

Fall 2009

An Analysis of Leadership Responsibilities as Perceived by General Education and Special Education Teachers Participating in Co-Teaching Inclusion Programs

Dennis L. Carpenter
Georgia Southern University

Follow this and additional works at: <https://digitalcommons.georgiasouthern.edu/etd>

Recommended Citation

Carpenter, Dennis L., "An Analysis of Leadership Responsibilities as Perceived by General Education and Special Education Teachers Participating in Co-Teaching Inclusion Programs" (2009). *Electronic Theses & Dissertations*. 335.
<https://digitalcommons.georgiasouthern.edu/etd/335>

This dissertation (open access) is brought to you for free and open access by the Graduate Studies, Jack N. Averitt College of at Digital Commons@Georgia Southern. It has been accepted for inclusion in Electronic Theses & Dissertations by an authorized administrator of Digital Commons@Georgia Southern. For more information, please contact digitalcommons@georgiasouthern.edu.

AN ANALYSIS OF LEADERSHIP RESPONSIBILITIES AS PERCEIVED BY
GENERAL EDUCATION AND SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHERS
PARTICIPATING IN CO-TEACHING INCLUSION PROGRAMS

by

Dennis L. Carpenter

(Under the Direction of Barbara Mallory)

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to explore the extent to which principals were utilizing Marzano's 21 Leadership Responsibilities that were correlated to increased student achievement to implement, maintain, and support the inclusion programs in their schools according to the perceptions of 81 general education and 66 special education teachers participating in co-teaching inclusion programs located in Georgia's First District Regional Education Service Agency (RESA) service area. The methodology for this quantitative research study utilized descriptive statistics and independent-samples *t* tests. The sample was obtained from general education and special education teachers' perceptions in 18 school districts in Georgia's First District RESA service area. Overall, general education teachers observed principal leadership to a greater extent for implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion than did special education teachers. Furthermore, significant differences were found between general education and special education teachers' perceptions for 14 of 21 (66%) of the dependent variables for implementing inclusion, 18 of 21 (86%) of the dependent variables for maintaining inclusion, and 18 of 21 (86%) of the dependent variables for supporting inclusion.

INDEX WORDS: leadership responsibilities, implementation, maintenance, support

AN ANALYSIS OF LEADERSHIP RESPONSIBILITIES AS PERCEIVED BY
GENERAL EDUCATION AND SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHERS
PARTICIPATING IN CO-TEACHING INCLUSION PROGRAMS

by

DENNIS L. CARPENTER

B.S., Georgia Southern University, 1996

M.Ed., Augusta State University, 1999

Ed.S., Georgia Southern University, 2003

A Dissertation Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of Georgia Southern University in
Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Degree

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

STATESBORO, GEORGIA

2009

© 2009

Dennis L. Carpenter

All Rights Reserved

AN ANALYSIS OF LEADERSHIP RESPONSIBILITIES AS PERCEIVED BY
GENERAL EDUCATION AND SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHERS
PARTICIPATING IN CO-TEACHING INCLUSION PROGRAMS

by

DENNIS L. CARPENTER

Major Professor: Barbara Mallory
Committee: Linda Arthur
Denise Weems

Electronic Version Approved:
December 2009

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

So many people have encouraged me along this personal journey, which has led to the completion of this dissertation, and I want to preface these acknowledgements by saying thanks to each individual who has enhanced my personal and/or professional growth—not mentioned here by name. You are appreciated.

First and foremost, I want to thank my mother, Ruby Carpenter, who for 35 years has given me the love, resources, and support needed to stay grounded during my quest to blaze an educational trail in our family for future generations. Without the focus I obtained through the subconscious presence of her resounding voice, this accomplishment would not have been possible. Mom, we did it!

I shall never forget Dr. Michael D. Richardson for taking a chance on me as a scholar and an educational leader. The class discussions and long after class conversations in his office really stretched my thinking about topics related to the field of educational administration. Not only did he provide me with unmatched guidance during his tenure, but he also facilitated the relationship between me and my dissertation chairperson, Dr. Barbara Mallory prior to his move from Georgia Southern University to Mercer University. Thanks Mike!

To Dr. Mallory, I say thanks for being the motivator and encourager I needed to complete this endeavor. Your knowledge in the field and your confidence in me were the pieces I needed to complete this puzzle. Thanks for being student-centered. As a teacher at heart, no greater compliment can I pay! In that same vein, I want to thank my doctoral committee members—Dr. Denise Weems—who agreed to come with me on this journey of scholarly writing. A special thanks to Dr. Linda Arthur, who agreed to be on my

committee without hesitation. For that, I thank you. Without their support, I could not have done what I was able to do.

My family has always been encouraging and proud of me for my accomplishments. Although they may not know it, they are the reason why I persevered through the dissertation process. To my sisters, Dotsie and posthumously Stephanie, and my brothers, Ronnie, Wayne, and Darnell, I say thanks for shaping my life and paving the road from where I came to where I am. Stephanie transitioned from labor to reward during my third semester of dissertation course work. She was my number one fan and believed that I could do anything even when I did not quite believe in myself. I miss her love and being in my corner each day, and above all, I dedicate this dissertation to her. I know the light from Heaven is shining a bit brighter today as she smiles down on her baby brother. I love you Step!

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	5
LIST OF TABLES	10
LIST OF FIGURES	14
CHAPTER	
I INTRODUCTION	15
General Introduction.....	15
Background of the Problem.....	17
Statement of the Problem	19
Purpose of the Study.....	21
Research Questions	22
Hypothesis	23
Significance of the Study.....	23
Procedures	24
Limitations.....	25
Delimitations	26
Definition of Terms	26
Summary.....	28
II REVIEW OF THE RESEARCH AND RELATED LITERATURE.....	30
Introduction	30
History of Special Education.....	32
Legislation	38
Individuals with Disabilities Education Act	41

Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973	45
No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB)	46
Court Cases.....	48
Educating Students with Disabilities	51
Co-Teaching	92
Research on Co-Teaching Models.....	99
Research on Co-Teaching and Students with Disabilities.....	101
Marzano’s 21 Leadership Responsibilities.....	105
Leadership Responsibilities	109
Research on Leadership Responsibilities.....	110
Essential Leadership Responsibilities	113
Philosophy of Inclusiveness and Leadership.....	114
New Roles of Principals	115
Research on Teachers’ Perceptions of Leadership Responsibilities	119
Independent and Dependent Variables in This Study	122
Gaps in the Literature	127
Summary.....	130
III METHODOLOGY.....	132
Introduction	132
Research Questions	133
Hypothesis	134
Research Design.....	135
Population and Sampling.....	136
Instrument.....	138

Procedures	140
Data Collection.....	141
Data Analysis.....	141
Ethical Protection of Human Subjects.....	142
Summary.....	143
IV REPORT OF DATA AND DATA ANALYSIS	145
Introduction	145
Analysis of Demographic Data.....	146
Major Findings of the Study.....	260
V SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS	262
Introduction	262
Overview of Problem	263
Major Findings	264
Conclusions	277
Implications for the Field of Educational Administration.....	277
Recommendations for Further Research	278
REFERENCES	280
APPENDIXES	313
A General Education and Special Education Teachers' Questionnaire.....	314
B Permission to Conduct Study in Georgia First District RESA	322
C Informed Consent Letter for Teachers	326
D The 21 Responsibilities and Correlations (r) with Student Achievement	329

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 1: Type of Teacher	146
Table 2: Number of Years in Co-Teaching Program.....	147
Table 3: Georgia’s First District RESA Service Areas.....	148
Table 4: Principal Recognizes Accomplishments and Acknowledges Failures	149
Table 5: Principal Challenges Status Quo	150
Table 6: Principal Recognizes and Rewards Accomplishments	151
Table 7: Principal Establishes Communication With/Among Teachers and Students	152
Table 8: Principal Fosters Shared Beliefs and Sense of Community/Cooperation	153
Table 9: Principal Protects Teachers from Issues That Detract from Teaching	154
Table 10: Principal Adapts Leadership Behavior	155
Table 11: Principal Establishes Clear Goals and Keeps Goals in Forefront.....	156
Table 12: Principal Communicates Strong Ideals/Beliefs About Schooling	157
Table 13: Principal Involves Teachers in Important Decisions and Policies.....	158
Table 14: Principal Ensures Faculty and Staff Are Aware of Current Practices	159
Table 15: Principal Involved in Design and Implementation of Curriculum and Instruction	160
Table 16: Principal is Knowledgeable of Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment Practices	161
Table 17: Principal Monitors Effectiveness of School Practices and Impact of Student Learning	162
Table 18: Principal Inspires and Leads New and Challenging Innovations	163
Table 19: Principal Establishes Set of Standard Operating Procedures and Routines	164

Table 20: Principal is an Advocate for School to All Stakeholders	165
Table 21: Principal Demonstrates Awareness of Personal Aspects of Teachers and Staff	166
Table 22: Principal Provides Teachers with Materials and Professional Development ..	167
Table 23: Principal is Aware of Details in Running School to Address Problems.....	168
Table 24: Principal Has Quality Contact and Interactions With Teachers and Students.	169
Table 25: Principal Recognizes Accomplishments and Acknowledges Failures	170
Table 26: Principal Challenges Status Quo	171
Table 27: Principal Recognizes and Rewards Accomplishments.....	172
Table 28: Principal Establishes Communication With/Among Teachers and Students ..	173
Table 29: Principal Fosters Shared Beliefs and Sense of Community/Cooperation	174
Table 30: Principal Protects Teachers From Issues That Detract from Teaching	175
Table 31: Principal Adapts Leadership Behavior	176
Table 32: Principal Establishes Clear Goals and Keeps Goals in Forefront.....	177
Table 33: Principal Communicates Strong Ideals/Beliefs About Schooling	178
Table 34: Principal Involves Teachers in Important Decisions and Policies.....	179
Table 35: Principal Ensures Faculty and Staff Are Aware of Current Practices	180
Table 36: Principal Involved in Design and Implementation of Curriculum and Instruction	181
Table 37: Principal is Knowledgeable of Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment Practices	182
Table 38: Principal Monitors Effectiveness of School Practices and Impact on Student Learning	183
Table 39: Principal Inspires and Leads New and Challenging Innovations	184

Table 40: Principal Establishes a Set of Standard Operating Procedures and Routines..	185
Table 41: Principal is an Advocate for School to All Stakeholders	186
Table 42: Principal Demonstrates Awareness of Personal Aspects of Teachers and Staff	187
Table 43: Principal Provides Teachers With Materials and Professional Development .	188
Table 44: Principal is Aware of Details in Running School to Address Problems	189
Table 45: Principal Has Quality Contact and Interactions With Teachers and Students.	190
Table 46: Principal Recognizes Accomplishments and Acknowledges Failures	191
Table 47: Principal Challenges Status Quo	192
Table 48: Principal Recognizes and Rewards Accomplishments	193
Table 49: Principal Establishes Communication With/Among Teachers and Students ..	194
Table 50: Principal Fosters Shared Beliefs and Sense of Community/Cooperation	195
Table 51: Principal Protects Teachers From Issues That Detract from Teaching	196
Table 52: Principal Adapts Leadership Behavior	197
Table 53: Principal Establishes Clear Goals and Keeps Goals in Forefront	198
Table 54: Principal Communicates Strong Ideals/Beliefs About Schooling	199
Table 55: Principal Involves Teachers in Important Decisions and Policies	200
Table 56: Principal Ensures Faculty and Staff Are Aware of Current Practices	201
Table 57: Principal Involved in Design and Implementation of Curriculum and Instruction	202
Table 58: Principal is Knowledgeable of Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment Practices	203
Table 59: Principal Monitors Effectiveness of School Practices and Impact on Student Learning	204

Table 60: Principal Inspires and Leads New and Challenging Innovations	205
Table 61: Principal Establishes a Set of Standard Operating Procedures and Routines..	206
Table 62: Principal is an Advocate for School to All Stakeholders	207
Table 63: Principal Demonstrates Awareness of Personal Aspects of Teachers and Staff	208
Table 64: Principal Provides Teachers With Materials and Professional Development .	209
Table 65: Principal is Aware of Details in Running School to Address Problems.....	210
Table 66: Principal Has Quality Contact and Interactions with Teachers and Students .	211
Table 67: Group Statistics for Implementing Inclusion.....	215
Table 68: <i>t</i> Tests for Equality of Means for Implementing Inclusion.....	227
Table 69: Group Statistics for Maintaining Inclusion.....	231
Table 70: <i>t</i> Tests for Equality of Means for Maintaining Inclusion	243
Table 71: Group Statistics for Supporting Inclusion	247
Table 72: <i>t</i> Tests for Equality of Means for Supporting Inclusion	259
Table 73: The 21 Responsibilities and Correlations (<i>r</i>) with Student Achievement... ..	329

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 1: Description of an Inclusion Program.....	53

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

General Introduction

“A leader is one who, out of madness or goodness, volunteers to take on the woes of a people. There are few so foolish; hence the erratic quality of leadership in the world.” --John Updike

Educational leadership can be madness or it can make a contribution to improving our schools. It can be a frantic effort to fix everything or it can be concentration on a few important items. It can be a futile exercise of power or it can empower individuals to help themselves. In the face of dramatic social change, a troubled sea of governance conflict, and excessive demands being made on schools, it can be said that one who aspires to educational leadership must either be mad or a supreme egotist. The need for educational leaders is an urgent worldwide condition; and fortunately there are some so foolish as to assume the troubles of the world (Thomas & Bainbridge, 2001).

School leadership is the single most important component of successful school reform (Marzano, 2003). At the same time, leadership has been described as one of the most researched and least understood topics ever (Bennis, 1982). Effective education leadership makes a difference in improving learning. What is far less clear, even after several decades of school renewal efforts is just how leadership matters, how important those effects are in promoting the learning of all children, including students with disabilities and what are the essential ingredients of successful leadership (Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004). One of the educational options receiving increased attention is meeting the needs of students with disabilities in the general education classroom (ERIC Clearinghouse on Disabilities and Gifted Education, 1993).

Thirty-five percent of children in the United States are members of minority groups. Twenty percent of children in America live in poverty and the same proportion of children live in households headed by an immigrant (Olson, 2000). Despite the increasing diversity in our schools, the challenge of meeting the needs of diverse groups of students in public schools is not new. Riehl (2000) highlighted over a century of such efforts in a recent analysis of the principal's role in creating schools that are responsive to diverse students. Described by Grubb (1995) as "the old problem of new students," it is clear that issues associated with diversity are familiar challenges for school administrators.

Composing over fifteen percent of the school population (U.S. Department of Education, 1999), students with disabilities and those considered at risk represent one source of the increasing diversity in today's classrooms. The 1997 reauthorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA, PL 105-17, 1997) and the 1994 reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA, PL 89-10, 1965) (Salisbury & McGregor, 2002) were enacted to provide services to children with disabilities.

Since the beginning of special education, educators have explored the topic of how best to serve students with disabilities. Only recently have schools begun to integrate students with disabilities in mainstream classrooms. Principals serve on a team that makes decisions regarding which students with disabilities will benefit from inclusion and how the inclusion process should be implemented. Because of the role principals play in implementing inclusion programs into their schools, it is important to study how principals' perceptions of inclusion guide their decisions (Ramirez, 2006).

With No Child Left Behind (2001) and the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (1997) mandates for access, least restrictive environment, and highly qualified

teachers, interest in co-teaching is higher than ever before, as is the need to demonstrate the impact of co-teaching on student learning (Friend & Hurley-Chamberlain, 2007). One of the service delivery models for students with disabilities is co-teaching, which is becoming one of the fastest growing inclusive practices in schools. Co-teaching occurs when two or more professionals jointly deliver substantive instruction to a diverse, or blended, group of students in a single physical space (The Access Center, 2008).

Background of the Problem

Principals assume an enormous amount of responsibility as school leaders. With these responsibilities comes the task of educating all students, including students with disabilities. Little or no formal training is provided to principals in the area of inclusion and mainstreaming students with disabilities. This study is important to the researcher because of the vast discrepancy between the amount of formal training school leaders receive in the area of special education and the amount of emphasis placed on special education initiatives by school officials, policy makers, and parents.

The researcher has observed situations in which building leaders had to make decisions about special education without the knowledge needed to make the most informed decision. In most cases, this lack of knowledge negatively impacted children, the most precious natural resource. Hence, the researcher used this study as an opportunity to extend his personal knowledge in the areas of special education, inclusion, and effective leadership. Hopefully, conducting this study added some credibility to the difficult decisions the researcher has yet to make, as a building level administrator, relating to the placement of students with disabilities in the least restrictive environment and leading faculty members through the process.

The importance of educating students with disabilities with their peers in general education classrooms, to the greatest extent appropriate was emphasized in law with the reauthorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) in both 1990 and 1997. Co-teaching or cooperative teaching, as a method for including students with disabilities while providing support for general education teachers, gained considerable popularity during the 1990s (Murawski & Swanson, 2001).

Co-teaching can be implemented in a variety of ways. For example, one teacher can act as the primary teacher while another assists. Alternatively, teachers can work with students at different stations in the same room, or two teachers can trade off during a lesson, each presenting different parts of the material. Several components must be in place for an intervention to be considered co-teaching. First, the general education teacher and the special education service provider (either a special education teacher or related service specialist) must be working together in the same classroom. Second, both instructors must participate in lesson or activity planning together. Finally, the class itself must be made up of both students with and without disabilities (Murawski & Swanson, 2001).

Discovering and publicizing the attributes of Georgia's teaching workforce are necessary steps toward assuring high teacher quality across the state. Georgia's educator workforce exceeds 110,000 in number, with over 90,000 teachers. Even small changes in some attributes of the teaching force may signal a need for policy shifts, revision and refinement in teacher preparation and certification, and a review of education programs, practices, and offerings. Annual reporting in the Division for Educator Workforce Research and Development *Status Report of the Teaching Force in Georgia* provides the

mechanism by which the vital signs of the teacher workforce are continually monitored (Georgia Professional Standards Commission, 2001).

In Fiscal Year 2001, Georgia's public educator workforce numbered 110,784 with 94,689 teachers. The educator workforce has been growing annually at a rate of about 3% since FY97. If current growth trends continue, Georgia employed over 108,000 teachers in FY06 and over 125,000 in FY11. In FY01, Georgia hired 11,817 teachers, 8,595 to replace teachers who exited from the FY00 workforce and 3,222 to accommodate growth in student enrollment and losses to promotions (Georgia Professional Standards Commission, 2001).

Statement of the Problem

This study may offer insight into the leadership of principals in highly functioning inclusion programs in K-12 public schools. Additional benefits to the field of special education may be gained by expanding this study to elementary schools, middle schools, and high schools throughout the nation. According to Elmore (1996), responsibility for instructional practice has drifted away from superintendents and principals. Elmore said, "Responsibility for instructional practice has gravitated into the classroom, where individual general education teachers do isolated work that is largely unsupported—and that is a significant problem." The Connecticut Superintendents' Network, which Elmore co-founded in 2001 with the Connecticut Center for School Change (CCSC) and the Education Alliance at Brown University, is working to reverse this trend by shifting the responsibility for instruction back onto leaders' shoulders.

One of the performance goals outlined by the state of Georgia as a result of the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB, 2001) is to increase the percentage of time students with disabilities receive instruction in a general education setting, typically in an

inclusion program. An inclusion program is one in which students with disabilities are placed in the general education setting with appropriate support and accommodations.

Fortunately, prior to the passage of NCLB, many schools had already taken steps to meet this goal. Unfortunately, there is little research available that identifies the leadership responsibilities that impact the implementation, maintenance, and support of inclusion programs. The perceptions of general education and special education teachers regarding leadership responsibilities must be examined if inclusion programs are to become a part of the culture of schools. These individuals have the insight needed to identify the leadership responsibilities that may impact the implementation, maintenance, and support of inclusion programs.

Research supported the fact that building principals were the most important factors in the success or failure of any building level inclusion initiative (Burrello & Wright, 1992; McDonnell & Hardman, 1989; Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004). There are virtually no documented instances of troubled schools being turned around without intervention by a powerful leader (Leithwood et al., 2004). Many other factors may contribute to such turnarounds, but leadership is the catalyst. Arrington (1993) and Farley (1991) identified principals as having the most supportive role and more favorable attitudes than teachers toward the integration of students with disabilities.

Leadership strategies employed by principals during the implementation, maintenance, and support of an initiative such as inclusion influences the likelihood of the initiative becoming embedded in the culture of a school. This is due to the fact that the level of receptiveness shown by general education and special education teachers, who are ultimately responsible for carrying out the new initiative, is a direct result of their perception of the leadership responsibilities and constructs being employed by the

building leader (McDonnell and Hardman, 1989; Tanner, Linscott, & Galis, 1996). Therefore, leadership responsibilities exhibited by principals may directly impact a school-wide initiative on inclusion. Furthermore, general education and special education teachers involved in these inclusion programs are the most qualified to identify the leadership responsibilities that have an impact on inclusion programs (Leithwood et al., 2004).

As schools across the state begin to implement or enhance inclusion programs in an effort to meet Georgia's least restrictive environment goals, it will be critical to identify the leadership responsibilities that are currently having a positive impact on inclusion programs. Identifying these behaviors will help other leaders combat some of the unique challenges that are faced by school leaders attempting implement, maintain, and celebrate the success of their inclusion programs. This research assisted schools around the state in working toward Georgia's least restrictive environment goals.

Currently, there is no research available that examines this critical issue exclusively within the context of the perceptions of general and special education teachers in the state of Georgia. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to analyze the perceptions of general education and special education teachers to determine if there were any specific leadership responsibilities utilized by principals as they implemented, maintained, and supported inclusion programs.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was two-fold. The first purpose of the study was to explore the extent to which principals were utilizing Marzano's 21 Leadership Responsibilities to implement, maintain, and support the inclusion programs in their schools according to perceptions of general education and special education teachers

participating in co-teaching inclusion programs located in Georgia's First District Regional Education Service Agency (RESA) service area. The second purpose was to examine whether statistically significant differences existed between general education and special education teachers' perceptions of principal leadership responsibilities that are essential to implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion programs according to Marzano's 21 Leadership Responsibilities. The independent variables in this study were implementing, maintaining and supporting inclusion. The dependent variables were Marzano's 21 leadership responsibilities.

Research Questions

The overarching research question was: Based on the perceptions of general education and special education teachers, to what extent do principals utilize Marzano's 21 Leadership Responsibilities to implement, maintain, and support inclusion programs in their schools? The following sub-questions were examined in this study:

1. Based on the perceptions of teachers, to what extent do principals utilize leadership responsibilities to implement inclusion programs?
2. Based on the perceptions of teachers, to what extent do principals utilize leadership responsibilities to maintain inclusion programs?
3. Based on the perceptions of teachers, to what extent do principals utilize leadership responsibilities to support inclusion programs?
4. Is there a statistically significant difference between K-12 general education and special education teachers' perceptions of principals' utilization of leadership responsibilities in implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion?

Hypothesis

This study had only one hypothesis that was examined to determine whether statistically significant differences existed between general education and special education teachers' perceptions of principal's leadership responsibilities implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion:

H₀4: There is no statistically significant difference between K-12 general education and special education teachers' perceptions of principals' utilization of leadership responsibilities in implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion.

Significance of the Study

There is a vast amount of research available that examines and compares the perceptions of school administrators and teachers regarding inclusion programs. In this study, the researcher provided a logical extension to the body of literature that was already available, because he used existing inclusion programs in Georgia as a lens through which to examine general education and special education teachers' perceptions of effective leadership responsibilities. Examining leadership responsibilities in this regard not only filled a void in the literature that related to inclusion, but it also added an important piece to the vast body of literature related to leadership responsibilities.

It was important to examine leadership responsibilities that impacted inclusion programs because of the least restrictive environment goals set forth in Georgia's accountability plan. To narrow this focus and specifically examine leadership responsibilities based on the perceptions of general education and special education teachers can assist schools around the state in their efforts to implement successful inclusion programs.

The researcher conducted this study in a manner that makes implementing, maintaining, and supporting the inclusion of students with disabilities a priority to building principals because the researcher produced findings that substantiated principals' use, or lack of certain leadership responsibilities during the implementation, maintenance, and support phase of embedding inclusion programs in Georgia schools. The researcher also designed this study in a way that made research available to superintendents, personnel directors, and special education directors which will enable them to effectively implement, maintain, and support leaders and teachers in schools that have inclusion programs. These individuals can utilize these findings to assist in the hiring of principals in their respective school systems that exude support of inclusion programs in their schools and possibly have educational backgrounds in special education.

Finally, the researcher presented findings from this study that can well serve the Georgia Department of Education. The educators serving in this capacity can utilize the findings of this study in their efforts to provide principals and general education teachers with professional development and guidance in the area of positively impacting inclusion programs.

Procedures

The researcher secured permission from Georgia Southern University's Institutional Review Board (IRB) to conduct this study. Special education directors and general education and special education teachers in Georgia's First District RESA service area were recruited to voluntarily participate in this study. Informed consent letters were mailed to both groups. Letters contained an explanation about the study and a copy of the survey will be included in the packet mailed to these participants. Teachers' surveys were

disseminated and collected by special education directors and given to the researcher for analysis. SPSS was used to analyze survey data.

Limitations

One of the limitations of this study was the population of general education and special education teachers who had experience in inclusion in First District RESA service area. This study focused on approximately 75 K-12 teachers in 18 school districts within this service area. Teacher experiences with principal leadership may have been very different factors not included in this study, such as district office leadership, school district mandates regarding inclusion, and numbers of students enrolled in inclusion classes.

Another limitation of this study was the design or methodology that set parameters on the application or interpretation of the results of the study; that is, the constraints on generalizability and utility of findings that are the result of the design that establish internal and external validity. General education and special education teachers' perceptions of leadership responsibilities were analyzed using quantitative descriptive methods. The most obvious limitation related to the inability to draw descriptive or inferential conclusions from general education and special education teachers' data about a larger group in Georgia or the nation due to the size of the sample.

Extraneous variables may interfere with the results (i.e., leadership behavior of principals differ in each school), but these behaviors are not a part of the researcher's interest. The researcher was interested in general education and special education teachers' perceptions of leadership responsibilities. This study focused on the observable leadership responsibilities regarding implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion programs. These extraneous variables associated with general leadership of the

school cannot all be controlled, and teacher responses may have been influenced by the principal's overall leadership of the school.

Delimitations

This study was not a scientifically or statistically rigorous experimental model with control and treatment groups in a comparative study. This study was, rather, a description of the state of general education and special education teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership responsibilities regarding on implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion programs within Georgia's First District RESA service area as a whole.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions were operationally defined to provide clarity for the reader:

Co-teaching inclusion strategy. Co-teaching is a special education service delivery model in which two certified teachers, one general educator and one special educator, share responsibility for planning, delivering, and evaluating instruction for a diverse group of students, some of whom are students with disabilities (Division for Learning Disabilities and Division for Research of the Council for Exceptional Children, 2001).

Full inclusion. Full inclusion means that all students, regardless of disabling condition or severity, were in a general classroom/program full time. All services must be taken to the child in that setting (Phi Delta Kappan Center for Evaluation, Development, and Research, 1993).

General education classroom. For purpose of clarity in this study, references to general education classrooms are used to refer to non-special education classrooms (Price et al., 2001).

Highly functioning inclusion programs. For the purpose of this study, highly functioning inclusion programs create an inclusive service environment that welcomes all individuals, regardless of disability while helping individuals to use their skills and strengthen their abilities. An inclusive service environment is respectful, supportive, and equalizing. An inclusive service environment reaches out to and includes individuals with disabilities at all levels. An inclusive service environment starts with the actions and attitudes of the individuals who are already in that environment (Corporation for National and Community Service, 2004).

High-incidence disabilities. High-incidence disabilities refer to disabling conditions such as mild mental retardation, behavior disorders, or learning disabilities. Students with high-incidence disabilities usually have Individualized Education Programs (IEPs) which call for adapted instruction in the general education curriculum (Zigmond & Magiera, 2001).

Inclusion. Inclusion is a term which expresses commitment to educate each child, to the maximum extent appropriate, in the school and classroom he or she would otherwise attend. It involves bringing the support services to the child (rather than moving the child to the services) and requires only that the child will benefit from being in the class (rather than having to keep up with the other students). Proponents of inclusion generally favor newer forms of education service delivery (Phi Delta Kappan Center for Evaluation, Development, and Research, 1993).

IDEA. The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), as amended in 2004, does not require inclusion. Instead, the law requires that children with disabilities be educated in the least restrictive environment appropriate to meet their unique needs. The IDEA suggested that the least restrictive environment analysis began with placement in the general education classroom (Phi Delta Kappan Center for Evaluation, Development, and Research, 1993).

Mainstreaming. Generally, mainstreaming has been used to refer to the selective placement of students with disabilities in one or more general education classes. Proponents of mainstreaming generally assume that a student must earn his or her opportunity to be placed in general classes by demonstrating an ability to keep up with the work assigned by the general classroom teacher. This concept is closely linked to traditional forms of special education service delivery (Phi Delta Kappan Center for Evaluation, Development, and Research, 1993).

Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973. Section 504 requires that a recipient of federal funds provide for the education of each qualified person with disabilities in its jurisdiction with nondisabled persons to the maximum extent appropriate to the needs of the person with disabilities.

Summary

Chapter 1 described the background of the problem and statement of the problem that is lack of formal training in inclusion for principals yet accountability in providing inclusion for students with disabilities. General education and special education perceptions of leadership responsibilities toward implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion were examined. The purpose of the study was described. Research questions were formulated. Significance of the study and procedures were presented.

Limitations and delimitations were discussed. Definition of terms was operationally defined and a summary concluded this chapter. Chapter 2 described the history of inclusion and mainstreaming, description of inclusion program with inclusion defined, and benefits of inclusion for students with and without disabilities. Implementing, maintaining, and supporting an inclusion program were discussed from the perspective of political, cultural, human resources, and structural challenges. Successes and failures of inclusion programs were presented. Literature on co-teaching, what is known from the literature on teachers' perceptions of inclusion, gaps in the literature, and Marzano's 21 leadership responsibilities were discussed. A conceptual framework was outlined. A summary concluded Chapter 2.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE RESEARCH AND RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

The literature review is organized into four main sections: history of special education, educating students with disabilities, leadership responsibilities, and gaps in the literature. This chapter begins with a brief sequence of the history of inclusion and mainstreaming and legislation of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act, Section 504, and No Child Left Behind Act of 2001. A more detailed discussion of inclusion programs, motivation for the establishment of inclusion programs and benefits to students (both with and without disabilities), school, and teachers in general and co-teaching follows. Next, an overview of implementing an inclusion program and political, cultural, human resources, and structural challenges is discussed.

Then, leadership responsibilities, training, scheduling, and decisions involved are presented to describe what the literature says about what is known as best practices in school leaders' role as presented by Marzano's *School Leadership that Works: From Research to Results* (2005) publication in implementing an inclusion program. Other topics include political, cultural, human resources and structural challenges are identified in the literature in maintaining an inclusion program. Monitoring and system needs and leadership responsibilities are included. Political, cultural, human resources, and structural challenges are identified in the literature in supporting an inclusion program such as leadership tasks involved, why inclusion programs fail, and why they succeed.

Finally, what is known from the literature about teacher perceptions of leadership responsibilities and gaps in the literature are discussed. Marzano's 21 Leadership Responsibilities, particularly the attributes of implementing, maintaining, and supporting

inclusion programs organized the research questions in this study. The chapter concluded with an overview of the studies concerning implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion programs and the impact of leadership responsibilities from the perspective of general education and special education teachers working in highly functioning inclusion programs.

Inclusion of students with disabilities in general classrooms is a controversial issue. The right to attend mainstream classes was secured through the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 (P.L. 94-142) that was passed by the U.S. Congress in 1975. This was the most comprehensive civil rights act passed by the U.S. Congress was the Education of the Handicapped Act Amendments of 1990 (P.L.101-476, 1990), which later became the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA). The legislation was reauthorized and amended and signed into law on June 4, 1997. The reauthorized legislation is called the *Individuals with Disabilities Education Act Amendments of 1997* (P.L.105-17, 1997).

As an extension of civil rights, courts have taken the position that students should not be excluded from regular classrooms because of disabilities, an interpretation that parallels to discrimination for other reasons. Regardless of where educators may stand philosophically on inclusion, advocates have successfully connected inclusion with racial desegregation, expecting that courts may intervene unless schools act more deliberately (Schnaiberg, 1996). IDEA (1997) clearly supports the concept of inclusion, with references throughout indicating the goal of educating children with disabilities with their peers in the general curriculum (Price et al., 2001).

Federal law P.L. 94-142 offered all children with disabilities equal educational opportunities and began the concept of the least restrictive environment (LRE). The 17th

Annual Report to Congress on the Implementation of IDEA (1997) law suggested that school districts do not generally follow the LRE mandate. Teaching students with disabilities in inclusive settings is a multifaceted task that requires a team of mutually supportive staff who provide the best practices for all students. The preponderance of research supports placing students with disabilities in inclusive settings because it benefits everyone involved, although researchers caution that a one-size-fits-all approach may be disastrous for students with disabilities. Some researchers suggested that inclusion is not beneficial for a variety of reasons (Taylor & Harrington, 1998).

However, most schools are faced with the arduous task of implementing inclusive education. This level of responsibility for implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion programs in schools rests with school leaders. It is essential to assure that each student's goals and objectives are met. New tools, curricula, instruction, and programs are needed that recognize all students' needs and behaviors. Professional preparation of school personnel is essential. Teachers must learn new teaching strategies and understand how to work cooperatively with other teachers, parents, and the community. Without proper planning and support, successful inclusive placements are difficult (Taylor & Harrington, 1998).

History of Special Education

When IDEA was implemented in the 1977-1978 school years and later in the mid-1980s, the term that described the education of students with disabilities with those who did not have disabilities was *mainstreaming*. Mainstreaming was defined as the educational arrangement of placing students with disabilities in general education classes with nondisabled peers to the maximum extent appropriate. Typically, mainstreaming was implemented by having students with disabilities participate in the nonacademic

portions of the general education program, such as art, music, and physical education. Most of those students were, however, still enrolled in self-contained special education classes; they visited general education classes for a relatively small portion of time. For many educators and parents, mainstreaming provided far too little and came much too late for the students (Turnbull, Turnbull, & Wehmeyer, 2007).

According to Halvorsen and Neary (2001), inclusion differs from mainstreaming in that students are members of only the general education class and do not belong to any other specialized environment based on their disability. This notion is supported by middle schools using the true middle school model. In these schools, students with disabilities are members of the classroom as their first association, not members of a special education population. Middle schools also lend themselves to inclusive practices because the co-teaching model that is common in middle schools is more successfully implemented where interdisciplinary teaching teams share planning.

The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act of 1997 emphasized that exceptional students must have access to the general education curriculum. This legislation was strengthened by the passage of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001, which stressed that all students must make adequate yearly progress (AYP), and that teachers, principals, superintendents, school boards, and state boards of education are accountable for all students' academic progress. Inclusion is no longer just an option, and it is essential that schools find ways to implement it effectively (Santoli et al., 2008).

History of Inclusion and Mainstreaming

In the mid-1980s, impatience with mainstreaming became evident in a movement known as the Regular Education Initiative (REI). The debate centered around four key issues that included: the exclusion of many students who needed special educational

support; the withholding of special programs until the student failed rather than making specially designed instruction available earlier to prevent failure; no support for promoting cooperative, supported partnerships between educators and parents; and using pull-out programs to serve students with disabilities rather than adapting the general education program to accommodate their needs (Halvorsen & Neary, 2001).

Madeline Will introduced REI in 1986. She served as the Assistant Secretary in the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services and conducted an analysis of national data, which indicated that exceptional students with disabilities out of the mainstream classrooms were not effectively meeting the educational needs of students with disabilities. Therefore, Will (1986) proposed the merger of general and special education to facilitate the successful inclusion of students with disabilities in general education classrooms.

Interestingly, the REI reflects an extension of the concept known as *mainstreaming* that arose out of the passage of the Education for All Handicapped Children's Act in 1975 (P.L. 94-142). Unfortunately, mainstreaming was not successful for many reasons, one of which was that general education teachers were not prepared in their teacher preparation programs to meet the needs of students with disabilities. Sachs (1990) asked, "But do we have to continue to under prepare our new teachers, and do we wish to continue to have a negative impact on a prospective teacher's ability to cope with the reality of mainstreaming?" (p. 236). Lieberman (1985) stated, "We have thrown a wedding and neglected to invite the bride" (p. 513). Lieberman was prophetic in that the emphasis of the REI, the merger of special and general education, was directed from the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services and general educators were not a part of the process.

The Regular Education Initiative (REI) has been a continuing academic debate about the efficacy of special education programs (Jenkins, Pious, & Jewell, 1990; Maheady & Algozzine, 1991; Reynolds, Wang, & Walberg, 1987; Thousand & Villa, 1991; Will, 1986). Baker, Wang, and Walberg (1995) said that the recent inclusion movement emanated from a report of the National Academy of Sciences (Heller, Holtzman, & Messick, 1982), which concluded that the classification and placement of children in special education was ineffective and discriminatory.

For a number of years the REI has been an advocacy, mostly by university professors and professionals, about serving students in general education classrooms, reducing the complications and expense caused by assessment and programming needs, and improving academic preparation. Opponents offer reasons why schools should not embrace REI. As a theoretical debate among special education professionals, it has not had much direct impact on inclusion (Price, Mayfield, McFadden, Marsh, & Price, 2001). Ultimately, the General education Initiative caused significant changes in the entire approach to special education. A new term, *inclusion*, and a new technique, collaboration, evolved (Turnbull et al., 2007).

Exclusion or mandating different educational experiences due to predetermined guidelines has been a problem in education that was initially addressed by *Brown v. Board of Education* in 1954 (Zirkel, 2002). Segregation of educational services expanded from that based on race to the exclusion of students with disabilities from integration into the regular classroom. P.L. 94-142, IDEA, the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act and its 1997 reauthorization have had schools considering the question of what is the least restrictive environment (Kluth, Villa, & Thousand, 2002).

The first attempts at the concept of inclusion may be more of a synonym to the old term *mainstreaming*. Students with disabilities were brought into the school and placed with their peers without disabilities during certain ascribed social activities. The emphasis was primarily on the social aspect of integration with the academic side kept neatly segregated in special education classes. Many students spent a large majority of the day being excluded from their peers without disabilities. Students with disabilities were allowed to go to the lunchroom, playground and other social events such as special performances and pep rallies held in the auditorium and/or gymnasium. They were placed in proximity to their peers but seldom fully integrated into the general educational environment (Goulas, Henry, & Griffith, 2005).

Initially, inclusion was viewed as a placement issue (Downing, Eichinger & Williams, 1997). Schools attempted to interpret the legal mandates by concentrating on how children were placed therefore meeting the requirements of providing a least restrictive environment (Hemmeter, 2000). Those placements changed from mainstreaming to the current concept of inclusion. Several attempts were made to include children with disabilities in a regular classroom's activities and routines. The general education initiative was the description of inclusion without there being much impact on what was actually happening in the classroom. Inclusion was becoming the reformation of the old inferior and discriminatory mainstreaming concept (Heflin & Bullock, 1999).

Although educators agreed on the concept that every child is individual and unique, educators must adhere to an underlying practice of treating everyone in exactly the same manner. The knowledge of learning styles, interest inventories and constructivism are well known, yet children still sit in straight rows, and are expected to be at the same readiness level, and master all criteria related to competency-based exams.

The paradigm shift in inclusion is changing its area of concern from teacher-centered pedagogy to a child-centered environment (Beloin, 1998). The most current concept showing great promise in this area is that of differentiated instruction. In this type of inclusion environment, students at every level of readiness can learn more effectively. Instruction is focused on the individual learning style and educational need of each child (Kapusnick & Hauslein, 2001).

During the 1990s, the public school system within the United States has stretched to respond to the diverse needs of children, families, and society. One reflection of this broadened mission is the inclusion of children with disabilities in educational settings with typically developing children. Inclusion is known as a movement of elementary, middle, and high school children with disabilities out of special education classrooms into general education classrooms and has become commonplace in most school districts (Odom, 1996).

Since 1991, public school systems have been required to provide free, appropriate educational services to preschool-aged children with disabilities, beginning at age 3, with many states extending these services to children from birth. The imperative to include these young children in settings with typically developing children is in place, but numerous factors act as barriers to successful implementation of inclusion (Odom, 1996).

The terms *general education* and *regular classroom* are used in the literature and court cases, stemming from the historical separation of special education in the school. In fact, a running debate among special education writers over several years concerning inclusion has been called the *Regular Education Initiative*. Today, *general* and *regular* are used interchangeably to refer to that part of the school program that is not special education. Most general education teachers think of themselves in terms of the grades or

subjects they teach, such as sixth grade teacher or science teacher. Special education personnel historically had a different frame of reference, seeing special education as their responsibility, separated from the rest of the school (Price et al., 2001). For purposes of clarity, this study used the term, *general education* rather than *regular education* to refer to non-special education programs.

Legislation

There is no other area in the field of education in which the principles of leadership and change are more imperative than the area of special education. This is reflected in the vast number of legislative statutes that have been enacted in the area of special education. The first federal statute to affect special education was the Vocational and Rehabilitation Act of 1973 (Philpot, 2005).

The Vocational and Rehabilitation Act of 1973 (P. L. 93-112, 1973) was enacted to ban discrimination against individuals with disabilities who were participating in federal programs and activities (Holcomb, Amundson, & Ralabate, 2002). This legislation, along with class action suits brought by parent advocates, led to the 1975 passage of the original federal special education law: The Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 (P.L. 94-142; Holcomb et al., 2002). P.L. 94-142 made certain that students with disabilities were included in the public school program, educated in an environment that was not overly restricted, and provided with an individualized education program (IEP) (Paul, Lavelly, Cranston-Gingras, & Taylor, 2002).

Public Law 94-142 was the springboard for several pieces of special education legislation that improved the quality of educational services for students with disabilities. In 1975, there was a growing national concern about issues concerning special education. The result of this national emphasis on the education of students with disabilities was the

passage of the Education for All Handicapped Children Act. Between 1975 and 1997 this act was amended several times and even renamed as Individuals with Disabilities Education Act Amendments Act (IDEA, P.L. 105-17, 1997) in 1997.

The reauthorization of IDEA was made in 1997 and became law in October of 1999 (Paul et al., 2002). The main premise of IDEA 1997 was that students with special needs should be educated in the general education classroom with appropriate modifications (Holcomb et al., 2002). IDEA 1997 gained even more attention in 2002 when it was referenced several times in the revisions to Title I that were made in the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, also known as the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB).

The House of Representatives bill (H.R.1), also known as the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (Thompson, 2008) is an updated version of the 1965 Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA). Bill numbers restart from 1 every two years. Each two-year cycle is called a session of Congress. This bill was created in the 110th Congress, in 2007-2008. The bill, which passed by large margins in both the House and the Senate, was signed by President George Bush in 2001. While the bill primarily addresses the issue of accountability in schools and help for needy students, elements of the bill and discussion in the House of Representatives also focused on issues related to autism and the disability community.

According to Holcomb et al. (2002), the main references to IDEA 1997 were in the sections of NCLB that dealt with accountability and assessment. These revisions are causing educational leaders to lead change in their organizations that reflected students with disabilities being included in state assessments and having access to the general education classrooms and curriculum. These changes are requiring educational leaders to

ensure that students with disabilities are receiving services in the least restrictive environment (LRE); thus leading to the need for educational leaders to better understand the advantages and disadvantages of inclusion programs and techniques for implementing such programs.

Implementation of the laws governing providing inclusive education for students with disabilities is still in its early stages (Kluth, Villa, & Thousand, 2001). General education teachers are still learning about how No Child Left Behind (NCLB), Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), and Americans with Disabilities (ADA) laws affect students with disabilities in their classrooms. Reviewing the intent and language of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act hopefully helped administrators shape district-wide or school-based policies and procedures; evaluate the ways in which programs are labeled and implemented; and make more informed decisions about student assessment, placement, and service delivery (Kluth et al., 2001).

Inclusion of students with disabilities at all levels is a challenge, one that has been intensified by the mandates of NCLB and the reauthorized IDEA. More specifically, NCLB states that students with disabilities will be counted in calculation of annual yearly progress, and thus must be proficient in curriculum content; and IDEA 2004 states that special education teachers must have certification in specific content areas in order to be highly qualified to provide self-contained instruction to students with disabilities (U.S. Department of Education, 2005).

The No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) and the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) are two of the nation's most important federal laws relating to the education of children. While NCLB seeks to improve the education of all children with an emphasis on children from low-income families, IDEA concentrates on the individual

child and seeks to ensure specialized services for children with disabilities so that they may benefit from education. These two legislative actions have a tremendous impact on teachers, schools, families and, most importantly, secondary students with disabilities. Furthermore, they make it essential for secondary teachers to know what is working in effective, inclusive schools across the country (U.S. Department of Education, 2005).

Recently, these two laws have taken on new importance to parents of students with disabilities. NCLB provisions apply to all students, including those whose disabilities require special education. IDEA, in its latest update by Congress, has been more closely aligned with NCLB; making it equally important that parents become familiar with the ways the two laws have been positioned to work together to improve academic achievement of students with disabilities (U.S. Department of Education, 2005).

Taken together, the IDEA and NCLB provisions and requirements combine to provide both individualized instruction and school accountability for students with disabilities. The progress and performance of students with disabilities is now a shared responsibility of general and special education teachers. Enhanced accountability for students with disabilities has elevated them in the consciousness of school, school district, and state level administrators. Never before have the nation's federal education laws been aligned to provide such powerful opportunities for children with disabilities (U.S. Department of Education, 2005).

Individuals with Disabilities Education Act

Two federal laws govern education of children with disabilities: Individuals with Disabilities Education Act, Part B [IDEA] and Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973. Neither requires inclusion, but both require that a significant effort be made to find

an inclusive placement. However, IDEA recognizes that it is not appropriate to place all children in the general education classroom. Therefore, the law requires school districts to have a continuum of placements available, extending from the general education classroom to residential settings, in order to accommodate the needs of all children with disabilities. Using the continuum concept makes it more likely that each child would be placed appropriately in an environment that is specifically suited to meet his/her needs. The law intends that the degree of inclusion be driven by the student's needs as determined by the IEP team, not by the district's convenience or the parents' wishes (Phi Delta Kappan Center for Evaluation, Development, and Research, 1993).

In developing the Individual Education Program (IEP) for a child with disabilities, the IDEA requires the IEP team to consider placement in the general education classroom as the starting point in determining the appropriate placement for the child. If the IEP team determines that the least restrictive environment appropriate for a particular child is not the general education classroom for all or part of the IEP, the IEP team must include an explanation in the IEP as to why the general education classroom is not appropriate.

The purpose of these requirements is to carry out the intent of the IDEA, which is to educate as many students with disabilities as possible in the general education classroom, while still meeting their unique, individual needs. Robert T. Stafford, a Republican Senator from Vermont and one of the bill's primary sponsors, argued that the legislation is essential if children with special needs are allowed to live ordinary lives (Arnold & Dodge, 1994).

The Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) is the federal law dealing with the education of children with disabilities. Congress first passed IDEA in 1975, recognizing the need to provide a federal law to help ensure that local schools would

serve the educational needs of students with disabilities. The law originally passed was titled the Education for All Handicapped Children Act. That first special education law has undergone several updates over the past 30 years. In 1990, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act became the *Individuals with Disabilities Education Act*, or *IDEA*. The most recent version of IDEA was passed by Congress in 2004. It can be referred to as either IDEA 2004 or IDEA (U.S. Department of Education, 2008).

In updating IDEA in 2004, Congress found that the education of students with disabilities has been impeded by low expectations and an insufficient focus on applying replicable research on proven methods of teaching and learning. Significant changes to IDEA as well as a close alignment to NCLB are designed to provide students with disabilities access to high expectations and to the general education curriculum in the regular classroom, to the maximum extent possible, in order to meet developmental goals and, to the extent possible, the challenging expectations that have been established for all children (U.S. Department of Education, 2008).

The primary purpose of Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act of 2004 is to ensure that all children with disabilities have available to them a free appropriate public education that emphasizes special education and related services designed to meet their unique needs and prepare them for further education, employment and independent living. IDEA serves 6.1 million school age children and almost 1 million children aged birth to 5. Federal funding for IDEA was \$10.6 billion in 2006. These funds are distributed to all states to assist with the cost of providing special education services (U.S. Department of Education, 2008).

Ritter, Michel, and Irby (1999) suggested that students with disabilities are placed at an advantage in inclusion programs because they are exposed to higher expectations.

Higher expectations along with modifications may result in increased student achievement in an inclusive classroom. Ritter et al. indicated that students and teachers, participating in an inclusion program in rural Texas, agreed that assignments in an inclusive classroom were more challenging than assignments in a self-contained special education classroom. The teachers participating in the study also felt the students experienced increased academic achievement.

Warger and Rutherford (1993) identified increased instruction in the area of social skills as an advantage of inclusive programs. This was validated in a three-year study of co-teaching at the elementary and middle school level by Walther-Thomas (1997) which noted positive feeling from special needs students about themselves as learners and increased academic performance of special needs students. This same study also noted improved social skills and strengthened peer relationships as the major benefits of an inclusive program for special needs students and general education students.

The self-esteem and social growth of special education and general education students is also elevated in an inclusive environment (Bradley, King-Sears, & Tessier-Switlick, 1997). Regardless of age, students know they are pulled out of classes because of differences. This can be detrimental to the self-esteem of a special needs child. Parents and students cited poor self-esteem as a problem related to placement in special education classrooms (Ritter et al., 1999). These same students perceive themselves as equals to their peers in the general education classroom.

Robinson and Schaible (1995) identified improved course content, improved delivery of instruction and assessment, a greater likelihood of creating a student centered classroom, a built-in mechanism for reflecting on teaching strategies as benefits for teachers participating in co-taught inclusive programs.

Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973

Section 504 is a civil rights statute that prohibits schools from discriminating against children with disabilities and provides reasonable accommodations. Under some circumstances, these reasonable accommodations may include the provision of special services. The eligibility for Section 504 is based on the existence of an identified physical or mental condition that substantially limits a major life activity. Children who are not eligible for special education are guaranteed access to related services if they meet the Section 504 eligibility criteria.

Section 504 requires that a recipient of federal funds provide for the education of each qualified person with disabilities in its jurisdiction with persons who are nondisabled to the maximum extent appropriate to the needs of the person with disabilities. A recipient is required to place a child with disabilities in the general educational environment unless it is demonstrated by the recipient that the education in the general environment with the use of supplementary aides and services cannot be achieved satisfactorily (National Library for Health, 2009).

Because the categories of disabilities covered by the IDEA have expanded during the past two reauthorizations in 1997 and 2004, Section 504 is less frequently used to obtain access to public education for students with disabilities. Even after several reauthorizations of IDEA, most recently in 2004, federal law leaves several questions unanswered, including three significant ones: (a) How far must schools go? (b) How important is potential academic achievement/social growth in making placement decisions? and (c) What are the rights of the other children (National Library for Health, 2009)?

No Child Left Behind (NCLB)

No Child Left Behind (NCLB) is the latest version of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA), the major federal education law that was first enacted in 1965. Title I of the ESEA provides the single largest source of federal funding for public schools. No Child Left Behind builds upon education reform efforts that started during the Clinton Administration with the passage of Goals 2000 and the Improving America's Schools Act in 1994. Unlike previous versions of the ESEA, NCLB seeks to improve educational outcomes for disadvantaged students and close the achievement gap between various subgroups of students, including those with disabilities, by imposing new requirements for standards, assessments, accountability, and parental involvement (Cortiella, 2005).

The NCLB law, enacted in January 2002 provides funding for states to design and implement annual tests for all children, regardless of race, income, or disability, to let parents know the quality of the education their children are receiving. The information provided by these tests under the law is a valuable resource for parents and educators who are assessing where a student is excelling and where he/she needs more help. The law prohibits schools from excluding students with disabilities from the accountability system, a practice some have used to mask the fact that certain groups of children are not learning. Excluding students with disabilities from testing is also a violation of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (U.S. Department of Education, 2008).

Under the NCLB Act, schools and districts must demonstrate Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) toward ensuring that every child achieves the proficient level of the state's standards by the 2013-2014 school years. Students with disabilities are no

exception. NCLB requires that students with disabilities as a subgroup demonstrate AYP toward the state's goals. The Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act of 2004 (IDEA) includes specific provisions to help schools and districts develop programs to support students with disabilities (ERIC Clearinghouse on Disabilities and Gifted Education, 1998).

Under the regulations, when measuring Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP), states, school districts, and schools have the flexibility to count the "proficient" scores of students with the most significant cognitive disabilities who take assessments based on alternate achievement standards. The number of those proficient scores may not exceed one percent of all students in the grades tested (about 9% of students with disabilities). Without this flexibility, those scores would have to be measured against grade level standards and considered not proficient (U.S. Department of Education, 2008). Nationally, about 9% of the total student population is served in special education, of which about 9% have the most significant cognitive disabilities (Bradshaw, 2003).

This new provision protects the rights of students, parents and teachers while providing flexibility to states, districts and schools. Under *No Child Left Behind*, students with disabilities cannot be excluded from educational accountability. Most students with disabilities should participate in the same tests taken by their peers. Some of these students should receive accommodations such as increased time or the use of assistive technology to ensure that their unique needs are taken into account as they participate with their peers in the assessment process (U.S. Department of Education, 2008).

A regulation by the U.S. Department of Education gives local school districts valuable flexibility in meeting the requirements of the bipartisan No Child Left Behind (NCLB) education reform law. The provision ensures that schools receive credit for the

progress of all children, including children with the most significant cognitive disabilities. Schools around the country were not identified by states' education authorities as "needing improvement" if their students with the most significant cognitive disabilities are unable to achieve at the same level as their peers (U.S. Department of Education, 2008).

Likewise, this new provision protects children with disabilities from being excluded from accountability systems that provide valuable information to parents and educators. All students, including students with disabilities deserve teachers who believe in their potential and who encouraged them to make progress, just as all parents and teachers ought to have the assessment information they need to target their efforts and provide all students a high-quality education (U.S. Department of Education, 2008).

Court Cases

Guidelines established by the following federal court decisions provide school districts with some measure of what is expected of them in determining the appropriate placement for children with disabilities. Each court has a separate jurisdiction and the decision may not apply to all locations. However, these cases have been cited by courts throughout the country in litigation involving challenges to placement of students in the least restrictive environment.

Greer vs. Rome City School District (11th Circuit Court, 1992). In this case, the court decided in favor of parents who objected to the placement of their daughter in a self-contained special education classroom. Specifically, the court said, "Before the school district may conclude that a child with disabilities should be educated outside of the general classroom, it must consider whether supplemental aids and services would permit satisfactory education in the general classroom."

The district had considered only three options for the child: (a) general education classroom with no supplementary aids and services, (b) general classroom with some speech therapy only, and (c) self-contained special education classroom. The district argued that the costs of providing services in the classroom would be too high. However, the court said that the district cannot refuse to serve a child because of added cost. On the other hand, the court also said that a district cannot be required to provide a child his/her own full-time teacher. As in many decisions of this type, no clear determination is made about when costs move from reasonable to excessive. The major message in this case was that all options must be considered before removing a child from the general classroom.

Sacramento City Unified School District vs. Holland (9th Circuit Court, 1994). In this case, the circuit court upheld the decision of the lower court in finding for the Holland family. The parents in this case challenged the district's decision to place their daughter half-time in a special education classroom and half-time in a general education classroom. The parents wanted their daughter in the general classroom full-time.

A number of issues were addressed in this decision. The court considered a 1989 case in Texas, (*Daniel R. R.*), which found that general education placement is appropriate if a child with disabilities can receive a satisfactory education, even if it is not the best academic setting for the child. Non-academic benefits must also be considered. In upholding the lower court decision, the 9th Circuit Court established a four-part balancing test to determine whether a school district is complying with IDEA.

The four factors were as follows: (a) educational benefits of placing the child in a full-time general education program, (b) non-academic benefits of such a placement, (c) effect the child would have on the teacher and other students in the general classroom,

and (d) costs associated with this placement. As a result of applying these factors, the court found in favor of including the child.

Oberti vs. Board of Education of the Borough of Clementon School District (3rd Circuit Court, 1993). In finding for the parents in *Oberti*, the court ruled in favor of a placement that was more inclusive than that provided by a self-contained placement. Specifically, the court ruled that three factors must be considered:

1. The court should consider whether the district made reasonable efforts to accommodate the child in general education. The school must consider the whole range of supplemental aids and services.
2. The court should compare the educational benefits the child would receive in general education (with supplemental aids and services) contrasted with the benefits in a special education classroom.
3. The court should consider the effect the inclusion of the child with disabilities might have on the education of other children in the general education classroom.

If, after considering these factors, the court determines that the child cannot be educated satisfactorily in a general classroom, the court must consider whether the schools have included the child in school programs to the maximum extent appropriate.

Poolaw vs. Parker Unified School District (9th Circuit Court, 1995). In this case, the court ruled in favor of the district's offer of a residential placement contrary to the wishes of the family that their child be educated in a general education classroom. The court stated that the child's previous and current district placements had adequately explored the effectiveness of general education placement with supplemental aids and services. In doing so, the district found that the benefits of general education placement

were minimal and that the child's educational needs could be met appropriately only by the residential placement offered by the district.

The court held that the District's decision to provide a home bound education program for a student with autism did not violate IDEA. From kindergarten through fourth grade, Zack S. had a history of kicking and biting people, tearing his clothes and breaking furniture. At age 10, he was placed in a residential facility where he did well. The following school year, attempts were made to return him to the public school setting, but he again was violent, disruptive, and truant. He was placed in a specialized school, but was removed after less than a month. Finally, the district determined (after a month without providing services) that it would educate the student at his home. Although the child's guardian sued the district because she wanted him to attend the public school, the court held that given the child's history of unmanageable, violent behavior, the district reasonably concluded that there was no basis for believing that he could function successfully in a general school environment.

Educating Students with Disabilities

Inclusive education has emerged as a schoolwide improvement approach for educating students with diverse abilities in general education classes. Despite the important role of principals in school improvement initiatives, few empirical studies have been reported of the administrator's role and the context of inclusive schools (Salisbury & McGregor, 2002).

Inclusion Programs

Inclusion is an umbrella term used by many schools to describe programs for meeting the needs of students with disabilities (Robertson & Valentine, 1999). The terms *inclusion*, *full inclusion*, *mainstreaming*, and *integration* are often used interchangeably

to represent the provision of educational or other services to people with disabilities in general schools, classes, and community settings. However, these terms are not synonymous. There are some distinctions. Inclusion recognizes every individual's right to be treated equally and to be accorded the same services and opportunities as everyone else (Disability Resources, 1996).

In a school setting, full inclusion involves educating all children in general classrooms all of the time, regardless of the degree or severity of a disability. Effective inclusion programs take place in conjunction with a planned system of training and supports. Such programs usually involve the collaboration of a multidisciplinary team which includes general and special educators (or other personnel) as well as family members and peers (Disability Resources, 1996).

Mainstreaming is an older term which may imply a more gradual, partial, or part-time process (e.g., a student who is mainstreamed may attend separate classes within a general school, or may participate in general gym and lunch programs only). In mainstreamed programs, students are often expected to fit in the general class in which they want to participate, whereas in an inclusive program the classes are designed to fit all students (Disability Resources, 1996).

Integration is often used synonymously with mainstreaming to encompass efforts to move students from segregated classes into the mainstream. However, the term *integration* is sometimes used to represent the ultimate objective of inclusion. No single definition of inclusion fits all (Disability Resources, 1996). According to Samuel Odom (2002), a leading researcher in preschool inclusion, there is "no single definition of inclusion among professionals or parents." Odom further states that "inclusion means different things to different people" (pp. 27-47).

Full inclusion means children with disabilities are full participants in a general early childhood program with specialized services provided within the context of this program. Children with disabilities are fully involved in all activities and daily programming. Team teaching generally operates where general education and special education teachers jointly plan and implement the curriculum and share classroom space. This is often seen as a *gold standard model* of inclusion by advocacy groups as depicted in Figure 1.

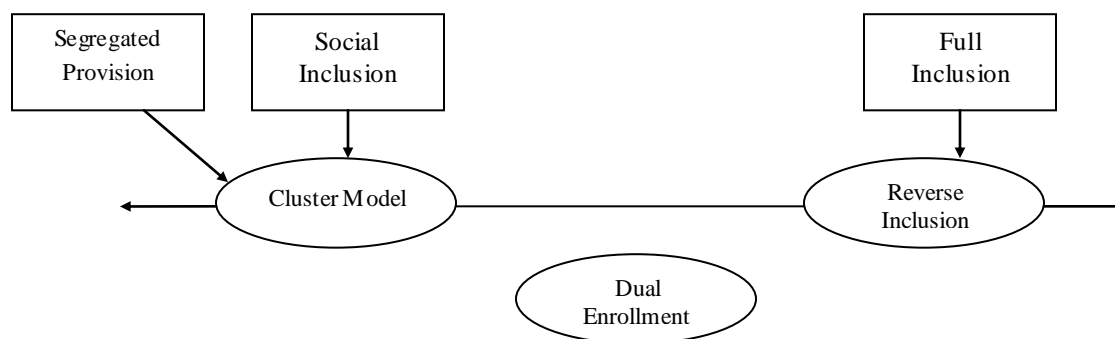


Figure 1

Description of an Inclusion Program

Definition and component parts. The model of inclusion presents positive outcomes arising from inclusion that are dependent on children with disabilities spending at least several days per week in this type of setting. Inclusive programs that are successful must provide adequate specialist supports and adaptations, individualize, maintain high quality and be family-centered. Collaboration among professionals is essential (Bailey, McWilliam, & Wesley, 1998).

The cluster model is one in which a small group of children with disabilities receives instruction in a general education classroom, but activities and services are provided separately in an area of the classroom. Team teaching may occur with a special

education teacher and a general education teacher. Children participate in some but not all activities together (Bailey et al., 1998).

Reverse inclusion differs from the other two in that children with disabilities outnumber generally general education children. In addition, reverse inclusion typically integrates the provision of the services of specialists. Social inclusion exists where children may share the same building but possibly in separate rooms and do not join together in most activities, except during recreation and physical activity periods. There is debate whether this is inclusive practice at all (Bailey et al., 1998).

Dual enrollment means that children are enrolled in a traditional early childhood special education (ECSE) class for part of the day and in a general community-wide, early childhood program such as Head Start, for the other half of the day or part week. This type of option is different, which may at first glance appear attractive. However, it provides additional challenges for multi-disciplinary collaboration and communication as well as placing high demands on young children to cope with relatively long hours, a wide range of relationships and settings and additional travel time between facilities (Bailey et al., 1998).

Benefits to students with disabilities. Kochhar, West, and Taymans (2000) concluded that the benefits of inclusion across grade levels far outweigh the difficulties inclusion presents. For example, they indicated that for students with disabilities, inclusion (a) facilitates more appropriate social behavior because of higher expectations in the general education classroom; (b) promotes levels of achievement higher than or at least as high as those achieved in self-contained classrooms; (c) offers a wide circle of support, including social support from classmates without disabilities; and (d) improves the ability of students and teachers to adapt to different teaching and learning styles.

In addition, virtually all students with disabilities learned to value themselves and others as unique individuals. In a review of research on inclusion at both the elementary and secondary levels, Salend and Duhaney (1999) also reported that academic performance is equal to or better in inclusive settings for general education students, including high achievers. Social performance also appeared to be enhanced because students have a better understanding of and more tolerance for student differences.

Hunt (2000) similarly reported positive effects for both general and students with disabilities at the elementary level. Academic benefits for general education students included having additional special education staff in the classroom, providing small-group, individualized instruction, and assisting in the development of academic adaptations for all students who need them. Hunt further reported that students have a better understanding of individual differences through learning in inclusive settings.

In a meta-analysis of the effects of inclusion on students with special needs, Baker and Zigmond (1995) found a small to moderate positive effect of inclusive practices on academic and social outcomes of pupils in elementary schools. Academic benefits were measured through standard achievement tasks, while self, peer, teacher, and observer ratings were used to evaluate social effects.

Another study reporting perceptions of middle school students, their parents, and teachers indicated a shared belief that middle level students with mild disabilities included in the general classroom experienced: (a) increased self-confidence, (b) camaraderie, (c) support of the teachers, and (d) higher expectations. The study also indicated that these students avoided low self-esteem that can result from placement in a special education setting (Ritter et al., 1999).

Specific results for students with disabilities, however, were inconclusive. Salend (2001), like most who examined research on the effectiveness of inclusion, reported mixed results (Hines & Johnston, 1997; Staub & Peck, 1995; Tiner, 1995). While some studies (Hunt, 2000; Salend & Duhaney, 1999) showed increased academic performance of students with disabilities in inclusive settings, others question inclusion's effectiveness (Salend, 2001). Likewise, some studies (Baker & Zigmond, 1995; Kochhar, West, & Taymans, 2000; Salend & Duhaney, 1999; Walther-Thomas et al., 1996) reported positive social gains for students with disabilities in the regular classroom, while others report that students included have experienced isolation and frustration (Hines & Johnston, 1997; Staub & Peck, 1995; Tiner, 1995).

Tiner (1995) surveyed 120 teachers from six middle schools in a Colorado school district. Tiner found that teachers were most concerned with ensuring that all students have an opportunity to learn. Participants in the study voiced a concern that too much time was spent on students with disabilities, which resulted in time taken away from others in the classroom.

Staub and Peck (1995) examined studies using control groups to compare progress of children who are not disabled in classrooms said to be inclusive with those in classrooms that do not include students with disabilities. No significant differences were found between the two groups of students. In addition, the presence of children with disabilities had no effect on either the time allocated to instruction or the levels of interruption.

Other studies of Hines and Johnston (1997) and Kochhar and West (2008) had obtained similar results. Hines and Johnston (1997) reported results of a study of 25 general education middle school teachers whose schedule included regular, co-taught

(inclusive), and mainstream settings. Instructional interactions across the three settings were analyzed, and results indicated that there was no significant statistical difference in instructional time across the three settings, “but significantly more time was spent in managerial interactions in mainstream classrooms than in regular or co-taught settings” (Hines & Johnston, 1997, p. 113). The co-taught classes had the fewest incidences of correcting student behavior by the general education teacher. On a corresponding survey, however, these same teachers perceived that they had less instructional time when special students were present.

One of the greatest anticipated benefits of inclusive educational accountability systems is that schools had access to a fully representative view of student performance. This information, in turn, enhanced school improvement initiatives, helping educators critically evaluate whether all populations of students are benefiting from current instructional practices and school improvement initiatives (Thurlow, Elliott, & Ysseldyke, 1998).

According to Kochhar and West (2008), age- and grade-appropriate placement was the most controversial component of inclusion because it was based on ideals, values, and goals that were not congruent with the realities of today’s classrooms. Proponents of full inclusion assume that the general education classroom can and were able to accommodate all students with disabilities, even those with severe and multiple disabilities. They assumed that such students can obtain educational and social benefits from that placement. Those who opposed full inclusion argue that, although methods of collaborative learning and group instruction are the preferred methods, the traditional classroom size and resources are often inadequate for the management and accommodation of many students with disabilities without producing adverse effects on

the classroom as a whole. Kochhar and West (2008) believed that some students are unlikely to receive appropriate education without placement into alternative instructional groups or alternative learning environments, such as part-time or full-time special classes or alternative day schools.

Educating children with disabilities alongside their nondisabled peers facilitates access to the general curriculum for children with disabilities. Studies showed that students with disabilities who participated in inclusion programs have higher academic achievement, specialized instruction, higher self-esteem, and improved social skills (Hines & Johnston, 1997; Kochhar, West, & Taymans, 2000; Salend & Duhaney, 1999; Staub & Peck, 1995; Tiner, 1995; Walther-Thomas et al., 1996).

Higher academic achievement. Inclusion had shown to be more academically effective than exclusion practices (Madden & Slavin, 1983; Wang & Baker, 1986). For example, The National Research Center on Learning Disabilities found that graduation rates of all students with disabilities in the U.S. increased by 14% from 1984 to 1997, although the study does not differentiate between students enrolled in inclusive or segregated programs (IDEA Funding Coalition, 2006). Reviews of research by Wang and Baker (1986) and Madden and Slavin (1983) found integrated settings, when implemented properly were more effective in helping students with disabilities achieve both academically and socially while avoiding negative effects (e.g., lower self-esteem, less confidence, and lack of motivation) that often had been associated with isolation in noninclusive settings.

Simple things such as talking with friends in class, playing together on the playground, chatting over lunch, getting ready to go home, and sharing excitement of assemblies and other school-wide functions seemed to be more difficult to plan when

children with disabilities were separated from peers without disabilities (Ferguson, 1995). A critical reason was the fact that empirical research (Brown, et al., 1989; Falvey & Rosenberg, 1995; Ferguson, 1995; Snell, 1991; Stainback & Stainback, 1990; Strully & Strully, 1996) showed a separate, dual system of special education (mostly self-contained) and general education were relatively ineffective and inefficient. For example, reviews of research by Wang and Baker (1986) and Madden and Slavin (1983) found integrated settings (when implemented properly) were more effective in helping students with disabilities achieve both academically and socially while avoiding negative effects (e.g., lower self-esteem, less confidence, lack of motivation) that often had been associated with segregation.

Similarly, Lipsky and Gartner (1998) reviewed several individual studies, as well as reports from the U.S. Department of Education, and found graduation rates, post-secondary education, employment, and residential independence were significantly lower for children with disabilities (most of whom were in segregated programs) compared to children without disabilities. More recently, research has shown that individualized and even unique instructional techniques can effectively be carried out within the general education setting (Billingsley & Kelly, 1994; Hunt, Staub, Alwel, & Goetz, 1994; Janney & Snell, 1997; Logan & Keefe, 1997). It seemed that separating children with disabilities for educational purposes while well intentioned, was not effective or necessary.

Specialized instruction. Access to a special education classroom, often called a *resource room* is valuable to the student with a disability. Students have the ability to work one-on-one with special education teachers, addressing any need for remediation during the school day. After attending these classes, students go to other academic classes

with nondisabled peers. Many parents have advocated the importance of these classrooms amongst political environments that expound the disintegration of them.

Higher self-esteem. By being included in a general-paced education setting, students with disabilities have shown to be more confident and display qualities of raised self-efficacy (Schleien & Heyne, 1997). All students in California who went to a different school prior to attending a mainstreaming program were asked to fill out an assessment of their old school as compared to inclusion program. The assessments showed that out of all students with disabilities 96% felt they were more confident, 3% thought they had the same experience as an excluded student, and 1% felt they had less self-esteem. Overall, students believed that they were equal to their peers and that they should not be treated any differently (National Research Center on Learning Disabilities, 2007).

Improved social skills. Research that examined the effect of inclusive education on students without disabilities showed improvements in their ability to make friends with disabled students, social skills, self-esteem, personal principles, patience, and comfort level with people who are different (Staub, 1996). Any kind of inclusion practice, including mainstreaming allowed students with disabilities to learn social skills through observation, gained a better understanding of the world around them, and became a part of the general community (Schattman & Benay, 1992; Slavin & Madden, 1983).

Baker, Wang and Walberg (1995) noted that special education students involved in inclusionary teams made small and moderate gains in academic and social settings. Schattman and Benay (1992) found that special education students in an inclusionary setting are exposed to talented teachers, refine new social relationships with the same-age peer group, and experience more quality programs in a regular education classroom. Stainback and Stainback (1990) concluded that inclusion is an appropriate instructional

model because students with disabilities are accepted and supported by their peers and other members of the school community while having their educational needs met.

Inclusion is particularly beneficial for children with autism. By interacting with same-aged average children, children with autism were observed to be six times more likely to engage in social relations outside of the classroom (Wolfberg & Schuler, 1999). Children with autism spectrum disorders have severely restricted interests and abnormalities in communication and social interaction (Tidmarsh & Volkmar, 2003) and increased interaction with children in general education classrooms may be beneficial to them.

The same 1999 study showed that students with Down's syndrome were three times more likely to communicate with other people. Mainstreaming also benefited other children. It opened the lines of communication between those students with disabilities and their peers. If they were included into classroom activities, all students became more sensitive to the fact that these students may need extra assistance.

Although many benefits for students with and without disabilities in inclusion programs had been cited, there were also many disadvantages to inclusion programs cited in the literature. Staff development in the areas of inclusion and collaborative teaching were essential to developing an inclusion program that meets the needs of both students and teachers (Bradley et al, 1997). In a recent study special education teachers, general education teachers, and administrators agreed that general education teachers were not prepared to meet the needs of students with disabilities (Daane, Beirne-Smith, & Latham, 2000). According to these researchers, this problem reflected the nature of most general education teacher preparation programs, which usually require only one course in special education.

Benefits to nondisabled students. Many people believe that educating nondisabled students and students with disabilities together creates an atmosphere of understanding and tolerance that better prepares students of all abilities to function in the world beyond school. Students without disabilities who engaged in an inclusive physical education program reported increases in self-concept, tolerance, self worth, and a better understanding of other people (Suomi, Collier, & Brown, 2003). Students also reported that the inclusion program was important because it prepared them to deal with disability in their own lives (Block, 1999). Positive aspects that come from inclusion are often attributed to contact theory (Lieberman, James, & Ludwa, 2004). Contact theory asserted that frequent, meaningful, and pleasant interactions between people with differences tended to produce changes in attitude (Chu & Griffey, 1985).

Kochhar, West, and Taymans (2000) contended that general education students also benefit from inclusion. For these students, inclusion: (a) offers the advantage of having an extra teacher or aide to help them with the development of their own skills; (b) leads to greater acceptance of students with disabilities; (c) facilitates understanding that students with disabilities are not always easily identified; and (d) promotes better understanding of the similarities among students with and without disabilities.

Research appeared to support many of these claims. Walther-Thomas, Bryant, and Land (1996) found benefits for both special and general education students in a three-year study of elementary inclusive settings where co-teaching was practiced. Improvements in social skills for special education and low-achieving students were found, and all students were reported to have developed a new appreciation of their own skills and accomplishments

Students with disabilities are required to have an Individualized Education Plan (IEP). The IEP lists recommendations that must be used with the special needs student to increase the chances of him or her being successful (Bradley et al, 1997). These recommendations may include, but are not limited to, modifications in workload, teaching methods, and evaluation methods. When inclusion programs are implemented and general education teachers lack the needed training, special needs students usually do not receive the accommodations and individualized instruction their IEP mandates (Aefsky, 1995). When this is the case, students may receive an education that is inferior to that offered in the special education classroom (Aefsky).

Leyser and Tappendorf (2001) found that teachers in inclusive programs still relied on teaching strategies that were geared toward large groups of students. Individually focused teaching accommodations that could be used to enhance the success of special needs were not frequently used.

Inclusion programs required the placement of students with emotional and behavior disorders in the general classroom. Long (1995) contended that along with these students comes their growing legal rights which are supported by courts in most cases. Schools should provide means of handling students who are labeled emotionally disturbed and behave in aggressive and disruptive ways. This rationale argument placed inclusion in direct contradiction with national trends such as safer schools, violence-free schools, and zero tolerance (Long).

Implementing an inclusion program. Children with disabilities must be considered as general education students first. Under No Child Left Behind (NCLB), States are responsible for implementing a single accountability system for all students based on strong academic standards for what every child should know and learn,

including children with disabilities. IDEA must incorporate the NCLB principles of assessment for children receiving special education and align with NCLB accordingly to enhance state efforts to improve student achievement (Bradshaw, 2003).

Individuals with Disabilities Education Act should target federal education dollars to implement research-based practices that have been proven to help students with disabilities learn. Half of the more than 6 million children currently served under IDEA have learning disabilities and about 90% of them exhibit reading difficulties as their primary demonstration of their specific learning disability. IDEA should ensure the revision of outdated regulations that result in the misidentification of students as having disabilities because they did not receive appropriate instruction (in areas such as reading) in their early years. This hopefully helped schools focus on identification practices that promote earlier intervention, dramatically reducing the misidentification of students with learning disabilities (Bradshaw, 2003).

Beliefs held by teachers and administrators about inclusion and teaching practices influenced the way inclusion is implemented (Lieber, Capell, Sandall, Wolfberg, Horn, & Beckman, 1998; Odom, 2002). Children with disabilities must be considered as general education students first. Under No Child Left Behind (NCLB), states are responsible for implementing a single accountability system for all students based on strong academic standards for what every child should know and learn, including children with disabilities. IDEA must incorporate the NCLB principles of assessment for children receiving special education and align with NCLB accordingly to enhance state efforts to improve student achievement (Bradshaw, 2003).

Consistent with those principles, IDEA should ensure that students with disabilities have access to and make progress in the general curriculum, and are

appropriately included in state accountability systems. IDEA must move from a culture of compliance with process to a culture of accountability for results. Consequently, IDEA eligibility and compliance paperwork requirements at the federal level must be streamlined and focused on improving results for students with disabilities. In return for that rigorous accountability, states and localities received significant annual increases in IDEA funding. This funding would be on a discretionary basis (Bradshaw, 2003).

Implementation stages. One of the most difficult challenges that schools undertake in implementing inclusion is changing to accommodate students with disabilities (Fullan & Stiegelbauer, 1991 ; Sarason, 1990). Numerous changes are required. Frustration and anxiety are great. But the benefits for teachers, administrators, parents, and most importantly, students are well worth it. There are three stages in developing and implementing inclusive programs: (a) addressing teacher beliefs and values; (b) careful planning, and (c) actual implementation and maintenance of the inclusive program. These stages are not necessarily sequential; that is, students do not have to master a step before moving on to the next. However, they are intimately interrelated and influence one another greatly.

Addressing teacher beliefs and values about inclusion. McLeskey and Waldron (1996) noted that the first stage is addressing teacher beliefs and values concerning inclusive schooling. They found that the beliefs of many teachers about students, about how schools should be organized, and about the value of educating students with disabilities are critical factors that must be examined, reflected on, and changed if inclusion programs are to be effective. It is worth it to go through all the anxiety of changing how teachers conduct their daily professional activities for a group of students with disabilities. Teachers modified curricula, instruction, and grading for students with

disabilities. Teachers believe that students with disabilities should be cured before returning to the general education classroom. Teachers have different expectations and standards for success for different students. Teachers understand the use of normalization as a guiding theme for inclusion. These statements should be researched to determine their validity.

Topics such as these must be addressed as teachers begin to develop an inclusive program for schools. McLeskey and Waldron (1996) found that the single best method for dealing with many of these considerations is to have teachers visit a good inclusive school program, observe in classrooms, and discuss with teachers in the host school the beliefs and values that guide their program.

Careful planning. The second stage in developing a good inclusion program is careful planning. McLeskey and Waldron (1996) found that such planning often takes a full year and entails extensive meetings, discussions, staff development, visits to good inclusion sites, detailed analysis of the local school (e.g., resources available, attitudes of teachers, willingness of teachers to participate), and a variety of other activities on the part of school faculty members and administrators. Furthermore, program planning and development are carried out on a school-by-school basis. As was previously noted, there are no models or other shortcuts for developing good inclusive school programs.

Actual implementation and maintenance of the inclusive program. The third stage is the actual implementation and maintenance of the inclusive program. This stage is the most difficult and results in the highest levels of frustration and anxiety for school personnel. The frustration and anxiety spring, in large part, from the many changes in role and function that is required of all teachers who are involved in inclusive school programs. In addition, as the program is implemented, teachers quickly realize that

changes will be ongoing as they modify the program to better meet the shifting needs of students and faculty members. Teachers and administrators at this stage require continuing time for joint planning, whether with an entire team (e.g., a team of primary-level teachers) or with one other colleague (e.g., a co-teacher). Planning time provides the opportunity for educators to continue to adapt their work in progress as they carefully plan changes and improvements (McLeskey & Waldron, 1996).

Cultural challenges. Boards of Education and school districts should ensure that the school's leadership is committed to implementing diversity and inclusion strategies. It is paramount that the leadership of schools initiates and leads the diversity and inclusion programs. It is much more difficult and highly unlikely that teacher-driven programs succeeded. Usually, teachers do not have the authority to implement, maintain, and support resources required to implement a successful diversity and inclusion program. Visible leadership involvement gives credibility to diversity programs and helps to win the commitment of teachers and the community (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services Administration for Youth and Families, 1994).

Principals may use a facilitator to help staff and board members think about the school's mission and the cultural context in which it operates. They can establish a school team for diversity and inclusion and set up a committee with the responsibility for maintaining the school's focus on cultural competence. A representative from each program or department should be appointed to this committee and participation should be rotated every 12 to 24 months. This team should provide feedback for school, program, staffing, and policy decisions (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services Administration for Youth and Families, 1994).

Human resources challenges. Co-teaching is typically perceived as two educational professionals working together to service a group of heterogeneous learners. The most common team of educators found to engage in co-teaching relationships is general education and special education teachers. These teachers come together for a common purpose, typically to meet a wide range of learners more effectively. The relationship may have a long-term agenda for working together for an entire academic year or short-term agendas such as completing a unit together or preparing students for some specific skills (e.g., state testing, science project). A barrier that exists across all grade levels is finding time to plan (Dieker, 2005).

For middle school general education and special education teachers, the primary issue is making sure that true collaboration is occurring between content area teachers and special educators. In many middle schools, the special educators are a team and content teachers are a team. In a strong, co-taught middle school setting, special educators are assigned, typically by grade level to be a member of the interdisciplinary team. At this level, as is true at all levels, students with disabilities who are included in a co-taught setting must feel positive about themselves. Some ideas to address this might be to have a resource period once a day in which students are given a 5-minute overview of the content they were learning the next day. For students at this level, positive self-esteem is critical, and helping students feel like they are ahead of their class instead of behind their peers can be helpful (Dieker, 2005).

As with any teaching technique, teachers' skills are as important, if not more important than the technique. However, in co-teaching there are at a minimum, three critical issues that teams should address prior to starting the process: (a) planning, (b) disposition, and (c) evaluation.

Planning. Co-teaching teams need time to plan and a commitment to the planning process. If one teacher shows up on time and the other always arrives late, then this lack of commitment can hinder the teaming process. At a minimum, teams need 10 minutes per lesson (Dieker, 2005) to plan. This figure was gathered from teams not in their first year of teaming. Therefore, in the first year, additional time for planning may be needed. Teams should not start their planning period with specific issues about children (e.g. the latest stunt a student pulled today), but they must concentrate on planning a lesson for the entire class. Specific issues concerning children should be addressed throughout the planning process or after the lesson planning is completed (Dieker, 2005).

Disposition. The philosophy of the two teachers working together is important to consider. If one teacher believes all students should be included and appropriate accommodations are essential, while the other believes that having high standards means treating all students the same, these differences can greatly hinder the co-teaching process. Before starting the co-teaching process, discussing your perspectives on issues such as fairness, grading, behavior management, and philosophy of teaching are important in order to become an effective team (Dieker, 2005).

Evaluation. Dieker (2005) reported that evaluation is one area that is lacking in many individual classrooms and in many schools which have adopted a co-teaching approach. If co-teaching is happening school-wide, then a systematic method should be used to evaluate both teacher satisfaction and student learning with this model. If teachers are working in a team setting, then at least every 4 weeks, they should set aside a few minutes to discuss two critical questions: "Is how we are co-teaching meeting the needs of both teachers?" For example, is the special educator meeting individual students'

needs, and is the content teacher meeting local and state standards? Most importantly, “Is what we are doing the best for all students including students with disabilities?”

If the co-teaching process is only beneficial for a student with a disability to gain social skills, yet everyone else cannot learn because of disruptions or because the curriculum is being modified for everyone, then these teachers must talk about this issue and how to more effectively address a student’s needs and still ensure the entire class is learning. If such issues arise, it does not necessarily mean that co-teaching should not continue, but modifications and adjustments should be an expected part of the co-teaching process (Dieker, 2005).

Structural challenges. Accommodations to the school building for students with disabilities are required under ADA, NCLB, and IDEA. There may also be state laws and local district policies that apply, not to mention building codes. There must be a wheelchair accessible location (elevators, wide hallways, lowered fountains and phones, ramps, accessible rest rooms). Equipment is available in wheelchair-accessible areas. Materials and supplies should be within easy reach. There should be reserved, accessible parking and loading/unloading areas. Accessible classrooms include access to the room by a walkway, ramp, or elevator. Location of classrooms includes selection of rooms near toilet facilities, the cafeteria, and exits might be an important consideration for some students. Appropriate furniture means there is a range of considerations for students, including special desks, tables, standing tables, and others (Price et al., 2001).

Services needed by students with disabilities must be available (e.g., health, physical, occupational, or speech therapy). Accommodations to the physical plant and equipment should be adequate to meet the student’s needs (e.g., toys, building and playground facilities, learning materials, assistive devices). Classrooms that successfully

include students with disabilities should be designed to welcome diversity and to address the individual needs of all students, whether they have disabilities or not (ERIC Clearinghouse on Disabilities and Gifted Education, 1993).

Four federal legislative acts pertain to facilities: PL 94-142, Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, PL 99-457, and PL 101-336. Although PL 94-142 did not specifically mention or deal with facilities, its basic intent to require accessibility to programs. The regulations implementing Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1977 are also explicit in their relationship to facilities. A major subsection of the regulations focuses on program accessibility (Federal Register, 1977). This means that school buildings as well as instruction must be accessible to students to such an extent that the programs required for students are accessible (Price et al., 2001).

While Section 504 regulations do not require that every classroom or school building be accessible, the specific educational programs that are appropriate for students must be accessible, and under inclusion this means all classrooms and not just those for special education. For construction started after the implementation date of Section 504 (1977), regulations require that it be designed so as to make all or part of the facility accessible to students. In designing new construction, recipients are required to comply with accessibility standards of the American National Standards Institute (Sec. C, 84.23). The Education of the Handicapped Act Amendments of 1986 (P.L. 99-457, 1986) passed in 1986 was an amendment to the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 (P.L. 94-142, 1975). This law lowered the age of mandatory services for students with disabilities to ages 3-5 years, so there may be implications for classroom space and design (Price et al., 2001).

The Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA, P.L. 101-336, 1990) was passed in 1990. Title I of the Act addresses reasonable accommodations and essential functions. Title III addresses readily achievable accommodations, reasonable modifications, and provision of auxiliary aids and services. The 1990 Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) guarantees that all children with disabilities have available to them, which was a free appropriate public education which emphasizes special education and related services designed to meet their needs. One change that may have implications is expansion of the definition of special education to include instruction conducted in the classroom, in the home, in hospitals and institutions, and in other settings; and instruction in physical education. The implication may be that classroom instruction that does not meet the needs of included children may be questioned, including the environment and instructional methods of the teacher. For example, if noise in the classroom is a serious problem for some learners, schools may be forced to renovate classrooms to reduce noise and otherwise improve the conditions of learning. The special needs of students may imply the soundproofing of walls and use of carpet and other floorings and acoustical ceiling tiles to reduce extraneous noises that might prove distracting or interfering (Price et al., 2001).

Training involved. Public school systems require that teachers meet certification standards established by their states. These standards usually include specialized coursework, a college degree, and supervised practicum or student teaching. In these programs, staff may have less pre-service college preparation, with training more often occurring through high school programs, and community colleges (Wolery, Anthony, Snyder, Werts, & Katzenmeyer, 1997).

In addition to differences in training, teachers in public schools make higher salaries than teachers in community-based preschools and Head Start. Such training and salary differences sometimes lead to conflicts when early childhood education and special education teachers attempt to collaborate to provide services in inclusive settings (Odom, 2002).

Since the mid-1980s, the U.S. Department of Education, Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services (OSERS) stressed the importance of improving transition services nationally. The federal government has assumed a key role in stimulating state and local efforts to improve transition services through a variety of policy, interagency, systems change, model demonstration, and research efforts. Specific language on transition was included in the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act of 1990 (IDEA), and again in IDEA Amendments of 1997 (IDEA, 1997).

From this federal legislation, regulations were established requiring state and local education agencies specifically to address the school and post-school transition service needs of students with disabilities. These needs are to be met through coordinated planning among special educators, general educators, community service agencies, parents, and students. Much of the rationale for establishing these new provisions was based on the recognition that many young adults with disabilities were exiting high school unprepared for adult life (IDEA, 1997).

Follow-up studies of former students with disabilities conducted during the past two decades consistently documented the unsatisfactory outcomes achieved by young adults with disabilities as they left school and attempted to access employment, postsecondary education programs, and adult community services (DeStefano & Wagner, 1991; Halpern, 1990; Hasazi, Gordon, & Roe, 1985; Johnson, McGrew, Bloomberg,

Bruininks, & Lin, 1997a, 1997b; Wagner, 1993). Predominant themes emerging from these and other studies included lower than desired academic achievement levels, high dropout rates, substantial levels of unemployment and underemployment, economic instability, dependence, and social isolation, and low levels of participation in postsecondary education and training programs.

For two decades, the Office of Special Education Programs (OSEP) sponsored transition research, demonstration, and training initiatives that resulted in a knowledge base of promising approaches and strategies for the delivery of transition services for students with disabilities. Advances and innovations in interagency cooperation, access to postsecondary education and training, supported employment, transition planning, student and parental involvement in school and post-school decision making, development of adult living skills, and self-determination and self-advocacy were all valued examples of previous and current efforts. These varied approaches and strategies served as the foundation upon which state and local education agencies, in partnership with community service agencies, parents, and students based the development of transition programs and services (IDEA, 1997).

Scheduling involved. Sailor, Gee, and Karasoff (1993) listed planning, assessment, instructional strategies, scheduling, peer networks, community involvement, team coordination, and evaluation of student programs as major components of inclusion. Nickisch (1992) identified involvement of parents, involvement of parental organizations, and rapport of staff, frequent meetings, peer mentoring, classroom integration, use of a *buddy* system, and communication with the community. York, Doyle, and Kronberg (1992) recommended a brainstorming approach to planning: planning transition, determining needs in context, envisioning a desirable future, and implementation.

Scheduling is one of the most important factors influencing the quality of the students' learning experiences. Ford et al. (1994) identified guidelines for scheduling. They emphasized taking advantage of natural times to provide instruction. There were many obvious natural teaching times across the day (e.g., eating skills at lunch) to teach specific skills with natural cues and consequences. There were many spontaneous teaching moments which have the potential to be just as valuable as those that are scheduled (Ford et al.).

Scheduling ample time for targeted instruction is important. It is confusing for students when they are expected to complete an activity or perform independently one day and not the next. Adequate time for instructional activities should be scheduled to facilitate independence and completion of a task that fits a routine (Price et al., 2001).

Consistency of staff to student assignments over time for specific activities is important. Students need to interact with a variety of students and adults; however, consistency is important when teaching certain skills (e.g., different ways to tie shoes; it is confusing to the student if he/she is shown several different techniques in the initial learning stage). This does not mean he/she should spend most of the time with one particular adult, but means that specific adults may be responsible for specific skill instruction (Price et al., 2001). Daily social routines are of value to the development of peer relationships and modeling of appropriate social skills. Opportunities for this type of interaction occur at arrival, such as recess, homeroom, transitions, and lunch (Price et al., 2001).

How students interact with one another, or their social relationships, has been neglected in instructional models where the emphasis is on controlling behavior and teacher domination of the classroom. Teachers may arrange appropriate interactions

between students and materials but be much less confident about arranging student-to-student interactions. How teachers structure student-student interaction patterns has a lot to do with how well students learn, how they feel about school and teachers, how they feel about each other, and self-esteem. The basic ways students can interact with each other as they learn or compete to see who is best, work individually toward goals without paying attention to other students, or they can work cooperatively with vested interest in each other's learning (Price et al., 2001).

Maintaining an inclusion program. IDEA guarantees the availability of a free appropriate public education for children with disabilities. Yet the law itself often hampers effective education by requiring vast amounts of paperwork and substantial procedural requirements for teachers and administrators. IDEA should be simplified and unnecessary paperwork eliminated by focusing on results. This increased the time spent by teachers on teaching and minimize time currently spent on procedural and non-instructional tasks while still preserving the fundamental rights of students with disabilities. States should be allowed to submit plans to the Department to streamline and simplify paperwork while demonstrating compliance (Bradshaw, 2003).

IDEA should target federal education dollars to implement research-based practices that have been proven to help students with disabilities learn. Half of the more than 6 million children currently served under IDEA have learning disabilities and about 90% of them exhibit reading difficulties as their primary demonstration of their specific learning disability. IDEA should ensure the revision of outdated regulations that result in the misidentification of students as having disabilities because they did not receive appropriate instruction (in areas such as reading) in their early years. This helped schools

focus on identification practices that promote earlier intervention, dramatically reducing the misidentification of students with learning disabilities (Bradshaw, 2003).

More broadly, IDEA should ensure that schools, local education agencies, state education agencies and the Federal Department of Education quickly adopt research and evidence-based practices. The Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services (OSERS) research and training activities should be aligned with the work of the Department's Institute of Education Sciences. Additionally, information should be provided to families and teachers on effective programs based on rigorous research, including requiring the federally funded parent training centers to educate parents about effective research that improves results for students with disabilities. IDEA should also reflect the research principles outlined by the President's Commission on Excellence in Special Education while adhering to the standards for high quality research established by the Education Sciences Reform Act of 2002 (Bradshaw, 2003).

Highly functioning inclusion programs. Inclusion programs differ from school to school, depending on strengths and weaknesses of the faculty members, characteristics of the student population, resources available in the school setting, degree of administrative support for inclusion, and a plethora of other factors. This perspective respects the professionalism of teachers and administrators and assumes that they should be key participants in developing and implementing schools' inclusive programs (McLeskey & Waldron, 1996).

McLeskey and Waldron (1996) used four criteria to judge inclusive programs. First, a good inclusion program is one in which students with disabilities make at least as much academic and social progress as they would in a separate classroom. Second, good inclusion is reflected in academic and social progress for typical students; progress that is

at least as great as these students would make in noninclusive classrooms. Third, good inclusion ensures that teachers are supported as they make the necessary classroom adaptations to meet student needs and that they are actively involved in determining the form of this support. These criteria should be reflected in widespread teacher support for the inclusion program once it has been implemented. Finally, good inclusion programs reflect the concept of normalization; that is, the rhythm of the day for students with disabilities is as similar as possible to the rhythm of the day for typical students.

Successes of inclusion programs. Meeting the needs of students with disabilities in the general education classroom is one of the educational options that are receiving increasing attention. Years of research have contributed to the knowledge base of how to successfully include students with disabilities in general education classes such as activities and support systems commonly found where successful inclusion has occurred: (a) attitudes and beliefs; (b) services and physical accommodations; (c) school support; (d) collaboration; and (e) instructional methods (ERIC Clearinghouse on Disabilities and Gifted Education [ERIC], 1993).

Attitudes and beliefs. The general education teacher believes that the student can succeed. School personnel are committed to accepting responsibility for the learning outcomes of students with disabilities. School personnel and the students in the class have been prepared to receive a student with disabilities. Parents are informed and support program goals. Special education staff is committed to collaborative practice in general education classrooms (ERIC Clearinghouse on Disabilities and Gifted Education [ERIC], 1993).

Services and physical accommodations. Services needed by the student are available (e.g., health, physical, occupational, or speech therapy). Accommodations to the

physical plant and equipment are adequate to meet the student's needs (e.g., toys, building and playground facilities, learning materials, assistive devices; ERIC, 1993).

School support. The principal understands the needs of students with disabilities.

Adequate numbers of personnel, including aides and support personnel are available.

Adequate staff development and technical assistance, based on the needs of the school personnel, are being provided (e.g., information on disabilities, instructional methods, and awareness and acceptance activities for students, and team-building skills).

Appropriate policies and procedures for monitoring individual student progress, including grading and testing, are in place (ERIC, 1993).

Collaboration. The most important factor in making inclusion succeed is the ability of personnel to work together (teamwork), but public education is not prepared to foster cooperation among teachers. Principals do not ordinarily provide the necessary leadership, or are not permitted to, and higher education has not prepared principals and teachers to understand and accept new roles based on cooperation (ERIC, 1993).

In fact, most universities are strictly organized around traditions of the bureaucracy, so it is difficult to implement changes based on principles of teamwork they do not, themselves, practice nor understand. Special educators are part of the instructional or planning team. Teaming approaches are used for problem-solving and program implementation. Regular teachers, special education teachers, and other specialists collaborate (e.g., co-teaching, team teaching, teacher assistance teams; ERIC, 1993).

Instructional methods. Teachers have the knowledge and skills needed to select and adapt curricula and instructional methods according to individual student needs. A variety of instructional arrangements are available (e.g., team teaching, cross-grade

grouping, peer tutoring, and teacher assistance teams). Teachers foster a cooperative learning environment and promote socialization (ERIC, 1993).

Teachers must be prepared at the preservice and inservice levels to deal effectively with the challenges of inclusion. Training that clearly addresses concerns of regular classroom teachers reduced resistance to inclusion. The major barrier may be attitudinal, which can only be altered by successful practice. Skills of teachers, alone, are not sufficient. All aspects of school organization must be carefully planned for inclusion to succeed, including the curriculum, facilities, support services, collaboration, and parental involvement (ERIC, 1993).

Teachers must be able to work collegially in settings that have traditionally held teachers in professional isolation (Lortie, 1975). A consistent characteristic of effective schools is that teachers in these schools are not isolated; they work cooperatively with other teachers, counselors, school psychologists, library/media specialists and administrators to provide meaningful instructional and support services for students and, thus, further the academic performance of the school (Lortie).

What schools need are teachers who make reflective decisions regarding curricula, instruction, and matters of governance that are appropriate to the context at hand, rather than mechanically implement programs and curricula—teachers who maintained the purpose of education in mind rather than merely carrying out the processes of a prescribed curriculum (Duckworth & Carnine, 1987).

Teachers who share the same classrooms or work closely in some other collaborative relationship must have training and agree about several issues in order for inclusion to be effective: student assessment, classroom resource management, curriculum design and implementation, integration opportunities, social problem solving

curriculum, behavior management, working with parents, and managing education support staff (ERIC, 1993).

Failures of inclusion programs. During the past three decades, numerous articles, literature reviews, and books have addressed the effectiveness of separate class placements for students with disabilities; most often mild disabilities such as mild mental retardation and learning disabilities (Baker, Wang, & Walberg, 1995; Epps & Tindal, 1987; Goldstein, Moss, & Jordan, 1965; Johnson, 1961; Madden & Slavin, 1983). The primary question posed is: When compared to placement in general education classrooms, do separate class placements improve the academic and social progress of students with disabilities? Intuitively, it would seem that taking a student with a disability out of a general education classroom, placing the student with a small and homogeneous group of students in a less distracting setting, reducing the teacher/student ratio, and providing individualized instruction would be beneficial.

However, in contrast to what one might expect, the vast majority of available research has failed to demonstrate the effectiveness of individualized, self-contained programs (Baker, Wang, & Walberg, 1995; Epps & Tindal, 1987; Madden & Slavin, 1983). Probably the most obvious reason that separate class programs have failed is that these programs have not met the high standards that have been set by those who have described the ideal program (Haynes & Jenkins, 1986; McGill-Franzen & Allington, 1991; Pugach & Warger, 1993; Smith, 1990; Wesson & Deno, 1989).

For example, it has proved very difficult to individualize or differentiate instruction for students in these separate class programs (Haynes & Jenkins, 1986; Smith, 1990; Wesson & Deno, 1989). Furthermore, curriculum offered by special education often lacks coherence, consisting instead of disjointed activities that are used to develop

basic literacy and numeracy skills; it often does not focus on higher-level cognitive skills; and it often lacks the richness of the general education curriculum (Pugach & Warger, 1993; Smith, 1990). Finally, the curriculum offered in separate special education classes is usually not coordinated with or supportive of the general education curriculum (McGill-Franzen & Allington, 1991; Pugach & Warger, 1993).

Several examples provide learning environments for students with disabilities. First, for example, a student who has a reading problem is identified as having a learning disability. He or she is pulled out of his or her general education classroom during morning language arts for small-group instruction in reading in a separate, special education classroom. Placed in this separate classroom at the same time are five other students from grades 4 to 6, all of whom are at different reading and language levels. As it may seem, the child is not receiving additional instruction in language arts. Rather, the special class instruction is provided in the general education classroom (McLeskey & Waldron, 1996).

Second, it is likely that the teacher in the special education classroom use materials and methods that differ significantly from those being used in the general education classroom. For example, the teacher in the general education classroom may be using a whole language approach to instruction, while the teacher of students with disabilities uses a highly structured, skills-based approach. Third, a student with a reading problem is typically placed in the general education classroom with others who may have the same type of problem. Perhaps none of these students exhibit much enthusiasm for reading. Indeed, they may become quite frustrated when they are asked to read. In this setting, good role models for reading are those students who attend well, enjoy reading, and read for pleasure. Some of the students in the special education classroom may also

exhibit behavior problems because of their frustration at not learning to read, while others may be inattentive and have difficulty concentrating on the reading content at hand.

These are the behaviors, rather than good reading behaviors that their peers are likely to learn from them that are found in self-contained resource classrooms (McLeskey & Waldron, 1996).

Many of the teachers that McLeskey and Waldron (1996) interviewed shared the frustration felt when they began teaching in inclusive programs and realized that they had expected far too little of the students they had taught in separate special education classrooms (Waldron, 1994). These teachers noted that they had lost perspective by always working with students with problems and did not have a realistic idea of what a typical general education student could and should achieve. Once students with disabilities and teachers were in general education classrooms, teachers significantly increased their expectations of them.

With all these factors in mind, it should become obvious why research has most often failed to support the effectiveness of separate class placements for students with disabilities. These disappointing results have occurred in spite of many years of intensive effort on the part of professionals to develop model programs and instructional materials for these settings. Recent evidence reveals that effective inclusive school programs can be developed as classrooms and schools are restructured to better meet student needs (Affleck, Madge, Adams, & Lowenbraun, 1988; Banerji & Dailey, 1995; Bear & Proctor, 1990; Waldron, 1991; Zigmond et al., 1995). However, evidence was found that demonstrated some poor examples of inclusive school programs implemented. Students with disabilities were returned to general education classrooms with little planning,

minimal changes in the classroom, and insufficient support for the general education teacher (Baines & Baines with Masterson, 1994; Shanker, 1995).

One of the primary goals of inclusion is to allow teachers in general education classrooms to better meet the needs of students with and without disabilities. Meeting the needs of all students most likely included not only students with disabilities but also slow learners. In addition, students who are perceived to be at risk of school failure, students who learn the curricular material quickly and become bored, and students with attention deficit problems more than likely were included. Improved instruction, a curriculum that is more child-centered, collaboration with other teachers to address student problems, and a range of other features of inclusive classrooms should allow this objective to be met (McLeskey & Waldron, 1996).

Research evidence indicated that, in successful inclusion programs, the academic and social attainments of typical students are at least equal to, if not greater than, those of similar students who are in noninclusive settings (Bear & Proctor, 1990; Waldron, 1992). Furthermore, interviews conducted with teachers in inclusive programs indicated that one of the greatest strengths of these programs is the benefits that accrue to students who are not eligible for special education services, especially students who have difficulty in class but also do not meet criteria of the eligibility system for special education (e.g., a student who is behind in reading, but not far enough behind to be labeled with a learning disability; Waldron, 1994).

Educators have begun to use the term *full inclusion* as a guiding theme or goal as they develop inclusive school programs. This concept implies that the purpose of inclusion is to include all students for all of the school day in every school setting, preschool through high school. The movement for full inclusion has been criticized for

concentrating on the place in which students are educated at the expense of their individual needs and the quality of the education they receive (Fuchs & Fuchs, 1994).

McLeskey and Waldron (1996) found that a better guiding theme for developing inclusive school programs is the concept of *normalization*. Normalization means that students with disabilities were given the opportunity to live their lives in a manner that is as typical or normal as possible (Biklen, 1985; Kugel & Wolfensberger, 1969). This objective means that schools should prepare students with disabilities to live their lives as independently as possible, in as typical a setting as possible. Furthermore, normalization suggests what is called *rhythm of the school day* for students with disabilities should be as similar as possible to what is experienced by typical students (Schwartz, 1991).

An example of this principle in a school setting helped to clarify how it was applied. In an inclusive 8th-grade classroom, a classroom teacher and a teacher of students with disabilities were teaming to teach mathematics. As the class was reviewing mathematics problems prior to a test, the teacher of students with disabilities was going over the material with the class, while the classroom teacher was drifting around the room to respond to questions and to keep students on task. At the end of the review session, the teacher of students with disabilities asked all the students if they would like to have the test read to them. Approximately one half of the students in the class including students with disabilities and students who were not labeled raised their hands and subsequently left the classroom to have the test read, while the other students remained in the general education classroom to complete the test (McLeskey & Waldron, 1996).

Two factors stand out in this setting with regard to normalization. First, neither of the teachers was readily as the special education teacher. Both general education teacher

and special education teacher shared roles, so they both worked with students with disabilities as well as with students without disabilities. Second, when the students were asked if they wanted to have the test read, everyone was given the option of leaving the classroom, not just students with disabilities. Thus, although some students were pulled out of the classroom, the concept of normalization was not violated, and the *rhythm of the school day* for all students was similar (McLeskey & Waldron, 1996).

There have been many studies that seem to reveal strong opposition to inclusion, especially on the part of classroom teachers (Coates, 1989; Semmel, Abernathy, Butera, & Lesar, 1991). However, it is important to keep in mind that the teachers surveyed in these studies were not involved in developing or implementing inclusive school programs. Teachers were asked to speculate about hypothetical situations. In effect, these teachers were asked if they would like to become involved in an ill-defined program that would require them to teach the students with the most significant learning and behavior problems in their school. Such a program would be difficult to design and implement and would result in many frustrating, anxiety-provoking changes in teachers' professional lives. Under such circumstances, it is quite understandable that teachers would oppose inclusion.

In contrast to these studies, McLeskey and Waldron (1996) suggested that others have explored teacher support for inclusion under more reasonable circumstances. For example, in a study by Brenda Myles and Richard Simpson, elementary teachers were initially given a description of a student with a mild learning, cognitive, or behavioral disability. They were then asked to select a classroom modification that would convince them to accept the student in their classrooms. Myles and Simpson found that about one-third of the respondents were willing to accept the student without any of the listed

modifications. In addition, 54% of the teachers were willing to accept the student with teacher-chosen modifications. Finally, the investigators found that 14% of the teachers would be unwilling to accept the students into their classes, even with modifications or support (Myles & Simpson, 1989). Similar findings resulted when a comparable investigation was conducted with middle-level educators (Pruitt, McLeskey, Wilcox, & Brush, 1995).

McLeskey and Waldron (1996) concluded that about two to three of every 10 teachers are supportive of inclusion that require very little convincing that inclusion is appropriate for students with disabilities. In addition, these teachers form the core group for initial program development. In addition, approximately five to six of every 10 teachers have reservations about inclusion but cooperated if the program was a good one that was presented to them in a clear manner and if they are involved in decision making regarding the program.

Finally, about of every 10 teachers seemed to oppose inclusion and often continue to oppose such programs even after they are developed and implemented. Some research revealed that 80% to 90% of teachers are supportive of inclusion, it is important to keep in mind that these numbers reflect teacher support for good inclusion programs, which are carefully developed and implemented (McLeskey & Waldron, 1996).

In contrast, many of those who are most strongly opposed to inclusion are teachers who have experienced attempts to implement bad inclusion programs. McLeskey and Waldron (1996) found that opposition to inclusion can approach 100% of teachers when the program is poorly implemented; that is, when teachers have little or no involvement in planning, when they are not supported in the general education classroom, or when inclusion is simply mandated. These authors invariably found that a good index

of the quality of an inclusion program is the level of teacher support. The vast majority of teachers are supportive of good inclusion programs, while the vast majority of teachers are opposed to bad inclusion programs, as they should be.

Supporting an inclusion program. When administrators support inclusion, some major administrative innovations can be implemented (Wolak, York, & Corbin, 1992), including personnel development, enrollment, pupil progress, and curricular variations. Personnel development can include important aspects, such as inservice training and release time to participate in planning activities. Administrative support fosters change in attitudes and behaviors of teachers. Enrollment procedures can be varied to aid integrated students. For example a change in policy could allow students to enroll for particular classes. Although all rooms may be accessible, some may be more conveniently located near exits and rest rooms, which could be of enormous benefit (Price et al., 2001).

While support for inclusive approaches to school improvement is evident in critical components of the current policy environment (Consortium on Inclusive Schooling Practices, 1996; Lipsky & Gartner, 1997), much remains to be known about the cultures, characteristics, and practices of settings in which this is actually occurring. With few exceptions (Fisher, Sax, & Grove, 2000; Keyes, Hanley-Maxwell, & Capper, 1999; Salisbury, Palombaro, & Hollowood, 1993), research about these issues has been implemented in settings in which the term *inclusion* describes approaches to education with school populations that are diverse in terms of ethnicity and race (Deering, 1996; Dei, James, Karumanchery, James-Wilson, & Zine, 2000) but not necessarily disability.

Regardless of the specific emphasis, the importance of the school leader in establishing and maintaining an ongoing focus on school improvement and support for change has been well established in theory and practice (Elmore, 1996; Fullan & Miles,

1992; Sergiovanni, 1992). Further, there is evidence of both the importance and complexity of the interrelationships between the principal's behavior, school climate, and school effectiveness (Hoy, Tarter, & Wiskowskie, 1992; Ouchi, 1981; Tarter & Hoy, 1988). Few empirical studies have been reported of perceptions of general education and special education teachers' perceptions of leadership responsibilities according to Marzano's 21 leadership responsibilities regarding implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusive schools (Hoy et al., 1992; Ouchi, 1981; Tarter & Hoy, 1988)..

To address this need, the current study was undertaken to better understand the leadership responsibilities of building principals who clearly articulate an agenda of school improvement that is inclusive of the needs of all students, including those with disabilities. By understanding leadership responsibilities from the perspective of general education and special education teachers, it may be possible to leverage this information for the benefit of other schools seeking to use inclusion as a whole school change strategy.

Barriers to effective implementation of inclusion. Barriers to effective implementation, maintenance, and support of inclusion for general education students and students with disabilities are: time, grading, student readiness, teacher readiness, and high stakes testing.

Time. The amount of time to plan, the time spent developing a school-wide support structure for co-teaching, the time spent to prepare the students, and the time teachers are given to develop a personal as well as a professional relationship can all greatly impact the co-teaching process. This statement does not mean that co-teaching has to take more time, but initially the time must be dedicated to create a school and classroom that support teaching teams as well as including students. Leadership must

either lead teachers in using this type of model or must empower teachers to develop their own skills. Critical to making this type of structure work school-wide is that the schedules of students with disabilities and co-taught teams should be created first, and then other activities must fill in around these important structures. No matter how creative, a limited amount of time or structure for this process can jeopardize the success of this model (Dieker, 2005).

Grading. Just as the time and structure must be determined and scheduled prior to the start of a co-teaching relationship, the same should hold true for grading. Co-teaching teams must determine prior to the start of the semester how they graded students with diverse learning needs in their classrooms. Other ideas for grading are provided below, but the most important variable to remember is to determine how students were evaluated prior to the start of the semester instead of at the end of the grading period (Dieker, 2005).

Student readiness. A decade ago many students with disabilities were not included into the general education curriculum. They were often pulled out and taught separate skills or curriculum. It is important to remember that simply including students into general education co-taught settings may not ensure their success. One of the struggles that teachers at upper grade levels must acknowledge is that many students with disabilities have received a disjointed education and may have large gaps in their knowledge base. Just as teachers take the time to prepare themselves for a co-teaching relationship, this same type of preparation may be needed to assist students with disabilities who were included in the class who have either academic or behavioral gaps compared to their peers (Dieker, 2005).

Teacher readiness. Even in the strongest schools with the strongest teachers, resistance to a co-teaching model can occur because teachers often are considered to be autonomous. The best way to address a school-wide co-teaching model is to let teachers know (preferably using a family model) that they were co-teaching next year. Then allowing teachers collective autonomy to design models or structures that worked for them but using collective accountability that these structures must show teachers should be allowed collective autonomy to design models or structures that worked for them, along with collective accountability which shows how they are using co-teaching to ensure all students are in their least restrictive environment and making strong achievement gains (Dieker, 2005).

High stakes testing. At the core for everyone at every grade level in every district is the issue of how co-teaching may impact testing. Clearly, evidence does not indicate a conclusive outcome for co-teaching, but with that said; some things are critical to consider in relation to the impact of co-teaching on standardized assessment. First, any initiative that is implemented must be done in a careful and planned manner to ensure the success of all students. For example, if 15 students with the same disability are placed into a classroom so that co-teaching can occur, how this impacted the other 12-15 students in that class?

Clearly, research indicated that heterogeneous learning communities are the most productive, yet many times when students with disabilities are included, this factor is quickly forgotten. Second, is the co-teaching model being implemented to raise students' test scores, as a cost saving attempt, or in some cases as a dumping model? If students with disabilities are included without sufficient supports, this is not only against the law but ensured failure of the co-teaching relationship. Third, is ongoing evaluation and data

being gathered that reflect the intent of the co-taught setting? Whether co-teaching is occurring at a classroom or school-wide level, data on behavioral, academic, and social skills of all students must be gathered and assessed on an ongoing basis. If this does not occur, then waiting until the local or state assessment indicates that students are failing is too late (Dieker, 2005).

Fourth, as data is assessed, school leaders need to look across the data and within the data. Are students in a specific quartile moving up for the first time? Over and over again students who are considered at-risk but do not qualify for special services talk about their feeling of success for the first time in co-taught settings. Finally, listen to the data and the students. Dieker (2005) found that students like co-taught classrooms, yet students with behavioral challenges often say they “get in trouble too much” or “do not like being double teamed.” In both of these cases, state or local assessments were not capture students’ perceptions; however, these are critical to consider in all classrooms, but especially important in co-taught settings.

Co-Teaching

Co-teaching has been used synonymously with collaboration, teaming, team teaching, and inclusion—and each of those terms is unique. It also has been used to describe both situations in which paraprofessionals work in the classroom and those in which special educators, speech-language therapists, or other professionals are the teaching partners. Each of these types of partnership is valuable, but they may not be the same. Co-teaching is a service delivery option and a means through which students with IEPs receive some or all of their specialized instruction and related services in the context of the general education classroom (Friend & Hurley-Chamberlain, 2007).

Two or more professionals with equivalent licensure or status are co-teachers, one who is a general educator and one who is a special educator or specialist (Friend & Hurley-Chamberlain, 2007). Both professionals participate fully, although differently, in the instructional process. General educators maintain primary responsibility for the content of the instruction; special educators hold primary responsibility for facilitating the learning process. Instruction employs evidence-based practices and accountability differentiation (Friend & Hurley-Chamberlain, 2007).

Students are heterogeneously grouped as a class, and both teachers work with all students. Various combinations of students and group sizes are used, so each student's educational potential is realized. Co-teachers are firmly committed to "our" students, not "yours" and "mine." Just as important as clarifying the characteristics of co-teaching is noting what it is not. It is not a general education classroom with one "real" teacher and one who serves as "the help" or "an extra set of hands." Nor is it a pullout special education program that has been re-located to the corner of a general education classroom (Friend & Hurley-Chamberlain, 2007).

Co-teaching has emerged as a very popular alternative to the more traditional resource room or pull-out special education service delivery models and as a way to support inclusion of students with disabilities in general education settings. Co-teaching draws on the strengths of both the general educator, who understands the structure, content, and pacing of the general education curriculum, and the special educator, who can identify unique learning needs of individual students and enhance curriculum and instruction to match these needs (Zigmond & Magiera, 2001).

According to its advocates, co-teaching is supposed to accomplish three goals. First, co-teaching is expected to make available to all students, including those with

disabilities, a wider range of instructional alternatives than would be possible with just one teacher. Second, co-teaching is expected to enhance the participation of students with disabilities as full classroom members.

Third, co-teaching is expected to improve performance outcomes for students with disabilities. In theory, when co-teaching is implemented, both educators are delivering substantive instruction, and the instruction from both teachers occurs within the confines of a single classroom. In practice, when co-teaching is implemented, the roles and responsibilities of the general and special education teacher vary widely (Zigmond & Magiera, 2001).

Co-teaching is most often recommended for students with high-incidence disabilities or students with mild mental retardation, behavior disorders, or learning disabilities with individualized education programs (IEPs), which call for adapted instruction in the general education curriculum. To accomplish this, the student with disabilities and his/her special education teacher are both integrated into the general education classroom and the two teachers share instructional responsibilities. Co-teaching has been implemented at all grade levels, but is most commonly encountered in elementary and middle schools (Zigmond & Magiera, 2001).

Types of Co-Teaching Models

A model of inclusion that has shown success is co-teaching. In this model the general education and special education teachers join together and teach all students in one class as partners. It is the view of Elliott and Mc Kenney (1998) that students must be included in a general education classroom in order to diminish the higher levels of stress brought on by a fully inclusive system. Since most special education services are

provided on a pull-out basis, the concept of team teaching needs to be carefully thought out and collaboratively pre-planned.

According to Walther-Thomas (1997), effective co-teaching occurs when the teachers are equal partners. They must both contribute to every phase of the class work, including planning and evaluation. Successful team teaching needs to be effectively planned and supported with needed resource materials. Time is also a key factor. Changing to a team teaching approach does not happen in one year. It is a developmental process that needs adjusting by trial and error.

Before implementing co-teaching there are many details to consider. According to Cross and Walker-Knight (1997), successful co-teachers must honestly look at their personal willingness to collaborate. Sharing a job that traditionally belongs to one person takes a great deal of cooperation and highly skilled communication. Walther-Thomas, Bryant, and Land (1996) identified the following as some of the vital elements of inclusionary team teaching: district and building level planning issues, administrative support and leadership, capable and willing participants, staff development, balanced classrooms, scheduled co-planning time, and pilot testing. Co-teaching is not to be entered into lightly. Total administrative support and teacher commitment are necessary for this inclusionary model to succeed.

The co-teaching inclusionary model comes with many reported benefits for the teachers and the students, both special and general education. In her longitudinal study on co-teaching experiences, Walther-Thomas (1997) reported that learning disabled students benefit by having improved self-esteem and motivation along with enhanced academic performance. Further, general education students increase their academic performance and social skills. According to Walther-Thomas, teachers also benefited from team

teaching by having increased job satisfaction and more professional growth. The teachers reported problems such as inadequate co-planning time, student scheduling conflicts, and caseload concerns.

Many special education researchers, teacher educators, and practitioners have described ways in which general and special education teachers can co-teach in a single classroom. Most described one or more of the following five basic models of co-teaching. Most also suggest that each of these arrangements has its strengths and weaknesses, and that different instructional goals and assignments within the general education curriculum may lead the same pair of teachers to select different arrangements at different times (Zigmond & Magiera, 2001).

One teach/one assist. Vaughn, Schumm, and Arguelles (1997) described five basic models of co-teaching. The first, one teach-one assist, requires both teachers to be present with one teacher taking the lead in delivering instruction; the other teacher monitors or assists students individually. One teacher takes the instructional lead, and the other teacher simultaneously observes, monitors, or tutors individual students. Theoretically, the general or special education teacher can assume either role, but in practice, this arrangement usually finds the general education teacher teaching and the special education teacher assisting. One teach/one assist is often preferred in the initial phases of co-teaching when the special education teacher may be unsure of the rhythm, pacing, and content of the general education curriculum and does not feel confident enough to take on a substantive instructional role (Zigmond & Magiera, 2001).

Station teaching. In the second model, station teaching, each teacher takes responsibility for teaching part of the content to small groups of students who move among stations. Teachers divided students into three groups, two working with teachers

and one group working independently. Students rotated among the three stations over a pre-determined block of time (Vaughn, Schumm, & Arguelles, 1997).

The teachers divide the physical arrangement of the room into three sections, two that support teacher-directed instruction and one for independent seatwork. Course content and class work are also divided into three distinct lessons that do not have to be completed in a particular order. One lesson is taught by each of the two teachers, and the third lesson consists of a seatwork assignment that students completed independently or with minimal supervision (Zigmond & Magiera, 2001).

Students in the class are assigned to three separate groups, and each group rotates through each of the three teaching stations. The composition of the groups can be homogeneous or heterogeneous. This co-teaching arrangement allows each of the two teachers to provide more individualized instruction to their small instructional group. The third group may be supervised by a paraprofessional or parent volunteers (Zigmond & Magiera, 2001).

Parallel teaching. With the third model, parallel teaching, teachers plan instruction together but split the class and deliver the same instruction to smaller groups within the same classroom (Vaughn, Schumm, & Arguelles, 1997). The class of students is divided into two heterogeneous groups of equal size (both groups containing students with disabilities). After jointly planning a lesson, each teacher teaches the same content, at the same time, to half of the students in the class. Each teacher is free to design practice assignments and explanations that uniquely suit his/her teaching style and his/her students' learning needs and capabilities. Parallel teaching requires that the two teachers pace their lessons so that both groups of students start and finish the unit of instruction at the same time with the same degree of mastery (Zigmond & Magiera, 2001).

Alternative teaching. With the fourth model, alternative teaching, one teacher works with a smaller group of students to re-teach, pre-teach, or supplement the instruction received by the larger group (Vaughn, Schumm, & Arguelles, 1997). The class of students is divided into two unequal groups with a larger group that can be engaged in a review or extension activity and a smaller group that needs to have concepts re-taught, a lesson previewed, or a particular skill re-emphasized. Either teacher may teach either group (Zigmond & Magiera, 2001).

Team teaching. Finally, in team teaching, the fifth model, both teachers share the instruction of all students at the same time (Vaughn, Schumm, & Arguelles, 1997). Both teachers are actively engaged in instruction to the entire class of students. While one teacher may take the instructional lead at one point in the lesson and the other teacher may assume the lead in another part of the lesson, both teachers are providing instruction together such as finishing each other's sentences, clarifying each other's comments, or answering student questions (Zigmond & Magiera, 2001).

Sands, Kozleski, and French (2000) described the same models but categorized co-teaching into four types: tag team (one teaches a part of the lesson and the other follows), speak and add (one teaches, one adds information), speak and chart (one teaches, one records on overhead, easel, etc.), and duet (teachers work in unison, finishing each other's sentences and ideas). Although the impact of co-teaching on student outcomes is still unclear (Magiera & Zigmond, 2005; Murawski & Swanson, 2001; Weiss, 2004), proponents argued that co-teaching effectively utilizes the specific and unique skills of each professional (Jitendra, Edwards, Choutka & Treadway, 2002).

One area in which teachers are most likely to co-teach is language arts because most students with LD (90%) have significant difficulties with reading and writing

(Vaughn, Linan-Thompson & Hickman, 2003). Although learning strategies as they play out in the classroom context are complex and dynamic, researchers are increasingly aware how both the scaffolded activities and student-teacher discourse play key roles in helping students with learning disabilities emulate the performance of expert learners (Baker, Gersten, & Scanlon, 2002; Butler & Cartier, 2005). At the same time, cognitive strategies help students develop awareness of relevant background knowledge, enhancing their ability to monitor their learning as they complete instructional tasks and solve problems (Tierney & Readence, 2000). The most recent research on self-regulated learning indicated that the learning process is highly modifiable and shaped by individual student characteristics in interaction with context (Butler & Cartier, 2005).

To bridge the gap between oral and written language and to develop relationships between them, teachers also use elaborated dialogues and think aloud activities (Abadiano & Turner, 2004; Angelis, 2003), building on students' current levels of understanding, and their ability to articulate their ideas. The key concept in teaching students with learning disabilities is to immerse them in an environment, rich in discussions that are explicit, clear, and full of relevant examples so that students can increasingly make connections on their own (Swanson, 2000). At the same time, students with learning disabilities need support to become self-regulated learners. They need to be engaged in a recursive cycle of cognitive activities as they work through a given task (Butler, 2002).

Research on Co-Teaching Models

In a study by White, Swift and Harman (1992) 86% of parents felt their children made more academic progress in the co-teaching (or all inclusive) model and 62% said their child had improved behaviorally. Of the students questioned, 42% said they

preferred the co-teaching model, and 28% said they preferred the traditional *pull out* model. Teachers have found that skills taught in isolation rarely transfer in applicability to the context of the regular classroom.

Quarcoo (2005) examined different methods of teaching used by special education teachers, concentrating on co-teaching, and what changes to the program teachers find necessary in order to improve it. Quarcoo's main research question was: How has co-teaching become a solution to mainstreaming and has it been an effective one? From that question, she formed two other research questions. What are the teachers' hopes for the future of the special education program? How does the unique environment facilitate the perceived effectiveness of mainstreaming or co-teaching?

Findings of Quarcoo's (2005) research revealed that most of the fears that teachers have about mainstreaming are due to the lack of training they have received to work with special needs students. Teachers must understand that students with disabilities often just learn differently than their peers, therefore they need help using their own methods and skills to learn. General education teachers sometimes feel that they would be useless to special needs students, because they do not know how to approach the child's disability.

Friend and Bursuck (1999) argued that the best way to help those teachers, who were feeling incapable of working with special need students, is to work with teachers who have specific training in special education. Therefore, co-teaching seemed like a perfect answer to the problem. This research could be very helpful to other Hartford public schools as an example of a solution to mainstreaming. Many schools are trying to figure out how to teach effectively with students with disabilities integrated and although co-teaching has been identified as a possible teaching method, few schools know how to

maximize the benefits of collaborative teaching. There is a need for more research to be done in order to discover new methods of teaching that would be conducive to full inclusion classrooms.

Research on Co-Teaching and Students with Disabilities

Students with disabilities are increasingly being served in the general education classroom. Co-teaching is one service delivery option designed to meet those needs (Murawski & Swanson, 2001). However, despite the current and growing popularity of co-teaching, research on student outcomes in this service delivery model is very limited. Only a few studies could be found. In the three elementary studies, co-teaching was just as effective in producing academic gains as resource room instruction or consultation with the general education teacher; in the high school study, students' quiz and exam grades actually worsened during the co-teaching experiment. If the goal of co-teaching is to allow students with high-incidence disabilities to access the general education curriculum and to do no harm to them in terms of academic achievement, then the three elementary studies provide modest support for a co-teaching model in elementary schools (Zigmond & Magiera, 2001).

Some researchers have collected interview or focus group data from parents, teachers, and/or students and report generally high levels of satisfaction among all constituents once a co-teaching model has been implemented. Unfortunately, research on co-teaching is very difficult to conduct in a way that informs practice, for many reasons. For example, definitions of co-teaching roles vary, random assignment of teaching partners is very difficult, and matched samples are not actually possible because groups of students and teachers are not sufficiently the same. As a result, co-teaching is not a

phenomenon that lends itself to precise investigation, and validation research is not readily available (Zigmond & Magiera, 2001).

As a result, most of the published literature on co-teaching takes the form of books or technical manuals on how to plan for and implement the model. Several articles in magazines and journals concentrate on the logistics of co-teaching, generally emphasizing that it is hard to do well without careful planning, ongoing co-planning, enthusiastic pairs of teachers compatible in teaching philosophy (as well as temperament and personality), and strong administrative (principal) support. Some published research provides rich descriptions of what co-teaching looks like when it is implemented in elementary, middle school, or high school classrooms, often concluding that teachers adopt a particular arrangement (usually the one teach/one assist arrangement, sometimes the team teaching arrangement) and use it exclusively (Zigmond & Magiera, 2001).

Pull Out Models

Marston (1996) compared reading progress of elementary students with high-incidence disabilities served in inclusion-only, pull-out only, and combined service delivery models. In inclusion-only models, students with disabilities were provided all their IEP services in the general education classroom through co-teaching. In pull-out only, all special education services were delivered in a resource room. The combined model included pullout resource room services and co-teaching provided jointly by the general and special education teacher in the general education classroom. By comparing curriculum-based measures taken in fall and spring, Marston demonstrated that reading progress of students served in the combined model was significantly greater than that of students served in either the inclusion-only (co-teaching) or pull-out only models. Once again, co-teaching was as effective as resource in producing reading growth, but this

study also showed the value-added of combining both co-teaching and pull-out service delivery systems.

Boudah, Schumacher, and Deshler (1997) studied the effects of co-teaching or referred to as collaborative instruction, on the performance of high school students with disabilities on content subject quizzes and test scores. They found that the performance of students with high-incidence disabilities actually worsened during the experimental, co-teaching treatment. Furthermore, even with two teachers in the room, students in co-taught settings were only minimally engaged in instructional tasks.

Team Approach to Mastery

Bear and Proctor (1990) studied the achievement gains of 47 third graders with high-incidence disabilities taught in Team Approach to Mastery (TAM) classrooms, compared to the gains shown by 31 students with high-incidence disabilities served in resource rooms. In TAM classrooms, students with high-incidence disabilities are taught together with nondisabled peers for 100% of the school day, at the ratio of approximately one student with disabilities to every three without disabilities. Two teachers, one certified in general education, the other in special education, jointly provide instruction to all students in the same classroom.

Bear and Proctor (1990) used scores from the Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills, available in students' permanent records, to show that achievement gains of students with disabilities in TAM classes were consistently greater than (in math) or equal to (in reading) the gains made by students in the resource room. Bear and Proctor found that consultation plus co-teaching was as effective as the other service delivery models in producing academic gains. Bear and Proctor concluded that TAM classrooms are at least as effective as resource rooms.

Schulte, Osborne, and McKinney (1990) randomly assigned students with learning disabilities in grades 1 to 4 to one of three service delivery models: one period of resource room services per day, consultative services to the general education teacher who had students with disabilities in his/her class and consultative services with co-teaching. They measured students' academic progress using both standardized achievement tests in reading, goal, however, is to achieve greater academic gains than have been traditionally achieved in a resource program, then co-teaching has not yet proved itself useful.

In a case study by Tobin (2005), teachers' use of co-teaching models to support students with learning disabilities in an inclusive elementary classroom was examined. Co-teachers progressed from the developmental stage of collegial growth to the compromising stage (Gately & Gately, 2001), but struggled to achieve the third stage of collaboration. Teachers used several methods to support students' literacy: explicit prompt sheets, scaffolded mini-lessons, and interactional inclusion. Classroom structures and helping routines played key roles in maintaining teachers' availability to exceptional learners. The students with learning disabilities protected their social status in the classroom, a key factor in their decision to accept teachers' help (Tobin, 2005).

In a recent overview of the research on teaching students with learning disabilities, McLeskey, Hoppey, Williamson, and Rentz (2004) concluded that most students should spend much of the school day in regular classrooms. As a result of this policy of inclusion of students with diverse learning needs, classroom teachers have adopted inclusive models of instruction that emphasize collaborative structures such as co-teaching.

Bauwens and Hourcade (1995) described a co-teaching approach as a “restructuring of teaching procedures in which two or more educators possessing distinct sets of skills work in a co-active and coordinated fashion to jointly teach academically and behaviorally heterogeneous groups of students in integrated educational settings” (p. 46). For example, both a classroom teacher and a special education teacher would provide all students with instruction, discipline, and support. This collaborative approach helps co-teachers avoid unintentionally stigmatizing students with identified needs by meeting the needs of all students in a regular classroom.

Marzano’s 21 Leadership Responsibilities

In Marzano et al.’s (2005) effort to identify research-based principles of school leadership, these researchers first conducted a meta-analysis designed to determine what 35 years of research tells us about school leadership. A total of 21 types of behaviors—called *responsibilities*—were each identified as having a positive correlation with student achievement. These responsibilities were all found necessary, in varying degrees, to support daily management of a school. However, seven of the 21—for example, “monitoring/evaluating” and “change agent”—were found to be correlated with school processes that involved “dramatic departures from the expected, both in defining a given problem and in finding a solution.”

The problems related to attracting effective schools leaders and retaining them is currently exercising the minds of education systems around the world. As the role of the school principals becomes more complex, finding enough people willing to lead teaching and learning, organize maintenance of school facilities, balance budgets, develop and maintain effective parent–school relationships, deal with disciplinary issues, attend

sporting functions, meet accountability requirements and maintain a family and personal life may be one of the most critical issues for education.

One way that researchers are beginning to address this problem is to examine those responsibilities of principals that improve student achievement so that the energy of the principal can be concentrated on those things that are *essential*, rather than important. The proposition is that, while issues such as maintenance, finance and public relations are important, they may not be essential to student achievement. If principals can differentiate between *essential* and *important*, they may bring more balance to their leadership role.

In 2001, Mid-continent Research for Education and Learning (McREL) began an extensive review of more than 5,000 studies purported to examine the relationship between school leadership and student achievement. Seventy of these studies, involving 2,802 schools, 14,000 teachers and 1.4 million students, met McREL's criteria for inclusion in a meta-analysis. The key findings of this meta-analysis were:

1. Principal leadership is significantly correlated with student achievement. The average effect size is .25. That is, one standard deviation improvement in principal leadership is associated with 10 percentile difference in student achievement;
2. Twenty-one specific leadership responsibilities, and 66 associated practices, have statistically significant relationships with student achievement; and
3. Leaders can have both a positive and negative impact on achievement;

Changes with varying implications for stakeholders are positively associated with some responsibilities and negatively associated with others (Waters & Grubb, 2004). The 21 leadership responsibilities identified by McREL were outlined in Appendix D (Waters, Marzano, & McNulty, 2003).

Fullan (2005) described one of the major responsibilities for sustaining effective school leadership is developing others as leaders. Alone principals simply cannot do all of the things necessary to run schools. Cambron-McCabe and McCarthy (2003) suggested that schools should restructure roles and relationships at the school level around a vibrant core purpose of improving student learning and ensuring that all students achieve academic success.

McREL argued that existing standards for leadership are based on individual qualities and skills and that these need to be reframed as standards for school-level leaders with a focus on responsibilities rather than on position (Waters & Grubb, 2004). These standards need to be based on the leadership *function* – broader than a single position – to be carried out by all. This facilitated the sharing of responsibilities within the school and helped to both sustain current principals and develop future leaders.

The passage of an expanded list of state and federal legislation, including the reauthorization of the *Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA)* and *No Child Left Behind* (NCLB, 2002), led to an ever growing list of issues school leaders must address including: improvement of student performance on standardized tests, increased graduation requirements, tightened teacher qualification requirements, and meeting the needs of an increasingly diverse student population (Hoyle, Bjork, Collier, & Glass, 2005).

Legislated accountability systems (national and state curriculum standards and testing) and evaluation methods (i.e., *school report cards* and accreditation) that label districts as successes or failures based on a set of narrowly defined performance indicators and an even narrower interpretation of the results contribute to the challenges school leaders face (Bracey, 2003). The renewed interest in public school accountability

that imposes district outcome expectations follows a long history of “top-down, process-oriented bureaucracy in public schooling” (Firestone & Shipps, 2005, p. 85). In the past, educational leaders “were expected to simply set the stage for student learning” through effective management of fiscal, organizational, and political conditions in their school districts (Firestone & Riehl, 2005, p. 2).

Accountability standards associated with *No Child Left Behind* (2002) including state developed assessment systems, annual increases of student performance, and requirements to meet Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) contribute to the pressure felt by school leaders to boost student achievement. The availability of new data processing technologies and assessment instruments increased the capacity for measuring student, campus, and district performance outcomes. With the greater capacity for measuring performance outcomes, leaders are increasingly being held accountable for student performance using district performance outcomes as indicators of leaders’ effectiveness (Firestone & Riehl, 2005). Subsequently, school leaders have had to demonstrate a wider array of knowledge, more advanced technological skills, and a longer list of personal leadership qualities (Glass, Bjork, & Brunner, 2000).

According to Firestone and Riehl (2005), school leaders must not only have a wide range of knowledge about teaching, learning, and organizational management but must also have knowledge of “leadership competencies and practices that are associated with increased performance and effectiveness” (p. 3). According to Hoyle et al. (2005), the role of the superintendent has changed from the less visible manager to a highly visible “chief executive who needs vision, skills, and knowledge to lead in a new and complex world” (p. 1). Bjork (1993) contended that the emerging instructional leadership

role of school leaders in an era of accountability is that of collaborator for the benefit of all children.

With the leadership roles that school leaders fulfill in their districts and ever increasing calls for greater accountability in student learning, the question raised is: How do school leaders impact district academic performance? Waters, Marzano, and McNulty (2004) contended that educational leaders should begin by being informed on the research of school leadership. Yet, a review of the literature revealed that educational leadership research has rarely investigated how the leadership roles of school leaders impact district performance outcomes (Firestone & Riehl, 2005; Leithwood, 2005). In the search for leadership variables that influence the academic success of students, much of the research has focused on the school as the unit of change and the relationship of the principal and the teacher as the primary catalyst of change (Bredeson & Johansson, 1997; Firestone & Riehl, 2005).

Leadership Responsibilities

Leadership responsibilities fall into one of three categories: personal attributes, leader actions, and organizational outcomes (Davis, 1998). McDonnell and Hardman (1989) examined the role of all school personnel in the desegregation of students with disabilities. They designated regular education principals as key players in the quality of special education services and the degree of successful integration efforts and concluded that the attitudes of the principals appear to be even more important than their actions.

Personal Attributes

One of the main personal attributes identified by Davis is having an internal locus of control that involves the ability of a leader to view his successes and shortcomings as reflections of his own efforts. This is somewhat consistent with Collins' (2001) assertion

that good leaders look out of the window when all is well and look in the mirror when things are not going well.

Leader Actions

In his discussion of the behaviors of leaders, Davis (1998) suggested that there is no consensus throughout the profession about which actions lend themselves to effective leadership. Farley (1991) studied middle school personnel in Virginia and found attitudes toward the integration of students with disabilities similar to attitudes of personnel in other grade levels. Principals had more favorable attitudes than teachers toward the integration of students with disabilities. Factors found significant concerning the attitudes of personnel were prior experience working with persons with disabilities, educational background, and course work in special education.

Organizational Outcomes

At the same time, Davis (1998) contended that actions such as decisiveness, organization, effective communication, embracing diversity, nurturing the culture of the organization, and setting high expectations are imperative if educational leaders are going to foster the most desirable organizational outcomes. According to Davis, organizational outcomes are a reflection of the leader's impact on the organization.

Research on Leadership Responsibilities

Marzano, Waters, and McNulty's (2005) book, *School Leadership that Works* contained a meta-analysis based upon the analysis of research compiled over the last 25 years. The authors attested that studies on school leadership and the correlation to student achievement do not exist in large bodies of work. Marzano et al. examined 69 studies that showed a correlation between leadership and student achievement. The 69 studies were published between 1978 and 2001. They exclaimed, "We found no available studies that

met our criteria prior to 1978 nor after 2001” (p. 29). This meta-analysis involved 2,802 schools at various levels—elementary, middle, and high school—as well as multiple level schools, such as K-8 and K-12. The group of studies included approximately 14,000 teachers and 1.4 million students. According to the authors, the large number of participants and the diverse levels of the schools give the study validity.

According to Leithwood et al. (2004), the impact of leadership tended to be greatest in schools where the learning needs of students are most acute. High-quality leaders achieved this impact by: (a) setting directions and charting a clear course that everyone understands; (b) establishing high expectations and using data to track progress and performance; (c) developing people and providing teachers and others in the system with the necessary support and training to succeed; and (d) making the organization work and ensuring that the entire range of conditions and incentives in districts and schools fully supports rather than inhibits teaching and learning.

The following 21 leadership responsibilities (Marzano et al., 2003) that have a significant effect on student learning and the correlation of each responsibility to academic achievement gains were:

1. Affirmation: The extent to which the principal recognizes and celebrates accomplishments and acknowledges failures.
2. Change Agent: The extent to which the principal is willing to challenge and actively challenges the status quo.
3. Contingent Rewards: The extent to which the principal recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments.
4. Communication: The extent to which the principal establishes strong lines of communication with and among teachers and students.

5. Culture: The extent to which the principal fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation.
6. Discipline: The extent to which the principal protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching and time or focus.
7. Flexibility: The extent to which the principal adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent.
8. Focus: The extent to which the principal establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school's attention.
9. Ideals/Beliefs: The extent to which the principal communicates and operates from the strong ideals and beliefs about schooling.
10. Input: The extent to which the principal involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies.
11. Intellectual Stimulation: The extent to which the principal ensures faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these an important aspect of the school's culture.
12. Involvement in Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment: The extent to which the principal is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.
13. Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment: The extent to which the principal is knowledgeable of current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.
14. Monitoring/Evaluating: The extent to which the principal monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning.

15. **Optimizer:** The extent to which the principal inspires and leads new and challenging innovations.
16. **Order:** The extent to which the principal establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines.
17. **Outreach:** The extent to which the principal is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders
18. **Relationships:** The extent to which the principal demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff.
19. **Resources:** The extent to which the principal provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs.
20. **Situational Awareness:** The extent to which the principal is aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems.
21. **Visibility:** The extent to which the principal has quality contact and interactions with teachers and students.

Essential Leadership Responsibilities

Byron (2003) identified collaboration and service to persons in the organization as two essential leadership responsibilities. He stated that a good leader should position himself at the center of his organization and served as an enabler, facilitator, and encourager for the organization as it moves toward achieving its goals. Byron also asserted that humility was the first step to effective leadership and ultimately what mattered most in positions of leadership.

For inclusion to become a viable alternative to the dual system of education, it must become a joint venture, embraced by general as well as special educators.

Furthermore, inclusion must not be simply a new approach to teaching students with disabilities; it has to be a philosophy of teaching and learning that leads to a complete and systemic transformation of schools (Bargerhuff, 1994).

The development of inclusive school communities requires major systems change (Sage, 1994) and purposeful leadership (Parker & Day, 1997). Systems-level thinking (Senge, 1990) and a change toward a more inclusive learning environments requires opportunities for teachers and other school community members to engage in dialogue about the future of education and their own visions of schooling. Sage (1994) maintained that changes supporting inclusion require leaders who emphasize teamwork and encourage critical inquiry.

Philosophy of Inclusiveness and Leadership

According to Parker and Day (1997), inclusive schools also require principals who believe in and assertively support a *philosophy of inclusiveness*. Principals nourish school communities that believe in success for all students. They understand that all really does mean all, and they “continually encourage and strengthen the culture for inclusion of all members of the learning community” (p. 83).

On the contrary, a poll conducted by the National Association of Elementary School Principals (National Council on Disability, 1995) found that principals favored reconsideration by responding that principals were not in support of full inclusion. Twenty-seven percent of principals agreed with the premise that all children should be assigned to regular classes despite disability, 72% disagreed and 1% had no opinion. The executive director of the association summarized:

Children learn an enormous amount from each other that they cannot learn from teachers or parents and the great majority of disabled youngsters benefit socially,

psychologically and academically from joining their peers in regular classrooms. But the concept of inclusion has been pushed to such extremes that it is robbing non-handicapped children of their right to learn, while depriving handicapped children of the specialized teaching they need. (p. 2)

Burrello and Wright (1992) identified effective practices of principals who had participated in programming for the inclusion of students with disabilities. Two important practices noted were to provide opportunities for the faculty and staff to discuss integration in light of consensus values and belief statements; and create a special support group of faculty and staff for the purpose of brainstorming and facilitating integration, mainstreaming, and inclusion efforts.

Baines, Baines, and Masterson (1994) documented the frustration of teachers in a middle school who were meeting the needs of students with disabilities in the general education classrooms without the support needed for the student, the teacher, and the other classmates. All teachers except the physical education teacher reported heightened stress due to mainstreaming and 20% of the respondents on a school-wide survey reported that they were reconsidering teaching as a career. Raison, Hanson, Hall, and Reynolds (1995) indicated that the problems that Baines et al. (1994) had encountered were not due to mainstreaming, but to “inadequate communication, misgovernance and poor allocation of resources” (Raison et al., p. 481).

New Roles of Principals

There is little question that the role of the principal has changed since the days when the effectiveness of the principal was based primarily on his or her ability to “run a tight ship” in managing schools. The National Association of Secondary School Principals (1996) acknowledged that the authoritarian leadership style that distinguished

principals of the past is ineffective in an era of shared decision making and responsibility. While the role of the principal has changed, the importance of the principalship has not. Schools need strong principals more than ever. Principals can promote the shared decision-making and collaborative culture of a learning community and demonstrate strong instructional leadership if they attend to the following leadership responsibilities (Sparks, 2001).

Principals should lead through shared vision and collective commitments rather than rules and authority. A learning community, by definition, is a group of people working together toward a shared vision. Therefore, building a shared vision and a collective commitment to act in ways that advance that vision is one of the most important responsibilities of principals in learning communities. Rather than emphasizing rules or resorting to the authority of the position to control the work of teachers, they should provide teachers and staff with a sense of direction by promoting and protecting shared vision and collective commitment (Sparks, 2001).

Principals should create collaborative structures that focus on teaching and learning. Principals must recognize two important facts: (a) A collaborative culture is essential to a learning community, and (b) inviting teachers to collaborate did not create such a culture. Principals must develop structures and strategies that systematically infuse collaboration into the daily life of the school. They must:

1. Provide time for teachers to collaborate in teams during the school day and year;
2. Help each team develop effective working relationships by facilitating the development of protocols for how members operated with one another;
3. Clarify the purpose of the collaboration and the products that should be generated as a result of teachers working together; and

4. Insist that each team identify specific, measurable performance goals to create results orientation essential to a learning community (Louis, Kruse, and Raywid, 1996, pp. 9-21).

Principals should pose the questions that help the school focus on issues of teaching and learning. In schools that have been most successful in creating a professional learning community, principals have focused on posing questions rather than dictating solutions (Louis et al., 1996). The questions convey priorities and direct teachers in the right direction. When principals engage faculty in meaningful dialogue on key questions, they develop the capacity of teachers to function as a learning community.

Principals have long been acknowledged as instructional leaders (Parker & Day, 1997). However, within the last decade, the extent to which the principal was responsible for the learning of students with disabilities has been less evident. In a dual system of education, it has been acceptable for the principal to defer to the special education administrator in matters involving students with special learning needs. By contrast, Sage (1996) reported that in an inclusive school, the principal is responsible for the needs of all students. This realignment of responsibility establishes a fundamental change in the roles for principals.

In recent years, creativity has begun to surface as a factor in research pertaining to leadership responsibilities. Goertz (2000) attempted to determine if effective school leaders possessed certain creative characteristics that assisted them in performing the tasks expected of them in their leadership position. He found that creativity traits such as passion for work, goal setting, originality, flexibility, and a wide range of interests were present in all of the educational leaders studied. Goertz concluded that the future of one's success in school leadership is embedded in creative leadership.

Although research in the area of leadership can be applied across fields, it is important in this study to identify leadership research that applies directly to school leaders and principals. Sergiovanni (1995) categorized the leadership strategies that principals use into three categories: heart, head, and hand. The components of leadership that encompass the principal's values, beliefs, and personal visions are the heart. The principal's ability to self-reflect and the theories of practice that have been developed based on years of experience are the head. Finally, Sergiovanni referred to the principal's management strategies as *the hand*.

Several researchers have utilized the perceptions of the subordinates of educational leaders to identify effective leadership responsibilities (Blasé and Kirby, 2000; Harris, Day, & Hadfield, 2003; Palaniuk, 1987). Harris et al. (2003) found that teachers believe educational leaders should allow others to manage the school so that the leader can effectively lead the school. These researchers also found that teachers valued school leaders who were accessible, set high expectations for themselves and others, communicated effectively, and established clear visions for the organization. Blasé and Kirby (2000) found that teachers were more likely to develop personal relationships with leaders who exhibited optimism, honesty, and consideration while carrying out school improvement initiatives.

Principals must be equipped with a variety of leadership responsibilities to be productive in the schools of today (Barnett, 2004). Principals are now required to lead their schools in a manner that necessitates a comprehensive understanding of effective instructional practices. Finally, Barnett also purported that today's schools are requiring principals to revisit the leadership strategies and practices they have employed traditionally.

Research on Teachers' Perceptions of Leadership Responsibilities

Moving children with disabilities from special education into general education classrooms require adaptations on the part of the teacher and staff and may involve a reform of special education services (Gent & Mulhauser, 1988; Stainback, Stainback, & Forest, 1989). General education teachers make changes in day-to-day practices to affect skill acquisition and social development of students with disabilities. Teachers make changes depending on the specific situation such as the team approach involving team teaching arrangements (Rainforth, York, & Macdonald, 1992; Reeve & Hallahan, 1994; Villa & Thousand, 1994). They may also need personalized training based on the needs of specific children with disabilities (Kontos & File, 1993); and they may need to learn through workshops, formal training, or individual readings) to plan for individual objectives and to direct classroom activities (Schumm & Vaughn, 1992; York, Doyle, & Kronberg, 1992).

Santoli, Sachs, and Romey (2008) conducted a survey to examine middle school general education and special education teachers, paraprofessionals, and administrators' attitudes toward inclusion. Results of the survey revealed that although the majority (98.2%) of respondents was willing to make needed instructional adaptations for their students with disabilities, the majority (76.8%) did not believe that most students with disabilities could be educated in general education classrooms.

In the same study (Santoli et al., 2008), fewer than half (44.6%) indicated that inclusion was a desirable educational practice for general education students, although a greater percent (57.9%) believed that inclusion was a desirable educational practice for students with disabilities. Time was the most significant area of concern for respondents who indicated that they (a) did not have adequate time to consult with other teachers and

specialists who were working with their students with disabilities, (b) lacked time to go to meetings pertaining to their students with disabilities, and (c) lacked time to undertake the responsibility to educate students with disabilities in general education classrooms.

Williams, Fox, Thousand, and Fox (1990) conducted a survey of parents and practitioners in Vermont and noted a marked gap between generally agreed on best practices and reported implementation of those practices. Findings revealed that changes in teachers' roles and reallocation of time and resources may be necessary to reduce the gap.

Ayers, Meyer, Erevelles, and Park-Lee (1994) surveyed special education teachers about the difficulties of implementing validated practices in classrooms. These researchers found that teachers reported lack of time and lack of administrative support as barriers to implementation because many schools do not have the financial or community support to do more than maintain existing services. Knowing what teachers perceived as supportive, what problems they faced, and whether or not consensus emerged on those factors was necessary to plan adequately and efficiently for inclusion. Considering limited resources of schools and the demands on staff time, it was imperative to ascertain teachers' perceptions of the factors that are critical to inclusive education and to identify the conditions that are seen as barriers.

In the same study (Ayers et al., 1994), participants were asked to list the three major problems or difficulties they had faced in including a child with disabilities in general education classrooms. Overall, 90% of the teachers listed at least one problem, while 34% listed lack of training, 31% listed lack of time, and 30% listed lack of administrative support by over one fourth of teachers. Higher percentages of special education than general education teachers identified lack of administrative support and

teacher attitudes as problems. General education teachers mentioned class size more often than did special education teachers (Ayers et al.).

Galis and Tanner's (1995) study of inclusion in elementary schools of Georgia during the 1990s found that individualizing instructional methods, adapting the instructional environment, and lowering maximum class size emerged as significant issues. In general, they found that: (a) general education teachers have difficulty with the idea of inclusion; (b) younger, less experienced educators have difficulty coping with the complex demands of change; and (c) legal aspects dealing inclusion need clarification, especially for general education teachers.

Considering the conditions in which the administrators and teachers of Hartford Public schools have been forced into because of full inclusion classrooms; many teachers feel unprepared and haven't had enough training to work with students with disabilities. With the merging of special education and general education, teachers now need to be qualified to teach a wide variety of students. Many teachers do not have the necessary training therefore teaching preparation needs to be revised so that the teachers could efficiently teach students with disabilities (Shippen, Crites, Houchins, Ramsey & Simon, 2005). In addition, teachers with less special education training may have higher anxiety or feelings of hopelessness.

Two other research studies found that teachers' comfort level with teaching students with disabilities greatly affect their behaviors and their effectiveness as a teacher (Lago-Delello, 1998; Vaughn, Klinger & Hughes, 2000). If teachers feel inadequate in providing services for special needs students, then they may ignore the students, leaving the responsibility solely on the special education teacher (Lago-Delello, 1998; Vaughn, Klinger & Hughes, 2000).

Independent and Dependent Variables in This Study

The independent variables in this study were implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion. The dependent variables were Marzano's 21 leadership responsibilities. The purpose of this study was two-fold. The first purpose of the study was to explore the extent to which principals were utilizing Marzano's 21 Leadership Responsibilities in implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion programs in their schools according to the perceptions of general education and special education teachers participating in co-teaching inclusion programs located in Georgia's First District Regional Education Service Agency (RESA) service area. The second purpose was to examine whether statistically significant differences existed between general education and special education teachers' perceptions of principal leadership responsibilities that were essential to implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion programs according to Marzano's 21 Leadership Responsibilities.

Implementing Inclusion

Before a school decides to move with full speed for full inclusion and major restructuring effort as greater inclusion, principals must put careful time and effort into the planning and implementation process. In earlier editions of *Issues about Change* (Boyd, 1992; Hord, 1991), factors that increased the likelihood of implementing a significant change successfully were identified. Specifically, principals must attend to six areas of concern:

1. developing and articulating a clear, shared vision of the change;
2. planning and providing for necessary resources;
3. identifying and providing staff development and training to develop the skills needed to support and carry out the change;

4. monitoring and evaluating (including monitoring of evolving personnel concerns about the change through the implementation process);
5. providing ongoing consulting, coaching, and staff development to further enhance staff capacity to accomplish the goals of the targeted change; and
6. working to create a school context that supports change (Villa, 2008).

In the case of implementing a more inclusive approach to providing special education and other specialized services in the regular classroom, several of these leader actions are important. Principals must work diligently to develop and impart a clear vision of what an inclusive classroom looks like and how it functions (Villa, 2008). Principals must give significant attention to providing the kinds of ongoing staff development that expands the capacity of both regular and special education teachers to serve students with a variety of disabilities in a mainstream setting (i.e., cooperative learning strategies, team teaching skills, collaborating/co-teaching strategies, individualizing instruction, mastery learning, identifying and adapting to different learning styles).

By sharing responsibilities through team teaching, the two sectors are able to develop a more comprehensive program that could adapt to the needs of all students (Reynolds, Wang, & Walberg, 1987). The implementation of different teaching strategies and the modification of assignments to accommodate individual students is another element found among these models. Methods of teaching provided in these programs ranged from highly structured to opened-ended exploratory learning activities (Affleck, Madge, Adams, & Lowenbraun, 1988; Wang, Rubenstein, & Reynolds, 1985).

Adaptations and accommodations made within the class are provided for individual students, and in some circumstances, for the entire class. Direct instruction

provides small groups and individual students with remedial instruction, while independent study time is provided to those students who need less support (Zigmond & Baker, 1996). The use of peer tutors and cooperative learning is another strategy employed, as stronger students can help provide additional support to those having difficulties mastering concepts (Affleck et al., 1988).

The term *curriculum* is used to refer to the kinds of educational experiences that are planned and designed to facilitate children's construction of concepts, development of skills, and engagement in the learning processes. The curriculum in effective inclusion programs is developmentally appropriate – planned for the age span of the children in the group (age appropriate); and implemented with attention to the different needs, interests, abilities, learning styles, and developmental levels of the individual children (individually appropriate). Developmentally appropriate curriculum guidelines have been established by the National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC) for all early childhood programs, including those that include children with disabilities (Bredekamp & Copple, 1997).

In addition to having developmentally appropriate curriculum, high quality inclusion programs strongly encourage collaboration between general education and special education teachers. Effective collaborators can expect: (a) changes in the schooling system such as team teaching, (b) changes in the skills, attitudes, and behaviors of parents and teachers who are collaborating together, and (c) improvements in both academic and social skills of children and youth with special needs (Thousand, Villa, & Nevin, 1997).

Many teachers have expressed this concern at the beginning stages of implementing an inclusion program. It has been found, however, that when adequate

supports and services are provided, there is no negative impact on the education of the other children. Many classroom teachers reported that children without disabilities benefit from being part of an inclusive classroom (Sapon-Shevin, 1999). But, schools and parents need to ensure that all children are getting the services that they need to succeed. The provision of adequate supports and services requires collaboration between the school administrators and teachers and the special education teacher and related service providers (e.g., occupational therapist, speech and language clinician, physical therapist; Sapon-Shevin, 1999).

Maintaining Inclusion

Typically, general education and special education teachers use the co-teaching model of inclusion that is formerly called *team teaching*. The special education teacher meets regularly with general education teachers to provide indirect support in the form of guidance in planning lessons/units to include differentiated instruction, to suggest accommodations and modifications for individual students, and to monitor student progress. The special education teacher helps address teacher concerns, provides professional development to teachers around differentiating instruction and meeting students' needs in an inclusive classroom, and is responsible for developing and maintaining students' Individualized Education Plans (IEP) with the input of the IEP team (New Visions for Public Schools, 2008).

Supporting Inclusion

Inclusion involves keeping special education students in regular education classrooms and bringing the support services to the child, rather than bringing the child to the support services (Smelter, Rasch, & Yudewitz, 1994, p. 35). Reynolds (1991), an advocate of the *Regular Education Initiative* has long argued for a *continuum* of services

or range of alternative placement options (from the least restrictive to the most restrictive). They include (a) related services only, (b) special education itinerant teacher (SEIT) services only, (c) related services in combination with SEIT services, (d) a special class in an integrated setting, and (e) a special class in a segregated setting. The reason for a continuum of services is to establish integrated programs for persons with disabilities.

Fuchs and Fuchs (1995) also supported the continuum, saying that sometimes separate is better. But courts were taking the position that any placement or any school related activities of children with disabilities must be determined in the best interest of the child on a case-by-case basis (Osborne & Dimattia, 1994). Since appeals courts issued rulings in favor of the inclusion of students with severe disabilities, it seems certain that inclusion is a not just a trend in education.

The National Association of State Boards of Education (NASBE, 1992) criticized organizational and instructional practices conducted under mainstreaming because they had resulted in lowered expectations for children, no support for classroom teachers, and *pull-out* practices that interfere with instructional time for students and teachers. Furthermore, NASBE recommended that children with disabilities attend general education classrooms, to the maximum extent possible, and that the principal be accountable for their educational outcomes.

The Learning Disabilities Association (1992) does not support *full inclusion* or policies that mandate placement, instruction, or treatment for all students with learning disabilities. The organization's statement argues that placement of all children with disabilities in the regular classroom is a violation of IDEA. The National Association of the Deaf (1997) is opposed to full inclusion, both groups seeing a need for a continuum

of services. Attacks upon inclusion are important to professionals in deaf education (Johnson & Cohen, 1994).

The best known advocates of full inclusion are probably Stainback and Stainback, and the primary research base they used to support their views is improvement in social skills made by students (Stainback & Stainback, 1991), rather than academic gains of students with disabilities or the effects of inclusion on children without disabilities. Stainback and Stainback, along with many other advocates, primarily use ethical and moral justification for inclusion, and some researchers connect inclusion to parallels in the civil rights movement.

A study frequently referenced to support inclusion is the National Longitudinal Study, which resulted in several reports about different segments of the population of students studied (Hebbeler, 1994; Newman 1992; Newman & Cameto, 1993; Wagner, 1991). This study considered outcomes for older students, who had been mainstreamed, but it did not address inclusion or various methods of inclusion or best practices.

Gaps in the Literature

This study showed that there is a need to examine more closely the connection between practiced principals' leadership qualities and inclusion and teachers' observations of what principals do during implementation, maintenance and support of inclusion programs. Traditionally the principal's involvement in the lives of students with disabilities has rested primarily with attention to requirements detailed in federal and state laws. In fact, according to Sage and Burrello (1994), "The rules and regulation mentality that has protected special education's narrow interests is a key inhibitor of other social values necessary in the pursuit of educational outcomes for students with disabilities" (p. 253). This type of authority, based on functionalism and bureaucratic

professionalism, is inconsistent with the concept of inclusion (Skirtic, 1991). To lead an inclusive school requires a “personal belief that all children can learn and a commitment to providing all children equal access to a rich core curriculum and quality instruction” (Servatius, Fellows & Kelly, 1992, p. 269).

Studies of co-teaching have, in large part, focused on the perceptions of teachers and students. These studies generally found that students have a positive response to co-teaching. Teachers’ responses are somewhat more complex. Educators recognize the value of classroom partnerships, but they express concern about its appropriateness for some students, its feasibility given pressures for high stakes testing and other accountability measures, and its practicality given current funding and staffing patterns for special education (Friend & Hurley-Chamberlain, 2007).

There is little convincing data related to the impact co-teaching has on academic, behavioral and other outcomes for students. Local school districts are using their own measures to demonstrate that students’ achievement and behavior improves in co-taught classes, but more formal research that directly addresses these key issues is sorely needed. Do students with disabilities achieve at the same or a higher rate in co-taught than other service options? What is the impact of co-teaching on other students? Does student behavior improve in co-taught classes (Friend & Hurley-Chamberlain, 2007)?

Nonetheless, from the work currently completed, a number of benefits were presented in the literature review including: greater collegial exchanges of strategies between professionals, increased understanding of all students’ needs, stronger instructional programs grounded in general education content for students with disabilities, increased acceptance of students with disabilities by their peers, and decreased burnout for professionals. Within the research literature on co-teaching, several

common themes emerge that were critical for this model to be successfully implemented. These themes focused on a need for communication between co-teachers, administrative support, similar philosophies, and planning time (Zigmond & Magiera, 2001).

Research on co-teaching and students with disabilities suggested that the prevailing assumptions about the effectiveness and usefulness of co-teaching for students with disabilities in inclusive classrooms need to be reexamined (Friend & Bursuck, 1999; Quarcoo, 2005; Walther-Thomas, 1997; Walther-Thomas, Bryant, & Land, 1996; White, Swift & Harman; 1992; Zigmond & Magiera, 2001). The research base on the effectiveness of co-teaching is regrettably inadequate.

While there are many resources available to tell teachers how to co-teach in an inclusion program, there are virtually no convincing data that co-teaching provides students with academic and instructional benefits. Research is still needed to determine whether students with disabilities experience a wider range of instructional alternatives in co-taught classes than would be possible in a class taught by just one teacher; whether their participation and engagement levels increase in co-taught classes; and whether co-teaching enhances performance outcomes for students with disabilities. Research to date does not suggest any academic advantages to the co-teaching model (Zigmond & Magiera, 2001).

A search was conducted for research articles published within the last 20 years in refereed journals that compared teachers' instructional practices, student engagement rates, and/or student academic progress in co-taught classrooms with those in alternative special education service delivery models (Zigmond & Magiera, 2001). Co-teaching requires a working partnership between the general and special education teachers, and the key to developing that partnership is communication. The two teachers have to share

a common, or at least compatible, philosophy and approach to the instructional process (Zigmond & Magiera).

General education and special education teachers also should plan together what each would teach during the shared instructional time. Finding common planning time is a challenge most teachers implementing co-teaching have been hard-pressed to meet. It requires a very sympathetic and supportive school administrator to design a schedule that permitted regular co-planning time during the school day (Zigmond & Magiera, 2001). For the special education teacher, commitment to a co-teaching model means commitment to being in a general education classroom every time a particular subject is being taught (Zigmond & Magiera, 2001).

Summary

The literature review emphasized the principal as the pivotal change agent in school reform. Clearly, throughout the literature that the amount of time that children are pulled out of general classrooms has become a concern. While in many cases pull-out is supported by the exceptional and general education teachers and parents, there is mixed evidence of improved academic performance. Most groups and individuals believe that inclusion in the general classroom is the appropriate starting point, and that a continuum of placement options and services must be available.

One of the greatest challenges contributing to this debate is the lack of similarity between the general and special education systems that exist in today's districts and schools (Elliott & Riddle, 1992; Wang, Reynolds, & Walberg, 1988). Successful inclusion practices depend on restructured schools that allow for flexible learning environments, with flexible curricula and instruction. Under ideal conditions, all students work toward the same overall educational outcomes. What differs is the level at which

these outcomes are achieved, the additional support that is needed by some students and the degree of emphasis placed on various outcomes. A restructured system that merges special and general education must also employ practices that focus on high expectations for all and rejects the prescriptive teaching, remedial approach that leads to lower achievement (Guess & Thompson, 1989; Heshusius, 1988).

Both opponents and proponents of inclusion can find scattered research to support their respective views, although current research is inconclusive. Opponents point to research showing negative effects of inclusion, often citing low self-esteem of students with disabilities in the general education setting and poor academic grades. For those supporting inclusion, research exists that shows positive results for both special and general education students, including academic and social benefits. Currently, the issue of inclusion appears to be an unresolved issue. With legislation supporting the practice, schools continue to look for ways to include special needs students as outlined in the IDEA.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study was two-fold. The first purpose of the study was to explore the extent to which principals were utilizing Marzano's 21 Leadership Responsibilities in implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion programs in their schools according to the perceptions of general education and special education teachers participating in co-teaching inclusion programs located in Georgia's First District Regional Education Service Agency (RESA) service area. The second purpose was to examine whether statistically significant differences existed between general education and special education teachers' perceptions of principal leadership responsibilities that were essential to implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion programs according to Marzano's 21 Leadership Responsibilities.

In response to NCLB, the state of Georgia's goal is to increase the percentage of time students with disabilities remain in the classroom. Instead of students leaving the general education classroom, services were brought to them through inclusion programs. The perceptions of general education and special education teachers regarding specific responsibilities related to principal leadership that play an important role in the implementation, maintenance, and support of inclusion programs must be examined if inclusion programs are going to become a fixture in Georgia schools.

Chapter 3 contains research procedures that were followed in conducting this study of K-12 special education and general education teacher perceptions of leadership responsibilities that impact the implementation, maintenance, and support of inclusion programs according to Marzano's 21 leadership responsibilities. This chapter includes a

description of the research questions, research design, population, participants, sample, instrumentation, and data collection procedures. An explanation of the methodology of data analysis and reporting the data concludes this chapter.

Research Questions

The overarching research question was: Based on the perceptions of general education and special education teachers, to what extent do principals utilize Marzano's 21 Leadership Responsibilities in implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion programs in their schools? The following sub-questions were examined in this study:

1. Based on the perceptions of teachers, to what extent do principals utilize leadership responsibilities to implement inclusion programs?

Summary: Based on the perceptions of general education and special education teachers, principals utilized 14 of 21 leadership responsibilities to implement inclusion.

2. Based on the perceptions of teachers, to what extent do principals utilize leadership responsibilities to maintain inclusion programs?

Summary: Based on the perceptions of general education and special education teachers, principals utilized 18 of 21 leadership responsibilities to maintain inclusion.

3. Based on the perceptions of teachers, to what extent do principals utilize leadership responsibilities to support inclusion programs?

Summary: Based on the perceptions of general education and special education teachers, principals utilized 18 of 21 leadership responsibilities to support inclusion.

4. Is there a statistically significant difference between K-12 general education and special education teachers' perceptions of principals' utilization of leadership responsibilities in implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion?

Hypothesis

The statistical analysis of independent-samples t tests was used to analyze Research Question 4 rather than descriptive statistics, because the researcher wanted to know whether a statistically significant difference existed between K-12 general education and special education teachers' perceptions of principals' utilization of leadership responsibilities in implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion. To answer that question, the researcher chose independent-samples t tests to determine differences between the means of K-12 general education and special education teachers' perceptions of principals' utilization of leadership responsibilities in implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion. This study had only one hypothesis that analyzed whether a statistically significant difference existed between general education and special education teachers' perceptions of principal's leadership responsibilities in implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion.

H₀4: There is no statistically significant difference between K-12 general education and special education teachers' perceptions of principals' utilization of leadership responsibilities in implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion.

Summary: General education teachers had higher average mean scores than special education teachers on all variables for implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion. Furthermore, significant differences were found between general education and special education teachers' perceptions for 14 of 21 (66%) of the dependent variables for implementing inclusion, 18 of 21 (86%) of the dependent variables for maintaining inclusion, and 18 of 21 (86%) of the dependent variables for supporting inclusion. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not supported because significant differences between the means of general education and special education teachers' perceptions were found

for principals utilizing Marzano's leadership responsibilities in implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion.

Research Design

The design of this study was a quantitative research method (teachers' questionnaire) using descriptive statistics for the analysis of Research Questions 1, 2, and 3. In addition to descriptive statistics and to determine whether statistically significant differences existed between the means of general education and special education teachers' perceptions of principals implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion, the researcher chose the statistical analysis of independent-samples t tests to determine those differences.

Consequently, Research Question 4 was analyzed using independent-samples t tests to determine whether statistically significant differences existed between the means of general education and special education teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership responsibilities in implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion. This study hopefully discovered the extent to which principals were utilizing Marzano's 21 Leadership Responsibilities in implementing, maintaining, and supporting the inclusion programs in their respective schools according to the perceptions of general education and special education teachers participating in co-teaching inclusion programs in 18 Georgia's First District RESA service areas.

For the quantitative method, this non-experimental, descriptive research (Campbell & Stanley, 1963) and independent-samples t tests were used to analyze 63 items on the questionnaire entitled, *General Education and Special Education Teachers' Questionnaire* (see Appendix A). A total of 147 general ($n = 81$) and special education teachers ($n = 66$) from 11 of 18 for a 61% return rate for school districts in Georgia's

First District RESA, operating throughout the State of Georgia and representing a diverse mix of K-12 general education and special education teachers voluntarily participated in this research study. Incomplete questionnaires ($n = 22$) were not included in this study.

This study sought to discover themes from Marzano's 21 Leadership Responsibilities from perceptions of K-12 general education and special education teachers. The questionnaire included questions designed based on the responsibilities of the school leader identified by Marzano, Waters, and McNulty (2005). This questionnaire also contained demographic information relevant to the study (i.e., general education or special education teacher and number of years in a co-teaching inclusion program).

Population and Sampling

One hundred and forty-seven teachers (81 general education teachers and 66 special education teachers) responded to the 63-item questionnaire based on *Marzano's 21 Leadership Responsibilities* (Marzano et al., 2005). For the purpose of this study, the researcher named the instrument, *General Education and Special Education Teachers' Questionnaire*. Participants in this study were general education and special education teachers whose current assignment was in a K-12 inclusive setting. Participants were selected by special education directors in their respective school districts based on their active participation in inclusion programs within their schools.

The criteria for participants were: certified general education or special education teachers; taught in a highly functioning inclusion programs; and employed in one of 18 FDRESA service area districts. All participants in this study volunteered with the option of withdrawing from the study at any time. There was no harm or threat of harm to participants.

The FDRESA service area served students in grades K-12 at 143 schools that consisted of 82 elementary schools, 43 middle schools and 32 high schools in the following 18 school districts: Appling County, Bryan County, Bulloch County, Camden County, Candler County, Chatham County, Effingham County, Evans County, Glynn County, Jeff Davis County, Liberty County, Long County, McIntosh County, Screven County, Tattnall County, Toombs County, Vidalia-City, and Wayne County. Of this number of school districts, 81 general education teachers and 66 special education teachers from 11 of 18 school districts in FDRESA voluntarily completed and returned teacher questionnaires in this study.

The researcher used non-probability, purposive sampling since the sample was selected based upon the total number of general education and special education teachers in their district who were participating in highly functioning inclusion programs. Subjects were selected because of similar characteristics (Patton, 1990) such as full-time certified teachers in their respective fields in Georgia's First District RESA area, and worked in co-teaching inclusion programs. The rationale for using the purposive sampling technique was due to that fact that there were a limited number of general education and special education teachers within Georgia's First District RESA area who were participating in highly functioning inclusion programs. The selection process for participants in this study only involved determining which schools were participating in highly functioning inclusion programs.

The perception of leadership responsibilities vary depending on the person questioned (Marzano, Waters & McNulty, 2005). General education and special education teachers all have ideas regarding how leadership responsibilities impact the implementation, maintenance, and support of inclusion programs. Therefore, participants

voluntarily participated to share their perceptions and contribute to this research that will be shared with school leaders in the Georgia FDRESA service area. It was anticipated that the results of this study might enhance inclusion programs within the Georgia FDRESA service area.

Instrument

The questionnaire used in this study was entitled, *General Education and Special Education Teachers' Questionnaire* was based on the 21 Responsibilities of the School Leader identified by Marzano et al. (2005). For the purpose of this study, quantitative analysis using descriptive statistics was used. The questionnaire was designed by the researcher based on the 21 Responsibilities of the School Leader identified by Marzano et al. (2005). These 21 leadership responsibilities were developed in each area of implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion programs. In Part I of the questionnaire, 21 items were utilized to gather teacher perceptions of the utilization to *implement* inclusion programs. In Part II of the questionnaire, 21 items were utilized to gather teacher perceptions of the utilization to *maintain* inclusion programs. In Part III of the questionnaire, 21 items were utilized to gather teacher perceptions of the utilization to *support* inclusion programs. The following questions were asked of participants, "What responsibilities has the principal assumed in implementing, maintaining, and supporting the inclusion program in your building?" *Implementing inclusion* means making certain that inclusion practices and principles are achieved. *Maintaining inclusion* means continuing or keeping inclusion practices and principles in existence without changing it. *Supporting inclusion* means being in favor of the inclusion program for its success. A total of 63 items in the three areas of implementing, maintaining, and supporting was part of this questionnaire to measure Marzano's Leadership Responsibilities. Demographic

information included general or special education teacher and number of years in a co-teaching inclusion program.

Reliability of the Instrument

To test the reliability of the instrument, *General Education and Special Education Teachers' Questionnaire*, a Bonferroni procedure using Analyze, Scale, and Reliability Analysis in the SPSS program was utilized. Marzano's original instrument contained 21 items. To test the areas of implementing inclusion, maintaining inclusion, and supporting inclusion, the researcher repeated the use of these 21 leadership responsibilities for all three areas that created a new total of 63 test items. Marzano's original instrument was tested for reliability on the 21 items but not for 63 items; that's why a Bonferroni procedure was run on 63 items created under three categories for this study to test for internal consistency of the items.

As a result, the reliability analysis scale showed 147 general and special education teachers who responded to 63 items on the instrument, *General Education and Special Education Teachers' Questionnaire*. The Alpha level of reliability coefficient was 0.99 that is more than the acceptable level of 0.70 to be considered reliable. Hence, it was concluded that the questionnaire with 63 items created by the researcher was reliable.

Validity of the Instrument

Marzano et al. (2005) conducted a meta-analysis on 69 studies seeking specific behaviors related to principal leadership. Those researchers identified 21 categories of behaviors referred to in this study as *responsibilities*. Those leadership responsibilities were correlated with student achievement as shown in Appendix D.

The questionnaire was used to determine whether or not a relationship existed between perceptions general education and special education teacher perceptions of

principals utilizing the 21 responsibilities while implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion. The leadership responsibilities of the principal as identified by Marzano et al. (2005) that were used in the questionnaire can be found in Appendix D.

Procedures

The researcher adhered to the following procedures:

- During spring of 2009, the researcher requested and received approval from Georgia Southern University Institutional Review Board (IRB) to conduct this study.
- After IRB approval, the researcher mailed informed consent letters to special education district directors in 18 school systems within the Georgia First District RESA service area (see Appendix B). The purpose of this contact was two-fold. First, the researcher gained permission to conduct the questionnaire. Second, the researcher requested a list containing the total number of general education and special education teachers in their district who were participating in highly functioning inclusion programs. Informed consent letters to general education and special education teachers were included in the packet of information given to special education directors (see Appendix C).
- After initial contact had been completed, the researcher again contacted special education district directors via email. The purpose of this contact was tri-fold. The researcher used this communication as an opportunity to describe the study, to explain the significance of the study, and to solicit their assistance in the return of teacher questionnaires from general education and special education teachers in their districts.

- The following week, cover letters explaining the purpose of the study and questionnaires were mailed to special education district directors in self-addressed stamped envelopes.
- After 10 days of data collection, the researcher sent reminder emails to special education district directors who had not responded.
- After 15 days, a second mailing of questionnaires was sent to these special education directors, if needed.
- After 21 days, special education district directors that had not responded to email requests received reminder telephone calls to special education district directors who had not returned questionnaires from teachers.
- At the end of this period, the researcher had exhausted all means of communication and there was no further contact with special education district directors requesting return of questionnaires.

Data Collection

The researcher collected quantitative data from responses on teacher questionnaires from special education district directors. Another portion of this questionnaire included demographic section used to collect information about participants such as general education or special education status and number of years in co-teaching inclusion program.

Data Analysis

Data analysis for this study utilized descriptive statistics to describe data to answer Research Questions 1, 2, and 3 to describe general education and special education teachers' perceptions of leadership responsibilities regarding implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion programs 11 of 18 school districts in Georgia's

First District RESA service area. Research Question 4 was answered using independent-samples *t* tests to determine whether statistically significant differences existed between the means of general education and special education teachers' perceptions of the principals' leadership responsibilities in implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion as measured by Marzano's 21 Leadership Responsibilities.

In every case, descriptive research described teachers' responses from the questionnaire. Descriptive research did not involve changing or modifying the situation under investigation, nor was it intended to detect cause-effect relationships. Examples of descriptive research that yielded quantitative data were correlation studies, developmental designs, observation studies, and questionnaire research (University of New England, 2000). The emphasis in the present study was on questionnaire research using descriptive analysis and independent-samples *t* tests.

Ethical Protection of Human Subjects

Participants had the right to refuse participation or to withdraw at any time with no penalty. Additionally, participants also had the right to inspect, upon request, any instrument or materials related to the research study within a reasonable period of time after the request is received. Only the researcher had access to the information collected in this project, which will be kept in locked storage at the residence of the investigator for a period of three years following the completion of the research.

Participants' names did not appear in any reports of this research. The names of the school, teacher, or school principal's name were not reported in the final report. No personally identifiable information was reported about participants. No personally identifiable information was released to anyone for any reason without written permission is obtained in advance. All information obtained in this study was strictly

confidential unless disclosure was required by law. There were no direct benefits to participants. There were no costs to participants or payments made to participants for participating in this study.

Participation in this project was voluntary and involved no unusual risks to participants who may rescind their permission at any time without negative consequences. The risks to participants were considered minimal; there was a small, possible chance that they may experience some emotional discomfort during or after the questionnaire. Should participants experience such discomfort, they were advised to contact the researcher for a list of school counselors.

Summary

Successful school reform is entrenched in the efforts of school leaders. These leaders must have a plethora of leadership responsibilities in their repertoire, which can be utilized to embed needed programs in schools. Currently there is a legislative and professional interest in increasing the level at which special needs students are participating in inclusion classrooms. Special education and general education participating in inclusion high functioning inclusion programs can provide information regarding leadership responsibilities that are positively impacting these programs in our schools.

With this said, the researcher's purpose in this study is to utilize the perceptions of general education and special education teachers to determine if there are any common leadership responsibilities utilized by principals that positively impact implementation, maintenance, and support of inclusion programs. This study provided a great extension to the body of literature that already exists in the areas of leadership and inclusion.

Quantitative data from a teachers' questionnaire were collected and analyzed. For the quantitative data, the researcher used a 5-point Likert-type scale (1 = Never, 2 = Seldom,

3 = Don't Know, 4 = Often, and 5 = Always) and rank order instrument to gain information from general education and special education teachers regarding leadership responsibilities that impact the implementation, maintenance, and support of inclusion programs. General education and special education teachers participating in high functioning inclusion programs across Georgia's First District RESA area served as the sample population in this study. Although the findings were generalized throughout the nation or state, this research might provide a basis for educational leaders in school systems that were attempting to embed inclusion programs into the culture of their schools.

The leadership responsibilities outlined in *School Leadership that Works* would serve as lenses through which the researcher could examine the impact of leadership on implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion programs.

CHAPTER IV
REPORT OF DATA AND DATA ANALYSIS

Introduction

The overarching research question was: Based on the perceptions of general education and special education teachers, to what extent do principals utilize Marzano's 21 Leadership Responsibilities to implement, maintain, and support inclusion programs in their schools? The following sub-questions were examined in this study:

Research Question 1: Based on the perceptions of teachers, to what extent do principals utilize leadership responsibilities to *implement* inclusion programs?

Research Question 2: Based on the perceptions of teachers, to what extent do principals utilize leadership responsibilities to *maintain* inclusion programs?

Research Question 3: Based on the perceptions of teachers, to what extent do principals utilize leadership responsibilities to *support* inclusion programs?

Research Question 4: Is there a statistically significant difference between K-12 general education and special education teachers' perceptions of principals' utilization of leadership responsibilities in implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion?

The design of this study was a quantitative research method (teachers' questionnaire) using descriptive statistics data and independent-samples *t* tests. The researcher discovered the extent to which principals were utilizing Marzano's 21 Leadership Responsibilities to implement, maintain, and support inclusion programs in their schools according to the perceptions of general education and special education teachers participating in co-teaching inclusion programs in Georgia's First District RESA.

Analysis of Demographic Data

Demographic data were collected to determine type of teacher, number of years in a co-teaching inclusion program, and the school district that general and special education teachers were working. There were 81 (55.1%) general education teachers that voluntarily participated in this study. There were 66 (44.9%) special education teachers that participated in this study for a total of 147 teachers (see Table 1).

Table 1

Type of Teacher

Type of Teacher	Frequency	Percent
General Education Teacher	81	55.1
Special Education Teacher	66	44.9
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (43.5%) of participants had spent more than 4 years in a co-teaching inclusion program followed by 32 (21.8%) participants that had 1 year. Fewer than one fourth (19.0%) of participants had 3 years of co-teaching. Twenty-three (15.6%) participants had spent 2 years in a co-teaching inclusion program (see Table 2).

Table 2

Number of Years in Co-Teaching Program

Number of Years	Frequency	Percent
1 year	32	21.8
2 years	23	15.6
3 years	28	19.0
4 or more years	64	43.6
Total	147	100.0

A total of 147 general education and special education teachers from 11 of 18 (61%) school districts voluntarily participated in this study. Fewer than one fourth (19.0%) of participants were from School District A followed by 19 (12.9%) general and special education teachers from School District J. Seventeen (11.6%) teachers from School District H participated with 16 (10.9%) teachers from School District I. An equal number of teachers from School Districts B and C participated (9.5%). Other school districts with fewer than ten percent participation were: School District E (8.2%), School District L (6.8%), School District K (5.4%), School District F (4.8%), and School District G (1.4) as depicted in Table 3.

Table 3

Georgia's First District RESA Service Areas

Teachers in School Districts	Frequency	Percent
School District A	28	19.0
School District B	14	9.5
School District C	14	9.5
School District E	12	8.2
School District F	7	4.8
School District G	2	1.4
School District H	17	11.6
School District I	16	10.9
School District J	19	12.9
School District K	8	5.4
School District L	10	6.8
Total	147	100.0

Analysis of Research Question One: Implementing Inclusion

Research Question 1: Based on the perceptions of teachers, to what extent do principals utilize leadership responsibilities to implement inclusion programs?

Slightly over half (50.3%) of participants believed that the principal often “recognizes and celebrates accomplishments and acknowledges failures.” Fewer than one fourth (22.4%) reported that the principal always “recognizes and celebrates accomplishments and acknowledges failures.” Over ten percent (12.2%) stated that the

principal seldom “recognizes and celebrates accomplishments and acknowledges failures.” Twenty-one (14.3%) participants did not know whether the principal “recognizes and celebrates accomplishments and acknowledges failures.” One (0.7%) participant stated that the principal never “recognizes and celebrates accomplishments and acknowledges failures” as demonstrated in Table 4.

Table 4

Principal Recognizes Accomplishments and Acknowledges Failures

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	1	.7
Seldom	18	12.3
Don't Know	21	14.3
Often	74	50.3
Always	33	22.4
Total	147	100.0

As depicted in Table 5, fewer than half (41.4%) of the participants reported that the principal “is often willing to challenge and actively challenges the status quo.” Fewer than one fourth (24.0%) stated that the principal “is always willing to challenge and actively challenges the status quo.” Fewer than one fourth (22.4%) of the participants stated that they did not know whether the principal “is willing to challenge and actively challenges the status quo.” Fewer than ten percent (9.5%) reported that the principal “is seldom willing to challenge and actively challenges the status quo.” Four participants

(2.7%) believed that the principal “is never willing to challenge and actively challenges the status quo” as demonstrated in Table 5.

Table 5

Principal Challenges Status Quo

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	4	2.7
Seldom	14	9.5
Don't Know	33	22.4
Often	61	41.5
Always	35	23.9
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (42.9%) of the participants reported that the principal often “recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments.” Slightly over one fourth (25.1%) believed that the principal always “recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments.” Twenty-one participants (14.3%) reported that the principal seldom “recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments.” Another 20 participants (13.6%) reported that they did not know whether the principal “recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments.” A small percentage (4.1%) stated that the principal never “recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments” as shown in Table 6.

Table 6

Principal Recognizes and Rewards Accomplishments

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	6	4.1
Seldom	21	14.3
Don't Know	20	13.6
Often	63	42.9
Always	37	25.1
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (43.5%) of the participants reported that the principal often “establishes strong lines of communication with and among teachers and students.” Fewer than one third (30.6%) of participants believed that the principal always “establishes strong lines of communication with and among teachers and students.” Fourteen (9.5%) participants reported that the principal seldom “establishes strong lines of communication with and among teachers and students.” Eighteen (12.3%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “establishes strong lines of communication with and among teachers and students.” A small percentage (4.1%) stated that the principal never “establishes strong lines of communication with and among teachers and students” as shown in Table 7.

Table 7

Principal Establishes Communication With/Among Teachers and Students

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	6	4.1
Seldom	14	9.5
Don't Know	18	12.3
Often	64	43.5
Always	45	30.6
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than one fourth (30.6%) of participants believed that the principal often “fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation.” More than half (58.5%) of the participants reported that the principal always “fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation.” Twelve (8.2%) participants reported that the principal seldom “fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation.” Thirteen (8.8%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation.” A small percentage (2.0%) stated that the principal never “fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation” as depicted in Table 8.

Table 8

Principal Fosters Shared Beliefs and Sense of Community/Cooperation

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	6	4.1
Seldom	14	9.5
Don't Know	18	12.3
Often	64	43.5
Always	45	30.6
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (47.0%) of the participants reported that the principal often “protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching and time or focus.” Fewer than one fourth (24.5%) of participants believed that the principal always “protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching and time or focus.” Thirteen (8.8%) participants reported that the principal seldom “protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching and time or focus.” Twenty (13.6%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching and time or focus.” A small percentage (6.1%) stated that the principal never “protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching and time or focus” as depicted in Table 9.

Table 9

Principal Protects Teachers From Issues That Detract from Teaching

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	9	6.1
Seldom	13	8.8
Don't Know	20	13.6
Often	69	47.0
Always	36	24.5
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (40.8%) of the participants reported that the principal often “adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent.” Fewer than one third (31.4%) of participants believed that the principal always “adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent.” Thirteen (8.8%) participants reported that the principal seldom “adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent.” Twenty (13.6%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent.” A small percentage (5.4%) stated that the principal never “adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent” as depicted in Table 10.

Table 10

Principal Adapts Leadership Behavior

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	8	5.4
Seldom	13	8.8
Don't Know	20	13.6
Often	60	40.8
Always	46	31.4
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (44.9%) of the participants reported that the principal often “establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school’s attention.” Fewer than half (40.1%) of participants believed that the principal always “establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school’s attention.” Eleven (7.5%) participants reported that the principal seldom “establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school’s attention.” Nine (6.1%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school’s attention.” A small percentage (1.4%) stated that the principal never “establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school’s attention” as depicted in Table 11.

Table 11

Principal Establishes Clear Goals and Keeps Goals in Forefront

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	2	1.4
Seldom	11	7.5
Don't Know	9	6.1
Often	66	44.9
Always	59	40.1
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (44.2%) of the participants reported that the principal often “communicates and operates from the strong ideals and beliefs about schooling.” Fewer than half (41.4%) of participants believed that the principal always “communicates and operates from the strong ideals and beliefs about schooling.” Twelve (8.2%) participants reported that the principal seldom “communicates and operates from the strong ideals and beliefs about schooling.” Seven (4.8%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “communicates and operates from the strong ideals and beliefs about schooling.” A small percentage (1.4%) stated that the principal never “communicates and operates from the strong ideals and beliefs about schooling” as shown in Table 12.

Table 12

Principal Communicates Strong Ideals/Beliefs About Schooling

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	2	1.4
Seldom	12	8.2
Don't Know	7	4.8
Often	65	44.2
Always	61	41.4
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (46.3%) of the participants reported that the principal often “involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies.” Fewer than one fourth (25.2%) of participants believed that the principal always “involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies.” Nineteen (12.9%) participants reported that the principal seldom “involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies.” Seventeen (11.6%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies.” A small percentage (4.1%) stated that the principal never “involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies” as depicted in Table 13.

Table 13

Principal Involves Teachers in Important Decisions and Policies

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	6	4.1
Seldom	19	12.9
Don't Know	17	11.6
Often	68	46.3
Always	37	25.1
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (40.1%) of the participants reported that the principal often “ensures that faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a general aspect of the school’s culture.” Fewer than one third (30.0%) of participants believed that the principal always “ensures that faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a general aspect of the school’s culture.” Fifteen (10.2%) participants reported that the principal seldom “ensures that faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a general aspect of the school’s culture.” Twenty-four (16.3%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “ensures that faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a general aspect of the school’s culture.” A small percentage (3.4%) stated that the principal never “ensures that faculty and staff are aware

of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a general aspect of the school's culture" as demonstrated in Table 14.

Table 14

Principal Ensures Faculty and Staff Are Aware of Current Practices

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	5	3.4
Seldom	15	10.2
Don't Know	24	16.3
Often	59	40.1
Always	44	30.0
Total	147	100.0

More than one third (37.4%) of the participants reported that the principal often "is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices." Fewer than one third (31.3%) of participants believed that the principal always "is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices." Sixteen (10.9%) participants reported that the principal seldom "is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices." Twenty-seven (18.4%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal "is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices." A small percentage (2.0%) stated that the principal "is never directly involved in the design and

implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices” as demonstrated in Table 15.

Table 15

Principal Involved in Design and Implementation of Curriculum and Instruction

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	3	2.0
Seldom	16	10.9
Don't Know	27	18.4
Often	55	37.4
Always	46	31.3
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (42.2%) of the participants reported that the principal is often “knowledgeable of current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.” More than one third (39.4%) of participants believed that the principal is always “knowledgeable of current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.” Nine (6.1%) participants reported that the principal is seldom “knowledgeable of current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.” Sixteen (10.9%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal is “knowledgeable of current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.” A small percentage (1.4%) stated that the principal is

“knowledgeable of current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices” as demonstrated in Table 16.

Table 16

Principal is Knowledgeable of Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment Practices

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	2	1.4
Seldom	9	6.1
Don't Know	16	10.9
Often	62	42.2
Always	58	39.4
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (44.9%) of the participants reported that the principal often “monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning.” More than one third (37.4%) of participants believed that the principal always “monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning.” Eight (5.4%) participants reported that the principal seldom “monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning.” Fifteen (10.2%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning.” A small percentage (2.0%) stated that the principal never “monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning” as demonstrated in Table 17.

Table 17

Principal Monitors Effectiveness of School Practices and Impact on Student Learning

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	4	2.7
Seldom	14	9.5
Don't Know	21	14.3
Often	56	38.1
Always	52	35.4
Total	147	100.0

More than one third (38.1%) of the participants reported that the principal often “inspires and leads new and challenging innovations.” More than one third (35.4%) of participants believed that the principal always “inspires and leads new and challenging innovations.” Fourteen (9.5%) participants reported that the principal seldom “inspires and leads new and challenging innovations.” Twenty-one (14.3%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “inspires and leads new and challenging innovations.” A small percentage (2.7%) stated that the principal never “inspires and leads new and challenging innovations” as demonstrated in Table 18.

Table 18

Principal Inspires and Leads New and Challenging Innovations

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	4	2.7
Seldom	14	9.5
Don't Know	21	14.3
Often	56	38.1
Always	52	35.4
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (40.8%) of the participants reported that the principal often “establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines.” Fewer than half (42.2%) of participants believed that the principal always “establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines.” Ten (6.8%) participants reported that the principal seldom “the principal is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders.” Thirteen (8.8%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines.” A small percentage (1.4%) stated that the principal never “establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines” as demonstrated in Table 19.

Table 19

Principal Establishes Set of Standard Operating Procedures and Routines

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	2	1.4
Seldom	10	6.8
Don't Know	13	8.8
Often	60	40.8
Always	62	42.2
Total	147	100.0

More than one third (39.5%) of the participants reported that the principal often “the principal is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders.” Fewer than half (42.8%) of participants believed that the principal always “the principal is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders.” Seven (4.8%) participants reported that the principal seldom “the principal is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders.” Sixteen (10.9%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “the principal is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders.” A small percentage (2.0%) stated that the principal never “the principal is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders” as demonstrated in Table 20.

Table 20

Principal is an Advocate for School to All Stakeholders

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	3	2.0
Seldom	7	4.8
Don't Know	16	10.9
Often	58	39.5
Always	63	42.8
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (40.1%) of the participants reported that the principal often “demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff.” More than one third (35.4%) of participants believed that the principal always “demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff.” Seventeen (11.6%) participants reported that the principal seldom “demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff.” Fourteen (9.5%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff.” A small percentage (3.4%) stated that the principal never “demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff” as demonstrated in Table 21.

Table 21

Principal Demonstrates Awareness of Personal Aspects of Teachers and Staff

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	5	3.4
Seldom	17	11.6
Don't Know	14	9.5
Often	59	40.1
Always	52	35.4
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (41.4%) of the participants reported that the principal often “provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs.” More than one third (36.8%) of participants believed that the principal always “provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs.” Nine (6.1%) participants reported that the principal seldom “provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs.” Twenty-two (15.0%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs.” Fewer than one percent (0.7%) stated that the principal never “provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs” as demonstrated in Table 22.

Table 22

Principal Provides Teachers With Materials and Professional Development

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	1	.7
Seldom	9	6.1
Don't Know	22	15.0
Often	61	41.4
Always	54	36.8
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (40.9%) of the participants reported that the principal is often “aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems.” One third (33.3%) of participants believed that the principal is always “aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems.” Nineteen (12.9%) participants reported that the principal is seldom “aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems.” Sixteen (10.9%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal is “aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems.” A small percentage (2.0%) stated that the principal is never “aware of the

details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems” as demonstrated in Table 23.

Table 23

Principal is Aware of Details in Running School to Address Problems

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	3	2.0
Seldom	19	12.9
Don't Know	16	10.9
Often	60	40.9
Always	49	33.3
Total	147	100.0

More than one third (36.7%) of the participants reported that the principal often has “quality contact and interactions with teachers and students.” More than one third (36.7%) of participants believed that the principal always has “quality contact and interactions with teachers and students.” Twenty-three (15.8%) participants reported that the principal seldom has “quality contact and interactions with teachers and students.” Thirteen (8.8%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal has “quality contact and interactions with teachers and students.” A small percentage (2.0%) stated that the principal never has “quality contact and interactions with teachers and students” as demonstrated in Table 24.

Table 24

Principal Has Quality Contact and Interactions With Teachers and Students

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	3	2.0
Seldom	23	15.8
Don't Know	13	8.8
Often	54	36.7
Always	54	36.7
Total	147	100.0

Analysis of Research Question Two: Maintaining Inclusion

Research Question 2: Based on the perceptions of teachers, to what extent do principals utilize leadership responsibilities to maintain inclusion programs?

Fewer than half (43.5%) of participants believed that the principal often “recognizes and celebrates accomplishments and acknowledges failures.” More than one fourth (27.2%) reported that the principal always “recognizes and celebrates accomplishments and acknowledges failures.” Twenty-five (17.0%) participants stated that the principal seldom “recognizes and celebrates accomplishments and acknowledges failures.” Twelve (8.2%) participants did not know whether the principal “recognizes and celebrates accomplishments and acknowledges failures.” A small percentage (4.1%) stated that the principal never “recognizes and celebrates accomplishments and acknowledges failures” as demonstrated in Table 25.

Table 25

Principal Recognizes Accomplishments and Acknowledges Failures

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	6	4.1
Seldom	25	17.0
Don't Know	12	8.2
Often	64	43.5
Always	40	27.2
Total	147	100.0

As shown in Table 26, fewer than half (42.2%) of the participants reported that the principal “is often willing to challenge and actively challenges the status quo.” Fewer than one fourth (27.2%) stated that the principal “is always willing to challenge and actively challenges the status quo.” Slightly over ten percent (14.3%) of the participants stated that they did not know whether the principal “is willing to challenge and actively challenges the status quo.” More than ten percent (13.6%) reported that the principal “is seldom willing to challenge and actively challenges the status quo.” Four participants (2.7%) believed that the principal “is never willing to challenge and actively challenges the status quo.”

Table 26

Principal Challenges Status Quo

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	4	2.7
Seldom	20	13.6
Don't Know	21	14.3
Often	62	42.2
Always	40	27.2
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (42.9%) of the participants reported that the principal often “recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments.” Slightly fewer than one fourth (24.4%) believed that the principal always “recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments.” Twenty-seven participants (18.4%) reported that the principal seldom “recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments.” Another 15 participants (10.2%) reported that they did not know whether the principal “recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments.” A small percentage (4.1%) stated that the principal never “recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments” as shown in Table 27.

Table 27

Principal Recognizes and Rewards Accomplishments

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	6	4.1
Seldom	27	18.4
Don't Know	15	10.2
Often	63	42.9
Always	36	24.4
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (46.8%) of the participants reported that the principal often “establishes strong lines of communication with and among teachers and students.” Slightly more than one fourth (25.2%) of participants believed that the principal always “establishes strong lines of communication with and among teachers and students.” Seventeen (11.6%) participants reported that the principal seldom “establishes strong lines of communication with and among teachers and students.” Eighteen (12.3%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “establishes strong lines of communication with and among teachers and students.” A small percentage (4.1%) stated that the principal never “establishes strong lines of communication with and among teachers and students” as shown in Table 28.

Table 28

Principal Establishes Communication With/Among Teachers and Students

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	6	4.1
Seldom	17	11.6
Don't Know	18	12.3
Often	69	46.8
Always	37	25.2
Total	147	100.0

More than one third (38.1%) of participants believed that the principal often “fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation.” Fewer than half (41.5%) of the participants reported that the principal always “fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation.” Eleven (7.5%) participants reported that the principal seldom “fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation.” Fifteen (10.2%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation.” A small percentage (2.7%) stated that the principal never “fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation” as depicted in Table 29.

Table 29

Principal Fosters Shared Beliefs and Sense of Community/Cooperation

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	4	2.7
Seldom	11	7.5
Don't Know	15	10.2
Often	61	41.5
Always	56	38.1
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (41.4%) of the participants reported that the principal often “protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching and time or focus.” More than one fourth (28.6%) of participants believed that the principal always “protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching and time or focus.” Eighteen (12.3%) participants reported that the principal seldom “protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching and time or focus.” Eighteen (12.3%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching and time or focus.” A small percentage (5.4%) stated that the principal never “protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching and time or focus” as depicted in Table 30.

Table 30

Principal Protects Teachers From Issues That Detract from Teaching

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	8	5.4
Seldom	18	12.3
Don't Know	18	12.3
Often	61	41.4
Always	42	28.6
Total	147	100.0

More than one third (39.5%) of the participants reported that the principal often “adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent.” Fewer than one third (31.2%) of participants believed that the principal always “adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent.” Fifteen (10.2%) participants reported that the principal seldom “adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent.” Twenty-one (14.3%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent.” A small percentage (4.8%) stated that the principal never “adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent” as depicted in Table 31.

Table 31

Principal Adapts Leadership Behavior

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	7	4.8
Seldom	15	10.2
Don't Know	21	14.3
Often	58	39.5
Always	46	31.2
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (44.1%) of the participants reported that the principal often “establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school’s attention.” More than one third (39.5%) of participants believed that the principal always “establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school’s attention.” Eleven (7.5%) participants reported that the principal seldom “establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school’s attention.” Eleven (7.5%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school’s attention.” A small percentage (1.4%) stated that the principal never “establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school’s attention” as depicted in Table 32.

Table 32

Principal Establishes Clear Goals and Keeps Goals in Forefront

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	2	1.4
Seldom	11	7.5
Don't Know	11	7.5
Often	65	44.1
Always	58	39.5
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (42.2%) of the participants reported that the principal often “communicates and operates from the strong ideals and beliefs about schooling.” Fewer than half (42.9%) of participants believed that the principal always “communicates and operates from the strong ideals and beliefs about schooling.” Nine (6.1%) participants reported that the principal seldom “communicates and operates from the strong ideals and beliefs about schooling.” Ten (6.8%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “communicates and operates from the strong ideals and beliefs about schooling.” A small percentage (2.0%) stated that the principal never “communicates and operates from the strong ideals and beliefs about schooling” as shown in Table 33.

Table 33

Principal Communicates Strong Ideals/Beliefs About Schooling

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	3	2.0
Seldom	9	6.1
Don't Know	10	6.8
Often	62	42.2
Always	63	42.9
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (40.8%) of the participants reported that the principal often “involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies.” More than one fourth (27.3%) of participants believed that the principal always “involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies.” Nineteen (12.9%) participants reported that the principal seldom “involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies.” Nineteen (12.9%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies.” A small percentage (6.1%) stated that the principal never “involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies” as depicted in Table 34.

Table 34

Principal Involves Teachers in Important Decisions and Policies

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	9	6.1
Seldom	19	12.9
Don't Know	19	12.9
Often	60	40.8
Always	40	27.3
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (48.3%) of the participants reported that the principal often “ensures that faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a general aspect of the school’s culture.” Fewer than one fourth (29.9%) of participants believed that the principal always “ensures that faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a general aspect of the school’s culture.” Fourteen (9.5%) participants reported that the principal seldom “ensures that faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a general aspect of the school’s culture.” Twelve (8.2%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “ensures that faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a general aspect of the school’s culture.” A small percentage (4.1%) stated that the principal never “ensures that faculty and staff are aware

of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a general aspect of the school's culture" as demonstrated in Table 35.

Table 35

Principal Ensures Faculty and Staff Are Aware of Current Practices

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	6	4.1
Seldom	14	9.5
Don't Know	12	8.2
Often	71	48.3
Always	44	29.9
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (42.8%) of the participants reported that the principal often "is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices." More than one fourth (27.2%) of participants believed that the principal always "is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices." Twelve (8.2%) participants reported that the principal seldom "is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices." Twenty-seven (18.4%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal "is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices." A small percentage (3.4%) stated that the principal "is never directly involved in the design and

implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices” as demonstrated in Table 36.

Table 36

Principal Involved in Design and Implementation of Curriculum and Instruction

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	5	3.4
Seldom	12	8.2
Don't Know	27	18.4
Often	63	42.8
Always	40	27.2
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (40.1%) of the participants reported that the principal is often “knowledgeable of current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.” Slightly fewer than one third (32.7%) of participants believed that the principal is always “knowledgeable of current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.” Twelve (8.2%) participants reported that the principal is seldom “knowledgeable of current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.” Twenty-four (16.3%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal is “knowledgeable of current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.” A small percentage (2.7%) stated that

the principal is “knowledgeable of current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices” as demonstrated in Table 37.

Table 37

Principal is Knowledgeable of Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment Practices

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	4	2.7
Seldom	12	8.2
Don't Know	24	16.3
Often	59	40.1
Always	48	32.7
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (41.5%) of the participants reported that the principal often “monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning.” More than one third (36.8%) of participants believed that the principal always “monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning.” Nine (6.1%) participants reported that the principal seldom “monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning.” Twenty (13.6%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning.” A small percentage (2.0%) stated that the principal

never “monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning” as depicted in Table 38.

Table 38

Principal Monitors Effectiveness of School Practices and Impact on Student Learning

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	3	2.0
Seldom	9	6.1
Don't Know	20	13.6
Often	61	41.5
Always	54	36.8
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (45.6%) of the participants reported that the principal often “inspires and leads new and challenging innovations.” More than one fourth (27.9%) of participants believed that the principal always “inspires and leads new and challenging innovations.” Fifteen (10.2%) participants reported that the principal seldom “inspires and leads new and challenging innovations.” Nineteen (12.9%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “inspires and leads new and challenging innovations.” A small percentage (3.4%) stated that the principal never “inspires and leads new and challenging innovations” as demonstrated in Table 39.

Table 39

Principal Inspires and Leads New and Challenging Innovations

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	5	3.4
Seldom	15	10.2
Don't Know	19	12.9
Often	67	45.6
Always	54	27.9
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (47.5%) of the participants reported that the principal often “establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines.” More than one third (36.1%) of participants believed that the principal always “establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines.” Seven (4.8%) participants reported that the principal seldom “establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines.” Twelve (8.2%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines.” A small percentage (3.4%) stated that the principal never “establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines” as demonstrated in Table 40.

Table 40

Principal Establishes a Set of Standard Operating Procedures and Routines

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	5	3.4
Seldom	7	4.8
Don't Know	12	8.2
Often	70	47.5
Always	53	36.1
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (40.8%) of the participants reported that the principal often “the principal is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders.” More than one third (35.3%) of participants believed that the principal always “the principal is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders.” Eleven (7.5%) participants reported that the principal seldom “the principal is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders.” Twenty-two (15.0%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “the principal is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders.” A small percentage (1.4%) stated that the principal never “the principal is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders” as demonstrated in Table 41.

Table 41

Principal is an Advocate for School to All Stakeholders

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	2	1.4
Seldom	11	7.5
Don't Know	22	15.0
Often	60	40.8
Always	52	35.3
Total	147	100.0

More than one third (39.5%) of the participants reported that the principal often “demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff.” Fewer than one third (30.6%) of participants believed that the principal always “demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff.” Twenty (13.6%) participants reported that the principal seldom “demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff.” Sixteen (10.9%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff.” A small percentage (5.4%) stated that the principal never “demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff” as demonstrated in Table 42.

Table 42

Principal Demonstrates Awareness of Personal Aspects of Teachers and Staff

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	8	5.4
Seldom	20	13.6
Don't Know	16	10.9
Often	58	39.5
Always	45	30.6
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (46.2%) of the participants reported that the principal often “provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs.” Fewer than one third (32.0%) of participants believed that the principal always “provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs.” Eleven (7.5%) participants reported that the principal seldom “provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs.” Nineteen (12.9%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs.” A small percentage (1.4%) stated that the principal never “provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs” as shown in Table 43.

Table 43

Principal Provides Teachers With Materials and Professional Development

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	2	1.4
Seldom	11	7.5
Don't Know	19	12.9
Often	68	46.2
Always	47	32.0
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (46.3%) of the participants reported that the principal is often “aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems.” More than one fourth (29.9%) of participants believed that the principal is always “aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems.” Fourteen (9.5%) participants reported that the principal is seldom “aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems.” Seventeen (11.6%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal is “aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems.” A small percentage (2.7%) stated that the principal is never “aware of the

details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems” as demonstrated in Table 44.

Table 44

Principal is Aware of Details in Running School to Address Problems

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	4	2.7
Seldom	14	9.5
Don't Know	17	11.6
Often	68	46.3
Always	44	29.9
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than one third (30.7%) of the participants reported that the principal often has “quality contact and interactions with teachers and students.” Fewer than half (40.8%) of participants believed that the principal always has “quality contact and interactions with teachers and students.” Twenty-three (15.6%) participants reported that the principal seldom has “quality contact and interactions with teachers and students.” Fourteen (9.5%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal has “quality contact and interactions with teachers and students.” A small percentage (3.4%) stated that the principal never has “quality contact and interactions with teachers and students” as demonstrated in Table 45.

Table 45

Principal has Quality Contact and Interactions with Teachers and Students

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	5	3.4
Seldom	23	15.6
Don't Know	14	9.5
Often	45	30.7
Always	60	40.8
Total	147	100.0

Analysis of Research Question Three: Supporting Inclusion

Research Question 3: Based on the perceptions of teachers, to what extent do principals utilize leadership responsibilities to support inclusion programs?

Fewer than half (40.8%) of participants believed that the principal often “recognizes and celebrates accomplishments and acknowledges failures.” Fewer than one third (31.4%) reported that the principal always “recognizes and celebrates accomplishments and acknowledges failures.” Over ten percent (15.6%) stated that the principal seldom “recognizes and celebrates accomplishments and acknowledges failures.” Thirteen (8.8%) participants did not know whether the principal “recognizes and celebrates accomplishments and acknowledges failures.” A small percentage (3.4%) stated that the principal never “recognizes and celebrates accomplishments and acknowledges failures” as demonstrated in Table 46.

Table 46

Principal Recognizes Accomplishments and Acknowledges Failures

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	5	3.4
Seldom	23	15.6
Don't Know	13	8.8
Often	60	40.8
Always	46	31.4
Total	147	100.0

As depicted in Table 47, more than one third (38.1%) of the participants reported that the principal “is often willing to challenge and actively challenges the status quo.” Slightly fewer than one third (32.0%) stated that the principal “is always willing to challenge and actively challenges the status quo.” Fewer than one tenth (14.3%) of the participants stated that they did not know whether the principal “is willing to challenge and actively challenges the status quo.” Eighteen (12.2%) participants reported that the principal “is seldom willing to challenge and actively challenges the status quo.” Five (3.4%) participants believed that the principal “is never willing to challenge and actively challenges the status quo.”

Table 47

Principal Challenges Status Quo

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	5	3.4
Seldom	18	12.2
Don't Know	21	14.3
Often	56	38.1
Always	47	32.0
Total	147	100.0

More than one third (35.5%) of the participants reported that the principal often “recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments.” One third (33.3%) believed that the principal always “recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments.” Twenty-eight participants (19.0%) reported that the principal seldom “recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments.” Thirteen (8.8%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments.” A small percentage (3.4%) stated that the principal never “recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments” as depicted in Table 48.

Table 48

Principal Recognizes and Rewards Accomplishments

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	5	3.4
Seldom	28	19.0
Don't Know	13	8.8
Often	52	35.5
Always	49	33.3
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (42.9%) of the participants reported that the principal often “establishes strong lines of communication with and among teachers and students.” Fewer than one third (31.3%) of participants believed that the principal always “establishes strong lines of communication with and among teachers and students.” Twenty-one (14.3%) participants reported that the principal seldom “establishes strong lines of communication with and among teachers and students.” Thirteen (8.8%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “establishes strong lines of communication with and among teachers and students.” A small percentage (2.7%) stated that the principal never “establishes strong lines of communication with and among teachers and students” as shown in Table 49.

Table 49

Principal Establishes Communication With/Among Teachers and Students

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	4	2.7
Seldom	21	14.3
Don't Know	13	8.8
Often	63	42.9
Always	46	31.3
Total	147	100.0

More than one third (38.8%) of participants believed that the principal often “fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation.” Fewer than half (42.2%) of the participants reported that the principal always “fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation.” Thirteen (8.8%) participants reported that the principal seldom “fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation.” Ten (6.8%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation.” A small percentage (3.4%) stated that the principal never “fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation” as depicted in Table 50.

Table 50

Principal Fosters Shared Beliefs and Sense of Community/Cooperation

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	5	3.4
Seldom	13	8.8
Don't Know	10	6.8
Often	57	38.8
Always	62	42.2
Total	147	100.0

Slightly over half (50.3%) of participants reported that the principal often “protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching and time or focus.” Fewer than one fourth (23.8%) of participants believed that the principal always “protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching and time or focus.” Seventeen (11.6%) participants reported that the principal seldom “protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching and time or focus.” Fourteen (9.5%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching and time or focus.” A small percentage (4.8%) stated that the principal never “protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching and time or focus” as depicted in Table 51.

Table 51

Principal Protects Teachers From Issues That Detract from Teaching

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	7	4.8
Seldom	17	11.6
Don't Know	14	9.5
Often	74	50.3
Always	35	23.8
Total	147	100.0

More than one third (37.4%) of the participants reported that the principal often “adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent.” Fewer than one third (32.6%) of participants believed that the principal always “adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent.” Twenty (13.6%) participants reported that the principal seldom “adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent.” Seventeen (11.6%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent.” A small percentage (4.8%) stated that the principal never “adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent” as shown in Table 52.

Table 52

Principal Adapts Leadership Behavior

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	7	4.8
Seldom	20	13.6
Don't Know	17	11.6
Often	55	37.4
Always	48	32.6
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (46.9%) of the participants reported that the principal often “establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school’s attention.” More than one third (36.1%) of participants believed that the principal always “establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school’s attention.” Eleven (7.5%) participants reported that the principal seldom “establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school’s attention.” Eleven (7.5%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school’s attention.” A small percentage (2.0%) stated that the principal never “establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school’s attention” as depicted in Table 53.

Table 53

Principal Establishes Clear Goals and Keeps Goals in Forefront

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	3	2.0
Seldom	11	7.5
Don't Know	11	7.5
Often	69	46.9
Always	53	36.1
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (44.2%) of the participants reported that the principal often “communicates and operates from the strong ideals and beliefs about schooling.” More than one third (38.1%) of participants believed that the principal always “communicates and operates from the strong ideals and beliefs about schooling.” Twelve (8.2%) participants reported that the principal seldom “communicates and operates from the strong ideals and beliefs about schooling.” Eleven (7.5%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “communicates and operates from the strong ideals and beliefs about schooling.” A small percentage (2.0%) stated that the principal never “communicates and operates from the strong ideals and beliefs about schooling” as shown in Table 54.

Table 54

Principal Communicates Strong Ideals/Beliefs About Schooling

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	3	2.0
Seldom	12	8.2
Don't Know	11	7.5
Often	65	44.2
Always	56	38.1
Total	147	100.0

More than one third (38.7%) of the participants reported that the principal often “involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies.” More than one fourth (27.2%) of participants believed that the principal always “involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies.” Sixteen (10.9%) participants reported that the principal seldom “involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies.” Twenty-seven (18.4%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies.” A small percentage (4.8%) stated that the principal never “involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies” as depicted in Table 55.

Table 55

Principal Involves Teachers in Important Decisions and Policies

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	7	4.8
Seldom	16	10.9
Don't Know	27	18.4
Often	57	38.7
Always	40	27.2
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (44.2%) of the participants reported that the principal often “ensures that faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a general aspect of the school’s culture.” More than one fourth (29.9%) of participants believed that the principal always “ensures that faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a general aspect of the school’s culture.” Fourteen (9.5%) participants reported that the principal seldom “ensures that faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a general aspect of the school’s culture.” Nineteen (13.0%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “ensures that faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a general aspect of the school’s culture.” A small percentage (3.4%) stated that the principal never “ensures that faculty and staff are aware

of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a general aspect of the school's culture" as demonstrated in Table 56.

Table 56

Principal Ensures Faculty and Staff Are Aware of Current Practices

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	5	3.4
Seldom	14	9.5
Don't Know	19	13.0
Often	65	44.2
Always	44	29.9
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (41.4%) of the participants reported that the principal often "is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices." More than one fourth (29.4%) of participants believed that the principal always "is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices." Twenty (13.6%) participants reported that the principal seldom "is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices." Another 20 (13.6%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal "is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices." A small percentage (2.0%) stated that the principal "is never directly involved in the design and

implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices” as demonstrated in Table 57.

Table 57

Principal Involved in Design and Implementation of Curriculum and Instruction

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	3	2.0
Seldom	20	13.6
Don't Know	20	13.6
Often	61	41.4
Always	43	29.4
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (44.9%) of the participants reported that the principal is often “knowledgeable of current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.” Fewer than one third (32.0%) of participants believed that the principal is always “knowledgeable of current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.” Nine (6.1%) participants reported that the principal is seldom “knowledgeable of current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.” Twenty-one (14.3%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal is “knowledgeable of current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.” A small percentage (2.0%) stated that the principal is

“knowledgeable of current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices” as demonstrated in Table 58.

Table 58

Principal is Knowledgeable of Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment Practices

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	3	2.0
Seldom	9	6.1
Don't Know	21	14.3
Often	66	44.9
Always	47	32.0
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (45.6%) of the participants reported that the principal often “monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning.” More than one third (35.4%) of participants believed that the principal always “monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning.” Twelve (8.2%) participants reported that the principal seldom “monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning.” Thirteen (8.8%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning.” A small percentage (2.0%) stated that the principal never “monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning” as demonstrated in Table 59.

Table 59

Principal Monitors Effectiveness of School Practices and Impact on Student Learning

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	3	2.0
Seldom	12	8.2
Don't Know	13	8.8
Often	67	45.6
Always	52	35.4
Total	147	100.0

More than one third (38.8%) of the participants reported that the principal often “inspires and leads new and challenging innovations.” Fewer than one third (31.3%) of participants believed that the principal always “inspires and leads new and challenging innovations.” Twenty (13.6%) participants reported that the principal seldom “inspires and leads new and challenging innovations.” Nineteen (12.9%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “inspires and leads new and challenging innovations.” A small percentage (3.4%) stated that the principal never “inspires and leads new and challenging innovations” as demonstrated in Table 60.

Table 60

Principal Inspires and Leads New and Challenging Innovations

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	5	3.4
Seldom	20	13.6
Don't Know	19	12.9
Often	57	38.8
Always	46	31.3
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (42.2%) of the participants reported that the principal often “establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines.” More than one third (36.6%) of participants believed that the principal always “establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines.” Twelve (8.2%) participants reported that the principal seldom “establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines.” Seventeen (11.6%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines.” A small percentage (1.4%) stated that the principal never “establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines” as demonstrated in Table 61.

Table 61

Principal Establishes a Set of Standard Operating Procedures and Routines

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	2	1.4
Seldom	12	8.2
Don't Know	17	11.6
Often	62	42.2
Always	54	36.6
Total	147	100.0

More than one third (36.7%) of the participants reported that the principal often “the principal is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders.” More than one third (38.2%) of participants believed that the principal always “the principal is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders.” Fourteen (9.5%) participants reported that the principal seldom “the principal is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders.” Twenty (13.6%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “the principal is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders.” A small percentage (2.0%) stated that the principal never “the principal is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders” as demonstrated in Table 62.

Table 62

Principal is an Advocate for School to All Stakeholders

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	3	2.0
Seldom	14	9.5
Don't Know	20	13.6
Often	54	36.7
Always	56	38.2
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (40.8%) of the participants reported that the principal often “demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff.” Fewer than one third (32.0%) of participants believed that the principal always “demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff.” Twenty-four (16.3%) participants reported that the principal seldom “demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff.” Twelve (8.2%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff.” A small percentage (2.7%) stated that the principal never “demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff” as demonstrated in Table 63.

Table 63

Principal Demonstrates Awareness of Personal Aspects of Teachers and Staff

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	4	2.7
Seldom	24	16.3
Don't Know	12	8.2
Often	60	40.8
Always	47	32.0
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (43.5%) of the participants reported that the principal often “provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs.” More than one third (34.7%) of participants believed that the principal always “provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs.” Eleven (7.5%) participants reported that the principal seldom “provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs.” Eighteen (12.3%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal “provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs.” A small percentage (2.0%) of participants stated that the principal never “provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs” as demonstrated in Table 64.

Table 64

Principal Provides Teachers With Materials and Professional Development

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	3	2.0
Seldom	11	7.5
Don't Know	18	12.3
Often	64	43.5
Always	51	34.7
Total	147	100.0

Fewer than half (40.2%) of the participants reported that the principal is often “aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems.” Slightly over one third (34.0%) of participants believed that the principal is always “aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems.” Fourteen (9.5%) participants reported that the principal is seldom “aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems.” Nineteen (12.9%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal is “aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems.” A small percentage (3.4%) stated that the principal is never “aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems” as demonstrated in Table 65.

Table 65

Principal is Aware of Details in Running School to Address Problems

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	5	3.4
Seldom	14	9.5
Don't Know	19	12.9
Often	59	40.2
Always	50	34.0
Total	147	100.0

More than one third (35.4%) of the participants reported that the principal often has “quality contact and interactions with teachers and students.” More than one third (36.1%) of participants believed that the principal always has “quality contact and interactions with teachers and students.” Twenty-three (15.8%) participants reported that the principal seldom has “quality contact and interactions with teachers and students.” Fourteen (9.5%) participants reported that they did not know whether the principal has “quality contact and interactions with teachers and students.” A small percentage (3.4%) stated that the principal never has “quality contact and interactions with teachers and students” as shown in Table 66.

Table 66

Principal Has Quality Contact and Interactions with Teachers and Students

Rating	Frequency	Percent
Never	5	3.4
Seldom	23	15.6
Don't Know	14	9.5
Often	52	35.4
Always	53	36.1
Total	147	100.0

Analysis of Research Question Four: Differences in General and Special Education

Teachers' Perceptions of Implementing, Maintaining, and Supporting Inclusion

Research Question 4: Is there a statistically significant difference between K-12 general education and special education teachers' perceptions of principals' utilization of leadership responsibilities in implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion?

Hypothesis 4: There is no statistically significant difference between K-12 general education and special education teachers' perceptions of principals' utilization of leadership responsibilities in implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion.

Group Statistics for Implementing Inclusion

There were general education teachers ($n = 81$) and special education teachers ($n = 66$) for a total of 147 teachers that voluntarily participated in this study. General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.0$, $SD = .749$) in "the principal recognizes and celebrates accomplishments and acknowledges failures" than the

mean score of special education teachers ($M = 3.5$, $SD = 1.09$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 3.9$, $SD = .862$) in “the principal is willing to challenge and actively challenges the status quo” than special education teachers ($M = 3.5$, $SD = 1.14$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 3.9$, $SD = .973$) in “the principal recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments” than special education teachers ($M = 3.4$, $SD = 1.21$) as shown in Table 67.

General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.0$, $SD = .902$) in “the principal establishes strong lines of communication with and among teachers and students” than the mean score of special education ($M = 3.5$, $SD = 1.21$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.4$, $SD = .776$) in “the principal fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation” than special education teachers ($M = 4.0$, $SD = 1.28$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.1$, $SD = 1.05$) in “the principal protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching and time or focus” than special education teachers ($M = 3.6$, $SD = 1.16$) as depicted in Table 67.

General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.0$, $SD = 1.00$) in “the principal adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent” than the mean score of special education ($M = 3.5$, $SD = 1.20$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.2$, $SD = .857$) in “the principal establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school’s attention” than special education teachers ($M = 3.9$, $SD = .991$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.3$, $SD = .806$) in “the principal communicates and operates from the strong ideals and beliefs about schooling”

than special education teachers ($M = 3.9$, $SD = 1.05$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 3.8$, $SD = 1.03$) in “the principal involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies” than the mean score of special education teachers ($M = 3.6$, $SD = 1.17$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 3.9$, $SD = 1.01$) in “the principal ensures that faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a general aspect of the school’s culture” than special education teachers ($M = 3.7$, $SD = 1.14$) as shown in Table 67.

General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.0$, $SD = 1.02$) in “the principal is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices” than the mean score of special education teachers ($M = 3.6$, $SD = 1.05$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.2$, $SD = .918$) in “the principal is knowledgeable of current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices” than special education teachers ($M = 3.9$, $SD = .918$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.2$, $SD = .783$) in “the principal monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning” than special education teachers ($M = 3.9$, $SD = 1.07$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.0$, $SD = 1.03$) in “the principal inspires and leads new and challenging innovations” than the mean score of special education ($M = 3.8$, $SD = 1.09$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.2$, $SD = .869$) in “the principal establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines” than special education teachers ($M = 4.0$, $SD = 1.00$) as depicted in Table 67.

General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.3$, $SD = .751$) in “the principal is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders” than

special education teachers ($M = 3.8$, $SD = 1.08$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.0$, $SD = 1.03$) in “the principal demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff” than the mean score of special education ($M = 3.7$, $SD = 1.18$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.2$, $SD = .801$) in “the principal provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs” than special education teachers ($M = 3.9$, $SD = 1.00$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.1$, $SD = .935$) in “the principal is aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems” than special education teachers ($M = 3.6$, $SD = 1.17$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.1$, $SD = 1.06$) in “the principal has quality contact and interactions with teachers and students” than special education teachers ($M = 3.6$, $SD = 1.15$) as shown in Table 67.

Overall, general education teachers had higher average mean scores than special education teachers on all variables for implementing inclusion for Research Question Four.

Table 67

Group Statistics for Implementing Inclusion

Dependent Variables	Participant	N	Mean	SD
Acknowledges Failures	General Education	81	4.0	0.749
	Special Education	66	3.5	1.096
Challenges the Status Quo	General Education	81	3.9	0.862
	Special Education	66	3.5	1.140
Recognizes Accomplishments	General Education	81	3.9	0.973
	Special Education	66	3.4	1.215
Establishes Strong Communication	General Education	81	4.0	0.902
	Special Education	66	3.5	1.215
Fosters Shared Beliefs	General Education	81	4.4	0.776
	Special Education	66	4.0	1.282
Protects Teachers from Issues	General Education	81	3.8	1.057
	Special Education	66	3.6	1.161
Adapts Leadership Behavior	General Education	81	4.0	1.009
	Special Education	66	3.5	1.204
Establishes Clear Goals	General Education	81	4.2	0.857
	Special Education	66	3.9	0.991
Communicates Ideals and Beliefs	General Education	81	4.3	0.806
	Special Education	66	3.9	1.058
Involves Teachers in Decisions	General Education	81	3.8	1.030
	Special Education	66	3.6	1.170
Ensures Awareness of Practices	General Education	81	3.9	1.014
	Special Education	66	3.7	1.144
Implements Curriculum	General Education	81	4.0	1.024
	Special Education	66	3.6	1.057
Knowledgeable of Instruction	General Education	81	4.2	0.918
	Special Education	66	3.9	0.918
Monitors Effective School Practices	General Education	81	4.2	0.783
	Special Education	66	3.9	1.071
Inspires Challenging Innovations	General Education	81	4.0	1.030
	Special Education	66	3.8	1.094
Establishes Set of Procedures	General Education	81	4.2	0.869
	Special Education	66	4.0	1.007

Table 67

Group Statistics for Implementing Inclusion (Continued)

Spokesperson for the School	General Education	81	4.3	0.751
	Special Education	66	3.8	1.083
Awareness of Teachers and Staff	General Education	81	4.0	1.030
	Special Education	66	3.7	1.183
Provides Materials	General Education	81	4.2	0.801
	Special Education	66	3.9	1.003
Awareness of Running School	General Education	81	4.1	0.935
	Special Education	66	3.6	1.170
Quality Contact with Teachers	General Education	81	4.1	1.060
	Special Education	66	3.6	0.142

Independent-Samples t-Tests for Implementing Inclusion

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal recognizes and celebrates accomplishments and acknowledges failures” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 110.912) = 25.014, p < .005$ as depicted in Table 68. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal recognizes and celebrates accomplishments and acknowledges failures.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal recognizes and celebrates accomplishments and acknowledges failures.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal is willing to challenge and actively challenges the status quo” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 118.803) = 9.671, p < .014$ as

depicted in Table 68. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal is willing to challenge and actively challenges the status quo.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal is willing to challenge and actively challenges the status quo.”

Independent-samples *t* test for instructional decisions for “the principal recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 123.355) = 15.078, p < .003$ as depicted in Table 68. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments.”

Independent-samples *t* test for instructional decisions for “the principal establishes strong lines of communication with and among teachers and students” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 117.347) = 13.949, p < .004$ as depicted in Table 68. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal establishes strong lines of communication with and among teachers and students.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special

education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal establishes strong lines of communication with and among teachers and students.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 102.187) = 21.695, p < .007$ as depicted in Table 68. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching and time or focus” revealed no statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 133.107) = 2.492, p > .161$ as depicted in Table 68. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 could not be rejected that there was no significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching and time or focus.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were not significantly different from each other for “the principal protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching and time or focus.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent” revealed a

statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 126.906) = 6.780, p < .004$ as depicted in Table 68. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent.”

Independent-samples t test for “the principal establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school’s attention” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 129.357) = .053, p < .034$ as depicted in Table 68. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school’s attention.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school’s attention.”

Independent-samples t test for “the principal communicates and operates from the strong ideals and beliefs about schooling” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 119.294) = 1.949, p < .015$ as depicted in Table 68. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there were significant differences between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal communicates and operates from the strong ideals

and beliefs about schooling.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal communicates and operates from the strong ideals and beliefs about schooling.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 130.690) = 4.116, p > .302$ as depicted in Table 68. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 could not be rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal ensures that faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a general aspect of the school’s culture” revealed no statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 131.232) = 2.790, p > .298$ as depicted in Table 68. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 could not be rejected that there was no significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal ensures that faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a general aspect of the school’s culture.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were not significantly different

from each other for “the principal ensures that faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a general aspect of the school’s culture.”

Independent-samples *t* test for instructional decisions for “the principal is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices” revealed no statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 137.247) = 1.927, p > .055$ as depicted in Table 68. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 could not be rejected that there was no significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were not significantly different from each other for “the principal is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal is knowledgeable of current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 139.077) = .445, p < .047$ as depicted in Table 68. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal is knowledgeable of current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal is knowledgeable of current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 116.038) = 1.439, p < .037$ as depicted in Table 68. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal inspires and leads new and challenging innovations” revealed no statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 135.406) = .765, p > .215$ as depicted in Table 68. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 could not be rejected that there was no significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal inspires and leads new and challenging innovations.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of teachers were not significantly different from each other for “the principal inspires and leads new and challenging innovations.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines” revealed no statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 129.158) = .295, p > .069$ as depicted in Table 68. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 could not be rejected that there was no significant difference between general education teachers and special

education teachers for “the principal establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were not significantly different from each other for “the principal establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 111.954) = 6.600, p < .002$ as depicted in Table 68. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff” revealed no statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 129.828) = .015, p > .175$ as depicted in Table 68. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 could not be rejected that there was no significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were not significantly different from each other for “the principal demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff.”

Independent-samples *t* test for instructional decisions for “the principal provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 123.141) = 1.761, p < .045$ as depicted in Table 68. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal is aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 123.186) = 13.276, p < .009$ as depicted in Table 68. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal is aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal is aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal has quality contact and interactions with teachers and students” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 133.610) = 4.397, p < .013$ as depicted in Table 68. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal has quality contact and interactions with teachers and students.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal has quality contact and interactions with teachers and students.”

Overall, there were statistically significant differences between general education teachers and special education teachers’ perceptions of the principal implementing inclusion: “recognizes and celebrates accomplishments and acknowledges failures,” “is willing to challenge and actively challenges the status quo,” “recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments,” “establishes strong lines of communication with and among teachers and students,” “fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation,” “adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent,” “establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school’s attention,” “communicates and operates from the strong ideals and beliefs about schooling,” “is knowledgeable of current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices,” “monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning,” “is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders,” “provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs,” “is aware of the details and undercurrents in the

running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems,” and “has quality contact and interactions with teachers and students.”

However, there were no statistically significant differences between general education teachers and special education teachers’ perceptions of the principal implementing inclusion: “protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching and time or focus,” “involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies,” “ensures that faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a general aspect of the school’s culture,” “is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices,” “inspires and leads new and challenging innovations,” “establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines,” and “demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff.” Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected for 14 of 21 (66%) of the dependent variables for implementing inclusion.

Table 68

t Test for Equality of Means for Implementing Inclusion

Dependent Variables	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		<i>t</i> test for Equality of Means		
	<i>F</i>	Sig.	df	<i>t</i>	Sig. (2-tailed)*
Acknowledges Failures	25.014	.000	145/110.912	2.857	.005*
Challenges the Status Quo	9.671	.002	145/118.803	2.485	.014*
Rewards Accomplishments	15.078	.000	145/123.355	3.001	.003*
Strong Communication	13.949	.000	145/117.347	2.905	.004*
Fosters Shared Beliefs	21.695	.000	145/102.187	2.718	.007*
Protects Teachers	2.492	.117	145/133.107	1.408	.161
Adapts Leadership Behavior	6.780	.010	145/126.906	2.894	.004*
Establishes Clear Goals	.053	.818	145/129.357	2.140	.034*
Communicates Beliefs	1.949	.165	145/119.294	2.462	.015*
Teachers in Decisions	4.116	.044	145/119.294	1.035	.302
Awareness of Practices	2.790	.097	145/131.232	1.045	.298
Implements Curriculum	1.927	.167	145/137.247	1.934	.055
Knows Instruction	.445	.506	145/139.077	2.000	.047*
Monitors School Practices	1.439	.232	145/116.038	2.107	.037*
Inspires Innovations	.765	.383	145/135.406	1.246	.215
Establishes Procedures	.295	.588	145/129.158	1.834	.069
Spokesperson for School	6.600	.011	145/111.954	3.221	.002*
Awareness of Teachers	6.000	.015	145/129.828	1.364	.175
Provides Materials	1.761	.187	145/123.141	2.020	.045*
Runs School	13.276	.000	145/123.186	2.647	.009*
Quality Contact	4.397	.038	145/133.610	2.509	.013*

*Correlation significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Group Statistics for Maintaining Inclusion

There were general education teachers ($n = 81$) and special education teachers ($n = 66$) for a total of 147 teachers that voluntarily participated in this study. General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 3.9$, $SD = 1.03$) in “the principal recognizes and celebrates accomplishments and acknowledges failures” than the mean score of special education teachers ($M = 3.4$, $SD = 1.22$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 3.9$, $SD = .980$) in “the principal is willing to challenge and actively challenges the status quo” than special education teachers ($M = 3.5$, $SD = 1.15$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 3.9$, $SD = 1.02$) in “the principal recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments” than special education teachers ($M = 3.3$, $SD = 1.23$) as shown in Table 69.

General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 3.9$, $SD = .980$) in “the principal establishes strong lines of communication with and among teachers and students” than the mean score of special education ($M = 3.5$, $SD = 1.15$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.2$, $SD = .901$) in “the principal fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation” than special education teachers ($M = 3.8$, $SD = 1.09$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 3.9$, $SD = 1.07$) in “the principal protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching and time or focus” than special education teachers ($M = 3.5$, $SD = 1.20$) as depicted in Table 69.

General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.0$, $SD = 1.00$) in “the principal adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent” than the mean score of special education ($M = 3.5$, $SD =$

1.19). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.3, SD = .875$) in “the principal establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school’s attention” than special education teachers ($M = 3.9, SD = .972$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.2, SD = .905$) in “the principal communicates and operates from the strong ideals and beliefs about schooling” than special education teachers ($M = 4.0, SD = .997$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 3.9, SD = 1.12$) in “the principal involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies” than the mean score of special education teachers ($M = 3.4, SD = 1.20$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.0, SD = .993$) in “the principal ensures that faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a general aspect of the school’s culture” than special education teachers ($M = 3.7, SD = 1.12$) as shown in Table 69.

General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.0, SD = .941$) in “the principal is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices” than the mean score of special education teachers ($M = 3.5, SD = 1.08$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.1, SD = .948$) in “the principal is knowledgeable of current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices” than special education teachers ($M = 3.6, SD = 1.08$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.1, SD = .948$) in “the principal monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning” than special education teachers ($M = 3.9, SD = .991$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.0, SD = .954$) in “the principal inspires and leads new and challenging innovations” than the mean score of special education

teachers ($M = 3.6$, $SD = 1.12$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.2$, $SD = .866$) in “the principal establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines” than special education teachers ($M = 3.8$, $SD = 1.04$) as depicted in Table 69.

General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.1$, $SD = .919$) in “the principal is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders” than special education teachers ($M = 3.8$, $SD = .990$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.0$, $SD = 1.06$) in “the principal demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff” than the mean score of special education ($M = 3.3$, $SD = 1.22$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.1$, $SD = .895$) in “the principal provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs” than special education teachers ($M = 3.8$, $SD = .959$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.1$, $SD = .904$) in “the principal is aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems” than special education teachers ($M = 3.6$, $SD = 1.09$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.1$, $SD = 1.09$) in “the principal has quality contact and interactions with teachers and students” than special education teachers ($M = 3.6$, $SD = 1.26$) as shown in Table 69.

Overall, general education teachers had higher average mean scores than special education teachers on all variables for maintaining inclusion for Research Question Four.

Table 69

Group Statistics for Maintaining Inclusion

Dependent Variables	Participant	N	Mean	SD
Acknowledges Failures	General Education	81	3.9	1.030
	Special Education	66	3.4	1.227
Challenges the Status Quo	General Education	81	3.9	0.980
	Special Education	66	3.5	1.152
Recognizes Accomplishments	General Education	81	3.9	1.027
	Special Education	66	3.3	1.232
Establishes Strong Communication	General Education	81	3.9	0.980
	Special Education	66	3.5	1.152
Fosters Shared Beliefs	General Education	81	4.2	0.901
	Special Education	66	3.8	1.098
Protects Teachers from Issues	General Education	81	3.9	1.077
	Special Education	66	3.5	1.205
Adapts Leadership Behavior	General Education	81	4.0	1.002
	Special Education	66	3.5	1.192
Establishes Clear Goals	General Education	81	4.3	0.875
	Special Education	66	3.9	0.972
Communicates Ideals and Beliefs	General Education	81	4.2	0.905
	Special Education	66	4.0	0.997
Involves Teachers in Decisions	General Education	81	3.9	1.124
	Special Education	66	3.4	1.204
Ensures Awareness of Practices	General Education	81	4.0	0.993
	Special Education	66	3.7	1.127
Implements Curriculum	General Education	81	4.0	0.941
	Special Education	66	3.5	1.083
Knowledgeable of Instruction	General Education	81	4.1	0.948
	Special Education	66	3.6	1.083
Monitors Effective School Practices	General Education	81	4.1	0.948
	Special Education	66	3.9	0.991
Inspires Challenging Innovations	General Education	81	4.0	0.954
	Special Education	66	3.6	1.121
Establishes Set of Procedures	General Education	81	4.2	0.866
	Special Education	66	3.8	1.041

Table 69

Group Statistics for Maintaining Inclusion (Continued)

Spokesperson for the School	General Education	81	4.1	0.919
	Special Education	66	3.8	1.990
Awareness of Teachers and Staff	General Education	81	4.0	1.064
	Special Education	66	3.3	1.226
Provides Materials	General Education	81	4.1	0.895
	Special Education	66	3.8	0.959
Awareness of Running School	General Education	81	4.1	0.904
	Special Education	66	3.6	1.090
Quality Contact with Teachers	General Education	81	4.1	1.092
	Special Education	66	3.6	1.263

Independent-Samples t-Tests for Maintaining Inclusion

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal recognizes and celebrates accomplishments and acknowledges failures” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 127.057) = 13.675, p < .002$ as depicted in Table 70. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal recognizes and celebrates accomplishments and acknowledges failures.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal recognizes and celebrates accomplishments and acknowledges failures.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal is willing to challenge and actively challenges the status quo” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 128.058) = 7.625, p < .019$ as depicted in Table 70. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a

significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal is willing to challenge and actively challenges the status quo.”

Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal is willing to challenge and actively challenges the status quo.”

Independent-samples *t* test for instructional decisions for “the principal recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 126.501) = 13.104, p < .002$ as depicted in Table 68. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments.”

Independent-samples *t* test for instructional decisions for “the principal establishes strong lines of communication with and among teachers and students” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 128.058) = 8.295, p < .019$ as depicted in Table 70. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal establishes strong lines of communication with and among teachers and students.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal establishes strong lines of communication with and among teachers and students.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 125.290) = 2.419, p < .008$ as depicted in Table 70. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching and time or focus” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 131.781) = 5.026, p < .015$ as depicted in Table 70. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching and time or focus.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching and time or focus.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 127.125) = 8.061, p < .001$ as depicted in Table 70. Therefore,

Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school’s attention” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 132.303) = .001, p < .010$ as depicted in Table 70. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school’s attention.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school’s attention.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal communicates and operates from the strong ideals and beliefs about schooling” revealed no statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 132.916) = .002, p > .245$ as depicted in Table 70. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 could not be rejected that there was no significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal communicates and operates from the strong ideals and beliefs about schooling.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups

of teachers were not significantly different from each other for “the principal communicates and operates from the strong ideals and beliefs about schooling.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 134.842) = 3.034, p < .022$ as depicted in Table 70. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal ensures that faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a general aspect of the school’s culture” revealed no statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 130.712) = 1.675, p > .094$ as depicted in Table 70. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 could not be rejected that there was no significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal ensures that faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a general aspect of the school’s culture.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were not significantly different from each other for “the principal ensures that faculty and staff are aware of the most

current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a general aspect of the school's culture.”

Independent-samples *t* test for instructional decisions for “the principal is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 129.709) = 4.159, p < .005$ as depicted in Table 70. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal is knowledgeable of current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 130.264) = 1.977, p < .011$ as depicted in Table 70. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal is knowledgeable of current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal is knowledgeable of current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning” revealed no statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 136.432) = .142, p > .380$ as depicted in Table 70. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 could not be rejected that there was no significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were not significantly different from each other for “the principal monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal inspires and leads new and challenging innovations” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 128.111) = 3.762, p < .013$ as depicted in Table 70. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal inspires and leads new and challenging innovations.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal inspires and leads new and challenging innovations.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 126.328) = .832, p < .008$ as depicted in Table 70. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines.”

Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 134.410) = .299, p < .026$ as depicted in Table 70. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 129.632) = 6.970, p < .001$ as depicted in Table 70. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff.”

Independent-samples *t* test for instructional decisions for “the principal provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful

execution of their jobs” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 134.876) = .209, p < .033$ as depicted in Table 70. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal is aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 126.149) = 4.418, p < .003$ as depicted in Table 70. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal is aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal is aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal has quality contact and interactions with teachers and students” revealed a statistically significant difference between general

education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 129.335) = 6.087, p < .007$ as depicted in Table 70. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal has quality contact and interactions with teachers and students.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal has quality contact and interactions with teachers and students.”

Overall, there were statistically significant differences between general education teachers and special education teachers’ perceptions of the principal maintaining inclusion: “recognizes and celebrates accomplishments and acknowledges failures,” “is willing to challenge and actively challenges the status quo,” “recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments,” “establishes strong lines of communication with and among teachers and students,” “fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation,” “protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching and time or focus,” “adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent,” “establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school’s attention,” “involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies,” “is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices,” “is knowledgeable of current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices,” “inspires and leads new and challenging innovations,” “establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines,” “is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders,” “demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff,” “provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the

successful execution of their jobs,” “is aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems,” and “has quality contact and interactions with teachers and students.”

However, there were no statistically significant differences between general education teachers and special education teachers’ perceptions of the principal maintaining inclusion: “the principal communicates and operates from the strong ideals and beliefs about schooling,” “the principal ensures that faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a general aspect of the school’s culture,” and “the principal monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning.” Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected for 18 of 21 (86%) of the dependent variables for maintaining inclusion.

Table 70

t Test for Equality of Means for Maintaining Inclusion

Dependent Variables	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		<i>t</i> test for Equality of Means		
	<i>F</i>	Sig.	df	<i>t</i>	Sig. (2-tailed)*
Acknowledges Failures	13.675	.000	145/125.057	3.106	.002*
Challenges the Status Quo	7.625	.007	145/128.058	2.373	.019*
Rewards Accomplishments	13.104	.000	145/126.501	3.114	.002*
Strong Communication	8.295	.005	145/128.058	2.373	.019*
Fosters Shared Beliefs	2.419	.122	145/125.290	2.691	.008*
Protects Teachers	5.026	.026	145/131.781	2.456	.015*
Adapts Leadership Behavior	8.061	.005	145/127.125	3.239	.001*
Establishes Clear Goals	.001	.975	145/132.303	2.619	.010*
Communicates Beliefs	.002	.961	145/132.916	1.168	.245
Teachers in Decisions	3.034	.084	145/134.842	2.319	.022*
Awareness of Practices	1.675	.198	145/130.712	1.683	.094
Implements Curriculum	4.159	.043	145/129.709	2.852	.005*
Knows Instruction	1.977	.162	145/130.264	2.560	.011*
Monitors School Practices	.142	.707	145/136.432	0.881	.380
Inspires Innovations	3.762	.054	145/128.111	2.517	.013*
Establishes Procedures	.832	.363	145/126.328	2.690	.008*
Spokesperson for School	.299	.585	145/134.410	2.247	.026*
Awareness of Teachers	6.970	.009	145/129.632	3.533	.001*
Provides Materials	.209	.648	145/134.876	2.151	.033*
Runs School	4.418	.037	145/126.149	3.035	.003*
Quality Contact	6.087	.015	145/129.335	2.509	.007*

*Correlation significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Group Statistics for Supporting Inclusion

There were general education teachers ($n = 81$) and special education teachers ($n = 66$) for a total of 147 teachers that voluntarily participated in this study. General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.0$, $SD = .991$) in “the principal recognizes and celebrates accomplishments and acknowledges failures” than the mean score of special education teachers ($M = 3.5$, $SD = 1.24$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.0$, $SD = 1.00$) in “the principal is willing to challenge and actively challenges the status quo” than special education teachers ($M = 3.5$, $SD = 1.19$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.0$, $SD = 1.01$) in “the principal recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments” than special education teachers ($M = 3.3$, $SD = 1.29$) as shown in Table 71.

General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.0$, $SD = .997$) in “the principal establishes strong lines of communication with and among teachers and students” than the mean score of special education teachers ($M = 3.5$, $SD = 1.16$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.3$, $SD = .917$) in “the principal fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation” than special education teachers ($M = 3.7$, $SD = 1.18$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.0$, $SD = 1.00$) in “the principal protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching and time or focus” than special education teachers ($M = 3.4$, $SD = 1.12$) as depicted in Table 71.

General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.0$, $SD = 1.08$) in “the principal adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent” than the mean score of special education teachers ($M =$

3.5, $SD = 1.21$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.2$, $SD = .884$) in “the principal establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school’s attention” than special education teachers ($M = 3.8$, $SD = 1.01$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.1$, $SD = .914$) in “the principal communicates and operates from the strong ideals and beliefs about schooling” than special education teachers ($M = 3.9$, $SD = 1.05$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 3.9$, $SD = 1.02$) in “the principal involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies” than the mean score of special education teachers ($M = 3.5$, $SD = 1.19$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 3.9$, $SD = .998$) in “the principal ensures that faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a general aspect of the school’s culture” than special education teachers ($M = 3.7$, $SD = 1.11$) as shown in Table 71.

General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 3.9$, $SD = 1.04$) in “the principal is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices” than the mean score of special education teachers ($M = 3.6$, $SD = 1.08$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.2$, $SD = 1.08$) in “the principal is knowledgeable of current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices” than special education teachers ($M = 3.7$, $SD = 1.07$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.2$, $SD = .887$) in “the principal monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning” than special education teachers ($M = 3.7$, $SD = 1.03$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.0$, $SD = 1.06$) in “the principal inspires and leads new and challenging innovations” than the mean score of special education

teachers ($M = 3.5$, $SD = 1.15$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.2$, $SD = .880$) in “the principal establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines” than special education teachers ($M = 3.8$, $SD = 1.03$) as depicted in Table 71.

General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.2$, $SD = .901$) in “the principal is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders” than special education teachers ($M = 3.6$, $SD = 1.12$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.0$, $SD = 1.08$) in “the principal demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff” than the mean score of special education teachers ($M = 3.6$, $SD = 1.16$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.1$, $SD = .872$) in “the principal provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs” than special education teachers ($M = 3.7$, $SD = 1.05$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.2$, $SD = .898$) in “the principal is aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems” than special education teachers ($M = 3.5$, $SD = 1.15$). General education teachers had a higher average mean score ($M = 4.0$, $SD = 1.09$) in “the principal has quality contact and interactions with teachers and students” than special education teachers ($M = 3.6$, $SD = 1.22$) as shown in Table 71.

Overall, general education teachers had higher average mean scores than special education teachers on all variables for supporting inclusion for Research Question Four.

Table 71

Group Statistics for Supporting Inclusion

Dependent Variables	Participant	N	Mean	SD
Acknowledges Failures	General Education	81	4.0	0.991
	Special Education	66	3.5	1.243
Challenges the Status Quo	General Education	81	4.0	1.005
	Special Education	66	3.5	1.190
Recognizes Accomplishments	General Education	81	4.0	1.014
	Special Education	66	3.3	1.296
Establishes Strong Communication	General Education	81	4.0	0.997
	Special Education	66	3.5	1.163
Fosters Shared Beliefs	General Education	81	4.3	0.917
	Special Education	66	3.7	1.183
Protects Teachers from Issues	General Education	81	4.0	1.000
	Special Education	66	3.4	1.126
Adapts Leadership Behavior	General Education	81	4.0	1.089
	Special Education	66	3.5	1.218
Establishes Clear Goals	General Education	81	4.2	0.884
	Special Education	66	3.8	1.015
Communicates Ideals and Beliefs	General Education	81	4.1	0.914
	Special Education	66	3.9	1.059
Involves Teachers in Decisions	General Education	81	3.9	1.027
	Special Education	66	3.5	1.192
Ensures Awareness of Practices	General Education	81	3.9	0.998
	Special Education	66	3.7	1.116
Implements Curriculum	General Education	81	3.9	1.040
	Special Education	66	3.6	1.083
Knowledgeable of Instruction	General Education	81	4.2	1.086
	Special Education	66	3.7	1.071
Monitors Effective School Practices	General Education	81	4.2	0.887
	Special Education	66	3.7	1.030
Inspires Challenging Innovations	General Education	81	4.0	1.066
	Special Education	66	3.5	1.151
Establishes Set of Procedures	General Education	81	4.2	0.880
	Special Education	66	3.8	1.031

Table 71

Group Statistics for Supporting Inclusion (Continued)

Spokesperson for the School	General Education	81	4.2	0.901
	Special Education	66	3.6	1.125
Awareness of Teachers and Staff	General Education	81	4.0	1.083
	Special Education	66	3.6	1.160
Provides Materials	General Education	81	4.1	0.872
	Special Education	66	3.7	1.599
Awareness of Running School	General Education	81	4.2	0.898
	Special Education	66	3.5	1.153
Quality Contact with Teachers	General Education	81	4.0	1.094
	Special Education	66	3.6	1.226

Independent-Samples t-Tests for Supporting Inclusion

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal recognizes and celebrates accomplishments and acknowledges failures” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 123.000) = 11.047, p < .003$ as depicted in Table 72. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal recognizes and celebrates accomplishments and acknowledges failures.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal recognizes and celebrates accomplishments and acknowledges failures.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal is willing to challenge and actively challenges the status quo” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 127.523) = 5.734, p < .012$ as depicted in Table 72. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a

significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal is willing to challenge and actively challenges the status quo.”

Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal is willing to challenge and actively challenges the status quo.”

Independent-samples *t* test for instructional decisions for “the principal recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 121.494) = 15.685, p < .000$ as depicted in Table 72. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments.”

Independent-samples *t* test for instructional decisions for “the principal establishes strong lines of communication with and among teachers and students” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 128.667) = 5.846, p < .008$ as depicted in Table 72. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal establishes strong lines of communication with and among teachers and students.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal establishes strong lines of communication with and among teachers and students.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation s” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 120.696) = 3.351, p < .003$ as depicted in Table 72. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching and time or focus” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 131.291) = 6.843, p < .004$ as depicted in Table 72. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching and time or focus.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching and time or focus.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 131.794) = 5.170, p < .005$ as depicted in Table 72. Therefore,

Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school’s attention” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 129.849) = .059, p < .025$ as depicted in Table 72. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school’s attention.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school’s attention.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal communicates and operates from the strong ideals and beliefs about schooling” revealed no statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 129.183) = .108, p > .283$ as depicted in Table 72. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 could not be rejected that there was no significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal communicates and operates from the strong ideals and beliefs about schooling.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education and special education teachers were not significantly different from

each other for “the principal communicates and operates from the strong ideals and beliefs about schooling.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 128.999) = 5.344, p < .025$ as depicted in Table 72. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal ensures that faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a general aspect of the school’s culture” revealed no statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 131.851) = 1.404, p > .353$ as depicted in Table 72. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 could not be rejected that there was no significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal ensures that faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a general aspect of the school’s culture.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were not significantly different from each other for “the principal ensures that faculty and staff are aware of the most

current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a general aspect of the school's culture.”

Independent-samples *t* test for instructional decisions for “the principal is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices” revealed no statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 136.706) = 1.367, p > .147$ as depicted in Table 72. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 could not be rejected that there was no significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were not significantly different from each other for “the principal is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal is knowledgeable of current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 139.816) = 964, p < .003$ as depicted in Table 72. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal is knowledgeable of current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal is knowledgeable of current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 129.047) = 1.327, p < .004$ as depicted in Table 72. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal inspires and leads new and challenging innovations” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 134.277) = 2.887, p < .015$ as depicted in Table 72. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal inspires and leads new and challenging innovations.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal inspires and leads new and challenging innovations.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 128.321) = .954, p < .015$ as depicted in Table 72. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers

for “the principal establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines.”

Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 123.374) = 4.623, p < .001$ as depicted in Table 72. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 134.885) = 4.340, p < .043$ as depicted in Table 72. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff.”

Independent-samples *t* test for instructional decisions for “the principal provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 125.462) = 2.050, p < .011$ as depicted in Table 72. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal is aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 121.103) = 7.330, p < .000$ as depicted in Table 72. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal is aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal is aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems.”

Independent-samples *t* test for “the principal has quality contact and interactions with teachers and students” revealed a statistically significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers, $F(145, 131.671) = 4.995, p < .022$ as depicted in Table 72. Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected that there was a significant difference between general education teachers and special education teachers for “the principal has quality contact and interactions with teachers and students.” Consequently, the researcher concluded that the two groups of general education teachers and special education teachers were significantly different from each other for “the principal has quality contact and interactions with teachers and students.”

Overall, there were statistically significant differences between general education teachers and special education teachers’ perceptions of the principal supporting inclusion: “recognizes and celebrates accomplishments and acknowledges failures,” “is willing to challenge and actively challenges the status quo,” “recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments,” “establishes strong lines of communication with and among teachers and students,” “fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation,” “protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching and time or focus,” “adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent,” “establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the fore front of the school’s attention,” “involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies,” “is knowledgeable of current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices,” “monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning,” “inspires and leads new and challenging innovations,” “establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines,” “is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders,” “demonstrates an

awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff,” “provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs,” “is aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems,” and “has quality contact and interactions with teachers and students.”

However, there were no statistically significant differences between general education teachers and special education teachers’ perceptions of the principal supporting inclusion: “the principal communicates and operates from the strong ideals and beliefs about schooling,” “the principal ensures that faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a general aspect of the school’s culture,” and “the principal is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.” Therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected for 18 of 21 (86%) of the dependent variables for supporting inclusion.

Table 72

t Test for Equality of Means for Supporting Inclusion

Dependent Variables	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		<i>t</i> test for Equality of Means		
	<i>F</i>	Sig.	df	<i>t</i>	Sig. (2-tailed)*
Acknowledges Failures	11.047	.000	145/123.000	3.047	.003*
Challenges the Status Quo	5.734	.007	145/127.523	2.547	.012*
Rewards Accomplishments	15.685	.000	145/121.494	3.791	.000*
Strong Communication	5.846	.005	145/128.667	2.711	.008*
Fosters Shared Beliefs	3.351	.122	145/120.696	3.006	.003*
Protects Teachers	6.843	.026	145/131.291	2.935	.004*
Adapts Leadership Behavior	5.170	.005	145/131.794	2.819	.005*
Establishes Clear Goals	.059	.975	145/129.849	2.270	.025*
Communicates Beliefs	.108	.743	145/129.183	1.078	.283
Teachers in Decisions	5.344	.022	145/128.999	2.258	.025*
Awareness of Practices	1.404	.238	145/131.851	0.932	.353
Implements Curriculum	1.367	.244	145/136.706	1.459	.147
Knows Instruction	.964	.328	145/139.816	3.024	.003*
Monitors School Practices	1.327	.251	145/129.047	2.900	.004*
Inspires Innovations	2.887	.091	145/134.277	2.464	.015*
Establishes Procedures	.954	.330	145/128.321	2.466	.015*
Spokesperson for School	4.623	.033	145/123.374	3.380	.001*
Awareness of Teachers	4.340	.039	145/134.885	2.042	.043*
Provides Materials	2.050	.154	145/125.462	2.571	.011*
Runs School	7.330	.008	145/121.103	4.162	.000*
Quality Contact	4.995	.027	145/131.671	2.314	.022*

*Correlation significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed)

Major Findings of the Study

The findings of this study indicated that general education teachers and special education teachers observed principals implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion in schools. Some differences, however, were found between the perceptions of general education and special education teachers. General education teachers believed that principals were more supportive of implementing inclusion than special education teachers in all areas except seven. These differences were in the areas of discipline, input, intellectual stimulation, involvement in curriculum, instruction, and assessment, optimizer (inspires and leads challenging innovations), order (standard operating procedures and routines), and relationships. This finding was similar to the literature which stated that principals were more supportive of inclusion than teachers believed. Arrington (1993) and Farley (1991) identified principals as having the most supportive role and more favorable attitudes than teachers toward the integration of students with disabilities.

General education teachers believed that principals' displayed higher leadership responsibilities toward maintaining inclusion in all areas except three. General education teachers differed with special education teachers regarding principals' responsibilities in communicating and operating from strong ideals and beliefs about schooling, providing intellectual stimulation through open discussion with teachers about current practices and the school's culture, and monitoring the effectiveness of school practices and how those practices influence student achievement. Although special education teachers recognized principals' leadership responsibilities, special education teachers' beliefs (ratings) were not as strong as general education teachers based on the means of the questionnaire.

General education teachers believed principals' displayed higher leadership responsibilities toward supporting inclusion of students with disabilities in the general education classroom. Some differences were noted between the perceptions of general education and special education teachers. General education teachers believed that principals were more supportive of inclusion than special education teachers in all areas except three. Those areas were communicating and operating from strong ideals and beliefs about schooling, providing intellectual stimulation through open discussion with teachers about current practices and the school's culture, and involvement in curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices.

Across all leadership behaviors of implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion, the three most common leadership behaviors of principals observed by both general education teachers and special education teachers with significant differences were: (a) current theories and practices; (b) directly involving teachers in curriculum implementation, instruction design; and (c) communicating strong ideals and beliefs about schooling. Among these three, the two most observed leadership behavior was lack of communicating strong ideals and beliefs about schooling and discussion of current theories and practices as related to the school's culture, especially among general education teachers, seemed to be a leadership behavior less observed by all.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, AND IMPLICATIONS

Introduction

The problem in this study was reflected in the sparse research available that demonstrated perceptions of general education and special education teachers' identification of principals' roles in inclusion programming. Through a questionnaire designed to gather teachers' perceptions of principals' observable behaviors as they implemented, maintained and supported inclusion programs, the researcher of this study analyzed principal behaviors in the instructional leadership role as delineated by special education teachers and general education teachers. Principals' leadership responsibilities were identified as Marzano's 21 Leadership Responsibilities in three areas of implementation, maintenance and support of inclusion programs.

The researcher develop an instrument (see Appendix A) to measure whether or not a relationship existed between perceptions general education and special education teacher and principals actually implementing, maintaining, and supporting leadership responsibilities toward inclusion. The sample included 81 general education teachers and 66 special education teachers in grades K-12 at 143 schools that consisted of 82 elementary schools, 43 middle schools and 32 high schools employed in one of 18 First District Regional Education Service Agencies. The survey was mailed to special education district directors in 18 school systems within the Georgia First District RESA service area, who disseminated and collected surveys to teachers in their respective districts.

The perceptions of 81 general education and 66 special education teachers regarding leadership responsibilities were critical to determine how principals are

fulfilling instructional leadership tasks associated with inclusion programs. Teachers have the insight necessary to identify principals' leadership responsibilities as they implemented, maintained and supported components of inclusion programs.

Overview of Problem

Generally, a literature review supported the fact that principals were the most important factors in the success or failure of any building level inclusion initiative (Burrello & Wright, 1992; McDonnell & Hardman, 1989; Leithwood, Louis, Anderson, & Wahlstrom, 2004). Virtually no documented instances of troubled schools being turned around without intervention by a powerful leader were found (Leithwood et al., 2004). Many other factors may contribute to such turnarounds, but leadership is the catalyst to many successful interventions at the school level (Marzano et al., 2005).

Leadership strategies employed by principals during implementation, maintenance, and support of an initiative such as inclusion influences the likelihood of the initiative becoming embedded in the culture of a school. The level of receptiveness shown by general education and special education teachers, who are ultimately responsible for carrying out the new initiative, is a direct result of their perception of the leadership responsibilities and constructs being employed by the principal (McDonnell and Hardman, 1989; Tanner, Linscott, & Galis, 1996).

Therefore, leadership responsibilities exhibited by principals may directly influence a school-wide initiative on inclusion. Furthermore, general education and special education teachers involved in these inclusion programs are the most qualified to identify the leadership responsibilities that may influence the success or failure of inclusion programs (Leithwood et al., 2004). As inclusion is a viable instructional model

to serve all students, it is important to determine the principal's role as inclusion is implemented in many schools.

Currently, there was no research available that examined this critical issue exclusively within the context of the perceptions of general and special education teachers regarding principals' leadership responsibilities in inclusion in the state of Georgia. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to analyze perceptions of general education and special education teachers to determine specific leadership responsibilities utilized by principals during implementation, maintenance, and support of inclusion programs.

Major Findings

The major finding in this research study is that general education teachers' perceptions toward principals' leadership responsibilities in implementing, maintaining and supporting inclusion were different from special education teachers' perceptions. The findings of the study addressed similarities and differences between general education and special education teachers' perceptions of principals' responsibilities toward inclusion.

First of all, general education and special education teachers had similar observations for each principals' responsibility in *implementing* inclusion, *except* communicating and operating from the strong ideals and beliefs about schooling; ensuring that faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and making the discussion of these a general aspect of the school's culture; and monitoring the effectiveness of school practices and the impact on student learning.

The second major finding is that general education and special education teachers had similar observations for each principals' responsibility in *maintaining* inclusion,

except communicating and operating from the strong ideals and beliefs about schooling; ensuring that faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and making the discussion of these a general aspect of the school's culture; and monitoring the effectiveness of school practices and the impact on student learning.

The third major finding is that general education and special education teachers had similar observations on each principals' responsibility in *supporting* inclusion, *except* direct involvement in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices; communicating and operating from the strong ideals and beliefs about schooling; and ensuring that faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and making the discussion of these a general aspect of the school's culture. This finding may indicate a need for principals to provide all teachers, especially special education teachers with an open forum discussion about best practices in their field of study.

Finally, general education teachers observed all Marzano's 21 principals' responsibilities during implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion at a higher rating than did special education teachers. Special education teachers observed principal's responsibilities at a lower rating than did general education teachers. One of the leadership responsibilities observed most by general education teachers than special education teachers was: fostering shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation. One of the leadership responsibilities observed least by special education teachers was: recognizing and rewarding individual accomplishments.

In the next section, the researcher discusses the findings of this study as they converge and diverge from the literature. The section is organized by research question to include major and minor findings determined by data analysis of responses to items on

the instrument designed to measure observable leadership behaviors during implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion programs.

Research Question 1: Implementing Inclusion

Based on the perceptions of teachers, to what extent do principals utilize leadership responsibilities to implement inclusion programs? The first finding in this study regarding implementing inclusion programs revealed that both general education and special education teachers least observed principals communicating and operating from strong ideals and beliefs about schooling. This finding did not mean that general education and special education teachers did not observe principals implementing inclusion at all but this finding shed light on the observation that this area of responsibility was least observed by both groups of teachers. Marzano identified principals' leadership responsibilities, and the researcher found that principals are supportive of general education and special education teachers by communicating strong ideals about the importance of inclusion to all stakeholders.

The second finding regarding principals implementing inclusion was that both general education and special education teachers least observed principals making teachers aware of the most current theories and practices and therefore did not discuss these as a general aspect of the school's culture to keep teachers informed. One explanation regarding the impact of leadership is that the principal may be focused on day-to-day practices and not how the practices are informed by theory. That is not to suggest that the principal ignores that particular school level practice; on the contrary, the principal should continue to monitor and evaluate the effectiveness of that practice. However, principal leadership involves linking best practice to theory and some focus on how theory informs practice will insure continuous improvement.

The third finding that was least observed by general education and special education teachers was monitoring the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning. Principals might assist with inclusion by monitoring and evaluating effective school inclusion practices by observing what other successful schools do and presenting student data and making change where needed (Marzano et al., 2005). This finding converged with Marzano et al.'s finding on differential impact of responsibility where principals were rated by teachers as strong leaders who did not impact student achievement. Principals may need to refocus on areas of inclusion that need to be changed rather than focusing on inclusion areas that are successful (Marzano et al., 2005).

Children with disabilities should be considered as general education students first (Bradshaw, 2003). Under NCLB, states are responsible for implementing a single accountability system for all students based on strong academic standards for what every child should know and learn, including children with disabilities. IDEA should incorporate the NCLB principles of assessment for children receiving special education and align with NCLB accordingly to enhance state efforts to improve student achievement (Bradshaw, 2003).

Research Question 2: Maintaining Inclusion

Based on the perceptions of teachers, to what extent do principals utilize leadership responsibilities to maintain inclusion programs? The first finding in this study regarding maintaining inclusion programs revealed that both general education and special education teachers least observed principals communicating and operating from strong ideals and beliefs about schooling.

The second finding regarding principals maintaining inclusion was that both general education and special education teachers least observed principals making teachers aware of the most current theories and practices and therefore did not discuss these as a general aspect of the school's culture to keep teachers informed.

The third finding that was least observed by general education and special education teachers was monitoring effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning. The finding in the study for maintaining inclusion revealed that general education teachers observed that principals maintained inclusion. This did not mean that special education teachers did not observe principals maintaining inclusion; it simply meant that general education teachers, as primary educators of inclusion were able to observe the leadership responsibility from another perspective.

There are several possible reasons why this finding was different for general education teachers. First, the inclusion model of collaboration requires a compatible, working partnership between general education and special education teachers (Friend & Hurley-Chamberlain, 2007; Zigmond & Magiera, 2001). Developing a mutual partnership is the ability to communicate with one another before, during, and after teaching. Both teachers share a common philosophy and approach to the how instruction should be delivered in the most effective way (Zigmond & Magiera, 2001).

Situational awareness and providing teachers with necessary resources are two leadership responsibilities that effective principals attend to as instructional leaders. In this study, these two responsibilities were observed less by special education teachers than general education teachers. Situational awareness, related to scheduling, and the allocation of resources such as planning time, provide a vivid example of the impact these two responsibilities may have on inclusion initiatives. Effective instruction in

inclusive environments requires collaborative planning by general education and special education teachers. Both teachers plan together their roles during the shared teaching process during common planning time (Dieker, 2005). One of the challenges of collaborative planning is finding common planning time because general education teachers' schedules may not correlate with special education teachers' schedules (Dieker, 2005).

As instructional leadership principals should protect instructional planning time. Zigmond and Magiera (2001) suggested that principals ensure scheduling common planning times with few interruptions to effectively maintain an inclusive model. Common planning time requires a supportive principal to design a schedule that will permit regular co-planning time and collaboration during the regular school day. For the special education teacher, commitment to a collaborative model means commitment to being in a general education classroom to provide assistance.

Research Question 3: Supporting Inclusion

Based on the perceptions of teachers, to what extent do principals utilize leadership responsibilities to support inclusion programs? The first finding in this study regarding supporting inclusion is that both general education and special education teachers least observed principals involving teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies. Although special education teachers observed principals' role of supporting inclusion, general education teachers are primary educators within the regular classroom and are primarily responsible for teaching students with disabilities. As a result, an assumption is that general education teachers may have sought principals' assistance more frequently and therefore observed the principal in a supportive role.

Likewise, general education and special education teachers in the study use the collaborative model where special education teachers provided indirect support (New Visions for Public Schools, 2008). Indirect support included guidance in planning lessons/units to include differentiated instruction, suggesting specific accommodations and modifications for individual students with disabilities, and monitoring student progress in general education classrooms. In addition to providing indirect support, special education teachers may address concerns of general education teachers and may suggest professional development topics regarding how to use differentiated instruction in inclusive classrooms. The role of the special education teacher is being responsible for developing and maintaining students' Individualized Education Plans (IEP) with input of the IEP team (i.e., principal, general education and regular education teachers, parents, and special education staff).

Lessons for students with disabilities in general education classrooms, resource classes, and direct support included specific skills and strategies based on students' IEPs. For example, in a study skills class, students with disabilities may receive instruction in study skills and strategies, and support with the work being done in general education classes. In a resource room class, students may receive assistance in building skills in specific subject areas of English/language arts, mathematics, science, and social studies. Direct support involved the special education teacher directly and actively involved in the general education classroom with all students with special attention to students with disabilities. The special education teacher periodically may provide direct support to small groups of students in areas of need (New Visions for Public Schools, 2008).

The second finding regarding principals supporting inclusion was that both general education and special education teachers least observed principals

communicating and operating from the strong ideals and beliefs about best practices in teaching. The principal holds strong professional beliefs about schools, teaching, and learning and shares beliefs about schooling, teachers, and learning with staff and parents.

Sample practices include placing a student face on any communiqués and actions, and using: “head (knowledge) and hand (actions/skills) that are important, but the heart (ideals/beliefs/dispositions) is essential (Waters & Grubb, 2004). To lead an inclusive school requires a “personal belief that all children can learn and commit to providing all children equal access to a rich core curriculum and quality instruction” (Servatius, Fellows & Kelly, 1992, p. 269).

The third finding that was least observed by general education and special education teachers was ensuring that faculty and staff were aware of the most current theories and practices and making the discussion of these general aspects of the school’s culture. Principals should keep informed about current research and theory regarding effective instruction and best practices for both general education and special education teachers. In addition, principals should systematically engage staff in discussions about current research and theory. Principals should continuously involve staff in reading articles and books about effective practices. The finding in the research study converged with Waters et al.’s (2005) study of three decades of research on the effect of leadership on student achievement.

Research Question 4: Teachers’ Perceptions

Is there a statistically significant difference between K-12 general education and special education teachers’ perceptions of principals’ utilization of leadership responsibilities in implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion? The fourth finding in this study found that significant differences were found between perceptions of

two groups of general education and special education teachers for 14 of 21 variables. This variance meant that general education and special education teachers were significantly different in their perceptions of principals' leadership responsibilities in implementing inclusion. While differences were found in perceptions of general education and special education teachers among the majority of Marzano's 21 leadership responsibilities, there were three notable differences to mention. These differences were common across the three areas of implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion based on general education and special education teachers' observations: communicating strong ideals about schooling; current theories and practices; and monitoring and evaluating effective school practices. In the area of principals supporting inclusion, in addition to communicating strong ideals and beliefs about schools and current theories and practices, another responsibility of involving teachers in the design and implementing instruction and curriculum was found.

An inclusive education program allows daily and/or weekly time in the school schedule for general and special educators to plan and collaborate in order to implement inclusion. Inclusive programs seek to expand the capacity of general educators to be able to teach a diverse group of children, including students with disabilities, and to expand the roles of special educators as consultants as well as teachers. In contrast to mainstreaming, the primary responsibility for the education of students with disabilities in an inclusive environment rests with the general classroom teacher rather than the special education teacher (New Visions for Public Schools, 2008; Zigmond & Baker, 1996).

This does not mean that special educators had no direct involvement in the education of these students. Special education teachers are directly and indirectly

involved in the implementation of inclusion for students with disabilities. However, the ultimate responsibility for implementing inclusion and educating all students in the classroom resides with the general education classroom teacher in charge (New Visions for Public Schools, 2008).

The next finding revealed that significant differences were found between perceptions of general education and special education teachers for 18 of 21 variables in Research Question 4. This variance meant that general education and special education teachers were significantly different in their perceptions of principals' leadership responsibilities in maintaining inclusion. This finding converged with the findings from Research Question 1 where general education teachers' perceptions had higher ratings than special education teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership responsibilities in implementing inclusion.

Since the beginning of special education, educators have explored the topic of how best to serve students with disabilities. Only recently have schools begun to integrate students with disabilities in mainstream classrooms. Principals serve on a team that makes decisions regarding which students with disabilities will benefit from inclusion and how the inclusion process should be implemented. Because the role principals play in implementing inclusion programs at schools, it is important to study how principals' perceptions of inclusion guide decisions (Ramirez, 2006).

The researcher has observed situations in which building leaders had to make decisions about special education without the knowledge needed to make the most informed decisions. In most cases, this lack of knowledge negatively impacted children, the most precious natural resource. Hence, the researcher used the findings in the study as an opportunity to extend his personal knowledge in the areas of special education,

inclusion, and effective leadership. The study added some credibility to the difficult decisions made by building level administrators regarding the placement of students with disabilities in the least restrictive environment and leading faculty members through the process of implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion.

Finally, significant differences were found between perceptions of general education and special education teachers for 18 of 21 variables in Research Question 4. This variance meant that general education and special education teachers were significantly different in their perceptions of principals' leadership responsibilities in supporting inclusion. In support of inclusive programs, the principal should understand the needs of students with disabilities. Adequate numbers of personnel, including teacher aides and support personnel should be made available to general education and special education teachers. Based on the needs of the school personnel, principals should provide adequate staff development and technical assistance to teachers, especially general education teachers who typically are not specialized in special education areas (e.g., information on disabilities, instructional methods, and awareness and acceptance activities for students, and team-building skills). School districts should provide principals with appropriate policies and procedures for monitoring individual student progress of students with disabilities including grading and testing practices are in place (ERIC, 1993).

The most important factor in making inclusion succeed is the ability of personnel to work together as a team but public education is not prepared to foster cooperation among teachers. Principals do not ordinarily provide the necessary leadership, or are not permitted to, and higher education has not prepared principals and teachers to understand and accept new roles based on cooperation and collaboration (ERIC, 1993).

In fact, most colleges and universities are rigorously organized around traditions of the bureaucracy, so it is difficult to implement changes based on principles of teamwork they do not, themselves, practice nor understand. General education and special education teachers are part of the instructional planning team. Teaming approaches (e.g., co-teaching, team teaching, teacher assistance teams) are used for problem-solving and program implementation. General education teachers, special education teachers, and other special education specialists collaborate to plan instructional units and implement IEPs for students with disabilities (ERIC, 1993).

In a typical situation, students with disabilities are labeled and removed from the general education classroom because, after the best efforts of the classroom teacher, the needs of the student are not being met (McLeskey & Waldron, 1996). To return the student to the same classroom, under the same circumstances (i.e., same level of teacher support) is irresponsible and will not lead to a good instructional program for the student. Unless major changes occur in general education classrooms and schools, the likelihood is strong that students with disabilities who are placed back into these settings will not receive significant benefits. One of the criticisms of inclusion in many schools is that too much is being made of the needs of one small group of students. McLeskey and Waldron (1996) agreed with this statement if inclusion benefits only students with disabilities.

The reason for the variance between general education and special education teachers' perceptions of principals' leadership responsibilities in implementing inclusion may rest with the role of general education teachers in inclusive programs. Initial implementation of inclusive programs tends to be difficult (McLeskey & Waldron, 1996) for general education teachers who are involved in a school reform of special education services (Stainback & Stainback, 1991). Moving children with disabilities from special

education into general education classrooms require adaptations on the part of general education teachers who must assume major responsibility for implementation of curriculum (Gent & Mulhauser, 1988; Stainback, Stainback, & Forest, 1989).

General education teachers may be more affected by the changes in inclusive programs than special education teachers who are affected as well but not as primary educators. As general education teachers attempt to handle daily instructional practices that impact skill acquisition and social skills of students with disabilities, (Villa & Thousand, 1994), general education teachers must further assume responsibility for determining the type inclusion model (i.e., cooperative learning strategies, team teaching skills, collaborative strategies, individualizing instruction, mastery learning, identifying and adapting to different learning styles) to use with students with disabilities and also to include special education teachers in this inclusion model (Rainforth, York, & Macdonald, 1992; Reeve & Hallahan, 1994; Villa, 2008; Villa & Thousand, 1994).

As a result, general education teachers may also need personalized staff development to fully understand and be able to implement instructional best practices based on the needs of children with disabilities (Kontos & File, 1993). General education teachers may further need to learn through workshops, formal training, or developing instructional plans to provide individual instructional activities and accommodations (Affleck et al., 1988) and modifications to plan for individual student's objectives as well as to provide classroom activities for students without disabilities (Schumm & Vaughn, 1992; York, Doyle, & Kronberg, 1992).

Resources must be provided, including time for collaborative planning, support personnel that might be necessary, materials, and assistive technologies. Principals must be mindful of the changing concerns that teachers, parents, and staff have as a more

inclusive environment is implemented. By attending to these issues, a more inclusive educational system may be possible (Villa, 2008).

Conclusions

There are several major conclusions that can be drawn from this study. First, general education teachers' and special education teachers' observations indicated that the least observable principal behaviors were: ensures that faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a general aspect of the school's culture; communicates and operates from the strong ideals and beliefs about schooling; and monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning. In addition, principals generally are serving and fulfilling the role as instructional leaders in implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion. Finally, general education teachers are provided more leadership in inclusion programs than special education teachers.

Implications for the Field of Educational Administration

In this study, the researcher provided a logical extension to the body of literature that was already available, because the researcher used existing inclusion programs in Georgia's First RESA school districts as a lens through which to examine general education and special education teachers' perceptions of effective leadership responsibilities. According to Elmore (1996), responsibility for instructional practice has drifted away from superintendents and principals. Elmore said, "Responsibility for instructional practice has gravitated into the classroom, where individual general education teachers do isolated work that is largely unsupported—and that is a significant problem." The Connecticut Superintendents' Network, which Elmore co-founded in 2001 with the Connecticut Center for School Change (CCSC) and the Education Alliance at

Brown University, is working to reverse this trend by shifting the responsibility for instruction back onto leaders. This study substantiates the fact the building principals are assuming their roles as instructional leaders, based on the perceptions of teachers participating in inclusion programs.

This research found general education teachers perceiving principals using leadership responsibilities more than special education teachers. Based on this finding colleges and universities, in their training of principals, should add components related to special education inclusion. This could allow principals to acquire knowledge and core competencies needed to effectively interact with special education teachers. When hiring principals, school districts can communicate to and question candidates in a manner that exhibits district support of inclusion programs. It is important that, as special education teachers' roles change, based on the inclusion model, that they are not overlooked as an important resource in the instructional program of the school. Finally, officials in state departments of education can utilize these finding to provide principals with professional development standards that may positively impact inclusion programs and teachers participating in these programs.

Recommendations for Further Research

Three areas for future research are a closer examination of responsibilities that had low rankings of both general education and special education teachers' perceptions that shape principal practice and leadership responsibilities: ideals and beliefs about schooling, intellectual stimulation on current theories and practices, and monitoring and evaluation of effective school practices and their impact on student learning in inclusive settings.

Of particular interest would be more in-depth research of effective leadership practices in low and high percentage poverty schools. The use of qualitative case study methodology to compare the practices of effective principals in a variety of school settings such as those sampled in this study in Georgia's First RESA District would add considerable depth to these findings.

One area not investigated in this study was the role of assistant principals in carrying out school leadership responsibilities: Do teachers perceive their leadership responsibilities toward implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion in the same manner as principals? Do they engage in the same tasks as school principals? Does their practical experience in this role translate to the qualities needed by effective principals of inclusion for the future? Future research in the area of principal practice must consider the rapidity of change facing schools in order to best prepare future school leaders for the challenges ahead.

Co-teaching is a model that emphasizes collaboration and communication among all members of a team to meet the needs of all students. However, what constitutes a team often varies from teacher to teacher and even from school to school. Despite the increasing popularity of this service delivery model, the field currently lacks a strong empirical database on the overall effectiveness of this model. Research has been limited to case studies, observations, questionnaire research, and reports from teachers involved in the co-teaching process (Zigmond & Magiera, 2001).

REFERENCES

- Abadiano, H. R., & Turner, J. (2004). Expanding the writing process to accommodate students with learning disabilities. *The New England Reading Association Journal*, 40(1), 75-79.
- The Access Center. (2008). *Co-teaching*. Retrieved February 18, 2009, from <http://www.k8accesscenter.org/index.php/category/co-teaching/>
- Aefsky, F. (1995). *Inclusion confusion*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Affleck, J. Q., Madge, S, Adams, A., & Lowenbraun, S. (1988). Integrated classroom versus resource model: Academic viability and effectiveness. *Exceptional Children*, 54(4), 339-348.
- Angelis, J. I. (2003). Conversation in the middle school classroom: Developing reading, writing and other language abilities. *Middle School Journal*, 34(3), 57-61.
- Arrington, L. R. (1993). *Integrating special education students into the regular classroom: An investigation and analysis of principal and teacher attitudes*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The University of Arizona, Tucson.
- Ayers, B. J., Meyer, L. H., Erevelles, N., & Park-Lee, S. (1994). Easy for you to say: Teacher perspectives on implementing most promising practices. *Journal for the Association for Persons with Severe Handicaps*, 19, 84-93.
- Bailey, D. B., McWilliam, R. A., & Wesley, P. W. (1998). Inclusion in the context of competing values in early childhood education. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly*, 13(1), 27- 47.
- Baines, L., Baines, C., & Masterson, C. (1994). Mainstreaming: One school's reality. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 76(1), 39-40, 57-64.

- Baker, E. T., Wang, M. C., & Walberg, H. J. (1995). The effects of inclusion on learning. *Educational Leadership, 52*(4), 33-35.
- Baker, J. M., & Zigmond, N. (1995). The meaning and practice of inclusion for students with learning disabilities: Themes and implications from the five case studies. *Journal of Special Education, 29*(2), 163-180. EJ 509 951.
- Baker, S., Gersten, R., & Scanlon, D. (2002). Procedural facilitators and cognitive strategies: Tools for unraveling the mysteries of comprehension and the writing process, and for providing meaningful access to the general curriculum. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice, 17*(1), 65-77.
- Banerji, M., & Dailey, R. A. (1995). A study of the effects of an inclusion model on students with specific learning disabilities. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 28*, 511-522.
- Bargerhuff, M. E. (1994). *Inclusive elementary schools and those who lead them*. Dayton, OH: Wright State University.
- Barnett, D. (2004). School leadership preparation programs: Are they preparing tomorrow's leaders? *Education, 125*(1), 121-129.
- Baruch, Y. (1999). Response rate in academic studies—A comparative analysis. *Human Relations, 52*(4), 421-438.
- Basit, T. N. (2003). Manual or electronic? The role of coding in qualitative data analysis. *Educational Research, 45*(2), 143-154.
- Bauwens, J., & Hourcade, J. J. (1995). *Cooperative teaching: Rebuilding the schoolhouse for all students*. Austin, TX: PRO-ED.

- Bear, G. G., & Proctor, W. A. (1990). Impact of a full-time integrated program on the achievement of nonhandicapped and mildly handicapped children. *Exceptionality, 1*, 227-238.
- Beloin, K. S. (1998). Strategies for developing inclusive practices in small, rural schools. *Rural Special Education Quarterly, 17*(1), 12-20.
- Bennis, W. (1982). Warren Bennis on... The art form of leadership. *Training and Development Journal, 36*(4), 44-46.
- Biklen, D. (1985). *Achieving the complete school: Strategies for effective mainstreaming*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Billingsley, F. F., & Kelly, B. (1994). An examination of the acceptability of instructional practices for students with severe disabilities in general education settings. *JASH, 19*, 74-83.
- Bjork, L. G. (1993). Effective schools-effective school leaders: The emerging instructional leadership role. *Journal of School Leadership, 3*(3), 246-259.
- Blanchard, K. H. & Hersey, P. (1970). A leadership theory for educational administrators. *Education, 90*(4), 303-310.
- Block, M. E. (1999). Are children with disabilities receiving appropriate physical education? *Teaching Exceptional Children, 31*(3) 18-23. Retrieved February 13, 2009, from Metalab database.
- Boudah, D., Schumacher, J., & Deshler, D. (1997). Collaborative instruction: Is it an effective option for inclusion in secondary classrooms? *Learning Disabilities Quarterly, 20*, 293-316.
- Boyd, V. (1992). Creating a text for change. *Issues ... about Change, 2*(2). Austin, TX: Southwest Educational Development Laboratory.

- Bradshaw, J. (2003, December 9). *New No Child Left Behind provision gives schools increased flexibility while ensuring all children count, including those with disabilities*. Archived Information. Washington, DC: Press Release.
- Bradley, D. F., King-Sears, M. E., & Tessier-Switlick, D. M. (1997). *Teaching students in inclusive settings*. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Bracey, G. W. (2003). The thirteenth Bracey report on the condition of public education. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 85(2), 148-163.
- Bredenkamp, S., & Copple, C. (Eds.). (1997). *Developmentally appropriate practice in early childhood programs*. Washington, DC: National Association for the Education of Young Children (NAEYC).
- Bredeson, P. V., & Johansson, O. (1997). *Leadership for learning: A study of the instructional leadership roles of school leaders in Sweden and Wisconsin*. Paper presented at the annual conference of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, IL.
- Brown, L., Long, E., Udvari-Solner, A., Davis, L., VanDeventer, P., Ahlgren, C., Johnson, F., Gruenewald, L., & Jorgensen, J. (1989). The home school: Why students with severe intellectual disabilities must attend the schools of their brothers, sisters, friends, and neighbors. *The Journal of the Association for Persons with Severe Handicaps*, 14, 1-7.
- Burrello, L. C., & Wright, P. T. (Eds.). (1992). *Principal leadership. Principal letters: Practices for inclusive schools*. Bloomington, IN: Indiana University, National Academy/CASE.
- Byron, W. J. (2003). The tools and qualities of effective leadership. *Vital Speeches of the Day*, 69(20), 639. Retrieved June 21, 2007, from Academic Search Premier.

- Butler, D. L. (2002). Individualizing instruction in self-regulated learning. *Theory into Practice, 41*(2), 81-92.
- Butler, D. L., & Cartier, S. C. (2005, May). *Multiple complementary methods for understanding self-regulated learning as situated in context*. Annual conference of the American Educational Research Association, Montreal, Quebec.
- Buyse, V., & Bailey, D. B. (1993). Behavioral and developmental outcomes in young children with disabilities in integrated and segregated settings: A review of comparative studies. *Journal of Special Education, 26*, 434-461.
- Cambron-McCabe, N., & McCarthy, M. (2003). *Challenges confronting the preparation and development of school leaders: Implications for social justice*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Chicago, IL.
- Campbell, D. T., & Stanley, J. C. (1963). *Experimental and quasi-experimental design for research*. Chicago, IL: Rand McNally.
- Chu, D., & Griffey, D. (1985). The contact theory of racial integration: The case of sport. *Sociology of Sport Journal, 2*(4), 323-333. Retrieved February 8, 2009, from Metalab database.
- Coates, R. D. (1989). The general education initiative and opinions of regular classroom teachers. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 22*, 532-536.
- Collins, J. (2001). *Good to great*. New York, NY: Harper Collins.
- Consortium on Inclusive Schooling Practices. (1996). A framework for evaluating state and local policies for inclusion. *Issue Brief*. Pittsburgh, PA: Author.

- Corporation for National and Community Service. (2004, January). *Creating an inclusive environment: A handbook for the inclusion of people with disabilities in national and community service programs*. Cooperative Agreement #95CA000031, (1st ed.). UCP Access AmeriCorps. Retrieved April 19, 2009, from http://www.vaservice.org/uploads/public/AmeriCorps_State_National/Policy_Guidelines/Disability_Inclusion_Manual/Appendix_A_Inclusion.pdf
- Cortiella, C. (2005). *No Child Left Behind: Making the most of options for IDEA- eligible students*. A Parent Policy Brief from National Center for Learning Disabilities. Retrieved March 30, 2009, from <http://www.ldonline.org/article/10931?theme=print>
- Cross, L. S., & Walker-Knight, D. (1997). Inclusion: Developing collaborative and cooperative school communities. *The Educational Forum*, Spring.
- Daane, C. J., Beirne-Smith, M., & Latham, D. (2000). Administrators' and teachers' perceptions of the collaborative efforts of inclusion in the elementary grades. *Education*, 121(2), 331-338.
- Davis, S. H. (1998). Taking aim at effective leadership. *Thrust for Educational Leadership*, 28(2), 6. Retrieved June 21, 2004, from Academic Search Premier.
- DEC. (1993). DEC position statement on inclusion. *DEC Communicator*, 19(4), 4.
- Ensher, G. L., Blatt, B., & Winshel, J. F. (1976). Head Start for the Handicapped Congressional Audit. *Exceptional Children*, 43, 202-210.
- Deering, P. D. (1996). An ethnographic study of normal inclusion and cooperation in a multiethnic middle school. *Urban Review*, 28(1), 21-39.

- Dei, G. J., James, I. M., Karumanchery, L. L., James-Wilson, S., & Zine, J. (2000). *Removing the margins. The challenges and possibilities of inclusive schooling*. Toronto: Canadian Scholars' Press.
- Denardo, A. M., & Levers, L. L. (2002, November 19). *Using NVivo to analyze qualitative data*. Retrieved March 30, 2009, from <http://ro.uow.edu.au/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1457&context=commpapers>
- DeStefano, L., Heck, D., Hasazi, S. & Furney, K. (1999). Enhancing the implementation of the transition requirements of IDEA: A report on the policy forum on transition. *Career Development for Exceptional Individuals*, 22(1), 65-100.
- Dieker, L. (2005). *An introduction to cooperative teaching*. University of Kansas. Retrieved February 19, 2009, from <http://www.specialconnections.ku.edu/cgi-bin/cgiwrap/speconn/index.php>
- Disability Resources. (1996). *Inclusion and parent advocacy: A resource guide*. Retrieved February 3, 2009, from <http://www.jmu.edu/humanresources/adaterms.shtml>
- Dowing, J. E., Eichinger, J., & Williams, L. J. (1997). Inclusive education for students with severe disabilities. *Remedial and Special Education*, 18(3), 133-142.
- Duckworth, K., & Carnine, D. (1987). The quality of teacher-principal relationships. In V. Richardson-Koehler (Ed.), *Educator's handbook: A research perspective* (pp. 459-473). White Plains, NY: Longman.
- Elliott, B., & Riddle, M. (1992). *An effective interface between regular and special education: A synopsis of issues and successful practices*. Indiana University, Bloomington. Council of Administrators of Special Education.

- Elliott, D., & McKenney, M. (1998). Four inclusion models that work. *Teaching Exceptional Children*, March/April.
- Elmore, R. F. (1996). Getting to scale with good educational practice. *Harvard Educational Review*, 66(1), 1-26.
- Epps, S., & Tindal, G. (1987). The effectiveness of differential programming in serving students with mild handicaps: Placement options and instructional programming. In M. C. Wang, M. C. Reynolds, & H. J. Walberg. (Eds.), *Handbook of special education: Research and practice, volume I: Learner characteristics and adaptive education*, Oxford: Pergamon Press, (pp. 213-248).
- ERIC Clearinghouse on Disabilities and Gifted Education. (ERIC, 1993). Including students with disabilities in general education classrooms. *ERIC EC Digest #E521*. Retrieved February 3, 2009, from <http://eric.hoagiesgifted.org>
- ERIC Clearinghouse on Disabilities and Gifted Education. (1998). *IDEA and NCLB*. Retrieved February 3, 2009, from <http://eric.hoagiesgifted.org>
- ERIC Clearinghouse on Disabilities and Gifted Education (ERIC EC). (2003, March). *Inclusion pros and cons*. Retrieved February 3, 2009, from <http://eric.hoagiesgifted.org>
- Falvey, M. A., & Rosenberg, R. L. (1995). Developing and fostering friendships. In M. A. Falvey (Ed.), *Inclusive and heterogeneous schooling: Assessment, curriculum, and instruction* (pp. 267-283). Baltimore, MD: Brookes.
- Farley, J. L. (1991). *The current attitudes of principals and teachers regarding mainstreaming in Virginia middle-level schools*. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The College of William and Mary, Williamsburg, VA.
- Federal Register, (1977). Sec. 504, Sec. C, 84.21

- Ferguson, D. L. (1995). The real challenge of inclusion: Confessions of a 'rabid inclusionist'. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 77(4), 281-306.
- Firestone, W. A., & Riehl, C. R. (2005). *A new agenda for research in educational leadership*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Firestone, W. A., & Shipps, D. (2005). How do leaders interpret conflicting accountabilities to improve student learning? In W. Firestone & C. Riehl (Eds.), *A new agenda for research in educational leadership* (pp. 81-100). New York: Teachers College Press.
- First District RESA. (2008). *Title I Distinguished District awards*. Retrieved February 16, 2009, from <http://www.fdresa.org/>
- Fisher, D., Sax, C., & Grove, K. A. (2000). The resilience of changes promoting inclusiveness in an urban elementary school. *The Elementary School Journal*, 100, 213-227.
- Ford, A., Davern, L., Meyer, L., Schnorr, R., Black, J., & Demsey, P. (1994). Recreational/Leisure. In A. Ford, R. Schnoor, L. Meyer, L. Davern, J. Black, & P. Demsey (Eds.). *The Syracuse community-referenced curriculum guide* (pp. 63-76). Baltimore, MD: Brookes.
- Friend, M., & Bursuck, W. D. (1999). *Including students with special needs: A practical guide for teachers*. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Friend, M., & Cook, L. (2003). *Interactions: Collaboration skills for school professionals (4th ed.)*. White Plains, NY: Longman.

- Friend, M., & Hurley-Chamberlain, D. (2007). *Is co-teaching effective?* Retrieved February 19, 2009, from <http://www.cec.sped.org/AM/Template.cfm?Section=Home&TEMPLATE=/CM/ContentDisplay.cfm&CONTENTID=7504>
- Fuchs, D., & Fuchs, L. S. (1994). Inclusive schools movement and the radicalization of special education reform. *Exceptional Children, 60*, 294-309.
- Fuchs, D., & Fuchs, L. S. (1995). Sometimes separate is better. *Educational Leadership, 52*(4), 22-26
- Fullan, M. G. (1993). *Change forces: Probing the depths of educational reform*. New York: Falmer. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 373 391)
- Fullan, M. G. (2005). *Leadership and sustainability systems thinking in action*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Fullan, M. G., & Stiegelbauer, S. (1991). *The new meaning of educational change*. New York: Teachers College Press.
- Galis, S. A., & Tanner, C. K. (1995, October 12). Inclusion in elementary schools: A questionnaire and policy analysis. *Education Policy Analysis Archives, 3*(15), 1-28. ISSN 1068-2341.
- Gately, S. E., & Gately, F. J. (2001). Understanding co-teaching components. *Teaching Exceptional Children, 33*(4), 40-44.
- Gent, P. J., & Mulhauser, M. B. (1988). Public integration of students with severe handicaps: Where it's been, where it's going, and how it's getting there. *Journal of the Association for Persons with Severe Handicaps, 13*, 188-196.

- Georgia Professional Standards Commission. (2001). *The Georgia teaching force 2001: Executive summary. Division for Educator Workforce Research and Development*. Retrieved February 19, 2009, from www.doe.k12.ga.us
- Glass, T. E., Bjork, L., & Brunner, C. C. (2000). *The 2000 study of the American school superintendent: A look at the superintendent of education in the new millennium*. Arlington, VA: American Association of School Administrators.
- Goertz, J. (2000). Creativity: An essential component for effective leadership in today's schools. *Roeper Review*, 22(3), 158. Retrieved June 21, 2004, from Academic Search Premier.
- Goldstein, H., Moss, J., & Jordan, L. (1965). *The efficacy of special class training on the development of mentally retarded children*. Washington, DC: U.S. Office of Education, Cooperative Research Project No. 619.
- Goulas, F. M., Henry, L. J., & Griffith, K. (2005). Making inclusion work in rural southeast Texas. Retrieved February 22, 2009, from http://www.ed.wright.edu/~prenick/Summer_fall04/Making%20Inclusion.htm
- Grubb, W. N. (1995). The old problem of "new students": Purpose, content and pedagogy. In E. Flaxman, & A. H. Passow (Eds.), *Changing populations, changing schools. Ninety-fourth yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education* (pp. 4-29). Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Guess, D., & Thompson, B. (1989). Preparation of personnel to educate students with severe and multiple disabilities: A time for change? *Critical Issues in the Lives of People with Severe Disabilities*.

- Guralnick, M. J. (1982). Mainstreaming young handicapped children: A public policy and ecological systems analysis. In B. Spodek (Ed.), *Handbook of research in early childhood education* (pp. 456-500). New York: Free Press.
- Hall, R. H. (2002). *Organizations structures, process, and outcomes*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Halpern, A. S. (1990). A methodological review of follow-up and follow-along studies tracking school leavers from special education. *Career Development for Exceptional Individuals, 51*, 455-469.
- Halvorsen, A. T., & Neary, T. (2001). *Building inclusive schools: tools and strategies for success*. Needham Heights, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Harris, A., Day, C., & Hadfield, M. (2003). Teachers' perspective on effective school leadership. *Teachers and Teaching: Theory and Practice, 9*(1), 67-77.
- Hasazi, S. B. (2000). *Factors that promote or inhibit implementation of transition policy at the state and local level*. Retrieved February 19, 2009, from http://www.ideapolicy.org/tue_oct_3/Factors.PDF
- Haynes, M. C., & Jenkins, J. R. (1986). Reading instruction in special education resource rooms. *American Educational Research Journal, 23*, 161-190.
- Hebbeler, K. (1994). *Traversing the mainstream: Regular education and students with disabilities in secondary school*. A Special Topic Report from the National Longitudinal Transition Study of Special Education Students. ERIC Document Service Nos. ED370276 EC303007.
- Heflin, L. J., & Bullock, L. M. (1999). Inclusion of students with emotional/behavioral disorders: A questionnaire of teachers in general and special education. *Preventing School Failure, 43*(3), 103-111.

- Heller, K., Holtzman, W., & Messick, S. (1982). *Placing children in special education: a strategy for equity*. Washington, DC: National Academy of Science Press.
- Heshusius, L. (1988, September). The arts, science, and the study of exceptionality. *Exceptional Children, 55*(1), 60-65.
- Hines, R. A., & Johnston, J. H. (1997). Inclusion. In J. L. Irvin (Ed.), *What current research says to the middle level practitioner* (pp. 109-120). Columbus, OH: National Middle School Association. ED 427 847.
- Holcomb, S., Amundson, E., & Ralabate, P. (2002). *The IDEA survival guide*. Washington, DC: NEA Professional Library.
- Hord, S. (1991). Leadership: An imperative for successful change. *Issues ... about Change, 1*(2). Austin, TX: Southwest Educational Development Laboratory.
- Hoy, W. K., Tarter, C. J., & Wiskowskie, L. (1992). Faculty trust in colleagues: Linking the principal with school effectiveness. *Journal of Research and Development in Education, 26*(1), 38-45.
- Hoyle, J. R., Bjork, L. G., Collier, V., & Glass, T. (2005). *Superintendent as CEO*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Hunt, P. (2000). 'Community' is what I think everyone is talking about. *Remedial and Special Education, 21*(5), 305.
- Hunt, P., Staub, D., Alwell, M., & Goetz, L. (1994). Achievement by all students within the context of cooperative learning groups. *JASH, 19*, 290-301.
- IDEA Funding Coalition. (2006). *Mainstreaming deaf students. Independent School, 66*(6). Retrieved November 29, 2007, from EBSCO host database.

- Janney, R. F., & Snell, M. E. (1997). How teachers include students with moderate and severe disabilities in elementary classes: The means and meaning of inclusion. *JASH, 22*, 159-169.
- Jenkins, J., Pious, C., & Hewell, M. (1990). Special education and the general educational initiative: Basic assumptions. *Exceptional Children, 56*, 479-491.
- Jitendra, A. K., Edwards, L. L., Choutka, C. M., & Treadway, P. S. (2002). A collaborative approach to planning in the content areas for students with learning disabilities: Accessing the general curriculum. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice, 17*(4), 252-267.
- Johns, H., & Moser, H. R. (1989). From trait to transformation: The evolution of leadership theories. *Education, 110*(1), 115-122.
- Johnson, D. R. (2004, December). *Current challenges facing the future of secondary education and transition services for youth with disabilities in the United States*. National Center on Secondary Education and Transition, Minneapolis, MN: University of Minnesota.
- Johnson, D. R., McGrew, K. S., Bloomberg, L., Bruininks, R. H., & Lin, H. C. (1997a). *Policy research brief: A national perspective on the post-school outcomes and community adjustment of individuals with severe disabilities*. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, Institute on Community Integration.
- Johnson, D. R., McGrew, K. S., Bloomberg, L., Bruininks, R. H., & Lin, H. C. (1997b). Results of a national follow-up study of young adults with severe disabilities. *Journal of Vocational Rehabilitation, 8*, 119-133.

- Johnson, G. O. (1961). *A comparative study of the personal and social adjustment of mentally handicapped children placed in special classes with mentally handicapped children who remain in regular classes*. Syracuse, NY: Syracuse University Press.
- Johnson, R. C., & Cohen, O. P. (Eds.) (1994). *Implications and complications for deaf students of the full inclusion movement*. Occasional Paper 94-2. ERIC Service Document No. ED380917.
- Jones, M. L. (2007). Using software to analyze qualitative data. *Malaysian Journal of Qualitative Research*, 1(1), 64-76.
- Kapusnick, R. A., & Hauslein, C. M. (2001). The 'silver cup' of differentiated instruction. *Kappan Delta Pi Record*, 37(4), 156-159.
- Keyes, M. W., Hanley-Maxwell, C., & Capper, C. A. (1999). Spirituality? It's the core of my leadership: Empowering leadership in an inclusive elementary school. *Education Administration Quarterly*, 35, 203-237.
- Kluth, P., Villa, R., & Thousand, J. (2001, December/January). Our school doesn't offer inclusion and other legal blunders. *Educational Leadership*, 59(4), 24-30.
- Kochhar, C. A., & West, L. L. (2008). *Handbook for successful inclusion*. Gaithersburg, MD: Aspen.
- Kochhar, C. A., West, L. L., & Taymans, J. M. (2000). *Successful inclusion: Practical strategies for a shared responsibility*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Kontos, S., & File, N. (1993). Staff development in support of integration. In C. A. Peck, S. L. Odom, & D. Bricker (Eds.), *Integrating young children with disabilities into community programs: Ecological perspectives on research and implementation* (pp. 169-186). Baltimore, MD: Paul H. Brookes.

- Kugel, R. B., & Wolfensberger, W. (1969). *Changing patterns in residential services for the mentally retarded*. Washington, DC: President's Committee on Mental Retardation.
- Lago-Delello, E. (1998). Classroom dynamics and the development of serious emotional disturbance. *Exceptional Children, 64*(4), 479-492.
- Learning Disabilities Association. (1992). *Inclusion*. Position Paper of the Learning Disabilities Association. Learning Disabilities Association, 4156 Library Road, Pittsburgh, PA 15234-1349.
- Leithwood, K. (2005). *Educational leadership: A review of the research*. Philadelphia, PA: The Mid-Atlantic Regional Educational Laboratory (Laboratory for Student Success).
- Leithwood, K., Louis, K. S., Anderson, S., & Wahlstrom, K. (2004). *How leadership influences student learning*. Ontario Institute for Studies in Education at the University of Toronto. Center for Applied Research and Educational Improvement. The Wallace Foundation.
- Lieberman, L. (1985). Special education and general education: A merger made in heaven? *Exceptional Children, 51*, 513-516.
- Leyser, Y., & Tappendorf, K. (2001). Are attitudes and practices regarding mainstreaming changing? A case of teachers in two rural districts. *Education, 121*(4), 751-760.
- Lieber, J., Capell, K., Sandall, S., Wolfberg, P., Horn, E., & Beckman, P. (1998). Inclusive preschool programs. *Early Childhood Research Quarterly, 13*(1), 87-105.

- Lieberman, L., James, A., & Ludwa, N. (2004). The impact of inclusion in general physical education for all students. *Journal of Physical Education, 75*(5), 37-55. Retrieved February 9, 2009, from Metalab database.
- Lipsky, D. K., & Gartner, A. (1998). *Inclusion and school reform. Transforming America's classrooms*. Baltimore, MD: Brookes.
- Logan, K. R., & Keefe, E. B. (1997). A comparison of instructional context, teacher behavior, and engaged behavior for students with severe disabilities in general education and self-contained elementary classrooms. *JASH, 22*, 16-27.
- Long, N. (1995). Inclusion: Formula for failure. *Education Digest, 60*(9), 26-29.
- Lortie, D. C. (1975). *School teacher*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Louis, K. S., Kruse, S., & Raywid, M. A. (1996). Putting teachers at the center of reform. *National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, 80*(580), 9-21.
- Madden, N. A., & Slavin, R. E. (1983). Mainstreaming students with mild handicaps: Academic and social outcomes. *Review of Educational Research, 53*, 519-569.
- Magiera, K., & Zigmond, N. (2005). Co-teaching in middle school classroom under routine conditions: Does the instructional experience differ for students with disabilities in co-taught and solo-taught classes? *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice, 20*(2), 79-85.
- Maheady, L., & Algozzine, B. (1991). The general education initiative--Can we proceed in an orderly and scientific manner? *Teacher Education and Special Education, 14*(1), 66-73.
- Marston, D. (1996). A comparison of inclusion only, pull-out only and combined service models for students with mild disabilities. *Journal of Special Education, 30*, 121-132.

- Martin, E. W. (1995). Case studies on inclusion: Worst fears realized. *Journal of Special Education, 29*(2), 192-199.
- Marzano, R. J. (2003). *What works in schools*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- Marzano, R. J., Waters, T., & McNulty, B. A. (2005). *School leadership that works*. Alexandria, VA: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development.
- McEachern, K. (2006, Fall). *Regular classroom teachers' perceptions of mainstreaming: One year after full-inclusion*. Hartford, CT: Trinity College.
- McGill-Franzen, A., & Allington, R. L. (1991). The gridlock of low reading achievement: Perspectives on practice and policy. *Remedial and Special Education, 12*, 20-30.
- McLeskey, J., Hoppey, D., Williamson, P., & Rentz, T. (2004). Is inclusion an illusion? An examination of national and state trends toward the education of students with learning disabilities in general education classrooms. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice, 19*(2), 109-115.
- Murawski, W., & Swanson, H. (2001). A meta-analysis of co-teaching research: Where are the data? *Remedial and Special Education, 22*(5), 258-267.
- National Association of Secondary School Principals. (1996). *Breaking ranks: Changing an American institution*. Reston, VA: NASSP.
- National Association of State Boards of Education. (1992). *Winners all: A call for inclusive schools*. Alexandria, VA: National Association of State Boards of Education.
- National Association of the Deaf. (1997). *Who speaks for the deaf community?* Silver Springs, MD: (REF and 4th floor, HV 2545.W446 1997). Garretson, M.D. (Ed.).

- National Council on Disability. (1995). *Improving the implementation of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act: Making schools work for all of America's children*. Washington, DC: Author.
- National Research Center on Learning Disabilities. (2007). *Twenty-five years of progress in educating children with disabilities through IDEA*. Retrieved February 16, 2009, from <http://www.nrcld.org/resources/osep/historyidea.html>
- Newman, L., & Cameto, R. (1993). *What makes a difference? Factors related to postsecondary school attendance for young people with disabilities*. ERIC Document Service Nos. ED361928, EC302395.
- Newmann, F. M. (1991). What is a restructured school? A framework to clarify means and ends. *Issues in Restructuring Schools*, Issue Report No.1, 3-5, 16. Madison, WI: Center on Organization and Restructuring of Schools.
- New Visions for Public Schools. (2008). *Inclusion program design*. Retrieved July 11, 2009, from <http://www.newvisions.org/schools/downloads/inclusionprogdes.pdf>
- Nickisch, R. (1992). Strategies for integrating handicapped students. *Principal*, January, 20-22.
- No Child Left Behind Act*, Public Law No. 107-110. (2002). Retrieved July 1, 2009, from <http://www.ed.gov/policy/elsec/leg/esea02/index.html>
- Northouse, P. G. (2004). *Leadership theory and practice*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Odom, S. L. (1996). *Inclusion at the preschool level: An ecological systems analysis*. *Social Policy Report*, 10(2-3), 18-30.
- Odom, S. L. (Ed.). (2002). *Widening the circle: Including children with disabilities in preschool programs*. New York, NY: Early Childhood Education Series.
- Olson, L. (2000). Children of change. *Education Week*, 20(4), 31-41.

- Osborne, A. G., & DiMattia, P. (1994). The IDEA's least restrictive environment mandate: Legal implications, *Exceptional Children*, 61, 6-14.
- Ouchi, W. (1981). *Theory z*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.
- Owens, R. G. (2001). *Organizational behavior in education: Instructional leadership and school reform* (7th ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Palaniuk, S. (1987). Administrators in the classroom: Where else? *Education*, 107(3), 272-275.
- Parker, S. A., & Day, V. P. (1997). Promoting inclusion through instructional leadership: The roles of the secondary school principal. *National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin*, 81, 83-89.
- Patton, M. Q. (1990). *Qualitative evaluation and research methods* (2nd ed.). Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Paul, J. L., Lavelly, C. D., Cranston-Gingras, A., & Taylor, E. L. (2002). *Rethinking professional issues in special education*. Hartford, CT: Ablex.
- Peck, C. A. (1993). Ecological perspectives on implementation of integrated early childhood programs. In C. Peck, S. Odom, & D. Bricker (Eds.), *Integrating young children with disabilities into community programs: From research to implementation* (pp. 3-16). Baltimore, MA: Paul H. Brookes.
- Peck, C. A., Carlson, P., & Helmstetter, E. (1992). Parent and teacher perceptions of outcomes for typically developing children enrolled in integrated early childhood programs: A statewide questionnaire. *Journal of Early Intervention*, 16(1), 53-63.

Peck, C. A., Hayden, L., Wandschneider, M., Peterson, K., & Richarz, S. (1989).

Development of integrated preschools: A qualitative inquiry into sources of resistance among parents, administrators, and teachers. *Journal of Early Intervention, 13*(4), 353-364.

Peck, C. A., Mabry, L., Curley, J., & Conn-Powers, M. (1994). *Implementation of inclusion at the early childhood level: Some findings from a field study of 54 programs in Washington State*. Manuscript submitted for publication.

Phi Delta Kappan Center for Evaluation, Development, and Research. (1993). Inclusion definitions. *Research Bulletin, 11*. Retrieved February 3, 2009, from www.weac.org

Philpot, D. J. (2005). *History of federal statutes affecting special education*. Retrieved February 28, 2005, from <http://www.dphilpotlaw.com>

Price, B. J., Mayfield, P. K., McFadden, A. C., Marsh, G. E., & Price, B. J. (2001). *Collaborative teaching: Special education for inclusive classrooms*. Retrieved February 22, 2009, from http://www.parrotpublishing.com/Inclusion_Links.htm

Pruitt, P., McLeskey, J., Wilcox, B., & Brush, T. (1995). *Including students with mild disabilities: Modification preferences of middle-level educators*. Bloomington: Department of Curriculum and Instruction, Indiana University.

Pugach, M., & Warger, C. (1993). Curriculum considerations. In J. I. Goodlad & T. C. Lovitt (Eds.), *Integrating general and special education* (New York: Macmillan, pp. 125-148).

Quarcoo, C. (2005, Fall). *Co-teaching as a response to mainstreaming: The perspectives of teachers at a magnet middle school*. Senior Research Project. Trinity College.

- Rainforth, B., York, J., & Macdonald, C. (1992). *Collaborative teams for students with severe disabilities: Integrating therapy and educational services*. Baltimore, MD: Brookes.
- Raison, J., Hanson, L. A., Hall, C., & Reynolds, M. C. (1995). Another school's reality. *Phi Delta Kappan*, 76(6), 480-482.
- Ramirez, R. C. (2006). *Elementary principals' attitudes towards the inclusion of students with disabilities in the general education setting*. Baylor University, Department of Educational Administration. Retrieved February 22, 2009, from <https://beardocs.baylor.edu/handle/2104/4849>
- Reeve, P. T., & Hallahan, D. P. (1994). Practical questions about collaboration between general and special educators. *Focus on Exceptional Children*, 26(7), 1-11.
- Reynolds, M. C. (1991). *Progressive inclusion*. Quality Outcomes- Driven Education, December, 11-14.
- Reynolds, M. C., Wang, M. C., & Walberg, H. J. (1987). The necessary restructuring of special and regular education. *Exceptional Children*, 53(5), 391-398.
- Riehl, C. J. (2000). The principal's role in creating inclusive schools for diverse students: A review of normative, empirical, and critical literatures on the practice of educational administration. *Review of Educational Research*, 70(1), 55-81.
- Reynolds, M. C., Wang, M. C., & Walberg, H. J. (1987). The necessary restructuring of special and general education. *Exceptional Children*, 53(5), 391-398.
- Ritter, C. L., Michel, C. S., & Irby, B. (1999). Concerning inclusion: Perceptions of middle school students, their parents, and teachers. *Rural Special Education Quarterly*, 18(2), 10-17. EJ 607 015.

- Robertson, T. S., & Valentine, J. W. (1999). *Plan for a successful inclusion program*. National Middle School Association. Retrieved February 10, 2009, from <http://www.ncmsa.net/ressum14.htm>
- Robinson, B., & Schaible, R. M. (1995). Collaborative teaching. *College Teaching*, 43(2), 57. Retrieved June 21, 2004, from Academic Search Premier.
- Sachs, J. (1990). The self-efficacy interaction between general education and special education students: A model for understanding the mainstreaming dilemma. *Teacher Education and Special Education*, 13(3-4), 235-239.
- Sage, D. D. (1996). Administrative strategies for achieving inclusive schooling. In S. Stainback & W. Stainback (Eds.), *Inclusion: A guide for educators* (pp. 105-116). Baltimore, MD: Brookes.
- Sage, D. D., & Burrello, L. C. (1994). *Leadership in educational reform: An administrator's guide to changes in special education*. Baltimore, MD: Brookes.
- Sailor, W., Gee, K., & Karakoff, P. (1993). Full inclusion and school restructuring. In M. Snell (Ed.). *Instruction of students with severe disabilities*, (pp.1-30). New York: Merrill.
- Salend, S. J. (2001). *Creating inclusive classrooms: Effective and reflective practices*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.
- Salend, S. J., & Duhaney, L. G. (1999). The impact of inclusion on students with and without disabilities and their educators. *Remedial and Special Education*, 20(2), 114-127. EJ 585 702.
- Salisbury, C. L., & McGregor, G. (2002). The administrative climate and context of inclusive elementary schools. *Exceptional Children*, 68(2), 259-274.

- Salisbury, C. L., Wilson, L., & Palombaro, M. M. (1998). Promoting inclusive schooling practices through practitioner directed inquiry. *Journal of the Association for Persons with Severe Handicaps*, 23(3), 223-237.
- Sands, D. J., Kozleski, E. B., & French, K. (2000). *Inclusive education for the 21st century: A new introduction to special education*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Santoli, S. P., Sachs, J., & Romey, E. A. (2008). A successful formula for middle school inclusion: Collaboration, time, and administrative support. In M. M. Caskey (Ed.). *RMLE Online*, 32(2), ISSN 1940-4476. Portland, OR: National Middle School Association.
- Sapon-Shevin, M. (1999). *Because we can change the world: A practical guide to building cooperative inclusive classroom communities*. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Sarason, S. B. (1990). *The predictable failure of educational reform*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
- Schnaiberg, L. (1996, January 17). Oberti and the law. *Education Week*, 15(17), 18-26.
- Schattman, R., & Benay, J. (1992). Inclusive practices transform special education in the 1990s, *The School Administrator*, 49(2), 8-12.
- Schulte, A., Osborne, S., & McKinney, J. (1990) Academic outcomes for students with learning disabilities in consultation and resource programs. *Exceptional Children*, 57(2), 162-172.
- Schumm, J. S., & Vaughn, S. (1992). Planning for mainstreamed special education students: Perceptions of general education teachers. *Exceptionality*, 3(2), 81-98.
- Schwartz, S. E. (1991). *Exceptional people: A guide for understanding*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

- Semmel, M. I., Abernathy, T. V., Butera, G., & Lesar, S. (1991). Teacher perceptions of the general education initiative. *Exceptional Children*, 58(1), 9-24.
- Senge, P. (1990). *The fifth discipline: The art and practice of the learning organization*. New York, NY: Doubleday.
- Sergiovanni, T. J. (1992). *Moral leadership: Getting to the heart of school improvement*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
- Sergiovanni, T. J. (1995). *The principalship: A reflective practice perspective*. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Servatius, J. D., Fellows, M., & Kelly, D. (1992). Preparing leaders for inclusive schools. In R. A. Villa, J. S. Thousand, & S. Stainback (Eds.), *Restructuring for caring and effective education: An administrative guide to creating heterogeneous schools* (pp. 267-284). Baltimore, MD: Brookes.
- Shanker, A. (1995). Full inclusion is neither free nor appropriate. *Educational Leadership*, December 1994/January, 18-21.
- Shippen, M. E., Steven, A. C., Houchins, D. E., Ramsey, M. L. & Simon, M. (2005). Preservice teachers' perceptions of including students with disabilities. *Teacher Education and Special Education*, 28(2), 92-99.
- Skrtic, T. M. (1991). The special education paradox: Equity as the way to excellence. *Harvard Educational Review*, 61(2), 148-207.
- Smelter, R. W., Rasch, B. W., & Yudewitz, G. J. (1996). Thinking of inclusion for all special needs students? Better think again. *School Board Journal*, January/February.
- Smith, S. W. (1990). Individualized education programs (IEPs) in special education: From intent to acquiescence. *Exceptional Children*, 57(1), 6-14.

- Snell, M. E. (1991). Schools are for all kids: The importance of integration for students with severe disabilities and their peers. In J. W. Lloyd, Singh, N. N., & A. C. Repp (Eds.), *The regular education initiative: Alternative perspectives on concepts, issues, and models* (pp. 133-148). Sycamore, IL: Sycamore.
- Sparks, D. (2001, May). *NSDC revises staff development standards*. National Staff Development Council. Retrieved March 22, 2009, from <http://www.nsd.org/library/basics/nsdcstandards.cfm>
- Stainback, S., & Stainback, W. (1991). Promoting inclusive education: What happened in one school. *Quality Outcomes-Driven Education*, December, 15-25.
- Stainback, W., & Stainback, S. (1990). *Support networks for inclusive schooling*. Baltimore, MD: Brookes.
- Stainback, S., Stainback, W., & Forest, M. (Eds.). (1989). *Educating all students in the mainstream of general education*. Baltimore, MD: Brookes.
- Staub, D. (1996). Inclusion and the other kids. *Learning*, 25(2), 76-78 (September-October). EJ535065 SP525640
- Staub, D., & Peck, C. A. (1995). What are the outcomes for nondisabled students? *Educational Leadership*, 52(4), 36-40. EJ 496 166.
- Stickney, D. (2003, November/December). Co-teaching: An effective approach for inclusive education. *TTAC Link Lines*.
- Strully, J. L., & Strully, C. (1996). Friendships as an educational goal. In S. Stainback & W. Stainback (Eds.), *Inclusion: A guide for educators* (pp. 141-169). Baltimore, MD: Brookes.

- Suomi, J., Collier, D., & Brown, L. (2003). Factors affecting the social experiences of students in elementary physical education classes. *Journal of Teaching in Physical Education*, 22(2), 186-202. Retrieved February 11, 2009, from EBSCO host database.
- Swanson, H. L. (2000). What instruction works for students with learning disabilities? Summarizing the results from a meta-analysis of intervention studies. In R. Gersten, E. P. Schiller, & S. Vaughn (Eds.), *Contemporary special education research: Syntheses of the knowledge base on critical instructional issues* (pp.1-30). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Tanner, C. K., Linscott, D. J. V., & Galis, S. A. (1996). Inclusive education in the United States: Beliefs and practices among middle school principals and teachers. *Education Policy Analysis*, 4(19), ISSN 1068-2341
- Tarter, C. J., & Hoy, W. K. (1988). The context of trust: Teachers and the principal. *The High School Journal*, 72, 17-24.
- Taylor, G. R., & Harrington, F. T. (1998). *Inclusion: Panacea or delusion*. Position Paper. ED423225 SP038148
- Thomas, M. D., & Bainbridge, W. L. (2001). Global perspective on school leadership. *Educational Research*, January 2001.
- Thousand, J. S., & Villa, R. A. (1991). A futuristic view of the REI: A response to Jenkins, Pious, and Jewell. *Exceptional Children*, May, 556-564.
- Thousand, J. S., Villa, R. A., & Nevin, A. (1997). When parents and educators meet. *Exceptional Parent* (On-line). Retrieved July 11, 2009, from <http://www.familyeducation.com/specialneeds/education>

- Thurlow, M., Elliott, J. L., & Ysseldyke, J. E. (1998). *Testing students with disabilities. Practical strategies for complying with district and state requirements*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Tidmarsh, L., & Volkmar, F. (2003). Diagnosis and epidemiology of autism spectrum disorders. *Canadian Journal of Psychiatry*. Retrieved February 11, 2009, from <https://ww1.cpa-apc.org/Publications/Archives/CJP/2003/september/tidmarsh.asp>
- Tierney, R. J., & Readence, J. E. (2000). *Reading strategies and practices: A compendium* (5th ed.). Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Tiner, K. A. (1995). Conditions conducive to special learners in the general classroom: Inclusion in the 1990s. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 55(08), 2348A.
- Tobin, R. (2005). Co-teaching in language arts: Supporting students with disabilities. *Canadian Journal of Education*, 28(4), 784-801.
- Turnbull, A., Turnbull, R., & Wehmeyer, M. (2007). *Exceptional lives: Special education in today's schools* (5th ed.). Boston, MA: Pearson.
- University of New England. (2000). *Descriptive research*. Armidale, NSW.
- Urban Wallace Associates. (2007). *Whether to use qualitative or quantitative research to answer a marketing question*. Lexington, MA. Retrieved February 15, 2009, from www.uwa.com
- U.S. Department of Education. (1999). *To assure the free appropriate public education of all children with disabilities. Annual report to Congress on the implementation of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act*. Washington, DC: Office of Special Education Programs.

- U.S. Department of Education. (2005, December). *Working together for students with disabilities: Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) and No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) frequently asked questions*. Retrieved February 17, 2009, from www.ed.gov
- U.S. Department of Education. (2008). *No Child Left Behind provision gives schools new flexibility and ensures accountability for students with disabilities*. Retrieved February 3, 2009, from www.ed.gov
- U.S. Department of Health and Human Services Administration for Youth and Families. (1994). *A guide to enhancing cultural competence of runaway and homeless youth programs*. Washington, DC.
- Vaughn, S., Klinger, J., & Hughes, M. (2000). Sustainability of research-based practices. *Exceptional Children, 66*(2), 163-171.
- Vaughn, S., Linan-Thompson, & Hickman, P. (2003). Response to instruction as a means of identifying students with reading/learning disabilities. *Exceptional Children, 69*(4), 391-409.
- Vaughn, S., Schumm, J. S., & Arguelles, M. E. (1997). The ABCDEs of co-teaching. *Teaching Exceptional Children, 30*(2), 4-10.
- Villa, R. A. (2008). *Inclusion in center-based child care services*. Florida Inclusion Network. Retrieved July 9, 2009, from <http://parenttoparentofga.org/roadmap/education/educationinclusioneducbenefitsc>
- Villa, R. A., & Thousand, J. S. (1994). One divided by two or more: Redefining the role of a cooperative education team. In J. S. Thousand, R. A. Villa, & A. I. Nevin (Eds.), *Creativity and collaborative learning: A practical guide to empowering students and teachers* (pp. 79-101). Baltimore, MD: Brookes.

- Wagner, M. (1991). *The benefits of secondary vocational education for young people with disabilities*. Findings from the National Longitudinal Transition Study of Special Education Students. National Longitudinal Transition Study Special Education, ERIC Document Service Nos. ED334739, EC300485.
- Wagner, M. (1993). *The transition experiences of young people with disabilities: Implications for policy and programs*. Menlo Park, CA: SRI International.
- Waters, J. T., & Grubb, S. (2004). *The leadership we need: Using research to strengthen the use of standards for administrator preparation and licensure programs*. Colorado, CO: Mid-Continental Research for Education and Learning.
- Waters, J. T., Marzano R. J., & McNulty, B. (2003). *Balanced leadership: What 30 years of research tells us about the effect of leadership on student achievement*. Aurora, CO: McREL.
- Waters, J. T., Marzano, R. J., & McNulty, B. (2004). Leadership that sparks learning. *Educational Leadership*, 61, 48-51. Retrieved July 1, 2009, from Education database.
- Waldron, N. L. (1991). *Evaluation report (1990-91): Integrating students with disabilities in the least restrictive environment*. Bloomington: Department of Counseling and Educational Psychology, Indiana University.
- Waldron, N. L. (1992). *Evaluation report (1991-92): Integrating students with disabilities in the least restrictive environment*. Bloomington: Department of Counseling and Educational Psychology, Indiana University.
- Waldron, N. L. (1994). *Evaluation report: Elementary inclusion programs for students with disabilities (1993-94)*. Bloomington: Department of Counseling and Educational Psychology, Indiana University.

- Walther-Thomas, C. S. (1997). Co-teaching experiences: The benefits and problems that teachers and principals report over time. *Journal for Learning Disabilities, 30*(4), 395-407.
- Walther-Thomas, C. S., Bryant, M., & Land, S. (1996). Planning for effective co-teaching: The key to successful inclusion. *Remedial and Special Education, 17*(4), 255-264. EJ 527 660.
- Walther-Thomas, C. S., Korinek, L., McLaughlin, V. L., & Williams, B. (2000). *Collaboration for inclusive education: Developing successful programs*. Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Wang, M. C., & Baker, E. T. (1986). Mainstreamed programs: Design features and effects. *The Journal of Special Education, 19*, 503-521.
- Wang, M. C., Reynolds, M. C., & Walberg H. J. (1988). Serving students at the margins. *Educational Leadership, 44*(1), 26-31.
- Wang, M. C., Rubenstein, J. L., & Reynolds, M. C. (1985). Clearing the road to success for students with special needs. *Educational Leadership, 43*, 62-67.
- Warger, C. L., & Rutherford, Jr., R. B. (1993). Co-teaching to improve social skills. *Preventing School Failure, 37*(4), 21. Retrieved June 21, 2004, from Academic Search Premier.
- Weiss, K. E., & Rapport, M. J. K. (1996). Moving towards a least restrictive environment: A new direction in courts decisions. *Rural Special Education Quarterly, 15*(2), 3-8.
- Weiss, M. P. (2004). Co-teaching as science in the schoolhouse: More questions than answers. *Journal of Learning Disabilities, 37*(3), 218-223.

- Wesson, C., & Deno, S. L. (1989, January/February). An analysis of long-term instructional plans in reading for elementary resource room students. *Remedial and Special Education, 10*(1), 21-28.
- White, L., Swift, H., & Harmon, D. J. (1992). *Collaborative teaching model in the elementary classroom*. Unpublished data cited in R. A. Hines & J. H. Johnston (1996). Inclusive classrooms: The principal's role in promoting achievement, *Schools in the Middle, 5*(3), 6-10.
- Will, M. (1986). Educating students with learning problems: A shared responsibility. *Exceptional Children, 52*, 411-415.
- Williams, W., Fox, T. J., Thousand, J., & Fox, W. (1990). Level of acceptance and implementation of best practices in the education of students with severe handicaps in Vermont. *Education and Training in Mental Retardation, 25*, 120-131.
- Winton, P. J. (1993). Providing family support in integrated settings: Research and recommendations. In C. A. Peck, S. L. Odom, & D. D. Bricker (Eds.), *Integrating young children with disabilities into community programs: Ecological perspectives on research and implementation* (pp. 65-80). Baltimore, MD: Brookes.
- Wolak, M., York, J., & Corbin, N. (1992). Building new capacities to overcome tradition-bound practices. *The School Administrator* (February, 1992), pp. 26-28.
- Wolery, M., Anthony, L., Snyder, E. D., Werts, M. G., & Katzenmeyer, J. (1997). Effective instructional practices in inclusive classrooms. *Education and Treatment of Children, 20*(1), 50-58.

- Wolfberg, P. J., & Schuler, A.L. (1999). Fostering peer interaction, imaginative play and spontaneous language in children with autism. *Child Language Teaching & Therapy, 15*, 41-52. Retrieved February 16, 2009, from EBSCO host database.
- Wolfensberger, W. (1972). *The principles of naturalization in human services*. Toronto: National Institute on Mental Retardation.
- York, J., Doyle, M. B., & Kronberg, R. (1992, December). A curriculum development process for inclusive classrooms. *Focus on Exceptional Children, 25*(4), 1-16.
- Zigmond, N., & Baker, J. M. (1996). Full inclusion for students with learning disabilities: Too much of a good thing? *Theory Into Practice, 35*(1), 26-34.
- Zigmond, N., Jenkins, J., Fuchs, L., Deno, S., Fuchs, D., Baker, J., Jenkins, L., & Couthino, M. (1995, March). Special education in restructured schools: Findings from three multi-year studies. *Phi Delta Kappan, 76*, 531-540.
- Zigmond, N., & Magiera, K. (2001, Autumn). Co-teaching: For whom is it intended? *Current Practice Alerts, 6*. Division for Learning Disabilities and Division for Research of the Council for Exceptional Children. Retrieved February 18, 2009, from <http://www.teachingld.org/pdf/Alert6.pdf>
- Zirke, P. A. (2002). Decisions that have shaped U.S. education. *Educational Leadership, 59*(4), 2-6.

APPENDIXES

Appendix A

General Education and Special Education Teachers' Questionnaire

General Education and Special Education Teachers' Questionnaire

DO NOT PUT YOUR NAME ON THIS QUESTIONNAIRE.

By completing and turning in this questionnaire you are giving your voluntary consent for the researcher to include your responses in the data analyses. Your participation in this research is strictly voluntary, and you may choose not to participate without fear of penalty or any negative consequences. Individual responses will be treated confidentially. No individually identifiable information will be disclosed or published, and all results will be presented as aggregate, summary data. If you wish, you may request a copy of the results of this research by writing to the researcher at:

Dennis L. Carpenter
dcgomab@yahoo.com

Thank you for your voluntary participation in this research study.

Dennis L. Carpenter, Doctoral Student
Georgia Southern University

Demographic Information:**Are you a general education teacher or special education teacher?**

- a. General Education Teacher
- b. Special Education Teacher

Number of Years in a Co-Teaching Inclusion Program

- a. 1 year
- b. 2 years
- c. 3 years
- d. More than 4 years

With which school district in Georgia's First District RESA service area are you affiliated?

- a. Appling
- b. Bulloch
- c. Bryan
- d. Camden
- e. Candler
- f. Savannah-Chatham
- g. Effingham
- h. Evans
- i. Glynn
- j. Jeff Davis
- k. Liberty
- l. Long
- m. McIntosh

- n. Screven
- o. Tattnall
- p. Toombs
- q. Vidalia City
- r. Wayne

Directions: Please respond to each question using the rating scale below. What responsibilities has the principal assumed in implementing, maintaining, and supporting the inclusion program in your building? **Implementing inclusion** means making certain that inclusion practices and principles are achieved. **Maintaining inclusion** means continuing or keeping inclusion practices and principles in existence without changing it. **Supporting** inclusion means being in favor of the inclusion program for its success.

1=Never 2= Seldom 3 = Don't Know 4 = Often 5 = Always

PART I. IMPLEMENTING INCLUSION

1. The extent to which the principal recognizes and celebrates accomplishments and acknowledges failures. 1 2 3 4 5
2. The extent to which the principal is willing to challenge and actively challenges the status quo. 1 2 3 4 5
3. The extent to which the principal recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments. 1 2 3 4 5
4. The extent to which the principal establishes strong lines of communication with and among teachers and students. 1 2 3 4 5
5. The extent to which the principal fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation. 1 2 3 4 5
6. The extent to which the principal protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching and time or focus. 1 2 3 4 5
7. The extent to which the principal adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent. 1 2 3 4 5
8. The extent to which the principal establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school's attention. 1 2 3 4 5

9. The extent to which the principal communicates and operates from the strong ideals and beliefs about schooling. 1 2 3 4 5
10. The extent to which the principal involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies. 1 2 3 4 5
11. The extent to which the principal ensures faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a general aspect of the schools culture. 1 2 3 4 5
12. The extent to which the principal is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices. 1 2 3 4 5
13. The extent to which the principal is knowledgeable of current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices. 1 2 3 4 5
14. The extent to which the principal monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning. 1 2 3 4 5
15. The extent to which the principal inspires and leads new and challenging innovations. 1 2 3 4 5
16. The extent to which the principal establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines. 1 2 3 4 5
17. The extent to which the principal is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders. 1 2 3 4 5
18. The extent to which the principal demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff. 1 2 3 4 5
19. The extent to which the principal provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs. 1 2 3 4 5
20. The extent to which the principal is aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems. 1 2 3 4 5
21. The extent to which the principal has quality contact and interactions with teachers and students. 1 2 3 4 5

PART II: MAINTAINING INCLUSION

22. The extent to which the principal recognizes and celebrates accomplishments and acknowledges failures. 1 2 3 4 5
23. The extent to which the principal is willing to challenge and actively challenges the status quo. 1 2 3 4 5
24. The extent to which the principal recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments. 1 2 3 4 5
25. The extent to which the principal establishes strong lines of communication with and among teachers and students. 1 2 3 4 5
26. The extent to which the principal fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation. 1 2 3 4 5
27. The extent to which the principal protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching and time or focus. 1 2 3 4 5
28. The extent to which the principal adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent. 1 2 3 4 5
29. The extent to which the principal establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school's attention. 1 2 3 4 5
30. The extent to which the principal communicates and operates from the strong ideals and beliefs about schooling. 1 2 3 4 5
31. The extent to which the principal involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies. 1 2 3 4 5
32. The extent to which the principal ensures faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a general aspect of the schools culture. 1 2 3 4 5
33. The extent to which the principal is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices. 1 2 3 4 5
34. The extent to which the principal is knowledgeable of current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices. 1 2 3 4 5

35. The extent to which the principal monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning. 1 2 3 4 5
36. The extent to which the principal inspires and leads new and challenging innovations. 1 2 3 4 5
37. The extent to which the principal establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines. 1 2 3 4 5
38. The extent to which the principal is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders. 1 2 3 4 5
39. The extent to which the principal demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff. 1 2 3 4 5
40. The extent to which the principal provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs. 1 2 3 4 5
41. The extent to which the principal is aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems. 1 2 3 4 5
42. The extent to which the principal has quality contact and interactions with teachers and students. 1 2 3 4 5

PART III: SUPPORTING INCLUSION

43. The extent to which the principal recognizes and celebrates accomplishments and acknowledges failures. 1 2 3 4 5
44. The extent to which the principal is willing to challenge and actively challenges the status quo. 1 2 3 4 5
45. The extent to which the principal recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments. 1 2 3 4 5
46. The extent to which the principal establishes strong lines of communication with and among teachers and students. 1 2 3 4 5
47. The extent to which the principal fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation. 1 2 3 4 5
48. The extent to which the principal protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from their teaching and time or focus. 1 2 3 4 5

49. The extent to which the principal adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent. 1 2 3 4 5
50. The extent to which the principal establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront of the school's attention. 1 2 3 4 5
51. The extent to which the principal communicates and operates from the strong ideals and beliefs about schooling. 1 2 3 4 5
52. The extent to which the principal involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies. 1 2 3 4 5
53. The extent to which the principal ensures faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a general aspect of the schools culture. 1 2 3 4 5
54. The extent to which the principal is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices. 1 2 3 4 5
55. The extent to which the principal is knowledgeable of current curriculum, instruction, and assessment practices. 1 2 3 4 5
56. The extent to which the principal monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning. 1 2 3 4 5
57. The extent to which the principal inspires and leads new and challenging innovations. 1 2 3 4 5
58. The extent to which the principal establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines. 1 2 3 4 5
59. The extent to which the principal is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders. 1 2 3 4 5
60. The extent to which the principal demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff. 1 2 3 4 5
61. The extent to which the principal provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs. 1 2 3 4 5
62. The extent to which the principal is aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems. 1 2 3 4 5

63. The extent to which the principal has quality contact
and interactions with teachers and students.

1 2 3 4 5

Thank you for your valuable time and participation in this study.

Appendix B

Permission to Conduct Study in Georgia's First District RESA



Dennis L. Carpenter
dcgomab@yahoo.com

District Coordinator
Georgia's First District RESA
Atlanta, Georgia 30003

Dear Sir or Madame:

My name is Dennis L. Carpenter. I am a doctoral student currently working on my dissertation at Georgia Southern University located in Statesboro, Georgia. My dissertation topic is "An Analysis of Leadership Responsibilities as Perceived by General Education and Special Education Teachers Participating in Co-Teaching Inclusion Programs."

I am requesting that Georgia's First District RESA general and special education teachers voluntarily participate in this research study. I am requesting that First District RESA special education coordinators distribute and collect questionnaires from general and special education teachers. The purpose of this study is to utilize the perceptions of general education and special education teachers to determine if there are any specific leadership responsibilities utilized by principals that impact the implementation, maintenance, and support of inclusion programs.

As a special education coordinator, if you participate in this research, you will be asked to distribute and collect questionnaires to general education and special education teachers in your school district. The purpose of the questionnaire is to determine teachers' perceptions of a leader's responsibilities toward implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion in highly functioning inclusion schools located in First District RESA area.

Your participation will take approximately 10 school days (distribution and collection of questionnaires) of your time to complete. Your participation in this research is strictly voluntary. You may refuse to participate at all, or choose to stop your participation at any point in the research, without fear of penalty or negative consequences of any kind. The information and data you provide for this research will be treated confidentially, and all raw data will be kept in a secured file by the researcher. Results of the research will be reported as aggregate summary data only, and no individually identifiable information will be presented. The information that you provide will be kept strictly confidential. Informed consent letters and other materials will be kept separate in locked file cabinets

at the residence of the researcher for a period of three years after which all materials will be completely and safely destroyed. Your identity will be protected to the fullest extent of the law.

The results of this research will be included in my dissertation and/or may be published in subsequent journals or books. The risks to you are considered minimal. Participation is completely voluntary. There is no penalty to you for not choosing to participate in this study. If you choose not to participate, you may withdraw from this study at any time, either during or after your participation, by contacting the researcher, without negative consequences. Should you withdraw from this study, your data will be eliminated from the study and will be destroyed.

There is no compensation to participants for participating in this research. There will be no direct or immediate personal benefits from your participation in this research. The researcher will present findings from this study that can well serve the Georgia Department of Education. Educators serving in this capacity can utilize the findings of this study in their efforts to provide principals and general education teachers with professional development and guidance in the area of positively impacting inclusion programs.

You may request a copy of the summary of the final results by completing the form below. If you have any questions about any part of this research and your involvement, please inform the researcher before signing this form. If you have further questions, you may contact my advisor, who is supervising this study as indicated below.

Please voluntarily consent to participate by signing the form below. I appreciate your support and cooperation. You also have the right to review the results of the research if you wish to do so. A copy of the results may be obtained by contacting the researcher at the address above.

Sincerely,

Dennis L. Carpenter, Doctoral Student
Georgia Southern University

.....
_____ I have read and understand the contents of this request to conduct research in this school system. I hereby grant permission for Dennis L. Carpenter to conduct research in this school system.

_____ I have read and understand the contents of this request to conduct research in this school system. I do not grant permission for Dennis L. Carpenter to conduct research in this school system.

Signature of Special Education Coordinator

Date

Dr. Barbara Mallory
College of Education
P.O. Box 8131
Department of Leadership, Technology, and Human Development
Georgia Southern University
Statesboro, GA 30460-8131
(912) 478-1428
bmallory@georgiasouthern.edu

Dennis L. Carpenter, Doctoral Student
Georgia Southern University

.....
Yes, please send a summary of the study results to:

Name: _____

Address: _____

City, State, Zip: _____

Appendix C

Informed Consent Letter for Teachers



Dennis L. Carpenter
dcgomab@yahoo.com

General and Special Education Teachers
First District RESA

Dear Teachers:

My name is Dennis L. Carpenter. I am a doctoral student currently working on my dissertation at Georgia Southern University located in Statesboro, Georgia. My dissertation topic is "An Analysis of Leadership Responsibilities as Perceived by General Education and Special Education Teachers Participating in Co-Teaching Inclusion Programs."

I am requesting that you voluntarily participate in a research study. The purpose of this study is to utilize the perceptions of general education and special education teachers to determine if there are any specific leadership responsibilities utilized by principals that impact the implementation, maintenance, and support of inclusion programs.

If you participate in this research, you will be asked to participate in a general education and special education teachers' questionnaire. The purpose of the questionnaire is to determine your perceptions of a leader's responsibilities toward implementing, maintaining, and supporting inclusion in schools located in First District RESA area.

Your participation will take approximately 45 minutes of your time to complete. Your participation in this research is strictly voluntary. You may refuse to participate at all, or choose to stop your participation at any point in the research, without fear of penalty or negative consequences of any kind. The information/data you provide for this research will be treated confidentially, and all raw data will be kept in a secured file by the researcher. Results of the research will be reported as aggregate summary data only, and no individually identifiable information will be presented.

The information that you provide will be kept strictly confidential. The informed consent form and other materials will be kept separate in locked file cabinets at the residence of the researcher for a period of three years after which all materials will be completely and safely destroyed. Your identity will be protected to the fullest extent of the law.

The results of this research will be included in my dissertation and/or may be published in subsequent journals or books. The risks to you are considered minimal; there is a small chance that you may experience some emotional discomfort after completion of the

questionnaire. Should you experience such discomfort, you will be able to contact the researcher at the phone number listed above for a list of counselors at your school.

Participation is completely voluntary. There is no penalty to you for not choosing to participate in this study. If you choose not to participate, you may withdraw from this study at any time, either during or after your participation, by contacting the researcher, without negative consequences. Should you withdraw from this study, your data will be eliminated from the study and will be destroyed. There is no compensation to participants for participating in this research. Participants must be 18 years of age or older to participate.

You may request a copy of the summary of the final results by completing the form below. If you have any questions about any part of this research and your involvement, please inform the researcher before signing this form. If you have further questions, you may contact my advisor, who is supervising this study as indicated below.

Please voluntarily consent to participate by signing the form below. I appreciate your support and cooperation. You also have the right to review the results of the research if you wish to do so. A copy of the results may be obtained by contacting the researcher at the address above.

Sincerely,

Dennis L. Carpenter, Doctoral Student
Georgia Southern University

.....
_____ I have read and understand the contents of this request and voluntarily wish to participate in this research.

_____ I have read and understand the contents of this request and do not wish to participate in this research.

Signature of Teacher

Date

Dr. Barbara Mallory
College of Education
P.O. Box 8131
Department of Leadership, Technology, and Human Development
Georgia Southern University
Statesboro, GA 30460-8131
(912) 478-1428
bmallory@georgiasouthern.edu

Dennis L. Carpenter, Doctoral Student
Georgia Southern University

.....
Yes, please send a summary of the study results to:

Name: _____

Address: _____

City, State, Zip: _____

Appendix D

The 21 Responsibilities and Correlations (r) with Student Achievement

Table 73

The 21 Responsibilities and Correlations (r) with Student Achievement

Responsibility	Extent to which principal...	Average <i>r</i>	95% Interval Correlations	Number of Studies	Number of Schools
Affirmation	Recognizes and celebrates accomplishments & acknowledges failures	.19	.08 to .29	6	332
Change Agent	Is willing to challenge and actively challenges the status quo	.25	.16 to .34	6	466
Contingent Rewards	Recognizes and rewards individual accomplishments	.24	.15 to .32	9	465
Communication	Establishes strong lines of communication with and among teachers and students	.23	.12 to .33	11	299
Culture	Fosters shared beliefs and a sense of community and cooperation	.25	.18 to .31	15	819
Discipline	Protects teachers from issues and influences that would detract from teaching time or focus	.27	.18 to .35	12	437

Table 73

The 21 Responsibilities and Correlations (r) with Student Achievement (Continued)

Flexibility	Adapts his or her leadership behavior to the needs of the current situation and is comfortable with dissent	.28	.16 to .39	6	277
Focus	Establishes clear goals and keeps those goals in the forefront	.24	.19 to .29	44	1,619
Ideals/Beliefs	Communicates and operates from strong ideals and beliefs about school	.22	.14 to .30	7	513
Input	Involves teachers in the design and implementation of important decisions and policies	.25	.18 to .32	16	669
Intellectual Stimulation	Ensures faculty and staff are aware of the most current theories and practices and makes the discussion of these a regular aspect of the school's culture	.24	.13 to .34	4	302

Table 73

The 21 Responsibilities and Correlations (r) with Student Achievement (Continued)

Involvement in Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment	Is directly involved in the design and implementation of curriculum, instruction, and assessment	.20	.14 to .27	23	826
Knowledge of Curriculum, Instruction, and Assessment	Is knowledgeable about current curriculum, instruction, and assessment	.25	.15 to .34	10	368
Monitoring and Evaluating	Monitors the effectiveness of school practices and their impact on student learning	.27	.22 to .32	31	1,129
Optimizer	Inspires and leads new and challenging innovations	.20	.13 to .27	17	724
Order	Establishes a set of standard operating procedures and routines	.25	.16 to .33	17	724
Outreach	Is an advocate and spokesperson for the school to all stakeholders	.27	.18 to .35	14	456
Relationships	Demonstrates an awareness of the personal aspects of teachers and staff	.18	.09 to .26	11	505

Table 73

The 21 Responsibilities and Correlations (r) with Student Achievement (Continued)

Resources	Provides teachers with materials and professional development necessary for the successful execution of their jobs	.25	.17 to .32	17	571
Situational Awareness	Is aware of the details and undercurrents in the running of the school and uses this information to address current and potential problems	.33	.11 to .51	5	91
Visibility	Has quality contact and interactions with teachers and students	.20	.11 to .28	13	477