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TEACHER BULLIES OR FRUSTRATED TEACHERS? HOW THE CLASSROOM
ENVIRONMENT AFFECTS THE TEACHER-STUDENT RELATIONSHIP

by

Susan P. McMillan-Quilantan

Dissertation

Submitted to the Faculty of

Olivet Nazarene University

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in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirement for

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in

Ethical Leadership


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TEACHER BULLIES OR FRUSTRATED TEACHERS?
HOW THE CLASSROOM ENVIRONMENT AFFECTS THE
TEACHER-STUDENT RELATIONSHIP

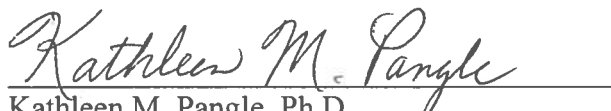
by

Susan P. McMillan-Quilantan

Dissertation


Roxanne M. Forgrave, Ed.D.
Dissertation Adviser


4/23/16


Kathleen M. Pangle, Ph.D.
Dissertation Reader


4/23/16


H. Stanton Tuttle, Ph.D.
Dissertation Coordinator

4/23/16


Houston Thompson, Ed.D.
Program Director

4/23/16


Carol Maxson, Ed.D.
Vice President for Academic Affairs

4/23/16

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ABSTRACT

This quantitative research study examined the issue of teacher-student bullying behavior as perceived by third through eighth grade teachers in three suburban schools to determine if there was any relationship between teacher bullying behavior and an inclusive classroom setting. Two survey instruments were used, the Survey of Teachers' Attitudes toward Inclusion (Cochran, 1998), and the Survey on Bullying Teachers and Teacher Bullying (Twemlow, Fonagy, Sacco, & Brethour, 2006). The results indicated there is a statistically significant difference between special education teachers' and general education teachers' attitudes toward inclusive classrooms. The results also indicated that teacher bullying occurs across settings by both special education teachers and general education teachers. No statistically significant relationship was found between inclusion classroom settings and teacher-student bullying behavior. Research on teacher-student bullying is in its infancy. By conducting studies like this one, teachers may become more aware of the impact their behavior has on students. Uncovering the serious issue of teacher-student bullying, and by identifying the elements related to teacher-student bullying, professional development, programming, and administrative intervention can be implemented more directly and effectively.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This research study is an examination of the inclusive classroom setting as a possible relation to teachers who may display bullying behaviors toward students. Bullying in schools is not a new issue. Roland and Olweus (as cited in Lee, 2006) inspired the first international conference on bullying in 1987. Throughout the years, though studied, attention to bullying has been limited. However, since the Columbine High School Massacre in 1999, increased attention has emerged on school bullying (Allen, 2010).

Children in schools are exposed to bullying in some form on a daily basis whether as the bully, the bullied, or a bystander (Twemlow, Fonagy, & Sacco, 2004). Few studies have focused on teachers as bullies in the school setting. Teacher-student bullying is a real problem (Hyman & Perone, 1998; McEvoy, 2005; Tamutiene, 2008; Twemlow & Fonagy, 2005; Zerillo & Osterman, 2011). The effects of teacher-student bullying are detrimental emotionally and/or physically and can create insurmountable barriers to making positive connections in school (Harris & Petrie, 2002). Other effects may also include intensified anger and defiance (Yoon, 2002). Halkias et al. (2003) reported in their study that any bullying or bad experience involving a teacher was perceived as far more hurtful than bullying by a peer. They recognized that teachers, and other adults in school, are supposed to be trusted and safe role models for children. Now that teacher-student bullying has been confirmed as a problem, the reasons for its occurrence must be

investigated so that it can be stopped. More attention needs to be brought to teacher-student bullying and why it happens.

Teachers are faced with many challenges in the classroom. It may be that teacher bullying behavior is related to any number of these challenges. This research study is an examination of teachers' perceptions of the inclusive classroom setting in order to determine if there is a relationship between the classroom setting and teacher bullying behaviors toward students. Inclusion is a major challenge that teachers face daily. Inclusive classrooms developed from The Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act (2004), that includes a component referred to as Least Restrictive Environment (LRE).

LRE requires that, to the "maximum extent appropriate, students with disabilities aged 3 through 21, in public or private institutions or other care facilities, are educated with children who are not disabled" (Individuals with Disabilities Education Act, 2004). Under LRE, the first placement option considered for students with disabilities is a regular education environment, with the use of supplemental aids and services as needed (Individuals with Disabilities Education Act). Students with disabilities should not be removed from a regular classroom solely because of the need for modifications, supports, or services in the general education curriculum (Individuals with Disabilities Education Act). In other words, successful integration and acceptance of every student means that all teachers become teachers of special education students (Cochran, 1998). However, general education teachers are not provided with adequate training to work with students with disabilities and, therefore, tend to carry a more negative attitude toward inclusion (Swain, Nordness, & Leader-Janssen, 2012).

Statement of the Problem

General education teachers may feel frustrated having to teach special education students. This frustration may lead to indiscriminate teacher-student bullying behavior (Molinari, Speltini, & Passini, 2013). Teacher-student bullying is not unnoticed, but students may perceive that there is no recourse or reprimand to the teacher, leaving the student feeling there is no place to turn (McEvoy, 2005). The detrimental effects are long lasting and may carry over into college performance and the adult workplace (Halkias et al., 2003; Harris & Petrie, 2002; Yoon, 2002).

This systemic problem may be caused by teacher frustration that may be a result of general education teachers feeling ill-prepared to teach special education students due to a lack of professional development in this area (Yoon, 2002). General education teachers are not adequately trained to work with students with disabilities (Swain, et al., 2012). However, once in the field, all teachers whether special educators or general educators are faced with the need to teach students with disabilities in their classroom (Cochran, 1998).

The purpose of this study is to examine teachers' perceptions of, and reactions to, inclusive classroom settings in order to determine if teacher frustration can be related to teacher-student bullying behavior. Identifying teachers' perceptions can lead to identifying teachers' needs. Identifying teachers' needs can lead to the correction of problem behaviors between teachers and students. In order to help teachers feel prepared and supported to teach all of their students with a positive approach, professional development and support programs can be planned and implemented (Twemlow et al.,

2004), if it is determined that teacher frustration of an inclusive setting is related to bullying behaviors.

Background

It is not difficult to find bullying in a school setting. Bullying in schools goes back as far as the history of schools (Allen, 2010; Lee, 2006). It was not until the Columbine Massacre of 1999 (Rosenberg, n.d.) that studies of school bullying really emerged. Most of the research on school bullying examines peer-peer bullying. However, another more serious type of bullying is taking place and needs attention as well. Hyman and Perone (1998) discovered the problem of teacher-student bullying behavior through their study of student misbehavior. The authors found that psychological maltreatment had a high potential to anger and alienate students. Sarcasm, ridicule, name calling, and denigrating statements were used as forms of classroom discipline (Hyman & Perone). Twemlow and Fonagy (2005) were among the first to conduct an official investigation of teacher-student bullying in schools. Their study examined the relationship between teachers who bully students and behavioral problems, gauged by issuance of school suspensions. It was determined that schools with higher suspension rates had higher incidence of teachers who favored bullying, teachers bullying students, or teachers being bullied themselves.

Teachers are under much pressure with the demands of classroom management. Inclusion brings challenges many teachers may not feel prepared to handle (Cochran, 1998; Swain et al., 2012; Yoon, 2002). Some teachers may display bullying behaviors without realizing they are doing so (Mullet, 2006). Teachers “may not recognize that the mechanisms they employ to control their classrooms may constitute bullying” (Terry & Baer, 2013, p. 131). There is a need to examine this area so that all students can receive

an appropriate education, the teachers providing that education can feel comfortable and confident in their service, and action can be taken against inappropriate teacher behavior.

Research Questions

This study examined three questions:

1. What differences, if any, exist in teacher attitude toward an inclusive classroom as a factor of teacher position assignment whether special education or general education?
2. What differences, if any, exist in attitude toward teacher bullying as a factor of teacher position assignment whether special education or general education?
3. In what way, if any, does attitude toward an inclusive classroom setting correlate to teacher bullying?

Answers to these questions may lead to better programming for pre-service teachers (Swain, et al., 2012), specific professional development for teachers already in the field (Twemlow et al., 2001), and better teacher-student relationships (Merrett & Wheldall, 1992) that may increase student motivation and academic achievement (Patrick, Kaplan, & Ryan, 2011) by identifying teachers' perceptions in order to identify and meet their needs (Skinner & Belmont, 1993). Identification of teachers' perceptions may also lead to correcting problem teacher behaviors and/or replacing problem teachers (Skinner & Belmont).

Description of Terms

Bullying Teacher. For this study, bullying teacher is defined as “a teacher who uses his/her power to punish, manipulate or disparage a student beyond what would be a

reasonable disciplinary procedure” (Twemlow, Fonagy, Sacco, & Brethour, 2006, Appendix).

Child with a Disability. A child is determined to have a disability if that child is evaluated as having one or more of 12 identifiers and, by reason of that/those identifier(s) needs special education and related services. The 12 identifiers are: mental retardation, a hearing impairment including deafness, a speech or language impairment, a visual impairment including blindness, a serious emotional disturbance, an orthopedic impairment, autism, traumatic brain injury, another health impairment, a specific learning disability, deaf-blindness, or multiple disabilities (Individuals with Disabilities Education Act, 2004).

Inclusion. Inclusion describes a classroom environment where students with disabilities remain in the general education classroom with supports, until it has been shown that the child cannot benefit from education in the general classroom (Kauffman & Hallahan, 1995).

Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act 2004 (IDEA). IDEA gives students with disabilities the right to “participate with nondisabled children in the extracurricular services and activities to the maximum extent appropriate to the needs of that child” (Individuals with Disabilities Education Act, 2004).

Least Restrictive Environment (LRE). LRE is part of IDEA, defined above, that requires that, to the “maximum extent appropriate, students with disabilities aged 3 through 21, in public or private institutions or other care facilities, are educated with children who are not disabled” (Individuals with Disabilities Education Act, 2004).

Under LRE, the first placement option considered for students with disabilities is a regular education environment, with the use of supplemental aids and services as needed.

Significance of the Study

Bullying behavior has long lasting detrimental effects on victims. Victims of bullying may suffer effects that are detrimental emotionally and/or physically, that create barriers to making positive connections in school, and experience intensified anger and defiance (Harris & Petrie, 2002; Yoon, 2002). Every day, parents trust the care of their children to the adults in schools. Children look up to adults in school as role models. When a teacher is the one who is the bully, the negative effects can be even more detrimental than when a peer is the bully, and trust can be irreparably broken (Halkias et al., 2003). Teacher-student bullying is a real problem (Hyman & Perone, 1998; McEvoy, 2005; Tamutiene, 2008; Twemlow & Fonagy, 2005; Zerillo & Osterman, 2011). It must be more broadly recognized as such in order for solutions to be established.

The purpose of this study was to examine three suburban schools, grades three through eight, to determine if there was any relationship between teacher bullying behavior and an inclusive classroom setting, in order to determine if teacher frustration is related to teacher-student bullying behavior. Teachers face many demands and challenges in running their classroom on a daily basis. Learning more about teachers' perceptions of their day may help identify their needs and determine adequate support. By conducting studies like this one, teachers may become more aware of the impact their behavior has on students. Teachers may be able to become part of developing an awareness of, and solutions to, the problem. Uncovering the serious issue of teacher-student bullying and identifying one element related to teacher-student bullying, professional development,

programming, and administrative intervention can be implemented more directly and effectively.

Nothing should excuse teacher bullying behavior. It must be identified, recognized, and eliminated. It is necessary that researchers begin to bring more awareness to teacher-student bullying and chisel away at what must be done to resolve the issue. The school community should be a safe, trusted, and nurturing environment. Parents, students, and the community at large depend on it. School should be an important process our children experience for growth, not just a place they go.

Process to Accomplish

Selection of Methodology

Population.

The population of this study is third through eighth grade school teachers from three different schools in the south suburbs of a large metropolitan city. At these schools, a total of 84 special education and general education teachers have had experience working in an inclusive classroom environment.

Sample.

This quantitative study used a purposive and convenience sampling. It is purposive because this researcher chose the sample based on personal knowledge that the three schools use inclusive classroom settings across grade levels. It is a convenience sample because the locations of the schools are close to, and easily accessible to, this researcher. Additionally, the principal of each of the schools is familiar with this researcher.

All teachers who met the inclusive criteria and agreed to participate by completely filling out two survey forms used to gather the data were included. Descriptive analysis of the demographic variables was conducted and reported. Data were analyzed separately for special education and general education teachers.

The sample for this study consisted of very few male participants. Disclosing gender may have risked identification of some of the participants. The survey authors have granted permission to modify the survey in any way needed. Therefore, the gender disclosure was offered as optional.

Measures.

Two separate scales were used for this study. They were The Scale of Teachers' Attitudes toward Inclusive Classrooms (STATIC) (Cochran, 1998) and The Survey on Bullying Teachers and Teacher Bullying (Twemlow et al., 2006).

The STATIC (Cochran, 1998) was used to measure elementary teachers' attitudes toward including special education students in a general education environment. The STATIC (Cochran) holds a Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of .89 for the total group of general education and special education teachers at both the elementary and secondary levels. Its use was determined valid and reliable for measuring teachers' attitudes toward inclusion (Cochran).

The first part of the STATIC (Cochran, 1998) survey gathered demographic information. Information used from this section included identifying special education or general education teaching assignment, total number of years of teaching experience, average class size, educational level, and whether the participant had a child with special needs or comes from a home where there was a child with special needs. After obtaining

permission from the survey author, the researcher modified the question about the teaching assignment to identify either special education or general education. The location statement was not included for this study as the population included three schools from the south suburbs of a large metropolitan city.

This scale was made up of four subscales. These subscales were Advantages and Disadvantages of Inclusive Education, Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education, Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education, and Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education. There were 20 likert-scale statements to be rated from zero for strongly disagree through five for strongly agree. Numbers 7, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, and 20 related to teacher perception of Advantages and Disadvantages of Inclusive Education. Numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, and 9 referred to teacher perception of Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education. Numbers 5, 6, 10, and 16 were related to Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education. Numbers 8, 17, 18 and 19 referred to Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education such as resource accessibility and administrative support. The sum score of the 20 items for each subject was considered an index of attitude toward inclusion. Higher scores indicated more positive attitudes (Cochran, 1998). This study examined teachers' attitudes toward inclusive classroom settings. The subscale scores were not used for the purpose of this study but may be used for future studies.

The second scale, A Survey on Bullying Teachers and Teacher Bullying (Twemlow et al., 2006) measured teachers' perceptions of, and experiences with, teacher bullying. Cronbach's alpha for this survey is .65 for its original study (Twemlow et al.). A definition for Bullying Teacher and a definition for Bullying Student was included as part of the survey.

For the purposes of this study, only the first part of Section C, Interpersonal Dynamics of Bullying Teachers, of this survey was used in order to obtain attitudes toward teacher bullying. The first part has 27, four-point, likert-scale statements based on teachers' overall experiences. The participants rated behaviors, one being never and four being always, as related to a Bullying Teacher and also as related to a Non-Bullying Teacher (Twemlow et al., 2006). The difference between the sum scores of ratings of a bullying teacher and a non-bullying teacher were used to determine attitude toward bullying teachers. The final question of this survey asked the participant if he/she has ever bullied a student, expressed the sensitivity of the question, and further asked for any description of the circumstances he/she would be willing to share (Twemlow et al.). This final question was the only other part of this survey used for purposes of this study.

Procedure.

Permission was obtained from the principal and superintendent of each school to conduct this study. The principal of each of the three schools allowed time during a regularly scheduled staff meeting for this researcher to present the study. A brief description of the study preceded distribution of the survey instruments to all teachers in attendance, along with a form for obtaining informed consent. It was estimated that no more than a total of 20 minutes would be required to complete the survey items. Survey forms were coded per school. Each participant received the two scales stapled together to prevent separation prior to analysis. Teachers who were absent, as determined by the principal, received the information, along with the survey instruments, in a sealed envelope from their principal via their staff mailbox. A box that can be sealed was left in each school's main office for one week after materials were presented in order to allow

ample time for participants to complete the information and confidentially return their surveys. All surveys will be stored in a locked cabinet in a secure office for three years following collection of the data.

Question 1

What differences, if any, exist in teacher attitude toward an inclusive classroom as a factor of teacher position assignment whether special education or general education?

Data.

Data used from the STATIC (Cochran, 1998) included the total sum score of the responses. Data were divided by current position assignment as either special education or general education.

Analysis.

The sum score from the 20 likert-scale statements was considered an index of the participants' attitude toward inclusion. The data from the 20 items were split into groups of either general education teacher or special education teacher. A Mann-Whitney U procedure was used comparing the scores from the STATIC (Cochran, 1998) for each group.

Question 2

What differences, if any, exist in attitude toward teacher bullying as a factor of teacher position assignment, whether special education or general education?

Data.

Data used from the Survey on Bullying Teachers and Teacher Bullying (Twemlow et al., 2006) included using the differences between the sum scores of ratings of perceptions of a bullying teacher and a non-bullying teacher to determine attitude

toward bullying teachers. Data were divided by current position assignment as either special education or general education as disclosed in the STATIC (Cochran, 1998) survey for the previous question.

Analysis.

The difference between the sum scores of ratings of perceptions of a bullying teacher and a non-bullying teacher was used to determine attitude toward bullying teachers. The data were split into groups of either special education or general education teacher. A Mann-Whitney U procedure was used comparing the scores from special education teachers and general education teachers.

Question 3

In what way, if any, does attitude toward an inclusive classroom setting correlate to teacher bullying?

Data.

An examination of the total scores from the STATIC (Cochran, 1998), as well as the difference between the sum scores of ratings of perceptions of a bullying teacher and a non-bullying teacher from A Survey on Bullying Teachers and Teacher Bullying (Twemlow et al., 2006) was conducted.

Analysis.

Data from the two instruments were cross-examined by running Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient, between the total score of the STATIC (Cochran, 1998) and the difference between the sum scores of ratings of perceptions of a bullying teacher and a non-bullying teacher from A Survey on Bullying Teachers and Teacher Bullying

(Twemlow et al., 2006) to determine whether there was a correlation between attitude toward inclusive classroom settings and teacher bullying.

Summary

School bullying is not a new issue. However, most studies focus on peer-peer bullying. Teacher-student bullying behavior is scarcely examined, though it has been confirmed as a real problem (Hyman & Perone, 1998; McEvoy, 2005; Tamutiene, 2008; Twemlow & Fonagy, 2005; Zerillo & Osterman, 2011). The most recent requirements of students with disabilities remaining in a general education setting have been established since 2004 through IDEA (Individuals with Disabilities Education Act, 2004). General education teachers, though, are not trained to teach students with disabilities in their classrooms. It was necessary to examine whether there was a relationship between these two areas, teacher-student bullying and inclusion, as a starting point in learning more about teachers' perceptions of their school day. Inclusion classrooms are not going to go away. Teachers need to be prepared to teach all students in their classroom.

Chapter II reviews the literature in more depth regarding the topics of teachers' attitudes toward inclusion, relationships between teachers and students, and teacher-student bullying.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

This literature review includes the topics of teacher preparation and attitudes toward inclusion, relationships between teachers and students, and teacher-student bullying. Literature related to inclusion classrooms showed that it is difficult to verify teachers' attitudes based on any one factor. Teachers' attitudes toward inclusion appear to be affected mostly by training and preparation, collaboration time, and perceived level of support. Predictors of teacher-student relationships may be established in the very early years of a child's educational experience. Teacher-student relationships determined the educational climate created by teachers and/or expected by students. The educational climate can sometimes be related to teacher-student bullying behavior. Current literature did not support any issue being a sole factor of teachers' perceptions and attitudes toward inclusion, relationships between teachers and students, or teacher-student bullying but reflected an overlap and interconnectedness among issues implying both the complexity and the importance of continued research in the field.

Inclusion Classrooms

To better understand the literature related to inclusion, it is important to understand how inclusive classrooms came to be. The Education for All Handicapped Children Act (1975) was passed providing for the establishment of educating all individuals of school age. This law has been amended several times since. Now known as

the Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act 2004 (IDEA), the act gives students with disabilities the right to “participate with nondisabled children in the extracurricular services and activities to the maximum extent appropriate to the needs of that child” (Individuals with Disabilities Education Act). Part of this act covers what is known as Least Restrictive Environment (LRE) that “requires that, to the maximum extent appropriate, students with disabilities aged 3 through 21, in public or private institutions or other care facilities, are educated with children who are not disabled” (Individuals with Disabilities Education Act). Under LRE, the first placement option considered for students with disabilities is a regular education environment, with the use of supplemental aids and services as needed. In other words, “successful integration and acceptance of every student means that all teachers become teachers of special education students” (Cochran, 1998, p. 3).

Teacher Preparation and Attitudes toward Inclusion

Swain et al. (2012) conducted a qualitative study that determined whether pairing a special education course with a 24-hour practicum class changed teachers’ attitudes toward inclusion. Respondents of both a pre- and post-inclusion survey were 777 undergraduate students enrolled in either an elementary, secondary, or speech-language pathology program. Data were analyzed using a repeated measures *t*-test from pre- to post-survey. Analysis also included transcribing and categorizing the information. The authors then triangulated their data and developed themes.

Students reported positive change in attitudes toward the success of teaching students with disabilities. Confidence increased overall throughout the semester despite some pre-service teachers who wanted more training. The authors concluded that non-

special education teachers are not provided with adequate training to work with students with disabilities and, therefore, tend to carry a more negative attitude toward inclusion. They further noted that an introductory course in special education paired with the field experience enhanced both teacher attitudes and confidence toward inclusion. The authors also concluded that exposing pre-service teachers to inclusive settings with teachers seasoned in inclusive methods showed a positive impact.

A three-year project study by Burstein, Sears, Wilcoxon, Cabello, and Spagna (2004) indicated that there was a positive move toward inclusive settings. Changes made toward inclusion as part of their study were met with a high rate of satisfaction among the participating teachers. However, concerns were noted of how those changes would be sustained moving forward.

Kearney and Durand (1992) conducted a study examining preservice general educators' training and preparation for working in an inclusive classroom. The study revealed that general education training does not include adequate information related to special education, nor does it include enough exposure to general education settings that include students with disabilities. Another study conducted by Reed and Monda-Amaya (1995) also concluded that preservice training programs for general education teachers did not prepare those teachers for working with students with disabilities. These authors discovered that the information needed was not included in the general educator training program and, therefore, did not provide the needed specificity for general education teachers to work with students with exceptional needs.

The undergraduate curriculum for preservice general education teachers includes only one class related to special education and inclusion. Accommodations and

modifications are covered in a separate class, but only as a “cursory overview,” according to B. Stipp, Assistant Professor of Education, Olivet Nazarene University, Bourbonnais, Illinois (personal communication, July 23, 2014). Leyser and Tappendorf (2001) concluded that one course may not be enough to create a positive attitude in teachers who may hold a negative attitude toward an inclusive setting, but that more training and exposure to students with disabilities could help them change their attitude. On the contrary, Kirk (1998) examined whether there was a correlation between preservice teachers’ attitudes toward inclusion and their college coursework. Kirk determined that the information received during training did not impact attitudes or willingness to work with students with disabilities. However, Kirk did not examine whether more than the one preparation course would have made a difference in increasing positive attitudes.

States set up professional standards for the practice of education. According to Wigle and Wilcox (1996) however, these standards scarcely address working with students with disabilities, specific issues related to LRE, inclusive classroom environments, and informing and maintaining professional development for teachers in inclusive classroom settings. Teacher education programs must start implementing more detailed and direct training for all teachers in order for teachers not only to feel effective and competent, but also for all teachers to become effective and competent.

Preparation programs for pre-service teachers and ongoing in-service training to educate and support teachers already in the field would benefit not only the teachers, but also their students as well. Special education teachers are required to meet specific criteria in special education as well as their primary content area. General educators are not affected by any such mandate. Research shows that general education teachers have

reported they feel they have insufficient training to appropriately service students with disabilities in their classroom (Burstein et al., 2004; Kirk, 1998). Educators of students with disabilities in general education classrooms need “certain knowledge, dispositions, and skills to ensure positive outcomes” for their students (McCray & McHatton, 2011, p. 151), which can only come from effective preparation and training, so that all teachers can feel comfortable and capable of working with all students (McCray & McHatton).

The preparation of teachers highly impacts teachers’ attitudes toward inclusive classroom environments. Kosko and Wilkins (2009) conducted a quantitative study to determine how much training and experience would be necessary for teachers to feel prepared to teach in an inclusive environment. They surveyed 1,126 general education teachers from early childhood through eighth grade. The authors found that the more hours of professional development teachers had working in inclusive settings, the more confident they felt about working with students with disabilities in their classroom. A limitation to this study was that the authors did not measure teacher capability, only teacher comfort about having little or no training. Research determined that over eight hours of professional development, on a consistent basis, seems to increase teachers’ perceptions of their ability to adapt instruction appropriately to meet the needs of diverse learners. One hour a year of a staff development session is not enough to be effective (Galis & Tanner, 1995). Teachers must gain the knowledge and skills of how to teach students with disabilities and have a positive attitude about teaching to differing learning styles, in order to be more readily available to teach inclusively (Darling-Hammond, Chung, & Frelow, 2002).

Research indicated that general education teachers tend to have a negative attitude about inclusive classrooms (Forlin, 2001). Many teachers accept physical adaptations more than educational adaptations. This may be because physical adaptations are easier to make and are not created and adjusted throughout the time of working with a student (Kargin, Guldenoglu, & Sahin, 2010). Further, physical adaptations require less expert knowledge, can be explicitly observed, are more cost-effective, and are easier to implement (Kargin et al.).

General education teachers may feel overwhelmed having to meet more diverse learning needs in their classroom because of inclusive education (Shoho & Katims, 1998). Frustration may be a result of general education teachers feeling ill-prepared to teach special education students due to a lack of professional development in this area (Yoon, 2002). Studies of inclusive classroom environments are usually centered on the student or group of students with disabilities. There are few studies on teachers' attitude toward inclusion (Cochran, 1998). According to Salend (1999), any evaluation of an inclusion program should include a "measure of educators' attitudes or teacher acceptability of accommodation strategies" (p. 49). Cochran created the Scale of Teachers' Attitudes toward Inclusion (STATIC) specifically to meet the "need of a psychometrically sound means of assessing teachers' attitudes toward inclusion" (p. 3). The STATIC survey is a 20-item Likert scale. Cochran surveyed 516 teachers, 306 general education teachers, and 186 special education teachers, from five different school districts. Elementary schools, middle schools, high schools, and special education schools from urban, suburban, and rural areas were included. The results of Cochran's study indicated greater positive attitudes among special education teachers than those of

general education teachers. Teachers of students in kindergarten through eighth grade scored higher than high school teachers. Cochran concluded that teachers' attitudes were the main determinant of the success of inclusion. Cochran determined that teachers who exhibit negative attitudes toward inclusion may have a negative impact on the success of students included in their class. Teachers' negative feelings about working with students with disabilities “. . . have a negative effect on teacher behaviors, student learning, and the overall success of inclusive practices” (Fuchs, 2009-2010, p. 30).

Familia-Garcia (2001) conducted a small sample study in New York City to assess the attitudes of teachers toward inclusive classroom environments. In that study, the special education teachers reported a positive attitude toward working in an inclusive setting. However, only half of the general education teachers included in the study reported that they were even willing to try working in an inclusive setting. Additionally, 80% of those general education teachers reported that they would change schools or even retire if they were mandated to work in an inclusive setting (Familia-Garcia).

In another study, Forlin (2001) examined potential stressors for teachers working in an inclusive setting. In Queensland, Australia, 571 primary teachers completed a survey that covered the areas of demographics and personal teaching, information about students with disabilities, perceptions of stressors related to inclusion, and coping strategies used while working in an inclusive setting. The results of this study indicated that the expectation and necessary commitment to maintain an effective learning environment for students with disabilities was a stressor, although the greater number of years of experience and the more formal training the teachers had resulted in decreased stress.

In order for inclusive classroom environments to be successful, teachers must possess a positive attitude (Cochran, 1998; Forlin 2001). Studies support that experience working in inclusive classrooms, which may come from multiple years of teaching (Avramidis, Bayliss, & Burden, 2000), working in a co-teaching setting (Minke, Bear, Deemer, & Griffin, 1996), or working directly with a student who receives specialized services (Giangreco, Dennis, Cloninger, Edelman, & Schattman, 1993), appeared to have a positive effect on teachers' attitudes (Forlin, 2001). Teachers' perceptions of including special education students in a general education setting may determine the teacher behavior and affect the learning environment (Vaughn, Klingner, & Hughes, 2000). Measuring preservice teachers' attitudes toward inclusive classroom settings and toward special education students may lead to improved curriculum planning and development that may better prepare teachers to present effective lessons to all students in their classroom (Jobling & Moni, 2004). The curriculum planning and development should include time for collaboration between general education and special education teachers (Shippen, Crites, Houchins, Ramsey, & Simon, 2005).

Collaboration

Shippen et al. (2005) examined problems in inclusive classroom settings such as the lack of collaboration between general education and special education teachers which may stem from poor teacher preparation programs. Findings revealed that training teachers in both general education and special education would lead to a more positive attitude and willingness, as well as more capability among educators to work with the diverse learning needs of all students. This study supported the findings by Smith and Edelen-Smith (2002) who concluded that the majority of faculty in higher education

lacked a common vision of transdepartmental teacher-training programs. According to the results of their study, they predicted a continuation of a lack of implementation of the needed transdepartmental training to preservice educators.

An earlier study by Voltz and Elliot (1997) indicated the need for close collaboration between general education and special education teachers in order to prepare preservice teachers to be effective collaborators. Common introductory courses as well as collaborative methods courses throughout preservice teacher training need to be implemented in order to better prepare general education preservice teachers for working collaboratively with special education teachers in teaching students with disabilities (Mastropieri & Scruggs, 2001) so that all teachers can effectively work with all types of students (McCray & McHatton, 2011). The literature on collaboration among educators has identified recommended role functions in the domain of communication and working together on long-term and short-term goals, problem solving, instructional delivery, and professional development for general education teachers such as in-service training and protocols to guide in the recognition of students with disabilities (Voltz & Elliott). Schools that have successfully implemented inclusive settings have strong collaboration between general education teachers and special education teachers. This unified education system is what allows effective programs and services for all students when planned and utilized along with resources needed (Burstein et al., 2004). Additionally, research supported that there needs to be ongoing professional development and time for teacher collaboration and planning for seasoned teachers so that they can feel confident and competent to work with all students (Burstein et al.). Hastings and Oakford (2003) concluded that there are other factors in addition to training and

collaboration, such as support, that need to be examined when looking at teachers' attitudes toward inclusion. The next section of this review will investigate literature related to perceived teacher support in inclusive classroom settings.

Teachers' Perception of Support for Inclusion

Studies dedicated to teachers' attitudes toward inclusion of students with disabilities consistently show that teachers have a predisposition based on teacher preparation, years of teaching experience (Avramidis et al., 2000), teacher perception of administrative support (Villa, Thousand, Meyers, & Nevin, 1996), and access to resources (Rodriguez, Saldana, & Moreno, 2012). The support needed may come from consultants inside or outside of the school district, a classroom aide, and administration (Rodriguez et al.). "The support of experts and other practitioners is especially valuable when it is accompanied by appropriate collaboration" (Rodriguez et al., p. 1).

Rodriguez et al. (2012) uncovered that when access to resources, as well as administrative support, were provided there was an increase in positive teacher attitude. The authors concluded that teachers required the support of other staff in order to maintain a positive environment. Although this study only included students who were children with an Autism Spectrum Disorder, it was noted that there was a demand for information and support on teaching children with special needs, such as autism or other diagnoses, in an inclusive environment because an inclusive environment is, on its own, so multifarious.

Fuchs (2009-2010) conducted a qualitative study that examined general education teachers' beliefs and attitudes about mainstreaming practices. Constant comparison analysis was used to ensure that themes emerged from data itself. One of the major

themes that emerged from this study was that teachers felt there was a lack of support from school administrators concerning class size, in-service education, and collaboration time with special education staff.

It has been over a decade since the implementation of IDEA (2004). However, there is still a high level of frustration and perceived lack of support among general education teachers. The predominant area of concern with lack of administrative support lies with the perception of unrealistic expectations and job responsibilities along with high numbers in class-size (Fuchs, 2009-2010). It is necessary for those in authority positions to acknowledge teachers' feelings toward their classroom requirements. By increasing administrative support, research indicates that teacher efficacy and performance will improve (MacFarlane & Marks-Woolfson, 2013). This support may include reducing class sizes, allowing more collaboration and planning time, and providing more in-service training so that all students can be better served (Leatherman, 2007).

Throughout the literature, teachers consistently reported a need for more support in order to have successful inclusion classrooms (Burstein et al., 2004). Administrators must develop an awareness of teachers' feelings in order to promote a change to inclusion that convinces teachers that inclusion is necessary and worth their efforts (Werts, Wolery, Snyder, & Caldwell, 1996). Research that examined administrators' attitudes toward inclusion may be beneficial to determine the impact on teachers' attitudes toward inclusion (Hastings & Oakford, 2003). If administrators do not have a positive attitude, it may be difficult to convince their teachers otherwise. When change does occur, sustaining the change can be difficult (Burstein et al.) In addition, administrators must

also remain current in their knowledge of relevant and practical methods to effectively work with inclusive classroom settings (Smith & Smith, 2000). Resources and continued support from all levels of administration are essential to promote inclusive practices (Burstein et al., Rodriguez et al., 2012; Villa et al., 1996).

There is an abundance of research dedicated to the topic of inclusion. The research cited here indicated that pre-service teachers are not properly trained for working in an inclusive classroom environment, general education teachers do not feel prepared to work in an inclusive environment, teacher attitude affects behavior and performance, and there is a perceived lack of administrative support for staff who work in an inclusive environment. It may be necessary for this type of research to continue until there begins to be a positive change as well as reflection of more successful and effective inclusion programming and implementation because all of these factors affect the relationships between teachers and students.

Relationships between Teachers and Students

Teachers' interpersonal behavior, proximity, support, and care are critical to a positive outcome for student success. Molinari et al. (2013) performed a study that looked at the relationship among students' perceived classroom justice as affected by teacher-student interactions. The study was broken down to take into consideration eight categories of interpersonal teacher behavior: "leadership, helpful/friendly, understanding, student freedom, uncertain, dissatisfied, admonishing, and strict" (Molinari et al., p. 59). School outcomes that were considered in measurement for student success were "academic achievement, learning motivation, and a sense of class belonging" (Molinari et al., p. 58). Also considered was whether the school was academically focused or

vocationally focused. The study was conducted on a population of 614 Italian students who attended either a secondary school with a full academic orientation or a secondary school with a vocational focus.

The results showed that regardless of which school the students attended, proximity, meaning the relationship the teacher built with the student, based on cooperation or conflict, not the perception of classroom justice, was a stronger predictor of positive student outcomes. A friendly and understanding teacher had better results with motivation of students when he or she had a better comprehension of his or her students and displayed more cooperation with his or her students instead of a teacher who displayed hostile and/or admonishing behavior. Strict guidance from the teacher was still necessary in motivating students to commit to their work in both settings. The same was true for the students' sense of belonging. When treated in a caring and friendly way, students tended to feel more a part of their school, which may be a factor in increased positive outcomes. Teacher behavior may vary across settings, but effective school practice mandates that methods are put into place, which support the perception and reality that students are treated fairly (Molinari et al., 2013).

Students' Early Years

Positive interpersonal relationships and effortful engagement between teachers and students correlate to higher productivity and achievement across student developmental levels (Fan, 2011). The lower the teacher-student relationship, the lower the students' performance will be (Hughes, Luo, Kwok, & Loyd, 2008). "Children who have high engagement are likely to be treated in a way that is likely to increase their participation; while children who have lower engagement tend to be treated in a way that

can exacerbate their passivity and withdrawal from learning” (Skinner & Belmont, 1993, p. 578). However, Hughes et al. noted that conduct engagement did not predict achievement. In the Hughes et al. study, data revealed that teacher-student relationships “in first grade shaped children’s patterns of engagement in learning, which led both to more supportive relationships with subsequent teachers and to higher levels of achievement” (p. 11).

The early part of a child’s education is crucial in forming student perceptions of, and attitudes toward, the school environment (Pianta & Stuhlman, 2004). The stability of teacher-student relationships across pre-school through sixth grade, and the value added by positive teacher-student relationships based on perceptions of conflict and closeness are predictors of skill levels across the early years of a child’s education (Jerome, Hamre, & Pianta, 2009). However, children’s outcomes, meaning future performance and attitude toward school, are greatly impacted by the teacher-student relationship and can carry over throughout a child’s entire educational career (Pianta, 1994). The relationship between teachers and students in younger grades is a unique predictor of student future success throughout elementary school (Pianta). More specifically, negativity in teacher-child relationships has been found to emerge as a forecaster of many areas of student outcomes both academically and behaviorally (Hamre & Pianta, 2001). When children experience warm and affectionate teachers who provide clear expectations and strategic help, children are more likely to be more effortful and persistent, and feel happier and more enthusiastic in class (Skinner & Belmont, 1993).

These relationships can be affected by even a subtle response from the teacher. One such subtle response may be that teachers may have different expectations or

respond differently to boys than girls. Boys tend to receive more responses overall from teachers than do girls, with a greater number of positive responses for their academic behavior and a greater number of negative comments related to social behavior (Merrett & Wheldall, 1992). Another possible subtle response can come in the form of how a teacher responds to mistakes made by a student which may project either a negative or a positive perception from the student. Teachers who point out mistakes but do not include reinforcement to a student's risk-taking initiative may be missing out on a learning opportunity (Tulis, 2013). Liew, Chen, and Hughes (2010) discovered that when using the positive teacher-student relationship as a compensatory factor, lower task accuracy students were able to increase their performance to be just as good as the high task accuracy students when paired with a positive and supportive teacher.

These responses may also determine how a student is viewed by his or her peers (Hughes & Kwok, 2006). Especially for younger students, the teacher sets the example for how a child should be treated. Classmates pick up on subtle cues of another child's likeability based, at least partly, on the teacher's interactions with each child (Hughes, Cavell, & Willson, 2001). Teachers have the power to control the teacher-student relationship, especially in the younger years, and also to provide motivation for learning and an environment of perceived fairness and justice (Molinari et al., 2013; Skinner & Belmont, 1993). It is that perception that is developed by the student and the importance of feeling connected, which is so strongly influenced by the relationship with the teacher, that can determine the student's engagement in and future outlook of his or her own educational career as well as the types of behaviors the student may display along the way (Hamre & Pianta, 2001).

Students Challenging Teachers

There is another side that might also be considered in relationships between teachers and students. Some students can be more challenging to teachers when they consistently disrupt the class, display aggressive behavior, and are disengaged from partaking in their own education. These students are often identified as main sources of teacher stress, undermining teacher well-being (Roffey, 2012). These students are often met with criticism and punishment in an attempt to correct for future behavior. This can create a vicious cycle where even a well-intentioned teacher may find himself or herself constantly correcting the student instead of finding ways to promote positive attention to the student (Yoon, 2002). Such a cycle is “more likely to perpetuate a sense of alienation for the student from teachers and from school, which then may lead to more hostility, anger, and defiance” (p. 486). The teachers’ world is full of unrealistic performance demands which create a negative impact on them, and most-likely on their health. This negative impact may trickle down to the well-being of the student as well (Roffey).

Yoon’s (2002) study examined teacher characteristics as a predictor of teacher-student relationships. It was determined that the level of stress a teacher feels affected his or her attitude toward teaching, and also affected what type of relationship he or she had with students. As difficult as it may be, teachers are ultimately in control of, and therefore responsible for, the educational climate provided to their students. Providing a positive educational climate may be a challenging area that requires more support for the teachers.

Educational Climate

Educational climate refers to the environment of a school that includes the level of parental involvement, staff and administrative commitment to student learning,

discipline procedures, expectations for students' academic success and appropriate behavior, and relationships among students, staff, parents, and community members (Lehr & Christenson, 2002). Teachers are responsible for the climate of their classroom. They are also responsible for increasing student achievement. To do this, the teachers must take on the role of the instructional leader and properly manage their classroom by implementing techniques to decrease students' off-task behavior and increase time on task. This often must be done in situations of high class-size, low care-giver involvement, and high expectations with low support from the administration.

Just as teachers have been found to be more motivated, satisfied, and have higher levels of performance and involvement when they feel like they belong, by being positively supported by their principal (Littrell, Billingsley, & Cross, 1994), students must feel they belong in order to be open for learning. An optimal learning environment "must first establish a classroom community which offers each child a sense of belonging and space to release his or her own capabilities" (Poulou, 2009, p. 105).

Social skills for relationships of mutual respect, feeling included, and engagement in learning are more frequently exercised in the classroom setting (Poulou, 2009). Poulou reported that teachers and students agree that behaviors cultivating mutual respect are more frequently implemented than behaviors promoting working collaboratively (Poulou). Other studies relate to teacher behavior in the classroom. According to the research, there are few notable differences affecting teacher and student behavior in the classroom. Teachers are more likely to mention compliance issues, especially with boys. Additionally, misbehavior of boys is rated as more serious than that of girls (Stuhlman, & Pianta, 2001). Autonomy support and structure have been found to predict children's

motivation and declared reciprocal effects of student motivation on teacher behavior (Skinner & Belmont, 1993).

Studies indicated that children who are disengaged behaviorally receive teacher responses that further undermine their motivation (Skinner & Belmont, 1993). Less compliant children have teachers who are less positive when discussing them (Stuhlman & Pianta, 2001). This could be connected to the stress a teacher feels in establishing an appropriate educational environment. Collie, Shapka, and Perry (2012) conducted a quantitative, cross-sectional study that indicated stress related to student behavior and discipline negatively affected a teacher's comfort in implementing social-emotional learning. Yet, comfort was positively associated with teaching efficacy and job satisfaction. Collie et al. showed that the desire to improve skills in social-emotional learning was associated with a sense of professional growth, a key source of job satisfaction for teachers. The authors found that teachers' perceptions of students affect correlated areas of stress, teaching efficacy, and job satisfaction which all relate to the teacher-student relationship.

Victimization of students often occurs when there are inappropriate or inadequate discipline policies in place (Hyman & Perone, 1998). Psychological maltreatment has a high-risk factor for bringing about negative behaviors from students and causing them to feel as though they do not belong, or are not welcome. "Sarcasm, ridicule, name-calling, and denigrating statements" have been used as a form of classroom discipline (Hyman & Perone, p. 19). Students' perceptions of school, whether positive or negative, are affected by the social culture of the classroom and are determined in the very early stages of the educational experience (Baker, 1999). Students who perceive positive and caring

relationships with teachers are also more highly satisfied with school (Baker). A positive learning environment is one that supplies supportiveness (Baker), provides a sense of fairness and justice (Gregory et al., 2010), and cultivates mutual respect (Poulou, 2009).

Addressing the social-emotional aspect of students' learning can bring about additional stress for a teacher trying to establish a positive educational climate.

Tamutiene (2008) reported findings that indicated that the class social climate and control of the classroom ranges from "total domination by a teacher to domination by a student" (p. 127). Tamutiene explained that there were two extremes of class climate in cases of bullying: either a teacher forced "students to suffer tension and fear" (p. 127), or students attempted to "inflict the same emotions on a teacher" (p. 127). The most critical cases reported were cases where teachers bullied students by insulting them, labeling them as idiots, ignoring them, or intimidating them. Experiences of absentee students showed that "teachers' reactionary behavior to their conduct, learning results, or personality was not discipline. Instead, it reinforced students' perceptions that they were not welcome at school" (p. 128). This is a strong tie-in to the present study relating classroom climate to teacher-student relationships.

There are several ways in which teachers address disruptive behavior. Having a rule that calls for no talking while someone else is talking is a popular rule and found to be the most effective for addressing disruptive behavior (Malone, Bonitz, & Rickett, 1998) followed by parent-teacher conferences as the second best method. Authoritative school settings tend to have a higher level of structure and support and less victimization/bullying (Gregory et al., 2010) which would also be a good control for disruptive behaviors by providing consistent expectations for students and staff. When

perceptions of fair school rules and a high rate of teacher support are consistent, less victimization occurs (Gregory et al.), and this leads to creating a more positive educational environment (Patrick et al., 2011). Whichever course of action is taken, teachers tend to magnify initial levels of engagement whether high or low (Skinner & Belmont, 1993) that can set the stage early on for the educational climate. Students with positive teacher-student relationships, that are key in a positive educational environment and come from feeling supported academically and emotionally by their teacher, and have a sense of mutual respect, display lower problem behavior directly related to the structure and support they receive (Gregory et al.; Patrick et al.).

There is no doubt that teachers are faced with demands which may be difficult to address all at once. Teachers are responsible for student achievement, as well as social-emotional well-being; they work in crowded classrooms, often have limited resources (Rodriguez et al., 2012), and must service the individual abilities of each student even if they do not have the training to do so such as working with students with disabilities (Kearney & Durand, 1992). In addition to classroom responsibilities, teachers must prepare appropriate and differentiated lesson plans, attend staff meetings, attend individual student meetings as necessary, keep open communication with their administrators, and maintain appropriate communication with students' caregivers. All that considered, it also remains teachers' responsibility to act in a professional manner and treat all of their students with respect and dignity.

Even children as young as first grade are able to pick up on body language and facial expressions of teachers to decipher a positive or negative interaction. Students should be included more actively in the process of education and establishing and

maintaining high quality, positive learning environments (Tobin, Ritchie, Oakley, Mergard, & Hudson, 2013). More importantly, school administrators need to review and update policies and procedures that lead students to feeling victimized and unwanted in school (Hyman & Perone, 1998). Additionally, school administrators must also communicate clear expectations of an inclusive culture to staff (MacFarlane & Marks-Woolfson, 2013) while providing support and training to teachers who work with difficult students increasing the level of stress in their day potentially leading to burnout.

Teacher Burnout

There is another side of the educational climate that might also be considered. Some students can be more challenging to teachers when they consistently disrupt the class, display aggressive behavior, and are disengaged from partaking in their own education. These students are often identified as main sources of teacher stress, undermining teacher well-being (Yoon, 2002). These students are often met with criticism and punishment in an attempt to correct for future behavior. This can create a vicious cycle in which even a well-intentioned teacher may find himself or herself constantly correcting the student instead of finding ways to promote positive attention to the student. This scenario is “more likely to perpetuate a sense of alienation” (p. 486) for the student from the educational environment. That feeling may present itself as increased hostility, anger, and defiance (Baker, 1999; Yoon).

According to the research, teacher stress can be exacerbated by disruptive students. This may lead to teacher burnout and a reduced ability to cope with disruptive student behavior (Evers, Tomic, & Brouwers, 2004). Personal accomplishment is a decisive factor in teachers’ strategies for coping with job stressors which influence their

competence to cope with disruptive behavior (Evers & Tomic, 2002). Teachers' competence to cope with disruptive student behavior is related to their perceived level of burnout (Evers & Tomic) and affects their self-perception of motivation, ability to accomplish their classroom tasks, and level of exhaustion as the school year progresses (Fernet, Guay, Senecal, & Austin, 2012). Teachers seek and depend on administrative support, especially in the area of discipline, but report receiving little to no administrative support or intervention (Evers & Tomic; Fernet et al.). This perceived lack of administrative help in disciplining students may add to the frustration teachers may feel. It may also add to teachers having a lowered esteem of their classroom authority (Yoon & Gilchrist, 2003).

Research also confirms that student misbehavior is often triggered by education policies, especially those that are increasingly intrusive, such as the use of strip-searching (Hyman & Perone, 1998). Another trigger is that students at risk of failure often feel unwelcomed and estranged from school in addition to receiving poor grades (Baker, 1999).

Student misconduct is a main component related to teacher burnout (Allen, 2010). The teachers' world is full of unrealistic performance demands which create a negative impact on them and most-likely their health. That in turn, may negatively impact the wellbeing of the student as well (Roffey, 2012). Yoon (2002) conducted a study examining whether a teacher's personality could be a predictor of the type of relationship between the teacher and their students. It was determined that the level of stress teachers feel affects their attitude toward teaching as well as impacts the quality of the relationship they have with their students. As difficult as it may be, the teachers are ultimately in

control of, and therefore responsible for, the educational climate provided to their students. Providing a positive educational climate may be a challenging area that requires more support to the teachers.

The next section of this literature review will cover literature related to teacher-student bullying. School bullying may be looked at as common practice; however, most studies focus on peer-peer bullying.

Teacher-Student Bullying in Schools

Bullying in schools is not a new issue. Roland and Olweus (as cited in Lee, 2006) inspired the first international conference on bullying in 1987. Throughout the years, though studied, attention to bullying has been limited. It has only been since the Columbine High School Massacre of 1999 that increased attention has emerged on school bullying (Allen, 2010).

Though a well-known incident, this literature review will include a brief description of the Columbine High School Massacre for future readers. On April 20, 1999, in Littleton, Colorado, two high school seniors, Klebold and Harris, began their school day by carrying out an attack on their high school. Their plan was to kill as many people as possible. They walked into the school armed with a multitude of weapons including guns, knives, and bombs; they walked the hallways attempting to kill anyone in their view. They killed 12 students and one teacher, injured 21 others, and then committed suicide. The crime was the worst high school shooting in United States history. There was speculation that the two committed the killings because they had been bullied, were members of a group of social outcasts fascinated by Goth culture, and/or

had been influenced by violent video games and music. Their reason will never be known (Rosenberg, n.d.).

Effects of Bullying

Children in schools are exposed to bullying in some form on a daily basis whether as the bully, the bullied, or a bystander (Twemlow et al., 2004). Most studies focus on peer-peer bullying. Few studies have focused on teachers as bullies in the school setting. Teacher-student bullying has been confirmed as a real problem through separate studies by Hyman and Perone (1998), McEvoy (2005), Tamutiene (2008), Twemlow and Fonagy (2005), Whitted and Dupper (2008), and Zerillo and Osterman (2011). The effects of teacher-student bullying are detrimental emotionally and/or physically and can create insurmountable barriers to making positive connections in school (Harris & Petrie, 2002) because violence in a school, especially when it involves a teacher, undermines children's sense of security, and interferes with their learning (Tamutiene).

Yoon and Kerber (2003) conducted a quantitative study to examine teachers' attitudes toward different types of bullying behavior: physical, verbal, and social exclusion. Participants consisted of 94 elementary teachers, 26 male and 68 female, who were currently taking graduate-level classes in education. A questionnaire presenting six vignettes was used. There were two vignettes related to each of the three types of bullying behavior. Teachers rated social exclusion lower than verbal and physical bullying. Correspondingly, physical bullying was considered more serious than verbal bullying. Data related to the level of teacher involvement in interventions signified a higher rate of the likelihood of teachers intervening in physical and verbal bullying than intervening in social exclusion situations. While this study looked at bullying in a

different way than the Twemlow et al. (2004) study, there may be similarity in the bystander view as shown by the lack of intervention.

Teacher Bullying

Halkias et al. (2003) conducted a follow up study that explored traumatic stress in children caused by educators and other adults in a school setting where children have little or no control. It was determined that in schools where severe disciplinary practices are typical, many children also display symptoms of Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD). When schools become a place of stress and when victimization predominates a student's experience, it is likely the victim will develop a range of negative emotional reactions, including anger, hostility, and aggression (Halkias, et al.). Other effects may also include intensified anger and defiance (Yoon, 2002). Halkias et al. reported in their study that "any category of victimization was perceived as far harsher and a greater attack and aggressive act against the student when being received from a teacher" (p. 12). They recognized that teachers and other adults in school are supposed to be trusted and safe role models for children.

Twemlow et al. (2006) conducted a quantitative study to examine teacher bullying. The study population included 116 teachers from seven different elementary schools. Data were collected through the administration of a questionnaire that identified how teachers perceive their own experiences of bullying and how they perceive the behavior of other teachers. Through factor analysis, the authors concluded there are two types of teacher-bully, sadistic and bully-victim. A sadistic bully "has stable self-esteem, little anxiety, and bullies for pleasure" (p. 195). Conversely, a bully-victim "provokes bullying and then acts in a victimized way after he or she is attacked" (p. 195). Twemlow

et al. also determined that teachers who reported being bullied when they were a child were more likely to bully students inside and outside their classroom. The authors noted that non-bully teachers often end up in an avoidant and bystander role because of fear of union issues or conflicts with colleagues.

A separate study by Twemlow et al. (2004) defined bystander as “an active and involved participant in the social architecture of school violence, rather than a passive witness” (p. 215). They noted that the bystander role is one often occupied by teachers, students, and administrators, and is usually not included in school policies related to bullying and violence prevention programs. The ongoing interaction of the bystander may present in a way that is helpful, or it can present in a way that is detrimental to the situation. The bully does not act alone, the authors pointed out, but becomes “an agent of the bystander audience, which fuels the fire and perhaps even intensifies the harm” (p. 221). Perceived seriousness of bullying, a high level of empathy, and high self-efficacy are the factors that determine whether or not a teacher will intervene in a bullying situation (Yoon, 2004).

In another study, McEvoy (2005) used a mixed-methods approach that examined the serious academic and social consequences of non-sexual abuse of power over students by teachers. This study used a convenience sample of 236 students, 91 male and 145 female, ranging in age from 15-23 to conduct student interviews about perceived abusive behavior and responses to such conduct from teachers and administrators.

In the McEvoy (2005) study, interviewees were asked to recall encounters with high school teachers that were perceived as abusive, including any personal experiences when they felt specifically targeted. Individuals decided for themselves what constituted

bullying. Students were asked whether they commonly perceived teachers as bullies, if many students recognized the same teachers as bullies, whether teachers were held accountable for their actions, and if schools provided a means of redress for students who reported abusive teacher behavior. Data were analyzed based on focus group discussions with teachers and administrators as well as interviews with current and former students. Only 24 students did not report a number of teachers perceived as bullies in school. The gender of the bully-teachers varied. The majority of teachers perceived as bullies, 195, had been teaching for five or more years. When respondents were asked if they believed teachers saw negative consequences for their behavior, 189 respondents reported these teachers bullied without reprimand. The data showed that students often perceived teachers to be bullies and that there was a lack of institutional response, which undermines teacher accountability. Although teacher-student bullying is not unnoticed, students may perceive that there is no place to turn. However, the authors noted that it is possible some official actions could be taken without students' knowledge. The detrimental effects are long lasting and may carry over into college performance and the adult workplace (Halkias et al., 2003; Yoon, 2002). More attention needs to be brought to the problem of teacher bullying (Zerillo & Osterman, 2011). Though it has been confirmed that teacher bullying does exist, there are differing points of view about the problem (Zerillo & Osterman).

The issue of teacher-student bullying has just begun to be explored. However, it has been well established that it does exist and is a major problem. In fact, 45% of the participating teachers admitted to bullying at least one student (Twemlow et al., 2006). Teachers are role models who are in a position of authority, power, and influence over

their students. Teacher-student bullying behavior may be more detrimental than the more studied peer-peer bullying issue (Halkias et al., 2003).

Causes of Bullying

Just as there is not only one single identified cause of peer-peer bullying, there is also not just one single identified cause of teacher-student bullying. Again, studies related to teacher-student bullying behavior are in their infancy. Verbal abuse appears to be a common part of teacher classroom management and is also part of psychological abuse and maltreatment toward children. Although the specific definition varies throughout literature, it tends to include “ridiculing, teasing, name-calling, or yelling at the child” (Brendgen, Wanner, Vitaro, Bukowski, & Tremblay, 2007, p. 26).

Twemlow and Fonagy (2005) surveyed 214 teachers that examined whether or not there was a correlation between teachers’ past experiences with bullying as children and current school suspension rates. The data indicated that higher suspension rates were found to be in schools where more teachers reported having been bullied as a child, admitted to bullying students themselves, or reported witnessing teacher bullies. Based on their findings, Twemlow and Fonagy concluded that teachers who bully may also have a negative influence on some of the behavior problems of students. Other work by Twemlow and colleagues (Twemlow & Fonagy; Twemlow et al., 2006) indicated that teacher bullying may also negatively influence the school climate, may increase bullying among students, and may impact other issues related to behavior and academics. “When a teacher feels less stressed or more satisfied when he or she hurts another person, bullying may be the problem” (Mullet, 2006, p. 96).

Among what has been learned about teacher-student bullying, there appears to be four common situations in which teacher-student bullying occurs. One situation is when teachers have learned that as long as there is no name-calling, bullying may be an acceptable form of student control and classroom management. The second situation is when teachers who may have been exceptional students do not understand why some struggling students may resort to misbehavior when those students become embarrassed, bored, or fearful of their perceived incompetence. These teachers are then easily frustrated with uncooperative students because they never used those behaviors themselves and do not see them as appropriate student responses. The third situation is teachers who resort to bullying behavior because they were often the victim of bullying when they were children. Additionally, teachers may become bullies if, as a teacher, they have been bullied by their own students, by their administrators, or outside of the school setting (Twemlow et al., 2006). The fourth situation is when teacher-student bullying typically goes unpunished which allows the teacher to continue to be secure in his or her position and view his or her behavior as acceptable classroom management (Terry & Baer, 2013). The last situation may reflect a strong need for professional development, teacher training, and ongoing support in the area of classroom management. If teachers are made aware that certain responses are not acceptable and trained in other manners, school districts may alleviate teacher-student bullying behaviors (Whitted & Dupper, 2008). There is no doubt that the relationship between a teacher and his or her students has a great impact on how the student views school which affects the success of the student in school. Whether the relationship is positive or negative, its effects may be life-

long lasting. For this reason, school districts need to engage in prevention and intervention.

Prevention and Intervention

In order for prevention and intervention of bullying to be implemented, bullying must first be recognized (Glasner, 2010). There is a wide selection of anti-bullying and school violence prevention programs from which school personnel may choose. Still, children are exposed to bullying in some form on a daily basis whether as the bully, the bullied, or a bystander (Twemlow et al., 2004). This may be because few programs have been evaluated for effectiveness (Twemlow et al., 2001). One exception to this is the *Second Step: A Violence Prevention Curriculum*, which was validated through a randomized study by Twemlow et al. Another exception is “Olweus’s naturalistic study of 42 schools in Norway which resulted in decreased violence in grades four through seven” (as cited in Twemlow et al., p. 808). However, Olweus’s program has shown little success in North America (Twemlow et al.). Studies on bullying were limited prior to 1999 (Allen, 2010). It is possible that program evaluation will begin with the increase of studies on the topic of bullying.

Twemlow et al. (2001) conducted a quantitative study that examined whether intervention programs at two inner-city elementary schools, one experimental and one control, were effective. Schools were similar in location, socioeconomic level, class size, ethnic make-up, and number of general education students and special education students. Both schools had high levels of disciplinary problems. Teachers in the experimental school received in-service training for the intervention, which was completely executed the following school year and completely supported for two years.

Metropolitan Achievement Test results and disciplinary data were collected from each school's administration. Data were analyzed by comparing past referral and suspension rates and academic achievement year-by-year.

After introducing the program, the experimental school showed a dramatic reduction in disciplinary referrals and out-of-school suspensions and significant improvement in academic achievement. The control school did not experience these results. Teachers from the experimental school disclosed that they noticed the students became "less anxiety-provoking, and more relational in their mode of functioning," (Twemlow et al., 2001, p. 810) were less reactive, and employed responses other than bullying. Teachers from the experimental school also reported "that many previously passive, withdrawn, or victimized children grew more verbal and outspoken as the program progressed" (p. 810).

The program was implemented with training, start-up support, and continued support throughout its implementation, all key factors in successful results. Successful strategies for reducing and preventing school violence must include "approaches that do not treat students as though they are the source of the problem" (Mayer, 2002, p. 86). Mayer stated that school policies and classroom rules should be reviewed to make sure they do not conflict with each other. Rules should be frequently reinforced and presented in a positive manner in order to build on a child's strengths, not demean for mistakes. Further, administration must be aware of teachers' rules and classroom practices and ensure that they are carried out in a positive, supportive, and caring manner. "Students need meaningful interactions with the rules to learn the code of conduct. Do not just give the students a paper or booklet about the rules" (p. 90).

The aforementioned programs, as other bully prevention programs, focused on student behavior and student-student bullying. Any prevention program, in order to be successful, must include positive support and interactions, such as praise for good behavior (Lannie & McCurdy, 2007), from teachers and administrators. It is true; teachers play an important role in bullying prevention (Sairanen & Pfeffer, 2011). However, when the teacher is the bully, prevention and intervention programs do not exist. Students are often left feeling that they have no one to turn to and that teachers are not held accountable for their actions toward students (McEvoy, 2005).

Hyman and Perone (1998), McEvoy (2005), Tamutiene (2008), Twemlow and Fonagy (2005), Whitted and Dupper (2008), and Zerillo and Osterman (2011) have all confirmed the issue of teacher-student bullying as a real problem. School administrators and teachers are responsible for creating a positive learning environment. Although typical interactions between adults and students in a school are respectful, some adults physically, verbally, and psychologically bully students (Whitted & Dupper). Teachers who bully students potentially also bully other teachers, causing measurable damage to the victims. However, those cases may be disputable under workplace harassment laws (H, 2012). According to H, an anonymous author who disclosed information regarding his colleagues, the number of those cases may be on the rise.

Reducing bullying by faculty members must begin with intention and focus. So much attention is given to student-student bullying behavior, yet teachers may be bullying students even in highly visible settings where the bullying may be easily recognized. This cannot be tolerated. It must be made clear that a teacher who uses bullying behavior toward colleagues or students will not be accepted and will be dealt

with promptly (Hoerr, 2013). Sarcasm, rolled eyes, and loud sighs cannot be allowed to be part of a faculty dialogue. In being proactive, administration must address teamwork and professionalism. It is also important, maybe more so, that when thinking about bullying behaviors among teachers, school district leaders take a hard look at themselves and their administration. Principals, assistant principals, and deans can be bullies too (Hoerr); thus, awareness and action are needed to prevent this behavior.

Conclusions

Inclusion of special education students in general education classrooms is becoming more prevalent in schools. However, research indicates that preservice teacher training does not prepare general education teachers to work with special education students (Kearney & Durand, 1992; Reed & Monda-Amaya, 1995; Swain et al., 2012). Additionally, experienced teachers feel ill-prepared to work with special education students in their classroom (Yoon, 2002). Along with insufficient training and a lack of professional development (Wigle & Wilcox, 1996), teachers feel there is a lack of administrative support when it comes to inclusion (Burstein et al., 2004; Fuchs, 2009-2010; MacFarlane & Marks-Woolfson, 2013; Villa et al., 1996). These factors may lead to teachers having a negative attitude about working in an inclusive environment (Cochran, 1998; Forlin, 2001). Teachers' attitude toward their students influences the teacher-student relationship (Cochran; Familia-Garcia, 2001; Forlin; Hastings & Oakford, 2003).

A positive interpersonal relationship among teachers and their students is important in determining student achievement. Especially in the early years, the relationship between teacher and student can be detrimental in forming a student's

perception of and attitude toward the school environment (Hughes et al., 2008; Jerome et al., 2009; Pianta, 1994; Pianta & Stuhlman, 2004). Even as early as first grade, students can pick up on subtle responses from the teacher (Hughes et al.). The perception that is developed by the student and the importance of feeling connected can determine a student's engagement in and future outlook of his or her educational career and behaviors along the way (Fan, 2011; Hamre & Pianta, 2001; Hughes et al., 2001; Hughes & Kwok, 2006; Hughes et al., 2008; Jerome et al.; Liew et al., 2010; Merrett & Wheldall, 1992; Molinari et al., 2013; Pianta; Pianta & Stuhlman; Skinner & Belmont, 1993; Tulis, 2013). When a teacher is faced with working with disruptive, aggressive, or resistant students, it can be especially challenging, and a high stressor, even for a well-intentioned teacher, in developing a positive teacher-student relationship (Yoon, 2002).

Teachers are responsible for the educational climate of their classroom. They are also responsible for increasing student achievement. Daily expectations, which must often be carried out in situations of high class-size, low care-giver involvement, and low support from administration, can be tremendously stressful. However, teachers must provide a positive learning environment that allows all students to feel like they belong in order for them to be open to learning (Poulou, 2009). Providing a positive learning environment can be a challenge for any teacher. There is no doubt that teachers are faced with extreme demands which may be difficult to address all at once. The stress teachers are faced with on a daily basis often leads to teacher burnout such as emotional exhaustion and depersonalization (Collie et al., 2012). Student misbehavior is a big factor contributing to burnout as well (Baker, 1999; Evers & Tomic, 2002; Evers et al., 2004; Yoon, 2002).

Some of these factors may lead to teacher-student bullying behaviors. Research on school bullying has emerged since 1999 following the Columbine High School Massacre. However, studies have mainly focused on peer-peer bullying. Research on teacher-student bullying is in its infancy, though there is enough to confirm it as a real problem. Bullying in schools occurs on a daily basis (Twemlow et al., 2004). When the bully is a teacher, the effects are “perceived as far harsher and a greater attack and aggressive act against the student” (Halkias et al., 2003, p. 12).

The cause of teacher-student bullying has not been determined. As with student-student bullying, there is most-likely not just one cause. The literature reveals four common situations in which teacher-student bullying occurs. One situation is when teachers feel that as long as there is no name-calling, bullying may be used as a form of classroom management. A second situation is when teachers who may have been exceptional students do not understand why some students who struggle with academics resort to misbehavior. A third situation is when a teacher may have been a victim of bullying as a child, in their own classroom by their students, by their administrators, or outside of the school setting (Twemlow et al., 2006). Finally, the fourth situation is when teacher-student bullying goes unpunished allowing the teacher to remain secure in his or her position and view his or her behavior as acceptable classroom management (Terry & Baer, 2013).

It is necessary to research the topic in order to determine factors that relate to teacher-student bullying. If teacher attitude toward inclusion classrooms is found to be a cause of teacher-student bullying behavior, then training, professional development,

administrative support, and programming can be put into place to alleviate the problem (Twemlow et al., 2001).

Multiple bully prevention and intervention programs exist. However, they focus on student behavior and student-student bullying. Teachers play an important role in bully prevention (Sairanen & Pfeffer, 2011). When the teacher is the bully, though, prevention and intervention programs do not exist. Students are often left feeling that they have no one to turn to and that teachers are not held accountable for their actions toward students (McEvoy, 2005).

Summary

Students need to feel safe and supported in their learning environment. As well, teachers need to feel supported and capable while providing that environment to their students. Bullying should not be an accepted part of a school day. If teacher bullying is occurring, then it must be stopped.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

Following the Columbine High School Massacre on April 20, 1999, studies on school bullying began to emerge. Most of those studies however, focused on peer-peer bullying. Few studies exist on the topic of teacher-student bullying. Although it has been confirmed as a real problem, the reasons are unknown (Hyman & Perone, 1998; McEvoy, 2005; Tamutiene, 2008; Twemlow & Fonagy, 2005; Zerillo & Osterman, 2011).

Teachers face many challenges managing a classroom of diverse learners. Teachers are responsible for the educational climate of their classroom. They are also responsible for increasing student achievement. Daily expectations, which must often be carried out in situations of high class-size, low care-giver involvement, and low support from administration, can be tremendously stressful.

General education teachers may feel overwhelmed having to meet more diverse learning needs in their classroom because of inclusive education (Shoho & Katims, 1998). Frustration may be a result of general education teachers feeling ill-prepared to teach special education students due to a lack of professional development in this area (Yoon, 2002). Studies of inclusive classroom environments are usually centered on the student or group of students with disabilities. There are few studies on teachers' attitude toward inclusion (Cochran, 1998).

This research study sought to explore teachers' attitudes toward inclusive classrooms in order to determine if there is a relation to teachers who may display bullying behaviors toward students. Research on teacher-student bullying is in its infancy. This study is one attempt to bring more awareness to the topic of teacher-student bullying and to open more thought for future studies.

Research Design

This research study examined the following three research questions:

1. What differences, if any, exist in teacher attitude toward an inclusive classroom as a factor of teacher position assignment whether special education or general education?
2. What differences, if any, exist in attitude toward teacher bullying as a factor of teacher position assignment whether special education or general education?
3. In what way, if any, does attitude toward inclusive classroom setting correlate to teacher bullying?

To address each of these research questions, this researcher conducted a quantitative study using a purposive and convenience sampling. For questions one and two, a Mann-Whitney U procedure, a non-parametric analysis, was required due to a lack of homogeneity of variance between the two groups, special education teachers and general education teachers. There were 26 special education teachers and 48 general education teachers involved in this study. Two separate survey instruments were used for this study. For the first research question the Scale of Teachers' Attitudes toward Inclusive Classrooms (STATIC), (Cochran, 1998) was used. For the second research question The Survey on Bullying Teachers and Teacher Bullying (Twemlow et al., 2006)

was used. All data were analyzed separately for special education and general education teachers. For question three, data from each of the surveys were correlated to determine whether or not there was a relationship between attitudes toward inclusive classrooms and attitudes toward teacher bullying. Additionally, data were gathered from The Survey on Bullying Teachers and Teacher Bullying (Twemlow et al.) to examine the number of participants who had witnessed and/or participated in teacher-student bullying behavior.

Population

The population of this study is third through eighth grade school teachers from three different schools in the south suburbs of a large metropolitan city. At these schools, a total of 84 special education and general education teachers have had experience working in an inclusive classroom environment.

Sample

This quantitative study used a purposive and convenience sampling. It was purposive because this researcher chose the sample based on personal knowledge that the three schools use inclusive classroom settings across grade levels. It was a convenience sample because the locations of the schools are close to, and easily accessible to this researcher. Additionally, the principal of each of the schools is familiar with this researcher.

All teachers who met the inclusive criteria and agreed to participate by filling out two survey forms used to gather the data were included. Of the original 84 surveys that were distributed, 10 surveys were removed from the study because they were not completely filled out. This left a final sample size of 74 teachers; 26 were special education teachers and 48 were general education teachers. Descriptive analysis of the

demographic variables was conducted and reported. The demographic data used included number of years of teaching experience, average class size, educational level, and whether or not the participant has a child with special needs or comes from a home where there was a child with special needs. Data were analyzed separately for special education teachers and general education teachers.

Measures

The STATIC (Cochran, 1998) was used to measure elementary teachers' attitudes toward including special education students in a general education environment. The STATIC (Cochran) holds a Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of .89 for the total group of special education and general education, elementary and secondary teachers. Its use was determined valid and reliable for measuring teachers' attitude toward inclusion.

The first part of the STATIC (Cochran, 1998) survey gathered demographic information. The information used from this section included identifying special education or general education teaching assignment, total number of years teaching experience, average class size, educational level, and whether the participant had a child with special needs or comes from a home where there was a child with special needs. After obtaining permission from the survey author, the researcher had modified the question about the teaching assignment to identify as either special education or general education. Additionally, the sample for this study consisted of very few male participants. Disclosing gender may have risked identification of some of the participants. The survey author had granted permission to modify the survey in any way needed. Therefore, gender disclosure was offered as optional. The location statement was not included for

this study as the population included three schools from the south suburbs of a large metropolitan city.

The survey was made up of four subscales. These subscales were Advantages and Disadvantages of Inclusive Education, Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education, Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education, and Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education. There were 20 Likert-scale statements to be rated from zero for strongly disagree through five for strongly agree. The sum score of the 20 items for each subject were considered an index of attitude toward inclusion. Higher scores indicate more positive attitudes (Cochran, 1998). This study examined teachers' attitudes toward inclusive classroom settings. The subscale scores were not used for the purposes of this study but may be used for future studies.

The second survey, A Survey on Bullying Teachers and Teacher Bullying (Twemlow et al., 2006) measured teachers' perceptions of, and experiences with, teacher bullying. Cronbach's alpha for this survey is .65 for its original study. A definition for Bullying Teacher, and a definition for Bullying Student, is included as part of the survey.

For the purposes of this study, only the first part of Section C, Interpersonal Dynamics of Bullying Teachers, of this survey was used in order to obtain attitudes toward teacher bullying. The first part of Section C has 27, four-point, likert-scale statements based on teachers' overall experiences. The participants rated behaviors, one being never and four being always, as related to a Bullying Teacher and also as related to a Non-Bullying Teacher (Twemlow et al., 2006). The difference between the sum scores of ratings of a bullying teacher and a non-bullying teacher was used to determine attitude toward bullying teachers. The final question of this survey asked the participant if he/she

has ever bullied a student, expressed the sensitivity of the question, and further asked for any description of the circumstances he/she would be willing to share (Twemlow et al.). This final question was the only other part of this survey used for purposes of this study.

Data Collection

Procedure

Permission was obtained from the principal and superintendent of each school to conduct this study. The principal of each of the three schools allowed time during a regularly scheduled staff meeting for this researcher to present the study. A brief description of the study preceded distribution of the survey instruments to all teachers in attendance, along with a form for obtaining informed consent. It was estimated that no more than 20 minutes would be required to complete the survey items. Survey forms were coded per school. Each participant received the two surveys stapled together to prevent separation prior to analysis. Teachers who were absent, as determined by the principal, received the information, along with the survey instruments, in a sealed envelope from their principal via their staff mailbox. A box that could be sealed was left in each school's main office for one week after materials were presented in order to allow ample time for participants to complete the information and confidentially return their surveys. All surveys will be stored in a locked cabinet in a secure office for three years following collection of the data.

Analytical Methods

Question 1

What differences, if any, exist in teacher attitude toward an inclusive classroom as a factor of teacher position assignment whether special education or general education?

Data.

Data used from the STATIC (Cochran, 1998) included the total sum score of the responses. Data were divided by current position assignment as either special education or general education.

Analysis.

The sum score from the 20 likert-scale statements was considered an index of the participants' attitude toward inclusion. Tables for the 20 likert-items were generated. The data from the 20 items were split into groups of either special education teacher or general education teacher. A Mann-Whitney U procedure was used comparing the scores from the STATIC (Cochran, 1998) for each group.

Question 2

What differences, if any, exist in attitude toward teacher bullying as a factor of teacher position assignment, whether special education or general education?

Data.

Data used from the Survey on Bullying Teachers and Teacher Bullying (Twemlow et al., 2006) included using the difference between the sum scores of ratings of perceptions of a bullying teacher and a non-bullying teacher to determine attitude toward bullying teachers. Data were divided by current position assignment as either special education or general education.

Analysis.

The difference between the sum scores of ratings of perceptions of a bullying teacher and a non-bullying teacher was used to determine attitude toward bullying teachers. The data were split into groups of either special education teacher or general

education teacher. A Mann-Whitney U procedure was used comparing the scores from special education teachers and general education teachers.

Question 3

In what way, if any, does attitude toward an inclusive classroom setting correlate to teacher bullying?

Data.

An examination of the total scores from the STATIC (Cochran, 1998) as well as the difference between the sum scores of ratings of perceptions of a bullying teacher and a non-bullying teacher from A Survey on Bullying Teachers and Teacher Bullying (Twemlow et al., 2006) was conducted.

Analysis.

Data from the two instruments were cross-examined by running Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient, between the total score of the STATIC (Cochran, 1998) and the difference between the sum scores of ratings of perceptions of a bullying teacher and a non-bullying teacher from A Survey on Bullying Teachers and Teacher Bullying (Twemlow et al., 2006) to determine whether there was a correlation between attitude toward inclusive classroom settings and teacher bullying.

Limitations

Some of the limitations of this study included having a sample that had a lack of homogeneity of variance due to there being a much smaller number of special education teachers than general education teachers. Another limitation of this study was that one of the surveys, A Survey on Bullying Teachers and Teacher Bullying, was not a strong instrument holding a Cronbach's alpha of .65. Development of a psychometric instrument

needs to be developed to measure attitudes toward teacher bullying and teacher bullying behavior in order to support future studies related to teacher-student bullying. A final limitation to this study was that due to the sensitivity of, and newness of attention to the subject matter of teacher-student bullying, some participants may not have felt comfortable or confident in their responses, and therefore may have not provided completely honest answers.

Summary

Research on the topic of teacher-student bullying is in its infancy, although studies show that teacher-student bullying is a real problem. In order to address the issue, more research is necessary to find the causes of this behavior. This quantitative study compared special education teachers' and general education teachers' perceptions of inclusive classroom settings and also their perceptions of teacher bullying behavior, examining whether or not there is a relationship between them. Results that will be revealed in the following chapter include that 91% of the participants in this study reported having witnessed and/or participated in teacher-student bullying behavior. The problem exists with special education teachers as well as general education teachers.

More studies are necessary to address and begin to resolve the issue of teacher-student bullying. There is a need for the development of a psychometric instrument to better measure teacher-student bullying behavior. As future studies continue to emerge, larger sample sizes should be considered. Students deserve a safe learning environment. That environment depends upon our teachers.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine three suburban schools, grades three through eight, to determine if there was a relationship between teacher bullying behavior and an inclusive classroom setting, in order to determine if teacher frustration is related to teacher-student bullying behavior. Teacher bullying has been confirmed as a real problem (Hyman & Perone, 1998; McEvoy, 2005; Tamutiene, 2008; Twemlow & Fonagy, 2005; Zerillo & Osterman, 2011). Of the 74 participants in this research study, 26 special education teachers and 48 general education teachers, 67 participants (91%) reported having witnessed and/or participating in teacher-student bullying behavior. However, research on the topic of teacher bullying is still in its infancy. This study was just one step in searching for a relationship of teacher-student bullying behavior. As the causes of teacher-student bullying are uncovered, better programming for pre-service teachers (Swain, et al., 2010) and specific professional development for teachers already in the field (Twemlow et al., 2001) can be developed and implemented.

Teachers are faced with many challenges in the classroom. It may be that teacher bullying behavior is related to any number of these challenges. General education teachers are required to teach students with disabilities in their classroom even though they do not have the training to do so (Cochran, 1998). The demographics of this research study included years of teaching experience, class size, educational degree level, and

whether the participant lives with a person with a disability or comes from a home where there was a person with a disability. This study examined teachers' attitudes toward an inclusive classroom setting and teachers' attitudes toward bullying. Data gathered from these two areas were cross-examined to determine if there was a relationship between an inclusive classroom setting and teacher bullying.

A majority of the participants, 59 out of 74 (80%), disclosed having had more than six years of teaching experience; 24 (32%) had six to ten years, and 35 (47%) had more than 10 years of teaching experience. Of the 74 participants, 35 (47%) reported working with class sizes of 21-30 students, and 27 (36.5%) participants reported working with class sizes of 31-40 students. There were 24 (32%) participants who held a Bachelor's degree and 45 (61%) who held a Master's degree. One participant reported holding a Doctoral degree. Most participants, 64 out of the 74, (86.5%) reported as not living with a person with a disability nor came from a home where there was a person with a disability.

This study investigated three research questions:

- 1) What differences, if any, exist between teacher attitude toward an inclusive classroom as a factor of teacher position assignment whether special education or general education?
- 2) What differences, if any, exist in attitude toward teacher bullying as a factor of teacher position assignment whether special education or general education?
- 3) In what way, if any, does attitude toward inclusive classroom setting correlate to teacher bullying?

Findings

The findings of this study are based upon the data gathered from the STATIC (Cochran, 1998) and from the Survey on Bullying Teachers and Teacher Bullying (Twemlow et al., 2006). Data from these two instruments were then cross-examined using a Pearson Correlation to determine whether there was a relationship between the two sets of data.

Question 1

What differences, if any, exist between teacher attitude toward an inclusive classroom as a factor of teacher position assignment whether special education or general education?

Data.

Data used from the STATIC (Cochran, 1998) included the sum score of 20 Likert-scale statements. The STATIC holds a Cronbach's alpha of 0.89 (Cochran). Data were divided by current position assignment as either special education or general education.

Analysis.

A non-parametric analysis using Mann-Whitney U was run due to a lack of homogeneity of variance caused by a difference in sample size, 26 special education teachers and 48 general education teachers. The sum score from the 20 Likert-scale items was generated, and the data were split into groups of either special education or general education teacher. Results indicated a statistically significant difference, with a large effect size, $U = 181.500$; $p < .001$; $z = 5.01$; $r = .58$, in attitudes toward an inclusive classroom setting between special education teachers and general education teachers. According to this data

analysis, special education teachers tend to have a more positive attitude toward inclusive classroom settings than general education teachers as shown in Figure 1.

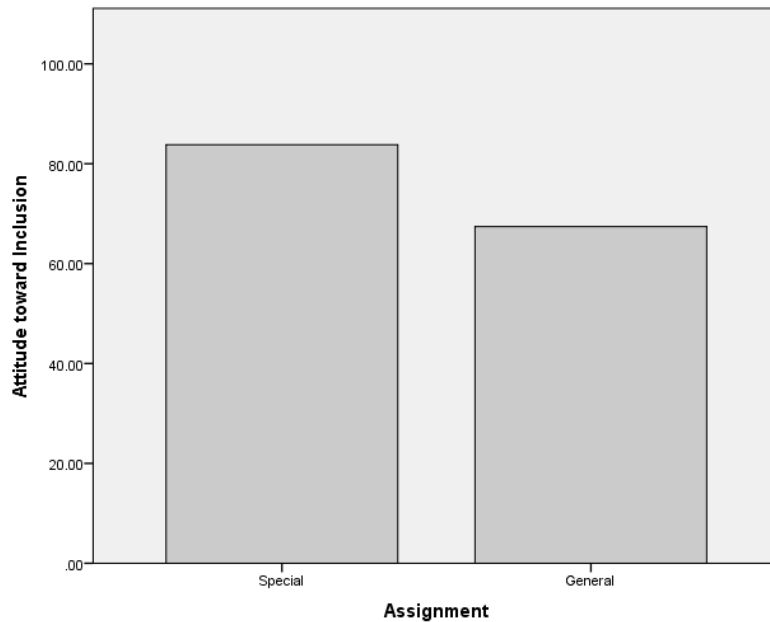


Figure 1. Attitude toward inclusion by teaching assignment.

These results align with previous studies related to teacher preparation and attitudes toward inclusion. For instance, when preservice teachers participated in a special education practicum class, a positive change in attitude was reported (Swain, Nordness, & Leader-Janssen, 2012). The authors of the same study concluded that non-special education teachers are not provided with adequate training to work with students with disabilities; therefore, they tend to carry a more negative attitude toward inclusion.

Similarly, Kearney and Durand (1992) revealed that general education training does not include adequate information related to special education, nor does it include enough exposure to general education setting that include students with disabilities. Pre-service training programs for general education teachers do not prepare those teachers for working with students with disabilities (Reed & Monda-Amaya, 1995). This lack of

preparation may leave general education teachers feeling frustrated or overwhelmed in meeting the learning needs in their classroom because of inclusive education (Shoho & Katims, 1998; Yoon, 2002).

The results of this current study support the need to bring more attention to teachers' attitudes toward inclusion. Cochran (1998) concluded that teachers' attitudes were the main determinant of the success of inclusion. Cochran determined that teachers who exhibit negative attitudes toward inclusion may have a negative impact on the success of students included in their class. Teachers' negative feelings about working with students with disabilities "...have a negative effect on teacher behaviors, student learning, and the overall success of inclusive practices" (Fuchs, 2009-2010, p. 30). These negative impacts affect all students in the classroom.

Research on attitudes toward inclusive classroom settings continues to show a divide between special education teachers' attitudes and general education teachers' attitudes including the results of this current study. Better training for preservice teachers, professional development for current teachers, and positive administrative support for staff who work in an inclusive environment are all necessary components to narrowing the gap between special education teachers' attitudes and general education teachers' attitudes toward inclusive classroom settings.

Question 2

What differences, if any, exist in attitude toward teacher bullying as a factor of teacher position assignment whether special education or general education?

Data.

Data used from the Survey on Bullying Teachers and Teacher Bullying

(Twemlow et al., 2006) included the totals of teacher attitudes about behavior a bully teacher might display and opinions about behavior a non-bully teacher might display. The Survey on Bullying Teachers and Teacher Bullying holds a Cronbach's alpha of 0.65 (Twemlow et al.). Data were divided by current position assignment as either special education or general education.

Analysis.

The difference in the sum of teacher attitudes about behavior a bully teacher might display and the sum of teacher attitudes about behavior a non-bully teacher might display was used to indicate attitude toward teacher bullying. A non-parametric analysis using Mann-Whitney U was run for reasons stated above. Results did not indicate a significant difference between special education and general education teachers' attitudes toward teacher bullying, $U = 600.500$; $p = 0.79$, as shown in Figure 2.

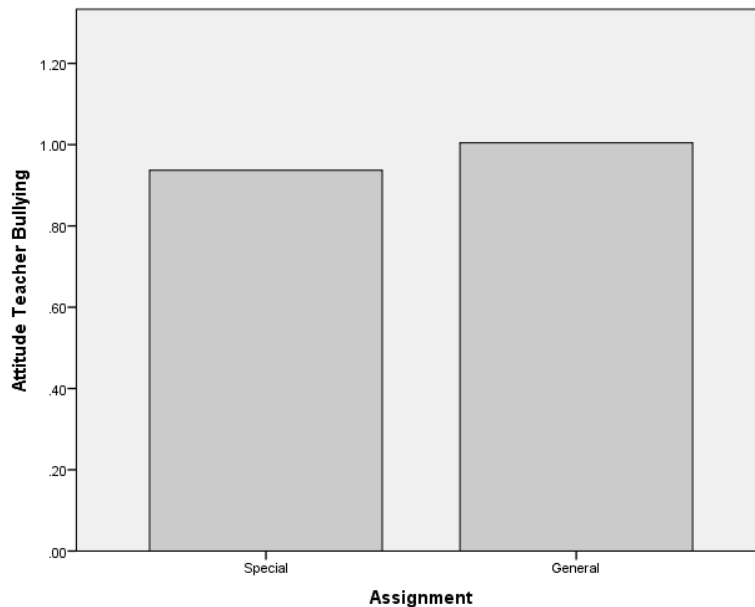


Figure 2. Attitude toward teacher bullying by assignment.

Question two examined attitudes toward teacher-student bullying as a factor of teacher position assignment whether special education or general education. The data from this study revealed 67 of the 74 participants (91%) reported having had witnessed and/or participated in teacher-student bullying. Although research on teacher-student bullying is in its infancy, teacher-student bullying has been confirmed as a real problem through separate studies by Hyman and Perone (1998), McEvoy (2005), Tamutiene (2008), Twemlow and Fonagy (2005), Whitted and Dupper (2008), and Zerillo and Osterman (2011). It has only been since the Columbine High School Massacre of 1999 that increased attention has emerged on school bullying (Allen, 2010). Children in schools are exposed to bullying in some form on a daily basis whether as the bully, the bullied, or a bystander (Twemlow et al., 2004). Verbal abuse appears to be a common part of teacher classroom management and is also part of psychological abuse and maltreatment toward children. Although the specific definition varies throughout literature, it tends to include “ridiculing, teasing, name-calling, or yelling at the child” (Brendgen et al., 2007, p. 26).

Among what has been learned about teacher-student bullying, there appears to be four common situations in which teacher-student bullying occurs. One situation is when teachers have learned that as long as there is no name-calling, bullying may be an acceptable form of student control and classroom management. The second situation is when teachers who may have been exceptional students do not understand why some struggling students may resort to misbehavior when those students become embarrassed, bored, or fearful of their perceived incompetence. These teachers are then easily frustrated with uncooperative students because they never used those behaviors

themselves and do not see them as appropriate student responses. The third situation is teachers who resort to bullying behavior because they were often the victim of bullying when they were children. Additionally, teachers may become bullies if, as a teacher, they have been bullied by their own students, by their administrators, or outside of the school setting (Twemlow et al., 2006). The fourth situation is when teacher-student bullying typically goes unpunished which allows the teacher to continue to be secure in his or her position and view his or her behavior as acceptable classroom management (Terry & Baer, 2013).

The data of this research study supports the existence of teacher-student bullying. There does not appear to be a statistically significant difference of attitudes of teacher bullying between special education and general education teachers. Teacher-student bullying is witnessed and/or is occurring across settings. This may reflect a strong need for professional development, teacher training, and ongoing support in the area of classroom management. If teachers are made aware that certain responses are not acceptable and they are trained in other manners, school districts may alleviate teacher-student bullying behaviors (Whitted & Dupper, 2008).

Question 3

In what way, if any, does attitude toward inclusive classroom setting correlate to teacher bullying?

Data.

Data used from the STATIC (Cochran, 1998) and from the Survey on Bullying Teachers and Teacher Bullying (Twemlow et al., 2006) for the previous questions were used.

Analysis.

Pearson Correlation between the sum score of the STATIC (Cochran, 1998) and the difference in scores of attitudes of behaviors of bullying teachers and non-bullying teachers indicated there was no significant relationship between attitude toward inclusive classroom settings and attitude toward teacher bullying, $r(72) = .124, p = 0.292$.

Although the results of this study do not indicate a statistically significant relationship between attitude toward inclusive classroom settings and attitude toward teacher bullying, it does support previous studies that teacher-student bullying is a real problem.

According to the results of this study, teacher-student bullying occurs across settings whether special education or general education. It is possible that a larger sample size may enhance the measurement of the teacher bullying variable as the existing survey holds a Cronbach's alpha of 0.65 (Twemlow et al., 2006) which may mean that there is not much standardization of validation. Currently, it is the only survey available related to teacher-student bullying behavior. This reflects a need for the creation of a psychometric tool to better measure teacher-student bullying behavior and to help in identifying specific causes of teacher-student bullying behavior.

Conclusions

This research study examined the inclusive classroom setting as a possible relation to teachers who may display bullying behaviors toward students. This study indicated a statistically significant difference in attitudes toward inclusive classroom settings between special education and general education teachers. Special education teachers tend to have a more positive attitude toward inclusive classroom settings than general education teachers. There was no statistically significant difference indicated

between attitudes toward teacher bullying between special education and general education teachers. Teacher bullying behavior was reported as being witnessed and/or participated in across settings. Finally, there was no statistically significant relationship found between attitudes toward inclusive classroom settings and attitudes toward teacher bullying. The results of this study indicate that it is possible that an inclusive classroom setting may not be related to teachers who display bullying behaviors toward students.

This research study was just one attempt at identifying a specific correlation to teacher-student bullying. Although the results of this study do not indicate a statistically significant relationship between attitude toward inclusive classroom settings and attitude toward teacher bullying, it does support previous studies that teacher-student bullying is a real problem (Hyman & Perone, 1998; McEvoy, 2005; Tamutiene, 2008; Twemlow & Fonagy, 2005; Zerillo & Osterman, 2011). Furthermore, according to the results of this research study, teacher-student bullying occurs across settings whether special education or general education.

Currently, the Survey on Bullying Teachers and Teacher Bullying (Twemlow et al., 2006) is the only instrument available for measuring teachers' attitudes toward teacher bullying. This survey holds a Cronbach's alpha of 0.65 (Twemlow et al.). With increased attention to school bullying, it is likely that research studies will continue to emerge, especially in the area of teacher-student bullying. There is a need for the development of a psychometric instrument to better measure teacher bullying behaviors and to begin to determine specific causes of teacher-student bullying.

Implications and Recommendations

From the findings of this research study, recommendations can be made to improve the process and to guide future studies. A sample size with homogeneity of variance and including more grade levels would be recommended. It is also possible that a larger sample size may enhance the measurement of the teacher bullying variable. This study included three suburban schools, grades three through eight, to determine if there was any relationship between teacher bullying and an inclusive classroom setting. It is recommended that this study be replicated to a larger sample size across various parts of the country including rural, suburban, and urban schools. It is also recommended that this study be replicated and expanded to include high schools as well.

Studies involving teacher-student bullying are just beginning to emerge. The Survey on Bullying Teachers and Teacher Bullying (Twemlow et al., 2006) is the only instrument available for measuring teachers' attitudes toward teacher bullying. This survey holds a Cronbach's alpha of 0.65 (Twemlow et al.) which may mean that there is not much standardization of validation. There is a need for the development of a psychometric instrument to measure attitudes toward teacher bullying and teacher bullying behavior. Additionally, recommendations can be made for future studies to begin to investigate specific causes of teacher-student bullying behavior.

During this research study, several participants inquired about why there was no question asking about whether or not they had been bullied by their administrators. This may imply the need for future studies about administrators bullying teachers. It also may imply the need for future studies to expand on teachers' perceptions of their job as a whole in order to help them feel more secure in their positions. There is a strong need for

professional development, teacher training, and ongoing support in the area of classroom management. If teachers are made aware that certain responses are not acceptable and they are trained in other manners, school districts may alleviate teacher-student bullying behaviors (Whitted & Dupper, 2008).

Identifying teachers' perceptions can lead to identifying teachers' needs. Identifying teachers' needs can lead to the correction of problem behaviors between teachers and students in order to help teachers feel prepared and supported to teach all of their students with a positive approach. Teacher-student bullying has been confirmed a real problem (Hyman & Perone, 1998; McEvoy, 2005; Tamutiene, 2008; Twemlow & Fonagy, 2005; Zerillo & Osterman, 2011). The reasons for the occurrence of teacher-student bullying must be investigated so that it can be stopped. More attention needs to be brought to teacher-student bullying and why it happens so that all students can feel comfortable in the school setting, and so that all teachers can feel supported in reaching the needs of each of their students.

This study indicated that special education teachers tend to view inclusive classroom settings more positively than general education view inclusive classroom settings. It also indicated that teacher-student bullying occurs across settings whether special education or general education. Finally, according to this research study, it appears that there is no statistically significant relationship between an inclusive classroom setting and teacher-student bullying behavior.

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Appendix A
Permissions to use surveys

Any way you like, Susan

On Tue, Dec 24, 2013 at 9:06 AM, Susan Q <squilantan@comcast.net> wrote:
May I modify this in any way? I would like to leave off the gender and possibly marital status do to the risk of identifying participants in my sample group.
Would that be ok with you?

From: Stuart Twemlow
Sent: Monday, December 23, 2013 9:03 PM
To: Susan Q ; Peter Fonagy
Subject: Re: permission to use survey instrument on Teacher Bullying?

Feel free to use these and keep me in touch with your findings. The findings are in the literature
Very best
Stuart

On Sun, Dec 22, 2013 at 6:43 AM, Susan Q <squilantan@comcast.net> wrote:

Dear Dr. Twemlow,

I am a doctoral student at Olivet Nazarene University in Bourbonnais, Illinois. I currently work as a school social worker in a middle school. The topic of my dissertation is Teacher Bullies or Frustrated Teachers? How the Classroom Environment Affects the Teacher-Student Relationship. As part of the IRB process, I need to obtain written permission to use any instrument I include in my study. Therefore, I write to ask for your permission to use the Survey on Bullying Teachers and Teacher Bullying measurement tool. I will need the instrument, its use, and scoring information too.

Further, if necessary, may the instrument be modified to best fit the specific population of my study?

Any recommendations and/or guidance you may find helpful would be greatly appreciated.

Thank you for your time,

Susan Quilantan, M.ED., LSW, MSW
Doctoral Student Olivet Nazarene University

--

Stuart.W.Twemlow, MD,
Visiting Professor, University College, London (Health Sciences)
Editor -in-Chief, International Journal of Applied Psychoanalytic Studies,
www.intaaps.org
8585 Woodway drive Apt.813,
Houston, TX, 77063

Dear Quilantan,

Adding or adjusting the demographics for you specific study is acceptable. You have my permission to make such modifications.

HKC

Sent from Yahoo Mail on Android

From: Susan Q <squilantan@comcast.net>;
To: Keith Cochran <kcochran1976@yahoo.com>;
Subject: Re: permission for instrument use
Sent: Wed, Feb 26, 2014 12:45:12 AM

May I modify the demographic portion of the survey?
Thank you,
Susan

From: Keith Cochran
Sent: Tuesday, December 17, 2013 6:50 PM
To: Susan Q
Subject: Re: permission for instrument use

Dear Ms. Quilantan,

Thank you for you interest in the STATIC instrument. I am overwhelmed at the interest it generated after having created it. It has been used in scores of studies, in more than 18 countries and translated into at least seven languages.

I have included a link to a copy of the STATIC instrument, scoring information, and a summary of the development of the instrument. I am happy to grant permission for you to use the STATIC in your dissertation study. I wish you the very best with your research and honored to be a small part of it.

Sincerely,

H. Keith Cochran, Ph.D

<http://db.tt/1Y7NelPb>

Sent from Yahoo Mail on Android

From: Susan Q <squilantan@comcast.net>;
To: <kcochran1976@yahoo.com>;
Subject: permission for instrument use
Sent: Wed, Dec 18, 2013 12:38:03 AM

Dear Dr. Cochran,

I am a doctoral student at Olivet Nazarene University in Bourbonnais, Illinois. I currently work as a school social worker in a middle school. The topic of my dissertation is Teacher Bullies or Frustrated Teachers? How the Classroom Environment Affects the Teacher-Student Relationship. As part of the IRB process, I need to obtain written permission to use any instrument I include in my study. Therefore, I write to ask for your permission to use the Teacher's Attitude Toward Inclusion (TATI) as well as Students and Teachers Attitudes Toward Inclusion Classrooms (STATIC). I will need the instruments, their use, and scoring information too. Any recommendations and/or guidance you may find helpful would be greatly appreciated.

It was a pleasure to speak with you on the phone. Your kindness is very encouraging at this stage of the process.

Thank you for your time,

Susan Quilantan, M.ED., LSW, MSW
Doctoral Student Olivet Nazarene University
708-705-3018