigned tasks designated by the administration. They also observed that in larger districts, a director or supervisor may be assigned to an assistant supervisor; in smaller districts, the director or supervisor may be relatively independent and autonomous. It then becomes apparent that conflict and confusion may arise from unclear administrative rules and procedures. However, special education directors are not necessarily considered in the subordinate position and should be able to work effectively with building principals. The competencies viewed as being effective were:

- 1) to assist in the development of procedures and policies and in the evaluation of programs, 2) coordinate pupil services, 3) assist in recruitment and coordination of special education personnel, 4) work effectively with all administrators, 5) assist in the development of the budget, 6) establish public relations, 7) manage reporting procedures and monitor necessary paperwork, 8) assist in staffing procedures and in the coordination of support services within the school and from the external community, 9) provide accurate information to internal personnel and external audiences, 10) monitor compliance procedures, and 11) assist in diagnosis, placement, and instructional planning (Podemski et al., 1984, pp. 4-5).

Mayer (1982) believed that special education administrators should be trained extensively in their field in order to be prepared for the responsibilities inherent within their roles. Because of the demands for their services, special education administrators usually devote 100% of their time functioning in that role in medium-sized or larger school

districts. The administrator is expected to be a technical adviser upon whom others can depend for assistance.

Mayer (1982) combined his personal experiences and observations with information from other experts in the field; i.e., Newman (1970), Raske (1979), Nevin (1979) Marro and Kohl (1981), and Burrello and Sage (1979) to compile a list of roles and functions for special education administrators. A summary of the list is: (1) program advocate, (2) compliance monitoring, (3) program planning, (4) program implementation (for the system and for individual pupils), (5) program operation or maintenance, (6) consulting, (7) working with parents, (8) legislation, and (9) personnel.

Lamb and Burrello (1979) noticed that special education administrators have been ardent developers of new programs and services for handicapped children. Poland et al. (1982) had the impression that directors of special education are often considered to be among the best informed individuals regarding the legal and practical issues of assessment and decision making.

Evans (1980) discovered from her study that more time is needed for consultation between classroom teachers and resource personnel. Also, the results suggested that professional groups recognize the need to employ special educators to function as consultants.

Whatever role, function, or task the special education director performs, research documents the need for extensive training in the areas of special education and educational administration. An examination of the functions of the directors will serve to define their role in the delivery of special education services. The extent of administrative duties is regulated by the local districts' policies and needs. The needs are usually dictated by the size of the student population and

school district. However, regardless of the size or number of children being served, there are certain requirements to be in compliance with P.L. 94-142. The role of director of special education in the delivery of services to handicapped children cannot be underestimated. He/she plays a vital leadership role in maintaining excellence in special education programming.

Leadership in education comes from many sources--teachers, parents, administrators, politicians, supervisors, professional associations, and business people--to name a few. A large recurring question about leadership concerns instruction, improvement of instruction, and instructional change that is of high quality. Instructional improvement has long been recognized as the unique role for supervisors of instruction. The mastery of an array of professional supervisory competencies is a first essential step in assuming leadership for improving education (Harris, 1976).

Harris (1976) identified and carefully defined the required competencies to fulfill or discharge the duties of a supervisor. Table I outlines 24 professional supervisory competencies which have been fairly well substantiated.

In Table II, Wisland and Vaughan's (1964) areas under which major problems were grouped after data were collected from directors and supervisors in 13 western states are shown. A major problem was described as one that required a great deal of time, many decisions, and/or was considered to be of major importance to the program. A categorical rating of one meant a problem was of major importance; a rating of five implied that it was not considered a problem. The lower the mean rating, the more important the problem was considered by the rater. Table III shows the 10 most significant problems and their mean ratings. This grouping

TABLE I
CRITICAL PROFESSIONAL SUPERVISORY COMPETENCY TITLES

A	<u>Developing Curriculum</u>
A-1	Setting instructional goals
A-2	Designing instructional goals
A-3	Developing and adapting curricula
B	<u>Developing Learning Resources</u>
B-1	Evaluating and selecting learning materials
B-2	Producing learning materials
B-3	Evaluating the utilization of learning resources
C	<u>Staffing for Instruction</u>
C-1	Developing a staffing plan
C-2	Recruiting and selecting personnel
C-3	Assigning personnel
D	<u>Organizing for Instruction</u>
D-1	Revising existing structures
D-2	Assimilating programs
D-3	Monitoring new arrangements
E	<u>Utilizing Supporting Services</u>
E-1	Analyzing and securing services
E-2	Orienting and Utilizing specialized personnel
E-3	Scheduling Services
E-4	Evaluating the utilization of services
F	<u>Providing Inservice Education</u>
F-1	Supervising in a clinical mode
F-2	Planning for individual growth
F-3	Designing inservice training sessions
F-4	Conducting inservice training sessions
F-5	Training for leadership roles
G	<u>Relating to Public</u>
G-1	Informing the public
G-2	Involving the public
G-3	Utilizing public opinion

TABLE II
 MAJOR PROBLEM AREAS OF ADMINISTRATORS AND
 SUPERVISORS OF SPECIAL EDUCATION IN THE
 13 WESTERN STATES

Problem Areas	Grand Means
Self-Directed Study and Research	2.69
Student Personnel	2.77
Communication	2.78
Supervision	2.86
Professional Personnel	2.89
Policies and Procedures	2.97
Education of the Public	3.02
Finance	3.53

TABLE III
 MOST SIGNIFICANT PROBLEMS

Problem Statement	Mean Rating
Obtaining adequately prepared personnel	1.67
Adequately providing for the multiply handicapped child	2.07
Helping parents understand their exceptional child	2.13
Adequately providing for all types of exceptional children	2.22
Having adequate time to carry out active research	2.24
Counseling parents	2.28
Developing curriculum for the different types of of exceptional children	2.33
Starting new programs for exceptional children not previously included in your program	2.34
Developing new programs and services to expand the program for exceptional children	2.39
Obtaining adequate physical facilities for the instructional phase of the special education program, such as classrooms, therapy rooms, counseling rooms, and examining rooms	2.42

indicated a problem in obtaining adequately prepared personnel as the major problem in the 13 western states. (Tables II and III were taken from Wisland and Vaughan (1964), p. 89.)

The major problem areas and their subproblems identified from Wisland and Vaughan's (1964) study could be of value in forming basic guides in developing programs for training administrative and supervisory personnel in special education.

Leadership is essential to the strength of any organization and greatly enhances its ability to be productive. Although school administrators are conditioned, badgered, and rewarded for being maintenance people, it is their insight, vision, and commitment that raises their schools to lofty heights and keeps them there. While it is possible that leadership has been in short supply in the schools, Fillbrandt (1988) felt that supervision and leadership working together would be the tools for instructional leaders as we forge into the twentieth century.

Summary

Training programs for special education directors were in response to a commitment made to improve the quality of education and to maximize the potential of all children. Colleges and universities showing a genuine interest in preparing professional educators felt a need to design training programs responsive to the needs of special education administrators. The first known course in special education administration was in 1906 at Columbia University, New York. From this beginning, special education administrative courses continued to be offered at various colleges and universities, although sparingly, until 1965, when federal grants were awarded by the U.S. Office of Education to stimulate advanced programs for special education directors. After the initial beginning,

only a few new programs were added at other institutions. Some of the federally funded programs were discontinued when funds were no longer available. It was noted that most special education administrative training programs had evolved from the same courses, training activities, and foundations as general administrative programs. One of the biggest differences discovered between general and special education administrators was the amount of time spent on the various administrative tasks. Out of various research projects, lists of competency areas emerged as skills needed to be a special education leader. A recurring question about leadership concerns the improvement of instruction. Harris (1976) stated that the first step in assuming the leadership for improving education was by becoming competent in the critical supervisory skills.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH DESIGN

Introduction

The design of the study was to provide descriptive data that would reveal differences existing in the self-perceived supervisory skills between certified and noncertified special education directors. The comparison of self-perceived supervisory competencies among special education directors categorized according to district size, gender, and experience was studied.

Population

The population consisted of selected Kansas and Oklahoma directors of special education in 1988. The Kansas State Department of Education, Special Education Section, provided the list of "Local Directors of Special Education" in Kansas. The Kansas directors of special education were employed in the organizational structures of the Local Educational Agency, Cooperative Program, or Interlocal. A list of Oklahoma Special Education Directors was obtained from the Oklahoma Directors of Special Services (ODSS). The ODSS's organizational membership list reflected statewide participation and was more extensive than the names provided in the Oklahoma directory published by the State of Oklahoma. The Oklahoma directors of special education were employed in either a Local Educational Agency or a Cooperative Program. The researcher polled only those

individuals who held the title of director of special education from each entity.

The Kansas directors were selected because they were required to hold special education certification as Director of Special Education, in order to be employed in that position. This certification required specific experience and coursework. The requirements were specified by the universities and successful completion was necessary to be eligible for certification (Appendix A). Oklahoma special education directors are not required by the Oklahoma State Department of Education to be certified as directors or to have specific training in any specified area. Only if the salary of the director of special education in Oklahoma is derived from the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (1977), Part B (EHA-B) federal funds, is there a requirement for certification in at least one area of special education. This money is given to the Oklahoma State Department of Education by the U.S. Department of Education, Special Education Programs (SEP), to flow through to local education agencies contingent upon their application for the funds based on the number of identified handicapped children in their local district (Oklahoma Policies and Procedures for Special Education, 1991).

There were 96 names on the Kansas 1988 Directors of Special Education membership list. The survey was sent to the 72 members who fell under the category of Director of Special Education for their entity, providing information from only one person in that particular organizational structure. On the list were directors of special education from the following organizational structures: 27 Local Educational Agencies, 29 Cooperatives, and 16 Interlocals. No private or special schools were included in the study. A local educational agency is a unified school system and serves only that one system. Cooperative programs have a

unified school district as their sponsor, but they may have a number of additional districts participating and contributing to the special education services in a specific catchment area. An Interlocal has all the authority and responsibilities of a unified school district, but is a combination of several districts. The Interlocals may contract special education and other services to other school districts.

Of the 133 members of the Oklahoma Directors of Special Services, only 77 fell under the title of director of special education for their LEA or Cooperative. The ODSS's list included directors of special education from 67 Local Educational Agencies and 10 Cooperative programs. The membership list included state department employees, private school representatives, and multiple staff members from a single district who were not included in the research. Again, the individuals selected to participate in the study were directors of special education representing one local educational agency or cooperative.

Instrumentation

Interest in exploring the supervisory skills among special education directors was sparked after learning of the Special Education Supervisory Training Project at the University of Texas in 1975, under the direction of Dr. Ben M. Harris. From this project came a set of competency specifications for instructional supervisors (Appendix B). A variety of validation procedures used for this system included literature review, field testing, and at least one study of practitioners and scholars. However, these major competencies have not been validated with respect to the extent of their actual use, their contribution to the educational change process, or the extent to which they differentiate among types of positions in public schools (Bailey, 1986). According to Bailey, content

validity was not demonstrated by statistical analyses, but rather by practical consideration from reviewing the literature. The original Special Education Supervisory Training Project at the University of Texas at Austin in 1975 developed a matrix analysis system that provided estimates of supervisory competencies. The following authors' earlier works were studied and used as the basis for the assessment instrument: Bloom (1968), Eisner (1967), Garvey (1968), Mager (1968), Montague and Butts (1968), Popham (1968), Grolund (1970), Kibler, Barker, and Miles (1970), Houston (1972), Weber (1973), and Maxwell (1974). The list of authors was updated by Bailey and included: Carman (1970), Burch and Danley (1980), Dull (1981), Lovell and Wiles (1983), and Harris (1985) (Appendix C).

From Harris' (1985) specifications, a competency assessment instrument was produced with nine leadership-task areas. Later, Bailey (1986) simplified the supervisory competency assessment instrument for her doctoral research project by omitting from the survey sections D (Organizing for Instruction), E (Relating Special Pupil Services), G (Developing Public Relations), and H (Providing Facilities for Instruction). The task areas of A (Curriculum Development), B (Materials Development), C (Staffing), F (Inservice Education), and I (Evaluation) were considered to be the real core of a program of supervisory services and they identify the global areas of supervisory functions. They are the operational aspect of a well-balanced program of supervision, especially when improvement of, as distinguished from maintenance of, instructional practices is to be emphasized (Harris, 1985). Bailey gave the researcher permission to use the simplified "Self-Assessment of Supervisory Competencies" for this research project (Appendix D).

Information on reliability of the survey was not found in Bailey's (1986) dissertation or in Document #7 (Revised), Special Education Supervisor Training Project. Dr. Ben M. Harris was contacted by mail and telephone and substantiated the unavailability of statistical analysis for the instrument (Appendix D). In July of 1991, a split-half reliability test of the sample used in the study was completed through the University Computer Center at Oklahoma State University. Table IV displays the reliability analysis of this test.

TABLE IV
RELIABILITY ANALYSIS

Reliability Coefficients Number of Cases = 66.0 Scale	Correlation Between Forms	Number of Items = 30	
		Equal/Unequal Spearman-Brown	Split-Half
A. Developing Curriculum	.5049	.6710	.6466
B. Providing Materials	.5760	.7310	.7257
C. Providing Staff	.5676	.7241	.7234
F. Arranging for Inservice	.4656	.6354	.6323
I. Evaluating Instruction	.3771	.5476	.5280

The results from the split-half reliability test indicated that major task area B (Providing Materials), had the highest reliability coefficient (.7310), and I (Evaluating Instruction) had the lowest coefficient (.5476). A reliability coefficient of 70 to 75 is satisfactory for group analyses (Tiedeman, 1972). Therefore, two major task areas

(Providing Materials and Providing Staff) may be interpreted satisfactorily. However, Developing Curriculum, Arranging for Inservice, and Evaluating Instruction should be interpreted with caution.

The survey method was selected for its appropriateness for obtaining descriptive data from the population. The survey included 150 response items from five task areas, with 30 response items in each of the following task areas (sections D, E, G, and H were omitted):

- A. Developing Curriculum
- B. Providing Materials
- C. Providing Staff
- F. Arranging for Inservice Education
- I. Evaluating Instruction

These five task areas were more clearly defined and expanded to 23 sub-competency areas that have been identified as being important in improving instruction:

- A.1 Setting Instructional Goals (10 items)
- A.2 Designing Instructional Units (11 items)
- A.3 Developing and Adapting Curriculum (9 items)
- B.1 Evaluating and Selecting Learning Materials (9 items)
- B.2 Producing Learning Materials (10 items)
- B.3 Evaluating Use of Learning Resources (11 items)
- C.1 Developing a Staffing Plan (10 items)
- C.2 Recruiting and Selecting Personnel (10 items)
- C.3 Assigning Personnel (10 items)
- F.1 Supervising in a Clinical Mode (3 items)
- F.2 Planning for Individual Growth (3 items)
- F.3 Designing Training Sessions (3 items)
- F.4 Conducting Inservice (3 items)

- F.5 Training for Leadership Roles (3 items)
- F.6 Assessing Needs (3 items)
- F.7 Developing a Master Plan (3 items)
- F.8 Writing Project Proposals (3 items)
- F.9 Designing Self-Instructional Modules (3 items)
- F.10 Designing a Training Program (3 items)
- I.1 Observing and Analyzing Teaching (9 items)
- I.2 Designing a Questionnaire (6 items)
- I.3 Interviewing In Depth (5 items)
- I.4 Analyzing and Interpreting Data (10 items)

Within the 23 major competencies were 150 activities identified as specific competencies. These activities became the questionnaire items. Specific statements were taken from the Developmental Supervisory Competency Assessment System (DeSCAS), were reviewed for clarity and reduced for brevity. Bailey (1986) also drew from Harris' DeSCAS the five major competency areas to develop the simplified form of a self-assessment survey of supervisory competencies. One activity from each task area was selected randomly and grouped into sets of five. The result was 150 activities grouped into 30 clusters, consisting of five activities per group. To avoid a predictable pattern of sequence, the activities were scrambled. Once assembled, a forced-choice was required by the respondents to select two items from each cluster that most accurately reflected perceptions of their own competencies. Written directions were used; i.e., "Check the two behaviors, out of the set of five supervisory behaviors, that best describe your capabilities" to instruct the respondents on how to complete the survey.

Several respondents wrote comments on the returned survey distributed by the researcher. These comments could be useful to others who

may wish to use this survey in the future. Some comments from the Kansas directors were as follows:

1. Directors may also serve as the superintendents in some inter-locals and the supervisory tasks mentioned in the questionnaire are performed by other faculty members, committees, or subordinates and not necessarily by directors.

2. The survey was long, items were unclear, redundant, and ambiguous and did not realistically address what actually occurs in "the field."

3. The practicality of the instrument is doubtful theory and dreams, which is usually far from reality.

4. With all the administrative duties, little time is left for instructional involvement.

5. The cover letter was addressed to the director of special education and was not personalized.

6. The items did not completely cover Kansas' special education directors' duties, and important areas relevant to Kansas were not included in the questionnaire.

There were fewer comments made by the Oklahoma directors. Some of their comments were the following:

1. Words of encouragement.

2. The district has a personnel director who hires all the staff.

3. Training for the director's position was by the predecessor, not the colleges or universities and special training programs.

4. Certification for special education directors in Oklahoma is needed.

Field Testing of the Instrument

Bailey (1986) field tested the simplified self-assessment survey of supervisory competencies on 41 educators (11 experienced teachers who were currently teaching in the classroom; 7 experienced supervisors, including persons with experience as instructional supervisors; 10 specialists; and 13 professors).

The result indicated that the teachers perceived themselves competent in the task areas of Curriculum Development and Providing Materials. This was reflected in their mean choice scores of 26% in Curriculum Development and 25% in Providing Materials. These two areas were also considered to be important to success in that position. Developing Curriculum (32%), Providing Materials (26%), and Providing Staff (26%) were viewed as the areas of most competence by the experienced supervisors. The specialists perceived themselves as most competent in the Evaluating Instruction (24%) and Arranging for Inservice Education (21%) task areas.

Thirteen professors of educational administration from various universities were asked to complete the survey as experts in their field. The professors were to use their judgment in selecting what they believed to be the current competencies of supervisors in the field. They were asked not to assess their skills, but to offer their opinions on the items. The professors indicated that practicing supervisors should be most competent in Arranging for Inservice (34.74%) and Curriculum Development (25.13%). It was their opinion that the area of highest competence should be the most important to the improvement of instruction.

Looking at the response patterns between the four groups, a difference in the perceived competence was reflected between some of the group mean choice scores for the five task areas. The field test response

indicated that the questionnaire items could discriminate between various test groups; i.e., the teacher group and experienced supervisor scored the highest in task area A, while the specialist scored higher in task area I (Table V).

TABLE V
MEAN CHOICE SCORES BY TASK AREAS FOR
FIELD TEST RESPONDENTS

Group Mean Scores	Five Major Task Areas*				
	A	B	C	F	I
Teacher Group (11)	26.27	25.00	13.45	16.36	14.00
Experienced Supervisor (7)	32.29	26.71	26.71	15.43	13.29
Specialist (10)	19.50	18.70	10.00	21.60	24.00
Professors (13)	25.13	14.36	9.49	34.74	15.00

*A. Developing Curriculum, B. Providing Materials, C. Providing Staff, F. Arranging for Inservice, and I. Evaluating Instruction.

Definition of Variables

In this study, the "Self-Assessment of Supervisory Competencies" instrument was used to analyze the perceived supervisory competencies among certified directors of special education and noncertified directors of special education, male and female directors of special education, directors of various district size, and directors with various years of experience. The competence was the perception of the respondent.

Data Collection

Each director of special education in Kansas was sent a "Self-Assessment of Supervisory Competency" survey on February 1, 1989, with a stamped, addressed envelope for the survey to be mailed back (Appendix E). To increase the rate of return, a second mail out was made on May 23, 1989 (Appendix F). The total response from the Kansas directors of special education was 24, and the breakdown was as follows: 16 from Local Educational Agencies, 2 from Cooperatives, and 6 from Interlocals. This was a 33% response rate from the Kansas Directors of Special Education.

The first attempt to involve the Oklahoma Directors of Special Education was made on November 3, 1988, when the survey was distributed at a statewide meeting of the Oklahoma Directors of Special Services. The respondents were asked to read the directions on the questionnaire without verbal instructions. This was followed up with the first mail out on January 5, 1989 (Appendix G), a second mailout on May 23, 1989 (Appendix F), and by personal contacts. Five letters were returned for individuals who had moved, and the letters were not forwardable. The responses represented 34 Local Educational Agencies and 8 Cooperatives. This was a 55% response rate from the Oklahoma Directors of Special Education (Table VI). Out of the total number of respondents (66), there were 23 males and 43 females.

The size of the intervals for the district data was selected by informal observation using the Tulsa County school districts as the sample and dividing the 16 districts into 3 groups according to the 1988-89 ADA (Table VII). The 1988-89 Oklahoma Child Count Data Handbook

TABLE VI
RESPONSE RATE

Special Education Directors	# Polled	# Returned	Percentage
Kansas	22	24	33
Oklahoma	77	42	55

TABLE VII
TULSA COUNTY 1988-89 ADA AND CHILD COUNT

District	'88-'89 Child Count	Average Daily Attendance
<u>1000 or Less</u>		
Berryhill	78	707
Keystone	46	385
Leonard	11	193
Liberty Mounds	46	490
Mingo	34	142
Sperry	84	898
<u>1001-6000</u>		
Bixby	256	2292
Collinsville	164	1572
Glenpool	172	1634
Owasso	325	4466
Skiatook	145	1655
<u>6001+</u>		
Broken Arrow	1394	13335
Jenks	569	7044
Sand Springs	607	6234
Tulsa P.S.	5397	41557
Union	693	8882

provided the number of handicapped children being served in each district and the Tulsa County superintendent's office provided the ADA.

From the child count, a projected number of personnel to be supervised was determined by giving a ratio of 25 children to one special teacher. The ratio was selected on the maximum caseload allowed for a full-time special teacher in a laboratory or resource room. In Tulsa County, school districts with an ADA of 1000 or less had an average of 49.8 handicapped children being served, with a projected staff of 2+ special teachers. Tulsa County school districts, with an ADA of 1001 to 6000, served an average of 180.4 children, and anticipated a need for 7+ special teachers. Tulsa County school districts, with an ADA of 6001+, served an average of 1732 children, with an approximate staff of 69+. A district with an ADA of 500 to 1000 was designated as a small district, 1001 to 6000 a medium district, and 6001+ was labeled a large district. Single school districts not in a cooperative program with fewer than 500 ADA were not included in the research because of their low child count and projected need for special teachers.

The Cooperatives in Oklahoma and Kansas and the Interlocals in Kansas were asked to combine their total ADA to obtain a single count from each respondent. The 1988-89 Tulsa County child count indicated that 10.78% of the students had been identified as handicapped.

Looking at the frequency distribution according to the number of years of experience among directors, there was an even distribution. One half (33) of the directors had six years of experience or less and one half (33) of the directors had seven years of experience or more.

Treatment of Data: Scoring of the Instrument

The instrument was constructed with 150 statements grouped into 30

blocks, with five statements in each block. The directors of special education were asked to select two statements from each block that best described their supervisory skills. A frequency count was taken on each chosen statement by each respondent. Frequency tables were developed by separating the respondents into categories by certified/noncertified, district size, gender, and experience.

Statistical Treatment of Data

The research questions stated that there would be a significant difference in the perceived supervisory skills among directors of special education who are certified and noncertified, between male and female directors, among directors from small, medium, and large entities, and between directors with various years of experience. The frequency count was summarized, and a mean score was calculated for each respondent and was used to determine the overall mean of all the respondents. The overall mean was used as the standard to determine if each respondent's mean fell below that mean or above it.

A competency choice score for each respondent was determined by counting the number of selections made in each subcompetency area and by dividing that number by the total number of possible selections to achieve the percentage score. For example, respondent #1 selected the following numbers of subcompetencies from major task area A (Developing Curriculum):

$$A 1 = 3/10 \text{ (\# of items selected/total \# of items)} = 0.3$$

$$A 2 = 0/11 = 0.0$$

$$A 3 = 4/9 = 0.4$$

$$\text{Total } 7/30 = 0.23333 \text{ (choice score for respondent \#1 in task area A (Developing Curriculum).)}$$

The percentage scores from each respondent subcompetency score and major task areas were added together, then were divided by the number of respondents (66), to arrive at an overall mean choice score. For example, the mean score for all respondents for A (Developing Curriculum) was 0.32525. Each respondent with a choice score below 0.32525 was counted in the "Low" category, and scores above were in the "High" category.

The tables were displayed showing the number at or above the overall mean (High) and the number below that mean (Low), according to the four categories. The chi-square technique was used to test the frequencies in each category to determine if the difference between the percentages was at the .05 level, the level necessary for significance.

Summary

Sixty-six directors of special education in Kansas and Oklahoma were surveyed through the use of the "Self-Assessment of Supervisory Competencies" survey. Their responses were analyzed through the application of the chi-square technique. To determine statistical significance, the .05 confidence level was chosen.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Introduction

This chapter presents the data obtained from the survey for this research study and analyzed in the light of the research questions. The purpose of this study was to examine supervisory competencies perceived by special education directors, to compare the results among certified and noncertified directors, between directors from various district sizes, between directors with different years of experience, and by gender. The directors of special education from Oklahoma and Kansas selected two items from groups of five competency statements that represented the five major task areas of supervision. Upon completion of the survey, each respondent had a total of 60 selected items that were used to formulate a picture of their perceived supervisory competencies.

Data Summary Demographics

Twenty-four special education directors (33% of the Kansas population) responded, while 42 special education directors (55% of the Oklahoma population) responded (Table VIII). Of the total respondents, 66 (36%) were Kansans and 64% were Oklahomans (Table IX). The Kansas population polled were active directors of special education from one of the following educational structures: Local Educational Agency, Cooperative, or Interlocal (Tables X and XI).

TABLE VIII
DISTRIBUTION OF DIRECTORS BY STATES

State	Number of Directors Polled	Number of Directors Responding	Total Returns by %
Kansas Directors	72	24	33.3
Oklahoma Directors	77	42	54.5
Total	149	66	44.3

TABLE IX
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY STATES

State	Number of Respondents	Percentage of Total Respondents
Kansas Directors	24	36.4
Oklahoma Directors	42	63.6
Total	66	100.0

TABLE X
DISTRIBUTION OF DIRECTORS POLLED BY AGENCIES

State	Local Educational Agency	Cooperative	Interlocal	Total
Kansas Directors	27	29	16	72
Oklahoma Directors	67	10	N/A	77

TABLE XI
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY AGENCIES

State	Local Educational Agency	Cooperative	Interlocal
Kansas Directors	15	2	7
Oklahoma Directors	35	7	

The Oklahoma population studied were active directors of special education from either a local educational agency or a cooperative program. The following data provides information relating to specific characteristics of the participants involved in the research study.

Each questionnaire requested the director to provide demographic information such as years of experience, gender, district size, and certified/noncertified, as well as requesting responses to the questionnaire items relating to supervisory competency. The demographic information provided the variables for comparison used in the study.

A frequency count was tabulated for each statement selected by all respondents on the competencies they perceived that they possess. From this count, each statement was clustered into the appropriate major subcompetency areas, and a mean score was calculated for all the respondents. Table XII shows the mean scores for all subcompetencies, which ranged from a low of 13.1% to a high of 74.7%.

The three highest subcompetency areas as perceived by the directors were: F.10 (Designing a Training Program) (74.7%), F.4 (Conducting In-service) (66.1%), and F.1 (Supervising in a Clinical Mode) (64.6%). The

three lowest competency areas, as perceived by the directors, were: F.9 (Designing Self-Instructional Modules) (13.1%), B.2 (Producing Learning Materials) (15.3%), and A.2 (Designing Instructional Units) (18.6%). Bailey (1986) also found in her study that respondents from all position types felt most competent in subcompetency F.10 (Arranging for Inservice) (80.5%), F.4 (Conducting Inservice) (74.2%), and A.3 (Developing and Adapting Curriculum) (73.8%).

TABLE XII
MEAN OF SUBCOMPETENCY SCORES FOR ALL
RESPONDENTS

Major Subcompetencies	Mean Scores	Rank
A.1 Setting Goals	36.0	14
A.2 Designing Instructional Units	18.6	21
A.3 Developing and Adapting Curriculum	42.8	13
B.1 Evaluating and Selecting Learning Materials	35.8	15
B.2 Producing Learning Materials	15.3	22
B.3 Evaluating Use of Learning Resources	33.7	16
C.1 Developing a Staffing Plan	60.0	7
C.2 Recruiting and Selecting Personnel	30.6	17
C.3 Assigning Personnel	50.6	9
F.1 Supervising in a Clinical Mode	64.6	3
F.2 Planning for Individual Growth	45.4	11
F.3 Designing Training Sessions	60.1	6
F.4 Conducting Inservice	66.1	2
F.5 Training Leadership	50.5	10
F.6 Assessing Needs	61.1	5
F.7 Developing a Master Plan	64.1	4
F.8 Writing a Project Proposal	59.5	8
F.9 Designing Self-Instructional Modules	13.1	23
F.10 Designing a Training Program	74.7	1
I.1 Observing and Analyzing Teaching	43.0	12
I.2 Designing a Questionnaire	18.9	20
I.3 Interviewing In Depth	26.0	18
I.4 Analyzing and Interpreting Data	21.3	19

Of the five major task areas, F (Inservice Education) (55.9%) was selected most often by the respondents. The two least chosen areas of perceived competency were: B (Providing Materials) (28.2%) and I (Evaluating Instruction) (28.1%) (Table XIII).

TABLE XIII
MEAN SCORES FOR THE FIVE MAJOR TASK AREAS
FOR ALL RESPONDENTS

Major Task Area	Mean Scores	Rank
A. Developing Curriculum	32.5	3
B. Providing Materials	28.2	4
C. Providing Staff	46.4	2
F. Inservice Education	55.9	1
I. Evaluating Instruction	28.1	5

The distribution of the Kansas directors broken into cells of male/female and district sizes revealed an equal number of male (12) and female (12) respondents from Kansas. However, only two female directors were employed in a small (500-1000) district; no male directors were so employed. Almost an equal amount by gender were in the medium (1001-6000) districts (9 male, 10 female), and there were three directors, all male, employed in a large district (6000+) (Table XIV). Looking at Oklahoma's distribution by gender and district size, it was nearly a three to one ratio of return by the female respondents over the male respondents. There were 17 respondents employed in small districts (14 females and 3

males). The medium sized districts were represented by 19 respondents (6 males and 13 females). The six large district directors responding to the survey were represented by two male directors and four female directors (Table XV).

TABLE XIV
DISTRIBUTION OF KANSAS RESPONDENTS BY
DISTRICT SIZE AND GENDER

Gender	Small (500-1000) N=2	Medium (1001-6000) N=19	Large (6000+) N=3	Total N=24
Male	0	9	3	12
Female	2	10	0	12

TABLE XV
DISTRIBUTION OF OKLAHOMA RESPONDENTS BY
DISTRICT SIZE AND GENDER

Gender	Small (500-1000) N=17	Medium (1001-6000) N=19	Large (6000+) N=6	Total N=42
Male	3	6	2	11
Female	14	13	4	31

The composition of the respondents, broken into male/female categories and district sizes, indicated that 19 fell into the small district category (3 males, 16 females), 38 in the medium sized district (15 males, 23 females), and 9 from the large districts (5 males, 4 females). Summarizing this in another way, 34.8% of the respondents were males and 65.2% were females (Table XVI).

TABLE XVI
DISTRIBUTION OF ALL RESPONDENTS BY DISTRICT
SIZE AND GENDER

Gender	Small N=19	Medium N=38	Large N=9	Total N=66
Male	3	15	5	23
Female	16	23	4	43

The average number of years of experience for all the respondents was 7.3 years. The respondents from Kansas had the highest average years of experience (8.6 years). Broken into categories of gender, male directors from Kansas had been employed an average of 9.1 years, female directors had been employed 8.1 years. Oklahoma directors had an average of 6.6 years of experience, male directors averaged 7.5 years, and female directors averaged 6.3 years. A male director from Kansas had the most number of years as special education director, with 24 years. An Oklahoma female director had the longest tenure for the female group, with 17

years of experience. Overall, the male directors had an average of 8.3 years of experience as special education directors, while the female directors had only an average of 6.8 years of experience (Table XVII).

TABLE XVII
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY GENDER
AND EXPERIENCE

Gender	Years of Experience		Average
	Kansas	Oklahoma	
Male	9.1	7.5	8.3
Female	8.1	6.3	6.8
Average	8.6	6.6	7.3

Testing of the Questions

The questions the researcher used to direct this study related to the perceived competence of special education directors and the variations among directors who were certified/noncertified, from various sized public school districts, among male/female directors and directors with various years of experience.

Perceived Competencies by Certified and Noncertified Directors

Question 1 asked: "If, because of specific educational requirements, will certified/noncertified special education directors perceive

their supervisory competencies significantly different in (a) five major task areas, and/or (b) 23 subcompetency areas?"

From the 23 subcompetency areas and 5 task areas, there were items more frequently selected by the respondents in both groups. To test question 1, the chi-square technique was used to compare the data between the certified and noncertified special education directors using the .05 level necessary for significance. Data revealed 2 major task areas out of 5, and 9 subcompetency areas out of 23 that yielded results at or above the significance level.

Bailey (1986) found in her study that certain competencies were chosen by certain supervisory position types. Assistant and deputy superintendents clearly selected competencies from major task area F (Arranging for Inservice Education) with choice scores ranging from 66.7% to 88.95%. Directors did not indicate any clear or distinct supervisory choices. Supervisors, coordinators, and consultants had distinct choice scores in major task area F (Arranging for Inservice Education) and in subcompetency A.3 (Developing and Adapting Curriculum). All respondents perceived themselves as most competent in the task areas of F (Inservice Education) and A (Curriculum Development).

Overall, question 1 was rejected for lack of significant difference in supervisory skills between certified and noncertified special education directors. However, part a was accepted, due to two areas out of five reaching the level of statistical significance. Part b was accepted on the basis that 9 subcompetency areas out of 23 indicated a significant difference.

Data presented in Table XVIII indicate that certified special education directors chose task area B (Materials) 25% of the time, while B was chosen 61.9% of the time by noncertified directors. C (Staffing) was

selected by 91.7% of the certified directors, and by only 40.5% of the noncertified directors.

TABLE XVIII
CHOICE PERCENTAGES BY TASK AREAS FOR CERTIFIED
AND NONCERTIFIED SPECIAL EDUCATION DIRECTORS

Task Area	% of Kansas Certified Directors	% of Oklahoma Certified Directors	Chi-Square Probability
A. Developing Curriculum	41.67	64.29	.075
B. Materials Development	25.00	61.90	.004
C. Staffing	91.70	40.50	.000
F. Arranging for Inservice Education	54.17	57.14	.815
I. Evaluating Instruction	66.67	47.62	.135

The nine subcompetency areas found to indicate a significant difference were: A.2 (Designing Instructional Units) (certified, 29.2%; noncertified, 69.0%), B.2 (Producing Learning Materials) (certified, 16.7%; noncertified, 42.9%), B.3 (Evaluation of Utilization of Learning Resources) (certified, 33.3%; noncertified, 61.9%), C.1 (Staffing: Developing a Staffing Plan) (certified, 75.0%; noncertified, 45.2%); C.2 (Recruiting and Selecting Personnel) (certified, 70.8%; noncertified 23.8%), C.3 (Assigning Personnel) (certified, 83.3%; noncertified, 38.1%), F.7 (Developing a Master Plan) (certified, 45.8%; noncertified, 71.4%), I.1 (Observing and Analyzing Teaching) (certified, 75.0%;

noncertified, 50.0%), I.3 (Interviewing In Depth) (certified, 58.3%; noncertified, 23.8%).

Certified special education directors perceived their area of supervisory competencies to be stronger in working with people and not in the actual teaching operation. Noncertified directors chose supervisory skills related to things rather than people. Noncertified directors focused on activities centered around the teaching process dealing with learning materials and developing curriculum.

Table XIX presents data comparing certified and noncertified special education directors in 23 subcompetency areas. There were nine subcompetency areas indicating significant differences.

Perceived Competencies by District Size

Question 2 asked: "Will special education directors perceive their supervisory competencies significantly different from various sized public school districts in (a) 5 major task areas, and/or (b) 23 subcompetency areas?"

The breakdown on district size was according to the districts' average daily attendance (ADA) by designating small (500-1000), medium (1001-6000), and large (6001+). School districts under 500 ADA were not included individually because of the low incidence of handicapped children and the low demand for special educators. However, small districts were included in the cooperative programs if they were participants. Twenty-one (31.8%) of the respondents were from small districts, 36 (54.6%) were from medium districts, and 9 (13.6%) were from large districts. The distribution of the responses is displayed in Table XX.

TABLE XIX
 PERCENTAGES BY SUBCOMPETENCY AREAS FOR CERTIFIED
 AND NONCERTIFIED SPECIAL EDUCATION DIRECTORS

Subcompetency Areas	% of Certified Directors	% of Non- Certified Directors	Chi-Squared Probability
A.1 Setting Instructional Goals	41.67	57.14	.226
A.2 Designing Instructional Units	29.17	69.05	.002*
A.3 Developing and Adapting Curriculum	41.67	40.48	.925
B.1 Evaluating and Selecting Learning Materials	29.17	52.38	.068
B.2 Producing Learning Materials	16.67	42.86	.030*
B.3 Evaluation of Utilization of Learning Resources	33.33	61.90	.025*
C.1 Developing a Staffing Plan	75.00	45.24	.019*
C.2 Recruiting and Selecting Personnel	70.83	23.81	.000*
C.3 Assigning Personnel	83.33	38.10	.000*
F.1 Supervising in a Clinical Mode	75.00	61.90	.278
F.2 Planning for Individual Growth	45.83	47.62	.889
F.3 Designing Training Sessions	62.50	61.90	.962
F.4 Conducting Inservice Sessions	79.17	73.81	.625
F.5 Training for Leadership Roles	62.50	45.24	.177
F.6 Assessing Needs	58.33	69.05	.380
F.7 Developing a Master Plan	45.83	71.43	.039*
F.8 Writing Project Proposals	79.17	64.29	.206
F.9 Designing Self Instructional Modules	20.83	42.86	.071
F.10 Designing Training Programs	45.83	45.24	.963
I.1 Observing and Analyzing Teaching	75.00	50.00	.047*
I.2 Designing a Questionnaire	33.33	28.57	.686
I.3 Interviewing In Depth	58.33	23.81	.005*
I.4 Analyzing and Interpreting Data	33.33	42.86	.446

*Significant at the .05 level.

TABLE XX
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY DISTRICT SIZE

District Size	Number of Respondents	Percentages
Small (500-1000)	21	31.8
Medium (1001-6000)	36	54.6
Large (6001+)	9	13.6
Totals	66	100.0

There was no significant difference in the perceived supervisory competencies by special education directors from various sized public school districts, and question 2 was rejected. Question 2a was rejected because only one major task area indicated a significant difference among the special education directors in the five categories by district size (B. Materials Development). The small district directors chose the items listed in the Materials Development category 66.7% of the time, medium sized district directors 47.2%, and large district directors 11.1% of the time (Table XXI).

Of the 23 subcompetency areas, only 4 indicated a significant difference between district sizes; therefore, question 2b was rejected. The category A.2 (Designing Instructional Units) was selected 76.2% of the time by small district directors, 47.2% of the time by medium district directors, and 33.3% of the time by large district directors. The items in B.2 (Producing Learning Materials) were selected by small district directors 52.4% of the time and medium district directors 30.6% of the time, while no director in the large districts chose any of the items in this category.

TABLE XXI
CHOICE PERCENTAGES BY TASK AREAS FOR SPECIAL
EDUCATION DIRECTORS FROM VARIOUS SIZED
PUBLIC SCHOOL DISTRICTS

Task Areas	% of Small District Directors	% of Medium District Directors	% of Large District Directors	Chi-Squared Probability
A. Developing Curriculum	66.67	52.78	44.44	.447
B. Materials Development	66.70	47.20	11.10	.020
C. Providing Staff	42.86	66.67	66.67	.187
F. Arranging for Inservice Education	52.38	58.33	55.56	.909
I. Evaluating Instruction	61.90	55.56	33.33	.349

Items in the B.3 (Evaluation of Use of Learning Resources) category were selected by small district directors 76.2% of the time, by medium district directors 44.4% of the time, and by large district directors 22.2% of the time. C.1 (Developing a Staffing Plan) was a category that directors from small districts chose 33.3% of the time, medium district directors selected the items 63.9% of the time, and large district directors selected the items 77.8% of the time (Table XXII).

Data contained in Tables XXI and XXII indicated that only one major task area and four subcompetency areas showed a significant difference between the small, medium, and large districts. The smaller districts chose tasks related to the instructional process and skills dealing with things and not people. Special education directors from larger districts indicated more confidence in the skills dealing with people and related activities.

TABLE XXII
CHOICE PERCENTAGES BY SUBCOMPETENCY AREAS FOR
SPECIAL EDUCATION DIRECTORS FROM VARIOUS
SIZED PUBLIC SCHOOL DISTRICTS

Task Areas	% of Small District Directors	% of Medium District Directors	% of Large District Directors	Chi-Squared Probability
A.1 Setting Instructional Goals	47.62	52.78	55.56	.901
A.2 Designing Instructional Units	76.20	47.20	33.30	.041*
A.3 Developing and Adapting Curriculum	42.86	44.44	22.22	.468
B.1 Evaluating and Selecting Learning Materials	52.38	47.22	11.11	.095
B.2 Producing Learning Materials	52.40	30.60	00.00	.018*
B.3 Evaluation of Use of Learning Resources	76.20	44.40	22.20	.011*
C.1 Developing a Staffing Plan	33.30	63.90	77.80	.030*
C.2 Recruiting and Selecting Personnel	33.33	47.22	33.33	.521
F.1 Supervising in a Clinical Mode	61.90	72.22	55.56	.545
F.2 Planning for Individual Growth	52.38	47.22	33.33	.631
F.3 Designing Training Sessions	61.90	58.33	77.78	.561
F.4 Conducting Inservice Sessions	71.43	77.78	77.78	.855
F.5 Training for Leadership Roles	52.38	47.22	66.67	.577
F.6 Assessing Needs	66.67	63.89	66.67	.973
F.7 Developing a Master Plan	57.14	61.11	77.78	.556
F.8 Writing Project Proposals	57.14	72.22	88.89	.197
F.9 Designing Self-Instructional Modules	38.10	30.56	44.44	.686
F.10 Designing a Training Program	33.33	52.78	44.44	.363
I.1 Observing and Analyzing Teaching	71.43	52.78	55.56	.375
I.2 Designing a Questionnaire	38.10	30.56	11.11	.337

TABLE XXII (Continued)

Task Areas	% of Small District Directors	% of Medium District Directors	% of Large District Directors	Chi-Squared Probability
I.3 Interviewing In- depth	23.81	44.44	33.33	.289
I.4 Analyzing and Inter- preting Data	47.62	38.89	22.22	.425

*Significant at the .05 level.

Perceived Competencies by Gender

Question 3 asked: "Will male and female special education directors perceive their supervisory competencies significantly different in (a) 5 major task areas, and/or (b) 23 subcompetency areas?"

Of the 66 respondents who completed the survey, 23 (34.8%) were male and 43 (65.2%) were female (Table XXIII). Data supported question 3 being rejected because of insufficient significance of difference between male and female special directors. However, one major task area (B. Materials Development) did indicate a significant difference between male (30.4%) and female (58.1%) special education directors (Table XXIV). Question 3a was rejected because of lack of significance between male and female special education directors.

Question 3b was rejected because only 3 subcompetency areas out of 23 indicated a significant difference. The A.2 (Designing Instructional Units) category was chosen by the male respondents 34.8% of the time and the female respondents 65.1% of the time. The male respondents selected

B.1 (Evaluating and Selecting Learning Materials) 21.7% of the time, and the female respondents chose these items on an average of 55.8% of the time. B.2 (Producing Learning Materials) also had the male respondents scoring lower (17.4%) than did the female respondents (41.9%), as seen in Table XXV.

TABLE XXIII
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY GENDER

Gender	Number of Respondents	Percentage
Male	23	34.8
Female	43	65.2
Total	66	100.0

TABLE XXIV
CHOICE PERCENTAGES BY TASK AREA BY GENDER

Task Areas	% of Male Directors	% of Female Directors	Chi-Squared Probability
A. Developing Curriculum	56.52	55.81	.956
B. Materials Development	30.40	58.10	.032*
C. Providing Staff	69.57	53.49	.206
F. Arranging for Inservice Education	52.17	58.14	.642
I. Evaluating Instruction	56.52	53.49	.814

*Significant at the .05 level.

TABLE XXV
CHOICE PERCENTAGES OF SUBCOMPETENCY
AREAS BY GENDER

Task Areas	% of Male Directors	% of Female Directors	Chi-Squared Probability
A.1 Setting Instructional Goals	52.17	51.16	.938
A.2 Designing Instructional Units	34.80	65.10	.018*
A.3 Developing and Adapting Curriculum	43.48	39.53	.756
B.1 Evaluating and Selecting Learning Materials	21.70	55.80	.008*
B.2 Producing Learning Materials	17.4	41.90	.045*
B.3 Evaluation of Utilization of Learning Resources	39.13	58.14	.141
C.1 Developing a Staffing Plan	60.87	53.49	.565
C.2 Recruiting and Selecting Personnel	52.17	34.88	.173
C.3 Assigning Personnel	65.22	48.84	.203
F.1 Supervising in a Clinical Mode	60.87	69.77	.465
F.2 Planning for Individual Growth	34.78	53.49	.147
F.3 Designing Training Sessions	65.22	60.47	.705
F.4 Conducting Inservice Sessions	73.91	76.74	.798
F.5 Training for Leadership Roles	52.17	51.16	.938
F.6 Assessing Needs	78.26	58.14	.102
F.7 Developing a Master Plan	56.52	65.12	.493
F.8 Writing Project Proposals	78.26	65.12	.268
F.9 Designing Self Instructional Modules	30.43	37.21	.582
F.10 Designing Training Programs	52.17	41.86	.423
I.1 Observing and Analyzing Teaching	60.87	58.14	.830
I.2 Designing a Questionnaire	43.48	23.26	.088
I.3 Interviewing In Depth	39.13	34.88	.733
I.4 Analyzing and Interpreting Data	39.13	39.53	.974

*Significant at the .05 level.

In one major task area and three subcompetency areas, female directors selected materials development and designing instructional units significantly more often than did male directors. These skills are related directly to the instructional process.

Perceived Competencies by Years of Experience

Question 4 asked: "Will special education directors perceive their supervisory competencies significantly different with various years of experience in (a) 5 major task areas, and/or (b) 23 subcompetency areas?"

Fifty percent of the respondents in this study had been employed as special education directors for six years or less, and 50% had been employed as special education directors for seven years or more (Table XXVI).

Examining the data of chosen competencies according to the number of years of experience of the special education directors, 33 respondents in the 1 to 6 years group, and the 33 respondents in the 7 and over years group had no areas of significant difference in the five major task areas or 23 subcompetency items. Therefore, question 4 was rejected. It appeared that the number of years of experience of special education directors was not a factor in how they perceived their supervisory competencies (Tables XXVII and XXVIII).

The survey of special education directors regarding their self-perceived supervisory competencies indicated few differences at the .05 level of significance. Among certified and noncertified directors, two major tasks and nine subcompetency areas were significantly different. Between special education directors in various sized districts, only one major task area and four subcompetency areas were significantly

different. Between male and female directors, one major task area and three subcompetency areas were significantly different. There were no areas of significant differences in the 5 major task areas or 23 subcompetency items when analyzed according to years of experience.

TABLE XXVI
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY YEARS
OF EXPERIENCE

Years of Experience	Number of Respondents	Percentage
1-6	33	50.0
7+	33	50.0
Total	66	100.0

TABLE XXVII
CHOICE PERCENTAGES BY TASK AREA BY YEARS
OF EXPERIENCE

Task Areas	% by 1-6 Years of Experience	% by 7+ Years of Experience	Chi-Squared Probability
A. Developing Curriculum	57.58	54.55	.804
B. Providing Materials	51.52	45.45	.622
C. Providing Staff	54.55	63.64	.453
F. Arranging for Inservice Education	54.55	57.58	.804
I. Evaluating Instruction	51.52	57.58	.621

TABLE XXVIII
CHOICE PERCENTAGES OF SUBCOMPETENCY AREAS
BY YEARS OF EXPERIENCE

Task Areas	% by 1-6 Years of Experience	% by 7+ Years of Experience	Chi-Squared Probability
A.1 Setting Instructional Goals	48.48	54.55	.622
A.2 Designing Instructional Units	54.55	54.55	1.000
A.3 Developing and Adapting Curriculum	45.45	36.36	.453
B.1 Evaluating and Selecting Learning Materials	45.45	42.42	.804
B.2 Producing Learning Materials	36.36	30.30	.602
B.3 Evaluation of Utilization of Learning Resources	57.58	45.45	.325
C.1 Developing a Staffing Plan	45.45	66.67	.083
C.2 Recruiting and Selecting Personnel	45.45	36.36	.453
C.3 Assigning Personnel	51.52	57.58	.621
F.1 Supervising in a Clinical Mode	72.73	60.61	.296
F.2 Planning for Individual Growth	45.45	48.48	.805
F.3 Designing Training Sessions	66.67	57.58	.447
F.4 Conducting Inservice Sessions	66.67	84.85	.085
F.5 Training for Leadership Roles	54.55	48.48	.622
F.6 Assessing Needs	63.64	66.67	.796
F.7 Developing a Master Plan	60.61	63.64	.800
F.8 Writing Project Proposals	66.67	72.73	.592
F.9 Designing Self-Instructional Modules	33.33	36.36	.796
F.10 Designing Training Programs	45.45	45.45	1.000
I.1 Observing and Analyzing Teaching	63.64	54.55	.453
I.2 Designing a Questionnaire	33.33	27.27	.592
I.3 Interviewing In Depth	30.30	42.42	.306
I.4 Analyzing and Interpreting Data	42.42	36.36	.614

All four research questions were rejected in this study. However, there were isolated areas where significant differences existed. Question 1 was supported the strongest, with more individual items being accepted. This stated that due to specific educational requirements, a significant difference would exist in the perceived supervisory competencies between certified and noncertified special education directors. The areas dealing with personnel and staffing items were chosen most often by certified directors. Dealing with things involved with the instructional process directly related to teaching activities were skills chosen more often by noncertified directors. This trend was reflected in question 2, when directors from large districts chose activities related to staffing and directors from small districts chose activities related to the instructional process. Question 3 showed that female directors were only different from male directors in how they perceived their supervisory competencies in developing materials used in the teaching process. The results from the data on question 4 showed that no differences existed among special education directors related to the number of years of experience.

Summary

The chi-square technique used in this research study tested the frequencies in each category to determine if the respondents' departure was something more than by chance. This descriptive study was designed to determine if a significant relationship existed between the variables being investigated. It was found that all four of the research questions were rejected.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The primary purpose of this study was to determine if the self-perceived competencies of special education directors in public schools were influenced by such factors as certification, district size, gender, or experience. The demographic information was gathered at the same time the directors were asked to respond to the survey instrument. The population in this study was limited to active special education directors in Kansas and Oklahoma who provided administrative leadership in various organizational structures, local education agencies (LEAs), special education cooperatives, and interlocals. Seventy-two Kansas directors and 77 Oklahoma directors were asked to respond to the survey instrument.

The survey instrument selected was the "Self-Assessment of Supervisory Competencies" (Bailey, 1986). This instrument is a simplified form of Harris' "Developmental Supervisory Competency Assessment System" (DeSCAS), and includes 150 items from five task areas requiring forced-choices in each task area reflecting the respondents' perceptions of their competencies. The respondents selected two items from the 30 clusters of five activities per cluster, which made 60 selections for each respondent. One item from each major task area was placed in each cluster. The five task areas were separated into 23 subcompetency areas which were more specific.

Harris (1985) divided the task areas into preliminary, operational, and developmental activities. The terms referred to the sequences in which the tasks were used to facilitate teaching. Section A (Developing Materials) and Section C (Staffing) fell under the first division, Preliminary Tasks, which are essential prior to any instructional activity. The next step was Operational Tasks, with Section B (Providing Materials) falling under this heading. This section was considered part of the ongoing operation of the program and was continuous with or without changes in the program. The final step, Developmental Tasks, may be ignored; however, it provided critical new input for changing the instructional program. The last step consisted of tasks F (Arranging for Inservice Education) and I (Evaluating Instruction).

The five "critical" tasks, identified by Harris (1985) from an extensive list of tasks relating to supervision, were considered more directly concerned with the instructional program. Two of these were primarily concerned with people (who they are and how they perform): C (Providing Staff) and F (Inservice). Two of the task areas were primarily concerned with things: A (Developing Curriculum) and B (Providing Materials). The fifth task was concerned with relationships among people, things, and the resulting effects: I (Evaluating Instruction). Of all the tasks of supervision, Harris believed Evaluating Instruction and Arranging for Inservice to be the most important. While Evaluating Instruction is important in the change process, inservice is the task that seeks to improve instruction by changing the performance of people. The results from this survey indicated that the respondents felt most competent in task area F (Inservice Education).

The questionnaire, with a section for demographic data, was mailed to 149 special education directors in Kansas and Oklahoma from lists

provided by the Kansas Department of Education, the 1988 Oklahoma School Directory, and the Oklahoma Directors of Special Services organization. A return of 66 resulted in a 44% response rate from the population. The Kansas directors' return rate was 33%, while Oklahoma's was 55%. In Bailey's (1986) research study using the same questionnaire, 303 questionnaires were mailed out and 162 (53%) were returned.

There was a noticeably unfavorable reaction to the questionnaire by the Kansas directors evidenced from comments on the survey. This same attitude may have led others not to respond. The Oklahoma directors were more cooperative and positive, and this attitude quite possibly resulted in a higher response rate. The higher Oklahoma response rate may be attributed to factors relating to direct personal and professional contact by the researcher with the Oklahoma directors, since she is a charter member of the ODSS organization.

Data analysis involved the use of frequency distribution, percentages, and chi-square analysis to determine significant differences between the variables. Individual competency scores were used to calculate an overall mean of all the respondents. The overall mean score was then compared to each respondents' choice score to determine if they fell below (low) or above (high) the mean. The high and low scores were counted and used to determine percentages. Frequency data was computed on the variables between certified and noncertified special education directors, directors from various sized public school districts, by gender, and by years of experience. The chi-square technique was used to determine if percentages differed at the 0.05 level of significance.

Bailey (1986) used the four different analytical methods for her research study of frequency tabulations, chi-square test of significance, branching diagrams, and individual profiles. Frequency tables were

computed by position type and by district. Bailey calculated a competency score for each major task area by determining the total number of items selected in a major competency area and divided by the total number of items (60) that the respondents could select; thus, she was able to calculate a percentage score.

A mean choice score for each major competency referred to the average number of respondents selecting each major competency. The average number of respondents choosing each item resulted. This average was divided by the total number surveyed.

Bailey (1986) expanded her data by having the respondents give a numerical rating of importance to each competency selected based on a scale of 1 (lowest) to 10 (highest). The level of importance ratings for each major competency was calculated and divided by the number of items in that task area. A mean importance level was computed for each respondent by dividing the sum of the level of importance by the number of items in that task area. The chi-square was used to test the frequency tables for significance.

There are similarities between Bailey's (1986) study and the present study in the use of the same questionnaire and a method for analyzing the data. This research polled only special education directors to determine their perceived supervisory competencies. Bailey separated her respondents into categories by position type and district size.

The demographic data reported in Chapter IV indicated that noncertified special education directors were more cooperative in responding to the survey, almost a two-to-one ratio over certified directors. There was approximately a 50% return rate from directors working for an LEA in Kansas and Oklahoma, with the highest percentage coming from Oklahoma directors employed by a cooperative program (70%). Directors employed in

a medium-sized (1001-6000) public school district had the highest percentage rate of return (54%) by district size, while large districts (6001+) directors had the lowest percentage of return at 13.6%. Of the total number of respondents, there was nearly a two-to-one ratio of female respondents over male respondents. Looking at the years of experience of the directors, there was an equal number of respondents from the one to six years (33) range and the seven and over range (33).

Data were analyzed to draw conclusions about the reasonableness of the first question. The first question was rejected after determining that there was not a significant difference between certified and noncertified special education directors in their overall supervisory competencies. However, two major task areas and nine subcompetency areas were significantly different. Of the five major task areas, the Kansas certified special education directors felt less competent in B--Material Development (25%), while the Oklahoma noncertified directors perceived themselves to be more competent (61.9%). The reverse was true in the area of C (Staffing). The Kansas directors perceived themselves as more competent (91.7%) than did the Oklahoma directors (40.5%) at the .05 level.

From the 23 subcompetency areas, nine areas deviated at the .05 level of above. The Kansas certified directors perceived themselves as more competent in C.1 (Developing a Staffing Plan) (75%), C.2 (Recruiting and Selecting Personnel) (70.8%), C.3 (Assigning Personnel) (83.33%), I.1 (Observing and Analyzing Teaching) (75%), and I.3 (Interviewing In-Depth) (58.3%).

Oklahoma's noncertified directors felt less competent and responded with the following percentages to the above sub-task areas: C.1 (45.2%), C.2 (23.8%), C.3 (38.1%), I.1 (50.0%), and I.3 (23.8%). There were four

subcompetency areas where the Oklahoma directors perceived themselves as more competent than did the Kansas directors. They were: A.2 (Designing Instructional Units), noncertified (69.0%), certified (29.2%); B.2 (Producing Learning Materials), noncertified (42.9%), certified 16.7%); B.3 (Evaluation of the Utilization of Learning Resources), noncertified (61.9%), certified (33.3%); and F.7 (Developing a Master Plan), noncertified (71.4%), certified (45.8%).

The results from the data used to test the second question were rejected, even though a significant difference did exist in some areas of supervisory competencies as compared to special education directors employed in small districts with directors in medium and large districts. A difference was registered in 3 of the 23 subcompetency areas: A.2 (Designing Instructional Units), B.2 (Producing Learning Materials), and B.3 (Evaluation of the Use of Learning Resources), indicating that the special education directors from small public school districts perceived their supervisory competencies to be in these areas. Bailey (1986) found that all the respondents in her study generally perceived themselves as possessing the same competencies regardless of district size.

There was one subcompetency area where the results from special education directors from large public school districts revealed a significantly higher competency score than did the directors from small and medium-sized districts. This was in the subcompetency area of C.1 (Developing a Staffing Plan), while scoring lower in B (Materials Development). The overall question was rejected.

A significant difference was found in only one of the major task areas: B (Providing Materials), and three subcompetency areas: A.2 (Designing Instructional Units), B.1 (Evaluating and Selecting Learning Materials), and B.2 (Producing Learning Materials), in question three.

The overall question was rejected, showing no significant difference between the way male and female special education directors perceived their supervisory competencies. No significant difference was found in supervisory competencies perceived by special education directors between the directors with one to six years of experience and those with seven or more years of experience. Therefore, the fourth question relating to perceived supervisory competencies and special education directors with various years of experience was rejected.

Conclusions

The conclusions of this study were based on the research data presented in Chapter IV. The survey relied on the respondents' own interpretations of their perceived supervisory competencies. The conclusions are summarized as follows:

1. Special education directors, possibly because of past experiences, feel most competent in arranging for inservice, followed by providing staff and developing curriculum. As teachers, they would probably have had opportunities to be involved in inservice activities in developing curriculum.

2. Special education directors in Oklahoma responded at a higher rate of return than did directors in Kansas. The researcher was familiar with the special education directors and name recognition could have contributed to the higher rate of return in Oklahoma.

3. Certified special education directors with specific training are involved less directly with the special education instructional program than are noncertified directors, and they perform more administrative duties dealing with personnel. If the position in most districts

involves responsibilities in select areas, then formal preparation should be required in those areas.

4. Noncertified special education directors, without specific training, focus their activities around instructional tasks dealing with learning materials and developing curriculum. Noncertified special education directors rely on their teacher training program for supervisory skills when performing their duties.

5. Special education directors from small public school districts feel more confident performing supervisory tasks that are related to providing materials in the instructional process and the skills related to dealing with things, not people. The smaller schools have fewer children and special educators to supervise. The special education director may be a part-time teacher in addition to the responsibilities of director. Without additional training, the teacher who becomes director will emphasize that area of competency gained from experience.

6. The larger the public school district, the more confident the special education director feels toward the supervisory competencies in providing for the staff and developing a staffing plan. There is more need in larger districts, with a larger special education staff, for the special education director to be experienced and confident in dealing with personnel issues.

7. Female special education directors are more confident than are male special education directors in developing materials. Quite possibly, small districts tend to hire females as directors and materials development is a more significant part of a director's responsibility in a small district.

8. The number of years of experience is not a factor in how special education directors perceive their supervisory competencies. On-the-job

experience does not significantly influence the directors' confidence in their supervisory skills.

9. In Kansas, male and female educators pursue additional training and certification for the position of special education director in equal numbers. Apparently, the educational climate in Kansas is such that both males and females feel an equal opportunity exists for them to become special education directors.

10. Oklahoma male directors were outnumbered nearly three to one by female respondents. There are three times as many male public school administrators as females, according to the Oklahoma State Department of Education. Women hold 668 of the 2,759 administrative positions (24%), but 30,053 of the 39,203 teaching positions (77%). In Oklahoma, more female teachers are promoted to the director position. There is a different attitude about the special education director's position compared with the attitude of the regular administrator's position. While more male educators are employed as regular administrators, the opposite holds true for special education administrators.

11. Of the population responding to the survey, the largest number of respondents (57%) came from medium-sized school districts, with ADAs ranging from 1001 to 6000. There was a 28% response rate from small districts, and 13% from large districts. There are more small public school districts in Oklahoma than medium and large districts, according to the data reported from the Oklahoma State Department of Education. Small schools in Oklahoma join cooperatives to provide special services and employ one director to supervise the programs. The size of a school district influences the job expectations of the special education director. With the passage of H.B. 1017 in Oklahoma there is an anticipated reduction in the number of smaller school districts. As average

district size increases, there will be a need for special education directors who are not only competent in dealing with learning materials, but who can also perform administrative tasks relating to the involvement of people. There will be a new demand for additional supervisory competencies for Oklahoma's special education directors. Bailey's (1986) data revealed that supervisors in certain sized districts perceived themselves as possessing the same major task competencies regardless of district size.

Recommendations

Following are the recommendations made from findings based on the results of this study:

Recommendations for Application

1. Prior to hiring a special education director, the superintendent should clearly define the duties of the director and how that person interfaces with the organization. This would allow the superintendent the tools to compare an individual's educational preparation and experience with the job expectation to determine if the individual is adequately trained to perform the assigned duties. At the same time, individuals interested in the position would know the criteria and could actively pursue the needed requirements.

2. A survey from a state university could be mailed to all superintendents asking for information on what duties their special education directors are performing. Included in the survey could be a request for their opinion on whether they feel that their present director was adequately prepared for that position, and whether or not they would be

favorable to training programs developed around job expectations for special education directors.

3. An internship should be developed between the universities and the public schools for prospective special education directors to learn the management skills and techniques prior to assuming the responsibilities as director. This would eliminate the need for the predecessor to be the trainer.

4. A background in special education, general education administrative course work (including supervision), and an internship experience should be considered as a prerequisite for employment as a special education director. This type of program should give the special education director a wide range of competencies needed for directing and supervising programs.

5. Once more stringent requirements are initiated for special education directors, pressure should be placed on the superintendents to view this position as an administrative position dealing with personnel, with the duties being performed in the central office.

6. The supervisory competencies addressed in the questionnaire are skills that facilitate the teaching operation. Supervision is one area that is related to instructional improvement, and preparation in this area should be made mandatory at the master's level for all education majors.

7. A study should be made to compare the certification requirements of special education directors from various states to determine if it would be feasible to initiate a certification program in Oklahoma.

Recommendations for Further Study

The following are recommendations for research suggested by the

findings and conclusions of this study:

1. Additional research in the area of supervisory competencies should be repeated in other states to compare the perceived supervisory competencies of special education directors in those states to Oklahoma special education directors. The finding could then be generalized and extended to a larger population.

2. Further research, perhaps using qualitative techniques, should be conducted to determine the job responsibilities of special education directors from small, medium, and large districts to determine why they perceive their supervisory competencies differently.

3. Further research should be conducted to investigate the educational backgrounds of the Oklahoma special education directors to determine the prevalence of those who have completed courses in supervision to determine if they have been trained in a variety of multidimensional supervisory skills. These are skills that improve the instructional program in an educational setting. Evaluating Instruction was not selected as an area in which Oklahoma special education directors felt competent, yet this area is important to instructional improvement. If Oklahoma directors do not perceive themselves competent in Evaluating Instruction, how effective can they be in assisting teachers in improving the instructional programs?

4. A survey could be conducted to review the duties of special education directors in Oklahoma to prepare interested others for the director's position.

5. Further investigations should be made into how the special education directors address the problem of improving the instructional process in their local district and how the activities relate to the field of supervision.

6. A study should be conducted to determine if redistricting of school districts for consolidation purposes creates or eliminates special education positions in Oklahoma. Consolidation would have fewer small districts and would increase the number of medium and large districts, changing the supervisory competency needs as the population of the schools change.

7. A study should be made to update and shorten the instrument used to collect data for this research.

8. A similar study could be conducted which included all educational leaders; i.e., building principals, superintendents, etc., and which compared their supervisory skills to those of the special education directors.

9. A study should be conducted to poll special education teachers on how they perceive their special education directors' supervisory skills.

10. A study could be conducted in a school with an organizational framework that stressed participatory management (i.e., Total Quality Management) to see if supervisory tasks are performed by someone other than the special education director.

Discussion

This study focused on the supervisory competencies of special education directors. The intent was to ascertain the areas of supervision special education directors were involved in regarding the instructional programming for handicapped children. An instrument developed by Harris (1975) for a special training project for special education leaders was modified by Bailey in 1986 for her research study. This instrument was used in the present study. The test for reliability stated in Chapter

III for this instrument was conducted from the data collected in this study, and the results should be interpreted with caution.

There was an unexpected and unavoidable delay in summarizing the research information collected for this study due to circumstances beyond the researcher's control. Additional personal conditions were mitigating. However, after carefully considering the results and the influence of the delay on research findings, a decision was made to report the data as collected in 1989. The decision was based on data found in analyzing the information on the number of years of experience of the special education directors.

Although this study did not address the best way to select special education directors or even what to look for when selecting a special education director, it became apparent that there were differences in the duties performed by special education directors. Differences appeared between certified and noncertified directors, directors from various sized districts, and differences between male and female directors. The only area where there were no significant differences was in years of experience.

There were areas of commonality among the different groups of directors. For example, special education directors from large districts and certified directors both showed strong perceived competencies in staffing and in working with people. They were involved in the selection of their staffs and evaluating their staffs, etc. Evaluating the instructional process provides valuable information needed to assess the success of the instructional program. They were not directly involved in the instructional process in areas of selecting learning materials and the direct teaching process as were the noncertified directors from small or medium-sized districts. This should be an indication to those desiring to work

in a large district that they will need to be adequately prepared, perhaps certified as an educational administrator to be considered for employment in a large district.

It was noted that in the state where certification is required, there was an equal number of male and female directors. Traditionally, teaching has been viewed as a profession for women, and the salary reflects this thinking. Morris (1992) found that female-dominated fields tended to be lower paying than male-dominated fields with comparable training requirements. However, it may be of benefit to those seeking a better paying position in education to continue their training to qualify for a job as special education director.

The results showed that more female directors and directors from small districts viewed their supervisory competencies to be in the area of producing materials. The implication may be that they are performing the duties assigned to them. In Oklahoma there is a larger number of female directors and directors from small school districts. Their abilities to adapt materials and to select appropriate curriculum may be more beneficial to our school children than having supervisory skills in the area of staffing. However, not being prepared to deal with staffing problems may disqualify them for positions in larger districts where there is a demand for individuals to have competence in dealing with personnel problems.

On December 4, 1989, the 42nd Legislature of the State of Oklahoma passed House Bill 1017 to reform education in Oklahoma. There are many changes mandated in this piece of legislation that affect early childhood education, standards of performance for teachers and administrators, class size requirements, funding sources, consolidation of schools, etc. How these changes will influence the results of this survey if completed

at this time can only be speculated. Through more early childhood programs, perhaps more children with handicaps may be identified. This could lead to an increase in the demand for special education teachers and services. Through consolidation of schools, fewer small districts will be in operation, reducing the demand for special education directors to supervise personnel and direct programs. Since H.B. 1017 is not fully implemented at this time, it will be several years before the full impact will be felt on the schools. After H.B. 1017 is fully implemented, a new study using this survey instrument is recommended to determine what effect it has had, if any, on the perceived supervisory competencies of special education directors in Oklahoma. Will Oklahoma special education directors be ready to face new and demanding roles in larger schools? This needs to be watched carefully to insure that directors are ready to compete in the job market if anticipated changes in the number of school districts occur.

In 1906, one year before Oklahoma statehood, the first course to prepare supervisors of special education was begun at Teachers College, Columbia University, in New York. The need for trained special educators is strikingly more important today than it was in 1906. The question that keeps coming up is: How well are we preparing special educators to address the needs of our handicapped children? The special education director should be at the forefront as the leader in the quest for advancement in the instructional process to assure that our special needs students are given the opportunity to be educated to the fullest extent possible. Supervision is an area that addresses these instructional skills. The importance of acquiring and improving one's supervisory skills cannot be underestimated because it translates directly into improved instructional programs. Although there may be personal

satisfaction and some monetary gains for the directors when they are better equipped, the real winners are the children. All the legislation in the world cannot take the place of skilled educators making a difference in their educational niches.

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APPENDIX A
CERTIFICATION REQUIREMENTS FOR SPECIAL
EDUCATION DIRECTORS

certification

Certification, Teacher Education, and Accreditation Section Kansas State Department of Education

August 1984

<i>Initial Certification in Kansas</i>	INITIAL Kansas certification is based upon completion of an approved teacher education program specific to the subject area and grade level requested AND Verification that the applicant has either one year of accredited experience or eight semester hours of credit (six if the applicant has an advanced degree) within the six years prior to application. Recent graduates who have completed the required number of semester hours prior to graduation and within the six-year period meet this requirement.
<i>State Approved Program</i>	A teacher education program must be approved specifically for subject area and grade level by the department of education of the state in which the college/university is located. The Kansas Department of Education Certification and Teacher Education Section has information on the approval status of teacher education programs in other states. Since an approved program is the basis for Kansas certification, transcripts are not analyzed.
<i>College Recommendation</i>	The completion of a teacher education program must be verified by the designated certification officer of a college or university.
<i>Recommending Teacher Education Institution</i>	A college or university is considered a recommending teacher education institution when a minimum of eight graduate or upper-division semester hours applicable to an approved program have been completed at that institution by the applicant.
<i>Multiple Programs</i>	When teacher education programs have been completed at more than one university, a recommendation is required from each university for the appropriate endorsement. Example: a person prepared as a teacher at one university and as a school counselor at a second university must be recommended by the first university for the teaching endorsement and by the second university for the school counselor endorsement, however, only one application fee is required.
<i>Non-Approved Programs</i>	The graduate of an accredited out-of-state teacher education institution with programs which do not meet Kansas approval standards may be certified through the recommendation of a Kansas college or university. The applicant should contact the certification officer of the Kansas institution which has an approved program in the subject area sought. Evaluation of prior credit may be made, deficiencies identified, and, if necessary, a program planned which will meet Kansas standards. The Kansas institution may recommend the applicant for provisional or full endorsement.
<i>Accredited Experience</i>	Experience required for initial certification or certificate renewal must be half-time or more under contract in an accredited school while holding a certificate valid for the assignment.
<i>Certificate Renewal</i>	Renewal credit must be completed at an accredited college or university within the required time span and must be upper-division (junior or senior) or graduate level, unless lower-division credit has been specifically approved by the applicant's district or building administrator. Applicants shall select credit hours which maintain or improve skills related to their employment as teachers, administrators or special services personnel in the schools. Renewal credit shall be appropriate to the endorsements which appear on the certificate, to a new endorsement area, or to professional development.
<i>Exceptional Child Survey Course</i>	Each applicant for renewal of a standard elementary and/or secondary teaching certificate must provide evidence that a two semester hour survey course of exceptional children has been completed. A course is acceptable if it has been completed at an accredited college or university and is a broad survey of exceptionalities of children. If a course has been included with prior credit, it is not necessary to complete a more recent course.

<i>Certificate Renewal Using Inservice Education</i>	Applicants for certificate renewal who are employed by districts which have state-approved inservice education plans may use inservice education points as a basis for recertification. The applicant must have an individual development plan on file with the employing district and present 160 inservice education points (with an advanced degree) or 80 inservice education points and four semester hours of additional recent college credit (with a baccalaureate degree). The inservice points must represent experiences approved for that applicant by the district's inservice education council.
<i>Applying in Advance</i>	A certificate may be renewed no more than 18 months in advance provided that the renewal requirements have been met. An exception to this is renewal based on age, which requires experience during the final year of the certificate's validity as the basis for this type of renewal.
<i>Renewing on the Basis of Age</i>	A person holding a valid Kansas certificate who has reached age 60 may renew a certificate without additional college credits if the applicant has taught the school year just prior to certificate expiration and four of the five previous years. The application for renewal must be accompanied by a request from the employing official of the school in which the applicant is to serve.
<i>Special Education Provisional Endorsement</i>	Provisional endorsement is available in some special education teaching areas. The applicant must meet the academic requirements for provisional endorsement and must be recommended for the specific area and grade level by the teacher education institution. A provisional endorsement may be renewed four times and each renewal requires an application, fee, official transcript and a recommendation from the teacher education institution based upon progress toward completion of an approved program.
<i>Provisional Endorsement in a Secondary Teaching Field</i>	Until May 1, 1985, a person who is certified for teaching grades 7 through 12 may be recommended for provisional endorsement in additional secondary areas if the applicant has completed 50% or more of the recommending institution's approved program. A deficiency plan for completion of the full program must be prepared and filed with the application for provisional endorsement. Two additional one-year provisional endorsements may be given based upon progress on the prescribed program and the recommendation of the teacher education institution.
<i>Vocational Endorsement</i>	Vocational endorsement requires work experience directly related to the area of endorsement. Applications for endorsement which are <i>not</i> based upon an approved vocational teacher education program must include evidence of high school graduation, a record of related work experience, and verification by employers. Provisional vocational endorsement requires the application to be co-signed by the employing school administrator.
<i>Substitute Teaching</i>	A standard teaching certificate may be used either for full-time teaching or substitute teaching. A Kansas substitute certificate may be used for no more than 90 days of teaching in a school year. A Kansas substitute teaching certificate requires evidence of prior Kansas teacher's certification or out-of-state certification based upon a degree, for secondary level substitute certification, or based upon 60 semester hours of credit, for elementary level substitute certification. The applicant for a substitute certificate who has not had prior certification in any state must meet standard certification requirements. A Kansas substitute certificate may be renewed once on recent experience - 90 days during the validity of the certificate. Subsequent renewals require three additional semester hours of recent college credit.
<i>Emergency Substitute Certification</i>	An emergency substitute certificate is available on the basis of 60 or more semester hours of college credit. This certificate is issued by the local district when a shortage of otherwise qualified substitute teachers exists. The certificate is valid for substituting 30 days per semester during the current school year and in that district only.
<i>Reciprocity</i>	At this point in time, Kansas does not have reciprocal certification agreements with other states.
<i>Placement Opportunities</i>	The Kansas State Department of Education does not have a placement bureau. However, a listing of school districts is available through the Information Office, 120 East Tenth Topeka, Kansas 66612.

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
College of Education
Director of Special Education

A. BACKGROUND REQUIREMENTS

1. Applicant must hold or be eligible for full endorsement in a Special education area and
2. Applicant must hold or be eligible for a District School Administrator endorsement and
3. Applicant must hold or be eligible for a Building Administrator endorsement, including two years of teaching experience, or
4. Applicant must hold or be eligible for a Special Education Supervisor/Coordinator endorsement, including two years of teaching experience.

B. COURSE WORK REQUIREMENTS:

EDAF 833	Administration of Special Education-----	3
EDAF 893	Seminar: Special Education-----	3
EDAF 910	Educational Personnel Administration-----	3
EDAF 836	School-Public Relations-----	3
EDAF 831	Educational Law-----	3
EDAF 819	Educational Finance-----	3
EDAF 988	Internship-Special Education-----	3
	Elective-----	3
TOTAL HOURS REQUIRED-----		24

Students will be required to have at least twelve (12) semester hours in three (3) areas of special education other than the one area of certification under one (1) above, and must meet the minimum of 48 graduate hours.

Additional information about Special Education programs or the program in Special Education Administration in particular, may be secured from the following member of the faculty in Special Education of the College of Education:

Special Education - Faculty Chairperson
Bluemont Hall, 301
Ph. (913) 532-5542

APPENDIX B

LIST OF PROFESSIONAL SUPERVISORY COMPETENCIES

Abbreviated List of Professional Supervisory Competencies:
Developmental Supervisory Competency Assessment System

- A. DEVELOPING CURRICULUM
 - A-1 Setting instructional goals
 - A-2 Designing instructional units
 - A-3 Developing and adapting curricula
- B. PROVIDING MATERIALS
 - B-1 Evaluating and selecting learning materials
 - B-2 Producing learning materials
 - B-3 Evaluating the utilization of learning resources
- C. PROVIDING STAFF FOR INSTRUCTION
 - C-1 Developing a staffing plan
 - C-2 Recruiting and selecting personnel
 - C-3 Assigning personnel
- D. ORGANIZING FOR INSTRUCTION
 - D-1 Revising existing structures
 - D-2 Assimilating programs
 - D-3 Monitoring new arrangements
- E. RELATING SPECIAL PUPIL SERVICES
 - E-1 Analyzing and securing services
 - E-2 Orienting and utilizing special personnel
 - E-3 Scheduling services
 - E-4 Evaluating the utilization of services
- F. ARRANGING FOR IN-SERVICE EDUCATION
 - F-1 Supervising in a clinical mode
 - F-2 Planning for individual growth
 - F-3 Designing in-service training sessions
 - F-4 Conducting in-service training sessions
 - F-5 Training for leadership roles
 - F-6 Assessing needs for in-service education
 - F-7 Developing a master plan
 - F-8 Writing a project proposal
 - F-9 Designing a self-instructional packet
 - F-10 Designing a training program series
- G. DEVELOPING PUBLIC RELATIONS
 - G-1 Informing the public
 - G-2 Involving public opinion
 - G-3 Utilizing public opinion
- H. PROVIDING FACILITIES FOR INSTRUCTION
 - H-1 Developing educational specifications
 - H-2 Planning for remodeling
 - H-3 Outfitting a facility
- I. EVALUATING INSTRUCTION
 - I-1 Observing and analyzing teaching
 - I-2 Designing a questionnaire
 - I-3 Interviewing in-depth
 - I-4 Analyzing and interpreting data

Source: Ben M. Harris, Developmental Supervisory Competency Assessment System (Round Rock, Texas, Ben M. Harris Associates, 1980).

APPENDIX C

PERSPECTIVES OF SUPERVISOR COMPETENCIES
ACCORDING TO VARIOUS AUTHORS

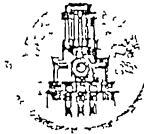
AUTHOR	SUPERVISORY COMPETENCIES

Harris (1985)	
Developing Curriculum	Providing Materials
Organizing for Instruction	Providing Staff
Evaluating Instruction	Providing Facilities
Relating Special Pupil Services	Orienting Staff
Arranging for Inservice Education	
Developing Public Relations	
Lovell and Wiles (1983)	
Curriculum Development	
Goal Formulation, Implementation and Evaluation	
Direct Support and Service for the Teaching Behavior System	
Evaluation for Personnel Decision	
Inservice Education	
Evaluation of Educational Results	
Dull (1981)	
Classroom Supervision	Guidance
Curriculum Development	Communication
Personnel Assignment and Evaluation	
Instructional Materials, Equipment and Facilities	
Staff Development	
Burch and Danley (1980)	
Resource Allocation	Motivation
Host Ceremonial	Maintenance
External Contacts	of Records
Training & Development	Crisis
Observation & Evaluation	Management
Formal Communications	
Information & Dissemination	
Carman (1970)	
Coordinating Inservice Education	
Fostering Improvement in Human Relations	
Providing Instructional and Consultative Services	

Source: M. D. Bailey, "The Relationship Among Supervisory Competencies, Job Expectations, and Position Types" (Unpub. doctoral dissertation (1986)).

APPENDIX D

CORRESPONDENCE FROM DR. BEN HARRIS AND
DR. M. DANITA BAILEY



Memorandum
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION
EDUCATION BUILDING 310 □ AREA CODE 512 471 7551
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION □ THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT AUSTIN □ AUSTIN 78712

TO: Ms. Jo Bennett

DATE: 2/10/87

FROM: Ben M. Harris

Dear Ms. Bennett:

Thanks for your interest in Supervisory Competency Assessment. Enclosed are several documents:

1. Self-Assessment of Supervisory Competencies--A forced-choice instrument.
2. Abbreviated statements of competencies regrouped by major competencies and task areas.
3. A key for scoring the self-assessment inventory.
4. A profile scoring key.
5. Some norm data to consider. Dr. Bailey's dissertation provides another set of norms.
6. A more complete listing of competencies.

Good luck!

May 1, 1987

Dear Ms. Bennett:

Dr. Ben Harris has informed me that you would like to use my "Self-Assessment of Supervisory Competencies" instrument in your doctoral research project. From the tone of your letter, I am assuming that you have already received it from Dr. Harris.

Yes, you have my approval and my blessings. Good luck in your work. I vividly remember my own struggle to complete my doctorate. I hope you are receiving all the support and assistance you need.

I would love to know what your research is about and how you plan to use the assessment instrument. If you have time, please write me about it.

Sincerely,

M. Danita Bailey, Ph.D.



Memorandum
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

EDUCATION BUILDING 310 □ AREA CODE 512 471 7551
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION □ THE UNIVERSITY OF TEXAS AT AUSTIN □ AUSTIN 78712

TO: Ms. Jo Bennett

DATE: 6/10/91

FROM: Ben M. Harris

RE: Request for Validation Data

M. D. Bailey (1986). "The Relationship Among Supervisory Competencies, Job Expectations, and Position Types" (Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Texas at Austin).

This dissertation is really about all that is available.

APPENDIX E

SELF-ASSESSMENT OF SUPERVISORY COMPETENCIES
SURVEY AND COVER LETTER TO KANSANS

February 1, 1989

Dear Director of Special Education:

At this time, Kansas has a certification requirement that goes along with being qualified to hold the position of Director of Special Education. The position of Director of Special Education in Kansas indicates that you have gone through a specific program and have acquired specific skills. As a Director of Special Education, you are responsible for performing many supervisory duties, i.e., developing curriculum, developing materials; staffing; inservice; evaluations. In Oklahoma, there is not a certification requirement for Directors of Special Education. Individuals holding the position of Director of Special Education are not required to obtain specific training and certification, prior to being placed in that position.

I am presently working on my doctorate at Oklahoma State University, in the Department of Educational Administration. I am interested in researching the area of perceived supervisory skills/competencies of Directors of Special Education in Oklahoma and Kansas. Since the requirements for that position are not the same, I would like to see if there is a difference in the way the Directors perceive their skills. I would be most appreciative if you would fill out the enclosed questionnaire and return it to me as soon as possible. I need your help in obtaining information to produce the most accurate and complete data possible. At no time will your name be associated with your response, even if you elect to sign the survey.

Thanking you in advance for your time and assistance, both of which are greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Jo Bennett

JB/mah

Enclosure

SELF-ASSESSMENT OF SUPERVISORY COMPETENCIES ©

SEX Male Female

DISTRICT / _____

INSTRUCTIONS

1. Check (✓) the two behaviors, out of each set of five supervisory behaviors, that best describe your capabilities. Please check two and only two behaviors from each set of five in the left-hand parenthesis (), even if none or all of the choices seem appropriate.

EXAMPLE

- (✓) 1 Writes performance objectives _____
 () 2 Trains personnel _____
 (✓) 3 Leads group discussions _____
 () 4 Recruits personnel _____
 () 5 Observes teachers. _____

() 1. Leads groups for goal setting sessions _____	() 6 Recommends competency based assignments for new personnel _____
() 2. Operates audio production equipment _____	() 7. Writes performance objectives for curriculum units _____
() 3 Designs inservice programs according to individual differences _____	() 8 Designs instruments to determine resource utilization by students _____
() 4 Redesigns application forms for screening teacher applicants _____	() 9 Schedules teacher observations _____
() 5 Constructs contingency tables _____	() 10. Programs self-instructional activity sequences _____
() 11 Trains personnel in using material evaluations _____	() 16 Selects, describes, sequences instructional activities _____
() 12 Uses graphic techniques to differentiate goals and objectives _____	() 17 Designs audiovisual materials for instructional units _____
() 13 Constructs scattergram for teacher evaluation data _____	() 18. Develops performance criteria for new staff positions _____
() 14 Develops creative procedures for generating data from teacher applicants _____	() 19 Develops evaluation procedures and materials for inservice _____
() 15 Coordinates work in inservice proposal preparation _____	() 20. Selects response modes that insure reliable data in teacher evaluation _____

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Based on The Developmental Supervisory Competency Assessment System by Ben M. Harris, 1982
 Reproduced by Special Permission of M. Danita Bailey

1/2/3/4/5/6/7/8/9/10
Low High

() 21. Writes instructional goals that define learning outcomes. _____	() 26. Designs 'recruit-catching' brochures for potential teacher applicants. _____
() 22. Makes recommendations to improve material resource utilization. _____	() 27. Organizes 'debriefing' sessions for teachers leading inservice sessions. _____
() 23. Guides planning of inservice education program. _____	() 28. Computes means, medians, modes, etc. for instructional evaluation data. _____
() 24. Designs surveys utilizing observation data to guide instructional evaluation. _____	() 29. Analyzes test scores of students for use in determining needed curriculum changes. _____
() 25. Identifies professional growth needs of new personnel. _____	() 30. Asks probing questions of salespersons demonstrating materials. _____
() 31. Constructs branching diagrams to solve instructional evaluation problems. _____	() 36. Assists in writing a statement of philosophy of education. _____
() 32. Designates strategies for inservice programs. _____	() 37. Designs survey of instructional materials. _____
() 33. Drafts organizational charts. _____	() 38. Arranges for new personnel orientation. _____
() 34. Arranges, monitors the commercial production of new unit materials. _____	() 39. Develops teacher inservice experience schedule. _____
() 35. Conducts needs assessment for curriculum revision. _____	() 40. Analyzes teacher performance using varied data sources. _____
() 41. Selects, develops media for self-instructional packet. _____	() 46. Trains, leads team in using material assessment instruments. _____
() 42. Computes tests of significance to solve instructional evaluation problems. _____	() 47. Designs tests for instructional units. _____
() 43. Arranges to involve representative participants in goal setting. _____	() 48. Designs tables, charts for 'translating' questionnaire data. _____
() 44. Uses references, guides, that review, evaluate books, supplies, etc. _____	() 49. Recommends staff assignments based on job expectations and staff competencies. _____
() 45. Refines teacher selection criteria to performance expectations. _____	() 50. Consults with decision-makers and planners in prioritizing inservice needs. _____
() 51. Selects, describes rationale for instructional unit strategy development. _____	() 56. Draws logical conclusions from evaluation data. _____
() 52. Specifies criteria for evaluating utilization of resource persons. _____	() 57. Designs tests, worksheets, manipulatives to enhance learning. _____
() 53. Proposes written creative recruitment plan. _____	() 58. Develops plan for reassignment of personnel. _____
() 54. Leads participant through meaningful inservice activity. _____	() 59. Provides training for teachers who implement inservices. _____
() 55. Writes clearly to communicate meaning of evaluation data displays. _____	() 60. Selects high priority instructional goals for students. _____

1/2/3/4/5/6/7/8/9/10
 Low High

() 61. Makes recommendations to purchase materials. _____	() 66. Plans program of curriculum adaptation involving teachers as curriculum workers. _____
() 62. Identifies material to determine the attainment of goals. _____	() 67. Locates new, imaginative materials for teachers to review. _____
() 63. Projects staffing needs _____	() 68. Prepares list of institutions and contacts for recruitment purposes. _____
() 64. Describes clear procedures for completing questionnaires. _____	() 69. Constructs displays for inservice proposals that communicate schedules, costs, staffing. _____
() 65. Plans inservice training session to include a variety of stimulating activities _____	() 70. Recommends appropriate and inappropriate ways to use formative data for summative purposes. _____
() 71. Writes recommendations based on instructional evaluation data. _____	() 76. Organizes, directs review committees in material selection. _____
() 72. Identifies inservice resource needs. _____	() 77. Estimates time to complete activities in instructional unit. _____
() 73. Designs reliable, valid procedures to identify strengths, weaknesses in curricula. _____	() 78. Assists teacher in selecting objectives for change in classroom practices. _____
() 74. Works with teachers to produce educationally sound materials. _____	() 79. Reanalyzes job descriptions to recommend modifications. _____
() 75. Guides administrators, teachers in making staff reassignments _____	() 80. Selects best observation instrument for evaluation _____
() 81. Explains proposed adaptations in curricular scope, sequence, and content. _____	() 86. Recommends reassignment schedules providing new experiences for persons seeking promotions. _____
() 82. Conducts job interviews using well-designed schedule. _____	() 87. Describes teaching procedures for a unit. _____
() 83. Provides evaluative feedback concerning contributions of instructional resource persons _____	() 88. Designs, organizes multi-media instructional packet for students. _____
() 84. Analyzes needs assessment data for inservice. _____	() 89. Constructs schedule guiding evaluation interviews. _____
() 85. Specifies high priority questions to guide evaluation _____	() 90. Leads group in systematic planning of inservice _____
() 91. Observes, records, analyzes in-classroom activities with various instruments. _____	() 96. Develops supplemental guides, lists to use with 'regular' curriculum guides. _____
() 92. Sequences content and objectives for self-instructional training packet _____	() 97. Compares resource materials with recognized standards of quality. _____
() 93. Describes revisions in staffing to improve instruction. _____	() 98. Designs procedures for processing applications. _____
() 94. Organizes, analyzes information prior to recommending purchase _____	() 99. Conducts supervisory interview with teacher using non-directive and shared decision-making techniques. _____
() 95. Analyzes scope, sequence, content in curriculum guide _____	() 100. Designs evaluation interview procedures to facilitate recording of responses _____

1/2/3/4/5/6/7/8/9/10
Low High

()101. Writes program proposals with clear goals. _____	()106. Helps teachers adapt lesson, unit plans for individual differences. _____
()102. Writes clear questionnaire items for evaluations. _____	()107. Designs, critiques, alternative staffing plans for new instructional programs. _____
()103. Designs exemplary unit for use as prototype for other unit. _____	()108. Operates visual production equipment. _____
()104. Compares cost effectiveness of different media. _____	()109. Develops focused observation instruments for analyzing teaching problems. _____
()105. Trains administrators, teachers in staff assignment procedures. _____	()110. Selects and adapts needs assessment instruments for inservice training. _____
()111. Edits, revises activity descriptions in curriculum. _____	()116. Guides teacher planning for observation preparation. _____
()112. Surveys material resource persons inside/outside school for decision-making information. _____	()117. Provides advance information, physical arrangements, essential resources for inservice. _____
()113. Schedules time conserving interviews and orientation activities for applicants. _____	()118. Coordinates assignments of substitutes and volunteers. _____
()114. Describes array of inservice programs showing their relationship to priority needs. _____	()119. Operates xerox, ditto-type copiers and other copy machines. _____
()115. Designs interview procedures and materials to assure in-depth probing in evaluations. _____	()120. Adapts curriculum guides in scope, sequence to students' needs. _____
()121. Validates scoring system for data reduction in personnel selection. _____	()126. Leads teacher through a clinical cycle for instructional improvement. _____
()122. Conducts in-depth evaluation interviews, recording highly reliable data. _____	()127. Reanalyzes teacher evaluation data as basis for proposing personnel assignments. _____
()123. Conducts goal-analysis session using student achievement data. _____	()128. Designs instrument for assessing new learning material. _____
()124. Writes survey report on material availability, utilization, quality. _____	()129. Provides useful verbal feedback on instructional observation data. _____
()125. Specifies realistic inservice objectives related to participant needs. _____	()130. Adapts units, lessons to meet individual student needs. _____
()131. Prepares curriculum material for reproduction and distribution. _____	()136. Specifies criteria to use in evaluation of instructional materials. _____
()132. Secures, adapts learning materials that promote active involvement of students. _____	()137. Estimates reliability and validity of curriculum goal attainment procedures. _____
()133. Drafts proposals for innovative team, interdisciplinary teaching arrangements. _____	()138. Tests, analyzes instructional evaluation questionnaire items and response forms. _____
()134. Identifies highly competent teachers, promoting their interest in inservice. _____	()139. Interprets teacher performance data using collaborative procedures with client. _____
()135. Constructs instructional evaluation data displays in bar, line graph, and tabular forms. _____	()140. Writes affirmative action plans specifying programs, positions to best benefit from use of minorities. _____

1/2/3/4/5/6/7/8/9/10
 Low High

()141.Designs new instructional unit for innovative lesson.	()146.Trains interviewers in use of in-depth instructional evaluation interview schedules.
()142.Produces written materials for use by students.	()147.Observes in classroom, using selected observation instruments
()143.Analyzes instructional effects of reductions in staff due to budget restrictions.	()148.Writes clear job descriptions for variety of positions.
()144 Selects inservice training strategy for specific group	()149.Specifies criteria of quality, utility, availability for teacher evaluation, selection of learning materials.
()145.Trains administrators, teachers in use of a variety of observation instruments.	()150.Comparas, contrasts previously developed curriculum material from several sources

**REMEMBER TO COMPLETE ALL BEHAVIOR SETS BEFORE RATING YOUR SELECTED BEHAVIORS'

Name _____ Position title _____

(Optional)

Sex / Male / Female

ADA 0
 District Sizes 500-1,000
 1,001-6,000
 6,001+

Number of years worked as Director of Special Services _____

Please mark the courses you have completed

- ___ 1 Public School Administration
- ___ 2 Administration of Special Education
- ___ 3 Organization and Administration in Education
- ___ 4 Organization and Administration in Special Education
- ___ 5 Supervision (Regular Education)
- ___ 6 Supervision in Special Education
- ___ 7 Organizational Theory in Education
- ___ 8 Organizational Theory in Special Education
- ___ 9 Developmental Psychology
- ___ 10 Behavior Characteristics of Exceptional Children
- ___ 11 Curriculum Development in Regular Education
- ___ 12 Curriculum Development in Special Education
- ___ 13 Public School Finance (Educational Finance)
- ___ 14 Special Education Finance
- ___ 15 Supervisor in Public School Personnel
- ___ 16 Supervision of Special Education Personnel
- ___ 17 Legal Aspects of Education (Educational Law)
- ___ 18 Legal Aspects of Special Education
- ___ 19 History of Education
- ___ 20 History of Special Education
- ___ 21 Leadership in Education
- ___ 22 Leadership in Special Education
- ___ 23 Motivation Theory
- ___ 24 Exceptional Children
- ___ 25 School-Public Relations

Have you been trained in a special program for Director's of Special Services and are now or have been certified as a Director of Special Services?

Yes No

APPENDIX F

FIRST AND SECOND MAIL OUT LETTERS

January 5, 1989

Dear Director of Special Services:

On November 3 1988, I distributed a survey I'm using for my research for my doctoral dissertation. As a doctoral candidate in the Department of Educational Administration at Oklahoma State University, my research is designed to assess the current supervisory activities of Oklahoma's Directors of Special Services and what they perceive as their best skills/capabilities.

Some of you have already taken the time to complete the survey and return it to me. I want to "Thank You" for your consideration and help. However, I am still needing additional surveys to produce the most accurate and complete data possible. At no time will your name be associated with your response, even if you elect to sign the survey.

Thank you for your time and assistance, both of which are greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,

Jo Bennett

JB/mah

May 23, 1989

Tulsa, OK 74113

Dear Maureen:

Several months ago I distributed a questionnaire that I'm using for my research on my Doctorate at Oklahoma State University. Many have responded to my request, but I am still needing your help to have enough information to complete my research study.

A few individuals took the time to make comments regarding my questionnaire. I appreciate the feedback. From their comments, I feel it is appropriate to give some background information on the instrument I'm utilizing in my study. "The Developmental Supervisory Competency Assessment System" was developed at the University of Texas at Austin by Dr. Ben M. Harris for "The Special Education Supervisor Training Project." It was a carefully developed set of competency specifications for instructional supervisors. In 1984, the assessment instrument format was revised and simplified. The instrument I am using is the simplified version called: "Self-Assessment of Supervisory Competencies." The nine leadership-task areas were abbreviated to five critical competencies: developing curriculum; providing materials; providing staff; arranging for inservice education and evaluating instruction. This list in no way represents all job-tasks in your position as Director of Special Education. This instrument only explores the areas of dealing with supervising special education staff.

I know this is a busy time of year for you, but your help is appreciated.

Sincerely,

Jo Bennett

JB/mah

APPENDIX G

ABBREVIATED STATEMENTS OF SPECIFIC COMPETENCIES
(SKILLS) OF SUPERVISION

A CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

A1 Setting Instructional Goals

- 1 Leads groups
- 12 Uses graphics
- 21 Writes goals
- 36 Assists in writing philosophy
- 43 Arranges involvement
- 60 Selects priority goals
- 62 Identifies goals
- 73 Designs procedures
- 123 Conducts goal analysis
- 137 Estimates reliability and validity

A2 Designing Instructional Units

- 7 Writes performance objectives
- 16 Selects, describes activities
- 47 Designs tests
- 51 Selects, describes rationale
- 77 Estimates time to complete unit
- 103 Designs exemplary unit
- 130 Adapts to meet needs
- 141 Designs for innovative lesson
- 87 Describes teaching procedures
- 111 Edits activity descriptions
- 150 Compares, contrasts material

A3 Developing And Adapting Curricula

- 29 Analyzes test scores
- 35 Conducts needs assessment
- 66 Plans curriculum adaptation
- 81 Explains proposed adaptations
- 95 Analyzes, scope, sequence
- 96 Develops guides
- 106 Helps teachers adapt

- 120 Adapts curriculum guides
- 131 Prepares material for reproduction

B MATERIALS DEVELOPMENT**B1 Evaluating And Selecting Learning Materials**

- 11 Trains personnel
- 30 Asks questions of salespersons
- 44 Uses references, guides
- 61 Makes purchase recommendations
- 76 Organizes, directs review committees
- 94 Organizes, analyzes information
- 104 Compares costs
- 128 Designs assessment instruments
- 149 Specifies selection criteria

B2 Producing Learning Materials

- 2 Operates audio production equipment
- 17 Designs audio-visual materials
- 34 Arranges, monitors production
- 57 Designs tests, worksheets, etc.
- 74 Works with teachers to produce materials
- 88 Designs, organizes packets
- 108 Operates visual production equipment
- 119 Operates xerox, copiers, etc.
- 132 Secures, adapts learning materials
- 142 Produces written student use material

B3 Evaluation Of The Utilization Of Learning Resources

- 8 Designs instruments
- 22 Makes recommendations
- 37 Designs survey of materials
- 46 Trains in use of instruments
- 52 Specifies utilization criteria
- 67 Locates new material
- 83 Provides feedback
- 97 Compares against standards of quality
- 112 Survey resource persons
- 124 Writes survey report

- 136 Specifies material criteria

C STAFFING

C1 Developing A Staffing Plan

- 18 Develops performance criteria
- 33 Drafts organizational charts
- 49 Recommends reassignments
- 63 Projects staffing needs
- 79 Reanalyzes job descriptions
- 93 Describes revisions to improve instruction
- 107 Designs, critiques staffing plans for new instructional programs
- 133 Drafts innovative team arrangements
- 143 Analyzes effects of reduction in staff
- 148 Writes clear job descriptions

C2 Recruiting And Selecting Personnel

- 4 Redesigns application forms
- 14 Develops procedures for data gathering
- 26 Designs recruiting brochures
- 45 Redefines selection criteria in performance terms
- 53 Proposes recruitment plan
- 68 Lists institutions for recruitment
- 82 Conducts interviews using schedules
- 98 Designs procedures for processing applications
- 113 Conserves applicants interview and orientation time
- 121 Validates system for data reduction in selection

C3 Assigning Personnel

- 6 Recommends new personnel assignments
- 25 Identifies professional growth needs
- 38 Arranges new personnel orientation
- 58 Develops reassignment plan
- 75 Guides administrators, teachers in making assignments
- 86 Recommends reassignments providing new experiences
- 105 Trains administrators and teachers in assignment procedures
- 118 Coordinates assignment of substitutes and volunteers
- 127 Reanalyzes evaluation data to propose assignments
- 140 Writes affirmative action plans

F INSERVICE EDUCATION

F1 Supervising In A Clinical Mode

- 99 Conducts interviews using non-directive, shared decision-making
- 126 Leads teacher through clinical cycle
- 147 Observes in classrooms using selected instruments

F2 Planning For Individual Growth

- 39 Develops teacher inservice experience schedule
- 78 Assists teacher in selecting objectives for change
- 139 Interprets performance data using collaborative procedures

F3 Designing Inservice Training Sessions

- 65 Plans training including variety of stimulating activities
- 19 Develops evaluation procedures and materials
- 125 Specifies realistic objectives related to needs

F4 Conducting Training Sessions

- 54 Leads participants through meaningful activities
- 117 Provides advance information, physical arrangements, resources for inservice
- 144 Selects inservice strategy for specific groups

F5 Training For Leadership Roles

- 27 Organizes "de-briefing" sessions for inservice leaders
- 59 Provides training for teacher inservice leaders
- 134 Identifies competent teachers promoting their interest in inservice

F6 Assessing Needs

- 50 Consults with decision-makers, planners in prioritizing needs
- 84 Analyzes needs assessment data for inservice
- 110 Selects, adapts needs assessment instruments

F7 Developing A Master Plan

- 32 Designates strategies for inservice programs
- 72 Identifies inservice resource needs
- 114 Describes inservice programs relating to priority needs

F8 Writing Project Proposals

- 15 Coordinates work in preparing inservice proposals
- 69 Constructs inservice displays communicating costs, staff, etc.
- 101 Writes inservice proposals with clear goals

F9 Designing Self-Instructional Packets

- 10 Programs self-instructional activity sequence
- 41 Selects, develops media for self-instructional packets
- 92 Sequences content, objectives for self-instructional packets

F10 Designing A Training Program

- 3 Designs inservice recognizing individual differences
- 23 Guides planning of meaningful inservices
- 90 Leads group in planning to relate sessions

1 EVALUATING INSTRUCTION

11 Observing And Analyzing Teaching

- 9 Schedules teacher observations
- 24 Designs surveys utilizing data to guide evaluation
- 70 Recommends ways to use formative data for summative purposes
- 80 Selects best observation instrument
- 91 Observes, analyzes classroom activities with various instruments
- 109 Develops focused observation instruments
- 129 Provides useful verbal feedback on observation data
- 145 Trains administrators, teachers in instrument use
- 116 Guides teacher planning for observation

12 Designing Questionnaires

- 20 Selects reliable response modes
- 48 Designs tables, charts for translating questionnaire data
- 64 Describes procedures for completing questionnaires
- 85 Specifies high priority questions
- 102 Writes clear questionnaire items
- 138 Tests, analyzes questionnaire items and response forms

I3 Interviewing In-Depth

- 89 Constructs interview schedule
- 100 Designs interview procedures to facilitate recording
- 115 Designs procedures, materials to assure indepth probing
- 122 Conducts interviews, recording reliable data
- 146 Trains interviewers in use of schedules

I4 Analyzing And Interpreting Data

- 5 Constructs contingency tables
- 13 Constructs scattergram
- 28 Computes means, medians, modes
- 31 Constructs branching diagrams to solve problems
- 40 Analyzes teacher performance using varied data sources
- 42 Computes significance tests to solve problems
- 55 Writes clearly to communicate display meanings
- 56 Draws logical conclusions from data
- 71 Writes recommendations based on evaluation data
- 135 Constructs data displays in graph, tabular forms

Source: M. D. Bailey, "The Relationship Among Supervisory Competencies, Job Expectations, and Position Types" (Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Texas (1986).

2

VITA

Melva Jo Bennett

Candidate for the Degree of
Doctor of Education

Thesis: A COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF SUPERVISORY SKILLS AMONG SPECIAL
EDUCATION DIRECTORS

Major Field: Educational Administration

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Harrison, Arkansas, June 18, 1938, the daughter of Mr. and Mrs. Wallace A. Payne; married to J. B. Bennett on June 3, 1956; three children, Dana Raquel, J. B. III (Bo), and Bon Bick; two grandchildren, Ryan and Byron; co-owner of Greenwood Water Park, Okmulgee, Oklahoma, from 1959 to present.

Education: Graduated from Okmulgee High School, Okmulgee, Oklahoma, in May, 1956; received Bachelor of Science in Education degree from Northeastern Oklahoma State University in May, 1971; received Master of Education degree from Northeastern Oklahoma State University in May, 1975; completed requirements for the Doctor of Education degree at Oklahoma State University in December, 1992.

Professional Experience: Special Education Teacher (Learning Disabilities), Okmulgee Public Schools, 1971-77; Psychometrist, Oklahoma State Department of Education, Tulsa Regional Education Center, 1977-78; Adjunct Instructor, Northeastern State University, Tahlequah, Oklahoma and Oral Roberts University, Tulsa, Oklahoma, 1978-88; Director, Tulsa RESC, 1978-89; Director, Five County Cooperative Program, McAlester, Oklahoma, 1989 to present.