

too. Under the makeup and “tough guy” appearances were the same honest, open, and sensitive kids we saw in elementary school.

### The Future?

Our “severely impaired” child already has accomplished more than we had ever thought possible; and she continues to grow. Also “growing” are Mauricha, Tyrell, Patty, Brandiss, Holly, Quantia, Nicole, Maureen, Joey, and many other young people. They will not seek to discount or harm Ro. Instead, they will be her community. They will be the seekers of social and legislative reform to support the inclusive lifestyle to which Ro and they have grown accustomed. They gladly will be her neighbors, caretakers, job coaches, and friends of tomorrow because they shared *together* in today’s classrooms the same space, hopes, and dreams.

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## Managing Complex Change Toward Inclusive Schooling

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**W**e are not alone in struggling with questions about educational reform or the instillation of the ethic and practice of inclusive education in North America. Why is change in some organizations, schools included, so difficult and seemingly unwelcomed, even when overwhelming evidence shows that the status quo is not working for many? Why do expectations for achieving both excellence and equity for all children in our public schools seem, to some, to be beyond reach or ridiculous? Why do people in the midst of change feel confusion, anxiety, resistance, frustration, or that they are on a treadmill, trying to keep up with a plethora of “best practice” initiatives but not having a clear idea of where to start or what direction to take? Why does progress occur in some places and not in others?

Questions like these have nagged us for as long as we have been promoting more inclusive educational options for children with disabilities. Somehow, we *knew* that there *were* understandable ways of leading organizations and people into and through change. But not

until we had gone through and observed transformations of school cultures and practices did answers to these questions begin to emerge. This chapter on strategies for organizational change is *not* intended to be one of absolute conclusions or prescriptions, for reasons articulated by Margaret Wheatley in her assumption-shattering *Leadership and the New Science* (1994):

First, I no longer believe that [school] organizations can be changed by imposing a model developed elsewhere. So little transfers to, or even inspires, those trying to work at change in their own organizations. Second . . . there is no objective reality out there waiting to reveal its secrets. There are no recipes or formulae, no checklists or advice that describe "reality." There is only what we create through our engagement with others and with events. Nothing really transfers; everything is always new and different and unique to each of us (p. 7).

We believe, as does Wheatley, that "we have only just begun the process of discovering and inventing the new organizational forms that will inhabit the twenty-first century" (1994, p. 5); that is, we are only beginning to explore paradigms of schooling that are inclusive and synchronized with the predicted diversity and unpredictability of 21st-century life. We further believe that to be the educational explorers and inventors of tomorrow, we must give up many, if not all, of our ideas of what did and did not work in school just yesterday. Einstein understood all of this long ago, observing that it is impossible to solve the complex problems we face with the same consciousness we had when we created them.

We begin this chapter by examining factors that have made school organizations so intractable in the past. We then examine five variables—vision, skills, incentives, resources, and action planning—that appear to contribute to the successful management of complex change within any organization. The chapter concludes with summary insights into the change process.

## Sources of School Intractability

Writing of the school reform efforts of his day, Comenius lamented, "Despite all of the effort, [schools] remain exactly the same as they

were" (cited in Deal and Peterson 1990, p. 3). Comenius's observation, made more than 350 years ago, has been echoed by many through the centuries, including Sarason in his 1990 work *The Predictable Failure of School Reform*. What makes schools so intractable? Frequently cited causes are (1) inadequate teacher preparation; (2) inappropriate organizational structures, policies, and procedures; (3) lack of attention to the cultural aspects of schooling; and (4) poor leadership.

### Inadequate Teacher Preparation

A first barrier to school change is the categorical approach to teacher preparation in higher education that lacks a curriculum focus on collaborative skills and ethics. In a national survey of teacher preparedness, Lyon, Vaassen, and Toomey (1989) found that 80 percent of teacher respondents indicated they were inadequately prepared through their teacher preparation programs to meet differing student needs. Clearly, colleges and universities share a major responsibility for preparing teachers to both *expect* diversity in the classroom (e.g., the inclusion of children with disabilities in general education) and *develop* the skills to respond to differing student learning styles, rates, and needs. Yet, at a time when teachers are being asked to educate increasingly diverse groups of learners, colleges and universities continue to sort their teacher preparation candidates into categorical programs (e.g., special education, general education, gifted and talented, English as a Second Language) and prepare them to expect to work with only certain types of learners. Sarason (1990) comments on the situation:

School personnel are graduates of our colleges and universities. It is there that they learn there are at least two types of human beings and if you choose to work with one of them you render yourself legally and conceptually incompetent to work with others (p. 258).

Hawkins (cited in Cobern 1991) described the pervasive and unrecognized role of presuppositions (such as ethics, values, beliefs, and attitudes) and misconceptions of human learners (teachers included) as *deep barriers* to reconceptualizing and to change itself. Some of these deep barriers perpetuated by many teacher preparation programs are identified in the left-hand column of Figure 4.1 and are contrasted with alternative concepts in the right-hand column.

Figure 4.1  
Deep Barriers and Emerging Concepts in Teacher Preparation

Barrier	Emerging Concept
Tracking and homogeneous grouping are practiced and valued.	Diversity is valued.
Some categories of students do not belong.	All students belong.
Readiness is precursor for entry into learning opportunities.	Learning is an evolutionary and ongoing process that requires no preparation.
Hierarchical relationships exist among professions (e.g., administrators, teachers, paraprofessionals), students, and families.	All adults, students, and members of the community are valued.
Professional preparation maintains existing standards and practice.	Professional preparation imparts the skills to invent and personalize education for every student.
Some proportion of students will fail.	"Failure" implies that the current methodologies did not work and should be changed.

These barriers operate at an unspoken level, guiding everyday interactions between teachers and students, teachers and community members, and teacher educators and future educators. These deep barriers are consciously maintained by many teacher preparation programs preparing graduates to keep the education system as it is, with teachers working alone rather than collaboratively, and students grouped by ability (e.g., general education, learning disabled, severely disabled, non-English proficient). Deep barriers blind educators to inventing new methods to meet the needs of individual learners.

### Inappropriate Organizational Structures, Policies, and Procedures

"Student diversity is only a problem because of the kind of school organization we have" (Holmes Group 1990).

Inappropriate organizational structures, policies, and procedures often are cited as a second reason for the intractability of schools (Deal 1987). Schools often are compartmentalized organizations that thwart rather than promote collaboration and coordination of resources, ideas, and actions. For example, many schools continue to rely on a lockstep curriculum determined not by the assessment of individual student needs but by the grade level to which students are assigned. Students are placed in a grade according to age and are expected to master a predetermined, arbitrary set of curriculum objectives by the end of each school year. If they fail, they repeat the subject or grade or are referred for special services that pull them out of the general education system for part or all of the day; they become so-called curriculum casualties (Gickling and Thompson 1985).

Additionally, many schools continue to track students into high-, medium-, and low-ability groups, sometimes including pullouts for special services. A formal separation divides general and special education services, with special education being a freestanding "second system" (Wang, Reynolds, and Walberg 1988, p. 248) with its own administration, department, inservice training events, faculty meetings, and policies and procedures for discipline, parent involvement, and access to educational services.

Finally, few schools expect, reward, or otherwise encourage instructional personnel to plan, teach, share professional expertise, or support one another as a team. Little if any time is structured into the work week for such collaboration to occur.

### Lack of Attention to Cultural Aspects of Schooling

A third reason suggested for the failure of school reform is resistance to the loss of the familiar tradition or *culture* of school (e.g., "I work alone; my business is none of your business"; "These are my students and those are yours"; "We teach content, and students who can't keep up don't belong"). Culture may be defined as the "historically rooted socially transmitted set of deep patterns of thinking and ways of acting

that give meaning to human experiences" (Deal and Peterson 1990, p. 8). The power of culture is that when "attachments to people or objects are threatened and broken . . . people experience a deep sense of loss and grief" (Deal 1987, p. 7) comparable to the stages of grief (i.e., denial, resistance, bargaining, acceptance) experienced by someone who has lost a loved one. Thus, when change is on the doorstep, some people on their heels and resist, at least initially. Given this, a shift from a fragmented to an inclusive school culture requires change agents to develop new heroes, rituals, traditions, and symbols that celebrate inclusive practices. They might also respond to the inevitable references to the "good old days" with Will Rogers's reminder that "schools aren't so good as they used to be; they never were."

### Good Leadership

A final reason cited in the literature on schools' intractability regarding innovation is that many change agents are naive or cowardly or both (Parsons 1990). They are naive in that they fail to realize or acknowledge just how complex system change is or how long it will take. At a minimum, it takes five to seven years for a change to filter through and become the norm in an organization. Senge (1990) argues that it can take 20 to 20 years for those who approvingly remember "the way it was" to be gone from the system, so that only those of the "new order" are found to pass on the new culture. Change agents also are naive when they fail to link various change initiatives together (e.g., thematic and interdisciplinary curriculum, multi-aged grouping, inclusive education, multicultural education) or communicate to others how these initiatives support the overall goals of the district, including economic and social self-sufficiency, independent living, full inclusion and integration into society of all students of the community.

Change agents are cowardly when they refuse to deal with the potential turmoil and conflict that naturally accompany change initiatives or when they leave their positions of leadership before the change they have championed has taken hold. Given that the average tenure of a principal or superintendent in the United States is three years—seven years less than the projected time frame for organizational transformation to occur—is it any wonder many educators respond to new educational initiatives with an attitude that says "this is only a fad" or "it is too good to last"?

In summary, educational reform occurs when educators see the big picture, when they "penetrate the level of immediacy of everyday action and consider the practices of schooling in relation to the social, cultural, political and economic context of education" (Angus 1989, p. 84). For this to happen, those who choose to lead us into change must be aware of the barriers to change and take the risks necessary to overcome them, for "the biggest risk in education is not taking one" (Sarason 1990, p. 176).

### Management of Complex Change

We are attracted to Tim Knoster's adaptation (personal communication, December 4, 1991) of Ambrose's (1987) formula for explaining success or failure in managing complex change within an organization. As Figure 4.2 illustrates, at least five variables—vision, skills, incentives, resources, and action planning—factor into a formula for change. If any one variable is left unattended, the result is something other than the desired outcome. The next section of this chapter describes (rather than prescribes) ways to (1) build a vision of inclusive schooling within a community, (2) develop educators' skills and confidence to be inclusive educators, (3) create meaningful incentives for people to risk embarking on an inclusive schooling journey, (4) reorganize and expand human and other resources for teaching to and for diversity, and (5) plan and act on strategies for getting people to see and get excited about a new "big picture."

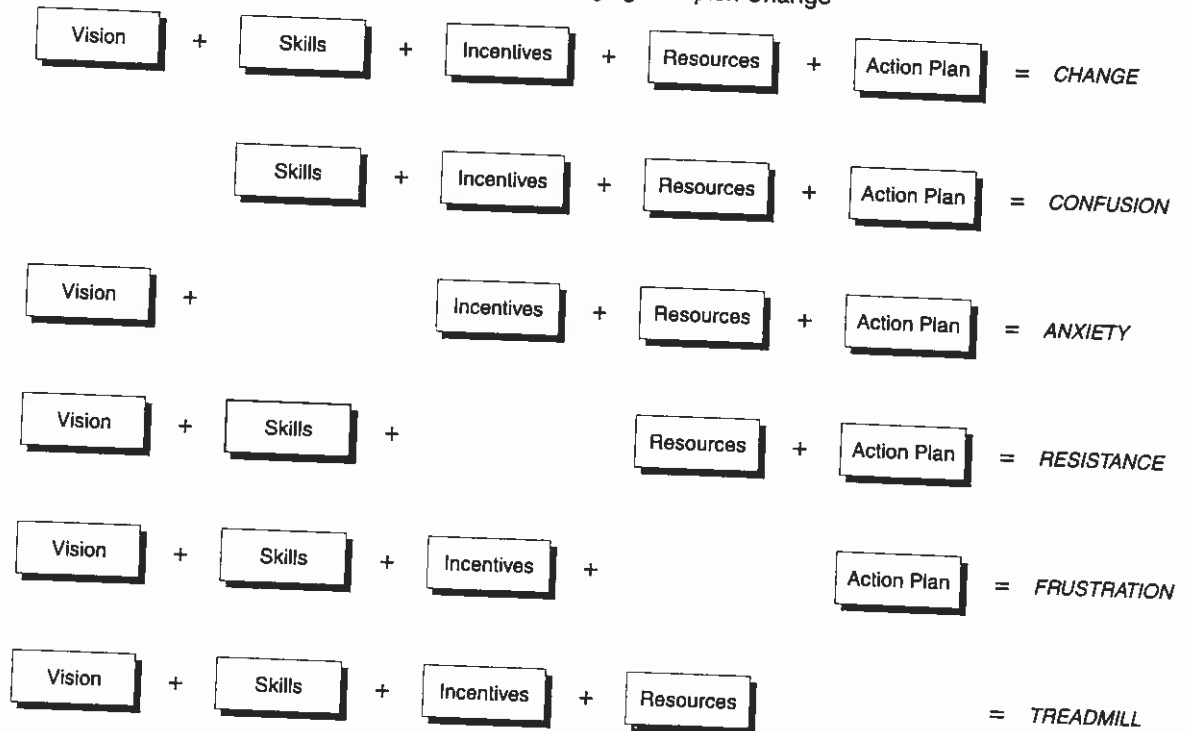
### Building a Vision: Visionizing

"One of the greatest barriers to school reform is the lack of a clear and compelling vision" (Schlechty 1990, p. 137).

Building a vision, or *visionizing*, is the first variable in Knoster's change formula (see Figure 4.2). Unless effort is devoted to building a common vision, confusion for some or many is likely to result.

*Visionizing defined.* It is widely accepted that "organizations are governed as much by belief and faith as by rationality and outcome" (Deal 1990, p. vi) and that any organizational change initiative is guided by belief and faith in a vision. We use the term *visionizing* (Parnes 1988) to describe the process of creating and communicating a compelling picture of a desired future state and inducing others' commitment to

FIGURE 4.2  
Factors in Managing Complex Change



that future. We use this term because it suggests the active mental struggle and the "mental journey from the known to the unknown" (Hickman and Silva 1984, p. 151) that people go through when they reconceptualize their beliefs and declare public ownership of a new view.

Leaders in inclusive education stress the importance of clarifying for themselves, school personnel, and the community a vision of success based on assumptions that (1) *all* children are able to learn, (2) *all* children should be educated together in their community's schools, and (3) the school system is responsible for addressing the unique needs of *all* children. To articulate such an inclusive vision is necessary but not sufficient. A community must *adopt* the vision. Visionizing requires fostering widespread understanding and consensus regarding the vision.

*Consensus building through an examination of rationales for change.* One strategy for building consensus is to share with others the theoretical, ethical, and databased rationales for inclusive education that address their personal concerns. Norm Kunc (personal communication, June 25, 1994) suggests conceptualizing each person as a circle with two halves, one half representing the person's *concerns* and the other half the person's *beliefs* (supportive or nonsupportive) about a proposition such as inclusive education. Kunc argues that to shift a person's belief in favor of a proposition, we must first identify the person's concerns (questions, fears, nightmares, confusions) regarding the proposition. Stated otherwise, as change agents we must solicit and listen to the concerns of everyone likely to be affected by inclusive schooling. That is why in the previous chapter we asked you to identify the rationales for change most compelling (i.e., most likely to bring up priority concerns) for you and the other stakeholders in your community. Fiscal and legal rationales may speak to the concerns of administrators and school board members; disappointing efficacy data may speak to parents of students with and without disabilities and to the students themselves; procedural issues and the disappointed and incremental nature of special service systems may speak to special educators tired of isolation and endless hours of paperwork.

Once concerns are revealed, opportunities can be structured to communicate supporting information for each rationale. This information may address concerns and positively alter beliefs. It may be communicated in any number of ways—through inservice training events, distribution of readings with follow-up discussions, one-on-one dia-

logues, community forums, videotapes of and visitations to schools that have adopted inclusive visions and successfully transformed, and so on. Knowledge of concerns also helps in the move from visionizing to action planning in that it prompts us to regularly and vigilantly ask, "How can we assure that people's worst nightmares (concerns) do not come true?"

Visionizing allows us to replace an old culture with a new one and simultaneously manage the personal loss that cultural change inevitably stirs in the people affected. New histories, heroes, and rituals must be constructed; and that occurs when traditional solutions (e.g., adding a new program) and other educational inequities (e.g., the discrimination that may accompany tracking, special education, and gifted and talented programs) are publicly identified as being ineffective, inefficient, and counter to the desired vision (i.e., inclusive learning opportunities). New language and labels that are *educative* (Schlechty 1990) rather than *deficit oriented* must be introduced, and people must be expected to use them. For example, if children are to be valued for their differences, it is more educative to refer to children in "person first" language (e.g., "Cecilia, who has Down syndrome"; "Juan, who is not yet English proficient") rather than deficit-oriented language (e.g., "the Down syndrome kids"; "the LEPs—Limited English Proficient").

*Consensus building through mission statements.* A second powerful strategy for securing support for an inclusive vision is to involve representatives of school and community stakeholder groups in examining the current district or school mission statement and reformulating a mission and objectives for supporting all students. Engaging people in such participatory decision making results in greater "ownership" of the resultant statement than if it were imposed on them (Thousand and Villa 1992). Although probably an obvious and unnecessary caution, we urge that separate mission statements never be formulated for special versus general education, as this simply perpetuates "dual system" thinking and action.

Clearly, risks are involved in turning over such an important function to a group of people who, based on their diverse professional and personal perspectives, initially will differ in the degree of their support for inclusive education. This risk, however, can be minimized by ensuring that the committee has been informed of the ethical, theoretical, and data-based rationales for inclusive education (as offered in Chapter 3) and that the committee includes at least some members who have an

in-depth understanding of and commitment to inclusive education. While the clarification and promotion of an inclusive school philosophy in the form of a mission statement is an important symbolic and guiding endeavor, it is important to recognize that a school community need not have a formal statement to alter organizational structures and instructional approaches that bar the inclusion of all students.

*Consensus building by respecting what we expect.* Consensus for inclusive education can be fostered by respecting what we expect: that is, encouraging, recognizing, and publicly acknowledging staff and students who plunge in as early innovators and pioneers, and model and actively promote the philosophy of inclusion. In structuring recognition, staff and students should be asked what they consider rewarding (e.g., for some, public recognition would be embarrassing, but an opportunity to attend a conference might be a treat). Further, any person—secretary, cafeteria worker, volunteer—should be a candidate for acknowledgment, since every person has the power through word or action to advance or impede a vision.

*Who should be a visionizer?* Who can or should initiate change? We suggest that anyone can be a visionizer or change agent. "It's not important where on the organizational chart the person falls; what is important is that facilitators support, help, assist, and nurture" (Ford, Rutherford, Huling-Austin, and Hall 1987, p. 3). Visionizers understand that change means cultural transformation, which can take many years; they stick around for the long haul and do not leave when times get tough.

Visionizers know their job is to create cognitive dissonance, discomfort, chaos, and a sense of urgency, perhaps even rage, in the school and community. This type of leadership by passion works to initiate change because, as others observe and feel the outrage, their own emotional potential is kindled within themselves. "Outrage tells people what is important" (Sergiovanni 1992, p. 74). So visionizers "talk up" the vision and supporting innovations and innovators, persuade people to adopt the vision, and coach them to perform their daily work in accordance with the vision. Although they take every opportunity to build consensus, they know that no single "teaching strategy" or "learning style" is privileged; strategies will vary by community, reflecting that community's unique demographics, history, and current beliefs. Finally, visionizers know that change is a very personal process and that the best way

to get people to risk the unfamiliar is to listen to their concerns, believe in them, and give them the opportunities, training, and support to try.

### Skill Building to Educate in an Inclusive School

In Knoster's change formula (see Figure 4.2), a school system can have vision, incentives, resources, and an action plan, but unless educators believe they have the *skills* to respond to the needs of students and others, the outcome likely will be *anxiety* rather than success due to educators' doubts about their ability to be "good teachers." Clearly, the *collective* instructional body, the more skilled educators must be as a size that members of a school faculty need not have the same content and instructional skills; they do, however, need to be able to readily access one another so they can share their skills across students and classrooms.

No matter how exciting or promising an innovation, to clarify its nuances educators need training, guided practice and feedback, and opportunities to solve problems with colleagues (Joyce and Showers, 1988). Further, for the innovation to become the "new culture," people must come to understand how the innovation is significant to their personal and professional growth and the growth of their students (Ford et al. 1987). Within the context of inclusive education, this places training front and center as a strategy for reducing anxiety and transforming the culture of the school.

**Areas of common training.** A large proportion of teachers report that neither their professional preparation nor their relatively isolated teaching experiences have adequately prepared them for the inclusive education paradigm (Lyson et al. 1989). Thus, it becomes a local school district's responsibility to craft and gain ratification of an ongoing comprehensive inservice training agenda that research and theory suggest will develop "innovation-related knowledge, performance skills, and positive attitudes" (Hord et al. 1987, p. 76) and increase the number of people who can perform desired new behaviors successfully.

Teachers need to acquire core skills, such as those described in chapter 5 and supplemented in Chapter 8, to be responsive to likely student needs. Whatever the content selected for a school's capacity-building inservice training agenda, it must be vision driven. An example, shown in Figure 4.3, is the four-tiered, four-year inservice agenda implementing the "heterogeneous schooling" vision of Winooski,

FIGURE 4.3  
Winooski, Vermont, Public School Inservice Training Agenda  
for Heterogeneous (Inclusive) Schooling

<p><b>Level I</b></p> <p><b>Generic Content Relevant for All Members of the School and Greater Community</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Rationales for heterogeneous schooling (inclusive education)</li> <li>• General education research regarding the characteristics of "effective" schools and current exemplary "best practices" from general and special education</li> <li>• Models for adult collaboration and teaming and the development of small-group social skills</li> </ul>
<p><b>Level II</b></p> <p><b>Selected Content to Respond to Self-identified Training Needs of Parents and Community Members</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Legal rights and procedural safeguards</li> <li>• Individual Education Plans (IEPs)</li> <li>• Discipline systems that teach responsibility</li> <li>• Community-referenced instruction and assessment</li> <li>• Transition between school environments</li> <li>• Future planning for and transition to post-school supports</li> <li>• Post-high school follow-up</li> </ul>
<p><b>Level III</b></p> <p><b>Training in Assessment, Discipline, and Instructional Strategies for Instructional Personnel</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Outcome-based instructional models</li> <li>• Family-centered and curriculum-based assessment models</li> <li>• Curriculum adaptation approaches</li> <li>• Peer-mediated instructional strategies (e.g., cooperative group learning, peer tutoring)</li> <li>• Classroom and schoolwide behavior management and discipline approaches</li> <li>• Methods for teaching and reinforcing students' use of positive social skills</li> </ul>
<p><b>Level IV</b></p> <p><b>Training in Peer Coaching and Clinical Supervision for Faculty and Supervisory Personnel</b></p>

Vermont (Villa 1989, Villa and Thousand 1992a). It is important to empower and motivate staff in their learning by letting them choose how they receive training (e.g., courses, mentoring, team teaching, summer institutes, workshop series).

*Who receives training?* As Figure 4.3 suggests, everyone is a candidate for inservice training because anyone can resist or support inclusive education. Although initial training may be organized for and delivered to innovators and early adopters in the school, eventually *everyone* involved—teachers, administrators, paraeducators, related service personnel, secretarial and support staff, students, school board members, parents, other community members—needs to acquire a common core of knowledge like that identified in Tier I of Figure 4.3. No one *directly* involved in the change can be exempt from participation in training for skill building (Tier III of Figure 4.3) if sustainable, widespread change is to occur. To excuse those who are reluctant, resistant, or apathetic from acquiring the disposition and skills to implement inclusive educational practices divides people, promotes the development of factions, fosters resentment toward the nonparticipants, reinforces a “this too will pass” mentality, and generally works against the development of a unified new culture.

Training in support of inclusive education never ends. New staff must be inducted into the values and practices of the system. People need continual renewal through training that allows them to impart their skills to others and refine further what they already do well.

### Incentives to Engage People in Inclusive Schooling

Returning to Knoster’s change formula (Figure 4.2), a school system in have a vision; personnel can have skills and abundant resources; a plan of action can be set into motion; yet, without incentives that are meaningful to each individual affected by the change, the outcome may be passive or active resistance rather than excited engagement.

Although incentives are important ingredients in a change formula, heavy reliance on *extrinsic* incentives (e.g., honors, financial awards) can interfere with change, as Sergiovanni (1990) explains:

Traditional management theory is based on the principle “what gets rewarded gets done. . . . [Unfortunately] when rewards can no longer be provided the work no longer will be done. Work performance becomes contingent upon a barter-

ing arrangement rather than being self-sustaining because of moral principle or a deeper psychological connection. A better strategy upon which to base our efforts is “what is rewarding gets done.” When something is rewarding it gets done even when “no one is looking” (p. 22).

We promote more *intrinsic* incentives that move people to action because of obligations, duties, a sense of righteousness, felt commitments, and other reasons with moral overtones . . . for because of finding what they are doing to be personally significant in its own right (Sergiovanni 1992, p. 58).

Intrinsic motivators include recognition of one’s own increased effectiveness as evidenced by student development and happiness, pride in one’s own professional risk taking and growth and accompanying recognition from respected colleagues and students, feelings of personal satisfaction, and the experience of *flow*—

the state in which people are so involved in an activity that nothing else seems to matter; the experience itself is so enjoyable that people will do it even at great cost, for the sheer sake of doing it (Csikszentmihalyi 1990, p. 4).

Genuine and sustainable changes in culture and dedication to inclusive schooling depend on people who come to be motivated more by their emotions, values, beliefs, and social bonds with colleagues than by outside forces.

Capitalizing on social bonds through the development of an *esprit de corps*—a common spirit of inspiring enthusiasm, devotion, and intense regard for the vision and honor of the group—can be a powerful incentive for change. To promote *esprit de corps*, regard teams as well as individuals; highlight the importance of and pride in collaborative efforts. Second, spend time “in the trenches” with teachers and students, learning what they are doing well that can be publicly and privately acknowledged. Third, ask staff and students what *they* value as incentive (e.g., notes of praise, travel to conferences or other schools engaged in inclusive education, opportunities to make presentations, fine tuning innovations). What is rewarding to one person may be of little significance to another. Finally, overlook no one; a bus driver or custodian can do as much to hasten the acceptance or demise of inclusive education as can an administrator or professional educator.



## Resources for Inclusive Education

Continuing with Knoster's change formula (Figure 4.2), if people in a school system feel they lack the needed resources to do the job, they likely will experience frustration that can zap their energy and enthusiasm and draw them away from their change efforts. Resources in education may be *technical* and *material* (e.g., paper and pencils, computer hardware and software, curriculum materials and concepts) or *organizational* (i.e., how the day, week, year, and people within the school are organized). Time is an important organizational resource that is "not auxiliary to teaching responsibilities—nor is it 'released time' from them. It is absolutely central to such responsibilities, and essential to making school succeed" (Raywid 1993, p. 34). Yet many schools suffer from a great shortage of time. Figure 4.4 shows how some schools have attempted to meet the time challenge. (See Raywid 1993 for expanded and additional examples.)

Clearly, educators' perceptions of the adequacy of the technical, material, and organizational resources available to them influence their work satisfaction. Nevertheless, the *human* resource—relationships with other adults and children and their unique gifts, talents, and trades—is arguably the most important for school health and improvement. Support from colleagues, students, formal leadership, and others in the community is what most people really are crying out for when they scream they are frustrated and in need of resources. Currently, much discussion centers around teacher and student empowerment, inviting all members of the school community to make decisions about things that affect them. Empowerment may be an important resource (and incentive) for change, but interdependence with and support from others is as essential, as Sergiovanni (1992) points out:

A virtuous school gives as much attention to enablement as it does to empowerment; it considers the two to be interdependent parts of the same whole: People should have both the discretion and whatever assistance they need to use it wisely (p. 117).

*Structuring access to adult resources through role redefinition.* Teaching has been characterized as a "lonely profession" (Sarason, evine, Godenberg, Cherlin, and Bennet 1966, p. 74). Teachers get the message that "I am in this pretty much alone, alone with my students

FIGURE 4.4  
Strategies for Expanding Time for Collaborative Planning,  
Teaching, and Reflection

- Ask staff to identify with whom and when they need to collaborate and redesign the master schedule to accommodate these needs.
- Hire "permanent substitutes" to rotate through classrooms to periodically "free up" teachers to attend meetings during the day rather than before or after school.
- Institute a community service component to the curriculum; when students are in the community (e.g., Thursday afternoon) teachers meet.
- Schedule "specials" (e.g., art, music), clubs, and tutorials during the same time blocks (e.g., first and second period), so teachers have one or two hours a day to collaborate.
- Engage parents and community members to plan and conduct half-day or full-day exploratory, craft, hobby (e.g., gourmet cooking, puppetry, photography), theater, or other experiential programs.
- Partner with colleges and universities; have their faculty teach in the school or offer TV lessons, demonstrations, on-campus experiences to free up school personnel.
- Rearrange the school day to include a 50- to 60-minute block of time before or after school for collaborative meeting and planning.
- Lengthen the school day for students by 15 to 30 minutes per day. The cumulative "extra" student contact hours each month allow for periodic early dismissal of students and time for teachers to meet.
- Earmark some staff development days for collaborative meetings.
- Use faculty meeting time for small-group meetings to solve problems related to issues of immediate and long-range importance.
- Build into the school schedule at least one "collaboration day" per marking period or month.
- Lengthen the school year for staff but not for students, or shorten the school year for students but not staff.
- Go to year-round schooling with three-week breaks every quarter; devote four or five of the three-week intersession days to teacher collaboration.

behind this door" from various sources: (1) the organization of schools into separate classrooms of *one* teacher for so many students, (2) job descriptions and teacher evaluation procedures that emphasize individual rather than collaborative performance, and (3) teacher preparatory programs (e.g., "solo" versus "collaborative" teaching as the

Figure 4.5  
Changes in Job Responsibilities of School Personnel  
Before and After Role Redefinition

Job Title	Traditional Responsibilities	Redefined Responsibilities
General Education Administrator	Manages the general education program.	Manages the educational programs for all students.
Teacher	<p>Cedes responsibility for special programs to special education administrators, although special programs are "housed" within general education facilities.</p> <p>Refers students who do not "fit" into the traditional program for diagnosis, remediation, and possible removal.</p> <p>Teaches children who "fit" within the standard curriculum.</p>	<p>Articulates the vision and provides emotional support to staff as they experience the change process.</p> <p>Participates as a member of collaborative problem-solving teams that invent solutions to barriers inhibiting the successful inclusion and education of any child.</p> <p>Secures resources to enable staff to meet the needs of all children.</p> <p>Shares responsibility with special educators and other support personnel for teaching all assigned children.</p> <p>Seeks support of special educators and other support personnel for students experiencing difficulty in learning.</p> <p>Collaboratively plans and teaches with other members of the staff and community to meet the needs of all learners.</p>

(continued on next page)

culminating practicum event, and distinct "regular" versus "special" education training programs). The silliness of teaching in isolation is obvious. Yet the norms, traditions, and organization of many schools perpetuate segregation of staff and students, as well as inflexible, standard expectations as to the role of people with different labels (e.g., "administrator," "teacher," "paraeducator," "specialist," "parent").

We propose that for educators to most readily access the resources of other educational personnel, everyone in the school system must stop thinking and acting in standard, isolated ways. Everyone must relinquish traditional roles, drop distinct professional labels, and redistribute their job functions across any number of other people (Cross and Villa 1992, Thousand and Villa 1990, Thousand and Villa 1992). Figure 4.5 shows how job functions can and have changed in schools that meld human resources through dramatic, systemwide role redefinition. It must be emphasized that flexibility and fluidity is the main aim of role redefinition. Exactly who does what from one year to the next should always be up in the air and determined by the needs of students and the complementary skills (and needs) of the educators involved.

Job titles and formal definitions do influence how people behave. Thus, to further signal and symbolize a change in culture, new policies and job descriptions should be formulated to expect, inspect, and aspect a collaborative ethic. In Vermont, a number of school districts have achieved this by creating a single job description for all professional educators (e.g., classroom teachers, special educators, school nurse, guidance personnel) that identifies collaboration and shared responsibility for educating all of a community's children as expected job functions (see a sample job description in Cross and Villa 1992).

*Merging resources through teaching team arrangements.* Shifting job functions and making them more fluid provide the opportunity to arrange school personnel in a variety of collaborative relationships—enriching and peer coaching teams, peer systems that pair newly hired teachers with veterans, and teaching teams—

an organizational and instructional arrangement of two or more members of the school and greater community who distribute among themselves planning, instructional, and evaluation responsibilities for the same students on a regular basis for an extended period of time (Thousand and Villa 1990, p. 152).

Figure 4.5—Continued

Job Title	Traditional Responsibilities	Redefined Responsibilities
Teacher (continued)	Recruits and trains students to be tutors and social supports for one another.	Support Staff (e.g., social worker, speech and language pathologist, physical therapist)
Special Educator	Provides instruction to students eligible for services in resource rooms, special classes, and special schools.	Diagnoses, labels, and provides direct services to students in settings other than the classroom. Provides support only to students eligible for a particular special program.
Psychologist	Tests, diagnoses, assigns labels, and determines eligibility for students' admission to special programs.	Paraeducator (Teaching assistant)
	Collaborates with general educators to define problems. Creatively designs interventions. Team teaches.	Works in segregated programs. If working in general education classrooms, stays in close proximity to and works only with student(s) eligible for special services.
	Provides social skills training to classes of students. Conducts authentic assessments. Trains students to be conflict mediators, peer tutors, and supports for one another. Offers counseling to students.	Primarily works independently and competes with other students for "best" performance. Acts as a passive recipient of learning.
		Provides services to a variety of students in general education settings. Facilitates natural peer supports within general education settings. Often works with other students in cooperative learning arrangements. Is actively involved in instruction, advocacy, and decision making for self and others.

Members of teaching teams bring their unique instructional expertise, areas of curriculum background, and personal interests together to provide a richer learning experience for all students. Other results are a higher teacher/student ratio, enhanced problem-solving capacity, and more immediate and accurate diagnosis of student needs and delivery of appropriate instruction (Thousand and Villa 1992).

**Administrator's role as a resource.** School administrators are a critical resource to educators in a number of ways. For example, they can work with teachers and the community to create meaningful incentives and more time for adult, face-to-face interaction. Administrators are a vital source of teacher support, as Littrel, Billingsley, and Cross (1994) discovered in their examination of the effects of principal support on special and general educators' stress, job satisfaction, school commitment, health, and intent to stay in teaching. They found that administrators offer different types of support (e.g., *instrumental*—helping teachers with their work; *appraisal*—offering feedback or clarifying job responsibilities; *informational*—providing information and resources). Yet, the type of support principals offer is not always the type educators consider most important. Specifically, *emotional* support—showing teachers they are esteemed and worthy of concern through “open communication, showing appreciation, taking an interest in teachers’ work, and considering teachers’ ideas” (Littrel et al. 1994, p. 297)—merged as the most important type of support for administrators to provide.

**Students as untapped resources.** The terms *teaming* and *collaboration* usually conjure up images of adults joining forces. Schools attempting inclusive education, however, have discovered the importance of practicing what they preach regarding collaboration by sharing their instructional and decision-making power with students in a climate of mutual respect (Villa and Thousand, 1992b). Among the limitless possibilities of collaborative arrangements that could and have benefited students and educators alike are: (1) students as instructors in partnering, cooperative group learning, and adult-student teaching team arrangements (see Chapter 5 for further explanation); (2) students taking on their own and classmates’ IEP planning teams to advocate for their own or a friend’s interests; and (3) students sharing decision-making responsibility by serving on school or district committees, such as curricular and discipline committees and the school board.

**Outside partnerships for change.** A school district can gain much needed human, political, and fiscal resources by developing partnerships with state department of education personnel, faculty of higher education institutions, and other school districts with a similar interest in inclusive education. State personnel may provide fiscal incentives or regulatory relief for innovations. They may provide valuable public relations support, articulating the need for inclusive schooling in circulars, publications, and public presentations.

Higher education—school district collaboration offers mutual benefits. Together, the two organizations can design and solicit state or federal support for model demonstrations; arrange for valuable internship experiences for students in teacher preparation programs; conduct research to document the challenges, solutions, and impact of inclusive schooling practices; or develop and deliver coursework related to new roles or skills necessary for inclusive educational practice. Finally, schools with a common vision of inclusive education can multiply resources by jointly working to overcome barriers to change, forming coalitions to advocate for change in outdated teacher preparation programs and state-level funding formulas and policies, celebrating successes together, and sharing or exchanging human resources (e.g., reciprocal inservice presenters, joint hiring of a specialist in nonverbal communication).

### Planning and Taking Action

Action planning is the last of the five variables in Knoster’s change formula (see Figure 4.2). Individuals within a system may have everything else, but without widespread coordinated planning for action, attempting change may be like running on a treadmill. People expend lots of energy but end up in a place not much different from where they were before. Action planning means being thoughtful and communicative about the *process* of change—how, with whom, and in what sequence the steps or stages of change are formulated, communicated, and set into motion. Action plans are tricky, for they require the right mix of planning versus action and the continual involvement of those affected by the change.

**Benefits of involvement and communication in planning.** Engaging people in action planning for a change that will affect them is essential. Participatory planning encourages individuals’ ownership for the com-

ing changes, and it helps people to prepare for change by getting them to believe that change really *will* occur. Planning is the alarm signaling everyone that things no longer will be the same.

**Cautions concerning "overplanning."** Alex Osborn (1953), a pioneer in the field of creativity, was noted for his observation that a fair idea put into action was much better than a good idea left on the polishing wheel. He recognized that it is possible to literally plan something to death; unless planning quickly leads to action, interest will wane. Jhechty (1990) acknowledged the same when suggesting that we take a "ready, fire, aim" (rather than "ready, aim, fire") approach to planning change initiatives. Abstract planning divorced from action becomes a rehearsal activity of conjuring up a world that does not exist (Wheatley 1994, p. 37).

Successful visionizers and facilitators of school change understand the organic nature of schools; that is, adjustments in even the smallest part affect other parts in ways that almost assuredly are unpredictable. People involved in a change process such as the transition to inclusive schooling, then, must become comfortable with the unknown and "go with the flow." They must accept that notions of how long change will take; the exact steps to be taken along the way, and precisely how things will finally look must be adjusted and readjusted throughout the change process.

**Principles of "somewhat" systematic planning.** Having stated the cautions regarding overplanning and flexibility, we urge school districts initiating inclusive education not to make the mistake that some have not having any planning process. Action plans for change can take many forms and may use various decision-making processes. Whatever approach a district adopts must lead to regular, observable action. Guiding principles for planning include the following:

- **Look outside.** Throughout the change process, gather and pay close attention to information about social, political, cultural, and economic trends outside the world of school. This can be critical to adoption by the community at large.
- **Look inside, too.** The school system already has resources and strengths as well as barriers to successful education. Carefully examine and discover the current internal strengths and weaknesses of the school system's policies, practices, organizational structures, and so forth.

- **Include stakeholders.** Be sure all relevant stakeholder groups are represented in planning processes and decision making and are communicated with regularly. People are at the core of change; we cause or impede it.

- **Monitor the change.** Change is dynamic—the forces that drive and restrain change shift over time, and the outcome of actions taken is unpredictable. Therefore, it is crucial to meet regularly to review progress, revise and modify plans, disband subgroups that have accomplished their tasks, and create new ad hoc teams to develop action plans for additional needed strategies.

- **Revisit the vision.** The vision can get lost or distorted over time. New people entering the school system and the community may be unaware of or misunderstand the vision. Thus, it is important to keep people on track by periodically reexamining the vision and using the media (e.g., school newsletters, TV spots, newspaper articles) to educate the public.

- **Put things in writing.** People do best if their decisions are put into a written format (an action plan) that specifies in some detail who will do what, by when, and according to what criteria.

**Evaluation of action planning.** An integral part of action planning is regular and continuous evaluation. What is worth evaluating? Clearly, in the case of inclusion, we want to know if educating children with disabilities in general education is "working." Are students with and without disabilities experiencing elements of the "Circle of Courage" (Brendtro, Brokenleg, and Van Bockern 1990)—belonging, mastery, independence, and generosity—and academic success? What are the postschool outcomes (e.g., employment, continuing education, civic contributions)? What about affective and process variables, such as educators' feelings at various points during the change process and their *stages of concern* (e.g., from little involvement, to informational and personal concerns, to refinement and management concerns) (Hall and Ford 1987). Both outcome and affective/process evaluations offer change agents information needed to adjust the action plan and deal with emerging concerns, failures, confusions, and successes.

Any question important enough for a stakeholder to pose is worth answering (evaluating); that is, whatever is important to someone should be a possible item for evaluation. The evaluation agenda should also be as flexible and open as the planning process. Sometimes quite unexpected outcomes occur. For example, a teenager we know who had

been educated in segregated classes in her elementary years experienced a 25-point increase in her tested IQ after two years of full inclusion in her local high school (J. Pauley, personal communication, December 1, 1994). The lesson is that everyone needs to keep an eye out for the unexpected and act as action researchers who note and talk about what they experience in school day to day.

*Assumptions in developing action plans.* Senge (1990) emphasizes that in healthy organizations, people self-examine their unconscious assumptions about how the organization operates. People involved in healthy systems change effort must do likewise. They further are advised to adopt some healthy assumptions regarding action planning: (1) no amount of knowledge ever clarifies which action is the "correct" one to take; (2) my own version of the change or the action plan is not necessarily the one that will or should result; (3) manageability is achieved by thinking big and starting small; (4) lack of participation or commitment is not necessarily a rejection of the vision; other factors (e.g., insufficient skills, incentives, or resources) may be the cause; (5) changing culture, not installing an innovation, is the real agenda; (6) any action plan must be based on at least the above assumptions (William and Steigelbauer 1991).

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"The difficult we do immediately; the impossible takes a little longer" (Anonymous).

We currently know certain things about the change process in schools. We know, for example, that schools are cultures and that to implement a new vision of schooling, a new culture must replace the old. We know that change inevitably creates cognitive and interpersonal conflict that can be managed through perspective taking and interpersonal problem solving (Parnes 1988). We know that for fundamental change to occur, the roles, rules, relationships, and responsibilities of everyone (elements included) will be redefined, hierarchical power relationships need to be altered so everyone affected by impending change has a voice in decision making. We know that change is not necessarily a process; only close attention to valued outcomes will tell us if change is progressing. We know that action planning is important and that resources, incentives, and skill building make a difference. We know

that commitment to a change often does not occur until people have developed skills and gained experience with the change (McLaughlin 1991) and that initial negative or neutral feelings toward inclusion can and do change (Thousand, Villa, Meyers, and Nevin 1994).

Clearly, the monumental and complex nature of reengineering schooling can become overwhelming. Yet, an increasing number of communities are making the choice to implement with integrity and quality a vision of inclusive education (e.g., see Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development 1994; Villa, Thousand, Stainback, and Stainback 1992). *Choice* is a key word here, as Senge (1990) points out. *Choice* is different than *desire*. It is an experiment. Say, "I want." Now say, "I choose." What is the difference? For most people, "I want" is passive; "I choose" is active. For most, wanting is a state of deficiency—we want what we do not have. Choosing is a state of sufficiency—electing to have what we truly want. For most of us, as we look back over our life, we can see that certain choices we made played a pivotal role in how our life developed. So, too, will the choices we make in the future (p. 360).

Effective inclusive school organizations can be crafted. They are crafted by individuals—individuals who choose to be courageous and engage what we know about change processes to steward a larger vision.

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