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The Factors that Influence the Attitudes of Teachers and Administrators Affliliated with the National Association of Independent Schools (NAIS) Regarding the Inclusion of Students with Disabilities

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THE FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE THE ATTITUDES OF TEACHERS AND

ADMINISTRATORS AFFILIATED WITH THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF

INDEPENDENT SCHOOLS (NAIS) REGARDING THE INCLUSION OF STUDENTS

WITH DISABILITIES

A Dissertation

Submitted to the School of Education

Duquesne University

In partial fulfillment of the requirements for

the degree of Doctor of Education

By

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ABSTRACT

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August 2011

Dissertation supervised by Jason Kush, Ph.D.

As the practice of inclusion gained momentum in educational communities during the 1990s, attitudes toward the concept of inclusion were positive, and few educators opposed it completely. However, the enthusiasm surrounding inclusion led to a hurried approach toward implementation, and practices within public school classrooms went unchecked. As a result, a lack of clarity, and confusion arose regarding the practice of inclusion in general. Inclusion is a pervasive concept in all educational communities today, and private schools are not exempt from integrating students with disabilities into their classrooms. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to extend the research in this area by examining a portion of the private school population: independent schools

affiliated with the NAIS. The Opinions Relative to the Integration of Students with Disabilities (ORI) was the instrument used in this quantitative study. This survey, as well as an additional one constructed by the researcher was completed by a random sample of administrators (N= 82) and teachers (N= 440) who work in NAIS schools across the United States. Findings suggest that both groups agree that teacher training and perception of burden are the two most significant factors that influence attitudes toward inclusion. Similar to teachers in public schools, independent school teachers also felt that years of experience, planning time, and perception of competence to implement accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities were significant factors that influenced attitudes. Independent schools were distinguished however from public schools in that both administrator and teacher participants who indicated servicing students with varying types of disabilities possessed more favorable attitudes toward inclusion. Additionally, the perception of involvement was a factor that influenced attitudes for teachers. They perceived that they were not involved in the decision to include students with disabilities in their classroom nor were they involved in determining the appropriate accommodations and modifications necessary for the student to be successful. Finally, the findings suggest that administrators have a more favorable attitude toward inclusion than the teachers overall and discrepancies exist between the groups regarding the perception of to what degree the necessary supports for inclusion (i.e., in-service training, planning time, materials, administrator support) are in place. Recognition of these factors and discrepancies as well as the implementation of a purposeful plan to address them could impact attitudes toward students with disabilities and improve the way independent schools practice inclusion in the future.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

DEDICATION

I dedicate this study to my family. Without their unwavering support, patience, and encouragement I would not have been able to passionately pursue my career and educational goals. I can't thank them enough for embarking on this journey with me. These are the most precious people in my life who deserve the credit for the completion of this research as much as I do.

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Introduction

Historical Origins of Educating Students with Disabilities

The education of children with disabilities in the United States (US) has ignited

debate by educators, policy makers, parents, and advocacy groups since the term *special*

education was formally introduced in 1902 by the National Education Association

(Osgood, 2005). For over 100 years the deliberation focused on the extent to which

children with disabilities should receive a special or different education. Specifically, the

location of where children with disabilities receive their education dominated the

argument throughout most of the 20th century. Considerable pressure remains on public

school systems in the US to bridge the gap between special and *general education* and

allow more integration of students with disabilities with their nondisabled peers. The

conversation evolved from a discussion about location in or outside of a classroom to a

discussion about merging special and general education pedagogy. Current legislation

further ignites the controversy implying that there is no longer a need for special

education but rather a "fully inclusive general education system that provides a free and

appropriate education for all children in the general classroom regardless of ability"

(Osgood, 2005, p. 3). This issue received a large amount of attention as it came to affect

nearly all students and teachers in the US public school system. Confusion arises in

attempting to discern who exactly is considered in need of special education services and

who is responsible for the planning and delivery of the education for those children.

Clearly, the integration of students with disabilities and implementing an inclusive model

have far reaching implications for administrators, teachers, classroom management, teacher training, the retention of students, and instructional practices used for all students.

Mainstreaming

Legal mandates attempted to clarify and define parameters for special education and *inclusion*. The original federal special education law, The Education for All Handicapped Children Act, known as Public Law 94-142 (P.L. 94-142), was established in 1975 in an effort to prompt school reform by providing equal rights and educational opportunities for students with disabilities. P.L. 94-142 stated that school-aged children with disabilities enrolled in public school settings across the US were entitled to an adequate, free, and appropriate public education (FAPE) and placement in the least restrictive environment (LRE). The LRE refers to the requirement of schools to educate students with disabilities alongside peers without disabilities to the maximum extent possible. This means that students with disabilities will not be removed from the general education classroom unless their disability is so severe that the use of supplemental aids and services are not enough (Wright & Wright, 2007).

Further, advancements in special education law were made when P.L. 94-142 was renamed the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) in 1990. The four primary tenants under IDEA were as follows: (1) to provide FAPE to all students with disabilities; (2) to protect the rights of students with disabilities and their families; (3) to financially assist states in providing for students with disabilities; and (4) to evaluate and ensure the effective effort of systems in educating those with a disability (Wright & Wright, 2007). The law included the expansion of the categories of disabilities from seven to thirteen, as well as programs and services for children with disabilities. These

categories included students diagnosed with autism, deaf-blindness, deafness, emotional disturbance, hearing impairment, mental retardation, multiple disabilities, orthopedic impairment, other health impairment, specific learning disability, speech or language impairment, traumatic brain injury, and visual impairment including blindness (IDEA, 2006a). IDEA was amended in 1997 (U.S. Department of Education, 2003) and 2004 and renamed The Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act of 2004 (U.S. Department of Education, 2006) to meet the needs of students with disabilities, prepare them for employment and independent living, and to protect the rights of children and their parents (Wright & Wright, 2007). IDEA of 2004 (§ 300.114) is specific about including children with disabilities with their nondisabled peers in the LRE to the "maximum extent appropriate" (p. 207) and it states:

> Removal of children with disabilities from the regular educational environment occurs only if the nature or severity of the disability is such that education in regular classes with the use of supplementary aids and services cannot be achieved satisfactorily. (Wright & Wright, 2007, p. 207)

Subsequent laws such as Section 504, sections of Title V of the Vocational Rehabilitation Act of 1973 (P.L. 93-112), and the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) in 1990 were instrumental in establishing and ensuring the rights of children with disabilities who do not qualify for services under IDEA. These contributions to special education did not occur without controversy and continue to be complex and at times misunderstood. However, they caused school systems to rethink the inclusive way in which students with disabilities are educated. These laws were designed to promote the integration of students with disabilities with their nondisabled peers and to increase their

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academic and social success while providing appropriate services within a LRE. Over

the last thirty years federal and civil rights laws focused on providing equitable

opportunity and support for students with disabilities, and significant progress was made.

The Road to Inclusion

Laws alone are not enough to effect change and often cause confusion.

Therefore, the move toward inclusive education did not occur consistently within public

school systems across the country. Evolving terminology also contributes to some of the

confusion that surrounds special education. Terminology in special education continually

changes to reflect the more current views of society and the policies that are in place to

support those views. The general public is hard pressed to keep up with newly defined

terms. Prior to 1970, children with disabilities were educated in institutions, private day

schools, or at home. The integration of these children with their nondisabled peers was

termed *normalization* or *deinstitutionalization* and generally occurred outside of the

school setting (Thompkins & Deloney, 1995). During the latter part of the decade and

through the 1980s, the push to integrate students with disabilities in public school

classrooms became known as *mainstreaming*. Special education teachers were hired to

work in public school classrooms designed to provide the space for fewer students to be

self-contained for small group instruction (Chen, 2009). Although the educational

community never agreed upon a definition of mainstreaming, it referred to students with

disabilities sharing the same physical space (classrooms and playground) with their

nondisabled peers when they were able to do so without modifications. The special

education teacher was responsible for educating the students (Osgood, 2005; Thompkins

& Deloney, 1995). In other words, students with disabilities could earn the right to be

integrated if they were able to keep up with the work that the other students were doing without requiring the teacher to make changes or adjustments for them (Rogers, 1993). It was soon evident that only those with *mild disabilities* could earn that right. Not satisfied with these boundaries that seemed to exist, Madeline Will, the former Assistant Secretary for the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitation Services, called for further integration of all students with disabilities in 1986 stating:

> There is the stigmatization of students who have been placed in special programs which segregate them from their peers and from regular school activities. Often the results are lowered academic and social expectations on the part of students... which can lead to poor performance and an inability to learn effectively. (Will, 1986, p. 412)

Will's assertions contributed to launching the movement known as the Regular Education Initiative (REI). The aim of the REI was to serve as many children with disabilities as possible in the general classroom. However, it seemed that general educators were left out of the conversation when planning this new initiative.

Mainstreaming allowed only certain students to integrate during the school day, while others were educated primarily in *resource rooms* or self-contained classrooms. By the mid-1980s, Will and those behind the REI identified the negative effects of pull-out education and mainstreaming led to the push for inclusion within the general education classroom (Will, 1986). REI first promoted the integration of students with mild and moderate disabilities in the general education classroom; but as the academic and social benefits received by these students became more apparent, those behind the initiative supported the integration of students with severe and profound disabilities as

well (Thompkins & Deloney, 1995). However, not until the early 1990s did the term inclusion replace mainstreaming and provide the current framework for continuing discussions on including students with disabilities.

Whereas mainstreaming or integration referred to the placement of a child with a disability in the 1980s, inclusion signifies the professional responsibility of every educator to accept students with disabilities into their classrooms and to provide the appropriate services and practices necessary to meet their needs. Although inclusion is not specified in the language of IDEA, the definition of the LRE is, and acts as, the driving force behind the creation of an inclusive classroom (IDEA, 2006b). The concept of inclusion has evolved over time. It is a *child-centered* approach to education and asserts that all children, including those with disabilities, can and should learn in the general education classroom (Cromwell, 1997).

Two significant distinctions are made between mainstreaming or integration and inclusion. No longer is the special education teacher primarily responsible for students with disabilities. The general education teacher is now charged with teaching all students in the general education classroom while collaborating and consulting with the special education teacher (Thompkins & Deloney, 1995). Secondly, the services and resources needed for the student's success in the general education classroom must be provided within that setting. This means that teachers must acquire new skills in the areas of team teaching, curriculum assessment, mastery learning, learning styles, modification and adaptation of instruction, cooperative learning, social skills training, and collaboration in order for inclusion to work. Special education and general education teachers must work

together to provide those services and to use strategies which promote success (Lipsky & Gartner, 1996).

As the practice of inclusion gained momentum in the educational community during the 1990s, attitudes toward the concept of inclusion were positive, and few educators opposed it completely (Cromwell, 1997). Seemingly, opposing inclusion meant supporting exclusion which was viewed as non-progressive and closed minded. However, the enthusiasm surrounding inclusion led to a hurried approach toward implementation, and practices within school districts and classrooms went unchecked. As a result, there was a lack of clarity, and questions arose regarding the practice of inclusion in general; specifically, questions about which students should be included and to what extent they should remain in the general education classroom (Coates, 1989; Shade & Stewart, 2001).

From inclusion to full inclusion. Most of these questions centered on the lack of agreement regarding the amount of time a student spent in the general education classroom. Professional educational organizations did no provide clear answers to these questions. The Council for Exceptional Children (CEC) supported the idea that the LRE should be used when deemed appropriate, and in some cases, a smaller, pull-out environment would allow the student to be more successful. Therefore, they reserved the right to include or not include as needed. On the other hand, the National Association for State Boards of Education, the National Association for the Education of Young Children, The Association for Persons with Severe Disabilities (TASH), and the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development endorsed the concept and practice of *full inclusion* and felt that it was the only way to protect the rights of the

students (Cromwell, 1997; TASH, 2011). Those behind full inclusion believed that labeling and segregating students was wrong, and developing separate, special, programs for those students was expensive and inefficient. Additionally, they believed students with disabilities were better served in the general education classroom because teachers held higher expectations in that environment, and the curriculum was less watered down (Thompkins & Deloney, 1995). Those advocating for full inclusion would seldom agree that a student with a disability should be educated at any time outside of the general education classroom (Rogers, 1993). In contrast, those who advocated for inclusion but not full inclusion believed students were, in some instances, better served in a pull-out environment by the special education teacher who was trained to meet the needs of the students, had higher expectations of them, and the curriculum was more individualized, thus appropriate. Lack of agreement between inclusion and full inclusion advocates regarding the time spent in the LRE further complicated successful implementation.

Barriers to the Successful Realization of Inclusion

Despite differing opinions between the advocates for inclusion and full inclusion, they agree that the concept of inclusion eliminates the stigma felt by a child with a disability and promotes healthier self-esteem (Slavin, 1990; Vaidya & Zaslavsky, 2000). The theory seems to make sense, and might imply that including students with disabilities allows school districts to reduce costs for special services and to consolidate space. These benefits promote the appeal of inclusion, and school systems across the US integrate students with disabilities into the general education classroom without hesitation with many of them adopting a full inclusion model (McLeskey, Henry, & Hodges, 1999). Today, students with all types and levels of disability populate the general education

classroom, but full inclusion has caused confusion, and the process and implementation lacks clarity for teachers. It is not clear if the general education teachers received professional development in order to feel prepared to teach the students with disabilities. It is not clear if the services students need are provided. Furthermore, it is not clear who should be fully included and who should not. Despite the lack of clarity and pervasive confusion, teachers are forced to practice inclusion. Understandably, the enthusiasm for inclusion which began in the 1990s is waning.

As the range of ability and disability levels expands in a general education classroom, teachers are required to attend to more students with varying needs, thus decreasing the attention that they can offer the other students. Tornillo (1994) reported that the range of ability is so great it is nearly impossible for one teacher to be effective and meet the expectations of academic achievement and accountability required by legal mandates such as No Child Left Behind (NCLB). The influx of students with disabilities and the difficulty meeting the needs of all of the students at once clouded the understanding of inclusive practice even further. Shade and Stewart (2001) assert that "frustration, fear, burden, lack of support, and inadequacies about their ability to teach children with different kinds of problems" (p. 37) override the initial sense of challenge, hopefulness, and desire to help students with disabilities. These feelings tainted teachers' attitudes toward inclusion which ultimately may influence their students' success.

Researchers suggest that the successful implementation of inclusion, or any new practice in education, is highly dependent on teacher attitudes and the collaborative effort between teachers, principals, and advocates (e.g., Bruneau-Balerrama, 1997; Bryant, Dean, Elrod, & Blackbourn, 1999; D'Alonzo, Giordano, & Vanleeuwen, 1997; Jobe,

Rust, & Brissie, 1996; Lanier & Lanier, 1996; MacDonald & Hardman, 1989; Oberti v. Board of Education of Clementon School District, 1993; Olson, Chalmers & Hoover, 1997; Salend, 2001; Salend & Garrick-Duhaney, 1999; Scruggs & Mastropieri, 2000; Stoler, 1992; Waldron & McLesky, 1998). For this reason, the research on inclusion focused primarily on teacher attitudes in public school settings and to a lesser degree on the attitudes of other educators, such as principals, in similar settings.

Attitudes Influence the Success of Inclusion

For decades public school teachers have been asked to reflect on their attitude toward the concept of inclusion, their attitude toward students with disabilities, and their identification of the variables that block successful realization of inclusion. In 1996, a seminal piece of research was published by Scruggs and Mastropieri. They synthesized 28 reports on attitudes toward inclusion published between 1958 and 1995. A large sample of 10,560 teachers (both general and special education) and other school personnel throughout the US, Australia, and Canada were surveyed. Despite the variety of survey instruments, geographical locations, and year of the study, they discovered profound consistencies. The researchers composed a summary of teacher responses to the following seven essential questions:

1. Do teachers support inclusion of students with disabilities in general education classes?

2. Are teachers willing to teach students with disabilities?

3. Do students benefit from inclusion?

4. Do students with disabilities have a negative effect on the classroom environment?

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5. Do general education teachers have enough time for inclusion?

6. Do teachers have sufficient expertise/training for inclusion?

7. Do teachers have sufficient resources for inclusion (Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1996)?

They found that the majority of the teachers agreed with the concept of inclusion. However, fewer were willing to implement inclusive practices in their classroom. This willingness was largely dependent upon the perception of additional work and the type of disability with which the student was categorized. A substantial number of teachers felt that inclusion would burden them in some way (e.g., disrupt the class, take attention away from other students, require more planning time, individual attention). Responses to certain types and severity of disabilities were fairly consistent, such that teachers were less likely to favorably include a student with mental retardation, emotional or behavioral problems, or moderate attention or language disabilities. Teachers were also more favorable when asked to include a student with learning disabilities, mild physical, sensory, or medical disabilities. Teachers were the least likely to include a student with a severe disability. Scruggs and Mastropieri also found that a variety of studies indicated that only a low percentage of teachers felt they had the appropriate skills or training to teach students with disabilities. More positive attitudes were found among the teachers who had extensive training in working with students with disabilities. Scruggs and Mastropieri's findings indicated that teacher attitudes toward inclusion had not changed significantly between 1958 and 1996. It is likely that these attitudes remained stable over time due to the relationship between inclusion and classroom context rather than inclusion and a social justice context. Teachers appreciate that students with disabilities

have the right to be educated in the general education classroom and even agree that it is an appropriate placement, but their attitudes toward inclusion are dampened when they consider factors such as training, support, perception of burden, and level of disability (Gans, 1987). It is most significant to note that these results confirm that there are two categories of variables which cause barriers to the successful implementation of inclusion; variables that relate to attitudes and variables that relate to needs of the teachers. To summarize, teacher attitudes were greatly influenced by the type of disability, the severity of the disability, and their perception of teacher burden. Scruggs and Mastropieri were able to identify sufficient planning time, materials, personnel resources, expertise/training, and administrative support as consistent variables which related to the needs of the teachers.

Since Scruggs and Mastropieri's meta-analysis in 1996, a more recent examination of studies of teacher attitudes revealed mixed feelings about the concept of inclusion, but the variables that influenced attitudes and those that related to needs remained the same. In a variety of studies, teachers indicated a favorable attitude toward inclusion (e.g., Avramidis, Bayliss, & Burden, 2000; Cornoldi, Terreni, Scuggs, & Mastropieri, 1998; Schrock, 2002; Seaby, 2003; Smith, 2000). Teachers with more extensive training had more positive attitudes about inclusion (Askamit, Morris, & Leuenberer, 1987; Jobe et al., 1996; Rao, 2004). Bozeman (2005) found teachers to hold a neutral attitude toward inclusion, and still other studies revealed that some teachers support a more traditional pull-out model (D'Alonzo et al., 1997; Finegan, 2004; Hammond & Ingalls, 2003). The variables that effected attitude remained consistent with Scruggs and Mastropieri's research including perception of teacher burden (Wendt,

1999), disability type, level of severity (Cook, 2001; Grier, 2001; Hastings & Oakford, 2003; O'Rorke-Trigiani, 2003; Seaby, 2003), and degree of teacher training (Cornoldi et al., 1998; Finegan, 2004; Hammond & Ingalls, 2003; Kwon, 2004; Loomos, 2001; Monahan, Marino & Miller, 1996; Seaby, 2003; Tomei, 2000). In these more recent studies, teachers continued to identify sufficient planning time, materials, personnel resources, expertise/training, and administrative support as the variables that influenced the successful realization of inclusion (Bruneau-Balderrama, 1997; Finegan, 2004; Hammond & Ingalls, 2003; Kavale & Forness, 2000; Knight, 1999; Petch-Hogan & Haggard, 1999; Salend, 2001; Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1996).

It is clear that since 1996 growing trepidation and frustration surround inclusion causing a decline of favorable attitudes among teachers. Teachers report that inclusive practice is forced upon them as inclusion and full inclusion grow in popularity (Bruneau-Balderrama, 1997). Their needs, which influence a positive attitude and those which influence effective practice, were not met over the past decade (Bruneau-Balderrama, 1997; Shade & Stewart, 2001).

Despite the void, the number of students with disabilities served under IDEA in the US continues to grow (U.S. Department of Education, 2010) as does the desire to fully include students with disabilities in the general education classroom in public schools, and this desire extends into private school settings as well. Consider the confusion and difficulty inclusion might present to private schools that are required to comply with only portions of the laws that pertain to students with disabilities and that tend to have less opportunity for professional development, fewer resources and teachers trained as special educators, and may be less likely to favorably accept students with

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disabilities. Inclusion has challenged public schools for decades, and successful

implementation becomes even more challenging and complicated in private schools

(Vantine, 2008).   Examining inclusion in a private school setting provides a unique

opportunity to understand the attitudes of those in an environment that is not bound to

serve all children as the public schools.

Confounding Barriers to Implementing Inclusion in Private School Settings

While legal mandates involving inclusive practices are required of public schools,

they apply to varying degrees in private school environments. Compliance with ADA is

a requirement of all private schools in order to protect the rights of students with

disabilities. However, only portions of IDEA (2004) apply to private schools (§ 300.130

through 300.148; IDEA, 2006b). IDEA was the catalyst for changing the way service

was delivered to students with disabilities in public schools and included a statement that

students who were voluntarily enrolled in private schools were entitled to *access* special

education and related services. It was unclear whether parentally-placed private school

students were able to access the same amount of services as their public school peers.

The Education Department General Administrative Regulations (EDGAR) of 1995

attempted to clarify this point. The federal regulation outlined that "private schools must

provide genuine opportunities for equitable participation in programs of benefits"

(Education Department General Administrative Regulations [EDGAR], 2008, § 76.650).

This meant that public and private schools must work together to understand which

students are in need of service and how, when, and where those services will be provided

to ensure equitable opportunity and quality of service for private school students

(Osborne, Russo, & DiMattia, 2000). Additionally, the 1997 reauthorization of IDEA

(IDEA, 2006b) required that public school districts locate, evaluate, and identify students with disabilities in private schools as well as provide a portion of federal funding for them (Wright, 2004). However, major portions of the federal laws do not apply to private schools. As noted earlier, part of IDEA required that all students receive their education in the LRE. Students with disabilities are to remain, to the greatest extent possible, the general education classroom. This is not a requirement for private schools. Students with disabilities enrolled in parentally-placed private schools give up their right to FAPE designated by IDEA and access previously mentioned *equitable participation* instead. This means that students with disabilities in private schools are not necessarily placed in the LRE to the maximum extent possible and do not receive the same level of services as they would receive in their public school (IDEA, 2006b). Furthermore, private school students are not entitled to the development of an *individualized education program* (IEP) which is a legal document outlining the accommodations and services necessary for the success of students identified with a disability (IDEA, 2006b). Instead, private schools are expected to comply with Title III of ADA (P.L. 101-336, 42 U.S.C. § 12181 et seq), which states that when a school has the knowledge and record of a student's disability, and there is evidence that it is substantially limiting, they must provide reasonable accommodations. However, the implementation of accommodations is debatable if the school does not deem them necessary or reasonable or if their implementation would alter the nature of the school or cause the school an undue burden (Americans with Disabilities Act [ADA], 1993). Without the legal protection of an IEP, there is no guarantee that students receive the appropriate educational services they need. In addition, public schools are available to all students regardless of ability or disability. Private schools are

more selective and require that students go through an application process in order to be admitted. This application process allows private schools to select the students they will educate, and it is possible for them to deny admission to students who do not meet a certain academic criteria or who have a disability which may require accommodations that they view as placing an undue burden on the school.

The confusion about which portions of the law apply and which do not is complicated further by the fact that there are many different types of private schools (see Figure 1). Private schools are categorized in three ways: Catholic, other religious, and nonsectarian. The nonsectarian category represents nearly one fourth of the private school population (Broughman & Colaciello, 1999) and it breaks down further according to program emphasis: regular, special emphasis, and special education schools. Regular private schools focus on early childhood, elementary, and/or secondary regular programming (Tourkin et al., 2008). A portion of those regular private schools in the US are considered *independent schools*, and nearly all of them are affiliated with the National Association of Independent Schools (NAIS). These NAIS schools are the focus population of this study.
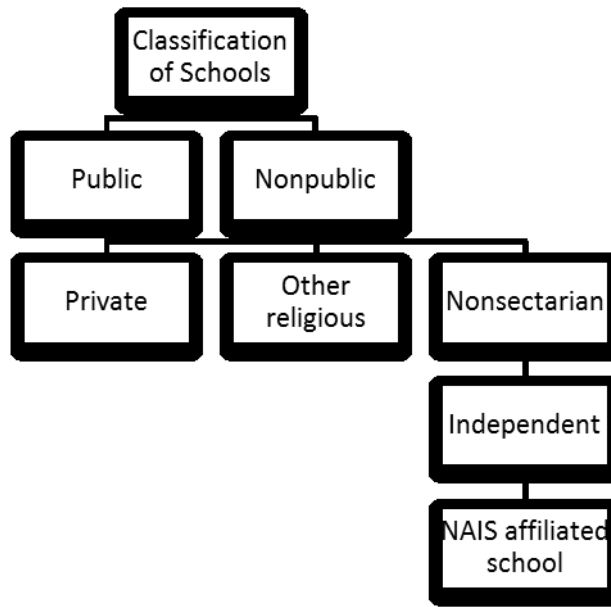
Figure 1. Classification of Nonpublic Schools.

Compounding the confusion of laws which apply in varying degrees to different types of private schools, it is likely that the same mixed feelings held by public school teachers regarding inclusion exist among private school teachers to an even greater degree and become a final barrier to the successful implementation of inclusion. To date, legal mandates and litigation make it clear that school districts must provide a level of service to students with disabilities in private schools, and private schools are obligated to cooperatively service students identified with disabilities. However, a significant lack of information exists on students with disabilities in general in private schools and even less is known about how these systems perceive and service these students (Bello, 2006; Taylor, 2005). It is critical to provide further research on the attitudes and beliefs held by teachers and principals in independent school settings.

Attitudes Held by Teachers and Principals in Private Schools

Overall findings. Past research established that the attitudes held by teachers will determine the success of the inclusion model in public school settings, and it can be assumed that the same would hold true in private settings. Additionally, teacher attitudes are greatly influenced by a leader who holds positive views toward inclusion and who provides the planning time, resources, personnel support, and personal support that is necessary for teachers to implement the practice (Praisner, 2003). The CEC published a futures report that cited the continuing barriers and concerns of teachers for the future of special education (Coleman, 2001).

When administrators are knowledgeable and supportive, teachers feel that their load has been lightened, but when this is not the case, problems emerge. The findings from the survey showed that the teachers' perspectives differed significantly from that of administrators on all of the dimensions assessed. Teachers reported greater concerns, more frustration, and a growing sense that their plight is not understood. Administrators were much more positive regarding the conditions of teaching, essentially indicating that things are not that bad. This finding was troublesome in part because teachers who leave the field cite a lack of administrative understanding of and support for their work as a key factor in their decision to leave. (Coleman, para. 10)

A couple of recent studies (Bello, 2006; Finegan, 2004) focused on teachers and principals in the private sector. Bello surveyed 300 Catholic high schools in an effort to understand the status of special education in their environment. A larger population was used in Finegan's study, which surveyed and interviewed teachers from both public and private school systems in Texas. Despite the institution with which the teacher was

affiliated, the overwhelming majority felt that the general education classroom was not always the appropriate environment for students with disabilities (p. 64). While there is very little research examining the attitudes held by teachers in private schools, fewer studies exist that exclusively examine the attitudes held by principals regarding inclusion (Barnett & Monda-Amaya, 1998; Hipp & Huffman, 2000; Kahikuata-Kariko, 2003; Praisner, 2003; Taylor, 2005). It is critical to understand principals' attitudes toward inclusion in any setting but particularly in a private setting as it directly influences who is admitted to the private school. Principals in public schools have no choice whether or not to accept students with disabilities, whereas principals and admissions directors in private schools may decline a student with disabilities. NAIS (2009) publishes this statement regarding disabilities on their website:

> The presence of learning disabilities should not be a strike against your child. However, just as you wouldn't accept a school that couldn't serve your child's needs, schools that lack the necessary programs and teachers would probably not see your child as a good fit for its offerings. (NAIS, 2009b, para.10)

Furthermore, their attitudes and knowledge of inclusion within the context of special education becomes important as it may mean the difference between a child with a disability receiving the appropriate evaluations and services or none at all (Taylor).

In 2003, Taylor's mixed-method study focused on the state of special education in Tennessee private schools by surveying and interviewing principals. Like Bello, she found that nearly all of the 130 schools were accepting students with disabilities. Surprisingly, the principals reported that on the average, 9% of their population was made up of students with disabilities. This is very close to the national percentage,

13.4%, of students with disabilities served in federally-supported programs in 2007-2008 (U.S. Department of Education, 2010).

Methodological Considerations

A review of the literature reveals that most studies of the attitudes of teachers and principals regarding inclusion made use of self-report methodology. Survey method is preferable when researching this confusing topic so as to understand teacher beliefs and attitudes prior to assessing the effectiveness of an identified treatment. Survey research is also less threatening than qualitative methodology, as Taylor (2003) noted in her study. Survey methodology is the most common way to measure attitudes towards inclusion. Likert developed a summated-rating scale in 1932 which is the most widely used type of survey construction. A Likert Scale includes a set of positive and negative statements related to the attitudes assessed. The respondent selects from a continuum of favorable to unfavorable responses. Each response has a weighted value, and generally a higher total scores correlates with a highly favorable attitude (Likert, 1932). These summated-rating scales are used for research purposes, but unfortunately the psychometric rules developed since the creation of the scales are not adhered to. Many of the instruments used to conduct these surveys are designed for a particular research study and used only once; therefore, they do not have sound reliability and validity reports (Barnett & Monda-Amaya, 1998; Cornoldi et al., 1998; D'Alonzo et al., 1997; Finegan, 2004; Garner-Harris, 1995; Hastings & Oakford, 2003; Hessling-Hux, 2001; Kelley, 2002; Kwon, 2004; Prado, 2002). However, a number of instruments that have psychometric characteristics are found to meet the minimum requirements of the criteria, and are considered acceptable measures of attitudes regarding inclusion. Some of these instruments include:

- Attitudes Toward Inclusive Education Survey (ATIES; Wilczenski, 1995).

- Attitudes Toward Mainstreaming Scale (ATMS; Berryman & Neal, 1980).

- Educational Attitude Survey (EAS; Reynolds & Greco, 1980).

- Mainstreaming Opinionnaire (MO; Schmelkin, 1981).

- Multidimensional Attitudes Toward Inclusive Education Scale (MATIES; Mahat, 2008).

- Opinions Relative to the Integration of Students with Disabilities (ORI; Antonak & Larivee, 1995).

- Opinions Relative to Mainstreaming (ORM; Larrivee & Cook, 1979).

- Scale of Attitudes Toward Disabled Persons (SADP; Antonak, 1982).

- Scale of Teacher Attitudes Toward Inclusion (STATIC; Cochran, 1997).

Although considered acceptable, the psychometric analyses of these scales are often not fully reported or the reports are vague and unclear. For example, the psychometric report for the ATMS and the EAS does not confirm the reliability and validity of the measures. Other scales have more sound reliability and validity reports, but respondent reactivity, response style biases, and response format left evidence that the MO and the ORM needed significant modifications (Antonak & Larrivee, 1995). This study makes use of the Opinions Relative to the Integration of Students with Disabilities (ORI) because of its repeated use.

The ORI, developed by Antonak and Larrivee (1995), was used in recent research and has acceptable reliability and validity (Antonak & Larrivee, 1995; Avramidis et al., 2000; Benge, 1996; Bozeman, 2005; Dupoux, Hammond, Ingalls & Wolman, 2006; Gordon, 2008; Green-Causey, 1999; Jobe et al., 1996; Juttner, 2001; Kahikuata-Kariko,

2003; Leyser & Tappendorf, 2001; Loomos, 2001; Migyanka, 2006; Ryan, 2007; Scruggs & Mastropieri, 2000; Sims, 2008; Sliva, 1998; Spriggs, 2008; Stubbs, 2009; Uba, 1998; Wendt, 1999; Wood, 2007). It is a survey instrument that measures the attitudes of teachers toward the integration of students with disabilities in general education settings. In 2005, Balboni, de Falco, and Venuti reported that the ORI "seemed to have the best psychometric properties" (p. 145) of similar survey instruments. Twenty-five questions are presented in six-point Likert-style rating format. The survey is a paper-and-pencil questionnaire and takes 15 to 20 minutes to complete. Higher scores on the ORI indicate more favorable attitudes. Four subscales are identified as (Factor 1) benefits of integration, (Factor 2) integrated classroom management, (Factor 3) perceived ability to teach students with disabilities, and (Factor 4) special versus integrated general education. The ORI was used repeatedly to measure the attitudes of a variety of populations: special and general education teachers (Loomos, 2001; Ryan, 2007; Sliva, 1998; Spriggs, 2008; Uba, 1998; Wood, 2007) predominantly at the elementary level (Bozeman, 2005; Gordon, 2008; Green-Causey, 1999; Juttner, 2001; Leyser & Tappendorf, 2001; Stubbs, 2009; Wendt, 1999), principals (Kahikuata-Kariko, 2003), pre-service teachers (Burke & Sutherland, 2004), teachers and principals outside of the US (Avramidis et al., 2000; Dupoux et al., 2006; Juttner, 2001; Kahikuata-Kariko, 2003), and students with disabilities (Benge, 1996).

Attitudes Held by Teachers When Measured by the ORI

Jobe, Rust, and Brissie (1996) used the ORI for their research study to survey a national sample of teachers regarding their attitude toward inclusion. At that time, and still true today, few national studies existed. The sample consisted of 500 general

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classroom teachers throughout the US allowing for a more diverse sample of teachers. Participants were randomly selected from a database. Of the 500 surveys mailed, 182 were returned, and 162 were used for analysis for the study. These responses included teachers from 44 states. The survey was mailed to each subject with a cover letter and a return postage paid envelope. The researchers found that overall teachers held neutral attitudes toward inclusion and significant but modest correlations existed between positive attitudes and in-service training and special education teaching experience. Teacher attitudes were influenced primarily by disability type. The participants were much more willing to accommodate a student with physical disabilities rather than a student with a cognitive, emotional, or behavioral disability. Gender and years of teaching were not found to be significant factors that influenced attitudes.

Wendt (1999) used the ORI to investigate her interest in the attitudes of elementary school teachers who were currently including students with disabilities in their general education classroom. Participants came from 10 school districts in the northern and western suburbs of Chicago, Illinois. A 30% response rate was achieved as 60 surveys were returned of the 200 that were distributed. The initial surveys included four sections for the participants:

1. General information on their classroom and the description of the inclusion model,

2. Specific information on the children, who were included in the classroom,

3. Open-ended questions, and

4. Demographic information.

Participants were also asked to complete the ORI and the SADP (Antonak, 1982). Following the study, Wendt found that a significant relationship existed between the ORI scores and the academic and social progress of the child in the general education classroom. She also found that the presence of "inclusion facilitator consultation services" (p. 58) for the classroom teacher influenced their attitude toward including students with disabilities. Wendt recognized that her study was limited and could not be generalized due to the small sample size and the limited geographic area. A larger sample would provide much more powerful results.

Loomos (2001) used the ORI to examine urban elementary teachers' attitudes toward inclusion. Sixty-nine educators from general education, special education, bilingual education, administration, and ancillary staff from one metropolitan school in the Midwest completed the survey. Loomos found that her surveyed population had an overall neutral attitude toward inclusion. Confirming the findings of past research; gender, age, ethnic background, teaching experience, and level of education suggested no statistically significant differences (Avramidis et al., 2000; Jobe et al., 1996). However, some of the variables that also suggested no statistically significant difference were significant in other studies such as grade level, number of special education courses taken, professional development, and exposure to individuals with disabilities. The sample expressed concern for inclusion regarding their management of the integration, specifically related to class size and time. Limitations of this study included the small sample size and the representation of diverse ethnic backgrounds among the respondents. Only three administrators were included in the sample, and the researcher suggested that additional studies include a larger population of administrators.

In the same year, Leyser (2001) used the ORM to survey general and special education teachers in two small school districts in a midwestern state. Of the 91 teachers who completed the survey, 36 were elementary teachers, 12 taught in a junior high school, and 43 were high school teachers. In contrast to previous studies, this research found that female teachers had a more positive attitude than males on Factor 2 (social growth) and teachers with 13 or more years of experience had a more negative attitude than those with fewer years on Factor 1 (benefits of integration). Teacher certification, grade level, and training with students with disabilities were not found to be statistically significant variables relating to attitudes. Once again, this study contained a limited sample size that was selected from one specific geographic location.

The ORI was also used outside of the US to measure teacher attitudes toward inclusion. Reporting the findings of this research helps clarify whether or not the challenges of inclusion are unique to the US. Avramidis, Bayliss, and Burden (2000) used the original version of the instrument to assess the attitudes of teachers in the United Kingdom. Eighty-one elementary and secondary teachers from southwest England responded to the ORM survey. The results indicated an overall positive feeling about integration of students with disabilities. Findings were similar to those discovered by Scruggs and Mastropieri in their 1996 meta-analysis. Although teachers had an overall positive attitude regarding inclusion, they did not feel that they had the time, training, skills, or the resources to successfully implement inclusion. Teachers with experience in an inclusive classroom possessed more positive attitudes than those who did not have that experience. The degree of professional development was also a major contributor to positive attitudes. The more support provided to teachers through professional

development, the better their attitude. Gender, age, and years of experience teaching did not significantly influence attitudes as was also found in a previous study (Jobe et al., 1996). Survey results indicated that students with emotional and behavioral disabilities were thought of as more concerning and stressful to the teacher. Like Wendt (1999), the sample size of this study limited the generalizability of the results. The surveys were returned by teachers in one Local Education Authority in southwest London.

More recently, Dupoux, Hammond, and Ingalls (2006) were interested in measuring the attitudes of rural and urban teachers in Haïti toward the inclusion of students with disabilities. In 2006, the researchers reported that Haïti was in the beginning stages of creating a national policy in order to integrate students with disabilities into the general classroom. More children with disabilities are living in third world countries than in industrialized countries (United Nations Educational, Scientific, and Cultural Organization [UNESCO], 1996). Haïti reports that 15% of school-aged children have a disability but only 1% of those children are identified and receiving services. Most of those students identified were enrolled in private schools (Ministère de L'Éducation, 1995). Elementary and secondary teachers from three public schools, five Catholic schools, and six nonsectarian private schools in Haïti comprised the sample of 183. Overall, teachers reported a neutral attitude toward integrating students with disabilities. Teachers in urban settings were compared to those in rural settings, and no statistically significant difference existed between the attitudes of those teachers. Those with a Master's degree expressed more favorable attitudes than those with less than a Master's degree. Teachers felt comfortable accommodating students with learning disabilities and to some degree those with mobility, visual, and hearing impairments.

Only 13.6% felt that they could accommodate students with emotional disabilities. An interesting finding indicated that variables tied to cognitions and beliefs are better predictors of attitudes than those related to teaching experience. In the future, the researchers suggest that personality traits, such as locus of control, be assessed.

The most current research which made use of the ORI was published in 2009 by Stubbs. Her research focused on the attitudes of 234 general education teachers at the elementary level employed in public schools in New Providence, Bahamas. The teachers in the study revealed a positive attitude toward the benefits of inclusion but a negative attitude toward their ability to teach students with disabilities in the general education classroom and a negative attitude toward the concept of inclusion. Teachers had neutral attitudes toward the management of their inclusive classrooms. Amount of training for teachers in inclusive classrooms, higher level of education, and experience teaching students with disabilities influenced attitudes in the positive direction.

Need for Additional Research

For the last 30 years, legal mandates and initiatives in education outlined the framework for the current push toward inclusive education in the US and sparked the research on the attitudes and beliefs held by those responsible for implementing inclusion. It is clear that teacher perceptions are a factor in determining the effectiveness of an inclusive program and that the principals' views of inclusion influence the support that they provide for those teachers. The research also shows that teachers identify consistent variables that need to be in place in order for them to effectively teach students with disabilities in the general education classroom (e.g., Askamit et al., 1987; Bruneau-Balderrama, 1997; Cook, 2001; Cornoldi et al., 1998; Finegan, 2004; Grier, 2001;

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Hammond & Ingalls, 2003; Hastings & Oakford, 2003; Jobe et al., 1996; Kavale & Forness, 2000; Knight, 1999; Kwon, 2004; Loomos, 2001; Monahan et al., 1996; O'Rorke-Trigiani, 2003; Petch-Hogan & Haggard, 1999; Rao, 2004; Salend, 2001; Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1996; Seaby, 2003; Tomei, 2000; Wendt, 1999). Inclusion is a pervasive concept in all educational communities today, and private schools are not exempt from integrating students with disabilities into their classrooms. However, research regarding the perceptions of teachers and principals in private schools is sparse. Little evidence suggests that the attitudes and needs of teachers in private schools have been assessed to the extent that would allow generalizations to be made. Therefore, the purpose of this study is to extend the research in this area by examining a portion of the private school population; independent schools affiliated with the NAIS.

Specifically, this research will help provide information on how teachers and principals in private schools perceive inclusion by using a large sample of the population affiliated with the NAIS and by producing data that will reflect their views as well as the variables that need to be in place in private schools to practice inclusion successfully. This study will add to a general body of knowledge on inclusion of students with disabilities and specifically contribute to the limited body of knowledge on the perceptions of inclusion as it relates to independent schools. The results of the study may be used to determine the criteria that must be in place in an independent school environment in order to promote positive teacher attitudes toward inclusion and next steps for effective classroom practices.

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Research Questions

Two sets of research questions were designed to examine the factors that influence the attitudes of teachers and principals affiliated with the NAIS regarding the inclusion of students with disabilities. The following questions form the basis of this research study.

Comparing attitudes.

Research question one. Are the overall attitudes toward inclusion held by administrators of independent schools affiliated with the NAIS significantly different than the teachers who are also affiliated with NAIS schools?

Research question two. Is the perception held by administrators different than that held by teachers regarding the types of students with disabilities serviced in their schools and classrooms?

Research question three. Is there a significant correlation between overall attitudes toward inclusion held by administrators and teachers affiliated with NAIS schools and the grade level they service?

Research question four: Are the overall attitudes toward inclusion held by administrators of independent schools affiliated with the NAIS significantly different than the teachers who are also affiliated with NAIS schools when considering their total years of experience as an educator?

Research question five. Are the overall attitudes toward inclusion held by administrators of independent schools affiliated with the NAIS significantly different than the teachers who are also affiliated with NAIS schools when considering the percentage of students with disabilities enrolled in their divisions or classrooms?

Factors pertaining to practice.

Research question six. Does the perceived amount of planning time to prepare for students with disabilities influence teacher attitudes toward inclusion?

Research question seven. Do the hours spent completing professional development related to special education influence teacher attitudes toward inclusion?

Research question eight. Does the perceived level of competence in implementing modifications and accommodations influence teacher attitudes toward inclusion?

Research question nine. Is the perception held by administrators different than that held by teachers regarding the provision of in-service training pertaining to students with disabilities prior to inclusion?

Research question ten. Is the perception held by administrators different than that held by teachers regarding administrative support directly related to the inclusion of students with disabilities?

Research question eleven. Is the perception held by administrators different than that held by teachers regarding whether or not they were involved in the decision to include students with disabilities in their classroom?

These research questions were explored by evaluating the attitudes and practices of administrators and teachers at various grade levels. This was accomplished by electronically surveying a sample of the population.

Statement of Hypotheses

H_1: There will be a statistically significant difference between NAIS affiliated administrator and teacher attitudes toward inclusion. Specifically, administrators will demonstrate more favorable attitudes.

H_2: There will be no difference between NAIS affiliated administrator and teacher attitudes regarding their perceptions of the types of student disability serviced in their schools and classrooms.

H_3: There will be no correlation between NAIS affiliated administrator and teacher attitudes toward inclusion and the grade level they service.

H_4: There will be a statistically significant difference between NAIS affiliated administrator and teacher attitudes toward inclusion when considering their total years of experience as an educator.

H_5: There will be a statistically significant difference between NAIS affiliated administrator and teacher attitudes toward inclusion when considering the percentage of students with disabilities in their divisions or classrooms. Specifically, the attitudes of the administrators and teachers will be more similar and favorable, the smaller the percentage of students with disabilities enrolled.

H_6: There will be a significant positive relationship between teachers' perceived amount of planning time and their attitude toward inclusion.

H_7: There will be a significant positive relationship between teachers' indicated hours spent completing professional development related to special education and their attitude toward inclusion.

H_8: There will be a significant positive relationship between teachers' perceived level of competence in implementing modifications and accommodations and their attitude toward inclusion.

H_9: There will be a difference between NAIS affiliated administrator and teacher perceptions regarding whether or not in-service training pertaining to students with disabilities was provided by the school prior to inclusion. Specifically, a greater percentage of administrators than teachers will respond that in-service was provided for the teachers.

H_{10}: There will be a statistically significant difference between NAIS affiliated administrators and teachers perceptions regarding administrative support. Specifically, the perception of the administrators will be more favorable than that of the teachers.

H_{11}: There will be a difference between NAIS affiliated administrator and teacher perceptions regarding whether or not they were involved in the decision to include students with disabilities in their classroom. Specifically, the perception of the administrators will be more favorable than that of the teachers.

Assumptions

This study presupposed that the administrators and teachers in independent schools affiliated with the NAIS are implementing inclusive practice in their schools. It is also presupposed that the respondents to the ORI survey were representative of the population of administrators and teachers in independent schools affiliated with the NAIS and that the sample population provided honest answers to the survey questions.

Limitations

Generalizations of this study are limited to administrators and teachers in independent schools who are affiliated with NAIS and did not include other types of schools in the public and nonpublic population. The study was also limited to the attitudes of administrators, who function as principals, and teachers and did not include other relevant factors such as the attitudes of parents, other administrators, and students. The methodology of this study could be considered limiting in that the survey approach does not provide the respondents the opportunity to offer descriptive examples of their experiences. Additionally, the survey is meant to measure attitudes toward the concept of inclusion and is limited in its ability to assess attitudes toward specific types of disabilities (Avramidis et al., 2000).

Significance of the Study

As inclusion gained momentum, special and general education merged, thus changing the face of the general education classroom and requiring general education teachers acquire more skill in a variety of pedagogical areas. Since 1990, laws and initiatives promoted a swift shift toward inclusive classrooms, but teachers were not fully prepared to take on the responsibilities required to meet the needs of a wide range of students with varying ability and disability. Confusion prevails as the language of special education is not clearly defined, responsibilities are not clearly delineated between special and general education teachers, professional development is not consistently in place, and the resources and support are not always available to the general education teacher (Askamit et al., 1987; Bruneau-Balderrama, 1997; Cook, 2001; Cornoldi et al., 1998; Finegan, 2004; Grier, 2001; Hammond & Ingalls, 2003; Hastings & Oakford,

2003; Jobe et al., 1996; Kavale & Forness, 2000; Knight, 1999; Kwon, 2004; Loomos, 2001; Monahan et al., 1996; O'Rorke-Trigiani, 2003; Petch-Hogan & Haggard, 1999; Rao, 2004; Salend, 2001; Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1996; Seaby, 2003; Tomei, 2000; Wendt, 1999). Despite this lack of clarity and training, many teachers in the US are forced to practice inclusion while the number of students with disabilities continues to rise. The feeling that teachers are inundated with greater responsibility, one that they are not prepared to have, chipped away at the initial positive feelings surrounding the inclusive movement.

Chapter 2

Review of the Literature

The Gradual Yet Persistent Move Toward Inclusion

To further understand the present inclusion controversy, it is helpful to identify

and describe the chronological landmarks in education that led up to it. Since the early

1970s, P.L. 94-142, Section 504 (C.F.R. 104) of the Vocational Rehabilitation Act of

1973, sections of Title V of the Rehabilitation Act (P.L. 93-112), and the ADA of 1990

were instrumental in establishing and ensuring the educational rights of children with

disabilities and were partially responsible for restructuring special education. However,

the gradual move toward inclusion began as far back as the 1930s and gathered

momentum throughout the century as researchers, educators, parents, and advocacy

groups recognized significant factors that validated the move away from educating

students with disabilities in a segregated setting toward an integrated environment with

their peers without disabilities (Winzer, 1993).

Between the 1930s and 1975, when P.L. 94-142 was enacted, the number of

children with disabilities increased dramatically, and the pressure to decide where to

educate those children became critical. The types and prevalence of children with

disabilities in the US was first made public at a White House conference by President

Herbert Hoover in 1930. The report recognized that 7.89% of all children were mentally

or physically impaired enough to warrant special class provisions (Osgood, 2005).

Although the report did not focus on special education services for these children,

students with disabilities were integrated in the classroom to some degree. Between 1948

and 1953, the number of children enrolled in special education classes and schools

increased by 47%, and the number of school districts providing special education services increased by 83% (Mackie, 1969). As the number of students increased, the discussion about how to appropriately serve those students and in what setting heightened. In the 1940s and 1950s the debate generally focused on segregation versus integration. The debate was the epicenter of the 1954 Supreme Court case *Brown v. the Board of Education of Topeka*. Although not pertaining to special education, the discussion of where and how minority students would be educated was not lost on the special education community, and the case continues to have far reaching application regarding students with disabilities. By the 1960s, parents and advocacy groups moved beyond considering the appropriateness of a segregated versus an integrated environment and became concerned by the ethical, moral, and legal implications of segregation (Gallagher, 1972; Wright & Wright, 2007).

Despite this concern, while the number of children identified with disabilities grew in the public school system, segregated, residential facilities expanded across the nation and the amount of children attending school in institutional settings doubled. Students identified as deaf, blind, mentally disabled, emotionally disturbed, socially maladjusted, delinquent, epileptic, or physically impaired resided in residential institutions (Osgood, 2005). Conditions of overcrowding and reports of inhumane treatment of residents promoted further debate about the care of students with disabilities. Regardless, institutions seemed to be the only way to support children with disabilities and in response to the increasing need, access to these facilities grew throughout the 1960s. By 1966 over 127,000 children of school age were enrolled in institutions (Osgood, 2005).

The rapid increase in identification of children with disabilities was due to the mislabeling of children, the addition of disability categories, and the development of more advanced tools to assess intelligence during this decade. Children who were disadvantaged or minorities were routinely mislabeled *feebleminded* as they were thought to come from a less intelligent genetic background or an inferior race (Sarason & Gladwin, 1958). The increase in labeling was also due to the addition of the learning disability category in 1963. This category did not have a clear definition and was often used to explain why many children were not successful academically. Furthermore, identification also increased in the 1960s when revisions of psychological tests, such as the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Scales, were frequently used to measure general intelligence and diagnose disability as well as determine placement for students who were challenged academically (Becker, 2003). "Between 1958 and 1966, the number of formally identified students receiving special education services either in schools, institutions, or other settings more than doubled from just under 976,000 to more than 2,106,000" (Osgood, 2005, p. 73).

Three significant pieces of literature condemned the growing segregated system by expressing disdain for the lack of response from the educational community and the government to the increasing numbers of students with disabilities and the apparent need to restructure the service delivery and placement for those children. In 1962, scholar and special educator, G. Orville Johnson, in an article for *Exceptional Children* entitled "Special Education for the Mentally Handicapped - A Paradox," suggested that special education classes were "inferior in terms of academic achievement, and not significantly better in personal and social development" (p. 65). Lloyd Dunn, an icon in the field of

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education and assessment for students with disabilities published an article in 1968, "Special Education for the Mildly Retarded - Is it Justifiable?" and asserted that the structure of special education must be examined and changed. Too many students were mislabeled and consequently receiving an inferior education. He proposed that special education and general education merge through collaboration and the formation of resource rooms. In 1970, activist Evelyn Deno called for radical educational reform by reporting that the success of special education was currently measured by the number of students each district enrolled in their pull-out programs. Special educators were at the mercy of general educators, and their classrooms were the equivalent of a dumping ground for any student who was disruptive or a *slow learner*. She proposed the idea of a cascade of services, originally promoted by Maynard Reynolds in 1962, but she inverted the pyramid (see Figure 2). This meant that pull-out programming was the last level of service after all other less segregated efforts proved unsuccessful.

Evelyn Deno's "Cascade System of Special Education Services" Pyramid
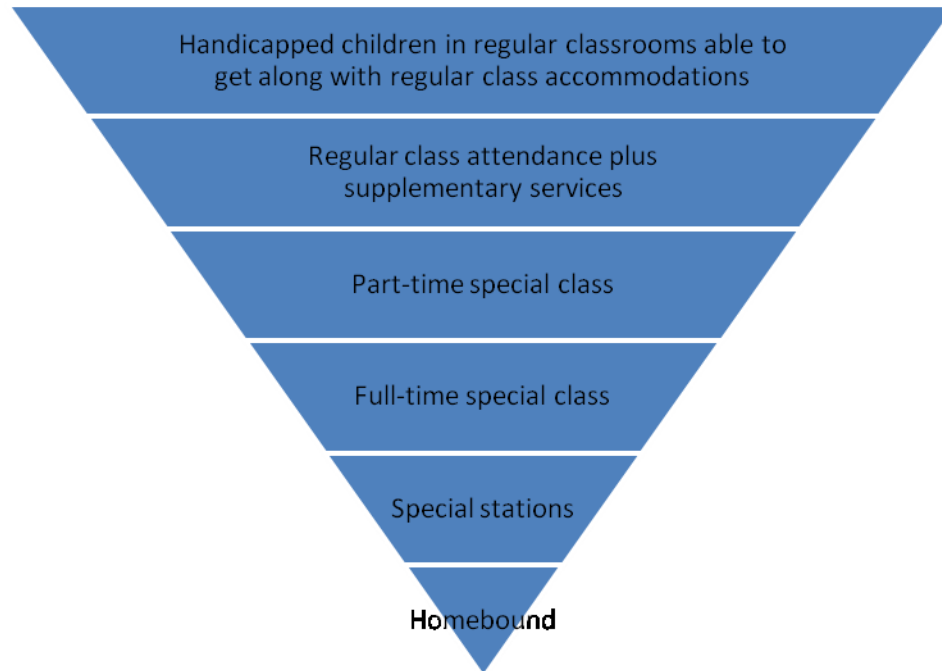
Figure 2. Adapted from "Developmental Capital," by E. Deno, 1970, *Exceptional Children*, 37, p. 235.

PL 94-142 supported this continuum of placement options. The CEC quickly embraced this idea and created a policy statement that supported free public education and the merger of special and general education through the cascade of services model. A quote from Deno's 1970 article, "Developmental Capital" significantly impacted the future of special education.

Special educators or remedial teachers of any stripe must ask themselves whether they are justified in continuing to try to fix up the children that an inadequate instructional program has maimed so they will fit better into a system that should be adjusting itself to the learning needs of the children rather than expecting children to adjust to them. By providing the regular system with a respectable out for its failure to give every child equal opportunity to realize his potential, special

educators may be perpetuating systems that ought to be challenged to change. (p. 235)

These three seminal articles made profound points which angered the great majority of the educational community and allowed them to see the disadvantages and corruption of the segregated system. It seemed that as the 1960s came to an end, everyone who had a stake in special education from parents, to policy makers, to teachers was interested in promoting a more inclusive environment for students with disabilities. By 1974, the research identified four factors that called for a swift move toward inclusion and became the catalyst for the laws that are in place today to protect the rights of persons with disabilities:

The failure of research to establish the effectiveness of special classes; the recognition of the cultural bias and consequent inappropriate diagnosis of children as disabled, especially those from minority and/or disadvantaged backgrounds; the counterproductive, even debilitating effects of labeling; and court litigation establishing the right of disabled children to an equitable and appropriate education in regular education settings to the maximum extent possible. (Osgood, 2005, p. 101)

Although viable alternatives to segregation existed and educators and national organizations supported a change, they were routinely avoided at the school level. Children with disabilities often experienced a struggle in meeting general education goals and this situation was deemed intolerable by educators in general classrooms. Despite the lack of research on teachers' attitudes, it was evident in the 1960s that the perceptions of teachers regarding children with disabilities in the general education classroom

influenced the successful realization of an inclusive or even integrated model (Osgood, 2005). Later, a 1972 study on teachers' perceptions indicated that their attitudes varied depending on the disability of the child, and they were less favorable toward students with physical disabilities as opposed to those labeled with mental retardation or emotional disturbance (Panda & Bartel, 1972).

The Merger of Special and General Education Despite Resistance

Because of these perceptions and attitudes, teachers were not leading the charge of the inclusion movement. However, parents of children with disabilities were increasingly frustrated by the discrimination against their children. In the early 1970s, two seminal court case decisions *Pennsylvania Association for Retarded Citizens v. Commonwealth of Pennsylvania* (1971), and *Mills v. Board of Education of the District of Columbia* (1972), forced the issue and solidified the rights of children with disabilities to be educated, at no cost, in a public school environment with peers without disabilities in certain states. Two other cases prompted change in California. *Diana v. State Board of Education* (1970) and *Larry P. v. Riles* (1984) argued the educational misplacement and labeling of a child due to procedures involving standardized tests and the cultural bias of the placement decision makers. By 1972, 70% of the states implemented legislation which protected the rights of children with disabilities as well as promoted an unbiased placement process. Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act was established in 1973 to protect the rights of students and employees with disabilities in systems receiving federal funding (Rehabilitation Act, 1973). These persons could not be excluded from participation in programs or activities due to their disability and qualified for accommodations and modifications during testing. Section 504 did not require schools to

create individualized programs for the person with a disability. However, by 1975 all students identified as having a disability were afforded an IEP according to federal mandate P.L. 94-142. The mandate also required that all states comply with offering FAPE in the LRE for all children with disabilities. The mainstreaming movement, as it was called then, was in full force. Despite the forward motion, little was done to change the attitudes of the 1960s, and educators continued to express their concern for the rapid move to integrate students with disabilities without the proper teacher training or support (MacMillan, Jones, & Myers, 1976). Edwin Martin, who later served as the first Assistant Secretary for Special Education and Rehabilitative Services, voiced his opinion in a 1974 article in *Exceptional Children* that "we are failing to develop our approach to mainstreaming with a full recognition of the barriers which must be overcome" (p. 151). The word mainstreaming was first used in 1963 by Samuel Kirk in a conference presentation but had now made its way into every journal and publication about special education and seemed to signify the rebirth of special education. The term itself and the structure it promoted caused great distress for educators, parents, and policy makers for the next decade. Mainstreaming challenged the way schools did business and forced special and general educators to work together. Prior to P.L. 94-142, a comfortable and accepted division existed between the special and general educators and mainstreaming physically removed that division. In many cases, due to their lack of readiness, districts simply did not comply with what was outlined in P.L. 94-142 (Sarson & Doris, 1978). Parents and advocacy groups such as the CEC and the National Association for Retarded Citizens became even more frustrated with the lack of effectiveness of P.L. 94-142. They

were particularly concerned about the discrimination felt by their children in the social community of school.

As the number of parents, advocacy groups, and federal mandates increased in size and volume, so did the pressure to mainstream. During the 1980s school districts attempted somewhat half-heartedly to comply with P.L. 94-142 and made efforts to create parameters for the successful mainstreaming of children with disabilities. Programs such as the Adaptive Learning Environments Model (Wang, 1984) and the Team Assisted Individualization Program (Slavin, 1984) charged educators to rethink the process of mainstreaming and the possibilities of creating a more individualized, cooperative learning environment. They proposed ways for schools to focus on educational intervention rather than the placement of children and to recognize that all children have unique learning needs despite a *label* (Slavin, 1984; Wang, Peverly & Randolph, 1984). While these programs were not widely used by each state, this type of reframing paved the way to move beyond just mainstreaming and toward inclusion. Although the programs did not gather much traction, one seminal piece of literature was published in 1984 that ignited the inclusion debate of special education which burns on today. "A Rationale for the Merger of Special and Regular Education" demanded that educators move away from understanding who does and does not belong and focus instead on meeting the needs of all of the students (Stainback & Stainback, 1984). This article suggested a more radical approach to servicing special education students by integrating them fully in the general education classroom. The article caught the attention of Madeline Will, Assistant Secretary for the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services in the U.S. Department of Education, and a mother of a child with

Down syndrome. She granted the restructuring of special education using the Stainbacks' framework. Collaboration and shared responsibility of educators were at the heart of the new framework. Will (1986) envisioned the "nurturing of a shared commitment to the future of all children with special needs" (Will, p. 415). These programs, proposals, and visions for a new special education were summarized and renamed the REI in the late 1980s and called for the full and complete integration of students with disabilities in the regular classroom.

REI was never implemented on a large scale and Gartner and Lipsky (1987) reported in their research that little had changed on the school level regarding the integration of children with disabilities over the last ten years. The process for identifying disabilities was confusing and unclear and in more cases than not, a student considered a slow learner or behaviorally-challenging was labeled with a disability. The authors described an unwritten deal made between special and general educators. The special educators possessed an expertise in that area of education and therefore had the obligation, responsibility, and desire to teach the students with disabilities. The general educators were not skilled in this way, lacked the resources, and were more than happy to give up their responsibility for those students (Gartner & Lipsky, 1987). It seemed like a deal that satisfied both types of educators; however, the pressure to move toward inclusion from outside forces would not let up.

REI had it critics outside of public education as well. Articles published in the mid-1980s explained that REI and the proposals brought forth by the Stainbacks (1984) were presumptuous in assuming that educational systems should become student-centered. There was little faith that educational systems could come up with the

additional funding and skilled professionals to contribute to the shared responsibility (Lieberman, 1985; Mesinger, 1985). Lieberman noted that special education was created because those in general education were not willing or able to accommodate children with disabilities, and nothing had changed since its creation. The argument was made that "we cannot drag regular educators kicking and screaming into a merger with special education" (p. 514) and the "daily evidence on mainstreaming attitudes is too overwhelming" (Liberman, p. 514). The bottom line was that the proposals supported by Madeline Will and the REI seemed premature by years. By the last part of the decade, numbers of critics felt strongly that our nation had jettisoned into the REI movement without much scientific evidence that mainstreaming was not providing a viable system for the integration of students with disabilities. However, some also suspected that the federal government was behind the REI because it reduced federal spending on the population of disadvantaged in schools (Kauffman, 1989).

Parents were simply not satisfied with the assertions that schools moved too quickly to support REI, and by 1990 more than 30 advocacy groups came together to push for the passage of the ADA. President George H.W. Bush signed off on ADA, which was thought of as the first civil rights act for persons with disabilities. The Act prohibited discrimination against people with disabilities in employment (Title I), in public services (Title II), in public accommodations (Title III), and in telecommunications (Title IV). Meanwhile, struggling to make P.L. 94-142 work, it was reauthorized and renamed IDEA in 1990. The language of LRE obligated educators to place students with disabilities in general classrooms. The disability categories of autism and traumatic brain injury were added at that time rounding out the current 13 categories

of disability. IDEA was reauthorized several more times specifically in 1997 by

President William Clinton and again in 2004 by President George W. Bush.

Negative feelings surrounding inclusion prevailed in the latter part of the 1990s

and in the first part of the new century. In an effort to improve attitudes federal agencies,

researchers, and national organizations attempted to put a favorable spin on inclusion by

promoting a more positive attitude, defining the roles of special and general educators,

and promoting teacher training and support. Some examples of this effort would include:

- "Inclusion: Answers to Frequently Asked Questions" from the National Education
  Association (Wrightslaw, 2011b);

- "Conditions of Teaching Children with Exceptional Learning Needs: The Bright
  Futures Report" (Coleman, 2001);

- "Implementing IDEA: A Guide for Principals" (CEC, 2001);

- "Standards For Diverse Learners" (Kluth & Straut, 2001);

- "Twenty-Five Years of Educating Children with Disabilities: The Good News
  and the Work Ahead" (American Youth Policy Forum and the Center on
  Education Policy, 2002);

- "The Coexistence of High Standards and Inclusion: Whole-School Approaches
  can Satisfy Requirements of IDEA and NCLB Act" (Lipsky, 2003);

- "The Council for Exceptional Children Definition of a Well-Prepared Special
  Education Teacher" (CEC, 2004);

- "NCLB and IDEA: What Parents of Students with Disabilities Need to Know &
  Do" (Cortiella, 2006).

With all of this promotion going on outside of schools researchers became interested in the effects of inclusion on teacher attitudes and their understanding of their role as an educator. Wood explained in her 1998 article entitled "Whose Job is it Anyway: Educational Roles in Inclusion," that the most important part of collaboration is the clarification of roles. Her survey outlined what special and general education teachers thought they should provide.

While the lack of clarity surrounding inclusion continued new federal laws were created to pressure school districts into raising the achievement of all students in elementary and secondary school. In 2002, NCLB sought to "close the achievement gap between groups of students that historically perform poorly than their higher performing peers" (Cortiella, 2006, p. 6). This meant that each child had the opportunity to receive a high quality education and was expected to perform at the proficient level on challenging achievement tests and assessments. School districts were responsible for including students with disabilities, providing an equal education for them, and now demonstrating that they made proficient annual yearly progress on standardized tests. Proficiency for all in math and reading was the expectation of NCLB by the year 2014. President George W. Bush signed off on another reauthorization of IDEA in 2004 aligning it with NCLB and assuring that all students with disabilities had "access to high expectations and to the general education curriculum in the regular classroom to the maximum extent possible" (Corteilla, 2006, p. 8). The mandates together assured individualized instruction for students with disabilities while holding schools accountable for their students' achievements. These were powerful opportunities for students with disabilities. The

shared responsibility between special and general education teachers that the Stainbacks (1984) and Will (1986) envisioned in 1986 was now a reality.

It was clear that by 2004, federal mandates required schools to not only educate students with disabilities with their nondisabled peers, but to maintain high standards for those students and to hold teachers accountable for prioritizing the needs of those students. The era of separating special education from general education was closing despite the attitudes and opinions of the educators… while the numbers of students in special education continued to increase yearly (U.S. Department of Education, 2010).

Attitudes Toward Inclusion

In 1918, Thomas and Znaniecki asserted that attitudes were a cognitive process and that they determined an individual's potential as well as his/her response to social stimuli. Social psychologists began to examine attitudes toward people with disabilities through a descriptive, three-option checklist in the 1930s (Strong, 1931). An attempt was made to create a more objective scale in 1943 by Mussen and Barker. A five-point rating system was used to measure the attitudes of people without disabilities toward those who had physical disabilities. At the time, the term *crippled* was used as a precursor to disability. Assessment of attitudes toward people who were blind, deaf, and mentally ill were the focus of scales created in the 1950s and 1960s. The instruments created during these decades suggested that measuring attitudes was complex and multidimensional. The Attitude Toward Disabled Persons Scale (ATDP) created by Yucker, Block and Campbell in 1960 became the most widely used and carefully studied instrument measuring attitudes toward persons with disabilities. However, despite its popularity of use, the tool was unidimensional, measuring attitude along a continuum from positive to

negative. Siller (1969) attempted to create a multidimensional scale that measured attitudes toward disability type with the Disability Factor Scales (DFS-G). Others created instruments that measured attitudes toward those who were mentally retarded. The Attitudes Toward Mentally Retarded People Scale (AMRP; Bartlett, Quay, & Wrightsman, 1960), the Attitudes Toward the Retarded Scale (ATR; Efron & Efron, 1967), and the Multidimensional Attitude Scale on Mental Retardation (MASMR; Harth, 1974) were three such scales. With the implementation of P.L. 94-142, more students with disabilities were integrated into the public schools, and researchers began to turn their attention toward the idea that attitudes of their teachers might influence the success of the mandate. One of the first scales to measure the attitudes of those responsible for implementing inclusion was the Opinions Relative to Mainstreaming Scale (ORM; Larrivee & Cook, 1979).

Measuring attitudes today. More surveys were developed in this area of education because research suggests that positive attitudes of teachers and parents toward inclusion influence its successful implementation (Bliken, 1985; Cornoldi et al., 1998; Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1996). A variety of scales were developed to measure the attitudes of teachers, parents, and students.

Berryman and Neal (1980) created The Attitudes Toward Mainstreaming Scale (ATMS). It was one of the first survey instruments to assess attitudes toward inclusion and report solid validity. The scale presented 18 favorable statements about inclusion and claimed to measure three dimensions of attitudes: (1) attitudes toward the inclusion of students with disabilities that do not interfere with academic progress (e.g., speech and motor disabilities); (2) attitudes toward the inclusion of students with behavior problems;

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(3) attitudes toward the inclusion of students with severe disabilities (e.g., blindness and deafness). The Scale of Attitudes Toward Disabled People (SADP) was created in 1981 in an effort to correct some of the psychometric weaknesses of the ATMS (Antonak, 1982).

Statistical methods were used to construct The Teacher Integration Attitudes Questionnaire (TIAQ). It is intended to measure general education teachers' assessment of their skill regarding inclusion, the benefits of inclusion, the social acceptance of students with disabilities in the general classroom, and the teacher's assessment of the support received in terms of materials and funding that allows them to successfully implement inclusion. A limitation of the instrument was that it was used only with music and physical education teachers (Sideridis & Chandler, 1997).

Specific dimensions of school inclusion were measured with the construction of other questionnaires. The Impact of Inclusion Questionnaire assesses teachers' attitudes as they relate to stress and workload caused by including students with disabilities as well as the parent and community views toward inclusion (Hastings & Oakford, 2003). The students with disabilities rate their social and learning skills needed for success by using the Mainstreaming Social Skills Questionnaires (Salend & Salend, 1986). Another scale was developed to measure the attitudes of parents and teachers of students with mental retardation. Parent Attitudes Toward Inclusion Scale attempts to measure the parents' perception of the quality of services in an inclusive classroom, the opportunities for students with and without disabilities in that classroom, as well as the acceptance of the students with disabilities (Palmer, Borthwick-Duffy, & Widaman, 1998).

Finally, the Opinions Relative to the Integration of Students with Disabilities Scale (ORI) was published in 1995 and is regarded as the most psychometrically sound scale (Balboni, de Falco & Venuti, 2005). When the ORM was rewritten to create the ORI, each statement was updated to include more contemporary terminology and to improve the psychometric properties of the scale. Of the 25 statements, 13 are statements in favor of inclusion (e.g., "Students with disabilities can best be served in general classrooms") and the remaining 12 are statements against inclusion (e.g., "it is likely that the student with a disability will exhibit behavior problems in a general classroom") (Antonak & Larrivee, 1995, p. 1). The authors of the ORI claim that the scale measures four different components of the construct of school inclusion: Factor (1) academic and social benefits of integration for the student with and without disabilities; Factor (2) behavior of students with disabilities and the classroom management procedures that inclusion may require; Factor (3) teachers' perceived ability to teach students with disabilities in the general classroom; Factor (4) thoughts about special versus integrated general education. The four factors were determined after an initial factor analysis was completed for a large sample of students taking special education courses (Antonak & Larrivee, 1995).

Research Identifies Variables that Influence Attitudes

Since Scruggs and Mastropieri published their meta-analysis in 1996 researchers continue to explore the attitudes of teachers and administrators regarding inclusion. A key piece of research was added to the literature when Seaby (2003) published another meta-analysis of general education teacher attitudes toward inclusion from 1980-2001. It seemed that support for inclusion was increasing over time. Slightly more than half of

those surveyed had positive attitudes toward inclusion. Teachers preferred to include students with physical disabilities as opposed to other types of disabilities. High school teachers felt least prepared to implement inclusion, and less than one third of the entire sample felt lacking in their preparation. Only a small percentage of the teachers felt that they had adequate resources, support, and time.

When examining Seaby's (2003) meta-analysis findings continue to support that two types of variables influence attitudes; variables that relate to attitudes and variables that relate to needs of the teachers consistent with Scruggs and Mastropieri (1996). The most significant variables are; the type of disability, the severity of the disability, and the perception of teacher burden. Sufficient support, including administrative support, planning time, materials, personnel resources, as well as expertise/training, are the consistent variables which relate to the needs of the teachers.

Variables that relate to attitudes. The level of severity and the type of disability influences attitudes toward inclusion (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Bryant et al., 1999; Cook, 2001; Greir, 2001; Hastings & Oakford, 2003; O'Rorke-Trigiani, 2003; Salend & Duhaney, 1999; Scott, Vitale, & Masten, 1998). This is exemplified in three seminal pieces of literature. In 2001, Cook attempted to compare the attitudes of teachers regarding the inclusion of students with mild disabilities to those with severe disabilities. The sample consisted of 70 general education teachers in six Ohio school districts. In order to distinguish mild from severe he broke the disability categories into two groups; those students with attention deficit/hyperactivity disorders (ADHD), learning disabilities, and behavioral disorders comprised the group of those possessing a mild *hidden disability*. Those with mental retardation, autism, hearing impairment, multiple

disabilities, orthopedic disabilities, visual impairments, and other health impairments were categorized as severe, and *obviously impaired*. Teachers completed a form that instructed them to nominate three students who represented the best answer to the prompts which were divided into four attitudinal categories (i.e., attachment, concern, indifference, and rejection). In the end, students with severe, obvious disabilities were overrepresented in the indifference category while students with mild, hidden disabilities were overrepresented in the rejection category. The teachers explained that attitude and behavior where the two factors that influenced their nomination of a student in the rejection category. Cook surmised:

> Despite their disability label, teachers appear to hold modal or unadjusted expectations for these students due to the hidden nature of their disabilities. Students with mild or hidden disabilities are violating expectations and are rejected because they fall outside of teachers' instructional tolerance and pose classroom management problems. (p. 209)

Cook asserted that rejection rates for students with mild, hidden disabilities are even higher in fully inclusive classrooms where students with behavioral issues are included more often. This particular study was limited by the use of a single nomination scale, and the researcher felt that a valid rating scale that assessed teacher attitudes would yield significant information. Cook also felt that measuring the attitudes of teachers who function in fully inclusive classrooms would provide a more diverse sample.

Grier (2001) surveyed 91 general education teachers with a modified version of the Teacher Integration Attitude Questionnaire. They primarily agreed that the inclusion of students with mild disabilities was preferable to including those with severe

disabilities. Teachers recognized the benefits of inclusion for students in all disability categories but did not feel they had the skill or support to service these students effectively.

Two years later, Hastings and Oakford (2003) found that pre-service teachers expressed a more favorable attitude toward students with intellectual disabilities as opposed to those with emotional or behavioral challenges. Ninety-three university students completed the Impact of Inclusion Questionnaire which was designed specifically for the study. Pre-service teachers rated students with emotional or behavioral disabilities as negatively impacting the other children, the teacher, the school, and the classroom environment.

The ATIES (Wilczenski, 1993) was used in O'Rorke-Trigiani's (2003) study to investigate the attitudes of administrators, counselors, special educators, and general educators in elementary and middle schools. The results indicated that the sample was most favorable about including children with *social disabilities*, followed by physical disabilities, and lastly, academic disabilities. The educators were least favorable about including students with behavioral disabilities.

Continuing to investigate attitudes that related to disability type and severity, a study of 430 general and special education teachers was conducted in Portugal in 2004 to measure their attitudes toward teaching problem students in a general classroom (Lopes, Monteiro, Sil, Rutherford, & Quinn, 2004). The survey results indicated that the teachers felt that the needs of students with behavioral challenges could not be met in the general education classroom without special education support. They expressed sincere doubt

about the success of inclusion but agreed that challenging students deserve the opportunity to be educated in the general classroom.

A second variable that influences attitudes toward inclusion is the perception of burden to the teacher (Avramidis et al., 2000; D'Alanzo et al., 1997; Loomos, 2001; Schumm & Vaughn, 1995; Scott et al., 1998; Soodak, Podell, & Lehman, 1998; Wendt, 1999). D'Alanzo, Giordano, and Vanleeuwen (1997) uncovered the concerns teachers had about teacher stress, classroom management, curricular changes, parent concerns, cooperation, amount of paperwork, and bureaucracy associated with inclusion. Special and general educators, as well as aides, and administrators comprised the sample of 336. The data was collected with a survey instrument created for the study.

Wendt (1999) also indicated that the attitudes of the 60 teachers that she surveyed in Chicago, using the ORI, were influenced by the level of teacher responsibility for providing modifications to the curriculum and the presence of an aide. Loomos (2001) also used the ORI. The participants indicated that managing class size, time, and behavior were of concern to them and influenced their attitude toward inclusion.

Variables that relate to needs. Support for teachers is clearly a variable that influences attitudes toward inclusion (Cornoldi et al., 1998; Finegan, 2004; Grier, 2001; Hammond & Ingalls, 2003; Loomos, 2001; Seaby, 2003; Snyder, 1999; Wendt, 1999). Cornoldi, Terreni, Scruggs, and Mastropieri (1998) developed a survey for their study of 523 general education teachers in north and central Italy. They discovered that overall the teachers supported the concept of inclusion. Time, training, personnel support, and instructional materials were identified as the barriers to practicing successful inclusion.

In Hammond and Ingall's 2003 study, teachers were not committed to practicing inclusion. The benefits of inclusion were not clearly evident to them, and they felt that a more traditional special education model would be appropriate for students with disabilities. Their primary concerns focused on the lack of training, collaboration, and support from their administration. Snyder's (1999) sample of in-service teachers in South Carolina revealed similar attitudes. Lack of administrative support, communication, and training contributed to feelings of negativity regarding the implementation of inclusion.

It is evident through past research that teaching experience in an inclusive setting and training influence attitudes as opposed to the years of teaching experience overall (Avramidis et al., 2000; Burke & Sutherland, 2004; Cornoldi et al., 1998; D'Alanzo et al., 1997; Finegan, 2004; Grier, 2001; Jobe et al., 1996; Kwon, 2004; Shade & Stewart, 2001; Tomei, 2000). Tomei surveyed 430 elementary teachers in Florida and reported that attitudes were influenced by pre-service training and experiential opportunities for teachers to develop their confidence in working with students with disabilities. The findings of the study also suggested that educational leaders should provide visible and vocal support for those who are practicing inclusion.

Shade and Stewart (2001) reported that in their study of 194 pre-service teachers, a single course can change the attitudes of teachers toward including students with disabilities in their classroom. Kwon (2004) surveyed 190 elementary teachers in Kansas to understand their attitudes regarding inclusion. The participants expressed a positive attitude toward the concept of inclusion but felt that they did not have the pre-service training to implement it effectively.

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The Merger of Public and Private Education in Order to Comply

It is clear that the merger between special and general education is challenging and wrought with controversy. General and special educators identify the much needed collaboration and support from each other as essential components for the successful implementation of inclusion. However, the research continues to suggest that these relationships are not well established, and teachers continue to feel a lack of collaboration and support and are thus, less confident about including students with disabilities (Bruneau-Balderrama, 1997; Finegan, 2004; Hammond & Ingalls, 2003; Kavale & Forness, 2000; Knight, 1999; Petch-Hogan & Haggard, 1999; Salend, 2001; Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1996).

To add to the tension, since IDEA and ADA were put into place, public and nonpublic schools are required to understand each other and comply with the laws together to help students with disabilities. Public laws and federal mandates have built a bridge from public schools to nonpublic schools, specifically nonsectarian, independent schools, in order to identify and service students with disabilities. However, the new road is not well traveled. These guidelines of IDEA and ADA, combined with independent school commitment to diversity, the projection of a declining enrollment between 2010 and 2012, and the increasing population of students with disabilities have indicated that independent school doors will be open to a more diverse population than ever and that inclusion and collaboration with the public sector will be the expectation of the teachers who work in those environments (Powell, 1996; Relic, 2006; U.S. Department of Education, 2010).

Independent schools. It is helpful to understand the history of independent schools in order to appreciate the challenge that independent schools face when including students with disabilities. The term independent school was coined in 1938 by the College Board in order to distinguish a group of schools from other religious and public schools (Powell, 1996). Independent schools are known as private or *prep* among the general population.

National Association of Independent Schools (NAIS). There are nearly 2,000 independent schools across the US educating more than 700,000 students from prekindergarten through high school and 1,400 have membership with the NAIS (NAIS, 2011a). NAIS is the largest association connected with independent schools that serves an academically rigorous, college preparatory population and is continuing to make efforts to grow in diversity. These schools are large and small in size, serving a variety of grade levels, and can be categorized in seven different ways:

Day schools: Where at least 95 percent of students live elsewhere and commute to campus.

Boarding schools: At least 95 percent of students live on campus in school housing.

Day/boarding schools: The majority of the students (between 51 and 94 percent) attend the school but live elsewhere, and the rest live in school housing.

Boarding/day schools: The majority of the students (between 51 and 94 percent) live in school housing, but some live elsewhere.

Coed schools: Both boys and girls attend.

Single-sex schools: For just boys or just girls.

International schools: Schools that mainly serve children who are not citizens of the host country, whether the United States or another nation (NAIS, 2009b).

In addition, there are a variety of types of membership to NAIS:

Full Member: Independent, non-profit schools that have received full accreditation from an accrediting program approved by NAIS. Full members have voting rights.

Provisional Member: Independent, non-profit schools in the process of meeting all NAIS requirements for full membership.

Premium Subscriber: Independent, proprietary schools in the US that are unable to meet the requirements for membership. International schools may also be premium school subscribers.

International Subscriber: Independent, non-profit schools located outside of the US.

Multi-Campus School: A satellite of member and subscriber schools with more than one campus (NAIS, 2009b).

Enrolling more than 568,628 students in 2010-2011, NAIS provides a median of 22.8% of their students with financial aid. They are often costly to attend with the median tuition in all grades for a day student being $19,075.00 and $42,770.00 for a boarding student. Median students of color make up 21.6% of the total enrollment, while international students make up 2.5% of the enrollment. The median class size is 15 (NAIS, 2011b).

They are independent in governance and finance. They are not-for-profit and raise money to operate themselves through tuition, endowment, donations, and other

means (Powell, 1996). Independence allows them freedom to define their mission, regulate admissions, define teacher credentials, and teach what they decide is important. Independent schools pride themselves on having democratic ideals and embracing racial, ethnic and socio-economic diversity. Research shows that families choose independent school because they "perceive the quality of teaching to be exceptional and the moral climate to be appropriate" (Bassett, 2009b, para. 5). In the early 1980s, John Esty characterized independent schools in seven ways:

1. Independent schools stress the individual student and all of the energy and resources are channeled into student learning, counseling, and growth.

2. Independent schools believe that teaching and learning go beyond the classroom and can be found on the playing field, in the dormitory, and other activities.

3. Student competence is measured routinely along the way with continued checks until every child is competent.

4. Independent schools set high academic standards and have high expectations of their students.

5. Values and ethics are an essential part of independent schools.

6. Independent schools stress social responsibility. Learning involves "differences, diversity, and pluralism. We believe that ambiguity and alternatives are needed for the context to build complex reasoning and problem-solving skills"

7. Independent schools stress public responsibility. (Esty, 1991, p. 24)

Their independence from governmental control and their academic admissions criteria suggest that independent schools might not accept, nor are they responsible for, including students with disabilities. However, during the 1990s, federal mandates and an effort to diversify on the part of independent schools would change that assumption.

Independent schools and students with disabilities. During the 1990s, several court cases helped clarify the guidelines of IDEA (1997) which identified the responsibility of the public school district regarding servicing students with disabilities in private school environments. Those cases included: *Cefalu Cefalu v. East Baton Rouge Parish School Board* (1997); *Foley v. Special School District of St. Louis County* (1998); *Fowler v. Unified School District No Sedgwick County Kansas* (1997); *Kr Mr Krr Mr Krr v. Anderson Community School Corporation* (1997); *Peter v. Wedl* (1998); *Russman Russman v. Board of Education of the Enlarged City School District of the City of Watervliet* (1998; Osborne et al., 2000). The 1995 EDGAR regulations, revisions of IDEA in 1997, and these cases made it clear that public school districts and private schools had to work together to assure that the needs of those students who were identified with disabilities were met to the greatest degree possible. Found in Section 1412 of IDEA, it is evident that school systems must allocate a proportionate amount of federal monies for students with disabilities in private schools to the number of students with disabilities in public school. The regulations stated that the public school had to provide opportunities for students enrolled in parentally placed private schools to participate in programs for students with disabilities and that the program must be comparable in quality to that at the public school. This meant that the public schools must provide either an on or off site service, as well as transportation if necessary. They

are clearly responsible for coordinating with the private schools who will receive support, how the recipients will be identified, which supports will be provided, and how it will be delivered as well as how each support program will be evaluated. However, it is expected that the level of service may not be equal to the level that they would receive had they enrolled in public school instead (IDEA, 2006; Osborne et al., 2000).

Diversity. Since 1938, three primary components contributed to the changing demographics in independent schools that relate to the inclusion of students with disabilities. Specifically, diversity, trends in enrollment, and increasing identification of students with disabilities have caused independent schools to open their doors wider than in the past (de Vise, 2008; NAIS, 2009a; NAIS, 2011b; Pilon, 2009; U.S. Department of Education, 2010; Vantine, 2008).

Decades before independent schools were mandated to comply with certain portions of IDEA and with ADA they were making great efforts towards diversification among their student population. Since the 1960s they recognized that their students would be culturally deprived unless they committed to diversifying their population and admitted students who were economically disadvantaged. Throughout the 1960s, 1970s, and 1980s, they began this process by admitting those who were financially disadvantaged, students of color, and women. By the 1990s, the independent school population was more diverse than ever before. "Respecting differences previously ridiculed as inferior or deviant - differences based on race, ethnicity, gender, religion, sexual orientation, family background, or handicaps -- became the goal of special assemblies, day-long events, and other programs designed to teach respect" in independent schools (Powell, 1996, p. 29). In 2006, the past president of NAIS reported

that among several lofty goals the organization set for themselves was to "emphasize the themes of equity and justice and to explore the multiple definitions of diversity" (Relic, 2006, p. 4). NAIS reported that in the 2007-2008 school year, 21.9% of the total enrolled population was comprised of students of color and that 18% of the day school population received financial aid. Statistics on other aspects of diversity are not reported (NAIS, 2008). It is not unusual in 2009 to find mission statements from independent schools around the US including a phrase which asserts the school's recognition of diversity and even learning differences. Learning differences are recognized and it is clear that NAIS schools are servicing students with disabilities (Vantine, 2008).

Declining enrollment. While the successful effort to diversify continues, independent schools are challenged with the serious issue of declining enrollment. In 2002, the Office of Educational Research reported that public and private school enrollment would decrease in 2010 in the elementary and secondary grades and decrease in 2012 in Grade 9-12 enrollment. Enrollment in independent schools grew 11.9% between 1996 and 2006. However, by August of 2008, the *Washington Post* reported that independent and parochial schools in Maryland and Washington had lost nearly 8,000 students between 2005 and 2007.

> Private school leaders say their community has seldom faced such a daunting combination of economic and socioeconomic woes. Tuition is rising faster than inflation, partly to meet the spiraling demand for aid. The birth rate is flat, thinning the ranks of prospective students. (de Vise, 2008, para. 5)

Myra McGovern, a spokesperson for the NAIS, stated in January of 2009 that "the discourse has shifted from sustainability to survivability" (Pilon, 2009, para. 4).

Enrollment was 611,226 during the 2008-2009 school year and dropped to 568,628 during the 2010-2011 school year (NAIS, 2009a; NAIS, 2011).

Increase in identification. In 1966, there were an estimated 2.1 million school-aged children served under special education. The number increased to 3.7 million served under IDEA in 1977. In 1999, there were 6.2 million children ages 3-21 serviced under IDEA. By 2005, the National Center for Educational Statistics estimated that 6.7 million children, comprising 13.8% of the total enrollment in the US, were receiving special education services in their public school district (U.S. Department of Education, 2005).

As the number of students with disabilities grows nationwide, the number of students with disabilities increases in the independent school population as well. In 2008, Independent School magazine reported, "The growing number of students being tested for learning disabilities these days has led to a growing demand from families for academic accommodations and services" (Vantine, 2008, p. 50). This increase and pressure, in addition to the guidelines for independent schools outlined by the ADA in 1990 to provide reasonable accommodations for students with a recognized disability, encourages the merger between the private and public sectors of education. Additionally, through a process called *child find*, public school districts are responsible for identifying, locating, and evaluating all children with disabilities (IDEA, 2006). In some cases public school districts offer educational and behavioral screening and psycho-educational testing at no cost for students who are suspected by the private school as having skills or behaviors that contribute to a barrier to learning that are suspected to be clinically significant enough to warrant a diagnosis (Wrightslaw, 2011a). The school districts also

have access to a myriad of support services for those diagnosed with a disability, and it is recognized that the disability is impairing their ability to meet their potential physically, socially, or academically. Private schools do not have these resources, and they have to rely on the school district to provide the necessary supports. For these reasons, private schools must communicate and collaborate with the public school districts in order to identify and service students with disabilities. Vantine (2008) reports that 10 to 20% of the independent school population has a diagnosed learning issue. It is increasingly challenging for independent schools to maintain their academic integrity while meeting the needs of a growing population of students with disabilities. Research studies indicate that public school teachers and principals have expressed their frustration with the process and practice of including students with disabilities since the movement began in the 1970s. One might assume that the frustration identified by those groups would be similar in the independent school population of teachers and principals and has simply experienced a later onset (e.g., Bello, 2006; Finegan, 2004; Praisner, 2003; Taylor, 2005).

Attitudes Held by Those in Private Schools

In 2006, the National Catholic Education Association provided a random stratified sample for Bello's study of Catholic high schools. Of the 300 surveys sent, 150 schools responded from locations in New England, the Mideast, Great Lakes, West, Southeast, and Plains regions in the US. The population included administrators and teachers with over 20 years of experience, and nearly half of them reporting "no formal preparation in special education" (Bello, 2006, p. 463). Over half of the schools indicated that they did not enroll or offer services for students with disabilities. The other percentage of schools said they enrolled these students and had some type of service

available while 4.7% said they were in the early stages of developing a plan to include

services. An earlier study in 2002 revealed that Catholic high schools "are accepting

students with diagnosed learning differences" (Hudson, 2002, p. 39). The 54 schools

who revealed that they were enrolling and providing services for students with

disabilities, indicated servicing students with learning disabilities, and a significant

percent served students with other health impairments, which included students with

ADHD. Only a small number of students with emotional disabilities, autism, traumatic

brain injury, and moderate to severe disabilities were enrolled in the Catholic schools.

This research suggests that these Catholic schools were likely to admit more students

with certain types of disabilities and those that are perceived as mild. This supports the

findings in earlier studies that suggest that the type of disability and level of severity

influences attitudes regarding inclusion (Cook, 2001; Greir, 2001; Hastings & Oakford,

2003; O'Rorke-Trigiani, 2003; Seaby, 2003). Most of the schools reported having special

education services as opposed to a special education program. Nearly all of the schools

employed full or part time professionals to work with the students with disabilities. Few

reported employing a social worker or psychologist and no one reported employing a

physical therapist, occupational therapist, or full-time volunteers. Students with

disabilities were supported through classroom accommodations and teacher consultation

with specialists. They did not have the professional or financial resources to provide

additional support; therefore, a full inclusion model was adopted by default. Professional

development in the areas of learning strategies, differentiating instruction, alternative

assessment strategies, and the development of a flexible curriculum were recognized as

the most important needs of the teachers in becoming successful educators of students with disabilities.

Finegan's 2004 study surveyed 1,341 public ($N =1148$) and private ($N = 67$) school educators of students in prekindergarten through Grade 12 in Texas. The researcher made an effort to understand teacher perceptions of educating students with disabilities in the general education classroom and to examine if those perceptions related to years of experience, grade level taught, or type of institution where the teacher was employed. Additionally, she wanted to understand what the teachers identified as critical issues related to the implementation of inclusion. Her survey included the collection of demographic information as well as teacher response to perception statements and an open-ended statement. Follow-up telephone interviews were conducted with 188 of the teachers who indicated the desire to be contacted. Finegan found that teachers in Texas public schools generally prefer a traditional service delivery model for supporting students with disabilities as opposed to full inclusion. Training, administrative support, as well as support from trained special educators, teacher communication and collaboration, and access to services were the most important variables identified in order to support students with disabilities effectively. Specifically, the information from the private school population is most relevant to this study. The private school teachers did agree that they had some level of training in working with students with disabilities, but it was not evident if the training was provided by their school system or prior to their employment. The majority of private school teachers agreed that more in-service training was necessary for them to work effectively with students with disabilities. Additionally, private school teachers felt less confident than the public school teachers that they

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received the *related services necessary* for the children with disabilities. However, they felt more confident than the public school teachers regarding the communication between general and special education teachers. Surprisingly, private school teachers were the least likely to favor a *special class* for students with disabilities. The researcher suspected that the low agreement might have been due to their lack of knowledge of students with disabilities and their lack of access to special classes. It was not surprising that very few of the private school teachers reported previous involvement with a team to develop an IEP, but felt that the parents of students with disabilities had been involved in those meetings. Finegan suggests in the conclusion of her study that additional research is needed on teacher perceptions of inclusion. A larger sample of private school teachers from varying grade levels would help support or contradict her findings and add to the body of knowledge.

While little research examined the attitudes held by teachers in private schools, fewer studies exist that exclusively examine the attitudes held by principals regarding inclusion (Praisner, 2003). It is critical to understand principals' attitudes toward inclusion in any setting but particularly in a private setting as it directly influences who is admitted to the private school. Principals in public schools have no choice whether or not to accept students with disabilities, whereas principals and admissions directors in private schools may decline a student with disabilities. NAIS publishes this statement regarding disabilities on their website:

> It's best for you and the school if you're honest about the child's needs. Maybe the need concerns ADHD, or the fact that the child is in counseling, or in occupational or speech therapy. If that means your child is not admitted, perhaps

it's because the school already has a maximum number of time-intensive children at that grade level or doesn't have the facilities or expertise to meet your child's needs. And in that case, the school wouldn't be right for your child anyway. (NAIS, 2009b, para. 5)

Furthermore, their attitudes and knowledge of inclusion within the context of special education become important as it may mean the difference between a child with special needs receiving the appropriate evaluations and services or none at all (Taylor, 2005).

In 2003, Taylor's mixed-method study focused on the state of special education in Tennessee private schools by surveying and interviewing principals. Like Bello (2006), she found that nearly all of the 130 schools were accepting students with disabilities. Surprisingly, the principals reported that on the average, 9% of their population was made up of students with disabilities. This is very close to the national percentage of 13.4% (U.S. Department of Education, 2010). Only 37% of the schools had a certified special education teacher on staff, and tutoring was the preferred service delivery method for students with disabilities. It was evident that the private schools included students with disabilities in their classrooms but serviced those students through a pull-out approach. Taylor (2003) speculated that this was due to a lack of resources or professional training. Taylor found that *high incidence disabilities* were common in private schools, and those students' with ADHD, learning disabilities, and speech and language impairments composed the largest groups of disability type in private schools.

Of the 77 schools who indicated they were using inclusive practice, Taylor (2003) received only three responses from the 18 schools categorized as independent. This lack

of feedback was not entirely a surprise to Taylor who reported that independent schools have been hesitant in the past to disclose the information on students with disabilities, as characteristics of independent schools are not well understood. She also indicated that the qualitative methodology used in her study may have threatened the respondents and decreased the feedback. Quantitative methodology is generally perceived as less threatening and was used in this research study to lessen the threat perceived by Taylor in 2003. In the conclusion of her study, she called for a large-scale assessment of private school practices as they relate to inclusion and accommodations for students with disabilities.

Repetition of the Significance of the Study

Although, not recognized yet by name, the inclusion model was conceived in the late 1960's and developed a heartbeat by the mid-1970s. Parents and advocacy groups were no longer willing to separate their children from their nondisabled peers and a variety of laws and court cases were monumental in pushing through the development of an inclusion model. At first, teachers and principals agreed with the concept of inclusion, but the lack of clarity regarding implementation quickly caused frustration and dampened their enthusiasm. Thirty years later, studies continue to show a general positive attitude toward the concept of inclusion on the part of the educators, but frustration and confusion have prevailed (Avramidis et al., 2000; D'Alanzo et al., 1997; Grier, 2001; Hammond & Ingalls, 2003; Hastings & Oakford, 2003; Lopes et al., 2004; O'Rorke-Trigiani, 2003; Seaby, 2003; Shade & Stewart, 2001; Snyder, 1999; Tomei, 2000; Wendt, 1999). In an effort to understand the source of the frustration for teachers, researchers became very interested in assessing the attitudes of these educators and surveys seemed to be the most

widely used method of collecting the data. A variety of scales were created to analyze attitudes; and consistent variables which influence the attitudes of the teachers and principals regarding the inclusion of students with disabilities began to emerge. Since the 1970s, the study of these attitudes received significant attention in public schools in and out of the US. However, little attention was directed toward discovering these attitudes in private schools. Such environments were required to comply with IDEA to a lesser degree than their public school peers and understanding the struggle to include students with disabilities did not seem pertinent in the private school community. However, the combination of an effort to diversify, declining enrollment, and increasing identification of students with disabilities led to increasing numbers of students with disabilities recognized in private schools. Therefore, the study of inclusion in these environments is now pertinent.

Recently, Bello (2006), Finegan (2004), and Taylor (2005) contributed to the limited research assessing the attitudes of teachers and principals in private schools. However, there remains a significant void when attempting to understand the attitudes of educators in the private school environment and therefore a void in understanding how inclusion should be employed in private schools. In an effort to begin to fill the void in the research, this study made use of survey methodology and compared the attitudes of administrators (principals) and teachers affiliated with the NAIS, as well as the factors that influenced those teachers' attitudes toward the successful implementation of inclusion.

Chapter 3

Methodology

Participants

The population for this study consisted of administrators, who function in a similar role to a public school principal, and general education teachers who are currently employed in independent schools that are affiliated with the NAIS. Participants included administrators at each level (elementary, middle, and senior or *upper* schools) as well as Assistant or Associate Heads of School, Director of Studies, and general education teachers in all content areas and at every grade level.

There are currently 1,400 NAIS affiliated schools including 121 international schools located in Africa, Asia, Australia, Europe, North America, and South America. For the present study the population was delimited to schools within the US. Among the 1,400 schools, a portion of them service students prekindergarten through Grade 12 or 13, while others service a more limited population (e.g., Kindergarten through Grade 8, Grades 6-8, Grades 1-5, or Grades 9-12). Schools are identified as single sex or co-educational, as well as boarding or day schools.

NAIS member schools write their own job descriptions for administrators and teachers and the certification or degree requirements for those positions can vary from one school to the next. The NAIS provides expectations for qualifications but does not insist on qualifications for positions rather leaving it up to the school's discretion. On the NAIS website, Bassett states "Most independent schools feel that the character of the person and the degree of his or her suitability for the job are more important than the technicalities of background" (Bassett, 2009a). In this regard, administrators and

teachers may or may not have administrative or teaching certificates from the State Department of Education in which they are employed.

In February, 2010 information was provided by the database manager at NAIS indicating that 739 people functioned in a role similar to a principal in schools affiliated with the organization, some of them with multiple titles. To achieve the standard expected margin of error of 5% and a 95% confidence level a recommended sample size of 253 was needed. Because the sample of administrators was 82 a margin of error calculated at 10.21% for the administrator group. Similarly, the total population of teachers was provided by the NAIS through StatsOnline (2009) and indicated that 60,624 teachers worked in NAIS schools during the 2008-2009 school year (Booth, 2010). Considering the total population of teachers a sample size of 382 was recommended in order to reach the same standard expected margin of error. Because 440 teachers were included in the final sample for this study the response rate exceeded this value producing a specific margin of error of 4.65%.

Surveying a Random Sample

On March 9, 2010 the following email request was sent from the NAIS to a random sampling of 1,878 administrators in their database. Assistants or Associate Heads of School accounted for 368 of the sample, 459 were Lower School Heads, 481 Middle School Heads, 449 Upper School Heads and 296 Director of Studies. Each administrator was asked to forward the teacher survey to two general education teachers in their building (see Appendix E).

NAIS invites you to participate in an important research study on the inclusion of students with disabilities in schools and classrooms. We send you this message

on behalf of Shannon Mulholland, Director of Support Services at Sewickley

Academy, who is conducting this research study. A doctoral student at Duquesne

University, Shannon will share the results of this research with NAIS members

through the NAIS website. Please complete the survey by March 22, 2010.

A second and third request to complete the survey was sent on March 24th and April 13th,

2010. By April 23rd an insufficient number of responses were collected for both

administrators and teachers. In an effort to collect more teacher responses, on May 25th

the NAIS agreed to send the survey directly to 7,685 teachers who were members of the

NAIS. Additionally, on May 26th they agreed to send the survey to 1,394 administrators

who subscribed to the NAIS listserv. The survey was closed for both groups on June

11th, 2010. At that time, 112 administrators and 608 teachers participated in the survey.

Instrumentation

This study made use of a two-part, electronic survey instrument; (a) a

demographic and inclusion survey designed by the researcher and (b) the ORI (see

Appendices B and C; Antonak & Larrivee, 1995).

Demographic and inclusion survey. A demographic survey was given to

administrators and general education teachers employed at NAIS independent schools.

The surveys for each were basically identical but included slight wording modifications

to distinguish the administrators' scale from the teachers' scale. The survey was divided

into six sections and took approximately 10 minutes to complete. Consisting of 31

questions for teachers and 33 questions for administrators the survey collected

demographic information, information pertaining to students with disabilities,

communication of the disability, training and support, support for students, as well as a

section for additional comments. Identical questions were presented in items 1-3, 11-13, and 28-33. The word administrator replaced the word teacher in the administrator survey in items 4, 5, and 10. In other items of the administrator survey, such as 8, 9, 15-17, and 19, the question referenced a *division* as opposed to a *classroom* or school in the teacher survey. In the same version, question 14, and 18-27 asked administrators to respond to the item for the teacher, while the teacher survey asked that the teachers respond for themselves. Items 6 and 7 were added to the administrator survey so that the researcher could collect data on the position held by the administrator and on the identification of the school as single sex, co-educational, day or boarding. All of the questions were presented with four different answer formats: yes or no, open ended, multiple choice, or with a six-point rating scale ranging from *never* to *always*.

       Opinions relative to the integration of students with disabilities (ORI). The ORI was developed by Antonak and Larrivee (1995) to measure attitudes of teachers regarding students with disabilities. The ORI is regarded as the most psychometrically sound instrument when measuring attitudes toward inclusion (Balboni et al., 2005). Research with the instrument shows acceptable reliability and validity (Antonak & Larrivee, 1995; Avramidis et al., 2000; Benge, 1996; Bozeman, 2005; Burke & Sutherland, 2004; Dupoux et al., 2006; Gordon, 2008; Green-Causey, 1999; Jobe et al., 1996; Juttner, 2001; Kahikuata-Kariko, 2003; Leyser & Tappendorf, 2001; Loomos, 2001; Migyanka, 2006; Ryan, 2007; Sims, 2008; Sliva, 1998; Spriggs, 2008; Stubbs, 2009; Uba, 1998; Wendt, 1999; Wood, 2007). The ORI was used repeatedly to measure the attitudes of a variety of populations: special and general education teachers (Loomos, 2001; Ryan, 2007; Sliva, 1998; Spriggs, 2008; Uba, 1998; Wood, 2007), teachers at the

elementary level (Bozeman, 2005; Gordon, 2008; Green-Causey, 1999; Juttner, 2001; Leyser & Tappendorf, 2001; Stubbs, 2009; Wendt, 1999), principals (Kahikuata-Kariko, 2003), pre-service teachers (Burke & Sutherland), teachers and principals outside of the US (Avramidis et al., 2000; Dupoux et al., 2006; Juttner, 2001; Kahikuata-Kariko, 2003), and students with disabilities (Benge, 1996).

It is a revised version of Larrivee and Cook's (1979) questionnaire, the Opinions Relative to Mainstreaming Scale (ORM). The original 30-item scale was revised and reduced to 25 items to reflect more current terminology in the questions while maintaining the overall content. Participants are asked to respond to the 25 statements on a six-point rating scale ranging from strong agreement to strong disagreement. Thirteen statements yield a positive response and the other 12 a negative response, in random order. Scores on the ORI range from 0 to 150 with a higher score representing a more favorable attitude toward including students with disabilities in the general education classroom. The ORI takes approximately 5 minutes to complete.

Reliability of the ORI. In an article published in 1995, the authors of the ORI, Antonak and Larivee, examined the reliability of the instrument using Cronbach's alpha and the Spearman-Brown statistics. Cronbach's alpha is used to calculate reliability for the items that do not have a right versus wrong answer. The Spearman-Brown test provides a corrected split-half reliability estimate and a standard error of measurement. Reliability coefficients using both techniques consistently fell above .85 (Antonak & Larivee, 1995) reflecting acceptable reliability (Nunnaly, 1978).

Validity of the ORI. The authors also utilized a hierarchical multiple-regression analysis to examine the validity of the ORI by relating the scores to respondents'

demographic (sex, age, education) and experiential variables (profession, relationship) to scores on the Scale of Attitudes Toward Disabled Persons (SADP) instrument (Antonak & Larivee, 1995). Support for the validity of the ORI was found in the assessment of the relationships of scores with the participants' demographic and experiential variables. ORI scores were significantly related in the predicted direction to scores which measured global attitude toward people with disabilities as a group, but they were not related to the participants' sex, age, ethnicity, or educational level.

Factorial structure of the scale. In a factor analysis performed by the authors, (Antonak & Larivee, 1995) they claimed that the scale measures four factors related to the inclusion of students with disabilities: benefits of integration, integrated classroom management, perceived ability to teach students with disabilities, and special versus integrated general education. During this analysis, an item was assigned to a certain factor when the loading exceeded 0.37. The first factor accounted for 27% of the variance; the second, 7%; the third, 4%; and the fourth 3%. Consequently, Antonak and Larivee cautioned that the use of individual factor scores is not appropriate given that their reliability and validity have not been empirically determined. The initial psychometric tests were used on a sample population of undergraduates in special education programs, and the authors asserted that further research with experienced educators was necessary in order to relate the ORI scores to socioeconomic and experiential variable (Antonak & Larivee, 1995).

Procedure

Prior to initiation of the study, the researcher requested and received permission from the author of the ORI for its use in the dissertation (see Appendix D). Additionally,

a series of demographic and inclusive practices questions were created by the researcher in both an administrator and teacher version. The surveys were reformatted electronically using the survey tool, SurveyMonkey (Finley, 1999), and a web link was created for the administrator and teacher versions (see Appendices B and C).

In November of 2009 the Director of Products and Services Department at the NAIS was contacted by the researcher to explain the purpose of the study, to provide the surveys and cover letters (see Appendices E and F), and to request permission to conduct the research in March of 2010. A research committee at NAIS reviewed the request. A directory of email addresses is not published by the NAIS; therefore, an additional request was made asking the organization to send the survey on the researcher behalf to all NAIS administrators who serve as principals along with a letter of support for the study.

The NAIS did not agree to send the survey to their entire population of administrators, but instead would support sending it to a portion of the population. Each administrator was subsequently contacted via email by the NAIS (see Appendix G). This email included the purpose of the study, request for their participation, directions for completion and submission, and a link to the SurveyMonkey site. One attachment accompanied the email; a letter requesting teacher participation (see Appendix F). Administrators were asked to either print out the attachment for the teachers or forward the attachment to two general educators in their division. The attachment sent to the teachers also described the purpose of the study, requested their participation, and provided a link to the SurveyMonkey site.

As indicated previously, both the ORI and the demographic and inclusive practices questions were stored on the SurveyMonkey website. All responses remained confidential and anonymous. Participant names and the names of their schools were not solicited or recorded at any time during the data collection.

All participants were asked to submit the survey electronically within two weeks from receipt. Following this two-week period a reminder email was subsequently sent to all administrators thanking them for their participation or making a second request for their participation. A third reminder was sent in April with the same information. When an insufficient number of responses were collected the survey was sent electronically again, although this time separately to administrators who were members of an NAIS listserv and teachers who were members of NAIS. As previously indicated, names of participants were not recorded.

Statistical Analyses

Responses to the surveys were analyzed using both descriptive and inferential statistics. Upon completion of the data collection, information was downloaded in a secure format and input into the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS 19.0) for Windows and utilized for all data analyses. Initial demographics were calculated using descriptive statistics including means, standard deviations, and ranges. These statistics were reported for the total sample and disaggregated for selected sub groups (e.g., age, administrative title, and degrees held).

Specific hypotheses were examined through the use of t-tests. A t-test compares the mean of the ORI scores of the administrators with the mean score of the teachers to

determine if there is a significant difference between the groups with respect to attitudes toward the inclusion of students with disabilities.

Correlation coefficients were calculated among all of the questions to look for relational patterns. With these statistical techniques, the researcher hoped to identify possible relationships among perceived amount of planning time, support and training, level of competence, and attitudes toward inclusion.

Chapter 4

Results

This chapter presents results of the study analyzing the pedagogical beliefs and actual practice for including students with disabilities by administrators and teachers in independent schools. This chapter includes a review of the survey response rate, demographics, research hypotheses, analysis of the data for each research hypothesis, and relationships among variables. Chapter five will report specific recommendations for practice and future research.

Cleaning the Data

Data cleaning, the process of detecting, correcting, or removing incomplete data was used to sift through both the administrator and teacher data sets. The administrative data set was comprised of 102 responses. Ten of the respondents were eliminated from the sample after indicating that they were not administrators. The final administrator sample was 82 after an additional 20 participants were eliminated because they completed fewer than 21 responses of the 25 questions on the ORI portion of the survey. The researcher completed nine ORI surveys due to participant omission. This was accomplished by using the total ORI score, dividing it by the total number of completed questions, and calculating a number that was then rounded to the nearest whole number. The average ORI score for the 82 participants was 107 in a range of 0 to 150.

Of the 608 teachers who started the full teacher survey 605 were used to collect data. Three participants were eliminated from the sample after indicating that they were administrators and not teachers or they did not teacher students. Seventy-six teachers stopped the survey at question 13 indicating that they did not teach students with

disabilities and were therefore eliminated also. Of the remaining 529 teacher participants, 459 attempted to complete the ORI portion of the survey. An additional 19 participants were eliminated because they completed fewer than 21 responses of the 25 questions, resulting in 440 teacher participants. As was necessary for the administrator group the researcher completed 65 of the 440 ORI surveys due to participant omission. The mean score on the ORI was 98 for the sample of teachers.

Descriptive Statistics

  Demographic information. Once the sample was finalized, comparisons were made between the descriptive statistics and public and private school data reported by the National Center for Education Statistics in their *School and Staffing Survey* (SASS) 2008. Descriptive statistics of the current survey revealed that of the administrative group, 68% were female and 32% were male. In contrast, the data for the SASS population of administrators was reported to be more equally distributed between men and women in 2008. Specifically, women accounted for 48% of the total nonsectarian, regular private school population and 50% of the total public school group. Recall that nonsectarian schools account for nearly one fourth of the private school population (Broughman & Colaciello, 1999), and it breaks down further according to program emphasis: regular, special emphasis, and special education schools. Nonsectarian, regular private schools focus on early childhood, elementary, and/or secondary regular programming (Tourkin et al., 2008).

  When asked to report their age it was interesting to note that a full quarter of the administrators indicated that they were over 60 years of age. In 2008 44% of the administrators in the private school group reported an age of 55 or older while 32% of the

public school group fell in this age bracket (NCES, 2008). Additionally, a significant number of the administrator participants had a Master's degree (79%) in comparison with only 48% reported in 2008 by the private school group and 59% of the public school group. However, only 7% of this study's participants indicated that they possessed a Doctoral degree compared with the 13% of the nonsectarian, regular private school group in 2008. Finally, nearly 90% of the administrators indicated that they worked in a day school that was coeducational as opposed to a boarding schools or single sex school.

Unlike public school administrators or principals, private school administrators hold a variety of titles. In this sample, the majority of the participants indicated that they were either a Division Head or Assistant Head as shown in Table 1. Similar to school principals, Division Heads and Assistant Heads are typically responsible for overseeing certain grade levels in the school and teachers at those levels report to them. The average number of students was 357 during the 2009-2010 school year in each of their divisions.

Table 1

Percentages of Administrators by Title

Administrative Title	% of Administrators
Assistant Head	21
Associate Head	5
Division Head	31
Lower School Head	14
Middle School Head	10
Upper School Head	7
Director of Studies	12

In summarizing the general demographic information, the profile of the majority of the administrator participants could be characterized as follows: A female Division Head or Assistant Head of a coeducational day school, older than 60 years with a Master's degree.

The same 2008 SASS report from the National Center for Education Statistics was used to make comparisons between teachers in this sample and teachers from nonsectarian, regular private schools. At that time, females accounted for 71% of the teacher population with 49% ranging in age from 30 and 49. Seventy-three percent of the current sample of teachers was female and 55% of them ranged in age from 36 to 55. More than half of the participants held a Master's degree compared to 38% held by the total nonsectarian, regular private school population of teachers. Nearly half of the

teachers earned a Bachelor's degree as their highest level of education. On average, teacher participants reported a student load of 47 during the 2009-2010 school year (NCES, 2008).

Information pertaining to students with disabilities. For the next set of data the administrator and teacher responses were examined simultaneously. This group of demographic questions pertained to years of classroom experience teaching students with disabilities, the number of special education courses taken, and the kind of experience the participants had outside of school with students with disabilities.

It was very clear that the administrators had more experience than the teachers teaching students with disabilities but had a similar amount of coursework in special education and similar experiences with children with disabilities outside of school. Of their group, over a quarter of them indicated between six and ten years of experience while nearly the same percentage of teachers responded that they had less than one year of experience teaching students with disabilities. Another 23% indicated that they had between one and five years of experience. Surprisingly, 50% of the administrators and 48% of the teachers had not taken any college or university courses in special education. Slightly more than 30% of both groups had no experience with a child with a disability outside of school. Similarly, each group indicated that nearly 30% of them had a neighbor with a disability, a relative, or had volunteered working with children with disabilities.

The last question asked each group to indicate if the teachers in their division taught students with disabilities in their classroom or if they were teaching students with disabilities themselves. Of the administrator group, 94% agreed that the teachers had

students with disabilities in their classrooms, while only 87% of the teachers indicated that they taught students with disabilities. This difference in recognition may be explained by the perception of the way disabilities were communicated to both administrators and teachers in independent schools as indicated by the next set of data.

Communication of the disability. A difference existed in perception of the way disabilities were communicated between the administrators and the teachers as seen in Tables 2 and 3. The majority of both groups felt that their awareness of a disability came primarily from verbal notification from administrators and to a lesser degree from the psychologist or counselor. They also both agreed that written notification was often obtained from student records. However, discrepancies between the groups were evident when examining the difference between perception of communication from other teachers and paraprofessionals, from psychological records, and from e-mail communication. It appeared that teachers felt that the informal communication between colleagues, whether it be another teacher or paraprofessional, or communication through email was more frequent than the administrators recognized. While the more formal documentation of disabilities found in psychological records was seen as less of a communication vehicle to the teachers than recognized by the administrators. This may explain why 87% of teachers as opposed to 94% of the administrators felt that they taught students with disabilities in their classrooms. Although not significant, it is noteworthy that more of the administrators agreed that the teachers taught students with disabilities than the teachers.

Table 2

Percentages of Administrator and Teacher Responses to the Use of Different Types of

Verbal Communication Used in their Schools to Notify them of a Student with a

Disability

Type of Verbal Notification	% of Administrators	% of Teachers
Administrator	71	49
Teachers	1	18
Parents	6	7
Nurse	0	1
Psychologist/Counselor	17	16
Paraprofessionals	5	10

Table 3

Percentages of Administrator and Teacher Responses to the Use of Different Types of Written Communication Used in their Schools to Notify them of a Student with a Disability

Type of Written Notification	% of Administrators	% of Teachers
Student Records	38	45
Psychological Records	45	23
Medical Records	3	3
E-mail	13	25
Parent Note	3	4

Training and support for administrators and teachers. In order to understand the attitudes of administrators and teachers who work with students with disabilities in independent schools it was important to assess their perception of access to records and other skilled professionals in their building as a resource as well as their sense of competence in teaching students with disabilities, and their recommendations for ways to improve their skills. Nearly 100% of the administrator group felt that their teachers had access to the records they needed to successfully accommodate students with disabilities while only 78% of the teachers shared that confidence. However, over 80% of both the administrator and teacher group felt confident that they had access to professionals in their building who were trained to work with students with disabilities. Participants were

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then asked to indicate which types of professionals were available to them. Table 4 presents the data from the most commonly recognized professional resource to the least common resource.

Table 4

Percentages of Administrator and Teacher Responses to the Types of Professionals Available to them in their Schools while Servicing Students with Disabilities

Type of Professional	% of Administrators	% of Teachers
Learning Specialist	69	61
Counselor	66	54
Reading Specialist	51	42
Psychologist	37	40
Speech and Language Clinician	33	19
Occupational Therapist	8	9
Classroom Aide	6	6
Psychiatrist	5	6
Physical Therapist	1	2

Discrepancies were also evident when teachers were asked about the time they spent meeting with the professionals in their building to consult about students with disabilities. Twenty-nine percent of the teachers, as opposed to a mere 6% of the

administrators, indicated that they or their teachers had never met with one of the professionals. It seemed that administrators felt far more confident that their teachers were using the resources in their building. This becomes an important discrepancy when 46% of the teachers and 56% of the administrators indicated later in the survey that the most helpful way to improve skills for working with students with disabilities was to collaborate with a specialist in their building. None of the other options were selected with the same frequency. Either working actively together by collaborating with a colleague or using hands on experience were indicated as more effective ways to improve skills with students with disabilities rather than the passive ways of visiting a another school, taking a course, or reading literature as indicated in Table 5. This type of information will be useful for future professional development planning. Much of the current professional development in independent schools involves passive listening or reading and not enough active participation.

Table 5

Percentages of Administrator and Teacher Responses to the most Effective Ways to Improve Skills for Working with Students with Disabilities

Way to Improve Skills	% of Administrators	% of Teachers
Collaboration with a Specialist	56	46
Collaboration with Colleagues	19	14
Hands on Experience	9	16
Visiting Another School	7	9
Conference or Seminar	7	9
University Course	3	3
Reading Relevant Literature	0	3

Finally, participants were asked to indicate if the teachers had access to the curricular materials they needed and if they felt confident making accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities. When using a Likert Scale, 68% of the administrators and 58% of the teachers indicated they had access to the materials they needed somewhere between "sometimes" and "always". Significantly, 14% of the teachers felt that they never had access to the materials they needed while only 5% of the administrators felt that way. Regarding confidence in ability to implement accommodations and modifications, the largest percentage in both groups indicated that they "sometimes" felt confident. However, their ratings between "sometimes" and

"always" differed. Forty-seven percent of the teachers felt confident at this level, but only 37% of the administrators had the same confidence. This was an interesting statistics given that the administrators felt more confident than their teachers with regards to having access to records they needed, appropriate curricular materials needed, professionals in the building, and the frequency of meetings with those professionals. However, the administrators felt slightly less confident in their teachers' ability to implement the necessary accommodations and modifications.

   Support for students. Recognize once again that students enrolled in public as well as private schools are entitled to services when they qualify as having a disability, but the level of service is different and fewer options are available in private schools (IDEA, 2006b). Due to limited resources and potentially less of a need, private schools rely heavily on their teachers to provide support. This was confirmed when the groups were asked to indicate which service delivery settings best described the one in their school for students with documented disabilities. It was significant to note that the vast majority of the administrators felt that extra help from the teacher best described their service delivery model and although they felt this represented their model as well; fewer teachers were inclined to describe this as their service delivery system. Half of each group agreed that inclusion without a special education teacher represented the way they provided service to students with disabilities and a significant percentage of students received support through tutoring. These data are likely in contrast to the delivery systems in public schools that provide primarily inclusion in the general education classroom or co-teaching with a special education teacher working with the general education teacher. Clearly, a small percentage of the independent school administrators

and teachers felt they had access to a collaborative model with a special education teacher in the general education classroom. The lack of personnel likely explains this.

Table 6

Percentages of Administrator and Teacher Responses to the Type of Service Delivery Models in their Schools for Students with Disabilities

Delivery Model	% of Administrators	% of Teachers
Extra Help from the Teacher	72	62
Tutoring on Site for a Fee	55	45
Full Inclusion without a Special Education Teacher	48	52
Tutoring off Site for a Fee	42	30
Resource Room (Pull Out Class with a Special Education Teacher)	34	28
Full Inclusion with a Special Education Teacher in the Classroom	12	8

Although teachers provide much of the service for students with disabilities it was evident that there were professionals in the building to help support these students and that services were available to them during the school day on a pull-out basis. In keeping with the data indicating that both administrators and teachers recognize that they have access to a learning specialist, a counselor, and a reading specialist, they also indicate that

these professionals provide pull-out support for their students. The most common type of pull-out support comes from the learning specialist as reflected by 79% of the administrators and 72% of the teacher sample. Over 60% of each group indicated that counseling support was available and over 45% recognized that reading support could be accessed as a pull-out service. The other options for pull-out support were less significant with less than 10% in each area. Additionally, a very small percentage of participants indicated that a "Hearing Impairment Itinerant" was available to students. This data may reflect an error on the researcher's part. In a previous question the participants were asked to indicate if a "Speech and Language Clinician" was accessible to them. Thirty-three percent of the administrators and 19% of the teachers agreed that this resource existed in their school. The difference in title may have been misinterpreted or misunderstood and therefore solicited fewer responses.

Students with disabilities often require necessary accommodations and/or modifications to fully participate and meet their potential. Independent schools are required to follow the ADA (1993) when making these considerations. Nearly three quarters of the administrators and 59% of the teachers reported that their school made accommodations and modifications under certain conditions for students with disabilities. Almost one quarter of each group also felt that they made these types of adjustments for all students, not just those with disabilities. An insignificant number of administrators and teachers indicated that their school did not make any accommodations and modifications.

Participants were asked who was involved in making the determination about accommodations and modifications for the students with the disabilities. Although the

percentages were evenly distributed, fewer teachers recognized their own involvement and felt that they were less involved than the parents, as evident in Table 7. Despite their strong sense of ability to make accommodations and modifications and their recognition of providing the most support for students with disabilities as noted previously, many of them felt that others made these determinations for them.

Table 7

Percentages of Administrator and Teacher Responses to Who is Involved in Making the Determination about Accommodations and Modifications in their Schools for Students with Disabilities

Who is Involved	% of Administrators	% of Teachers
Administrators	96	86
Specialists/Paraprofessionals	86	77
Parents	66	63
Teachers	73	60

Overall, a higher percentage of the administrative group indicated that their school implemented a specific type of accommodation or modification for students with disabilities in every area with few insignificant exceptions. As seen in Table 8, extra time clearly represents the most widely accepted accommodation by both groups. It is likely that the implementation of this accommodation was outlined by the College Board

and independent schools adopted the same protocols and process; whereas the implementations of other accommodations are less clear (College Board, 2011).

Assistive technologies were not viewed as favorably by the teachers as they were the administrators. The majority of the administrator group indicated that using a computer to take notes and using a calculator during exams were options for students with disabilities. A smaller percentage of teachers felt this accommodation was available to their students. The accommodations that might require more time or work on the teachers' part were also indicated as less favorable by the teachers than the administrators, such as allowing the student to clarify or rephrase questions before answering on an assignment or test, creating an alternative format to a test, making arrangements for videotaping or prepared notes, or simplifying wording on exams. It seemed that a small number of both administrators and teachers felt that extending course requirements or graduation was an available accommodation in their school.

Table 8

Percentages of Administrator and Teacher Responses to the Types of Accommodations
Considered in their Schools for Students with Disabilities

Accommodation	% of Administrators	% of Teachers
Extra Time to Complete Tests or other Assignments	100	99
Allowing Students to Use the Computer to Take Notes	86	78
Adapting the Manner in which a Test is Administered	69	68

Table 8 (continued)

Offer Testing at Alternate Sites and Settings for Exams and Standardized Tests	55	51
Adapting the Manner in which the Course Materials are Distributed	55	47
Adapting the Manner in which Specific Courses are Conducted	50	46
Allowing the Use of Calculators During an Exam	64	47
Allowing the Student to Clarify and Rephrase Questions in his or her own Words Before Answering a Question on a Test or Assignment	56	43
Providing Alternative Formats for Examinations (e.g., Essay Rather than Objective Exams)	51	42
Substituting Specific Courses where Substitution will also Satisfy the Requirements of the Department	40	41
Creating Methods for Evaluating Achievement of Students with Sensory, Manual, or Speaking Impairments to Ensure the Result Fairly Reflects the Student's Achievement	40	39
Alternative Accessible Arrangements such as Videotapes, Cassettes, or Prepared Notes	48	38

Table 8 (continued)

Providing Affordable and Practical Auxiliary Aids—	66	35
Taped Transcribers and other Similar Services/Actions		
Extending the Time to Complete the Course	29	30
or Graduation Requirements		
Providing Students with Note Takers	34	30
Simplifying Wording on Exam Questions	33	24

Group Comparisons and Correlations

Next, t-tests and bivariate correlations were calculated on each variable pertaining to a hypothesis. An independent sample t-test compares the means of a normally distributed dependent variable for two independent groups. Interpreting correlations is another type of descriptive statistic that involves examining the relationship between two variables. Significant positive relationships are found when the value of both variables increases. Significant negative correlations result when the value of one variable decreases while the value of the second variable increases. The relationship is reported as a Pearson correlation coefficient or r and a value near +1 or -1 indicates a high level of correlation. A p value is the probability of error in accepting the observed result as valid. When using the conventionally accepted baseline, alpha level of .05 for p value, the researcher is reporting that there is a 5% chance that the relationship between the variables happened "by chance". If the p value is lower than the conventional .05 then the correlational coefficient is considered statistically significant.

T-tests and correlations help researchers examine the similarities and differences between the group means and different variables and are traditionally presented as separate analyses. However, the organizational flow of this document will combine these types of analyses in order to focus on the examination of the eleven variables presented in the hypotheses and the differences between administrator and teacher groups as well as the relationships. Variables included: attitudes, years of experience, grade level, type of disability, percentage of students with disabilities, professional development, in-service training, planning time, competence, and administrative support, and involvement in the decision to include students with disabilities.

Administrator and teacher attitudes toward inclusion. A t-test was used to understand if the attitudes regarding the inclusion of students with disabilities were different between the administrator and teacher groups. It was stated in H_1 that there would be a statistically significant difference between NAIS affiliated administrator and teacher attitudes toward inclusion and that administrators would demonstrate more favorable attitudes. Results indicated that the difference was significant and that the administrator attitudes were more favorable as hypothesized ($t(520) = -3.93, p = .00$). Results further indicated that the mean of the two groups was different with a higher administrator mean ($M = 107, SD = 17.51$) than the teacher mean ($M = 98, SD = 18.45$). It is important to recall that ORI scores range from 0 to 150 and the higher the score the more favorable the attitude toward inclusion. The mean score obtained by the developers using the original sample ($N = 376$) was 108.72 with an SD of 14.10 and a range from 75-142. The range for this administrator group was between 50-144 and the range for the teacher group was between 38-148.

Additional t-tests were also computed to examine if attitudes were significantly different between groups when a specific variable was used. Hypotheses focused on comparing the means of total ORI scores with years of experience, grade level, type of disabilities, and percentage of students with disabilities.

Years of experience. It was hypothesized in H_4 that there would be a statistically significant difference between NAIS affiliated administrator and teacher attitudes toward inclusion when considering their total years of experience as an educator. Surprisingly, there was not a significant relationship between total ORI scores and years of experience for administrators ($r = .15$, $p = .18$). However, a relationship did exist for teachers ($r = .23$, $p = .00$).

Years of experience reported by administrators and teachers were not significantly different ($t(702) = 1.92$, $p = .06$) but it was worthwhile to take a closer look at the mean for each group. Of the administrator participants years of experience ranged between 1-45 years ($M = 16$, $SD = 8.97$) and teachers ranged between 1-50 years ($M = 18$, $SD = 10.25$). Both seemed to have a fairly significant number of total years of experience, as each mean exceeded 15 years.

Grade level. Administrators and teachers were asked to identify the division or the grade level where they worked. The data indicated that 62% of the administrators worked in a combined division and another 28% worked in upper or middle schools leaving an insignificant percentage of administrators represented from early childhood or lower schools. Conversely, 28% of the teachers indicated that they worked in early childhood or lower schools, while 38% indicated working in the upper school and a final 15 or more percent working in middle schools or a combination.

When grade level was correlated with overall ORI scores a minimally significant relationship did exist for the administrators ($r = .27$, $p = .02$) but not for the teachers ($r = .09$, $p = .07$). This was somewhat unexpected as it was hypothesized in H_3 that there would be no correlation between NAIS affiliated administrator and teacher attitudes toward inclusion and the grade level they serviced. To directly compare these two correlations and create a confidence interval a Fisher's z' transformation was calculated. Using the r-to-z table the resulting calculation produced a z value of 1.57 which was statistically non-significant ($p = .12$).

Type of disability. Administrators and teachers were asked to indicate which students with disabilities they had serviced in their division or classroom in the past. Choices included thirteen disability categories: autism, deaf-blindness, deafness, emotional disturbance, hearing impairment, mental retardation, multiple disabilities, orthopedic impairment, other health impairment, specific learning disability, speech or language impairment, traumatic brain injury, and visual impairment including blindness (IDEA, 2006a). Interestingly, the groups were remarkably aligned regarding the type of disability they serviced.

Administrators and teachers agreed that students with specific learning disabilities were the most frequent group served. They also agreed that students with other health impairment, speech and language impairment, emotional disturbance, and autism where types of disabilities for students they serviced. Finally, they both agreed that students with mental retardation were not served in their schools and less than one quarter of both groups recognized that students with multiple disabilities, orthopedic impairment, visual impairment, traumatic brain injury, deafness, and deaf/blind were serviced in their

schools. It is noteworthy that although the groups aligned on the type of disability they
serviced, there was a difference in their perception of how many of those students were
enrolled in their schools. In the top three categories there was a recognizable difference
in the frequency between the administrator and the teacher groups as evidenced in Table
9.

Table 9

Percentages of Administrator and Teacher Responses to the Types of Disability Serviced
in their Schools

Type of Disability	% of Administrators	% of Teachers
Learning Disability	82	66
Other Health Impaired	73	58
Speech and Language	40	28
Emotional Disturbance	33	25
Autism	28	21
Hearing Impaired	21	21
Orthopedic Impairment	19	13
Visual Impairment	16	9
Deafness	13	7
Multiple Disabilities	8	10

Table 9 (continued)

Traumatic Brain Injury	4	6
Deaf/Blind	1	2
Mental Retardation	0	1

It was hypothesized in H_2 that there would be no difference between NAIS affiliated administrator and teacher attitudes regarding their perceptions of the types of student disability serviced in their schools and classrooms. Although the differences appear small there does seem to be noteworthy difference between the percentages indicated by administrators and teachers in the learning disability and the other health impaired categories. Fifteen percent more administrators than the teachers indicated servicing students with learning disabilities and other health impairments.

Percentage of students with disabilities. Both groups were asked to indicate the number of students with disabilities in their division or classrooms. The numbers were changed to percentages using the number of students with disabilities divided by the total number of students in the division or classrooms. Percentages were then coded as follows: 1 = 0-10%; 2 = 11-25%; 3 = 26-50%; 4 = over 50%. Over three quarters of both the administrator and teacher groups agreed that 0-25% of their students were those with disabilities ($M = 1.13$, $SD = 1.01$), ($M = 1.30$, $SD = 1.06$) respectively. However, significant is the discrepancy in the breakdown between 0-10 and 11-25%. Forty-four percent of the teachers responded that students with disabilities comprised 0-10% of their student population while 70% of the administrators indicated 0-10% as the correct

representation. Despite the discrepancy, there was no significant difference in what was reported between groups ($t(705) = 1.50$, $p = .14$). However, teachers reported a slightly higher percentage of students with disabilities than administrators. The information did not support H_5 suggesting that there would be a statistically significant difference between NAIS affiliated teachers' and administrators' attitudes toward inclusion when considering the percentage of students with disabilities in their divisions or classrooms. Specifically, the attitudes of the administrators and teachers would be more similar and favorable, the smaller the percentage of students with disabilities enrolled. Relationships did not exist for administrators ($r = .06$, $p = .65$) or for teachers ($r = .05$, $p = .37$).

Administrator and teacher perceptions of inclusive practices.

Professional development. Although administrators reported more time in professional development related to special education, neither group had significant training. The question on the survey asked the participants to select a number representing a range of hours they completed in professional development related to special education within the last year. A rating of 0 indicated that no professional development was completed, 1 = between 1-5 hours, 2 = between 6-15 hours, 3 = 16-35 hours, and 4 = over 35 hours. Thirty-seven percent of the administrators ($M = .95$, $SD = 1.80$) and 60% of the teachers ($M = .58$, $SD = 1.83$) reported engaging in no professional development related to special education within the last year. Nearly half of the administrators and a little more than one fourth of the teachers spent between 1-5 hours over the last year in professional development related to special education. A significant difference was noted between the groups and the time that they spent in professional development ($t(579) = -3.59$, $p = .00$). However, a relationship between

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professional development and attitudes toward inclusion as measured by the total ORI

score did not exist for administrators ($r = .05$, $p = .66$) or for teachers

($r = -.06$, $p = .27$). Hypothesis 7 asserted there would be a positive relationship between

teachers' indicated hours spent completing professional development related to special

education and their attitude toward inclusion. However, the information did not support

the hypothesis.

In-service training. Significant information was revealed when both groups were

asked to respond to whether or not in-service training pertaining to students with

disabilities was provided for teachers prior to including them in the classroom. The

response selection was either "yes" or "no" and coded as 0 = no and 1 = yes. A

staggering discrepancy existed between the perceptions of the administrators and those of

teachers regarding the provision of in-service training prior to including students with

disabilities. Sixty-seven percent of the administrators felt that in-service training was

provided to their teachers, while only one fourth of the teachers felt that in-service had

been provided to them. These percentages supported H_9 because a statistically significant

difference was evident between administrator and teacher perceptions regarding whether

or not in-service training pertaining to students with disabilities was provided prior to

inclusion for the teachers.

Planning time. A seven-point Likert Scale was used in the survey to assess

teachers' perception of the amount of planning time they had during the school day to

service students with disabilities, their level of competence making accommodations and

modifications for students with disabilities, and their perception of administrative

support. Teachers were asked to answer the questions from their perspective and

administrators were asked to answers these same questions from the teachers'

perspective. For example, "Do you believe that the teachers in your building have the

time they need built into the school day to service students with disabilities?"

Participants selected numbers 1, 2, or 3 to represent an answer between "never" and

"sometimes", 4, 5, and 6 to represent an answer between "sometimes" and "always", and

a 7 rating meant "always".

Regarding planning time, overall, administrators ($M = 3.84$, $SD = 1.36$) and

teachers ($M = 3.34$, $SD = 1.88$) indicated that they had enough planning time a little more

than "sometimes". It was evident that the difference between the means was significant

($t(565) = -2.41$, $p = .02$) and that the administrator mean was higher indicating that

administrators felt that the teachers had more planning time than the teachers felt they

had. Additionally, no significant relationship emerged between planning time and ORI

scores for administrators ($r = .07$, $p = .51$), but a significant relationship was evident

between these two variables for teachers ($r = .22$, $p = .00$). In this case, the data

supported H_6 which speculated the existence of a significant positive relationship between

teachers' perceived amount of planning time and their attitude toward inclusion.

Competence. Likewise, it was hypothesized in H_8 that the study would support a

significant positive relationship between teachers' perceived level of competence in

implementing modifications and accommodations and their attitude toward inclusion.

Therefore, it was not surprising when the teachers' level of competence correlated with

overall ORI scores ($r = .32$, $p = .00$). Although not part of the hypothesis, the

administrator rating of teachers' competence did not correlate with ORI scores.

Interestingly, there was no significant difference in means when comparing the groups'

perception of their ability to accommodate students with disabilities. However, it is worth noting that the administrators had a lower confidence rating regarding their teachers' ability than the teachers had about their own ability.

Administrator and teacher perceptions of administrative support.

Administrative support. When comparing the means of the two groups provided in Table 10, there was a significant difference ($t(564) = -3.62$, $p = .00$) indicating support for H_{10} that there would be a difference in the perception held by administrators and teachers regarding administrative support directly related to the inclusion of students with disabilities.

Table 10 further illuminates that neither group felt the teachers had enough planning time, perceived level of competence when implementing accommodations or modifications, or administrative support with averages ranging from less than "sometimes" to slightly more than "sometimes". Administrator ratings were higher than the teacher ratings with regard to planning time and administrative support, but less than the teacher rating when asked about level of competence implementing accommodations and modifications.

Table 10

Administrator and Teacher Ratings of Perception of Teacher Planning Time, Level of Competence, and Support they Receive from Administrators

Variable	N	Mean	SD
Planning Time			
Administrators	89	3.84	1.36
Teachers	478	3.34	1.88
Level of Competence			
Administrators	89	4.29	1.13
Teachers	478	4.48	1.55
Administrative Support			
Administrators	89	5.15	1.29
Teachers	478	4.42	1.81

Decision making practices. Finally, administrators and teachers were asked if they were involved in the decision to include students with disabilities in their classroom. Participants' answers were coded as a 1 = yes and 2 = no. Given the lack of choices, correlation and comparison tests were not appropriate to perform. However, an examination of the frequencies shows that 86% of the administrators indicated that they were involved in the decision to include students with disabilities while 78% of the teachers indicated that they were <u>not</u> involved in the decision. This data supports H_{11} that there would be a difference between NAIS affiliated administrator and teacher

perceptions of whether or not they were involved in the decision to include students with

disabilities in their classroom. Specifically, the perception of the administrators would be

more favorable than that of the teachers.

In order to present the findings to the hypotheses in a more systematic way,

Figure 3 represents a summary of the hypotheses and findings.

Figure 3. Summary of Hypotheses Findings

HYPOTHESES	METHOD OF MEASUREMENT	FINDINGS	SUPPORT
1. There will be a statistically significant difference between NAIS affiliated administrator and teacher attitudes toward inclusion. Specifically, administrators will demonstrate more favorable attitudes.	**T-test** Administrators *M* = 107 Teachers *M* = 98	(t(520) = -3.93, p = .00)	+
2. There will be no difference between NAIS affiliated administrator and teacher attitudes regarding their perceptions of the types of student disability serviced in their schools and classrooms.	**Comparison of frequencies**	There was no difference between the perceptions.	+
3. There will be no correlation between NAIS affiliated administrator and teacher attitudes toward inclusion and the grade level they service.	**Correlation** **Fisher's z' transformation**	Administrators (r = .27, p = .02) Teachers (r = .09, p = .07) z = 1.57, p = .12	+ – –
4. There will be a statistically significant difference between NAIS affiliated administrator and teacher attitudes toward inclusion when considering their total years of experience as an educator.	**T-test** Administrators *M* = 16 Teachers *M* = 18	(t(702) = 1.92, p = .06)	–

Figure 3. (continued)

5. There will be a statistically significant difference between NAIS affiliated administrator and teacher attitudes toward inclusion when considering the percentage of students with disabilities in their divisions or classrooms. Specifically, the attitudes of the administrators and teachers will be more similar and favorable, the smaller the percentage of students with disabilities enrolled.	**T-test**
	  Administrators M= 1.13
	  Teachers M = 1.30
		(t(705) = 1.50, p = .14)	**-**

6. There will be a significant positive relationship between teachers' perceived amount of planning time and their attitude toward inclusion.	**Correlation**	Teachers (r = .22, p = .00)	+
7. There will be a significant positive relationship between teachers' indicated hours spent completing professional development related to special education and their attitude toward inclusion.	**Correlation**	Teachers (r = -.06, p = .27)	-
8. There will be a significant positive relationship between teachers' perceived level of competence in implementing modifications and accommodations and their attitude toward inclusion.	**Correlation**	Teachers (r = .32, p = .00)	+

Figure 3. (continued)

9. There will be a difference between NAIS affiliated administrator and teacher perceptions regarding whether or not in-service training pertaining to students with disabilities was provided by the school prior to inclusion. Specifically, a greater percentage of administrators than teachers will respond that in-service was provided for the teachers.	**Comparison of frequencies**	There is a difference between perceptions and a greater percentage of administrators agreed that in-service was provided.	+
10. There will be a statistically significant difference between NAIS affiliated administrators and teachers perceptions regarding administrative support. Specifically, the perception of the administrators will be more favorable than that of the teachers.	**T-test** Administrators M = 5.15 Teachers M = 4.42	(t(564) = -3.62, p = .00)	+
11. There will be a difference between NAIS affiliated administrator and teacher perceptions regarding whether or not they were involved in the decision to include students with disabilities in their classroom. Specifically, the perception of the administrators will be more favorable than that of the teachers.	**Comparison of frequencies**	There is a difference between perceptions and the administrators were more favorable.	+

Supplemental Analyses

      Frequencies of ORI questions. Additional examination of the ORI questions

helps to further reveal the attitudes of administrators and teachers regarding the inclusion

of students with disabilities in their schools and classrooms. In Chapter 2 a significant

body of research was cited which supported the idea that perception of burden to the

teacher (Avramidis et al., 2000; D'Alanzo et al., 1997; Loomos, 2001; Schumm &

Vaughn, 1995; Scott et al., 1998; Soodak et al., 1998; Wendt, 1999) and training

(Avramidis et al., 2000; Burke & Sutherland, 2004; Cornoldi et al., 1998; D'Alanzo et

al., 1997; Finegan, 2004; Grier, 2001; Jobe et al., 1996; Kwon, 2004; Shade & Stewart,

2001; Tomei, 2000) impacted their attitude toward inclusion.

      Variables such as teacher stress, classroom management, curricular changes,

parent concerns, cooperation, amount of paperwork, and bureaucracy associated with

inclusion seem to contribute to the perception of burden. The questions in Table 11 are

copied from the ORI survey and attempt to assess the administrators' and teachers'

perception of burden to the teacher. Administrators and teachers had different

perspectives overall when answering each of these questions. It is interesting to note that

the administrators were more favorable than the teachers when responding to all four

questions. Most significant were the discrepancies between the groups regarding the

perception of changes that need to be made in classroom procedures and the patience

required from the teacher. More than half of the teachers felt that significant changes

would be required when including students with disabilities, while less than half of the

administrators felt that way. A similar difference was evident when the teachers

disagreed with the statement that the classroom behavior of the student with a disability

generally does not require more patience from the teacher than does the classroom behavior of the student without a disability. Again, less than half of the administrators disagreed with the same statement. The discrepancies in percentage of agreement or disagreement between the administrators and the teachers further supports that the administrators have a more optimistic and favorable view than the teachers as a group.

Table 11

Percentages of Administrator and Teacher Agreement and Disagreement to ORI Questions Related to Perception of Teacher Burden

ORI Question	% of Agreement	% of Disagreement
Integration of students with disabilities will require significant changes in general classroom procedures		
Administrators	45	55
Teachers	60	40
It is not more difficult to maintain order in a general classroom that contains a student with a disability than in one that does not contain a student with a disability		
Administrators	63	38
Teachers	51	49
Students with disabilities will not monopolize the general classroom teacher's time		
Administrators	64	36
Teachers	53	47

Table 11 (continued)

The classroom behavior of the student with a disability

generally does not require more patience from the teacher

than does the classroom behavior of the student without a

disability

Administrators	55	45
Teachers	39	61

A second set of questions was also examined to further understand the perception of teacher ability and training needed to include students with disabilities in the general classroom. Table 12 illustrates that the administrators were more confident in the teachers' ability than the teachers were in themselves but less confidence in their current training. This data is somewhat similar to the data collected in the *Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Teachers and Administrators* created by the researcher. As previously outlined in Table 10, the administrators rated their impression of competence in their teachers' ability to implement accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities slightly better than "sometimes". This rating indicated a lesser degree of confidence in the teachers' competence than the teachers rated themselves.

Conversely, a higher percentage of teachers were significantly confident in their current training and less confident in their abilities. More than half of the teachers agreed that extensive retraining was necessary and nearly three quarters of the administrators agreed with that statement.

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Table 12

Percentages of Administrator and Teacher Responses to ORI Questions Related to

Perception of Teacher Ability and Training

ORI Question	% of Agreement	% of Disagreement
General classroom teachers have the ability necessary to work with students with disabilities		
Administrators	72	28
Teachers	56	44
General classroom teachers have sufficient training to teach students with disabilities		
Administrators	57	43
Teachers	73	27
Integration of students with disabilities will necessitate extensive retraining of general classroom teachers		
Administrators	61	39
Teachers	71	29

Additional significant correlations. Administrators and teachers were asked to

check all of the types of disabilities from the list of the thirteen that they serviced in their

classrooms or schools (i.e., autism, deaf-blindness, deafness, emotional disturbance,

hearing impairment, mental retardation, multiple disabilities, orthopedic impairment, other health impairment, specific learning disability, speech or language impairment, traumatic brain injury, and visual impairment including blindness). Answers for administrators ranged from 0-10 types. The administrator mean was 2.74. Teachers indicated between 0 and 9 types of disabilities serviced with a mean of 2.48. A significant difference between the means of the groups did not emerge when looking at the total number of disabilities checked ($t(705) = -1.22, p = .22$). A very strong positive relationship existed between the total ORI scores and the total number of disabilities checked for administrators ($r = .16, p = .30$) and especially for teachers ($r = .00, p = .96$). This was the strongest relationship in all of the data examined. This analysis suggests that the more types of disabilities both administrators and teachers were exposed to, the more favorable they were toward including students with disabilities.

In addition, it was not surprising that relationships were found for both administrator and teacher groups between years of experience and total disabilities checked ($r = -.21, p = .04$), ($r = .11, p = .01$) as well as professional development in special education and total disabilities checked respectively ($r = -.31, p = .00$), ($r = -.21, p = .00$). These groups reported extensive years of experience and their indication that they were exposed to students with varying types of disabilities makes sense. It is also not surprising that those who received more professional development in special education would recognize that they were teaching a greater number of students with different types of disabilities in their classrooms.

Chapter 5

Discussion

Purpose of the Study

The primary purpose of this dissertation was to compare the attitudes of administrators and teachers working in independent school regarding the inclusion of students with disabilities in their classrooms and to understand those factors that influenced their attitudes. Participants for the study were administrators and teachers from schools that were members of the National Association of Independent Schools across the United States.

Research Questions

Two sets of research questions were established to form the basis of the study. One set was designed to compare attitudes while the other was designed to understand practices. Those questions were analyzed in this section.

Research questions comparing attitudes.

Research question one. Are the overall attitudes toward inclusion held by administrators of independent schools affiliated with the NAIS significantly different than the teachers who are also affiliated with NAIS schools?

It was not surprising to find that the overall attitudes were different and similar to the findings revealed by the CEC in 2001. Teachers then indicated concerns for the implementation of inclusion while administrators felt that things "were not that bad" (Coleman, 2001, para.10). Administrators in this study also had a more favorable attitude than the teachers. However, it is significant to note that teacher attitudes toward inclusion seem to be improving over the last two decades (Askamit, et al., 1987; Rao,

2004). Past studies on inclusion that made use of the ORI as their scale to measure attitudes reveal that the mean score increased from 75 in a study done in the late 1990s (Jobe et al., 1996) to 78 after a study completed in the early part of the new millennium (Loomos, 2001) to 83 in 2007 (Ryan, 2007) and now to 93 in this current study. It appears that overall teachers have moved from a fairly neutral attitude toward inclusion to a more favorable one. As mentioned previously, few studies where found on the attitudes of principals or administrators regarding the inclusion of students with disabilities (Praisner, 2003; Ramirez, 2006). No studies could be found which targeted understanding the attitudes of principals or administrators who worked specifically in schools affiliated with the NAIS or even other private schools. It is clear after this research study that nearly all principals are involved in the decision to include students with disabilities in their school as well as involved in the decision to make a determination about accommodations and modifications for the students with disabilities. It is also clear that they feel confident that their teachers have access to the records they need, professionals in their building, curricular materials, and the administrative support that they need to service students with disabilities. Additionally, most of them would agree that in-service training was provided for their teachers and that time was built in to the school day to service students with disabilities. Given this information it may seem that this favorable attitude toward inclusion and the confidence that supports are in place for these students would create a very positive environment for students with disabilities. However, it is particularly noteworthy that the attitudes of teachers regarding all of these variables is considerably less positive and favorable than the administrators while the teachers are primarily responsible for servicing the students.

Research question two. Is the perception held by administrators different than that held by teachers regarding the types of students with disabilities serviced in their schools and classrooms?

The perceptions were not different and both groups agreed that students with learning disabilities were the most frequent group served while students with other health impairments were close behind. It was also recognized that a significant number of administrators and teachers felt that they serviced students with speech and language impairments, students who were emotionally disturbed, or students with autism. The indication of which groups were most frequently served aligns with Bello's 2006 study of Catholic high schools. It is apparent that private religious and nonsectarian independent schools are servicing students with hidden or mild disabilities. Disability type was a contributing factor to attitudes in Scruggs and Mastropieri's (1996) work and teachers indicated a less favorable attitude toward including students with severe disabilities, mental retardation, emotional or behavioral problems, or moderate attention or language disabilities.

More administrators indicated servicing students of every type of disability than the teachers with the exception of multiple disabilities and traumatic brain injury. This information supports the data that more of the administrators are involved in the decision to include students with disabilities in their schools and are indicating a higher percentage than the teachers who may not be as well informed as a consequence of their lack of involvement.

Research question three. Is there a significant correlation between overall attitudes toward inclusion held by administrators and teachers affiliated with NAIS schools and the grade level they service?

A significant number of administrators worked in a combined division indicating that they were responsible for students with a wider range of ages than other administrators who worked in only one division. For this number of administrators there was a minimally significant correlation between attitude and grade level. Teachers were fairly evenly distributed across grade levels and divisions and there was not a significant correlation between their attitudes and grade level. This is to say that grade level does not seem to be a factor in influencing attitudes toward inclusion for those who work in independent schools affiliated with the NAIS.

Research question four. Are the overall attitudes toward inclusion held by administrators of independent schools affiliated with the NAIS significantly different than the teachers who are also affiliated with NAIS schools when considering their total years of experience as an educator?

There was not a significant relationship between total years of experience and attitudes toward inclusion for administrators, as was true in a study by Ramirez (2006) focusing on principal attitudes. However, there was a significant relationship for teachers. This would indicate that the more years of experience a teacher has the more favorable their attitude toward including students with disabilities in independent schools. Again, 18 was the mean for years of experience for teachers.

Research question five. Are the overall attitudes toward inclusion held by administrators of independent schools affiliated with the NAIS significantly different

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than the teachers who are also affiliated with NAIS schools when considering the percentage of students with disabilities enrolled in their divisions or classrooms?

Attitudes held by administrators and teachers were not significantly different when considering the percentage of students with disabilities. In this study the majority of the administrators agreed that 0-10% would represent the percentage of students with disabilities in their school although less than half of the teachers made the same indication and more than one third of them felt that the percentage was more accurate between 11 and 25%.

Vantine reported in her 2008 article that students with disabilities accounted for 10-20% of the enrollment in most independent schools nationwide. The teachers' indication may illuminate that since 2008, the percentage of students with disabilities is growing in independent schools. However, it could also be concluded that the teachers have an impression of increased numbers because they feel the burden of full responsibility for servicing the students with disabilities. Interestingly, the teachers did not indicate servicing students with certain types of disabilities with the same frequency as the administrators. Does this mean that they recognize that they are servicing students with disabilities but are not sure which types?

Research questions pertaining to practice.

Research question six. Does the perceived amount of planning time to prepare for students with disabilities in his/her classroom influence teacher attitudes toward inclusion?

Teachers did not feel that they had enough planning time to prepare for students with disabilities in their classroom. Planning time is identified as a variable that

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influences the attitudes of independent school teachers just as it was found to be a variable that influences attitudes toward students with disabilities in past research of teachers in public and Catholic schools (Cornoldi et al., 1998; Loomos, 2001; Seaby, 2003).

Research question seven. Do the hours spent completing professional development related to special education influence teacher attitudes toward inclusion?

Hours spent completing professional development related to special education did not emerge as a variable that influenced attitudes for the sample of teachers in the independent school group. This finding was contradictory to the research of pre-service teachers and teachers in public schools (Avramidis et al., 2000; Burke & Sutherland, 2004; Cornoldi et al., 1998; D'Alanzo et al., 1997; Finegan, 2004; Grier, 2001; Hammond & Ingalls, 2003; Jobe et al., 1996; Kwon, 2004; Shade & Stewart, 2001; Snyder, 1999; Tomei, 2000). However, the question to the sample group was specific about special education professional development and within the last year. Teachers were clear that more training was necessary if they were to improve their skills for working with students with disabilities. The absence of a correlation between hours in special education and attitudes may be related to teachers' lack of understanding that specific training in special education would be helpful to them as opposed to a workshop they might sign up for providing information on students with ADHD.

Despite this lack of significance between hours in special education and attitudes it is somewhat alarming that more than half of the teachers indicated that they completed no professional development related to special education in the last year, yet nearly three quarters of them agreed that they were sufficiently trained to teach students with

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disabilities. It may be true that this group of teachers felt that their training came from years of experience and other types of professional development opportunities.

Research question eight. Does the perceived level of competence in implementing modifications and accommodations influence teacher attitudes toward inclusion?

Perceived level of competence does correlate with attitudes for teachers working in independent schools. Findings presented in Table 12 indicate that over half of the teachers agreed that they had the ability necessary to work with students with disabilities and overall they felt competent most of the time when working with these students. Although level of competence was not consistently considered one of the significant variables that influenced attitudes in past research it is worthwhile to recognize it as a variable that influences attitudes for independent school teachers. Although the level of significance is low enough evidence supports the idea that independent school teachers who lack confidence in themselves regarding their ability to implement accommodations and modifications may feel less favorable about including students with disabilities.

Research question nine. Is the perception held by administrators different than that held by teachers regarding the provision of in-service training pertaining to students with disabilities prior to inclusion?

The perceptions regarding the provision of in-service training were very different between the administrators and the teachers. Overall most of the administrators were confident that in-service training was provided to their teachers prior to the inclusion of students with disabilities and a small percentage of teachers felt the same way. This finding is extremely important for future practice in independent schools.

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Research question ten. Is the perception held by administrators different than that held by teachers regarding administrative support directly related to the inclusion of students with disabilities?

The perceptions regarding administrative support were significantly different between the administrators and the teachers. The administrators were very confident that they were providing adequate support to their teachers while the teachers felt that the support was sometimes adequate. In past research support for teachers was clearly a variable that influenced attitudes toward inclusion (Cornoldi et al., 1998; Finegan, 2004; Grier, 2001; Hammond & Ingalls, 2003; Loomos, 2001; Seaby, 2003; Snyder, 1999; Wendt, 1999). Although this study did not focus on the degree to which support ratings influenced attitudes it is important to recognize the discrepancy between the perceptions for future practice in independent schools.

Research question eleven. Is the perception held by administrators different than that held by teachers regarding whether or not they were involved in the decision to include students with disabilities in their classroom?

Perceptions were dramatically different regarding the involvement in the decision to include students with disabilities. Nearly all of the administrators perceived that they were included in the decision and only a fraction of the teachers felt that way. None of the past research focused on this type of information because public schools are required to provide an education for all students. Therefore, the involvement of teachers becomes a critical factor for improving attitudes of teacher in independent schools.

General Discussion

Factors influencing administrator and teacher attitudes.

Factors identified in past research. Researchers suggest that the successful implementation of inclusion, or any new practice in education, is highly dependent on teacher attitudes and the collaborative effort between teachers, principals, and advocates (Bruneau-Balerrama, 1997; Bryant et al., 1999; D'Alonzo et al., 1997; Jobe et al., 1996; Lanier & Lanier, 1996; MacDonald & Hardman, 1989; Oberti v. Board of Education of Clementon School District, 1993; Olson et al., 1997; Ramirez, 2006; Salend, 2001; Salend & Garrick-Duhaney, 1999; Scruggs & Mastropieri, 2000; Stoler, 1992; Waldron & McLesky, 1998). For this reason, the study of inclusion focused on teacher attitudes in public school settings and to a lesser degree on the attitudes of other educators, such as principals, in similar settings.

In past research the variables that related to attitude remained consistent including perception of teacher burden (Avramidis et al., 2000; D'Alanzo et al., 1997; Loomos, 2001; Schumm & Vaughn, 1995; Scott et al., 1998; Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1996; Shade & Stewart, 2001; Soodak et al., 1998; Wendt, 1999), disability type and level of severity (Cook, 2001; Grier, 2001; Hastings & Oakford, 2003; O'Rorke-Trigiani, 2003; Seaby, 2003), and degree of teacher training (Cornoldi et al., 1998; Finegan, 2004; Hammond & Ingalls, 2003; Kwon, 2004; Loomos, 2001; Monahan et al., 1996; Seaby, 2003; Tomei, 2000). Additionally, the variables that related to teachers' needs were recognized as sufficient planning time, materials, personnel resources, expertise/training, and administrative support (Bruneau-Balderrama, 1997; Finegan, 2004; Hammond & Ingalls,

2003; Kavale & Forness, 2000; Knight, 1999; Petch-Hogan & Haggard, 1999; Salend, 2001; Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1996).

      Factors identified in current research. To address a gap in the research, this study attempted to investigate the factors that influence the attitudes toward inclusion of administrators and teachers who work in independent schools affiliated with the NAIS. As confusion surrounding inclusion continues today, these findings suggest, and it was not surprising, that many of the factors that influenced public school teacher attitudes toward inclusion in the 1990s are the same factors influencing independent school administrators and teachers in 2010. Teacher training and perception of burden were the two most significant factors that influenced administrator attitudes toward inclusion. In-service training, planning time, and perception of burden were among those consistent variables for teachers. However, additional distinguishing factors for both groups in independent schools seemed to emerge. Administrators, and particularly teachers who indicated servicing students with varying types of disabilities, possessed more favorable attitudes toward inclusion. This illustrates that the more experience teachers acquire with different types of disabilities the better they will feel about including students in their classroom. Secondly, the perception of involvement was a factor that influenced attitudes for teachers only. They perceived that they were not involved in the decision to include students with disabilities in their classroom nor were they involved in determining the appropriate accommodations and modifications necessary for the student to be successful. When teachers begin to feel that students with disabilities require more patience, more of their time, and more training, the lack of involvement is likely troubling to this group of teachers and may result in less favorable attitudes (Shade &

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Stewart, 2001). Independent school teachers understand and trust that the students who attend their schools were screened through an admissions process and deemed *mission appropriate*. This generally means that the students are an appropriate academic and behavioral fit for the vigorous independent school environment. NAIS explains:

> Independence is the unique characteristic of this segment of the education industry, offering schools four freedoms that contribute to their success: the freedom to define their own unique missions; the freedom to admit and keep only those students well-matched to the mission; the freedom to define the qualifications for high quality teachers; and the freedom to determine on their own what to teach and how to assess student achievement and progress. (NAIS, 2010)

The reputation of independent schools is that only those who are academically able are admitted. It is important to recognize that the types of mild disabilities, which they identified as servicing, do not correlate with lack of ability. However, these students may seem less able to their teachers when the appropriate accommodations, modifications, and strategies are not in place. The teachers feel that they are left out of the conversation to determine which students are admission appropriate for their school and then left out of the conversation again when determining how to service the students who have disabilities and were accepted. It is possible that this lack of involvement in the admissions process is contributing to negative attitudes toward including students with disabilities and negative attitudes regarding the "caliber" of the students admitted. Ultimately, lack of involvement becomes an additional variable that influences attitudes toward inclusion for teachers in independent schools.

Discrepancies between the factors for administrators and for teachers.

Recognizing which variables influence attitudes is important in understanding the inclusion of students with disabilities in the independent school environment, but it is equally as important to recognize the discrepancies between the administrator and teacher perceptions of those variables in these schools. The administrators expressed an overall more favorable attitude when each variable was examined. They felt that teachers had access to records, materials, and other professionals (who the teachers met with at least once every two weeks). They felt that teachers had the time in their day to plan for students with disabilities and students with disabilities would not monopolize their time. In-service training was provided for them and they were sometimes confident in the teachers' ability to service these students. They agreed that teachers most often had the administrative support they needed. With that said, the administrators believed that teachers would require more training and that the students with disabilities would require the teacher to have more patience.

Similarly, teachers felt that they had access to records, materials, and other professionals but a significant percentage of them never met with one of the professionals to consult about students with disabilities. They also "sometimes" felt confident in their ability to service students with disabilities. They agreed that they sometimes had the administrative support they needed, but still a third of them felt that they never had that support. They concurred that students with disabilities would require more patience. Conversely, the discrepancies between perceptions of administrators and teachers were evident as they indicated that they did not have time in their day to plan for students with

disabilities and nearly half felt that students with disabilities would monopolize their time. They said that in-service training was not provided for them.

      Analysis of NAIS Teacher Data. In summary teachers have an overall relatively positive attitude toward the inclusion of students with disabilities in their independent school classrooms. However, it appears that teachers do not feel they have a voice in the decision to include students with disabilities. Due to the lack of involvement in the inclusion decision too many of the teachers are still not aware that they have students with disabilities in their classroom. However, they recognize that they are almost exclusively responsible for servicing students with disabilities. Extra help from the teacher is the primary and most frequently used model to accommodate students with disabilities in their school and they are making a variety of accommodations for students, primarily extra time. They provide this support but they do not feel they were included in the discussion about which appropriate accommodations and modifications would be necessary to implement for the students' success. Additionally, many of them have less than 6 years of experience with students with disabilities and spent little to no time in professional development pertaining to special education in the last year. Thus, they feel they do not have sufficient training and nearly all of them agree that in-service training was not provided for them prior to inclusion of students with disabilities. Most feel they do not have time in their day to plan for students with disabilities and nearly half of them agreed that students with disabilities will monopolize their time and require more patience. On the positive side, they feel confident in their ability to teach these students and do not feel that the students should be educated in special education programs with alternative teachers. In Bello's (2006) survey of Catholic high school teachers an

overwhelming percentage agreed that the general education classroom was not the appropriate environment for students with disabilities. Contrary to that finding, the majority of the participants in this study agreed that students with disabilities are best served in general classrooms. They have access to students' records and the materials they need and recognize that professionals are available in their buildings for consultation. However, many of the teachers never met with those professionals even though they identify collaboration with a specialist as the most successful way to improve skills for working with students with disabilities. Finally, they feel that administrative support is sufficient only some of the time.

Analysis of NAIS Administrator Data. Administrators also have a mostly favorable attitude toward including students with disabilities. An overwhelming majority of them are aware that they service students with disabilities in their school and classrooms and recognize that they were involved in the decision to include the students and involved in making the determination about appropriate accommodations and modifications for the students. They understand that general education teachers are the persons primarily responsible for supporting students with disabilities in independent school environments and that accommodations and modifications are made "under certain conditions" in their schools. Almost all of the administrators agree that teachers have access to records they need, materials, professionals in the building, the administrative support, and the ability to service students with disabilities. To a lesser degree, but still a significant number of them feel that in-service training was provided to their teachers, and yet teachers do not have the training they need. They feel that teachers have the time built in to their school day to service students with disabilities and that

these students will not monopolize their time. However, they recognize that students with disabilities will require more patience from the teacher. They identify retraining as a necessary ingredient in the successful inclusion of students with disabilities.

Analysis of the Inclusion Process and Practices in NAIS Schools

The sample population of this research included mostly coeducational day schools across the US that serviced students from pre-kindergarten to Grade 12. The schools employed support professionals, primarily learning specialists and school counselors and to a lesser degree, reading specialists, psychologists and speech and language therapists. Service delivery is primarily extra help from the general education teacher with half of the schools recognizing that they use tutoring on site for a fee and a smaller percentage recognizing tutoring off site for a fee and a traditional pull-out support model. When pull-out support is provided it is generally with a learning specialist or a counselor. Half of the schools recognized using a reading specialist for pull-out support and a small percentage provided students with a pull-out social skills training group. As Table 7 outlined, administrators, specialists, parents and then teachers are involved in making the determination of accommodations for students with disabilities. The schools make accommodations for students under certain conditions and 100% of them will afford students extra time for assessments under those conditions. Use of a computer for note-taking, adapting the manner for test administration, using a calculator during an exam, clarifying or rephrasing the words on a test or assignment, providing an alternative setting for a test, adapting course material distribution, and providing an alternative format for a test were among the top types of accommodations implemented in the past by more than half of the respondents.

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Immediate Recommendations for Practice

It was established that the attitudes held by teachers will determine the success of the inclusion model in public school settings, and it can be assumed that the same would hold true in independent school settings. Past research shows that teacher attitudes are greatly influenced by a leader who holds positive views toward inclusion and who provides the planning time, resources, personnel support, and personal support that is necessary for teachers to implement the practice (Praisner, 2003).

As noted earlier, the CEC published a futures report that cited the continuing barriers and concerns of teachers for the future of special education. It was recognized in the analysis that "Teachers reported greater concerns, more frustration, and a growing sense that their plight is not understood. Administrators were much more positive regarding the conditions of teaching, essentially indicating that things are not that bad" (Coleman, 2001, para. 10). What was analyzed by the CEC in 2001 seems to match the findings of this research. Although the quantitative nature of this study does not reveal the actual feelings of the teachers that might indicate concern or frustration, the data points to the evidence that the teachers do not perceive that they are involved in the process of inclusion nor do they perceive that they have the time or training needed to effectively support students with disabilities. On the flipside, the administrators are much more positive and indicate training as the variable that must be addressed in the future for teachers. If independent schools aim to improve the attitude of their teachers toward inclusion of students with disabilities, recognition of the discrepancies becomes the first priority. A concerning chasm exists between the perceptions of administrators and the perception of teachers, starting with the percentage of students with disabilities enrolled.

Eight additional recommendations should be considered to effectively change the attitudes and ultimately the practices for servicing students with disabilities in independent schools:

1. Involve teachers when making the decision about whether or not to include a student with a disability in the school.

Since teachers are the first line of support for students, teachers should be part of the admissions process. It is recommended that schools establish an admissions' team including the admissions' officer, administrators, specialists, and teachers to make determinations about who is "mission appropriate" for the school.

2. Improve the way in which teachers discover that a student has a disability and be sure the information is documented and correct.

Currently, it seems that information is communicated informally either verbally or through an email. This type of communication system may account for the number of teachers who are unaware that they have students with disabilities in their classrooms or who feel that they have a greater number of students with disabilities than actually have in their school. In order for teachers to be aware and to better understand the needs of students with disabilities, the communication of the disability should be consistent and in writing. It is recommended that schools ask families to provide official documentation from a licensed professional of a disability indicating the impact that disability has on the child's learning or functioning in a school environment. That documentation should be shared in a consistent way with all of the "need to know" school professionals who will interact with the child (i.e., general education teachers, teachers of elective subjects, physical education, and art).

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3. Provide consistent, yearly in-service training to all faculty before and during the school year which focuses on understanding students with disabilities and the best practices that will be necessary for their success.

Schools should consider using qualified, in house specialists as resources since the teachers indicated that collaboration with them is the best way to improve skills. Place less emphasis on providing relevant literature and sending faculty to conferences or courses. Teachers seem to indicate that a more active approach with familiar professionals (colleagues or specialists) is more effective. It is also recommended that in-service training focus on best practices in special education including determining who has a disability and which accommodations, modifications, and strategies will be necessary to implement for the students' success.

4. Involve teachers in the conversation about appropriate accommodations and modifications for those students included.

Again, it is recommended that independent schools establish a team of individuals who make determinations about the necessary and appropriate accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities. This includes the specifics of how the accommodations and modifications are implemented and who is responsible for the implementation. Schools should consider teams that include administrators, department chairs or team leaders, teachers, and the registrar or the person who keeps the official records for the student.

5. Continue to employ specialists who have expertise in the areas of learning disabilities, other health impairments, speech and language impairments, emotional disturbance, and autism.

Given the frequency of learning disabilities and other health impairments (including ADHD) recognized in independent schools, the support of a learning specialist or school psychologist should be considered. There seems to be less of a need for a speech and language therapist to consult with students with speech and language disabilities and those with autism. However, schools should pay careful attention to the rising number of children identified on the autism spectrum nationwide (NIMH, 2010). It is possible that recognition of these types of disabilities are not noticed by independent school administrators and teachers. Lack of expertise in this area or the absence of a school psychologist or speech and language clinician contributes to the problem. Because of their college preparatory focus and vigorous curriculum, independent schools have the reputation of rushing their young students to print and reading before spending considerable time building language skills and therefore allowing them to recognize language based problems.

6. Build time in to the school day for teachers to consult or collaborate with specialists.

It is evident that independent school are employing specialists, primarily learning specialists, counselors, and reading specialists to provide direct support or to consult and collaborate with faculty, students and parents. However, it is also evident that the teachers are not making use of these specialists as consultants despite their recognition of this professional relationship serving as the best way to improve skills when working with students with disabilities. Furthermore, they indicated that they did not have enough time in their day to properly support students with disabilities. Schools should consider building a schedule that allows consistent and purposeful time in the day for teachers to

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collaborate and consult with specialists in an effort to improve their own skills for working with students with disabilities.

7. Promote collaboration between specialists and general education teachers.

When 25% of the teachers indicated never meeting with the specialist something is wrong. However, three quarters of both administrators and teachers recognized that a learning specialist provided pull-out support for their students. Why are the two systems separate? It seems like the students with disabilities have classroom time with their teacher and maybe some extra help and then a separate and different class with the specialist. Few teachers and administrators described the use of a collaborative model in their classroom where a specialist works alongside the classroom teacher planning the lessons and teaching together. This type of service delivery model might cut down on the need for teachers to provide as much "extra help" to students with disabilities and less of a need for tutoring on or off site for a fee. It also might improve teachers' perception of the amount of time and patience a student with disabilities will require of them.

8. Hire teachers with extensive years of experience.

Teachers with more years of experience tend to have more favorable attitudes towards inclusion and have more experience working with different types of disabilities. This information is in contrast with some previous studies (Jobe et al., 1996; Loomos, 2001; Ramirez, 2006). However, the teacher participants in the research study with more years of experience had a more favorable attitude toward including students with disabilities.

Long Term Research Recommendations

The findings in this study represent the only current literature focusing on the attitudes of administrators and teachers who work in independent schools regarding the inclusion of students with disabilities. Additional research is needed to support the findings in the study. Until then, generalizations cannot be made. Large scale research in the following areas would contribute to better understanding the attitudes and practices in independent schools as they continue to service more students with mild disabilities:

1. A quantitative comparison between the attitudes of public school teachers and administrators and the attitudes held by independent school teachers and administrators regarding the inclusion of students with disabilities.

2. An analysis of independent school parents and/or students' attitudes regarding the inclusion of students with disabilities.

3. A qualitative investigation to better understand the description of concern or frustration of teachers regarding the inclusion of students with disabilities.

4. A qualitative analysis to investigate whether or not independent school environments might cause a student to "look" more disabled because of the lack of teacher training and the lack of successfully implemented accommodations, modifications, and support strategies.

5. A more in-depth investigation of process and practice for students with disabilities in independent schools.

Limitations

This study focused on the factors that influence the attitudes of teachers and administrators regarding the inclusion of students with disabilities. The study was considered limited because of the choice made to target a specific population of administrators and teachers who were exclusively affiliated with the NAIS.

Because of this choice, it was limited in that it did not examine the attitudes of students, parents, or other administrators. The survey approach of the study provided data for analysis, but there was a lacking qualitative piece to the research. The researcher was not able to understand the feelings of the participants or to what degree administrators and teachers were satisfied, frustrated, or concerned with the inclusion of students with disabilities.

A conscious effort was made to keep the participants identity anonymous. The survey did not ask participants to identify their name or the name of the school where they worked. Therefore, there was no way to make the comparison directly between the attitudes of teachers and administrators who worked in the same schools.

Access to the population of administrators and teachers in NAIS was a limiting factor. NAIS does not provide or publish a directory for researchers. Therefore, large scale access to the administrators and teachers was only possible through coordination with the NAIS who sent the survey on the researcher's behalf. The NAIS also restricted the number of participants, administrators and teachers, receiving the survey. Ultimately, the sample size for teachers was adequate but the sample size of administrators was low and represents a limitation of the study.

The initial vehicle of data collection was not ideal in that the administrators were asked to either forward or distribute the survey to two general education teachers in their building. It was immediately evident that the additional request of the administrators would limit the teacher responses. After two reminders were sent to complete the survey an alternative way of data collection was presented by the NAIS. On May 25, 2010 the survey was sent to an additional 7,685 teachers who belonged to NAIS and on May 26th to an additional 1,384 administrators, who were members of an NAIS listserv.

Because it is often true that administrators in independent schools function in multiple roles, the titles for the administrators varied. Surveys were sent randomly to those with the following titles; Assistant Head, Associate Head, Division Head, Lower School Head, Middle School Head, Upper School Head, and Director of Studies. The NAIS agreed that persons with these titles would function much as principals do in public schools. However, it remains unclear to what degree they are involved in the processes and practices that are the focus of this research. Therefore, the surveying of persons with varying titles becomes a limiting factor.

The time of year was also a limiting factor in this study. Independent schools often have lengthy breaks during the month of March and April. The initial survey was sent on March 9, 2010 and the survey was closed on June 11, 2010.

Finally, the survey was meant to measure attitudes toward the concept of inclusion and was limited in its ability to assess attitudes toward specific types of disabilities (Avramidis et al., 2000).

A flaw of the survey may have occurred by the identification of the disability category Other Health Impaired. The researcher specifically included parentheses (e.g.,

Attention Deficit/ Hyperactivity Disorder) after the disability category. This specification may have elevated or limited the participant response to this category of disability. The researcher did not include a definition or the other disabilities that fall under the category of Other Health Impaired. Federal regulations define Other Health Impaired and this information might have modified the survey results.

Other health impairment means having limited strength, vitality or alertness, including a heightened alertness to environmental stimuli, that results in limited alertness with respect to the educational environment, that- (i) Is due to chronic or acute health problems such as asthma, attention deficit disorder or attention deficit hyperactivity disorder, diabetes, epilepsy, a heart condition, hemophilia, lead poisoning, leukemia, nephritis, rheumatic fever, and sickle cell anemia; and (ii) Adversely affects a child's educational performance. (Assistance to States for the Education of Children With Disabilities and the Early Intervention Program for Infants and Toddlers With Disabilities; Final Regulations, 1999)

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Appendix A

Opinions Relative to the Integration of Students with Disabilities

General Directions: Educators have long realized that one of the most important influences on a child's educational progress is the classroom teacher. The purpose of this questionnaire is to obtain information that will aid school systems in increasing the classroom teacher's effectiveness with students with disabilities placed in his or her classroom. Please circle the number to the left of each item that best describes your agreement or disagreement with the statement. There are no correct answers: the best answers are those that honestly reflect your feelings. There is no time limit, but you should work as quickly as you can.

Please respond to every statement.

KEY

-3: I disagree very much   +1: I agree a little
-2: I disagree pretty much   +2: I agree pretty much
-1: I disagree a little   +3: I agree very much

-3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3   1. Most students with disabilities will make an adequate attempt to complete their assignments.

-3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3   2. Integration of students with disabilities will necessitate extensive retraining of general-classroom teachers.

-3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3   3. Integration offers mixed group interaction that will foster understanding and acceptance of differences among students.

-3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3   4. It is likely that the student with a disability will exhibit behavior problems in a general classroom.

-3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3   5. Students with disabilities can best be served in general classrooms.

-3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3   6. The extra attention students with disabilities require will be to the detriment of the other students.

-3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3   7. The challenge of being in a general classroom will promote the academic growth of the student with a disability.

-3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3   8. Integration of students with disabilities will require significant changes in general classroom procedures.

-3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3   9. Increased freedom in the general classroom creates too much confusion for the student with a disability.

-3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3   10. General-classroom teachers have the ability necessary to work with students with disabilities.

-3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3   11. The presence of students with disabilities will not promote acceptance of differences on the part of students without disabilities.

Please respond to every statement.

KEY	
-3: I disagree very much	+1: I agree a little
-2: I disagree pretty much	+2: I agree pretty much
-1: I disagree a little	+3: I agree very much

-3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3   12. The behavior of students with disabilities will set a bad example for students without disabilities.

-3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3   13. The student with a disability will probably develop academic skills more rapidly in a general classroom than in a special classroom.

-3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3   14. Integration of the student with a disability will not promote his or her social independence.

-3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3   15. It is not more difficult to maintain order in a general classroom that contains a student with a disability than in one that does not contain a student with a disability.

-3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3   16. Students with disabilities will not monopolize the general-classroom teacher's time.

-3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3   17. The integration of students with disabilities can be beneficial for students without disabilities.

-3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3   18. Students with disabilities are likely to create confusion in the general classroom.

-3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3   19. General-classroom teachers have sufficient training to teach students with disabilities.

-3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3   20. Integration will likely have a negative effect on the emotional development of the student with a disability.

-3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3   21. Students with disabilities should be given every opportunity to function in the general classroom where possible.

-3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3   22. The classroom behavior of the student with a disability generally does not require more patience from the teacher than does the classroom behavior of the student without a disability.

-3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3   23. Teaching students with disabilities is better done by special- than by general-classroom teachers.

-3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3   24. Isolation in a special classroom has a beneficial effect on the social and emotional development of the student with a disability.

-3 -2 -1 +1 +2 +3   25. The student with a disability will not be socially isolated in the general classroom.

THANK YOU FOR YOUR ASSISTANCE IN RESPONDING TO THIS QUESTIONNAIRE

Barbara Larrivee
Richard F. Antonak

Appendix B

Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Administrators

---

1. INTRODUCTION

Dear Participant,

Thank you in advance for taking your time to complete this important survey regarding students with disabilities in NAIS schools. The research results will be shared with NAIS members via the NAIS website and other vehicles. The survey should take approximately 15 minutes to complete.

Please contact me directly at shannon.mulholland.mulholland@gmail.com with any questions or comments you may have about the research or the survey.

Sincere thanks,
Shannon Mulholland

Appendix B (continued)

Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Administrators

Appendix B (continued)

Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Administrators

Dear Participant,

Thank you in advance for taking your time to complete this important survey regarding students with disabilities in NAIS schools. The research results will be shared with NAIS members via the NAIS website and other vehicles. The survey should take approximately 15 minutes to complete.

Please contact me directly at shannon.mulholland.mulholland@gmail.com with any questions or comments you may have about the research or the survey.

Sincere thanks,
Shannon Mulholland

Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Administrators

2. CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE

DUQUESNE UNIVERSITY
600 FORBES AVENUE · PITTSBURGH, PA 15282

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH STUDY

TITLE: An examination of the factors that influence the attitudes of teachers and administrators affiliated with the National Association of Independent Schools (NAIS) regarding the inclusion of students with disabilities.

INVESTIGATORS:
Dr. Joseph Kush
Shannon Mulholland

315 Academy Avenue
Sewickley Academy
Sewickley, PA 15143
412.741.2230 x3071

PURPOSE: I am being asked to participate in a research project that seeks to investigate the attitudes and practices of teachers and administrators who work in private schools affiliated with the NAIS regarding students with disabilities. Specifically, I will be asked to complete an online survey which measures my attitudes and practices regarding students with disabilities in my school.

I am to try and answer as accurately as I can. I understand that my responses will be compared to those of other teachers and administrators who take the survey. It is expected that this measure be completed within approximately 15 minutes.

I am completing this research for two primary reasons. First, I am an independent school administrator and would like to compare attitudes and practices at my school with those from NAIS schools across the country. Additionally, I am a doctoral student at Duquesne University and this research is associated with my doctoral dissertation.

RISKS AND BENEFITS: I understand that my participation will contribute to the research literature on the attitudes and practices of educators who work in private schools with students with disabilities. By participating in the research project it is anticipated that there will be minimal risks no greater than those encountered in every day life. Additionally, I am aware that the research will not affect how I am treated or my employment at my school.

COMPENSATION: There will be no compensation for my participation, and participation in the project will require no monetary cost to me.

CONFIDENTIALITY: Anonymity will be maintained, as my name or the name of my school will never be revealed to the researcher. Additionally, my name and the name of my school will not appear on any survey or research instrument or in the findings of this research. No tracking software, cookies or other spyware will be used to connect my identity with my responses. Therefore I understand the research may be published for scientific purposes.

RIGHT TO WITHDRAW: I understand I am under no obligation to participate in this study. I am also free to withdraw my consent to participate at any time. If I choose to withdraw from the study my data will not be included in the data analyses. Withdrawal from the study will in no way affect my employment or the way I am treated at my current school of employment.

SUMMARY OF RESULTS: A summary of the results of this research will be found on the NAIS website http://www.nais.org/ or can be provided to me upon request.

VOLUNTARY CONSENT: I have read the above statements and understand what is being requested of me. I also understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw my consent at any time, for any reason. On these terms, I certify that I am willing to participate in this research project.

I understand that should I have any further questions about my participation in this study, I may call the researcher, Shannon Mulholland (412-877-1043), Dr. Joseph Kush (412-396-1151) or Dr. Paul Richer, Chair of the Duquesne

Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Administrators

University Institutional Review Board (412-396-6326).

By pressing the next button I acknowledge my consent to participate in this study.

Duquesne University
Institutional Review Board
Protocol #10-15
Approval Date: 02/11/2010
Expiration Date: 02/11/2011

Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Administrators

3. PART I: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

There are eight sections of the survey. Please answer each question to the best of your ability. Please do not omit any questions.

1. Are you currently an administrator in an independent school?

○ Yes

○ No

2. What is your gender?

○ Female

○ Male

3. What is your age?

○ 21-25

○ 26-30

○ 31-35

○ 36-40

○ 41-45

○ 46-50

○ 51-55

○ 56-60

○ Over 60

4. What is the highest level of formal education you have completed?

○ Associate's Degree

○ Bachelor's Degree

○ Master's Degree

○ Doctorate

5. How many total years of administrative experience do you have (public school, private school, independent schools)?

6. How many years have you been an administrator in an independent school setting?

Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Administrators

7. Which title best describes the position you hold in your independent school this year?

○ Assistant Head

○ Associate Head

○ Division Head

○ Lower School Head

○ Middle School Head

○ Upper School Head

○ Director of Studies

Other (please specify)

[   ]

8. Is your current school a day, boarding, boarding/day, or day/boarding school?

☐ Day

☐ Day/Boarding-(more than 50 percent day students, with the balance boarding students).

☐ Boarding

☐ Boarding/Day-(schools enrolling more than 50 percent boarding students, with the balance day students).

9. How would you describe your school? Select one.

☐ Coeducational

☐ Single sex

10. Which of the following best describes the grade levels that your division services? Check all that apply.

☐ Early Childhood (e.g., Pre-K and K)

☐ Lower School (e.g., Grades 1-5)

☐ Middle School (e.g., Grades 6-8)

☐ Senior or Upper School (e.g., Grades 9-13)

11. How many total students are in your division this year?

[   ]

Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Administrators

12. Prior to being an administrator, how many years of classroom experience have you had teaching students with disabilities?

◯ Less than 1 year

◯ 1-5 years

◯ 6-10 years

◯ 11-15 years

◯ 16-20 years

◯ 21-25 years

◯ More than 25 years

13. How many college/university courses in special education have you taken?

14. What kind of experience with students with disabilities do you have outside of school? Check all that apply.

☐ I have a child with a disability.   ☐ I have volunteered to work with a student with a disability.

☐ I have a neighbor/friend with a disability.   ☐ I have no outside experience.

☐ I have a relative with a disability.

Other (please specify)

15. During the past 12 months about how many hours have you spent in professional development?

	None	1-5 hours	6-15 hours	16-35 hours	Over 35 hours
Related to General Education	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯
Related to Special Education	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

Appendix B (continued)

Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Administrators

4. PART II: INFORMATION PERTAINING TO STUDENTS WITH DISABILITIES

16. Do teachers in your division teach students with documented disabilities in their classrooms?

○ No, I am not aware that students with disabilities are in our classrooms (PLEASE STOP THE SURVEY HERE).

○ Yes

17. Approximately how many students with documented disabilities are in your division this school year?

18. Please specify which students with disabilities your division has serviced in the past. Check all that apply.

☐ Autism

☐ Deaf-Blindness

☐ Deafness

☐ Emotional Disturbance

☐ Hearing Impairment

☐ Mental Retardation

☐ Multiple Disabilities

☐ Orthopedic Impairment

☐ Other Health Impairment (e.g., Attention Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder)

☐ Specific Learning Disability

☐ Speech or Language Impairment

☐ Traumatic Brain Injury

☐ Visual Impairment

☐ I am not aware of students with documented disabilities.

Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Administrators

5. PART III: COMMUNICATION OF THE DISABILITY

19. Are you typically involved in the decision to include students with disabilities in your division?

○ No

○ Yes

20. How do your teachers first become aware that a student has a disability in their classroom?

	Verbal Notification	Wrtten notification
Type of notification		

Other (please specify)

21. Do your teachers have access to all of the records they need to successfully accommodate students with disabilities?

○ No

○ Yes

Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Administrators

6. PART IV: TRAINING AND SUPPORT FOR ADMINISTRATORS

22. Has your division provided in-service training to teachers pertaining to students with disabilities prior to including them in the classroom?

◯ No

◯ Yes

23. Do your teachers have access to professionals in your division building who are trained to work with students with disabilities?

◯ No (PLEASE SKIP TO QUESTION 24)

◯ Yes

24. If yes, please indicate which type of professionals. Check all that apply.

☐ Classroom Aide	☐ Reading Specialist	☐ Physical Therapist
☐ Counselor	☐ Speech and Language Clinician	☐ Psychiatrist
☐ Occupational Therapist	☐ Special Education Teacher (i.e., Learning Specialist)	☐ Psychologist

Other (please specify)

[   ]

25. Approximately how often do your teachers meet with the professional/s trained to work with students with disabilities?

◯ They have not met

◯ Once a week

◯ Once every two weeks

◯ Once every three weeks

◯ Once a month

Other (please specify)

[   ]

26. Do your teachers have access to curricular materials that they need to support students with disabilities?

	Never-1	2	3	Sometimes-4	5	6	Always-7
Rating of access	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

27. Do your teachers believe that the teachers in your building have the time they need built into the school day to service students with disabilities?

	Never-1	2	3	Sometimes-4	5	6	Always-7
Rating of time	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Administrators

28. Do you believe that the teachers in your building have the administrative support that they need to successfully service students with disabilities?

	Never-1	2	3	Sometimes-4	5	6	Always-7
Rating of support	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

29. Do you believe that the teachers in your building feel confident in their ability to implement the modifications/accommodations for the students with disabilities?

	Never-1	2	3	Sometimes-4	5	6	Always-7
Rating of confidence	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

30. What is the most helpful way to improve skills for working with students with disabilities?

◯ Enrolling in a university course

◯ A conference or seminar

◯ Collaboration with a specialist at my school

◯ Visiting a working model at another school

◯ Hands-on experience

◯ Collaboration with colleagues

◯ Reading relevant literature

Other (please specify)

[   ]

Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Administrators

7. PART V: SUPPORT FOR STUDENTS

31. Which of the following service delivery settings best describes the one in your school for students with documented disabilities? Check all that apply.

☐ Resource room (pull-out class with special education teacher)

☐ Full inclusion without a special education teacher in the class

☐ Tutoring on site, for an additional fee

☐ Tutoring off site, for an additional fee

☐ Full inclusion with a special education teacher in the general class

☐ Extra help provided by the general classroom teacher

Other (please specify)

☐

32. What services are available to students with disabilities during the school day on a pull-out basis? Check all that apply.

☐ Adapted Physical education

☐ Occupational Therapist

☐ Social Skills Training

☐ Counseling Support

☐ Physical Therapy

☐ Vision Impaired Itinerant

☐ Hearing Impaired Itinerant

☐ Physically Handicapped Itinerant

☐ Learning Specialist

☐ Reading Specialist

Other (please specify)

☐

33. When a student with a disability enrolls in your school, to what degree are modifications or accommodations made?

○ Our school does not make modifications and accommodations (PLEASE CONTINUE WITH QUESTION 34).

○ Our school makes modifications and accommodations under certain conditions.

○ Our school makes modifications and accommodations without any particular restrictions.

○ Our school makes modifications and accommodations for all students, not just those with disabilities.

34. Who is involved in making the determination about modifications and accommodations for the student with a disability? Check all that apply.

☐ Administrators

☐ Specialists/Paraprofessionals

☐ Teachers

☐ Parents

Other (please specify)

☐

Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Administrators

35. What type of modifications or accommodations has your school implemented in the past? Check all that apply.

The following is a list of accommodations typically offered by independent schools (NAIS, 2009).

☐ More time to complete tests or other assignments.

☐ Substituting specific courses where substitution will also satisfy the requirements of the department.

☐ Adapting a manner in which specific courses are conducted.

☐ Extending the time to complete the course/graduation requirements.

☐ Adapting the manner in which the course materials are distributed.

☐ Providing affordable and practicable auxiliary aids–taped transcribers and other similar services and actions.

☐ Creating methods for evaluating achievement of students with sensory, manual, or speaking impairments to ensure the result fairly reflects student's achievement (except when such skills are the factors that the test is measuring).

☐ Offer testing at alternate sites and settings for exams and standardized tests.

☐ Adapting the manner in which a test is administered.

☐ Providing alternative formats for examination (e.g., essay rather than objective exams).

☐ Allowing a student to clarify and rephrase questions in his or her own words before answering a question on a test or assignment.

☐ Allowing the use of calculators during exams.

☐ Simplifying wording on exam questions.

☐ Providing students with note takers.

☐ Alternative accessible arrangements such as videotapes, cassettes, or prepared notes.

☐ Allowing students to use the computer to take notes.

Other (please specify)

[   ]

Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Administrators

8. PART VI: ADDITIONAL COMMENTS

36. Please provide additional comments about working with students with disabilities that should be shared in order to improve the way independent schools service these students.

Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Administrators

9. PART VII: OPINIONS RELATIVE TO THE INTEGRATION OF STUDENTS WITH DISABILITI...

37. Most students with disabilities will make an adequate attempt to complete their assignments.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Rating	○	○	○	○	○	○

38. Integration of students with disabilities will necessitate extensive retraining of general-classroom teachers.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Rating	○	○	○	○	○	○

39. Integration offers mixed-group interaction that will foster understanding and acceptance of differences among students.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Rating	○	○	○	○	○	○

40. It is likely that the student with a disability will exhibit behavior problems in a general classroom.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Rating	○	○	○	○	○	○

41. Students with disabilities can best be served in general classrooms.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Rating	○	○	○	○	○	○

42. The extra attention students with disabilities require will be to the detriment of the other students.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Rating	○	○	○	○	○	○

43. The challenge of being in a general classroom will promote the academic growth of the student with a disability.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Rating	○	○	○	○	○	○

Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Administrators

44. Integration of students with disabilities will require significant changes in general classroom procedures.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Rating	○	○	○	○	○	○

45. Increased freedom in the general classroom creates too much confusion for the student with a disability.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Rating	○	○	○	○	○	○

Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Administrators

10. PART VIII: OPINIONS RELATIVE TO THE INTEGRATION OF STUDENTS WITH DISABILIT...

46. General-classroom teachers have the ability necessary to work with students with disabilities.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Rating	○	○	○	○	○	○

47. The presence of students with disabilities will not promote acceptance of differences on the part of students without disabilities.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Rating	○	○	○	○	○	○

48. The behavior of students with disabilities will set a bad example for students without disabilities.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Rating	○	○	○	○	○	○

49. The student with a disability will probably develop academic skills more rapidly in a general classroom than in a special classroom.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Rating	○	○	○	○	○	○

50. Integration of the student with a disability will not promote his or her social independence.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Rating	○	○	○	○	○	○

51. It is not more difficult to maintain order in a general classroom that contains a student with a disability than in one that does not contain a student with a disability.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Rating	○	○	○	○	○	○

52. Students with disabilities will not monopolize the general-classroom teacher's time.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Rating	○	○	○	○	○	○

Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Administrators

53. The integration of students with disabilities can be beneficial for students without disabilities.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Rating	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

54. Students with disabilities are likely to create confusion in the general classroom.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Rating	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

55. General-classroom teachers have sufficient training to teach students with disabilities.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Rating	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

56. Integration will likely have a negative effect on the emotional development of the student with a disability.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Rating	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

57. Students with disabilities should be given every opportunity to function in the general classroom where possible.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Rating	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

58. The classroom behavior of the student with a disability generally does not require more patience from the teacher than does the classroom behavior of the student without a disability.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Rating	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

59. Teaching students with disabilities is better done by special- than by general-classroom teachers.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Rating	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

60. Isolation in a special classroom has a beneficial effect on the social and emotional development of the student with a disability.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Rating	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯	◯

Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Administrators

61. The student with a disability will not be socially isolated in the general classroom.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Rating	○	○	○	○	○	○

Appendix B (continued)

Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Administrators

11. REFERENCE

Antonak, R. F., & Larrivee, B. (1995). Psychometric analysis and revision of the Opinions Relative to Mainstreaming Scale. Exceptional Children, 62, 139-149.

Appendix C

Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Teachers

1. INTRODUCTION

Dear Participant,

Thank you in advance for taking your time to complete this important survey regarding students with disabilities in NAIS schools. The research results will be shared with NAIS members via the NAIS website and other vehicles. The survey should take approximately 15 minutes to complete.

Please contact me directly at shannon.mulholland.mulholland@gmail.com with any questions or comments you may have about the research or the survey.

Sincere thanks,
Shannon Mulholland

Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Teachers

2. CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE

DUQUESNE UNIVERSITY
600 FORBES AVENUE • PITTSBURGH, PA 15282

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH STUDY

TITLE: An examination of the factors that influence the attitudes of teachers and administrators affiliated with the National Association of Independent Schools (NAIS) regarding the inclusion of students with disabilities.

INVESTIGATORS:
Dr. Joseph Kush
Shannon Mulholland

315 Academy Avenue
Sewickley Academy
Sewickley, PA 15143
412.741.2230 x3071

PURPOSE: I am being asked to participate in a research project that seeks to investigate the attitudes and practices of teachers and administrators who work in private schools affiliated with the NAIS regarding students with disabilities. Specifically, I will be asked to complete an online survey which measures my attitudes and practices regarding students with disabilities in my school.

I am to try and answer as accurately as I can. I understand that my responses will be compared to those of other teachers and administrators who take the survey. It is expected that this measure be completed within approximately 15 minutes.

I am completing this research for two primary reasons. First, I am an independent school administrator and would like to compare attitudes and practices at my school with those from NAIS schools across the country. Additionally, I am a doctoral student at Duquesne University and this research is associated with my doctoral dissertation.

RISKS AND BENEFITS: I understand that my participation will contribute to the research literature on the attitudes and practices of educators who work in private schools with students with disabilities. By participating in the research project it is anticipated that there will be minimal risks no greater than those encountered in every day life. Additionally, I am aware that the research will not affect how I am treated or my employment at my school.

COMPENSATION: There will be no compensation for my participation, and participation in the project will require no monetary cost to me.

CONFIDENTIALITY: Anonymity will be maintained, as my name or the name of my school will never be revealed to the researcher. Additionally, my name and the name of my school will not appear on any survey or research instrument or in the findings of this research. No tracking software, cookies or other spyware will be used to connect my identity with my responses. Therefore I understand the research may be published for scientific purposes.

RIGHT TO WITHDRAW: I understand I am under no obligation to participate in this study. I am also free to withdraw my consent to participate at any time. If I choose to withdraw from the study my data will not be included in the data analyses. Withdrawal from the study will in no way affect my employment or the way I am treated at my current school of employment.

SUMMARY OF RESULTS: A summary of the results of this research will be found on the NAIS website http://www.nais.org/ or can be provided to me upon request.

VOLUNTARY CONSENT: I have read the above statements and understand what is being requested of me. I also understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw my consent at any time, for any reason. On these terms, I certify that I am willing to participate in this research project.

I understand that should I have any further questions about my participation in this study, I may call the researcher, Shannon Mulholland (412-877-1043), Dr. Joseph Kush (412-396-1151) or Dr. Paul Richer, Chair of the Duquesne

Appendix C (continued)

Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Teachers

University Institutional Review Board (412-396-6326).

By pressing the next button I acknowledge my consent to participate in this study.

Duquesne University
Institutional Review Board
Protocol #10-15
Approval Date: 02/11/2010
Expiration Date: 02/11/2011

Appendix C (continued)

Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Teachers

3. PART I: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

There are eight sections of the survey. Please answer each question to the best of your ability. Please do not omit any questions.

1. Are you currently a teacher in an independent school?

○ Yes

○ No

2. What is your gender?

○ Female

○ Male

3. What is your age?

○ 21-25

○ 26-30

○ 31-35

○ 36-40

○ 41-45

○ 46-50

○ 51-55

○ 56-60

○ Over 60

4. What is the highest level of formal education you have completed?

○ Associate's Degree

○ Bachelor's Degree

○ Master's Degree

○ Doctorate

5. How many total years of teaching experience do you have (public schools, private schools, independent schools)?

6. How many years have you been a teacher in an independent school setting?

Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Teachers

7. Which of the following best describes the grade level/s that you teach this school year? Check all that apply.

☐ Early Childhood (e.g., Pre-K and K)

☐ Lower School (e.g., Grades 1-5)

☐ Middle School (e.g., Grades 6-8)

☐ Senior School (e.g., Grades 9-13)

8. How many total students are in your classroom this year?

[   ]

9. How many years of classroom experience have you had teaching students with disabilities?

○ Less than 1 year

○ 1-5 years

○ 6-10 years

○ 11-15 years

○ 16-20 years

○ 21-25 years

○ More than 25 years

10. How many college/university courses in special education have you taken?

[   ]

11. What kind of experience with students with disabilities do you have outside of school? Check all that apply.

☐ I have a child with a disability.   ☐ I have volunteered to work with a student with a disability.

☐ I have a neighbor/friend with a disability.   ☐ I have no outside experience.

☐ I have a relative with a disability.

Other (please specify)

[   ]

12. During the past 12 months about how many hours have you spent in professional development?

	None	1-5 hours	6-15 hours	16-35 hours	Over 35 hours
Related to General Education	○	○	○	○	○
Related to Special Education	○	○	○	○	○

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4. PART II: INFORMATION PERTAINING TO STUDENTS WITH DISABILITIES

13. Have you taught students with documented disabilities in your classroom since working in an independent school?

◯ No, I am not aware if students with disabilities have been in my classroom (PLEASE STOP THE SURVEY HERE).

◯ Yes

14. Approximately how many students with documented disabilities do you teach this school year?

15. Please specify which students with disability you have serviced in the past in your independent school. Check all that apply.

☐ Autism	☐ Mental Retardation	☐ Speech or Language Impairment
☐ Deaf-Blindness	☐ Multiple Disabilities	☐ Traumatic Brain Injury
☐ Deafness	☐ Orthopedic Impairment	☐ Visual Impairment
☐ Emotional Disturbance	☐ Other Health Impairment (e.g., Attention Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder)	☐ I am not aware of students with documented disabilities.
☐ Hearing Impairment	☐ Specific Learning Disability	

Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Teachers

5. PART III: COMMUNICATION OF THE DISABILITY

16. Are you typically involved in the decision to include students with disabilities in your classroom?

◯ No

◯ Yes

17. How do you first become aware that a student has a disability in your classroom?

	Verbal Notification	Written Notification
Type of Notification		

Other (please specify)

18. Do you have access to all of the records you need for successfully accommodating students with disabilities?

◯ No

◯ Yes

Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Teachers

6. PART IV: TRAINING AND SUPPORT FOR TEACHERS

19. Was in-service training pertaining to students with disabilities provided by your school prior to including them in the classroom?

○ No

○ Yes

20. Do you have access to professionals in your division building who are trained to work with students with disabilities?

○ No (PLEASE SKIP TO QUESTION 22)

○ Yes

21. If yes, please indicate which type of professionals. Check all that apply.

☐ Classroom Aide	☐ Reading Specialist	☐ Physical Therapist
☐ Counselor	☐ Speech and Language Clinician	☐ Psychiatrist
☐ Occupational Therapist	☐ Special Education Teacher (i.e., Learning Specialist)	☐ Psychologist

Other (please specify)

[_____]

22. Approximately how often do you meet with the professional/s trained to work with students with disabilities?

○ We have not met

○ Once a week

○ Once every two weeks

○ Once every three weeks

○ Once a month

Other (please specify)

[_____]

23. Do you have access to the curricular materials that you need to support students with disabilities?

	Never-1	2	3	Sometimes-4	5	6	Always-7
Rating of access	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

24. Do you have the time you need built into the school day to service students with disabilities?

	Never-1	2	3	Sometimes-4	5	6	Always-7
Rating of time	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Teachers

25. Do you have the administrative support that you need to successfully service students with disabilities?

	Never-1	2	3	Sometimes-4	5	6	Always-7
Rating of support	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

26. Do you feel confident in your ability to implement modifications/accommodations for the students with disabilities?

	Never-1	2	3	Sometimes-4	5	6	Always-7
Rating of confidence	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

27. What is the most helpful way to improve skills for working with students with disabilities?

○ Enrolling in a university course

○ A conference or seminar

○ Collaboration with a specialist at my school

○ Visiting a working model at another school

○ Hands-on experience

○ Collaboration with colleagues

○ Reading relevant literature

Other (please specify)

[_____]

Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Teachers

7. PART V: SUPPORT FOR STUDENTS

28. Which of the following service delivery settings best describes the one in your school for students with documented disabilities? Check all that apply.

- [ ] Resource room (pull-out class with special education teacher)
- [ ] Full inclusion without a special education teacher in the class
- [ ] Tutoring on site, for an additional fee
- [ ] Full inclusion with a special education teacher in the general class
- [ ] Extra help provided by the general classroom teacher
- [ ] Tutoring off site, for an additional fee

Other (please specify)

29. What services are available to students with disabilities during the school day on a pull-out basis? Check all that apply.

- [ ] Adapted Physical education
- [ ] Occupational Therapist
- [ ] Social Skills Training
- [ ] Counseling Support
- [ ] Physical Therapy
- [ ] Vision Impaired Itinerant
- [ ] Hearing Impaired Itinerant
- [ ] Physically Handicapped Itinerant
- [ ] Learning Specialist
- [ ] Reading Specialist

Other (please specify)

30. When a student with a disability enrolls in your school, to what degree are modifications or accommodations made?

- ( ) Our school does not make modifications and accommodations (PLEASE CONTINUE WITH QUESTION 32).
- ( ) Our school makes modifications and accommodations under certain conditions.
- ( ) Our school makes modifications and accommodations without any particular restrictions.
- ( ) Our school makes modifications and accommodations for all students, not just those with disabilities.

31. Who is involved in making the determination about modifications and accommodations for the student with a disability? Check all that apply.

- [ ] Administrators
- [ ] Specialists/Paraprofessionals
- [ ] Teachers
- [ ] Parents

Other (please specify)

Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Teachers

32. What type of modifications or accommodations has your school implemented in the past? Check all that apply.

The following is a list of accommodations typically offered by independent schools (NAIS, 2009).

☐ More time to complete tests or other assignments.

☐ Substituting specific courses where substitution will also satisfy the requirements of the department.

☐ Adapting a manner in which specific courses are conducted.

☐ Extending the time to complete the course/graduation requirements.

☐ Adapting the manner in which the course materials are distributed.

☐ Providing affordable and practicable auxiliary aids--taped transcribers and other similar services and actions.

☐ Creating methods for evaluating achievement of students with sensory, manual, or speaking impairments to ensure the result fairly reflects student's achievement (except when such skills are the factors that the test is measuring).

☐ Offer testing at alternate sites and settings for exams and standardized tests.

☐ Adapting the manner in which a test is administered.

☐ Providing alternative formats for examination (e.g., essay rather than objective exams).

☐ Allowing a student to clarify and rephrase questions in his or her own words before answering a question on a test or assignment.

☐ Allowing the use of calculators during exams.

☐ Simplifying wording on exam questions.

☐ Providing students with note takers.

☐ Alternative accessible arrangements such as videotapes, cassettes, or prepared notes.

☐ Allowing students to use the computer to take notes.

Other (please specify)

[   ]

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Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Teachers

8. PART VI: ADDITIONAL COMMENTS

33. Please provide additional comments about working with students with disabilities that should be shared in order to improve the way independent schools service these students.

Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Teachers

9. PART VII: OPINIONS RELATIVE TO THE INTEGRATION OF STUDENTS WITH DISABILITI...

34. Most students with disabilities will make an adequate attempt to complete their assignments.

	Disagree vey much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Ratings	○	○	○	○	○	○

35. Integration of students with disabilities will necessitate extensive retraining of general-classroom teachers.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Ratings	○	○	○	○	○	○

36. Integration offers mixed-group interaction that will foster understanding and acceptance of differences among students.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Ratings	○	○	○	○	○	○

37. It is likely that the student with a disability will exhibit behavior problems in a general classroom.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Ratings	○	○	○	○	○	○

38. Students with disabilities can best be served in general classrooms.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Ratings	○	○	○	○	○	○

39. The extra attention students with disabilities require will be to the detriment of the other students.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Ratings	○	○	○	○	○	○

40. The challenge of being in a general classroom will promote the academic growth of the student with a disability.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Ratings	○	○	○	○	○	○

Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Teachers

41. Integration of students with disabilities will require significant changes in general classroom procedures.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Ratings	○	○	○	○	○	○

42. Increased freedom in the general classroom creates too much confusion for the student with a disability.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Ratings	○	○	○	○	○	○

43. General-classroom teachers have the ability necessary to work with students with disabilities.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Ratings	○	○	○	○	○	○

44. The presence of students with disabilities will not promote acceptance of differences on the part of students without disabilities.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Ratings	○	○	○	○	○	○

Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Teachers

10. PART VIII: OPINIONS RELATIVE TO THE INTEGRATION OF STUDENTS WITH DISABILIT...

45. The behavior of students with disabilities will set a bad example for students without disabilities.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Ratings	O	O	O	O	O	O

46. The student with a disability will probably develop academic skills more rapidly in a general classroom than in a special classroom.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Ratings	O	O	O	O	O	O

47. Integration of the student with a disability will not promote his or her social independence.

	Diagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Ratings	O	O	O	O	O	O

48. It is not more difficult to maintain order in a general classroom that contains a student with a disability than in one that does not contain a student with a disability.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Ratings	O	O	O	O	O	O

49. Students with disabilities will not monopolize the general-classroom teacher's time.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Ratings	O	O	O	O	O	O

50. The integration of students with disabilities can be beneficial for students without disabilities.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Ratings	O	O	O	O	O	O

51. Students with disabilities are likely to create confusion in the general classroom.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Ratings	O	O	O	O	O	O

52. General-classroom teachers have sufficient training to teach students with disabilities.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Ratings	O	O	O	O	O	O

Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Teachers

53. Integration will likely have a negative effect on the emotional development of the student with a disability.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Ratings	○	○	○	○	○	○

54. Students with disabilities should be given every opportunity to function in the general classroom where possible.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Ratings	○	○	○	○	○	○

55. The classroom behavior of the student with a disability generally does not require more patience from the teacher than does the classroom behavior of the student without a disability.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Ratings	○	○	○	○	○	○

56. Teaching students with disabilities is better done by special- than by general-classroom teachers.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Ratings	○	○	○	○	○	○

57. Isolation in a special classroom has a beneficial effect on the social and emotional development of the student with a disability.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Ratings	○	○	○	○	○	○

58. The student with a disability will not be socially isolated in the general classroom.

	Disagree very much	Disagree pretty much	Disagree a little	Agree a little	Agree pretty much	Agree very much
Ratings	○	○	○	○	○	○

Appendix C (continued)

Demographic and Inclusion Survey for Teachers

11. REFERENCE

Antonak, R. F., & Larrivee, B. (1995). Psychometric analysis and revision of the Opinions Relative to Mainstreaming Scale. Exceptional Children, 62, 139-149.

Appendix D

Permission to Use the ORI

UNIVERSITY of   Office of the

MASSACHUSETTS BOSTON   Vice Provost for Research

100 Morrissey Blvd.   617.287.5600

Boston, MA 02125-3393   Fax: 617.287.5616

July 15, 2011

Dear Inquirer:

Thank you for your inquiry about the scale entitled *Opinions Relative to Mainstreaming Special-Needs Children*. This scale was completely revised recently. It is now entitled *Opinions Relative to the Integration of Students with Disabilities*. I have enclosed with this letter a copy of the most recent version of the *ORI* scale and a scoring key for your use.

You may reproduce the *ORI* scale in any form that suits your research needs. The only requirement that we have for the use of the instrument is that you ascribe authorship to Dr. Larrivee and me somewhere on the instrument and acknowledge us as the authors of the instrument, using the citation below, in any publication that may arise from your use of it.

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

Very truly yours,
s/Richard F. Antonak
Richard F. Antonak, Ed.D.
Vice Provost for Research

Appropriate citation:
Antonak, R. F., & Larrivee, B. (1995). Psychometric analysis and revision of the Opinions Relative to Mainstreaming Scale. Exceptional Children, 62, 139-149.

Appendix E

Electronic Cover Letter to Administrators Requesting Participation

NAIS invites you to participate in an important research study on the inclusion of students with disabilities in schools and classrooms. We send you this message on behalf of Shannon Mulholland, Director of Support Services at Sewickley Academy, who is conducting this research study. A doctoral student at Duquesne University, Shannon will share the results of this research with NAIS members through the NAIS website. Please complete the survey by March 22, 2010.

Dear Administrators:

I am hoping for feedback from you and two of your general education teachers in order to gather data for my dissertation which measures the opinions of administrators and general education teachers who work in independent schools regarding the inclusion of students with disabilities in their schools and classroom. Specifically, I have two requests:

1.   That you complete the online survey (15 minutes) at the following web address:

     https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/ADMINISTRATOR-SURVEY

2.   That you forward this request and the second link of the survey (below), to two general education teachers.

     https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/TEACHER-SURVEY

Please provide honest answers and know that your anonymity will be protected. Names of the participants will not be used or connected with the data collected. As the number of students with disabilities grows nationwide, the number of students with disabilities increases in the independent school population as well. It is important that your school be represented in the sample population of schools in this study. By responding to this survey, you will help contribute to the development of a body of knowledge for independent schools which may assist in the improvement of the successful implementation of including students with disabilities in the classroom.

Your participation is greatly appreciated. Should you have questions regarding the study please contact me directly at shannon.mulholland.mulholland@gmail.com.

Sincerely,

Shannon Mulholland
Director of Support Services

****
Susan Booth
Director of Strategic Initiatives
NAIS
1620 L Street, NW, Suite 1100
Washington, DC 20036
booth@nais.org
202-973-9763

Appendix F

Electronic Cover Letter to Teachers Requesting Participation

NAIS invites you to participate in an important research study on the inclusion of students with disabilities in schools and classrooms. We send you this message on behalf of Shannon Mulholland, Director of Support Services at Sewickley Academy, who is conducting this research study. A doctoral student at Duquesne University, Shannon will share the results of this research with NAIS members through the NAIS website. Please complete the survey by **May 24, 2010**.

****

 Dear General Education Teachers:

I am hoping for feedback from you in order to gather data for my dissertation which measures the opinions of administrators and general education teachers who work in independent schools regarding the inclusion of students with disabilities in their schools and classroom. I am requesting that you complete the online survey (15 minutes) at the following address:

https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/TEACHER-SURVEY

Please provide honest answers and know that your anonymity will be protected. Names of the participants will not be used or connected with the data collected. As the number of students with disabilities grows nationwide, the number of students with disabilities increases in the independent school population as well. It is important that your school be represented in the sample population of schools in this study. By responding to this survey, you will help contribute to the development of a body of knowledge for independent schools which may assist in the improvement of the successful implementation of including students with disabilities in the classroom.

Your participation is greatly appreciated. Should you have questions regarding the study please contact me directly at shannon.mulholland.mulholland@gmail.com.

Sincerely,

Shannon Mulholland
Director of Support Services
Sewickley Academy

****

Susan Booth
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Appendix G

NAIS invites you to participate in an important research study on the inclusion of students with disabilities in schools and classrooms. We send you this message on behalf of Shannon Mulholland, Director of Support Services at Sewickley Academy, who is conducting this research study. A doctoral student at Duquesne University, Shannon will share the results of this research with NAIS members through the NAIS website. The deadline for completing the survey is **June 11, 2010**.

****

Dear Administrator:

I am hoping for feedback from you in order to gather data for my dissertation which measures the opinions of administrators and general education teachers who work in independent schools regarding the inclusion of students with disabilities in their schools and classroom. I am requesting that you complete the online survey (15 minutes) at the following address:

https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/ADMINISTRATOR-SURVEY

Please provide honest answers and know that your anonymity will be protected. Names of the participants will not be used or connected with the data collected. As the number of students with disabilities grows nationwide, the number of students with disabilities increases in the independent school population as well. It is important that your school be represented in the sample population of schools in this study. By responding to this survey, you will help contribute to the development of a body of knowledge for independent schools which may assist in the improvement of the successful implementation of including students with disabilities in the classroom.

Your participation is greatly appreciated. Should you have questions regarding the study please contact me directly at shannon.mulholland.mulholland@gmail.com.

Sincerely,

Shannon Mulholland
Director of Support Services
Sewickley Academy

****

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