

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF ATTITUDES TOWARD
INCLUSIVE SETTINGS BETWEEN REGULAR
AND SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHERS
IN SOUTH KOREA

By

YONGSOO PARK

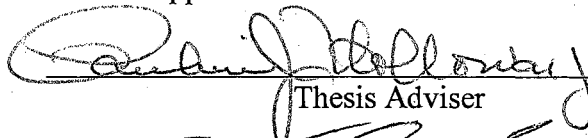
Bachelor of Art
Presbyterian College & Theological Seminary
Seoul, Korea
1997

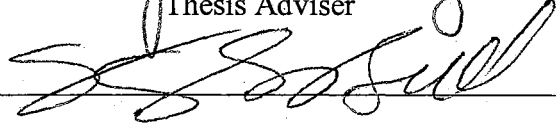
Master of Science
Oklahoma State University
Stillwater, OK
2000


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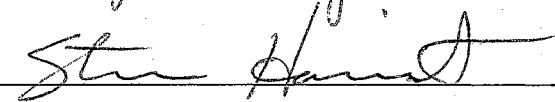
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Thesis Approved:



Thesis Adviser










Dean of the Graduate College

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

School systems in the United States (U.S.) and South Korea have been changed by the way educational benefits and outcomes are maximized for students. One of the most controversial challenges facing professional educators today is meeting the needs of all students regardless of any individual differences they might have (be they classified disabled, at-risk, homeless, or gifted) in school systems (Jenkins, Pious, & Jewel, 1990). This challenge, which has gained impetus since the 1970's, is the integration of regular education with special education; called inclusion.

Special Education and "Inclusion" in the United States

In 1975, The United States Congress passed PL 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act, mandating a "free appropriate education for all disabled students in the "least restrictive environment (LRE)" (U.S. Senate, 1975). In 1990, PL 94-142 was reauthorized and renamed the "Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA)." According to the IDEA, students with learning disabilities must be educated in what is known as the LRE. The term inclusion refers to providing the supports necessary to promote disabled students' learning while minimally restricting them to separate special education classrooms (Westling & Fox, 1995).

Numerous studies have demonstrated the gains, academically that can be achieved by students, when they are provided appropriate educational experiences and support in inclusive settings (Stainback, Stainback, & Ayres, 1996). Furthermore, the results of preliminary studies focusing on the academic performance of students who do not have disability labels indicate that for all students there are no adverse effects of

inclusion, and anecdotal comments from general education teachers support the positive gains experienced by these students (Stainback et al., 1996).

Inclusion has had an effect on the other children's academic learning by increasing awareness of their own capabilities and respect for themselves and others, which affects the learning climate and susceptibility to learning (Vandercook et al., 1991, p.1)

Due to the condition of inclusion within United States school systems today, teachers are required to communicate not just with students and their parents, but also with each other. This is obviously true within the special education areas. Special education teachers may interact with an entire team of professionals to plan and implement instruction for each student in their class. Regular education teachers have an impact on the lives of their students on a daily basis; therefore, they play a key role in the success of mainstreaming efforts (Bruno, 1996; Hollenbeck, 1996; Meadows, Neel, Scott, & Parker, 1994; Semmel, Abernathy, Butera, & Lesar, 1991). Studies have indicated that teachers' attitudes affect their interactions with students and have been linked to student achievement (Ferguson, Meyer, Jeanchild, Juniper, & Zingo, 1992; Jacobson, 1996; Lewis, Chard, & Scott, 1994). As the field of special education has tried to integrate students with disabilities, a number of research studies have focused on examining the attitudes of regular education teachers toward inclusion (Bruno, 1996; Landrum & Kauffman, 1992). Regular education teachers noted that their ability to provide successful inclusion is dependent upon empowerment. When teachers feel empowered the likelihood for success with inclusive education might be increased. One of the most effective ways that regular educators feel empowered is through sufficient training "...teachers may feel effective in inclusive

classrooms if they have had opportunities to experience some success in these settings through training & education” (Buell, Hallam, Gamel-McCormick, & Scheer, 1995, p. 144). The assumption by some professionals that regular educators in the U.S. are now prepared to accept full responsibility for the education of students with disabilities may be unrealistic, and merits further study. Some believe that the in-service training regular education teachers receive is helpful, but that it is offered too late (Raj, 2002). In order to help break down the barriers of a dual educational system, initiating the inclusion training on the pre-service level is more important than ever (Culverhouse, 1998; Belcher, 1997). However, due to the lack of pre-service teachers program that may stress collaboration and communication skills; novice (or beginning) teachers may lack skills and crucial experiences. Consequently, pre-service teachers make complex decisions; “yet specific collaboration preparation is rare, especially in decision making for special needs learners” (Little & Robinson, 1997, p. 147).

Special Education and “Inclusion” in South Korea

In 1894, the first special school in Korea was founded by Rosetta Sherwood Hall, an American missionary and physician. She taught a girl with blindness using a program adapted from the “New York points system” and also established a special school for children with hearing impairments in 1909. Since six years of compulsory education for elementary education were mandated in 1948, South Korean school systems have changed in the way they maximize educational benefits and outcomes for students throughout, for generations. When the first pre-service teacher programs for special education was founded at Han-Kuk Social Work University (later renamed as Taegu University) with several special schools affiliated to the University, education for

children with other disabilities started in the 1960s (Park, 2002).

The major structural provisions of the United States, PL 94-142 in 1975, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act, mandating a “free appropriate education for all disabled students in the “least restrictive environment (LRE),” contributed to the enactment of the Korean Special Education Promotion Act in 1977. After the passage of the Korean Special Education Promotion Act, special education in South Korea has greatly advanced, both in significant increase of institutions and quality of educational services (see Table 1).

Table 1

The Status of Special Education in South Korea Since 1965

Year	1965	1975	1985	1990	1995	2002
No. of Special Schools	20	49	86	104	108	136
No. of Students	2,537	6,523	14,274	19,971	21,607	23,453
No. of Teachers	234	662	1565	2757	3461	5068

Source: Adapted from *2003 Annual Report on Educational Statistics*, by Korea Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, 2003, Korea

The primary content of Korean Special Education Promotion Act (KSEPA) in 1977 included: (a) free education for children with disabilities in compulsory education agencies, and (b) support for private schools that enrolled children with disabilities. With the needs of inclusion, the number of the students with disabilities placed in the inclusive settings has been increasing, year by year (see Table 2). As a result, more comprehensive legislation was called for and KSEPA was reauthorized in 1994 and 1997. Major provisions of the reauthorized KSEPA are (a) principals at all schools are required not to

refuse the application of a student with a disability for the reason of his or her disability, and (b) principals at all schools are required to provide appropriate accommodations for students with disabilities, based on the type and severity of the disability, when they take entrance exams or attend schools.

Table 2

The Status of Special Education Classrooms Located in Regular Schools in South Korea since 1971

Year	1971	1980	1990	1995	2000	2002
No. of Classrooms	1	355	3,181	3,440	3,802	3,953
No. of Students	30	6,045	29,989	31,510	26,627	26,925
No. of Teachers	1	355	3,181	3,440	3,885	3,968

Source: Adapted from *2003 Annual Report on Educational Statistics*, by Korea Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, 2003, Korea

Currently, inclusion in South Korea is a critical issue as to whether it can have a positive effect on the students with disabilities. However, compared to the quantitative extension of the inclusion of students with disabilities, the quality of the educational service for them is very low (Kang, 2000). In 2002, the Korea Institute for Special Education (KISE) conducted the survey to examine regular education teachers' perception of inclusion (KISE, 2002). A total of 490 regular education teachers were surveyed. Among them, 141 (28.8 %) regular education teachers would not agree to take over inclusive classes, and 225 (45.9 %) of them were neutral. Only 124 (25.3 %) of the regular education teachers had positive perceptions toward inclusive classes. Recently, the Korea Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development has increased the

special education budget for teachers' training program to develop instruments, field-test, and utilize strategies for the successful inclusive educational practice. Today, inclusion in South Korea is an ongoing challenge to meet the needs of all students.

Statement of the Problem

One of the major provisions of IDEA (Individuals with Disabilities Education Act) in the U.S. is LRE (Least Restrictive Environment). The special education student must be educated in the least restrictive environment that is consistent with his or her educational needs, to the maximum extent appropriate, with students without disabilities. Until recently, regular and special education were regarded as separate institutions. They each had their own teachers, students, grading system and curriculum. After adoption of IDEA (reauthorized in 1997), an attempt was made to change the "School within a School" and integrate the disciplines of both regular and special education (U.S. Department of Education, 1997). Under IDEA, special education students are now required to be included in regular education classrooms. Unfortunately, many regular education teachers were not prepared to educate the special education students with the regular education population (Raj, 2002).

Investigating both special and regular education teachers' attitudes toward inclusion of students with disabilities is crucial to meeting the educational needs for these students. Special education teachers' attitudes and capacities influence interaction with professional teams to plan and implement instruction for each student in their class. Otherwise, regular education teachers are the front line educators who are most directly responsible for implementing the majority of the day-to-day practices of inclusion (Smith & Smith, 2000). Both regular and special education teachers must function as a team.

Mayhew (1994) states, “special education and regular education cooperatively assess the educational needs of students with learning problems and cooperatively develop educational strategies for meeting those needs (p.2).”

This study proposes to consider several specific questions regarding Korean teachers’ attitudes of inclusion. Some of which include, an investigation as to whether the total years of experience teachers reported has significant impact on the factors that influence teacher’s perception of inclusion, such as educational position, teaching assignment, the size of class taught, gender, and school district.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was (1) to investigate the factors that influence the special and regular elementary education teachers’ perceptions of inclusion in South Korea, and (2) to identify the two educational groups’ attitudes toward inclusive settings. This comparison of attitudes will lead to a better understanding of the perceptions of educators for inclusion, and the importance of both in-service and pre-service teacher’s education programs.

Significance of the Study

The significance of the study will contribute to further research by providing important evidence of attitudes toward inclusive settings between regular and special education teachers in South Korea. An investigation of the comparison of attitudes among those participants will focus on inclusion practices. In addition, this study will enhance (1) school administrator’s understanding, (2) policy-making decisions, (3) knowledge of inclusion practices and (4) the importance of regular teachers’ role to include the special education students into their classroom.

Limitations of the Study

This study used a questionnaire survey. Responses to the questionnaire may be limited by the bias associated with the participant's knowledge of the purpose of the survey, and individual perception concerning socially desirable attitudes (Dawes, 1988).

In addition to the limitations resulting from survey research, this study was limited by the sampling procedure, which was utilized. Participants consisted of elementary regular and special education teachers. Participants, who have experienced inclusion practices and/or special education training, may have differing characteristics than those who have not. As a result, the attitudes of the participants used in the sample may not necessarily reflect the attitudes of all in-service teachers in South Korea.

Research Questions

1. Do regular and special education teachers significantly differ in their overall attitudes toward inclusive settings, as measured by "Scale of Teachers' Attitudes toward Inclusive Classroom (STATIC)"?
2. Do regular and special education teachers significantly differ by the teaching assignment in their attitudes toward inclusive settings, as measured by "STATIC"?
3. Do regular and special education teachers significantly differ by the years of teaching experience in their attitudes toward inclusive settings, as measured by "STATIC"?
4. Do regular and special education teachers significantly differ by the size of class taught in their attitudes toward inclusive settings, as measured by "STATIC"?
5. Do regular and special education teachers significantly differ by gender in their attitudes toward inclusive settings, as measured by "STATIC"?

6. Do regular and special education teachers significantly differ by the school districts in their attitudes toward inclusive settings, as measured by “STATIC”?

Definition of Terms

Collaboration (Collaborative Consultation, Teacher Collaboration): A special education teacher and a regular education teacher collaborate to come up with teaching strategies for a student with disabilities. The relationship between the two professionals is based on the premises of shared responsibility and equal authority.

Cooperative Teaching: An approach in which regular educators and special educators teach together in the regular classroom; it helps the special education teacher know the context of the regular classroom better.

In-service teachers: Practicing teachers.

Korean Special Education Promotion Act (1977, 1987, 1990): Free education for children with disabilities in compulsory education agencies for 27 years. It supports private schools that enrolled children with disabilities. The Act was reauthorized to ensure free education for students with disabilities who attend kindergarten and high school in 1987 and in 1990). The major changes of Korean Special Education Promotion Act (1994, 1997) are (a) terms and their definitions are changed, (b) procedures for diagnosis and assessment to decide whether a child is qualified for special education or not are specified, and (c) principals at all schools are required not to refuse the entrance of students with disabilities to the school for the reason of disability when that student successfully passes the entrance exam and review.

Least Restrictive Environment (LRE): Students with disabilities are to be educated with their non-disabled peers to the maximum extent appropriate.

Mainstreaming: The placement of students with disabilities in regular education classes for all or part of the day and for all or only a few classes; special education teachers maintain the primary responsibility for students with disabilities (Hallahan & Kauffman, 1997).

Pre-service teachers: Students who are studying in teacher education programs from first entering a college to the completion of student teaching

Public Law 94-142 (The Education for All Handicapped Children Act, 1975):

A mandatory provision stating that to receive funds under the act, every school system in the nation must provide a free, appropriate public education for every child between the ages of three and eighteen (now extended to ages three to twenty-one), regardless of how or how seriously he or she may be disabled.

Public Law 101-476 (The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act, 1990): The Education of the Handicapped Act amendments are renamed the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA). Two new categories of disability are added: autism and traumatic brain injury. IDEA requires that an individualized transition plan be developed no later than age 16 as a component of the IEP process. Rehabilitation and social work services are included as related services (Hardman, Drew, & Egan, 2002, p.25).

Regular education teachers: Teachers who are currently teaching regular education students in a public school setting within the K-12 range.

Regular education initiative (REI): A philosophy that maintains that regular education, rather than special education, should be primarily responsible for educating students with disabilities (Hallahan & Kauffman, 1977).

Special education: Classroom or private instruction involving techniques, exercises, and subject matter designed for students whose learning needs cannot be met by a standard school curriculum.

Special education teachers: Teachers who are currently teaching students with special needs in a public school setting.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The following chapter contains four sections relevant to this study. The first section examines the history of special education in the United States. The second section examines the history of inclusion. The third section provides information relative to the effects of attitudes of in-service teachers and pre-service teachers towards inclusive settings. The fourth section examines the current status of inclusion in South Korea.

History of Special Education in the United States

Children with special needs (physical, mental, or other learning handicaps) have been a part of the public school system since the days of the one-room schoolhouse. In the early years before knowledge of handicapping conditions existed, these students were treated quite differently than their normal peers. Terms such as “behavior problems,” “slow-witted,” “retarded,” and even “lazy” were often used to describe those students who did not seem able to keep up academically with their fellow students. It was the 1960’s that the medical and educational professions finally began to realize the above terms were not appropriate in identifying why these children could not succeed as well as their peers. As Mercer (1983) states, “Education for the learning disabled is a field unequalled in growth by any other area of education for exceptional students. Unknown to most educators prior to 1965, it was familiar to all special educators by 1970” (p.113).

Development of Terms

In the early 1960s, educators began to define the challenges from this segment of public schoolchildren. The term “exceptional children” was created, which defines these children as: “(a) those who differ from the average to such a degree in physical or

psychological characteristics that (b) school programs designed for the majority of children do not afford them opportunity for all-around adjustment and optimum progress and who therefore (c) need either special instruction or in some cases special ancillary services, or both, to achieve at a level commensurate with their respective abilities” (Dunn, 1963, p.93).

Once the educational world recognized these students (and labeled them), the question arose of how to teach these students. Considering that the character of education in the United States is guarantee to all children of the right to a free public education, this caused a dilemma following PL 94-142. Understanding that a certain percentage (10% by government standards) of children would fit into the category of “exceptional children,” public school personnel scrambled to find alternative ways in which to teach these children. Certainly, at this time, many educators did not appreciate the idea of having students with special needs in the regular classrooms where modifications to the standard curriculum might weaken the current teaching strategies. New programs had to be presented to fit the needs of this new category of student; separate special educational schools, classrooms, tutoring programs, in-home programs, and various other alternatives began to develop but not without criticism (Dunn, 1963).

However, special educational programming faces a critical danger of becoming the means for preventing change in the general curriculum. Reger (1968) asserted over 30 years ago that if a school believes that its curriculum program is adequate, it will never be proven wrong as long as any child who is unable to fit the pattern is removed and placed into a special educational program. Today, it is becoming increasingly easier, as programs multiply and our alertness to problems sharpens, to remove children who do

not fit the general curriculum to accommodate the child.

Placement of Students

When a child was diagnosed as having a learning disability (no matter the classification), it was easier for the school site or district to simply remove the child into a special education program. In this manner, the core curriculum and how it was taught would not have to be changed in the regular classroom setting. This manner of misleading students out of the confines of regular education continues to engage regular educators and many special education teachers a like.

According to Johnson (1969), special education is part of the arrangement for “cooling out” (a chance for troubled- either academic or behavior- students to catch up with their non-troubled peers) students. It has helped erect a parallel system which permits relief of institutional guilt and humiliation stemming from the failure to achieve competence and effectiveness in the task given to it by society. Special education is helping the regular school maintain its spoiled identity when it creates special programs for the “disruptive child” and the “slow learner” (p. 241).

One of the major problems with the early implementation of special education was that many educators found Dunn’s 1963 definition of exceptional children to be too broad and subjective. These educators believed students should have to meet more stringent qualifications.

It is all too easy for some general educators to refer into special education children with quite mild learning and behavioral disabilities, who are problems to them. And educators of exceptional children have been all too willing to accept these pupils – even though there is little evidence that they make greater progress

in special programs (Dunn, 1973, p.221).

Despite the reaction of the 1963 legal definition of what an exceptional child was, children diagnosed as such soon found themselves in varying academic settings apart from their regular education peers.

Larger problems emerged as a stigma began to be attached to students that were classified as having learning handicaps. The concept of “labeling” students was, to many educators at this time, the same as the destructive influence of the self-fulfilling prophecy. The premise was simple: If a child was labeled as learning handicapped, then the teacher (both regular and special education) did not see the benefit of challenging the student academically. If the teacher believed the student would fail, then soon the student, when not challenged, would ultimately fail. Uschold (1995) defined this situation by observing the following:

We as special educators step in with our curriculum deodorizers and spray everything with a heavy mist of fancy medicine and everybody breathes a new aroma of pseudo-understanding. “No wonder that child couldn’t read; he’s brain injured!” And the reason the child was called brain injured was that he could not read (p.31).

In 1969, a new definition was used and incorporated into the Public Law 91-230 (Children with Specific Learning Disabilities Act of 1969). In part, that law reads:

Children with special learning disabilities exhibit a disorder in one or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or in using spoken or written languages. These may be manifested in disorder of listening, thinking, talking, reading, writing, spelling, or arithmetic. They include conditions which

have been referred to as perceptual handicaps, brain injury, minimal brain dysfunction, dyslexia, developmental aphasia, etc. They do not include learning problems which are due primarily to visual, hearing or motor handicaps, to mental retardation, emotional disturbance or to environmental disadvantage.

Through the above definition proved to be more specific in defining an exceptional child, it still did not answer how a school setting could identify such a student.

In 1973, a new and much more specific definition for classifying the exceptional child was proposed and supported. The new definition explained that (a) an exceptional pupil is so labeled on for that segment of his school career when his deviating physical or behavioral characteristics are of such a nature as to manifest a significant learning asset or disability for special education purposes; and therefore, (b) when, through trial provisions, it has been determined that he can make greater all-round adjustment and scholastic progress with direct or indirect special education services than he could with only a typical regular school program (Dunn, 1973). First this definition allowed educators a chance to view the entire school setting to insure that there was not something in his/her environment that could cause the learning handicap. Second, this definition provided that the placement into a special program could not occur until all other regular education trials proved to be of no benefit.

Major Changes in the Special Education Law

Two major breakthroughs in what is commonly referred to as special education came in 1973 with Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act and in 1975 with Public Law 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (now referred to as Individuals with Disabilities Education Act – IDEA).

The legal language used in Section 504 clearly stated the following:

A recipient of federal assistance shall place a handicapped person in the regular educational environment operated by the recipient unless it is demonstrated by the recipient unless it is demonstrated by the recipient that the education of the person in the regular environment with the use of supplementary aids and services cannot be achieved satisfactorily (Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act, 1973).

Proponents of the LRE viewed the above paragraph as one that stipulated that all children qualifying as exceptional students should be taught in the mainstream. The exceptions to this ruling would be those students who could not succeed after all attempts within the regular education setting (e.g., modified assignments, longer time allotment for assignments, etc.) were administered.

With the passage of Public Law 94-142 in 1975 and the modification in 1990 with IDEA, the intent of the law became explicit. Children with learning handicaps must be taught with similar strategies used in a regular education setting as could be provided according to their specific handicaps:

To the maximum extent appropriate handicapped children, including children in public or private institutions or other care facilities, are educated with children who are not handicapped, and that special classes, separate schooling, or other removal of handicapped children from regular environments occurs only when the nature or severity of the handicap is such that education in regular classes with the use of supplementary aids and services cannot be achieved satisfactorily (Public Law 94-142, 1975).

As a response to this law (as well as Section 504), educators are looking for the

most accommodating ways in which to teach children with learning handicaps. Inclusion is thought by many to be the most beneficial program, not only to meet the needs of students with special needs but also to best adhere to the language of the law.

History of Inclusion in the United States

Inclusion in the public school setting is a relatively new circumstance. The time between the mid 1960's and 1975 saw the beginning of state and federal legislation that culminated in legislation that guaranteed a free and appropriate education for all children.

Before the 1960's some students with mild disabilities were educated in public school, albeit in basements or back rooms. Many school systems established criteria for entrance into "public" classroom. Most children who were wheelchair bound, not toilets trained, had severe behavior problems or were considered "uneducable" (Martin, Martin, & Terman, 1996) and were excluded from the public schools because of the cost and problems associated with providing an appropriate education (Karagiannis, Stainback, & Stainback, 1996). Many advocacy groups led by parents and professionals felt these restrictions were illegal and these groups began to appeal the exclusion through the court system and by putting pressure on legislators.

A review of some of litigation affecting education for students with disabilities, including the explanations of some of the educational jargon used to describe the components mandated by law, are below.

Brown v. Board of Education (1954) was a class action suit brought on behalf of African American children in Topeka, Kansas. The United States Supreme Court ruled that separate educational facilities are inherently unequal.

In 1972, the Pennsylvania Association for Retarded Children, a parent advocacy

group, brought a class suit on the behalf of their children against the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania. The case was settled by a Consent Decree that declared the needs of handicapped children could best be met by providing educational programs that were similar to those provided for children who were not handicapped (Abramson, 1980). This ruling opened up a myriad of educational opportunities for Pennsylvania children who had developmental disabilities and who had previously been denied educational opportunities (Heron & Harris, 1982).

Mills v. Board of Education (1972) was a class action suit filed against the District of Columbia's Board of Education on behalf of all students with disabilities who were not receiving an education in the public schools. The judgment against the School Board mandated that the Board provide all children with disabilities a publicly supported education (Yell, Rogers, & Rogers, 1998). The court mandated that regardless of the cost, equal access to educational programs be provided to all children with disabilities (Martin et al., 1996).

Spurred by the court decision outlined above and mounting pressure from their constituents, legislators began to pass laws addressing education for students with disabilities.

P. L. 93-380, Education Amendments of 1974 was the first federal law that established a national policy of equal educational opportunity. It mandated that every citizen is entitled to an education at public expense and that this education should be designed to ensure that each individual can achieve his or her full potential. This amendment required that each state receiving federal special education funding establish a goal of providing full educational opportunities for all children with disabilities (Heron

& Harris, 1982; Yell et al., 1998).

The Education for All Handicapped Children Act, PL 94-142 was the first federal law that extended equal opportunities to all students with handicaps and established the legal right of all children to an appropriate public education in the least restrictive environment (LRE) possible (Blenk & Landau-Fine, 1995). P. L. 94-142 mandated that a continuum of services from homebound/segregated school services to placement in regular education classes be available to all students with disabilities (Nietupski, 1995). This law contained a major financial support mechanism for states to receive reimbursement for providing education to students with disabilities (Heron & Harris, 1982). In exchange for federal money, school districts had to guarantee that all children with disabilities receive a free, appropriate public education (FAPE).

The least restrictive environment requirement set forth a general rule of integration in the mainstream but did not require the rule to be adhered to when integration was inappropriate. P. L. 94-142 favored integration but recognized that for some students, a more restrictive or segregated setting may be appropriate or even necessary if they were to receive an appropriate education (Yell & Drasgow, 1999).

As a result of this legislation, the late 1970's saw an increase in the variety of available educational programs and an influx of students with a variety of disabilities entering the public schools. While the number of students with disabilities entering the classroom increased, so did the number of labels, acronyms and specialists. The educational system went from a small number of public school classrooms with a single special education teacher to a variety of teachers who specialized in teaching students with disabilities.

Specialized teachers were able to assist students in mastering some of the basics they needed. However, these students were denied the opportunity to experience the services and opportunities that were offered to the students without labels. While the practice of classifying children enabled them to obtain additional services and personnel to support them while they obtained their education, the price was social segregation from their educational experience. The same labels that enabled them to obtain the previously unobtainable kept them isolated from their peers with disabilities.

During the 1980's, the assumption that placing students with disabilities in segregate classes provided them with a better education came under increased scrutiny and was rejected by a growing number of parents and professionals. The beginning of the Regular Education Initiative (REI) is usually attributed, in part, to a speech made in 1985 by Madeleine C. Will, the Assistant Secretary for the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitation Services (OSERS), (Smith & Dowdy, 1998) and to a 1987 study by Wang, Reynolds, and Walberg (Coates, 1989) which advocated a merger of special and regular education for students with mild disabilities. In supporting REI, Will criticized the dual system of education being offered to the students in the United States. She felt that placing special education students in separate programs fragmented services, stigmatized students with disabilities and established a system where parents had to fight to get their children classified in order to obtain the services necessary to help them achieve.

The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act of 1990 amended P. L. 94-142 and became known as IDEA. The new title reflected the "people first" language requirement outlined in the law. The terms "handicapped student" or "handicapped"

became “child/student/individual with a disability.” The law also identified students with autism and traumatic brain injury as a separate and distinct class entitled to the law’s benefit and required that a transition plan be included on every student’s Individualized Education Plan (IEP) by age 16 (Yell et al., 1988).

The revised law contained requirements that spoke to inclusion practice. The first requirement was that students with disabilities be educated with non-disabled students in the regular education setting and “to the maximum extent appropriate, children with disabilities...are educated with children who are not disabled” (IDEA, 1990). This section of the law ensured that students with disabilities were provided with educational opportunities in the LRE that were suitable for their needs. The second requirement was that a student with disabilities could not be removed from a regular education setting unless the school districts could show that an appropriate education in that setting could not be achieved satisfactorily. It was expected that school districts assume that students with disabilities should be educated with non-disabled peers to the greatest degree possible. The school districts were permitted to move a student to a more restrictive, appropriate environment if they could show that education in a regular classroom was not appropriate for the student with disabilities or for his or her peers without disabilities.

IDEA also mandated that a “continuum of alternative placements be available” that vary in restrictiveness so that a student may be placed in the setting that is most appropriate and least restrictive. If an appropriate placement was not available in the school district, the district was mandated to secure an appropriate placement for the student (Coutinho & Repp, 1999; Tilton, 1996; Wright, 1999).

These two provisions of the law, LRE and the mandate to provide a free

appropriate public education seemed to conflict. An appropriate education may not always be available in a regular education setting and the regular education setting may not always provide the most appropriate education (Chesley & Calaluca, 1997). The principle of LRE and the tension between the least restrictive environment and the mandate of a free appropriate public education have provoked more confusion and controversy than any other issue in special education. As both of these mandates are also in the current revision of the law (IDEA, 1997), this controversy continues today (Yell & Drasgow, 1999).

In 1997, President Clinton signed the Individual with Disabilities Education Act Amendments of 1997, P. L. 105-17, (IDEA, 1997) into law. The 1997 version of the law included a number of changes to the IEP format and requirement that a method to accurately determine a student's progress toward his or her annual goals be available in the IEP. In addition, in an attempt to encourage parents and educators to resolve their differences outside of the due process system, the 1997 amendments required states to offer mediation as a voluntary option to parents and educators to resolve differences of opinion. For students with behavioral difficulties, the amendments require that a proactive behavior management plan, based on a functional behavioral assessment, be included in the students' IEP. The transition from school to work section of the IEP was expanded and the age for the transition planning was lowered to age 14.

Twenty-five years after P.L. 94-142, education for students with disabilities has moved from one of exclusion to an educational system that offers them a continuum of educational options to best meet their needs.

The Effects of Teacher's Attitudes:

In-service teachers

The most remarkable feature of the inclusion movement has been that regular educators are not included in decision-making with regard to inclusive practices at the same time that special education professionals are in charge of consultation, collaboration, and parity (Cronis, & Ellis, 2000). As students with disabilities are increasingly placed in general education classrooms, teachers are also encountering greater diversity in student ability and achievement levels (Hourcade, & Bauwen, 2001). As shown in Table 3, during the 1998-99 academic years in the U.S., 47.4 percent of students with disabilities spent 80 percent of the day or more, 28.4 percent of students with disabilities spent 40-79 percent of the day and 20.1 percent of students with disabilities spent less than 40 percent of the day in regular classroom. Other 4.1 percent of student with disabilities who are in separate facilities, residential facilities, and a home/hospital did not attend school with their non-disabled peers. Thus nearly three-fourths of students with disabilities received most or all of their educational programs in general education classrooms in the U.S. That trend is likely to continue in the predictable future (National Center for Education Statistics, 2002).

Table 3

Percentage Distribution of Students Ages 6-21 with Disabilities, by Educational Environment: 1988-89 and 1998-99

Year	Percentage of day in a regular education classroom			Not in a regular school
	80 or more	79-40	Less than 40	
1988-89	30.5	39.0	24.3	6.3
1998-99	47.4	28.4	20.1	4.1

Source: U.S. Department of Education, National Center for Education Statistic. (2002). *The Condition of Education 2002* (NCES 2002-025), Indicator 28.

Regular education teachers' attitudes toward special needs students have been regarded as a main factor in the success or failure to include these students into the mainstream (Bennett, 1996; York & Tundidor, 1995). Noticeably, a number of studies have found regular education teachers' attitudes toward inclusion of students with disabilities to be generally negative (Bruno, 1996; Landrum & Kauffman, 1992). Thus, in the classroom, students with disabilities who are perceived negatively, or for whom teachers have lowered expectations, may be subject to higher rates of negative attention and criticism, along with lower rates of cuing, prompting and positive reinforcement (Jenkins, Jewel, Leicester, Jenkins & Troutner, 1991).

Although inclusion is recognized as an important recent challenge, few studies have been done to judge how teachers feel about inclusion. Research conducted by Pearman, Huang, Barnhart, and Mellblom (1992) used teachers from a single district in Colorado and found that male teachers had significantly more negative opinions about

inclusion than did females. Also, noted were significant differences between the regular education teachers and the special education teachers with the latter having more positive attitudes about inclusion? Results indicated that a little over half of the respondents in the survey agreed or strongly agreed that the staff at their school was resisting inclusion.

Pre-service teachers

The negative attitude of teachers has been documented in many studies (Mayhew, 1994; Stoler, 1992; Taylor, Richards, Goldstein, & Schilit, 1997; Vaidya, 1997). Much of this negativity results from lack of knowledge. There is considerable research that suggests that classroom teachers feel inadequate when students with disabilities are included in a regular classroom (Monahan, Marino & Miller, 1996; Schumm & Vaughn, 1992; Semmel et al., 1991). Although the reasons for this may vary, one contributing factor is the lack of training in special education (Monahan et al, 1996; Schumm & Vaughn, 1992; Semmel et al., 1991). The significance of the gap in education of future teachers continues to grow along with teaching requirements beyond the traditional classroom. Teachers are expected to integrate many programs into the lives of students they teach.

Now, with need for inclusion, pre-service teacher education programs are recognizing that the integration of the two fields (special & regular education) is necessary. To achieve this goal, pre-service teachers are required to take classes in both regular and special education, regardless of the area in which they are seeking certification. Many colleges and universities in the U.S. are now requiring students with a regular education major to be exposed to coursework that introduces working with special needs students and includes courses on collaboration (Raj, 2002). Additionally, in

1996, the Special Areas Studies Board of the National Council for the Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) approved the Council for Exceptional Children's (CEC) outline for pre-service education training (Belcher, 1997). This action mandates that the states who have affiliation with NCATE to align their standards for the professional preparation educators with the CEC's guidelines (Belcher, 1997).

In a study of first year teachers, almost half indicated that they felt ill prepared to instruct students with special needs (Williams, 1990). Additionally, only a few secondary teachers of first year indicated that they had a single course in teaching students with disabilities. This lack of exposure to educating students with disabilities prompted colleges and universities to implement additional coursework that the potential graduates from the disciplines of both special and general education must complete. In a 1996 study, results indicated that in addition to a lack of preparation, teachers also lacked the desire to teach those with special needs (Vaughn, Schumm, Jallad, Slusher & Saumell, 1996). In addition to developing a concept of the theory behind the practice of inclusion, the course attempts to alter the attitudes and preconceived prejudices of general education majors toward persons with disabilities. The course is designed to enhance awareness and to promote acceptability among would-be teachers. Students in the class are made aware of how the simple use of language helps promote a negative perception of students and persons with disabilities. The course goes even further in attempting to break barriers for those who are disabled, and includes examination into social prejudices such as culture, race and medical issues.

Another aspect of the course focuses on strategies to teach the pre-service student to be accepting of persons with disabilities. In order to facilitate this objective, the use of

simulation exercises and discussions are used. Culverhouse (1998) states, “until the classroom teacher can in some way experience the diversity the students present, she/he will not be effective in creating an inclusive classroom” (p. 4).

Finally, the course emphasized the concept and promotion of cooperative learning strategies in the pre-service teacher’s future classrooms. This aspect helps ensure a philosophy of students working together toward a common goal. By having students help other students, it aids in reduction on the competition level among the students as well as making the classroom teacher available to assist individual students (Raj, 2002).

Although pre-service teachers may in fact come into the profession with prejudices and negative attitudes toward persons with disabilities, research has showed that their initial negativity does change with experience, adequate training and support (Villa, Thousand, Meyers, & Nevin, 1996).

Factors affecting In-service Teachers’ Attitudes toward Inclusion

Research has identified a number of factors which appear to affect the attitudes of teachers toward inclusion of students with disabilities. These factors include (a) gender, (b) grade level taught, (c) teacher knowledge of special education, (d) years of teaching experience, (e) self-rating of confidence in ability to teach students with disability, and (f) availability of special education support.

Pearman et al. (1992) used teachers from a single district in Colorado and found that male teachers had significantly more negative opinions about inclusion than did female teachers. Female teachers showed more positive attitudes toward inclusion.

Grade level taught is a factor which has consistently been found to influence teacher attitudes toward inclusion of students with disabilities. Brophy and Evertson

(1981) attribute this to demands placed on teachers and teacher expectations. They found first through third grade teachers tended to spend more time teaching basic concepts requiring smaller group instruction and individualization. While upper elementary teachers spent more time engaged in large group instruction and independent seat work.

Stoler (1992) studied the attitudes of secondary school teachers toward the inclusion of students with differing levels of education had different perception of inclusion. The higher the education level, the more negative the attitudes were toward inclusion. Teachers of secondary students have consistently shown more negative attitudes toward inclusion of students with disabilities, perhaps due to increases in number of students served, higher expectations for independent work, and increases in teacher accountability (Glassberg, 1994; Hollenbeck, 1996).

Teacher knowledge of special education is another variable that influences teachers' attitudes toward the inclusion of students with disabilities. Increased knowledge of special education has been shown to increase teacher acceptance of students with disabilities, though not necessarily agreement concerning inclusion issues (Bennett, 1996; George, George, Gersten, & Grosenick, 1995). College coursework and in-service training in special education are two means of increasing teacher knowledge of inclusion which have been related to more positive attitudes toward students with disabilities. The more special education coursework the teachers had completed, the more positive their attitudes were toward inclusion. Teachers with inclusion in-service training showed more positive attitudes toward inclusion than those teachers without such training (Jobe, Rust, & Brissie, 1996).

Reported years of teaching experience is another factors related to attitudes

toward inclusion by regular educators. Tallent (1986) found that regular education teachers with one to five years of experience had more positive attitudes toward inclusion than teachers with more than 10 years. A study by Center (1993) indicated that teachers' attitudes toward inclusion became increasingly negative with years of experience.

Several studies have indicated that a relationship exists between teachers' self ratings of confidence in their ability to teach students with disabilities and their attitudes toward these students. High self-ratings from teachers concerning their ability to serve students with disabilities have been related to positive attitude measures (Jacobson, 1996; Karasoff, 1992). These factors may be related to the amount of pre-service and/or in-service training.

A final factor that research has indicated influences teachers' attitudes toward the inclusion of students with disabilities is the availability of support from special education personnel. Several studies have shown that teachers who indicated high levels of available support from special education personnel had more positive attitudes toward inclusion of students with disabilities (Martin, 1995; Wolery, 1995).

The Current Status of Inclusion in South Korea

With an increasing awareness of the need for education for students with disabilities, the number of special education schools has steadily increased in recent years (see Table 1, p 5). As of 2002, there were 129 special education schools in the nation, with a total of 24,196 students. These include 12 for students with visual impairment, 18 for students with hearing impairment, 17 for students with physical disabilities, 82 for students with mental retardation (Korea Ministry of Education & Human Resources Development, 2003).

In addition to these special schools, some general schools also have been providing inclusive settings for students with disabilities by opening special classes within their schools. The number of special education classrooms located in general schools has been rapidly increasing year by year (see Table 2, p. 6), posting 1 in 1971, 355 in 1980, 1601 in 1985, 3181 in 1990, 3440 in 1995, 3764 in 2000, and 3953 in 2002 (Korea Institute for Special Education, 2002). This trend reflects the will of Government to incorporate students with disabilities in inclusive settings. To improve the quality of special education, the government established the Korea Institute for Special Education in 1994, which has been responsible for developing special education programs and providing training for teachers in special education. Today, inclusion in Korea is an ongoing challenge to fulfill the needs of all students.

Elementary and Secondary Education System in South Korea

For all school-aged children in South Korea (Korea has a 6-3-3 system), elementary education has been free and compulsory since 1953; and middle school education (seventh to ninth grade in the U.S. system) has been free and compulsory since 1985. But high school education (ninth to twelfth grade in the U.S. system) is not compulsory and is provided in three different types of high schools: academic (regular); vocational; and special purpose high schools.

It is estimated that about 2.11 % of school aged children have disabilities in South Korea (Korea Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, 2003). This estimated percentage is far less than the actual population of children with disabilities. There are several reasons for this result: (a) children staying at home because of severe disability conditions, (b) parents' unwillingness to register their children with

disabilities at an early age, (c) limited definitions of disability categories, (d) children with mild disabilities being included in regular classrooms with no support, and (e) parents putting off children's entrance to elementary schools until their children show more progress (Park, 2002). The number of students with disabilities who receive special education under elementary and secondary education system is about 53, 987 (Korea Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, 2003). Among them, 22,740 students are educated in 129 special schools, 26, 368 students are educated in 3, 746 special education classes located in general schools, and 3, 879 students are fully included in general classrooms with support from special education teachers.

The large number of elementary and secondary students who receive special education represents rapid progress in the special education programs of South Korea, considering that there were only 38 special schools and one special education class in the early 1970s. Students with disabilities who are eligible for special education services are provided with individualized education that meets his or her individual needs, based on their individualized education programs (IEPs). The IEP, established for each student before the beginning of the academic year, includes current achievement level, goals and objectives, starting and ending date, instructional strategies, and procedures to evaluate progress.

Regular Education Teachers' Attitudes toward Inclusive Settings

Even though inclusion is a hot issue in Korean education systems, regular education teachers, the frontline educators in inclusive settings, seem to be ill- prepared to take over students with disabilities in their regular education classrooms. As previously noted in chapter 1, the Korea Institute for Special Education surveyed 490

regular education teachers about attitudes toward inclusive settings (2002). As shown in Table 4, 124 (25.3%) regular education teachers have positive attitudes toward inclusive settings, 225 (45.9 %) of them are neutral, 141 (28.8 %) of them have negative attitudes respectively.

Table 4

Tendency of Regular Education Teachers to take over an Inclusive Class

Total	Agree	Neutral	<i>N (%)</i> Disagree
490 (100)	124 (25.3)	225 (45.9)	141 (28.8)

Source: *An Index of Special Education*, by Korea Institute for Special Education, 2002.

The reasons for positive attitudes toward inclusion (see Table 5) are (1) to teach all students to live in harmony (57.4 %), (2) to foster non-disabled students' humanity (18.8 %), (3) every student has the same and equal right to education (13.9 %), (4) personally interested in supporting disabled student (6.9 %), (5) to receive points for promotion (2.0 %), and (6) school support and encouragement (1.0 %).

Table 5

Reasons for 'Agree' to take over students with disabilities in inclusive class

	<i>N (%)</i>
Total	101 (100)
To teach all students to live in harmony	58 (57.4)
To foster non-disabled students' humanity	19 (18.8)
Every student has the same and equal right to education	14 (13.9)
Personally interested in supporting disabled students	7 (6.9)
To receive points for promotion	2 (2.0)
School support and encouragement	1 (1.0)

Source: *An Index of Special Education*, by Korea Institute for Special Education, 2002.

On the other hand, the reasons for being 'neutral' or having 'negative attitudes' towards inclusive settings (see Table 6) are (1) lack of experiences and knowledge in teaching disabled students (25.2 %), (2) insufficient environment and support for inclusive settings (19.0 %), (3) oversize class (18.6 %), (4) category or degree of a student's disability (16.8 %), (5) negative attitudes of non-disabled students (10.5 %), (6) lack of inclusive education programs (7.1 %), (7) obstruction in class (1.4 %), and (8) no difference between a regular class and inclusive settings (1.4 %).

Table 6

Reasons for 'Neutral' or 'Disagree' to take over students with disabilities in inclusive class

	<i>N (%)</i>
Total	210 (100)
Lack of experiences and knowledge in teaching students with disabilities	53 (25.2)
Insufficient environment and support for inclusive education	40 (19.0)
Oversize class	39 (18.6)
Category or degree of a student's disability	35 (16.8)
Negative perceptions of non-disabled students	22 (10.5)
Lack of inclusive education programs	15 (7.1)
Obstruction in class	3 (1.4)
No difference between a regular class and an inclusive class	3 (1.4)

Source: *An Index of Special Education*, by Korea Institute for Special Education, 2002.

Not surprisingly, 51.3 percent of regular education teachers who have negative attitudes toward inclusive settings regard lack of experiences and knowledge in teaching students with disabilities, insufficient environment and support for inclusive settings, and lack of inclusive education programs as reasons for being 'neutral' or having 'negative attitudes'.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter addresses the methodology that was used to analyze the research questions presented in the study. Participants and schools, instrumentation (survey tool), research design, procedures, and data analysis were discussed.

Participants and Schools

The participants in this study consisted of a total of 201 in-service teachers. More specifically, 124 regular elementary education teachers from three selected schools and 77 special education teachers from two selected schools in the southeastern part of South Korea participated.

Regular schools

One participating school, which yielded a sample size of 43 teachers, was located in an urban setting, one which yielded a sample size of 42 teachers, in a suburban local, and the remaining one which yielded a sample size of 39 teachers, in a rural environment.

Special schools

One participating school, which yielded a sample size of 42 teachers, was located in an urban school district, and the other, which yield a sample size of 35 teachers, in a suburban school district.

Instrumentation

Scale of Teacher's Attitudes Toward Inclusive Classrooms (STATIC)

The Scale of Teacher's Attitudes Toward Inclusive Classrooms (STATIC) is a published instrument used to measure teacher's attitudes toward inclusive classrooms (Cochran, 1999). The author of STATIC is Keith Cochran. The STATIC is a twenty

items, paper and pencil instrument consisting of statements regarding students with disabilities in the classroom. Some sample questions are as follows: “I am confident in my ability to teach children with special needs,” “I have been adequately trained to meet the needs of children with disabilities,” and “My principal is supportive in making needed accommodations for teaching children with special needs.” The agreement level with each statement is a six-point Likert-like scale. The possible ranges of responses are: 0 = Strongly Disagree, 1 = Disagree, 2 = Not sure, but tend to disagree, 3 = Not sure, but tend to agree, 4 = agree and 5 = Strongly Agree. Scoring for the STATIC was revised in the year 1999. When scoring the STATIC, the examiner must first reverse the code of several items on the survey. For example, items 3, 4, 7, 9, 13 and 15 should be scored utilizing the following: 0 = 5, 1 = 4, 2 = 3, 3 = 2, 4 = 1 and a response of 5 = 0. Once the previously noted items are reverse coded, the sum of the twenty items for each subject could then be considered an index of their attitude toward inclusive education.

Participants whose profile indicates higher scores are considered to have a more positive attitude toward inclusion, while those participants whose profile consists of lower scores are considered to have less positive or more negative attitudes toward inclusion (Cochran, 1999).

It should be noted that the current norms for the STATIC are sample size = 481, mean = 58.91, standard deviation = 7.94 and SEM = +/- 2.63. Reliability studies on the STATIC consistently indicate a Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of .89 held constant for the total group as well as for individual groups of regular and special education teachers, and elementary and secondary teachers. Presently, STATIC data is being collected from teachers in the Midwestern United States, Canada, Great Britain, Greece,

and Japan.

Korean Version of STATIC

In order to meet the different English abilities of participants, STATIC was translated into a version of Korean by the researcher (see Appendix B). Mr. Hwang, doctoral student, Oklahoma State University, College of Agricultural Economics whose first language is Korean, attested to the accuracy of translation. Reliability analysis scale for 20 survey items of Korean version of STATIC indicated a Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of .86 held constant for total regular elementary and special elementary education teachers. Item-total correlations range from .24 to .74 with a mean 54.56, and standard deviation of 12.76. According to reliability index (Cronbach, 1951); there is a high degree of internal consistency among the items of the STATIC.

Research Design

This study is a descriptive research study known as causal-comparative research design. This study attempts to determine reasons or causes for conditions in existing inclusive settings, comparing two identified groups, regular education and special education. In causal-comparative research, the researcher attempts to determine the cause, or reason, for preexisting differences in groups of individuals. In other words, “it is observed that groups are different on some variable and the researcher attempts to identify the main factor that has led to this difference” (Gay & Airasian, 2000, p.349).

Procedures

Data were collected from a survey questionnaire of the Scale of Teachers’ Attitudes Toward Inclusive Classrooms (STATIC). The purpose of the administration of the survey questionnaire was to gain related quantitative information.

The Oklahoma State University Internal Review Board (IRB) approval for the study was followed by gaining permission to utilize Korean educational institutions during the first week of September 2003. With the consent and cooperation of district principals, appointments were made to visit each school. From September to October 2003 the survey was administered to each teacher participant during the beginning of daily teachers' meetings period. Participation in the study was voluntary and was documented through a signed consent form (see Appendix C). If an in-service teacher did not sign consent form, his/her individual data were not used. The average time of completion of a survey was approximately 15-20 minutes. After distributing the consent form, the researcher (a) provided the participants with a brief description of the study, (b) indicated that participation is voluntary, (c) distributed the surveys, and (d) provided instructions for completion. Participants were asked to complete the surveys at this time and return them to the researcher. A total of 201 surveys out of a total distribution of 232 surveys were answered completely for data analysis, for a total response rate of 86.6%.

Data Analysis

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 11.0, 2003) was the statistical program used for analyzing the data.

Once the questionnaires were received, they were summarized, and a total score was assigned to each questionnaire. Of the demographic variables that were collected, only six are used as independent variables in this study. The six independent variables are (1) educational position, (2) teaching assignment, (3) years of experience, (4) size of class, (5) gender, and (6) school district. In addition, this study also investigated the joint effect of each variable. The groups can be subdivided using additional information, such

as, the years of teaching experience & educational position, and gender & educational position.

There are six different levels of each variable. For positions in the field of education, the positions are (1) regular elementary education teacher, and (2) special education teacher. For years of experiences, the ranges are (1) less than 5 years, (2) 6-10 years, and (3) more than 10 years. For teaching assignment, levels are (1) elementary level (K-3) - regular education, (2) elementary level (4-6) - regular education, (3) elementary level (K-3)-special education, and (4) elementary level (4-6) - special education. For the size of class, the ranges are (1) less than 20 students, (2) 21-30 students, and (3) more than 30 students. For gender, categories are listed as male, and female. For school districts, the sites are (1) urban setting, (2) suburban local, and (3) rural community.

The data were analyzed through independent-sample test (t-Test), one-way ANOVA, and two-way ANOVA design. Both the independent-sample test (t-Test) and the ANOVA have unequal sample size. The dependent variable was the participants total item score (STATIC).

An independent-sample test (t-Test) was conducted to compare the two educational groups, the two special education teachers groups related to the size of class taught (less than 20 students and 21-30 students), and the two special education teachers groups employed in different school districts (urban and suburban) on their attitudes toward inclusive settings.

A one-way ANOVA was used to evaluate the mean differences between four teaching assignment groups (K-3 special education teachers, 4-6 special education

teachers, K-3 regular education teachers, and 4-6 regular education teachers), three regular education teachers groups related to the size of class taught (less than 20 students, 21-30 students, and more than 30 students), and three regular education teachers groups employed in different school districts (urban, suburban, and rural) on their attitudes toward inclusive settings.

The two-way ANOVA was conducted to determine if significant differences exist among/between the sample means by the years of experience (less than 5 years, 6-10 years, and more than 10 years) and educational position (special education teacher and regular education teacher) and by gender (male and female) and educational position (special education teacher and regular education teacher). The main reason to use two-way ANOVA was to determine if there is a significant “interaction” among the means of independent variables due to a unique combination of the two factors investigated.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter is divided into two sections. The first section contains the demographic information that describes the characteristics of regular elementary and special education teachers in the study sample as they related to the research questions. The second section reports findings from the statistical procedures used to analyze the data and addresses six research questions.

Demographic Information

The participants consisted of 124 regular elementary teachers from three selected regular education schools and 77 special elementary teachers from two selected special education schools. These schools are located in the southeastern parts of South Korea. *Regular schools:* One participating school, which yielded a sample size of 43 teachers, was located in an urban setting, one which yielded a sample size of 42 teachers, in a suburban local, and the remaining one which yielded a sample size of 39 teachers, in a rural environment.

Special school: One participating school, which yielded a sample size of 42 teachers, was located in an urban school district, and the other, which yielded a sample size of 35 teachers, in a suburban school district.

The regular elementary and special elementary teachers who work with students, kindergarten to sixth grade participated in this study. More specifically, 30 special education teachers who work with students, kindergarten to third grade, participated, 47 special education teachers in fourth grade to sixth grade level, 64 regular education teachers in kindergarten to third grade level, 60 regular education teachers in fourth grade

to sixth grade level, respectively. The majority of the participants were female (59.2%). Males composed 40.8% of the participants. In-service teachers with more than 10 years of experience (52.7%) are the majority of the participants. Those with less than 5 years of experience (26.4%) are the second group and those with 6-10 years of experience composed 20.9% of the participants. The majority of the participants had Bachelor's degrees (82.6%). Those with Master's degree composed 16.9% of participants. One participant had Doctoral degree (0.5%). Results in detail can be seen in Table 7.

Table 7

Characteristics of Participating Teachers and Classrooms

Characteristic	n	%
Gender		
Female	119	59.2
Male	82	40.8
Total (special & regular educators)	201	100
Special Education Teachers		
Female	40	51.9
Male	37	48.1
Total	77	100
Regular Education Teachers		
Female	79	63.7
Male	45	34.4
Total	124	100

Characteristic	n	%
Years of Teaching Experience		
0-5 years	53	26.4
6-10 years	42	20.9
More than 10 years	106	52.7
Total (special & regular educators)	201	100
Special Education Teachers		
0-5 years	20	26.0
6-10 years	16	20.8
More than 10 years	41	53.2
Total	77	100
Regular Education Teachers		
0-5 years	33	26.6
6-10 years	26	21.0
More than 10 years	65	52.4
Total	124	100
Teaching Assignment		
K-3 Special Education	30	14.9
4-6 Special Education	47	23.4
K-3 Regular Education	64	31.8
4-6 Regular Education	60	29.9
Total	201	100

Characteristic	n	%
In-Service Teachers employed in School Districts		
Urban	85	42.3
Suburban	77	38.3
Rural	39	19.4
Total (special and regular educators)	201	100
School Districts: Special Education Teachers		
Urban	42	54.5
Suburban	35	45.5
Total	77	100
School Districts: Regular Education Teachers		
Urban	43	34.7
Suburban	42	33.9
Rural	39	31.5
Total	124	100
In-Service Teachers related to Size of Class Taught		
1-20 Students	88	43.8
21-30 Students	41	20.4
More than 30 Students	72	35.8
Total (special and regular educators)	201	100
Size of Class: Special Education Teachers		
1-20 Students	68	88.3
21-30 Students	9	11.7

Characteristic	n	%
Total	77	100
Size of Class: Regular Education Teachers		
1-20 Students	20	16.1
21-30 Students	32	25.8
More than 30 Students	72	58.1
Total	124	100
Level of Education		
Bachelor's Degree	166	82.6
Master's Degree	34	16.9
Doctoral Degree	1	0.5
Total (special and regular educators)	201	100
Level of Education: Special Education Teachers		
Bachelor's Degree	63	81.8
Master's Degree	13	16.9
Doctoral Degree	1	1.3
Total	77	100
Level of Education: Regular Education Teachers		
Bachelor's Degree	103	83.1
Master's Degree	21	16.9
Total	124	100

Test of Research Questions

Prior to the analyzing of the research data, a reliability analysis scale was executed for 20 survey items utilized in this study. Using SPSS 11.0 for Windows (SPSS, 2003), reliability analysis scale for 20 survey items on the Korean version of STATIC indicated a Cronbach alpha reliability coefficient of .86 held constant for total regular elementary and special elementary education teachers. Item-total correlations range from .24 to .74 with a mean 54.56, and standard deviation of 12.76. According to reliability index (Cronbach, 1951), there is a high degree of internal consistency among the items of the STATIC.

Research Question 1: Do regular and special education teachers significantly differ in their overall attitudes toward inclusive settings, as measured by “Scale of Teachers’ Attitudes toward Inclusive Classroom (STATIC)”?

The possible range of overall scores on the STATIC was from zero to 100. Higher scores on the STATIC reflect more positive attitudes or perceptions of the practice of inclusive classrooms. Using Independent-Samples Test (t-Test), regular education teachers’ attitudes toward inclusive settings ($n = 124$, $M = 48.63$, $SD = 11.43$) were significantly more negative than those of special education teachers ($n = 77$, $M = 64.10$, $SD = 8.19$). Special education teachers showed significantly more positive attitudes toward inclusive settings. This result was statistically significant [$t(201) = 10.34$, $p = .00$]. See example in Appendix G. Table 8 showed the results of the test of research question 1.

Table 8

Independent- Samples Test (t-Test) for Overall Score on the STATIC by Educational Position

Educational Position	N	M	SD	t	p
Special Educator	77	64.10	8.19	10.34	.00
Regular Educator	124	48.63	11.43		

Research Question 2: Do regular and special education teachers significantly differ by the teaching assignment in their attitudes toward inclusive settings, as measured by “STATIC”?

To describe the overall attitudes of each group of teaching assignment toward inclusive settings as measured by the STATIC means and standard deviation were calculated and can be seen in Table 9.

Table 9

Mean Scores and Standard Deviations on the STATIC by Teaching Assignment

Source	N	M	SD
K-3 Special Educator	30	63.73	7.56
4-6 Special Educator	47	64.34	8.64
K-3 Regular Educator	64	49.81	9.86
4-6 Regular Educator	60	47.37	12.76

One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was calculated to compare the four

teaching assignment groups on overall attitudes toward inclusive settings as measure by the STATIC. The four teaching assignment groups were: (1) K-3 special education teachers, (2) 4-6 special education teachers, (3) K-3 regular education teachers, and (4) 4-6 regular education teachers. A One-Way ANOVA results revealed statistical significance on overall attitudes toward inclusive settings among the four teaching assignment groups $\{[F(3, 197) = 36.20, p = .00]\}$. The results of that analysis can be found in Table 10.

Table 10

ANOVA Table for Overall Scores on the STATIC by Teaching Assignment

	SS	df	MS	F	P
Between Groups	11567.49	3	3855.83	36.20	.00
Within Groups	20984.10	197	106.52		
Total	32551.59	200			

To determine where the difference existed among the four groups, a Tukey HSD analysis was done. This post- hoc analysis found differences to exist between regular and special education teachers regardless of grade level they teach at the .01 significance level. The results indicated that K-3 special education teachers ($M = 63.73, SD = 7.56$) had more positive attitudes than did K-3 and 4-6 regular education teachers. Also, results showed that 4-6 special education teachers ($M = 64.34, SD = 8.64$) had more positive attitudes toward inclusive settings than did K-3 ($M = 49.81, SD = 9.86$) and 4-6 regular education teachers ($M = 47.37, SD = 12.76$). Otherwise, there is no difference in the overall attitudes toward inclusive settings by grade level they teach. Results are available

in Table 11.

Table 11

Multiple Comparisons on Overall STATIC Score by Teaching Assignment

Teaching Assignment	Teaching Assignment	Mean Difference	Standard Error	P
K-3 Special Educator	4-6 Special Educator	-.61	2.41	.99
	K-3 Regular Educator	13.92	2.28	.00
	4-6 Regular Educator	16.37	2.31	.00
4-6 Special Educator	K-3 Special Educator	.61	2.41	.99
	K-3 Regular Educator	14.53	1.98	.00
	4-6 Regular Educator	16.97	2.01	.00
K-3 Regular Educator	K-3 Special Educator	-13.92	2.28	.00
	4-6 Special Educator	-14.53	1.98	.00
	4-6 Regular Educator	2.45	1.85	.55
4-6 Regular Educator	K-3 Special Educator	-16.37	2.31	.00
	4-6 Special Educator	-16.97	2.01	.00
	K-3 Regular Educator	-2.45	1.85	.55

Research Question 3: Do regular and special education teachers significantly differ by the years of teaching experience in their attitudes toward inclusive settings, as measured by “STATIC”?

To describe the overall attitudes of each group based on “the years of teaching

experience” and “educational position” toward inclusive settings as measured by the STATIC, means and standard deviations were calculated and can be seen in Table 12 and graphically in Figure 1 and 2.

Table 12

Mean Scores and Standard Deviations on the STATIC by Years of Experience and Educational Position

Educational Position	Years of Experience	N	M	SD
Special Educator	0-5 years	20	67.20	7.77
	6-10 years	16	61.00	8.79
	More than 10 years	41	63.80	7.81
	Total	77	64.10	8.19
Regular Educator	0-5 years	33	53.88	11.17
	6-10 years	26	49.15	12.59
	More than 10 years	65	45.75	10.21
	Total	124	48.63	11.43
Total	0-5 years	53	58.91	11.89
	6-10 years	42	53.67	12.60
	More than 10 years	106	52.74	12.83
	Total	201	54.56	12.76

Figure 1

Overall Scores on the STATIC by the Years of Experience and Educational Position

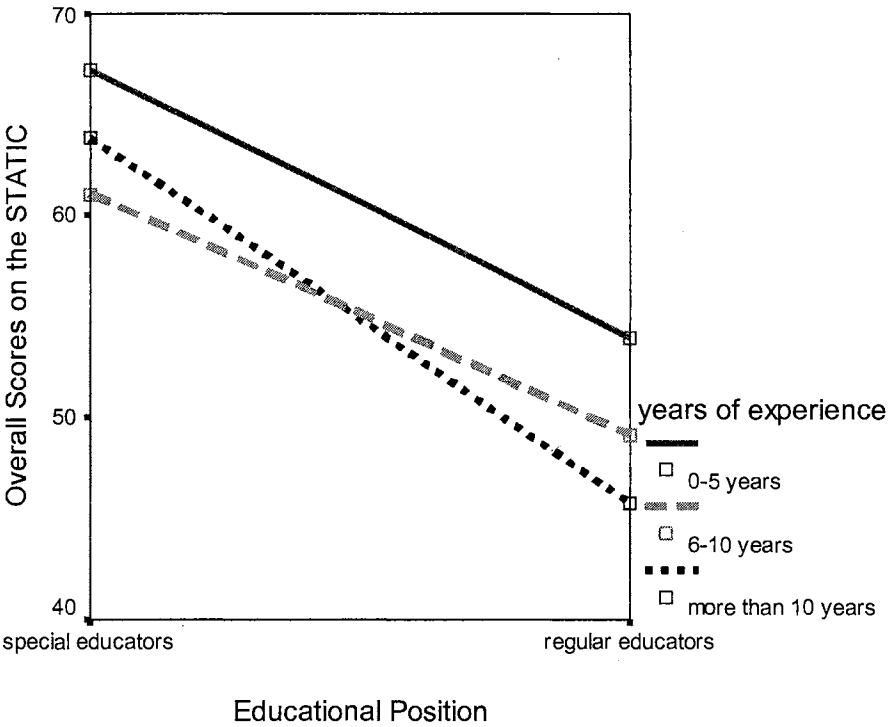


Figure 2

Schematic Diagram of the Years of Experience, with Educational Position

		Years of Experience		
		0-5	6-10	More than 10
Educational Position	Special Educator	M=67.20 n=20	M=61.00 n=16	M=63.80 n=41
	Regular Educator	M=53.88 n=33	M=49.15 n=26	M=45.75 n=65

For the Two-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) design, the years of teaching experience with three levels; 0-5 years, 6-10 years, more than 10 years, and educational position with two levels; special education teachers and regular education teachers was the independent variable. The dependent variable was the overall scores on STATIC which represented the perceptions of the inclusion. The results of two-way ANOVA revealed that both the years of teaching experience {[F (2, 195) = 5.97, p = .00]} and educational position {[F (1, 195) = 85.06, p = .00]} significantly influence the overall scores on STATIC. However, the interaction {[F (2, 195) = 1.79, p = .17]} of the years of teaching experience and educational position on the overall scores on STATIC did not reach the level of statistical significance. The results of that analysis can be shown in Table 13.

Table 13

Two-Way ANOVA Table for Overall Scores on the STATIC by the Years of the Teaching Experience and Educational Position.

Source	SS	df	MS	F	P
Educational Position	8450.21	1	8450.21	85.06	.00
Years of Experience	1186.54	2	593.27	5.97	.00
Position * Experience	354.95	2	177.46	1.79	.17
Error	19372.60	195	99.35		
Total	630826.00	201			

Using post-hoc analysis (Tukey HSD analysis), differences were found between in-service teachers with years of teaching experience. Results indicated that in-service teachers with less than 5 years of teaching experience ($M = 58.91$, $SD = 11.89$) had more positive attitudes toward inclusive settings than did in-service teachers with 6-10 ($M = 53.67$, $SD = 12.60$) and more than 10 years of teaching experience ($M = 52.74$, $SD = 12.84$). But there is no difference between in-service teachers with 6-10 and more than 10 years of teaching experience. Results are available in Table 14.

Table 14

Multiple Comparisons on Overall STATIC Score by the Years of Experience

Years of Experience	Years of Experience	Mean Difference	Standard Error	P
Less than 5 years	6-10 years	5.24	2.06	.03
	More than 10 years	6.17	1.68	.00
6-10 years	Less than 5 years	-5.24	2.06	.03
	More than 10 years	.93	1.82	.86
More than 10 years	Less than 5 years	-6.17	1.68	.00
	6-10 years	-.94	1.82	.86

Research Question 4: Do regular and special education teachers significantly differ by the size of class taught in their attitudes toward inclusive settings, as measure by “STATIC”?

To describe the overall attitudes of each group based on “size of class” and “educational position” toward inclusive settings as measured by the STATIC means and standard deviations were calculated and can be seen in Table 15.

Table 15

Mean Scores and Standard Deviations on the STATIC by the Size of Class taught and Educational position

Educational Position	Size of Class taught	N	M	SD
Special Educator	1-20 students	68	65.19	7.80
	21-30 students	9	55.89	6.39
	Total	77	64.10	8.19
Regular Educator	1-20 students	20	57.25	13.78
	21-30 students	32	49.41	11.10
	More than 30 students	72	45.89	9.65
	Total	124	48.63	11.43
Total	1-20 students	88	63.39	9.98
	21-30 students	41	50.83	10.54
	More than 30 students	72	45.89	9.65
	Total	201	54.56	12.76

Using Independent-Samples Test (t-Test), special education teachers who have less than 20 students ($n = 68$, $M = 65.19$, $SD = 7.80$) had significantly more positive attitudes toward inclusive settings than did special education teachers who have 21-30 students ($n = 9$, $M = 55.89$, $SD = 6.39$) in their classes. Otherwise, special education teachers who have 21-30 students had significantly more negative attitudes toward inclusive settings than did special education teachers who have less than 20 in their classes. This result was statistically significant [$t(77) = 3.42$, $p = .00$]. Table 16 showed the results of the t-Test.

Table 16

Independent-Sample Test (t-Test) for Overall Score on the STATIC of Special Education Teachers by the Size of Class

Size of Class	N	M	SD	t	p
1-20 Students	68	65.19	7.80	3.42	.00
21-30 Students	9	55.89	6.39		

One-Way ANOVA was calculated to compare the three regular education groups who have the different size of class taught on overall attitudes toward inclusive settings as measure by the STATIC. The three regular education groups were: (1) regular education teachers who have less than 20 students, (2) regular education teachers who have 21-30 students, and (3) regular education teachers who have more than 30 students. A One-Way ANOVA results revealed statistical significance on overall attitudes toward inclusive settings among the three education groups $\{[F(2, 121) = 8.82, p = .00]\}$. The results of that analysis can be found in Table 17.

Table 17

ANOVA Table for Overall Scores on the STATIC of Regular Education Teachers by the Size of Class taught

	SS	df	MS	F	P
Between Groups	2046.36	2	1023.18	8.82	.00
Within Groups	14036.58	121	116.00		
Total	16082.93	123			

Using post-hoc analysis (Tukey HSD analysis), differences were found between regular education teachers with the size of class taught. Results indicated that regular education teachers who have less than 20 students ($M = 57.25$, $SD = 13.78$) in their classes had significantly more positive attitudes toward inclusive settings than did regular education teachers who have 21-30 students ($M = 49.41$, $SD = 11.10$) and more than 30 students ($M = 45.89$, $SD = 9.65$). Regular education teachers who have more than 30 students in their classes showed most negative attitudes toward inclusive settings. Otherwise, there is no difference between regular education teachers who have 21-30 students and regular education teachers who have more than 30 students. Results are available in Table 18.

Table 18

Multiple Comparisons on Overall STATIC Score of Regular Education Teachers by the Size of Class taught

Size of Class	Size of Class	Mean Difference	Standard Error	P
Less than 20 students	21-30 students	7.84	3.07	.03
	More than 30 students	11.36	2.72	.00
21-30 students	Less than 20 students	-7.84	3.07	.03
	More than 30 students	3.52	2.29	.28
More than 30 students	Less than 20 students	-11.36	2.72	.00
	21-30 students	-3.51	2.29	.28

Research Question 5: Do regular and special education teachers significantly differ by gender in their attitudes toward inclusive settings, as measure by “STATIC”?

To describe the overall attitudes of each group based on “gender” and “educational position” toward inclusive settings as measured by the STATIC, means and standard deviations were calculated and can be seen in Table 19 and graphically in Figure 3 and 4

Table 19

Mean Scores and Standard Deviations on the STATIC by Gender and Educational Position

Educational Position	Gender	N	M	SD
Special Educator	Male	37	65.46	7.56
	Female	40	62.85	8.63
	Total	77	64.10	8.19
Regular Educator	Male	45	51.78	10.99
	Female	79	46.83	11.36
	Total	124	48.63	11.43
Total	Male	82	57.95	11.75
	Female	119	52.22	12.95
	Total	201	54.56	12.76

Figure 3

Overall Scores on the STATIC by Gender and Educational Position

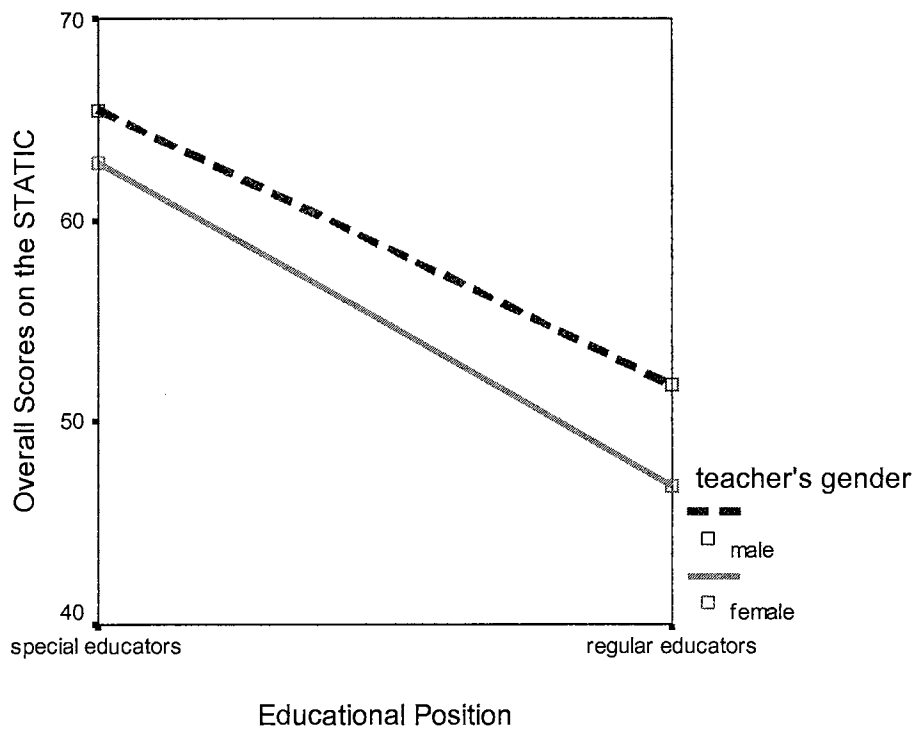


Figure 4

Schematic Diagram of Gender, with Educational Position

		Gender	
		Female	Male
Educational Position	Special Educator	M=62.85 n=40	M=65.46 n=37
	Regular Educator	M=46.83 n=79	M=51.78 n=45

For the Two-Way ANOVA design, gender with two levels; male and female, and educational position with two levels; special education teachers and regular education teachers were the independent variable. The dependent variable was the overall scores on STATIC which represented the perceptions of the inclusion. The results of two-way ANOVA revealed that both gender {[F (1, 197) = 6.354, p = .013]} and educational position {[F (1, 197) = 98.255, p = .000]} significantly influence the overall scores on STATIC. However, the interaction {[F (1, 197) = .606, p = .437]} of gender and educational position did not influence the overall scores on STATIC. Results found that male teachers had significantly more positive opinions about inclusive settings than did female teachers. Female teachers showed more negative attitudes toward inclusive settings. The results of that analysis can be shown in Table 20.

Table 20

Two-Way ANOVA Table for Overall Scores on the STATIC by Gender and Educational Position

Source	SS	df	MS	F	P
Educational Position	10147.19	1	10147.19	98.25	.00
Gender	656.21	1	656.21	6.35	.01
Position * Gender	62.62	1	62.62	.61	.44
Error	20344.93	197	103.27		
Total	630826.00	201			

Research Question 6: Do regular and special education teachers significantly differ by the school districts in their attitudes toward inclusive settings, as measured by “STATIC”?

To describe the overall attitudes of each group based on “school districts” and “educational position” toward inclusive settings as measured by the STATIC means and standard deviations was calculated and can be seen in Table 21.

Table 21

Mean Scores and Standard Deviations on the STATIC by the School districts and Educational Position

Educational Position	School Districts	N	M	SD
Special Educator	Urban	42	64.74	9.16
	Suburban	35	63.34	6.88
	Total	77	64.10	8.19
Regular Educator	Urban	43	46.16	10.55
	Suburban	42	48.93	10.80
	Rural	39	51.02	12.71
	Total	124	48.63	11.43
Total	Urban	85	55.34	13.56
	Suburban	77	55.48	11.67
	Rural	39	51.02	12.71
	Total	201	54.56	12.76

Using Independent-Samples Test (t-Test), no different attitudes toward inclusive settings was found between special education teachers employed in urban setting ($n = 42$, $M = 64.74$, $SD = 9.16$) and regular education teachers employed in suburban local ($n = 35$, $M = 63.34$, $SD = 6.89$). This result did not reach the level of statistical significance [$t(77) = .76, p = .45$]. Table 22 showed the results of the t-Test.

Table 22

Independent-Sample Test (t-Test) for Overall Score on the STATIC of Special Education Teachers by the school districts

School District	N	M	SD	t	p
Urban	42	64.74	9.16	.76	.45
Suburban	35	63..34	6.88		

One-Way ANOVA was calculated to compare the three regular education groups who are employed in the different school districts on overall attitudes toward inclusive settings as measure by the STATIC. The three regular education groups were: (1) regular education teachers employed in urban settings, (2) regular education teachers employed in suburban local, and (3) regular education teachers employed in rural community.

A One-Way ANOVA results revealed no statistical significance on overall attitudes toward inclusive settings among the three education groups $\{[F(2, 121) = 1.90, p = .15]\}$.

The results of that analysis can be found in Table 23.

Table 23

ANOVA Table for Overall Scores on the STATIC of Regular Education Teachers by the School District

	SS	df	MS	F	P
Between Groups	489.31	2	244.66	1.90	.15
Within Groups	15593.62	121	128.87		
Total	16082.93	123			

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter is discussed in the following sections: (1) purpose of the study, (2) explanation and interpretation of findings, (3) conclusions, (4) practical implications for in-service teachers, (5) limitations of the study, and (6) recommendations for future research.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was (1) to investigate the factors that influence the special and regular elementary education teachers' perceptions of inclusion in South Korea and (2) to identify the two educational groups' attitudes toward inclusive settings.

To examine the perceptions of special and regular education teachers attitudes toward inclusion, this study considered several specific questions regarding Korean teachers' perceptions of inclusion. Some of which include, an investigation as to whether the total years of experience teachers reported has significant impact on the factors that influence teacher's perception of inclusion, such as, educational position, teaching assignment, average class size, gender and different geographically located school districts. In addition, this study also investigates the joint effect of variables. The groups were subdivided using additional information; the years of teaching experience/educational position, and gender/educational position.

To examine the factors that influence perception of inclusion, six research questions were quired: (1) Do regular and special education teachers significantly differ in their overall attitudes toward inclusive settings, as measured by "Scale of Teachers' Attitudes toward Inclusive Classroom (STATIC)"? and (2) Do regular and special

education teachers significantly differ by the teaching assignment, (3) years of teaching experience, (4) size of class, (5) gender, and (6) school district in their attitudes toward inclusive settings, as measured by “STATIC”?

Explanation and Interpretation of Findings

This section discusses the major findings of research questions on attitudes toward inclusive settings as participants related to educational position, years of teaching experience, teaching assignment, size of class, gender, and school district.

Research Findings

Findings demonstrated that special education teachers’ attitudes toward inclusive settings were significantly more positive than those of regular education teachers.

Regular education teachers had significantly more negative attitudes toward inclusive settings. This means that educational position, special education and regular education, significantly influences overall attitudes toward inclusive settings.

The four teaching assignment groups were: (1) K-3 special education teachers, (2) 4-6 special education teachers, (3) K-3 regular education teachers, and (4) 4-6 regular education teachers. Results revealed teaching assignment significantly influenced on overall attitudes toward inclusive settings among the four groups. K-3 special education teachers were found to have significantly more positive attitudes than both K-3 and 4-6 regular education teachers. Also, 4-6 special education teachers’ attitudes toward inclusive settings were significantly more positive than those of K-3 and 4-6 regular education teachers. There is a no difference between K-3 and 4-6 special education teachers, and K-3 and 4-6 regular education teachers. However, in the elementary education level, there is a significant difference on the attitudes toward inclusive settings

between special education teachers and regular education teachers.

The years of teaching experience (less than 5 years, 6-10 years, and more than 10 years), and educational position (special education teachers and regular education teachers), differentially influence the overall scores on STATIC. However, the joint effect of the years of teaching experience and educational position on the overall scores on STATIC was not statistically significant. Results indicated that in-service teachers with less than 5 years of teaching experience had significantly more positive attitudes toward inclusive settings than did in-service teachers with 6-10, and more than 10 years of teaching experience. But there was statistically no difference between in-service teachers with 6-10 years of teaching experience and those with more than 10 years of teaching experience.

The findings revealed that special education teachers who have less than 20 students had significantly more positive attitudes toward inclusive settings than did special education teachers who have 21-30 students. And regular education teachers who have the different size of class taught significantly differ in attitudes toward inclusive settings. Results indicated that regular education teachers who have less than 20 students in their classes had significantly more positive attitudes toward inclusive settings than did regular education teachers who have 21-30 students, and those who have more than 30 students. Regular education teachers who have more than 30 students in their classes showed most negative attitudes toward inclusive settings. However, there is no statistical difference toward inclusion between regular education teachers who have 21-30 students and regular education teachers who have more than 30 students.

Both gender and educational position significantly influence the overall scores on

STATIC. However, the interaction of gender and educational position did not influence the overall scores on the STATIC. Results found that male teachers had significantly more positive attitudes about inclusive settings than did female teachers. Female teachers showed more negative attitudes toward inclusion than did male teachers.

The results indicated that the in-service teachers employed in different school districts (urban, suburban, and rural) had no statistically different attitudes toward inclusive settings.

Conclusions

This study attempted to address two educational groups' attitudes toward inclusive settings and factors affecting in-service teachers' perceptions of inclusion in South Korea. Several variables are related to in-service teachers' attitudes toward inclusive settings.

Special education teachers' attitudes toward inclusive settings were significantly more positive than those of regular education teachers. This finding is consistent with previous research that special educators are more positive toward including students with special needs than regular educators (Pearman et al., 1992; Taylor et al., 1997; Werts, 1996; Wolery, 1995; Yasutake & Lerner, 1996).

The negative attitudes of regular education teachers are from the lack of knowledge. Although the reasons for this may vary, one contributing factor is the lack of training in special education (Monahan et al., 1996; Schumm & Vaughn, 1992; Semmel et al., 1991). Even though currently with needs of inclusion, pre-service teacher education programs in South Korea are recognizing that the integration of the two fields (special & regular education) is necessary, pre-service teachers are not required to take

special education classes. Only a few universities with departments of education provide special education classes as elective courses. Due to this reason, regular elementary teachers in South Korea have not had professional knowledge regarding inclusive education, as well as opportunities to experience students with special needs. There is considerable evidence that regular elementary teachers have negative attitudes toward inclusive settings. Much of this negative attitudes results from lack of knowledge and training in special education. In a 1996 study, results indicated that in addition to a lack of preparation, teachers also lacked the desire to teach students with special needs (Vaughn et al., 1996). This lack of preparation to educating students with special needs prompted colleges and universities to implement additional coursework that potential in-graduates from the disciplines of both special and regular education must complete. Therefore, for successful inclusion it is most important that sufficient inclusive education programs are required of all pre-service teachers.

Teaching assignment significantly influences overall attitudes toward inclusive settings. But there is no difference between K-3 and 4-6 special education teachers and between K-3 and 4-6 regular education teachers. On the elementary education level, there is a significant effect on the attitudes toward inclusive settings, not by grade level but by educational position.

This study found that in-service teachers with five or fewer years of experience had more positive attitudes toward inclusive settings than those with 6-10, or more than 10 years of experience. These results are consistent with previous research (Center, 1993; Tallent, 1986) that teachers with one to five years of experience had more positive attitudes toward inclusion than teachers with more than 10 years

In-service teachers who have less than 20 students in their classes had more positive attitudes toward inclusive settings than did in-service teachers who have more than 20 students. It is indicated that smaller classes are better for in-service teachers to implement inclusion. In smaller classes, in-service teachers can devote more individual attention to each student, and the implementation of an adaptive curriculum.

This study also found that male teachers had more positive attitudes about inclusive settings than did female teachers. Female teachers showed more negative attitudes toward inclusion. This fails to support previous research by Pearman et al. (1999), which found that male teachers had significantly more negative opinions about inclusion than did female teachers.

This study was unable to address differences between in-service teachers employed to different school districts. This result contradicts previous research by Raj (2002) which suggested that in-service teachers in rural school districts had more positive attitudes toward the practice of inclusion than teachers in suburban school districts.

Furthermore, this study was unable to suggest that the joint effects of educational position/years of experience, and educational position/gender did influence attitudes toward inclusion.

Overall, this study supported that many regular education teacher's attitudes toward inclusive settings are generally negative. These teachers seem to be ill-prepared to provide the necessary accommodations and changes required for students with special needs to be educated in regular education classrooms. Such negative attitudes reflect attitudes historically taken by many toward students with disabilities in general (Cochran, 1998). Without systematic changes and sufficient in-service and pre-service training

programs, the limitations that will inherently be placed on students with disabilities will inhibit successful implementation. Thus, regular education teachers' attitudes are critical, not only to successful inclusion, but to the success of students with disabilities.

Otherwise, most special education teachers' attitudes toward inclusive settings are comparatively positive. This means that they could provide positive leadership in enhancing inclusion of students with disabilities and continue to take the lead in activities such as child study, consulting with parents, and offering individual intense instruction to students in need (Reynolds, 1989).

Even though special education in South Korea has greatly made an advance both in significant increase of institutions and quality of educational services, successful inclusion is still an ongoing challenge to satisfy the needs of all students. Various in-service and pre-service teacher training programs should be developed for appropriate inclusive education. Teachers with sufficient experience and training in the practice of inclusion, as well as expertise in education, would be more positive about the implementation of inclusion.

Practical Implications for In-Service Teachers

In-service teachers with less than five years of experience or fewer years of experience had more positive attitudes toward inclusion than teachers with more than 5 years of experience. This implies that additional in-service teacher education programs for in-service teachers with more than 5 years of experience are regularly needed to facilitate more positive attitudes regarding the inclusion of students with special needs. In-service training programs should provide training in the following areas; (a) classroom management, (b) collaboration, consultation, and team teaching, (c) adaptation of

instructional materials and teaching techniques, (d) cognitive development and learning theory, (e) individual differences, (f) curriculum modification, (g) multidisciplinary team interaction, and (h) cultural diversity. It will help teachers to feel effective in inclusive classrooms if they had opportunities to experience some success in inclusive settings through training and education (Buell et al., 1995).

What are some ways regular and special education teachers can work together effectively in inclusive settings? In response to the call for inclusion in South Korea several service delivery models have been suggested and developed. Most of these practices are still in the experimental stages and there is not a wealth of evidence indicating their effectiveness. Models of collaboration between regular and special education teachers have been shown to be the key to successful inclusion of students with special needs into the regular education classroom in the United States (Wood, 2002). Inclusion of students with special needs into the same class has brought about teams of regular and special education teachers working collaboratively or cooperatively to combine their professional knowledge, perspectives, and skills. Regular and special education teachers share goals, decisions, classroom instruction, responsibility for students, assessment of student learning, problem solving, and classroom management in the same classroom. The primary responsibility of regular education teachers is to instruct students in curricular dictated by the school system; the primary responsibility of special education teachers is to provide instruction by adapting and developing materials to match the learning styles, strengths, and special needs of each of their students. Successful collaboration involves time, support, resources, monitoring, and persistence. Planning for effective cooperation should take place at the district, building, and

classroom levels. In addition, education on collaborative skills, teaching techniques, subject areas, disability, individualization, and accommodation should be incorporated into all teacher preparation and professional development programs. Wood (2002) recommended the following two models of collaboration; (1) collaborative consultation, and (2) cooperative teaching.

Collaborative consultation is an approach in which a special educator and a regular educator collaborate to come up with teaching strategies for a student with disabilities (Hallahan & Kauffman, 1997). In this model, the special education teacher acts as an expert in providing advice to the regular education teacher. This approach stresses mutuality and reciprocity: “Mutuality means shared ownership of common issue or problem by professionals. Reciprocity means allowing these parties to have equal access to information and the opportunity to participate in problem identification, discussion, decision making, and all final outcomes” (West & Idol, 1990, p.23). The special education teacher may see the student with disabilities in a resource room, or the student may receive all of his or her instruction in the regular education class. The relationship between the two professionals is based on the premises of shared responsibility and equal authority.

Known as co-teaching, cooperative teaching is a model for integrating students with special needs into the regular education classroom (Wood, 2002). In cooperative teaching, regular educators and special educators jointly teach in the same regular education classroom composed of students with and without disabilities. The critical feature is that the educators simultaneously teach for a planned and scheduled part of the instructional day (Hourcade & Bauwens, 2001). The essence of cooperative teaching is

that all educators are responsible for all students. The regular educator assumes primary responsibility for instruction of academic content, while the special educator teaches academic survival skills, such as note taking and organizing homework assignments. A distinct advantage is the opportunity for co-teachers to combine their individual strengths and expertise to address particular student's needs.

Limitations of the Study

One limitation of this study is using a questionnaire survey. Responses to the questionnaire may be limited by the bias associated with the participant's knowledge of the purpose of the survey, and individual perception concerning socially desirable attitudes (Dawes, 1988).

Another limitation involves sampling procedure which was utilized. The participants were restricted to a certain area, the southeastern parts of South Korea. It could represent limit characteristics of regular elementary education teachers in South Korea and the attitudes of participants employed at these schools may differ from those who do not. Therefore, this may not generalize to the entire population of regular elementary education teachers in South Korea. Future studies should attempt to utilize a sample more representative of the entire school system. As a result, generalization related to this study should be approached with caution until further research is completed.

Recommendations of Future Research

Qualitative research would be particularly helpful in understanding the nature of educators' attitudes toward inclusive settings. Future qualitative research could also be utilized to identify additional variables that are likely to affect attitudes toward inclusive

settings.

Future research in the area of inclusion may be considered to investigate pre-service teachers,' school administrators,' school staff' attitudes toward inclusion, and other factors such as level of education, self-rating of confidence in ability to teach students with disability, teacher knowledge of special education, and availability of special education support which affect attitudes toward inclusion.

Furthermore, additional research on secondary in-service teachers' attitudes toward inclusive setting is needed. This research is important to secondary in-service teachers who are currently working and will continue to work with students receiving special education services in the regular education classroom. However, little research has been conducted to assess secondary in-service teachers' attitudes toward inclusion in South Korea.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A
SCALE OF TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TOWARD
INCLUSIVE CLASSROOM (STATIC)

Scale of Teachers' Attitudes Toward Inclusive Classrooms
H. Keith Cochran, Ph.D.
1999

Directions:

The purpose of this instrument is to obtain information about your attitude toward the inclusion of students with special needs in regular education classrooms. There are no correct or incorrect answers. Your responses are completely autonomous and confidential. You should mark your response to each item on the computer scan sheet provided. Also, please adhere to the simple guidelines below when completing your response sheet.

In the Identification Number section, provide the information to items letter A-I. Be sure to fill in the circle containing the number corresponding to your response

- A. In the **IDENTIFICATION NUMBER** section of the answer sheet, under **Column A**, fill in the number corresponding to your gender
0. Male 1. Female
- B. In the **IDENTIFICATION NUMBER** section of the answer sheet, fill in the response under **Column B** that Best describes the location of your teaching assignment for this year.
0. Urban (100,000 or more) 2. Community (5,000-29,999)
1. Suburban (30,000-99,999) 3. Rural (less than 5,000)
- C. In the **IDENTIFICATION NUMBER** section of the answer sheet, fill in the response under **Column C** that Best identifies your teaching assignment this year.
0. Elementary (K - 3) - Special Education
1. Elementary (4 - 6) - Special Education
2. Elementary (K - 3) - Regular Education
3. Elementary (4 - 6) - Regular Education
- D. In the **IDENTIFICATION NUMBER** section of the answer sheet, fill in the response under **Column D** that identifies the total number of years you have taught.
0. 0-5 years
1. 6-10 years
2. More than 10 years
- E. Under **Column E**, fill in the response that best describes your average class size.
0. 1- 20 Students
1. 21- 30 Students
2. More than 30 students

- F. Under **Column F**, fill in the response that identifies the highest degree that you have earned
0. Bachelor's Degree
 1. Master's Degree
 2. Doctor of Education
 3. Doctor of Philosophy
- G. Under **Column G**, fill in the response corresponding to the number of students that are included in your classroom **this year** who have been identified as special education students.
0. 0 Students
 1. 1 Student
 2. 2-3 Students
 3. 4-5 Students
 4. More than 5 Students
- H. Under **Column H**, fill in the response corresponding to the number of students that are included in your classroom **in the past years** who have been identified as special education students.
0. 0 Students
 1. 1 Student
 2. 2-3 Students
 3. 4-5 Students
 4. More than 5 Students
- I. Under **Column I**, fill in the number corresponding to the statement that best describes you.
0. I do not have a child with special needs living in my home.
 1. I do have a child with special needs living in my home. (*If you come from a family where there is a person with special needs, mark this option*).

Now, go to the block section of your answer sheet numbered 1-20. After reading each item, decide how you would react. Rate your reaction using the scale below as your guide to describe the extent you believe best describes your attitudes. Answer any items that do not specifically define the type of disability or special need of a student with the response that best describes your general perception of a student with a disability or special need.

- 0. Disagree**
 - 1. Not sure, but Tend to Disagree**
 - 2. Strongly Disagree**
 - 3. Not sure, but Tend to Agree**
 - 4. Agree**
 - 5. Strongly Agree**
-

1. I am confident in my ability to teach children with special needs.
2. I have been adequately trained to meet the needs of children with disabilities.
3. I become easily frustrated when teaching students with special needs.
4. I become anxious when I learn that a student with special needs will be my classroom.
5. Although children differ intellectually, physically, and psychologically, I believe that all children can learn in most environments.
6. I believe that academic progress is possible in children with special needs.
7. I believe that children with special needs should be placed in special education classes.
8. I am comfortable teaching a child that is moderately physically disabled.
9. I have problems teaching a student with cognitive deficits.
10. I can adequately handle students with mild to moderate behavioral problems.
11. Students with special needs learn social skills that are molded by regular education students.
12. Students with special needs have higher academic achievements when included in the regular education classroom.
13. It is difficult for children with special needs to make strides in academic achievements in the regular education classroom.
14. Self-esteem of children with special needs is increased when included in the regular education classroom.
15. Students with special needs in the regular education classroom hinder the academic progress of the regular education student.
16. Special inservice training in teaching special needs students should be required for all regular education teachers.
17. I don't mind making special physical arrangements in my room to meet the needs of students with special needs.
18. Adaptive materials and equipment are easily acquired for meeting the needs of students with special needs.
19. My principal is supportive in making needed accommodations for teaching children with special needs.
20. Students with special needs should be included in regular education classrooms.

APPENDIX B

SCALE OF TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TOWARD
INCLUSIVE CLASSROOM (Korean Version)

두 번째 부분은 20 문항으로 이루어져 있습니다. 각 문항을 읽으신 후, 통합교육에 관한 선생님의 태도를 가장 잘 표현한 스케일(척도, 단계)을 고르시면 됩니다. 아래에서 보시는 대로 스케일은 0-5로 구성되어 있습니다.

- 0: 매우 동의 하지 않는다
- 1: 동의 하지 않는다
- 2: 확실히게는 아니지만 동의하지 않는 편이다
- 3: 확실히게는 아니지만 동의하는 편이다
- 4: 동의한다
- 5: 매우 동의한다

1. 나는 특수 교육 대상 아동들을 가르칠 수 있는 능력이 있다고 확신한다.
2. 나는 장애 아동들의 필요와 요구들을 충족 시킬 수 있도록 적절하게 교육(연수) 받고 있다.
3. 나는 특수 교육 대상 학생들을 가르칠 때 쉽게 좌절한다.
4. 나는 특수 교육 대상 학생이 나의 반 학생이 될 것이라는 것을 알게 될 때 걱정스러워 진다.
5. 아동들이 지적적으로나, 육체적으로나, 그리고 심리학적으로 다를 지라도, 나는 모든 아동들은 서로 서로가 함께하는 주위의 환경에서 배울 수 있다고 믿는다.
6. 나는 특수 교육 대상 아동들이 학문적으로 향상 되리라고 믿는다.
7. 나는 특수 교육 대상 아동들은 특수 학교 학급에 지정되어야 한다고 믿는다.
8. 나는 중도 지체 장애 아동을 가르치는데 익숙하다.
9. 나는 인지적으로 부족한 학생을 가르치는데 어려움이 있다.
10. 나는 경도(Mild) & 중도(Moderate) 행동 장애 학생들을 적절하게 다룰 수 있다.
11. 특수 교육 대상 학생들은 일반 학생들과 사귀면서 사회성을 배울 수 있다.
12. 특수 교육 대상 학생들은 일반 학급에서 교육 받으면 학업 성취도가 높아진다.
13. 특수 교육 대상 아동들이 일반 학급에서 교육 받으면 학업 성취도 향상이 어렵다.
14. 특수 교육 대상 아동들의 자부심(자존심)은 일반 학급에 통합되었을 때 향상된다.
15. 특수 교육 대상 학생들이 일반 학급에 통합되었을 때 일반 학생들의 학업 발달을 저해한다.
16. 모든 일반 학급 선생님들은 특수 교육 대상 아동을 가르침에 있어서 교원 연수를 필수적으로 이수 해야 한다.
17. 나는 특수 교육 대상 아동들의 요구에 따라 교실을 새롭게 배치하는 것에 대해 개의치 않는다.
18. 특수 대상 학생들의 요구를 충족 시키기 위한 적절한 교재와 교구들은 쉽게 구할 수 있다.
19. 나의 교장 선생님은 특수 교육 대상 아동들을 위해 필요한 조정과 조절들을 지원하신다.
20. 특수 교육 대상 학생들은 반드시 일반 학급에 통합되어서 교육 받아야 한다.

APPENDIX C
LETTER OF INFORMED CONSENT

Letter of Informed Consent

Dear Participant:

I am conducting this study to gather information about teachers' attitudes towards inclusive settings. I am particularly interested in the differences in attitudes, if any, between regular and special education teachers. This comparison of attitudes will hopefully lead to a better understanding of the perceptions of educators for inclusion, and the importance of both in-service and pre-service teacher education programs.

Enclosed is a copy of the Scale of Teachers' Attitudes Toward Inclusive Classroom (STATIC) survey, directions and of a "bubble sheet" to record your responses.

If you agree to participate in this study, your responses will be kept strictly **CONFIDENTIAL** and **ANONYMOUS**. Your name will not be associated with the research notes. The research notes will be destroyed one year after the collection of the data and will be anonymous. The administration of the survey will take approximately 10 to 15 minutes. There are no risks involved. The participation in this study is completely voluntary. You have the option to withdraw your consent and participation in this project at anytime without penalty after notifying the project director.

Questions about this research can be directed to Yongsoo Park at 73. S. Univ. Pl #4, Stillwater, OK, 74075, phone: (405) 332-3029, email: ysp9768@hotmail.com, and University Research Compliance Sharon Bacher at 415 Whitehurst, Stillwater, OK 74078, (405) 744-5700; email sbacher@okstate.edu. Both of these addresses are located on the campus of Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, OK in the 405 area code. This information is also printed on an attached sheet that is yours to keep.

If you agree to participate in this study, please read and sign the statement at the bottom of this page. The completion of this form will give us permission to proceed with the study and utilize your responses for our research.

Thank you for your cooperation,

Yongsoo Park, Doctoral Student at Oklahoma State University

I understand that participation is voluntary; that there is no penalty for refusal to participate, and that I am free to withdraw my consent to participate in this project at any time without penalty.

I have read and fully understand the consent form. I sign it freely and voluntarily.

Date: _____ Time: _____

Singed: _____

(Signature of Participant)

APPENDIX D
LETTER OF INFORMED CONSENT
(Korean Version)

연구 동의서

교육 일선에서 수고하시는 선생님께,

안녕하십니까? 저는 오클라호마 주립대 (Oklahoma State University) 교육 심리학과 (특수교육 심화과정) 박사 과정에서 공부하고 있는 박 용수라고 합니다. 졸업을 앞두고 “A Comparative Study of Teacher’s Attitude toward Inclusive Settings between Regular and Special Education teachers in South Korea (한국의 통합교육 환경에 대한 일반 교사와 특수교육 교사의 태도에 관한 비교 연구)” 라는 제목 하에 졸업 논문을 준비하는 중입니다. 이 논문은 통합교육에 관한 인식의 이해, 교사 연수 프로그램과 예비교사 교육 프로그램의 중요성을 이해 하는데 기여 하기 위해 계획된 것입니다.

선생님께서 답하시게 될 설문지 (검사도구)는 Cochran 박사의 “Scale of Teachers’ Attitudes Toward Inclusive Classroom” 입니다.

선생님께서 이 설문지에 응답하신다면, 그 결과는 철저히 비밀이 보장되며 익명으로 처리됩니다. 선생님의 이름 또한 언급되지 않을 것입니다. 설문지를 작성하시는 데는 약 10 분 에서 15 분 정도가 소요될 것입니다. 이 설문지 참여는 어떠한 위험도 없으며 자발적인 참여임을 알려 드립니다. 선생님께서서는 언제라도 이 설문지 응답을 거부 하실 수 있습니다

이 연구에 관한 질문 사항이 있으시면 저에게 전화 (1-405-332-3029)나 이메일 (ysp9768@hotmail.com)로 문의하시거나 오클라호마 주립대 연구 담당인 Sharon Bacher에게 전화 (1-405-744-5700)나 이메일 (sbacher@okstate.edu)로 문의 하여 주십시오.

선생님께서 이 설문지에 참여 하신다면 아래에 서명해 주십시오. 선생님의 서명은 제가 이 연구를 진행할 수 있다는 동의를 나타내는 것입니다.

선생님의 성의에 감사 드립니다.

박 용수 올림

나는 이 설문지에 자발적으로 참여할 수도 있고, 자유롭게 설문지 응답을 거부 할 수도 있다. 이에 어떠한 불이익과 불편이 없음을 인정한다. 나는 충분히 이 연구 동의서를 읽고 이해하기에 자발적이고 자유롭게 설문조사에 참여한다.

날짜: _____ 시간: _____

서명: _____

APPENDIX E
PER ITEM FREQUENCY DISTRIBUTION
FOR THE STATIC

Per Item Frequency Distribution Table for the STATIC

Item 1: I am confident in my ability to teach children with special needs

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	8	4.0	4.0	4.0
Disagree	36	17.9	17.9	21.9
Not sure, but tend to Disagree	29	14.4	14.4	36.3
Not sure, but tend to Agree	54	26.9	26.9	63.2
Agree	62	30.8	30.8	94.0
Strongly Agree	12	6.0	6.0	100.0
Total	201	100.0	100.0	

Item 2: I have been adequately trained to meet the needs of children with disabilities

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	28	13.9	13.9	13.9
Disagree	36	17.9	17.9	31.8
Not sure, but tend to Disagree	31	15.4	15.4	47.3
Not sure, but tend to Agree	39	19.4	19.4	66.7
Agree	61	30.3	30.3	97.0
Strongly Agree	6	3.0	3.0	100.0
Total	201	100.0	100.0	

Item 3: I become easily frustrated when teaching students with special needs.

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	6	3.0	3.0	3.0
Disagree	53	26.4	26.4	29.4
Not sure, but tend to Disagree	48	23.9	23.9	53.3
Not sure, but tend to Agree	48	23.9	23.9	77.2
Agree	43	21.4	21.4	98.5
Strongly Agree	3	1.5	1.5	100.0
Total	201	100.0	100.0	

Item 4: I become anxious when teaching students with special needs

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	27	13.4	13.4	13.4
Disagree	48	23.9	23.9	37.3
Not sure, but tend to Disagree	33	16.4	16.4	53.7
Not sure, but tend to Agree	38	18.9	18.9	72.6
Agree	48	23.9	23.9	96.5
Strongly Agree	7	3.5	3.5	100.0
Total	201	100.0	100.0	

Item 5: Although children differ intellectually, physically, and psychologically, I believe that all children can learn in most environment

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	2	1.0	1.0	1.0
Disagree	9	4.5	4.5	5.5
Not sure, but tend to Disagree	15	7.5	7.5	12.9
Not sure, but tend to Agree	38	18.9	18.9	31.8
Agree	102	50.7	50.7	82.6
Strongly Agree	35	17.4	17.4	100.0
Total	201	100.0	100.0	

Item 6: I believe that academic progress is possible in children with special needs

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	1	.5	.5	.5
Disagree	8	4.0	4.0	4.5
Not sure, but tend to Disagree	36	17.9	17.9	22.4
Not sure, but tend to Agree	79	39.3	39.3	61.7
Agree	62	30.8	30.8	92.5
Strongly Agree	15	7.5	7.5	100.0
Total	201	100.0	100.0	

Item 7: I believe that children with special needs should be placed in special classes

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	2	1.0	1.0	1.0
Disagree	36	17.9	17.9	18.9
Not sure, but tend to Disagree	36	17.9	17.9	36.8
Not sure, but tend to Agree	51	25.4	25.4	62.2
Agree	62	30.8	30.8	93.0
Strongly Agree	14	7.0	7.0	100.0
Total	201	100.0	100.0	

Item 8: I am comfortable teaching a child that is moderately physically disabled

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	30	14.9	14.9	14.9
Disagree	49	24.4	24.4	39.3
Not sure, but tend to Disagree	46	22.9	22.9	62.2
Not sure, but tend to Agree	40	19.9	19.9	82.1
Agree	27	13.4	13.4	95.5
Strongly Agree	9	4.5	4.5	100.0
Total	201	100.0	100.0	

Item 9: I have problems teaching s student with cognitive deficits

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	8	4.0	4.0	4.0
Disagree	28	13.9	13.9	17.9
Not sure, but tend to Disagree	34	16.9	16.9	34.8
Not sure, but tend to Agree	62	30.8	30.8	65.6
Agree	57	28.4	28.4	94
Strongly Agree	12	6.0	6.0	100.0
Total	201	100.0	100.0	

Item 10: I can adequately handle students with mild to moderate behavioral problems

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	12	6.0	6.0	6.0
Disagree	43	21.4	21.4	27.4
Not sure, but tend to Disagree	35	17.4	17.4	44.8
Not sure, but tend to Agree	46	22.9	22.9	67.7
Agree	51	25.4	25.4	93.0
Strongly Agree	14	7.0	7.0	100.0
Total	201	100.0	100.0	

Item 11: Students with special needs learn social skills that are more modeled by regular education students

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	0	0	0	0
Disagree	1	.5	.5	.5
Not sure, but tend to Disagree	10	5.0	5.0	5.5
Not sure, but tend to Agree	49	24.4	24.4	29.9
Agree	108	53.7	53.7	83.6
Strongly Agree	33	16.4	16.4	100.0
Total	201	100	100	

Item 12: Students with special needs have higher academic achievements when included in the regular education classroom

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	12	6.0	6.0	6.0
Disagree	26	12.9	12.9	18.9
Not sure, but tend to Disagree	47	23.4	23.4	42.3
Not sure, but tend to Agree	75	37.3	37.3	79.6
Agree	36	17.9	17.9	97.5
Strongly Agree	5	2.5	2.5	100.0
Total	201	100.0	100.0	

Item 13: It is difficult for children with special needs to make strides in academic achievement in the regular education classroom

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	0	0	0	0
Disagree	29	14.4	14.4	14.4
Not sure, but tend to Disagree	49	24.4	24.4	38.8
Not sure, but tend to Agree	66	32.8	32.8	71.6
Agree	46	22.9	22.9	94.5
Strongly Agree	11	5.5	5.5	100.0
Total	201	100	100	

Item 14: Self-esteem of children with special needs is increased when included in the regular education classroom

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	6	3.0	3.0	3.0
Disagree	42	20.9	20.9	23.9
Not sure, but tend to Disagree	49	24.4	24.4	48.3
Not sure, but tend to Agree	52	25.9	25.9	74.1
Agree	48	23.9	23.9	98.0
Strongly Agree	4	2.0	2.0	100.0
Total	201	100.0	100.0	

Item 15: Students with special needs in the regular education classroom hinder the academic progress of the regular education student

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	8	4.0	4.0	4.0
Disagree	44	21.9	21.9	25.9
Not sure, but tend to Disagree	52	25.9	25.9	51.8
Not sure, but tend to Agree	59	29.4	29.4	81.2
Agree	29	14.4	14.4	96.6
Strongly Agree	9	4.5	4.5	100.0
Total	201	100.0	100.0	

Item 16: Special inservice training in teaching special needs students should be required for all regular education teachers

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	1	.5	.5	.5
Disagree	3	1.5	1.5	2.0
Not sure, but tend to Disagree	14	7.0	7.0	9.0
Not sure, but tend to Agree	26	12.9	12.9	21.9
Agree	72	35.8	35.8	57.7
Strongly Agree	85	42.3	42.3	100.0
Total	201	100.0	100.0	

Item 17: I don't mind making special physical arrangements in my room to meet the needs of students with special needs

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	6	3.0	3.0	3.0
Disagree	17	8.5	8.5	11.4
Not sure, but tend to Disagree	38	18.9	18.9	30.3
Not sure, but tend to Agree	54	26.9	26.9	57.2
Agree	67	33.3	33.3	90.5
Strongly Agree	19	9.5	9.5	100.0
Total	201	100.0	100.0	

Item 18: Adaptive materials and equipment are easily acquired for meeting the needs of students with special needs

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	15	7.5	7.5	7.5
Disagree	37	18.4	18.4	25.9
Not sure, but tend to Disagree	70	34.8	34.8	60.7
Not sure, but tend to Agree	47	23.4	23.4	84.1
Agree	28	13.9	13.9	98.0
Strongly Agree	4	2.0	2.0	100.0
Total	201	100.0	100.0	

Item 19: My principal is supportive in making needed accommodations for teaching children with special needs

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	9	4.5	4.5	4.5
Disagree	32	15.9	15.9	20.4
Not sure, but tend to Disagree	62	30.8	30.8	51.2
Not sure, but tend to Agree	44	21.9	21.9	73.1
Agree	43	21.4	21.4	94.5
Strongly Agree	11	5.5	5.5	100.0
Total	201	100.0	100.0	

Item 20: Students with special needs should be included in regular education classrooms

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	5	2.5	2.5	2.5
Disagree	46	22.9	22.9	25.4
Not sure, but tend to Disagree	47	23.4	23.4	48.8
Not sure, but tend to Agree	55	27.4	27.4	76.1
Agree	35	17.4	17.4	93.5
Strongly Agree	13	6.5	6.5	100.0
Total	201	100.0	100.0	

APPENDIX F
MEAN AND STANDARD DEVIATION
OF EACH ITEM ON THE STATIC

Mean and Standard Deviation of each Item on the STATIC

Item #	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Maximum	Minimum
1	201	2.80	1.32	5.00	.00
2	201	2.43	1.50	5.00	.00
3	201	2.61	1.21	5.00	.00
4	201	2.74	1.47	5.00	.00
5	201	3.66	1.06	5.00	.00
6	201	3.18	.98	5.00	.00
7	201	2.12	1.25	5.00	.00
8	201	2.06	1.41	5.00	.00
9	201	2.16	1.26	5.00	.00
10	201	2.61	1.40	5.00	.00
11	201	3.81	.79	5.00	1.00
12	201	2.56	1.17	5.00	.00
13	201	2.19	1.11	4.00	.00
14	201	2.53	1.20	5.00	.00
15	201	2.58	1.22	5.00	.00
16	201	4.09	1.02	5.00	.00
17	201	3.07	1.23	5.00	.00
18	201	2.24	1.18	5.00	.00
18	201	2.56	1.26	5.00	.00
20	201	2.54	1.26	5.00	.00
Total Sum	201	54.56	12.76	88.00	21.00

APPENDIX G

The Descriptive Analysis of STATIC

The Descriptive Analysis of STATIC

Participants' responses on the STATIC were scored according to the procedures outlined by Cochran (1999), which was described in detail in the chapter 3 (p.37). Scores on the STATIC range from a low of 0 to a high of 100. Higher scores on the STATIC reflect more positive attitudes or perceptions of the practice of inclusive settings. Participants who scored lower on the scale, tended to hold less positive or more negative attitudes of perceptions of inclusive settings.

An examination of the responses the participants gave to each question may be useful in the analysis of the data. It should be noted that a total of 232 surveys were distributed; however, 201 were collected and utilized in this study. All 201 collected instruments were answered completely according to the researcher's specifications. The possible responses were strongly disagree (0), disagree (1), not sure but tend to disagree (2), not sure but tend to agree (3), agree (4), and strongly agree (5). The descriptive analysis of the Korean version of STATIC in details can be seen in Appendix E.

Among the 20 survey items (STATIC), participants showed significantly more positive opinions on item 5, 11, and 16, than other items. This indicates that in-service teachers in South Korea agree the advantage of inclusive education and the importance of in-service teacher education programs in teaching students with special needs.

Item 5, "Although children differ intellectually, physically, and psychologically, I believe that all children can learn in most environments," had a total of 201 responses. 2 participants, or 1.0% responded "strongly disagree"; 9 participants, or 4.5% responded "disagree"; 15 participants, or 7.5% responded "not sure but tend to disagree"; 38 participants, or 18.9% responded "not sure but tend to agree"; 102 participants, or 50.7%

responded “agree”; and 35 participants, or 17.4% responded “strongly agree.”

Item 11, “Students with special needs learn social skills that are more molded by regular education students,” had a total of 201 responses. 1 participants, or .5% responded “disagree”; 10 participants, or 5.0% responded “not sure but tend to disagree”; 49 participants, or 24.4% responded “not sure but tend to agree”; 108 participants, or 53.7% responded “agree”; and 33 participants, or 16.4% responded “strongly agree.” No in-service teachers indicated “strongly disagree.”

Item 16, “Special in-service training in teaching special needs students should be required for all regular education teachers,” had a total of 201 responses. 1 participant, or .5% responded “strongly disagree”; 3 participants, or 1.5% responded “disagree”; 14 participants, or 7.0% responded “not sure but tend to disagree”; 26 participants, or 12.9% responded “not sure but tend to agree”; 72 participants, or 35.8% responded “agree”; and 85 participants, or 42.3% responded “strongly agree.”

Otherwise, participants responded more negatively to items 7, 8, 9, and 13, than other items. This implies that those negative responses are based on the lack of professional knowledge and philosophical background regarding inclusive education and opportunities to experience children with special needs. Additionally, it takes for granted that when in-service teachers have had sufficient training and education through both in-service and pre-service teachers programs, they can provide successful inclusion to all students.

Item 7, “I believe that children with special needs should be placed in special classes,” had a total of 201 responses. 2 participant, or 1.0% responded “strongly disagree”; 36 participants, or 17.9% responded “disagree”; 36 participants, or 17.9%

responded “not sure but tend to disagree”; 51 participants, or 25.4% responded “not sure but tend to agree”; 62 participants, or 30.8% responded “agree”; and 14 participants, or 7.0% responded “strongly agree.”

Item 8, “I am comfortable teaching a child that is moderately physically disabled,” had a total of 201 responses. 30 participant, or 14.9% responded “strongly disagree”; 49 participants, or 24.4% responded “disagree”; 46 participants, or 22.9% responded “not sure but tend to disagree”; 40 participants, or 19.9% responded “not sure but tend to agree”; 27 participants, or 13.4% responded “agree”; and 9 participants, or 4.5% responded “strongly agree.”

Item 9, “I have problems teaching a student with cognitive deficits,” had a total of 201 responses. 8 participant, or 4.0% responded “strongly disagree”; 28 participants, or 13.9% responded “disagree”; 34 participants, or 16.9% responded “not sure but tend to disagree”; 62 participants, or 30.8% responded “not sure but tend to agree”; 57 participants, or 28.4% responded “agree”; and 12 participants, or 6.0% responded “strongly agree.”

Item 13, “It is difficult for children with special needs to make strides in academic achievement in the regular education classroom,” had a total of 201 responses. 29 participants, or 14.4% responded “disagree”; 49 participants, or 24.4% responded “not sure but tend to disagree”; 66 participants, or 32.8% responded “not sure but tend to agree”; 46 participants, or 22.9% responded “agree”; and 11 participants, or 5.5% responded “strongly agree.” None indicated “strongly disagree.”

APPENDIX H
INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD
APPROVAL FORM

Oklahoma State University
Institutional Review Board

Protocol Expires: 5/28/2004

Date: Monday, June 09, 2003

IRB Application No ED03131

Proposal Title: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF ATTITUDES TOWARD INCLUSIVE SETTINGS
BETWEEN REGULAR AND SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHERS IN SOUTH KOREA

Principal
Investigator(s):

Yongsoo Park
73 S. University Place, #4
Stillwater, OK 74075

Pauline Holloway
442 Willard
Stillwater, OK 74078

Reviewed and
Processed as: Exempt

Approval Status Recommended by Reviewer(s): Approved

Dear PI :

Your IRB application referenced above has been approved for one calendar year. Please make note of the expiration date indicated above. It is the judgment of the reviewers that the rights and welfare of individuals who may be asked to participate in this study will be respected, and that the research will be conducted in a manner consistent with the IRB requirements as outlined in section 45 CFR 46.

As Principal Investigator, it is your responsibility to do the following:

1. Conduct this study exactly as it has been approved. Any modifications to the research protocol must be submitted with the appropriate signatures for IRB approval.
2. Submit a request for continuation if the study extends beyond the approval period of one calendar year. This continuation must receive IRB review and approval before the research can continue.
3. Report any adverse events to the IRB Chair promptly. Adverse events are those which are unanticipated and impact the subjects during the course of this research; and
4. Notify the IRB office in writing when your research project is complete.

Please note that approved projects are subject to monitoring by the IRB. If you have questions about the IRB procedures or need any assistance from the Board, please contact Sharon Bacher, the Executive Secretary to the IRB, in 415 Whitehurst (phone: 405-744-5700, sbacher@okstate.edu).

Sincerely,



Carol Olson, Chair
Institutional Review Board

APPENDIX H
PERMISSION TO UTILIZE STATIC



Missouri Southern State College

May 2, 2003

Yong Soo Park
73 S University Place, Suite 4
Stillwater, OK 74075

Dear Mr. Park,

Thank you for your inquiry about the *Scale of Teachers' Attitudes Toward Inclusive Classrooms (STATIC)*. I have enclosed with this letter a copy of the most recent copyrighted version of the *STATIC* to date and a scoring key for your use. Additionally, you will find a summary of the development of the *STATIC*. It will provide for you an abbreviated explanation of the psychometric properties of the *STATIC*.

You may reproduce the *STATIC* for use in your research project(s) on inclusion. The only requirements that I have for the use of the instrument is that you: (1) ascribe authorship to me *on the instrument*, and acknowledge me as the author of the instrument, using one of the citations below, in any publication that may arise from your use of it; and (2) request permission for each major use of the instrument beyond its use in your present research project (*just a simple way of helping me know how and where it is being used*). You may make changes to the demographical data you choose to collect or the instructions for collecting the demographic data to meet the needs of your particular study. However, the 20 items specific to inclusion must remain intact as originally published.

Good luck with your research! Please call or write if I can assist you further.

Sincerely,

Keith Cochran
by PB
H. Keith Cochran, Ph.D.
Department of Psychology
3950 East Newman Road
Joplin, Missouri 64801
cochran-k@mail.mssc.edu

Appropriate citations:

Cochran, H. K. (1998). Differences in teachers' attitudes toward inclusive education as measured by the Scale of Teachers' Attitudes Toward Inclusive Classrooms. Paper presented at the annual meeting of the Mid-western Educational Research Association, Chicago, IL.

Cochran, H. K. (1997). The development and psychometric analysis of the Scale of Teachers' Attitudes Toward Inclusion (STATIC). Doctoral dissertation, The University of Alabama, Tuscaloosa.

VITA



Yongsoo Park

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF ATTITUDES TOWARD INCLUSIVE
SETTINGS BETWEEN REGULAR AND SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHERS
IN SOUTH KOREA

Major Field: Educational Psychology

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Bongwha, Korea, On January 7, 1970, the son of Jongman Park and Hyunjoo Hwang

Education: Received Bachelor of Arts degree in Christian Education in February 1997 from Presbyterian College and Theological Seminary, Seoul, Korea; Received Master of Science degree in Applied Behavioral Studies (Special Education: Mild & Moderate Disabilities) in May 2000 from Oklahoma State University. Completed the requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy degree with a major in Educational Psychology at Oklahoma State University in May, 2004.

Experience: Employed as a Research Assistant and Teaching Assistant by Oklahoma State University, 2001 to present; Teacher at Korean Language School, Stillwater, OK, August 2000 to May 2001; Internship & Voluntary Teacher- Teaching children with mild & moderate disabilities at Club House located in Oklahoma State University, June 1999 to August 1999 & June 2001 to August 2001; Teaching Secretary at Sungkyunkwan University, Seoul, Korea, June 1994 to December 1995; Preservice Teacher at Kyungan High School, Andong, Korea, April 1995 to May 1995.

Professional Membership: International Association of Asian Study, Korea
Association of Inclusive Education