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A Study of Leadership Behaviors of Principals in Schools Which Educate Students with Moderate and Severe Disabilities in Regular Education Classrooms

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A STUDY OF LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS OF PRINCIPALS
IN SCHOOLS WHICH EDUCATE STUDENTS WITH
MODERATE AND SEVERE DISABILITIES IN
REGULAR EDUCATION CLASSROOMS

by

Patreese Ingram

A Dissertation
Submitted to the
Faculty of The Graduate College
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the
Degree of Doctor of Education
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Western Michigan University
Kalamazoo, Michigan
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A STUDY OF LEADERSHIP BEHAVIORS OF PRINCIPALS
IN SCHOOLS WHICH EDUCATE STUDENTS WITH
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REGULAR EDUCATION CLASSROOMS

Patreese Ingram, Ed.D.

Western Michigan University, 1994

The full-time inclusion of disabled students in regular education classrooms on a full-time basis is an emerging practice in schools across the United States and other countries (Stainback & Stainback, 1992). In school systems which have traditionally educated disabled and nondisabled students in separate classrooms, the principal is increasingly recognized as, "... being the one individual above all others who is of critical importance in creating an effective school" (Ubben & Hughes, 1992, p. 19).

Therefore, this study investigated the principal's leadership behavior in schools which educate moderately and severely disabled students in regular education classrooms on a full-time basis. More specifically, the purposes of this study were: (a) to determine whether the leadership behaviors of principals, as perceived by teachers, tend to be more transformational or more transactional; and (b) to determine whether there was a difference in the leadership behaviors of principals and the extent to which principals motivate teachers to exert effort beyond the ordinary.

The subjects were 44 teachers from 5 school districts which participated in

the Michigan Inclusive Education Project. The independent variable was leadership behaviors of the principal, defined as varying degrees of transformational and transactional leadership. The dependent variable was defined as principals' ability to impact teacher motivation. Data were collected via teacher responses to the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), developed by Bernard Bass.

Three hypotheses were generated and tested based on the purposes of the study. The results of the study indicate that principals were perceived by teachers to exhibit more transformational leadership behaviors than they exhibited transactional leadership behaviors. Also, teachers tended to be more highly motivated under the leadership of principals who they perceived to be more transformational than transactional. Of the behaviors associated with transformational and transactional leadership, behaviors which were charismatic and intellectually stimulating appeared to be strong predictors of teacher motivation. The exploratory nature of this study raised questions which were recommended for further study.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Purposes of Study

The purposes of this study were two-fold. They were: (1) to determine the leadership behaviors of principals in schools which educated students with moderate and severe disabilities in regular education classrooms; and (2) to determine whether there was a difference in the leadership behaviors of principals in these schools and the extent to which principals motivated teachers toward achievement of expected goals.

More specifically, this study attempted to address the following research questions: (1) What leadership behaviors (i.e., transactional vs. transformational) were most often demonstrated by principals in schools which educated students with moderate and severe disabilities in regular education classrooms? and (2) were principals who are perceived by teachers to exhibit transformational leadership behavior more likely to motivate teachers to exert effort beyond their original expectations than principals who are perceived by teachers to exhibit transactional leadership?

Statement of the Problem

The existence of a dual education system, one for regular education students and one for special education students, is being challenged by advocates of students with disabilities (Gartner & Lipsky, 1987; Villa & Thousand, 1992). Full time inclusion of students with moderate and severe disabilities in regular education classrooms is growing. Special education students in segregated categorical classrooms and separate facilities are being returned to their neighborhood schools and age-appropriate regular education classrooms with their nondisabled peers.

The efforts to rejoin disabled students with non-disabled students in the same classrooms raise several important and sensitive issues. Aside from the issues of acceptance by peers and their parents, adaptability of the curriculum and instructional methodologies, and teacher attitudes, both positive and negative, the role of the principal in inclusion efforts warrants particular consideration. The leadership behavior of the principal is seen to play a pivotal role in promoting effective acceptance and implementation of school-wide change (Kersten & Sloan, 1985; Hall & Hord, 1987). To this end, the fundamental question addressed in this study was: in schools which include moderately and severely disabled students, are principals more likely to demonstrate transformational leadership behaviors to a greater degree than they demonstrate transactional leadership behaviors.

Effective inclusion of students with moderate and severe disabilities in regular classrooms "is likely to be a very challenging undertaking" (Stainback & Stainback, 1992), and therefore may require, among other things, extraordinary efforts on the part of regular education teachers. In support of this likely need of teacher extra effort, principals as leaders, play an influential role in motivating teachers to succeed in the inclusion of disabled students in regular classrooms. Therefore, this study succeeded in investigating selected leadership behaviors of principals in schools which educate moderate and severely disabled students in regular education classrooms.

Background of the Problem

Since the mid-1980's there has been a slow but growing move to include students with moderate and severe disabilities as full-time members of regular education classrooms. Regular education teachers, however, are generally less than enthusiastic about this change (Rumble, 1980). The level of motivation which may be required to effectively meet the challenges presented by these students may be lacking in many teachers. If disabled students are to be provided an equal opportunity for an effective education, motivation to work with disabled students must be altered. The principal's leadership impacts teacher motivation and student learning (Wood, Nicholson, Findley, 1985).

Historically, students with disabilities were not a part of the education system. During the early and mid-1900's many students with disabilities were

relegated to segregated classrooms or excluded from public schools altogether (Clune & Van Pelt, 1985). Students with severe disabilities were often thought to be ineducable.

In the early 1960's, parent groups and advocates of disabled persons began to rally for the educational rights of disabled children. Practices which excluded students from the educational system altogether were challenged in the courts. It was argued successfully that disabled students could benefit from education in the public schools (Neal & Kirp, 1985).

During the later 1960's and early 1970's, the federal government passed a series of laws to protect the rights of disabled persons (Larson, 1985; Wegner, 1988). Finally, in 1975, Public Law 94.142 brought disabled children into the public school system by providing for them a free and appropriate public education, in the least restrictive environment.

Yet, when the United States Department of Education's Office of Special Education Programs monitored 165 districts, between 1989 and 1992, it found that 143 districts failed to place disabled students in the "least restrictive environment" with their nondisabled peers (Hoff, 1993).

Not only is participation of disabled students with their nondisabled peers in selected classes, programs or activities being advocated, but increasingly, full inclusion of students with disabilities into regular education classrooms and regular programs/activities is being sought. Stainback and Stainback (1992) recall:

Only a few short years ago, it was considered "unrealistic" by most people

even to discuss the possibility of educating all students, including those classified as having severe and profound disabilities, in general education classes. However, this is changing. The reason is that it is now being done successfully in a small but growing number of schools in Canada, Italy, Australia, the United States, and other countries (p. 34).

Many advocates of disabled children believe that participation in the regular classroom on a full-time basis is not only the least restrictive environment for students with disabilities, but is the fair, ethical and right thing to do (Stainback & Stainback, 1992).

Full time participation in the regular classroom, whenever possible, was the intent of Congress when it passed P.L. 94.142, the Education of All Handicapped Children Act (Gartner & Lipsky, 1987). Students with disabilities are defined by P.L. 94.142 to include those who are mentally retarded, hard of hearing, visually impaired, seriously emotionally impaired, or otherwise health impaired (20 U.S.C.S. 1410(a) (1)).

Inclusion of moderate and severely disabled students, a slow, but growing phenomenon (Forest, 1986), represents a major change for most school communities. Studies have shown that the successful implementation of innovation and change in schools is related to leadership behavior of the principal (Bowers, 1990). It is logical, then, to assume that the leadership behavior of the principal may influence the way in which inclusion is accepted and implemented by teachers.

Teacher attitudes toward the acceptance of students with disabilities in the regular classroom also impacts implementation of inclusion programs (Kunzweiler,

1982). Teacher attitudes may enhance or adversely affect students' achievement and behavior (Foster, Ysseldyke & Reese, 1975). Studies conducted by Boucher (1981) and Rizzo (1984) have generally found that the overall attitude of general education teachers tends to be negative toward the inclusion of handicapped students. Knoff (1984) found that general education teachers preferred special education classes, rather than general education placement, even for students with mild disabilities.

Attitude affects motivation. Therefore, teachers who hold less than positive attitudes toward inclusion may have less than optimum motivation to work with included students. Teacher-perceived incompetence to adequately instruct disabled students, and the necessity to alter instruction and modify instructional methods (Salvia & Munson, 1986; Semmel, Abernathy, Butera & Lesar, 1991), among others, contributes to a less than positive attitude, and thus affects motivation to work with disabled students.

Adams (cited in Thompson, 1979) identifies another source of frustration which likely impacts teacher motivation. He refers to "the ideal of the good shepherd ethic," the ideal of providing the best education for all students (p. 18). Adams believes this ideal "asks for an almost endless investment of time and energy" and places the burden of failure on the teachers rather than the students. Adams concludes that teachers cannot possibly do enough to meet the needs of every child, and their failure to meet the ideal can create a "constant sense of inadequacy" (p. 18). This phenomenon is at least as applicable, if not more so,

to regular education teachers in inclusion programs, as to teachers without disabled students.

Sergiovanni (1991) states that "high teacher motivation to work and strong commitment to work are essential requirements for effective schooling." When these characteristics are absent, teachers are likely to consider their commitment as being a "fair day's work for a fair day's pay...instead of exceeding minimums and giving their best" (p. 235). The leadership behavior of the principal influences teacher motivation toward goal expectation (Bass, 1985).

Burns (1978) describes a new theory of leadership, transformational leadership. Transformational leadership is contrasted with transactional leadership. Bass (1985) defines transactional leadership as an exchange of rewards with subordinates for services rendered. Transactional leadership seeks to motivate followers through extrinsic rewards. Gary Yukl (1989a) defines transformational leadership as "the process of influencing major changes in the attitudes and assumptions of organizational members and building commitment for the organization's mission, objectives and strategies" (p. 24).

Transformational leadership has been shown to have a greater impact on change in attitude of subordinates than does transactional leadership. Leithwood et al. (cited in Leithwood, 1992) found relationships between aspects of transformational leadership and teachers' own reports of changes in both attitudes toward school improvement and altered instructional behavior. Blase (1990) studied the effects of transactional forms of leadership on teacher change. He found little or

no relationship between the two.

While suggesting a need to add moral authority to bureaucratic systems, Sergiovanni (1991) implies that a set of shared values and beliefs that spell out who teachers are, what they want to accomplish and how, will increase teacher motivation and commitment to effective teaching and learning. Transformational leaders, according to Burns (1978) raise followers' consciousness levels about the importance and value of shared goals and how to achieve them. Transformational leaders motivate followers to transcend their own self-interests for the vision of the organization. Transformational leaders motivate by tapping higher order needs of followers. Bass and Avolio (1990) suggest that transformational leaders inspire followers with a vision of what can be accomplished through extra personal effort, thus motivating followers to achieve more than they thought they would achieve.

Inclusion is an emerging educational practice. As such, this study is exploratory in nature. At some time in the future, inclusion may become an influence variable in and of itself in relationship to the principal's leadership behavior. At that time, a study to investigate the relationship between inclusion and principals' leadership behavior may be worthy of consideration. In this study, however, inclusion is a latent variable.

The role the principal can play in enhancing teacher motivation is key to the effectiveness of inclusion programs for students with moderate and severe disabilities. Therefore, it was the interest of this study to explore the leadership

behavior of principals in schools which educated moderate and severely disabled students in regular education classrooms on a full-time basis, and to determine the impact of leadership behavior on teacher motivation to exert effort beyond expectation toward achievement of expected goals.

Hypotheses

Statement of the Hypotheses

This study addressed the following hypotheses:

1. Within schools which educate students with moderate and severe disabilities in regular education classrooms, teachers will perceive their principals to exhibit a greater degree of transformational than transactional leadership behavior.
2. Within schools which educate students with moderate and severe disabilities in regular education classrooms, teachers who perceive the principal to be more transformational than transactional are more likely to be motivated to exert effort beyond their original expectations than are teachers who perceive the principal to be more transactional than transformational.
3. Within schools which educate students with moderate and severe disabilities in regular education classrooms, teachers will perceive a relationship between certain leadership behaviors of the principal (e.g., charisma, intellectual stimulation, inspiration, individual consideration, contingent reward, and

management-by-exception) and the principal's ability to motivate teachers to exert extra effort.

Rationale for Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1

There has been a paucity of research conducted on transformational leadership in school settings (Leithwood, 1992). The research literature related to educating students with disabilities in regular education classrooms has placed limited focus on the leadership behavior of the building principal.

The literature does, however, suggest a number of leadership behaviors which have been linked to successful implementation of inclusion efforts. These include, among others, articulation of a vision and consensus-building among staff (Villa & Thousand, 1990); encouragement and support for group problem-solving and collaborative relationships among staff (Pugach & Johnson, 1990; Vandercook & York, 1990); the facilitation of staff development (Stainback & Stainback, 1990); and the provision of support and consultation to teachers (Berres & Knoblock, 1987). These behaviors are consistent with transformational leadership.

Hypothesis 2

Vernadine and Ogletree (1986), in a review of more than two decades of

leadership research, conclude that the "style" of the leader can have marked effects upon group performance. More specifically, Yammarino & Bass (1990) found in a study of United States Navy Officers that transformational leadership was related more strongly to subordinates' extra effort than was transactional leadership. Similarly, in a study of 23 educational administrators, Bass (1985), found that subordinate extra effort was more highly associated with transformational than transactional leadership factors.

Gasper (1993) conducted a meta-analysis of the literature regarding the research on transformational leadership. His results indicate that subordinates are more willing to put forth extra effort for transformational leaders (average r index = .71) than for transactional leaders (average r index = .31) (p. 112).

Hypotheses 3

In a number of studies conducted by Bass (1990) on a variety of business and military organizations, the outcome variable, extra effort, was correlated with each of the leadership factors of charisma, intellectual stimulation, individual consideration, contingent reward, and management-by-exception. The resulting correlation coefficients were different for each leadership factor, suggesting that each type of leadership behavior had a somewhat different relationship with subordinate extra effort. Among the six leadership factors, the relationship between subordinate extra effort and charismatic leadership behavior was strongest.

Variables of the Study

Independent Variable

The independent variable in this study was leadership behavior of the principal. In this regard, the principal's leadership behavior is characterized as being varying degrees of transformational and transactional leadership. These leadership behaviors were measured by the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire - Form 5R (MLQ).

Dependent Variable

The dependent variable in this study was principal's ability to motivate teachers. This is described as being teacher's perception of the extent to which principals motivate teachers to exert effort to perform beyond teacher's original expectations. This variable was measured by the MLQ.

Moderator Variables

The moderator variables in this study are: (a) the four factors of transformational leadership, described by Bass (1985) as charisma, intellectual stimulation, individual consideration, and inspirational leadership; and (b) the two factors of transactional leadership, described as contingent reward and management-by-exception.

Significance of the Study

The results of this study are expected to contribute to the literature in several important ways. Firstly, the results of this study provided information about the inclusion of students with moderate and severe disabilities in regular education classrooms. Previous studies have been concerned with teacher attitudes, instructional techniques, parental concerns, student-peer relationships, and the integration of mildly handicapped students. These studies have failed to investigate both the inclusion of students with more severe disabilities (Stainback & Stainback, 1985), and to provide more than scant focus on the role and leadership behavior of principals in inclusion programs.

Secondly, this study provided an opportunity to measure transactional and transformational leadership in an educational setting. The research in this area has been sparse. Leithwood (1992) speaks to this gap in the literature in the following manner, "Researchers are only just beginning to make systematic attempts to explore the meaning and utility of such (transformational) leadership in schools, and very little empirical evidence is available about its nature and consequences in such contexts" (p. 9).

Thirdly, this study is expected to add to the literature which addresses the impact of principal's leadership behavior on teacher motivation. If certain behaviors exhibited by the principal can be linked to increased teacher motivation, such knowledge may be used to enhance teacher effort and performance in inclusive

educational settings. The main benefactors of this research would be students. Students would benefit from increased effort directed toward the educational process.

Fourthly, the results of this study are expected to provide information which suggest changes that may be needed in our administrative training institutions. In this regard, research findings may shed light on the need for delineating the role of teachers and administrators in educational institutions.

Limitations of the Study

The subjects were comprised of teachers in selected public K-12 schools in the state of Michigan, which participated in the Michigan Inclusive Education Project for three years. The Michigan Inclusive Education Project is a cooperative project between Special Education Services, Michigan Department of Education and the Developmental Disabilities Institute, Wayne State University (LeRoy & McDonald, 1991). Therefore, this study was limited to those schools who consented to participate in the study. This study was further limited to the respondents who completed and returned survey instruments.

Assumptions

It is assumed that perceptions of teachers are an accurate measure of both the principal's leadership and presumed outcomes of that leadership. It is further assumed that participant responses to survey items are an accurate representation

of their "true" feeling.

Definition of Relevant Terms

Students With Moderate and Severe Disabilities -- students who experience physical, emotional, and/or mental problems which require modifications in the educational program beyond those modifications which may be required for mildly disabled students. These students have, traditionally, been educated in separate special education classrooms and/or in separate facilities for students with disabilities.

Leadership -- leaders inducing followers to act for certain goals that represent the values and the motivations--the wants and needs, the aspirations and expectations--of both leaders and followers (Burns, 1978, p. 19).

Transformational Leadership -- when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality (Burns, 1978, p. 20).

Transactional Leadership -- an exchange of rewards with followers for services rendered (Bass, 1990).

Six leadership factors measured by the MLQ are defined by Bass and Avolio (1990, 1991) as the following types of interactions between leaders and followers:

Factor 1: Charisma -- Leaders who are trusted and seen as having an attainable mission and vision. Followers identify with and emulate these leaders.

Such leaders are thoroughly respected, have much referent power, hold high standards, and set challenging goals for their followers (1990, p. 19).

Factor 2: Inspirational -- Gives pep talks, increases optimism and enthusiasm, and communicates his or her vision with fluency and confidence (1991, p. 1). Provides symbols and simplified emotional appeals to increase awareness and understanding of mutually desired goals (1990, p. 19).

Factor 3: Intellectual Stimulation -- Actively encourages a new look at old methods, fosters creativity, and stresses the use of intelligence. Provokes rethinking and reexamination of assumptions and contexts on which previous assessments of possibilities, capabilities, strategies, and goals were based (1991, p. 1). Followers are supported for thinking on their own, addressing challenges, and considering creative ways to develop themselves (1990, p. 19).

Factor 4: Individualized Consideration -- Gives personal attention to all members, making each individual feel valued and each individual's contribution important. Coaches, advises, and provides feedback in ways easiest for each group member to accept understand, and to use for personal development (1991, p. 1). Assignments are delegated to followers to provide learning opportunities (1990, p. 19).

Factor 5: Contingent Reward -- Contracts exchange of rewards for effort and agreed upon levels of performance. Gives individuals a clear understanding of what is expected of them (1991, p. 1). Followers needs are identified, then linked both to what the leader expects to accomplish and to rewards if objectives

are met (1990, p. 20).

Factor 6: Management-by-Exception -- Allows the status quo to exist without being addressed. Only when things go wrong will the leader intervene to make some correction. Generally, the modes of reinforcement are correction, criticism, negative feedback, and negative contingent reinforcement, rather than the positive reinforcement used with contingent reward leadership. Punishment is also used in conjunction with Management-by-Exception (1990, p. 20).

Motivation -- the condition of being influenced by something (as a need or desire) that causes a person to act.

Extra Effort -- Leadership outcome measured by the MLQ which reflects the extent to which co-workers or followers exert effort beyond the ordinary as a consequence of the leadership (1990, p. 20). Individuals have a heightened motivation to succeed. They attempt to surpass their own and group's performance expectations (1991, p. 2). Reflects how highly a leader motivates subordinates beyond original expectations (Bass, 1985, p. 213).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

A variety of forces have led to a dramatic change in the way parents and educators have come to think about educating moderately and severely disabled children. There is a growing move in this and other countries to eliminate the dual systems by which students are being educated today (Villa & Thousand, 1992). The goal is to merge general education and special education, providing a setting in which the educational needs of all students are met.

Leadership exhibited by the principal is key to the effectiveness of school programs. Do certain kinds of leadership behaviors tend to be associated with schools that invite all students to participate in the mainstream? And what impact do leadership behaviors have on teacher motivation in such settings?

In this chapter, a review of related literature is provided. The chapter is divided into three major sections: (1) inclusive education, (2) leadership, and (3) motivation.

Inclusive Education

The term inclusive education has come to be associated with the

inclusion of students with disabilities in the regular education program (Biklen, 1992; Stainback & Stainback, 1990). A definition for inclusive education tends to vary among authors and practitioners. Central to most definitions, however, is that disabled students are educated with their non-disabled peers.

In 1992, the Michigan Board of Education defined inclusive education as follows:

The provision of educational services to students with disabilities, in schools where non-handicapped peers attend, in age-appropriate general education classes under the direct supervision of general education teachers with special education support and assistance as determined appropriate through the individualized education planning committee (IEPC) (Michigan Department of Education, 1992, p. 1).

Among many practitioners in the state of Michigan, however, the term has come to be associated with the removal of moderately and severely disabled students from full-time placements in separate special education programs and facilities, and the placement of these students into regular education classrooms (Dr.A. Hannaford, personal communication, 1992). Supporters of inclusive education contend that, when appropriate, students with disabilities should be returned to the neighborhood school they would attend if they did not have a disability label. (T. Osbeck, personal communication, 1992). The "when appropriate" clause sanctions the availability of more restrictive options for students when the necessary supports are not provided in the regular education setting.

An array of factors have been considered by practitioners when defining inclusive education. These include: (a) whether the regular education teacher or the special education teacher has the major role in the IEP process; (b) whether

the student is the responsibility of the regular education or special education teacher; (c) whether or not a special education teacher or aide serves in the classroom; and (d) whether or not special education and regular education programs and staff fall under a single or dual administrative structure (Biklen, 1985).

Full inclusionists, however, consider the least restrictive environment, to be the regular classroom, and as such, the only appropriate placement option. Stainback and Stainback (1990), special education researchers and professors of education, define inclusive schooling in a more specific manner. In their view, inclusive schooling focuses not only on the student with disabilities, but on the needs of all students equally.

An inclusive school is one that educates all students in the mainstream... every student is in regular education and regular classes. It also means providing all students within the mainstream appropriate educational programs that are challenging yet geared to their capabilities and needs as well as any support and assistance they and/or their teachers may need to be successful in the mainstream. But an inclusive school goes beyond this. An inclusive school is a place where everyone belongs, is accepted, supports and is supported by his or her peers and other members of the school community in the course of having his or her educational needs met (p. 3).

They further distinguish inclusive schooling from the concepts of integration and mainstreaming.

Inclusive schooling is related to, but different from, the movement to integrate or mainstream students with disabilities. Inclusive schools do not focus on how to assist any particular category of students, such as those classified as disabled, fit into the mainstream. Instead, the focus is on how to operate supportive classrooms and schools that include and meet the needs of everyone (p. 4).

The concept of inclusive schooling, as presented by Stainback and

Stainback, is a challenging goal toward which the educational community may strive. Although movement is occurring in the direction of inclusive schooling, the current state of programming appears to fall short of reflecting Stainback and Stainback's conception of inclusive schools.

Equal Educational Opportunity

The right to an equal educational opportunity is rooted in the Equal Protection Clause of the 14th Amendment to the United States Constitution. This clause states, "...nor shall any state...deny to any person within it's jurisdiction the equal protection of the law" (Valente, 1980, p. 305). Anti-discrimination law, at both federal and state levels, goes beyond this constitutional protection.

The 1954 landmark decision in *Brown vs Board of Education of Topeka, Kansas*, specifically declared that in public education, separate is not equal. It recognized the right of all children to an equal opportunity in education.

An historical review of the education of students with disabilities has similarities to the education of racial minorities. During the early and middle decades of this century, many students with disabilities were relegated to segregated classrooms or excluded from public schools all together. Estimates of the number of children denied educational services in the 1970's ranged from one to two million children (Clune & Van Pelt, 1985).

In the early 1960's, parent groups and other reformers began advocating for the educational rights of disabled children. The National Association for

Retarded Children substantially contributed to the effort by conducting research which established that all children could benefit from education.

In the late 1960's, drawing from the context of the Civil Rights movement, efforts to gain rights for disabled children moved to the court system (Gartner & Lipsky, 1987; Neal & Kirp, 1985). In *Pennsylvania Association for Retarded Children vs. Commonwealth (PARC)*, experts in the field of special education attacked the inhumane treatment of patients in the Pennhurst State School and Hospital. They made a convincing argument for the legal right to educate disabled children (Neal & Kirp, 1985).

Between 1966 and 1974 a series of federal laws, which focused on the rights of disabled persons, and children in particular, was passed. These laws included: (a) Title VI of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, to assist in the education of disabled children; (b) Education of the Handicapped Act in 1970, authorizing state grants for educational programs for handicapped children; and (c) Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973, prohibiting exclusion, denial of benefits, and discrimination of handicapped persons in federally funded programs (Larson, 1985; Wegner, 1988). Finally in 1975, Congress enacted Public Law 94.142, the Education of All Handicapped Children Act.

Public Law 94.142 was enacted to ensure that children with disabilities receive a free appropriate public education (20 U. S. C. S. 1499 et seq. Law Co-op, 1989). Specifically, this act provides for (a) the identification, location, and evaluation of all disabled children in all public and private institutions; (b)

the evaluation of the disabling condition; (c) an individualized education program which is implemented in the least restrictive environment for that child; and (d) additional funds to provide these services (Clune & Van Pelt, 1985).

The intent of Congress, according to Clune and Van Pelt (1985), was to assure that appropriate services were provided by requiring the opportunity for parental involvement, and the right of parents to due process if schools were uncooperative. These authors suggest that Congress, by including this provision, assumed "that educators would not on their own maximize the educational potential of each child," and that this law would "put handicapped children on an educational par with nonhandicapped students..." (p. 13). Larson (1985) also suggests that equal educational opportunity was the compelling rationale for PL 94.142, as supported by a comment by Senator Stafford, "We can all agree that (the education of handicapped children) should be equivalent, at least, to the one those children who are not handicapped receive" (p. 69).

More recently, former President Bush has advocated for the equal education of students with disabilities as a part of the America 2000 initiative. In the opening pages of *America 2000: An Education Strategy Sourcebook* (n.d.), President Bush states, "... and we must accept responsibility for educating everyone among us, regardless of background or disability" (p. 2).

Further, at the federal level, the Office of Special Education has identified inclusion as one of four initiatives to guide program activities and priorities. More specifically, four key program features and practices have been identified

by the Office of Special Education Programs to promote inclusion for students with disabilities in America 2000 schools (OSERS News Update, cited in Smith, Hunter & Schrag, 1991). Program Feature No. 1 states:

All students, including those with disabilities, are a valued part of the school community and contribute unique talents and perspectives to the school. All students must be ensured equal opportunities to access activities, materials, equipment and classrooms throughout the entire school building (p. 4).

Evaluation of the Implementation of PL 94.142

Congress clearly preferred disabled children to be educated with nondisabled children in regular classrooms (Clune & Van Pelt, 1985; Gartner & Lipsky, 1987; Sido & King, 1989). Thousand, Villa, Paolucci-Whitcomb, and Nevin (1992) suggest that embedded in PL 94.142 is the "notion that students with special education needs have a civil right to an education with peers who do not have special education needs" (p. 223).

Has the implementation of the Education of All Handicapped Children Act met the intent of Congress? A number of successes have occurred (Clune & Van Pelt, 1985; Gartner & Lipsky, 1987). In addition to increased funding and the standardization of individual education planning procedures, the law has brought formerly unserved students into the education system and has established their right to an education. In 1980 the Office of Civil Rights of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare estimated the number of unserved students dropped from 453,000 in 1976, to 22,600 (Clune & Van Pelt, 1985).

However, a number of areas are not congruent with Congressional intent of PL 94.142 (Clune & Van Pelt, 1985; Gartner & Lipsky, 1987). There is evidence of variation in special education placements which are dependent upon resources, geographic location, and ethnic background. A disproportionate number of minority and limited-English proficient children are classified as special education students. This is particularly true when the minority students' socio-economic status is lower than the norm of the community in which they are educated (Gartner & Lipsky, 1987).

Further, the benefits of separate special education programs have been questioned. Weiner (1985) reviewed fifty studies comparing the academic performance of students with disabilities who were educated in the regular classroom, with the performance of students with disabilities who were educated in separate programs. He found "the mean academic performance of the integrated group was in the 80th percentile, while the segregated students scored in the 50th percentile" (p. 42). Semmel, Gottlieb, and Robinson (1979) reviewed the performance of students receiving special education services and concluded that,

There is an absence of a conclusive body of evidence which confirms that special education services appreciably enhance the academic and/or social accomplishments of handicapped children beyond what can be expected without special education (p. 267).

Based on a review of the literature on ability grouping and tracking, Gamoran (1992) concludes that grouping and tracking do not increase overall achievement in schools, but typically leads to inequitable outcomes for students.

Gartner and Lipsky (1987) contend that the current special education practices of educating students with disabilities in separate programs "have produced a system that is both segregated and second class" (p. 368).

Benefits of the Inclusion of Students With Disabilities in Regular Education Classrooms

Both students with and without disabilities may benefit when students with disabilities are included in regular education classes. First, students with disabilities learn more in regular classes than in segregated settings when provided appropriate programs and support (Brinker & Thorpe, 1983, 1984; Madden & Slavin, 1983). Second, students without disabilities have an opportunity to learn about human differences (Stainback & Stainback, 1988), and are better prepared for integrated community living (Michigan Department of Education, 1992).

When integrated with non-disabled peers, students with disabilities clearly benefit in areas of social skills and competence. Brinker (1985) compared social interactions between severely retarded students and nonretarded students in both integrated and nonintegrated settings. Data were collected by formalized observation procedures for a sample of 245 severely mentally retarded students in 14 school districts across nine states.

Results revealed that integrated groups promoted more social behavior than did segregated groups. Additionally, interaction between retarded students and non-retarded students was greater than was interaction among retarded

students. York (1991) reported similar findings for moderately to profoundly mentally retarded students.

Not only does inclusion tend to increase social skills, but inclusion also helps handicapped children to avoid the negative effect of segregation (Stainback & Stainback, 1992). Negative effects of segregation include lack of confidence, and lower expectations for achievement. Stainback and Stainback quote Chief Justice Earl Warren in *Brown vs. The Board of Education* (1954):

(Separateness in education can) generate a feeling of inferiority as to (children's) status in the community that may affect their hearts and minds in a way unlikely ever to be undone. This sense of inferiority...affects the motivation of a child to learn ... (and) has a tendency to retard...educational and mental development (p. 30).

Research and the experience of educational authorities suggest that regular education students also gain specific benefits when students with disabilities are a part of the class. Regular education students learn how to approach and interact with members of society who have severe disabilities, reducing their fears and increasing more positive attitudes toward severely disabled persons (McHale & Semeonsson, 1980; Stainback & Stainback, 1985; Voeltz, 1980).

Peck, Carlson, and Helmstetter (1992) studied the specific outcomes reported by parents and teachers of typically developing children who were enrolled in preschool and kindergarten programs which integrate students with disabilities. Disabilities ranged from mild to severe. An analysis of initial semi-structured interviews was used to develop a five point Likert scale survey instrument administered to parents and teachers. The survey focused on specific issues

raised by parents and teachers involved in integrated programs. Results indicate that both parents and teachers strongly agreed that: (a) the experiences of the typically developing children were overall positive; and (b) typically developing children were more aware of, more comfortable with, and more accepting of human differences.

Non-supporters of inclusive education fear the academic achievement of regular education students will suffer. A number of studies have investigated the problem.

LeRoy (1990) studied the effects of including ten students with severe disabilities into general education classrooms. These students had previously been educated in center based programs. Academic performance of the general education students in the integrated classrooms was measured by standardized test scores of the Gates-McGenite and California Achievement Tests. Test scores of students in integrated classrooms were compared using *t*-tests to scores of those students in same grade non-integrated classrooms. Findings revealed no significant differences in achievement between integrated classrooms and non-integrated classrooms. Similar results were revealed in a study of rural Minnesota students (Vandercook et al., 1991).

In summary, including students with disabilities in the regular classroom has a number of social and self-esteem benefits for students with disabilities. Additionally, inclusion helps students without disabilities to become more accepting of handicapped peers and persons. Non-handicapped students do not tend

to suffer academically when enrolled in integrated classrooms; students with disabilities tend to make academic gains in such settings.

Teacher Attitudes Toward Inclusive Education

Placement of students with disabilities into regular classrooms does not necessarily mean students will be integrated into class activities, or receive the most effective education (Salisbury & Smith, 1991). An influential factor is the attitude of the regular classroom teacher.

Lamb-Zodrow (1987) suggests that teachers may experience a number of negative feelings when faced with inclusion. Teachers may feel: (a) resentful for having to bear extra responsibility, (b) pressured by additional demands on already strained workloads, and (c) incompetent due to lack of training and preparation for the task. Further, teachers may perceive integration efforts as stressful and upsetting to their normal routines, all of which result in "anxious and resistant behaviors" (p. 61).

The works of Phillips (1990) and Rumble (1980) support the notion that general education teachers may be reluctant to teach disabled students in regular education classrooms. Phillips surveyed Illinois general educators and found them generally unwilling to teach students with severe/profound mental, severe emotional, and visual disabilities. Rumble found that regular education teachers expressed the following concerns relative to inclusion: increased paper work, inability to individualize, too many students, too many other responsibilities, and

personal liability.

Experience with disabled students may, however, alter attitudes toward the inclusion of these students in regular classrooms. The attitudes of regular education teachers at the beginning of an inclusion program have been compared with attitudes of the same teachers after experiencing a school year with disabled students in their classrooms. LeRoy (1990) studied the effect of including ten students with severe disabilities from center-based programs, into the general education classroom. Data on teacher attitudes were collected by administration of structured scales and open ended questionnaires, following a year of integration.

Findings suggested that teachers "did not believe the general education teacher should have to deal with children with severe handicaps" (p. 3). Teachers, however, had more positive attitudes regarding several other aspects of inclusion: (a) perceptions of educational and social benefits increased; (b) perceived need for extensive training to work with severely handicapped children decreased; (c) beliefs that children with disabilities can benefit from general education remained strong; and (d) the belief that nondisabled students are adversely affected, was decreased. LeRoy concluded that although teachers felt more competent and acknowledged important benefits after a year of integration, they also "appear to be reluctant to assume increased responsibility for the education of students with disabilities" (p. 13).

On a broader scale, LeRoy and McDonald (1991) conducted an evaluation study of the first year of an inclusion project with six school districts in Michigan.

Within the six districts, 248 special education students with various disability labels were placed in general education classrooms on a full time basis with supports. These students had previously been educated in segregated special education classrooms. Teacher attitudes, student attitudes, student performance, and parental satisfaction were measured. Instruments included: surveys, questionnaires, and performance evaluations.

Findings revealed that teachers held fairly positive attitudes regarding the desirability of inclusion, and the benefits to both special education and general education students. However, slightly less than half (48%) believed the general education teacher should be responsible for educating students with disabilities. Also, teachers reported that they made no changes to their classroom structures or instructional strategies specifically to meet the needs of disabled students. "Teachers feel that the student who is included in the regular classroom must fit into that classroom's existing structure" (LeRoy & McDonald, 1991, p. 8).

In an Eastern Michigan University evaluation study of the Chelsea School District Inclusion Program (Green, 1990), staff journals and interviews with teachers were analyzed. These data revealed some positive results. School staff felt the program resulted in more comradeship among staff, more commitment to community, and the development of additional skills for dealing with diversity.

Inclusion appears to require changes in behaviors of teachers, staff, students, and parents. Changes in behavior may necessitate changes in attitudes. There appears to be a need for changes in teacher attitudes toward the inclusion

of students with disabilities in the regular education classroom (Salvia & Munson, 1986). Maslowe's Hierarchy of Needs suggests that self-actualized teachers are more accepting of change than teachers who are operating at lower levels of need. Therefore, the principal who creates an atmosphere which allows teachers to self-actualize may have greater success in affecting changes in teachers' attitudes.

Summary

The attitudes of teachers are one factor which may impact the successful inclusion of students with disabilities in the regular education classroom. Research tends to indicate that although teachers acknowledge the benefits of inclusion for special education students, general education students, and staff, many teachers do not feel that the education of students with disabilities is the responsibility of the general education teacher. It appears that experience with inclusion programs does tend to increase teacher attitudes toward inclusive education, in a positive direction.

Leadership

Definition of Leadership

Thousands of books and articles have been written on the subject of leadership, yet according to James MacGregor Burns (1978), "leadership is one of the most observed and least understood phenomena on earth" (p. 2). In a similar

vein, Stogdill comments:

Four decades of research on leadership have produced a bewildering mass of ... It is difficult to know what, if anything, has been convincingly demonstrated by replicated research. The endless accumulation of empirical data has not produced an integrated understanding of leadership (Bass, 1981, p. xvii).

Most definitions of leadership have two aspects in common: (1) leadership is a relationship between leaders and followers, and (2) leaders influence followers. Gary Yukl (1989 a) defines leadership "to include influence processes involving determination of the group's or organization's objectives, motivating task behavior in pursuit of these objectives, and influencing group maintenance and culture" (p. 5). Stogdill (1950) defines leadership as "the process (act) of influencing the activities of an organization and group in it's efforts toward goal achievement" (p. 9).

Bass (1960) distinguishes attempted leadership from successful leadership and effective leadership. In his words, "effort to change the behavior of others is attempted leadership" while actual change in behavior is successful leadership. Effective leadership is the successful influence by the leader that results in goal attainment by the influenced followers. Goal attainment, then, is necessary for effective leadership. Owens (1991) adds another requirement for effective leadership. In his view, effective leadership requires that followers find it rewarding and satisfying to attain group goals.

Leadership Behaviors

Various types of leadership behaviors can be effective in the process of attaining organizational and group goals. There are numerous theories of leadership. Traditionally, leadership has been classified as autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire. These three concepts of leadership vary sharply on the manner of relationship which exists between leaders and followers. Bass (1981) generally describes autocratic leadership as work-related and democratic leadership as person-related. He notes that these two types of leadership may be viewed as different ends of a continuum. Laissez-faire has been equated to a lack of leadership.

Autocratic leadership can generally be viewed as task-focused. The autocratic leader "initiates the structure, provides the information, determines what is to be done, issues the rules, promises rewards for compliance, and threatens punishment for disobedience. He or she uses power to obtain compliance with what the leader has decided" (Bass, 1981, p. 292). The autocratic leader is more concerned about getting the job done than meeting the needs of the followers. He or she uses coercion or persuasion to influence followers to accomplish institutional goals.

Rensis Likert (1967) and his associates at the University of Michigan conducted large scale studies over long periods of time, to determine the efficacy of democratic versus autocratic leadership. Likert found that democratic,

participative leadership increases both follower satisfaction and productivity. Hargrove, Graham, Ward, Abernathy, and Cunningham (1981) studied the leadership behavior of principals. Hargrove concluded that successful principals followed a leadership style they called "authoritative democratic," open to suggestions and alternatives, yet strong, decisive and in control.

Regardless as to whether a leader is autocratic or democratic, he or she is likely to be more effective in goal attainment than the laissez-faire leader. Laissez-faire leadership is: (1) a lack of activity between leaders and followers, (2) an unwillingness to give direction or support, and (3) a distancing of the leader from followers (Bass, 1981). Laissez-faire leaders set no clear goals to attain.

Muringham and Leung (1976), in an experimental study with 240 male students of organizational behavior, found that individuals led by a more involved leader produced more than individuals led by a less involved leader. In agreement with these findings, Bass (1981) contends that laissez-faire inactivity is negatively related to productivity. Therefore, teacher motivation toward achievement of school-related goals would be expected to be lower for principals who demonstrate laissez-faire, than either democratic or autocratic leadership behavior.

Although autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire leadership can be described as three distinct styles of leadership, in practice, one leader may exhibit qualities of a variety of leadership styles. W. A. Hill (1973) studied 124 middle

and first level accounting and research & development supervisors in the United Kingdom. Subordinates were asked to complete a questionnaire indicating which of four leadership styles their managers would use to deal with four typical situations. Hill found that only 14 percent of subjects indicated their supervisor would use the same leadership style for all four situations.

Similarly, McDonnell (1974) found that, depending on the problem situation, supervisors identified themselves as autocratic, consultative, participative, or laissez-faire. The situation then may affect the type of leadership which emerges and which is effective. It is generally accepted that there is not one universal best way to exercise leadership in all situations (Lau & Shanit, 1988; Owens, 1991). This thinking is in contrast, however, to the universal leadership theories which emerged following the Ohio State studies. Universal theories suggest that leaders are most effective in all situations when they emphasize both initiation of structure and show consideration toward their subordinates.

Situational/contingency theories of leadership, however, consider aspects of the situation which influence the relationship between leader behaviors or traits, and outcomes. Situational theories assume that different situations require different patterns of behaviors or traits for effectivity. Applying this concept to schools, Wood, Nicholson and Findley (1985) explain, "Effective leadership is a function of the goodness of fit between the principal's personality characteristics and the situational variables in the school setting" (p. 61).

Based on a large number of studies, Fiedler (1967) contends that the

interaction of three factors determine leader effectiveness:

1. Leader-follower relations. In this regard, Fielder proposes that leaders who are accepted and respected by the group have followers who are willing to expend effort toward accomplishment of group goals.
2. Task structure is defined as the degree to which followers' jobs are structured or unstructured.
3. Power position is defined as the extent to which the leader has the right to use rewards, punishments and legitimate power.

According to Fiedler (1967), situations which include good relations with followers, high position power, and highly structured tasks, give the leader considerable control over followers, which increases success of goal accomplishment. In the school setting, however, tasks are generally unstructured (Owens, 1991), and principals have limited position power (Ubben & Hughes, 1992).

The Path Goal theory of leadership, a situational/contingency theory formulated by House (1971), explains how a leader's behavior impacts followers' motivation to achieve organizational goals and followers' satisfaction with the leader. House states:

The motivational function of the leader consists of increasing personal pay-offs to subordinates for work-goal attainment and making the path to these payoffs easier to travel by clarifying it, reducing roadblocks and pitfalls, and increasing the opportunities for personal satisfaction en route (p. 324).

The situational variables affecting the leader's impact on motivation and satisfaction include characteristics of the subordinates (eg. abilities, personality)

and characteristics of the task. House & Mitchell (1974) identified four types of leadership behavior:

1. Supportive leadership includes giving consideration to followers' needs, displaying concern for their welfare, and creating a friendly climate in the work unit.
2. Directive leadership is letting followers know what they are expected to do, giving specific guidance, asking followers to follow rules and procedures, and scheduling and coordinating the work.
3. Participative leadership is consulting and taking followers' opinions and suggestions into account when making decisions.
4. Achievement-oriented leadership is setting challenging goals, seeking performance improvements, emphasizing high performance expectations, and showing confidence in followers' ability to attain high standards.

House and Mitchell (1974) propose that each type of leadership behavior increases follower motivation and satisfaction under various situations. The impact of leadership behavior is dependent on the nature of the task, the competence and confidence of followers, and followers' needs for achievement and autonomy.

The inclusion of moderate and severely disabled students in regular education classrooms is a complex, uncertain task. There is limited consensus about the best procedures to use because each student has unique needs. Even teachers with high levels of competence when working with regular education students,

may feel inexperienced working with disabled students. Yet, teachers usually have a high need for achievement and autonomy. In an inclusion "situation," teacher motivation may be effectively influenced by more than one type of leadership behavior.

According to Avolio and Bass (1988), current models of leadership concentrate on the transactional processes of leadership. Models focus on various exchanges between leaders and followers for the purpose of maintaining or achieving expected or contracted results. Avolio & Bass further contend that such models concentrate on affecting lower order changes in followers: self-interests, safety, and security. Bass (1985) has conceived of a new model of leadership, based on the transformational leadership theory of James MacGregor Burns. Bass' model cuts across both initiation and consideration, and acknowledges situational factors as well. Transformational leadership is defined and discussed in relationship to transactional leadership below.

Transformational and Transactional Leadership Behavior

James MacGregor Burns (1978) proposed a new theory of leadership which he refers to as transformational leadership. Burns draws a sharp distinction between transformational and transactional leadership. Transactional leadership is defined as "one person taking the initiative to make contact with others for the purpose of an exchange of something valued" (p. 19). The leader provides a reward or a punishment to the follower in exchange for effort, or lack of effort,

toward a goal. The objectives of leader and of followers are independent, as "leader and followers do not share a common stake in the enterprise" (Sergiovanni, 1991). Both the leader and the follower are dependent upon each other to attain what they want. As Bass (1985) describes it, "a transactional leader motivates subordinates by exchanging rewards for services rendered."

Rewards are generally extrinsic and may include pay increases, promotions, praise, and recognition. Punishments may include intervention, negative feedback and disciplinary action. The positive rewards may be enhancing to the self esteem of the follower. However, Bass (1985), who has studied leadership in numerous organizations, contends that the transactional leader tends not to reward when things are going well, but often uses negative reinforcement when things are not going well.

According to Burns (1978), transformational leadership occurs when "one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality" (p. 20). Transformational leadership motivates by tapping higher order needs of followers and by increasing awareness and consciousness of the importance and value of issues and goals which transcend one's own interests for the greater good of the group or society (Burns, 1978). Burns further suggests that transformational leadership appeals to higher ideals and values such as liberty, justice, equality, peace and humanitarianism. Followers are elevated from their "everyday selves" to their "better selves".

While transactional leadership may motivate followers to expend enough effort to meet the requirements for the reward (or to avoid punishment), transformational leadership inspires followers to exert even greater effort. Bass (1985) contends that transformational leadership encourages "performance beyond expectations." High levels of effort toward goal attainment result as the transformational leader binds himself with followers in a shared vision or mission for the group. Sergiovanni (1991) observes, "... purposes that might have started out being separate become fused" (p. 126). Followers are self-rewarded for efforts to attain the goal.

Burns and Bass differ somewhat on their conceptions of transformational leadership. Burns limits transformational leadership to leadership which activates higher order needs and appeals to moral values. The ultimate desired outcomes must be for the benefit of followers. Bass, however, includes leaders who arouse commitment and motivate followers to achieve outcomes which do not benefit followers. Bass would accept Adolph Hitler as a transformational leader; Burns would not.

Additionally, while Burns considers transactional and transformational leadership to lie at different ends of a leadership continuum, Bass considers transformational and transactional leadership to be distinct, but not mutually exclusive. Bass views transformational leadership as a "special case" of transactional leadership (Hater & Bass, 1988). According to Bass, both types of leadership aim to achieve a goal or objective, and a transformational leader may at times use a

transactional approach. Transformational leadership, however, goes beyond transactional leadership.

The findings of Waldman, Bass and Yammarino (1989) demonstrate through regression analysis that transformational factors augment the subordinate satisfaction, leader effectiveness and willingness of subordinates to exert extra effort, which is attributed to transactional factors. Bass and Avolio (1990) concludes that although transactional leadership can be effective, transformational leadership can be more effective.

Graham (1988) adds an additional perspective to the concepts of transactional and transformational leadership as he distinguishes leaders from supervisors. Leadership exists when followers voluntarily accept the influence of the leader. Influence is based on use of personal power. Supervision, by contrast, occurs when followers comply with leader requests due to fear of punishment, promise of rewards or desire to meet contractual obligations. A true leader does not seek unquestioning acceptance or willing obedience of followers. Instead, a true leader fosters follower autonomy, seeking to develop follower self-confidence, self-reliance, and skills of critical analysis. Graham equates the supervisor/subordinate relationship with what Bass and Burns have conceived as transactional leadership. Graham has reserved the label of leadership for the Bass and Burns conception of transformational leadership.

Sergiovanni (1991) views transactional leadership as a necessary first step toward achieving transformational leadership in schools. He describes four stages

of leadership: bartering, building, bonding and banking. Bartering refers to transactional leadership as defined above, and is the first stage of leadership. Building occurs when the leader provides the climate and interpersonal support that enhances follower's opportunities for fulfillment of achievement, responsibility, competence and esteem needs. Bonding occurs when the leader and follower develop a set of shared values and commitments that bond them together in a common cause. Banking is the process by which the leader seeks to institutionalize new initiatives as a part of the organizational routine (p. 125).

These stages are viewed as developmental and sequential. Sergiovanni (1991) states,

Bartering provides the push needed to get things started; building provides the push needed to deal with uncertainty and to create a psychological support system necessary for people to respond to higher levels of need fulfillment; and bonding provides the inspiration needed for performance and commitment that are beyond expectations (p. 126).

John Gardner (1990) equates transformational leadership with renewal of organizations. In his words, "Transactional leadership accepts and works within the structure as it is. Transformational leadership renews" (p. 122). Gardner, describes renewal as reinterpreting of values, liberating energies, re-engineering forgotten goals or generating new goals, achieving new understandings which lead to new solutions, and fostering the release of human possibilities. Transformational leadership causes change.

Bennis and Nanus (1985) contribute to the theory of transformational leadership through a five year study involving interviews with ninety outstanding

CEO's and leaders in public sector organizations. They found that the articulation of a clear and appealing vision for the future, which is relevant to the needs and values of followers, is a major role of the transformational leader. The vision is more likely to be developed through a collaborative process with followers, than to come from the leader alone. Communication of the vision, however, is the leader's special contribution. Yukl (1989b) suggests that, "Perhaps the unique contribution of the leader is to collect and integrate the components of a vision provided by followers, then make the vision come alive through persuasive articulation " (p. 273).

Further, the research of Bennis and Nanus (1985) supports Burn's belief that transformational leaders appeal to higher order needs. Instead of using rewards and punishment to garner commitment to the vision, the CEO's empowered followers thereby helping them develop competence necessary to achieve the goals. Leaders developed a sense of community and common purpose among followers, increasing competence through growth. "These leaders lead by pulling rather than by pushing" (p. 225).

Tichy and Devanna (1986) focus on the process by which transformational leaders move large organizations through major change. They studied twelve CEO's in a variety of large organizations which had undergone successful transformations. Findings revealed that transformational leaders move through three phases in the process of transforming the organization.

First, the transformational leader recognizes a need for change and

persuades key people in the organization of the seriousness of the need. Second, the transformational leader involves key people in the development of an inspiring vision of the future, one which is appealing enough to motivate members to make changes in their values and assumptions. The leader simultaneously provides emotional support for individuals during the period of change, helping members work through the "letting go" of old behavior patterns, beliefs and values. Finally, the leader mobilizes commitment to the new vision.

Charismatic leadership, proposed by House (1977), is sometimes used interchangeably with transformational leadership. However, Yukl (1989a) distinguishes the two, indicating that transformational leadership is usually defined more broadly than charismatic leadership. The two are further distinguished in that transformational leaders attempt to empower followers, while some charismatic leaders attempt to keep followers dependent upon the leader (Yukl, 1989b). Bass (1985) states that while the transformational leader is always charismatic, the charismatic leader is not necessarily transformational.

The term charisma has a variety of meanings. These include the following: influence based on belief in the leader; personal identification with the leader's beliefs, values, ideals and aspirations; perception of the leader as possessing extraordinary qualities; leader ability to inspire enthusiasm and excitement through an appealing vision of a possible future; ability to foster willing obedience and unquestioning acceptance by followers; ability to heighten followers' confidence in their own ability to achieve the groups' goals (Avolio & Bass, 1988; Boal &

Bryson; 1988 Yukl, 1989a).

Summary

Gaspar (1992) conducted a meta-analysis of the transformational leadership literature. Twenty-nine studies, using both qualitative and quantitative methods were included. The findings of these studies suggest that transformational leadership exists in organizations to a greater extent than transactional leadership; that transformational leadership is the more preferred style by subordinates; that subordinates perceive the transformational leader to be more effective than the transactional leader; that subordinates express greater satisfaction with the transformational leader; and that subordinates are willing to exert extra effort for the transformational, as compared to the transactional, leader.

While Hall and Hord (1987) suggest that the differences between schools and other organizations make it risky to apply leadership literature to educational settings, Yukl (1982) expresses a somewhat different view. Yukl states:

The situational nature of leadership means that findings for managers in business organization will not necessarily apply to school principals. However, there are many similarities in the leadership roles of managers and principals and these similarities provide one basis for generalizing results from one kind of leader to the other (p. 2).

Yukl suggests that the role of the principal has some of the attributes of first-line supervisors and some of the attributes of a middle manager.

The Principal as Transactional and Transformational Leader

Sergiovanni (1992) states that schools may be viewed as organizations or as communities. If viewed as organizations, the principal leads by communicating requirements (expectations), supervising, and evaluating. "Leadership in organizations, then, is inevitably control driven" (p. 41). If viewed as communities, however, schools are led by values, sentiments, and beliefs that unite people in a common life. The principal leads by supporting, reinforcing, and facilitating. Professionalism, community norms and collegiality substitute for direct leadership.

Sergiovanni (1992) further suggests that when schools operate as communities, "...principals can spend less time trying to figure out how to push and pull teachers toward goals and more time dealing with the issues of teaching and learning and ensuring financial, moral, political and managerial support for the school" (p. 42). In organizations, teachers are motivated by the rule "What gets rewarded, gets done." By contrast, in communities teachers are motivated by the sentiments of "What is rewarding, gets done" and "What we believe in, think to be good, and feel obligated to do gets done" (p. 45). Although not specifically labeled as such, Sergiovanni describes leadership in schools as organizations as transactional, and leadership in schools as communities as transformational.

Mitchell and Tucker (1992) also recognize the importance of school culture on leadership. Although they focus on the role of the superintendent, much of their thinking can be related to the role of the principal, as well. These

educational authorities distinguish transactional superintendents from transformational superintendents:

Transactional superintendents, concerned with structures, concentrate on defining job functions and on developing district policies and procedures. They believe that if they succeed in improving organizational operations, school instructional improvement will follow. They concentrate on creating and stabilizing district programs.

Transformational superintendents, concerned with staff skills and beliefs, direct their efforts to building and strengthening organizational norms and attitudes. They strive to establish common meaning systems, believing that quality education will arise when professional staff agree about educational goals and the most effective strategies for their attainment (p. 32).

Mitchell and Tucker (1992) distinguish managers from leaders in school settings. Managers rely more on transactional rather than transformational relationships. Task definition, teacher competence and skill, and performance indicators as measures of school productivity are valued. Incentive systems become important. Leaders, however, they point out, believe that high performance depends on transforming student and teacher attitudes. "Transformational leaders see themselves as responsible more for redefining educational goals than for implementing existing programs... (they) see the central issue as commitment rather than competence... everyone working together, developing and then pursuing common goals" (p. 34).

While supportive of transformational leadership, Mitchell and Tucker (1992), also warn that managerial roles should not be devalued. They suggest that supervising of well-established programs, administering of teachers and students, and managing the utilization of scarce resources are equally as important.

Sergiovanni (1989) further states that "leadership and management are linked in such a way that one supports the other," but that "the leader-manager is to be preferred to the routine-manager as the template for school administrators" (p. 208).

Peterson (1988) suggests that the flexibility and autonomy of the principal to interact with teachers on a daily basis, across isolated classrooms, subject matter areas and departments, increases their opportunities to influence school culture. Peterson recommends that principals influence changes from individual to collegial, group norms by building cultures which value sharing and exchange among colleagues.

In a study of nine elementary and three secondary principals, Leithwood and Jantzi (1990) investigated the strategies associated with transformational leadership and the development of collaborative or shared, technical school cultures. In each school, 11 to 12 staff members were interviewed regarding the leadership of the principal.

Findings revealed that transformational principals used the following strategies to influence school cultures: (a) strengthening of interpersonal relationships among staff; (b) provision of opportunities for collaboration and staff development; (c) sharing of power; (d) use of symbols to express cultural values; and (e) engagement in frequent and direct communication with staff. Leithwood and Jantzi (1990) consider the most generic purpose of transformational leadership to be "the enhancement of individual and collective problem-solving capacities of

organizational members" (p. 5).

Andrews contends that student achievement is directly related to teachers' perceptions of their principal's leadership (cited in Brandt, 1987). Andrews studied this relationship in 100 urban, suburban, and rural schools in the state of Washington, over a three year period. The teachers in his studies perceived that strong instructional leaders are those who: are a visible presence in the classroom; have definite ideas about the purpose of their school; set a vision for the school; and get resources to help teachers deliver instruction.

In addition to the cultural aspects of school leadership, both Foster (1989) and Sergiovanni (1990) are concerned with the moral dimension of transformational leadership in schools. Foster argues that educators must be concerned with moral issues which address the good of society, and that educational leadership should address change, transformation and liberation.

Sergiovanni (1990) states: Transformational leadership is first concerned with higher-order psychological needs for esteem, autonomy and self-actualization and then, with moral questions of goodness, righteousness, duty, and obligation (p.23). In his words, the leader functions as a "high priest" by protecting the values of the school. Sergiovanni considers moral authority an "added value" in leadership practice.

The Principal's Role in Inclusive Settings

The inclusion of moderate and severely disabled students in regular

education classrooms on a full time basis represents a major change for the vast majority of staff in regular education settings. Successful implementation of inclusion programs may be dependent upon a cultural change in the school, including the values, beliefs, assumptions, and attitudes held by the teachers, staff and administrators (Perner, 1991). The type of leadership demonstrated by the principal is vital to the success of inclusion programs.

Providing an equal educational opportunity for all children is the foundation upon which inclusion programs are based. Therefore, it is critical that the principal identify and articulate a philosophy, a vision, that reflects the following assumptions (Villa & Thousand, 1990):

1) all children can learn, 2) all children have the right to be educated with their peers in age appropriate heterogeneous classrooms in their local schools, and 3) it is the responsibility of the school system to meet the diverse educational and psychological needs of all students (p. 202).

Not only is it important to identify and articulate such a philosophy, but Villa and Thousand (1990) further suggest that building an understanding and a consensus among school staff for this philosophy is equally critical. Neihoff,ENZ, and Grover (1990) support the importance of consensus in reference to organizations when they state, "The individual efforts necessary to attain high levels of performance are possible only if employees understand and internalize the vision and commit their efforts to its accomplishment" (p. 338).

In-service activities, involvement of staff in mission clarification, and provision of incentives (rewards and recognition) for behavior which exemplifies or

promotes inclusive education contribute toward building such a consensus. Equal education for all students must be valued and accepted as a school community norm if inclusion programming is to be effective.

Collaborative relationships among school staff, which encourage sharing of expertise while planning for the educational needs of all students, is key in inclusive schools. Since the mid-1970's collaborative consultation has emerged as a process which fosters the development of creative solutions, for educating students with disabilities in the regular classroom (Thousand, Villa, Paolucci-Whitcomb and Nevin, 1992).

The principal is in a position to promote and support collaborative relationships among staff. The principal can: (a) shape the structure to allow time and opportunity for staff to meet, discuss, and plan; and (b) provide training for staff in efficient team-planning (Vandercook & York, 1990; Villa & Thousand, 1990).

Various definitions of collaboration and consultation have been proposed. Johnson and Pugach (1992) consider collaboration to occur when "individuals who have a similar body of knowledge or interests engage in a conversation with each other to share ideas and jointly solve problems. There is mutual sharing of information and parity of participants" (p. 217).

Friend and Cook (1990) discuss the collaborative style of consultation as a sharing among participants of: (a) goals, (b) parity, (c) participation, (d) accountability, and (e) resources. Thousand, Villa, Paolucci-Whitcomb, and Nevin

(1992) describe a collaborative relationship as "one in which each participant alternatively plays the consultant/expert and the consultee/recipient roles, in a forum where solution finding is joint and equally shared among people with different knowledge and experience" (p. 224). Additional benefits of collaboration, shared by Neven, Thousand, Paolucci-Whitcomb, and Villa (1990), include: shared ownership of problem definitions and solutions, and increased cohesiveness and willingness to work together.

In the Winooski, Vermont School District, where general and special education has been integrated for all students, educators "consistently identify collaboration and teaming practices as the cornerstones of their success" (Villa & Thousand, 1992). Darling (1990) examined relationships between (a) transformational leadership and collaboration, and (b) transactional leadership and collaboration involving elementary principals and teachers. She found a statistically significant difference in collaboration between transformational leader schools and transactional leader schools.

Collaboration among teachers is a departure from the isolated manner in which many teachers function. The discarding of old ways of thinking and relating, and exchanging them for new values, assumptions and relationships, represents change. Change can be difficult for many, and educators are no exception.

The principal is recognized as the single most influential person in affecting change in a school (Clark & Fairman, 1983; Kersten & Sloan, 1985; McCoy & Shreve, 1983). In a study of 102 principals and 485 teachers in the state of

Illinois, Kersten & Sloan found that both principals and their faculty (at all school levels) perceived the principal's behavior to be primarily change-directed, as opposed to managerial.

Some principals are more successful than others in implementing innovation and change. Linkages between principals behaviors and successful school improvements were the focus of a number of investigations conducted by Hall (1988) and Hall and Hord, (1987). Principal leadership behaviors have been categorized by Hall into three general change facilitator styles: initiators, managers, and responders.

Key findings were that: (a) principal change facilitator style was highly related to overall implementation success at the classroom level; and (b) that most effective Change Facilitator Teams (composed of the principal and other administrators and teachers) functioned in a collegial directed and high-energy manner (Hall, 1988). Hall concluded that "Principals with vision and intensive involvement, which is collaborative, have schools performing at higher levels (of successful implementation of change)" (p. 56). In such schools "teachers accomplish more, with more ease, and tend to move beyond minimums" (p. 59).

Vandenberge (1988) studied the principals' role in change and innovation in comprehensive, large scale reforms in Belgium schools. Results confirmed relationships between planning by the principal, vision building, coaching teachers, continuous support of teachers, and the level of implementation of innovations achieved. Although not directly related to the findings of this study, Vandenberge

hypothesizes that the principals' change facilitation style may or may not create a context by which an innovation becomes meaningful for participants. He suggests that meaning is crucial for the implementation of successful innovations. Vandenberghe believes meaning is increased when innovation is related to the overall vision for the school.

An additional role of the principal in inclusive settings is serving as a role model. Vandercook and York (1990) deem modeling of an accepting and welcoming attitude toward all students as one of the most important roles of the principal. Rumble (1980) states that the school administrator must show a comfort and willingness to be with students with disabilities if the leader expects teachers to be receptive to such students.

Summary

Principals who exhibit transactional leadership behavior and those who exhibit transformational leadership behavior tend to emphasize different goals. Whereas, the transactional principal is concerned with such factors as control, stabilization of programs, and teacher competence, the transformational principal is more concerned with the development of shared values and beliefs, meanings and commitment to common goals. In schools that include students with moderate and severe disabilities in regular education classrooms, it is important that educators hold equal educational opportunity as a shared value and goal. It is also important that providing support for collaborative problem-solving relationships

among staff is a high priority for the principal.

Motivation

Introduction

Inclusion of students with moderate and severe disabilities in the regular education classrooms can be difficult (Ubben & Hughes, 1992). Instructional goals and methods of instructional delivery may need to be adjusted (Salvia & Munson, 1986), provisions may be needed for the use of specialized equipment, and the most basic of physical activities may need teacher assistance. In addition, the intrinsic rewards derived from evidence of student achievement, may be slower to attain. It is reasonable to assume that the provision of an appropriate and quality education for disabled students may require a regular education teacher who is highly motivated and willing to "go the extra mile."

This section will begin with a review of selected theories of motivation. Theories of motivation will serve as a basis for (a) examining the relationship between follower motivation and type of leadership behavior, transformational vs transactional, and (b) considering the impact of the principal's leadership behavior on teacher motivation.

The motivation of followers is of "pivotal concern" to leaders (Owens, 1991). Hodgkinson (1991) considers motivating followers to be the central leadership task. Motivation is an internal state which governs voluntary behavior

(Vroom, 1965). Motivation is based on needs; and motivated behavior is directed toward satisfying needs. In order to effectively motivate a person, one must first understand the needs which that person seeks to satisfy.

In the workplace, two very different approaches may be used to motivate followers. The traditional approach (classical management) emphasizes the use of external rewards and punishments to raise productivity. The use of pay or threat of punishment to increase workers' motivation has been viewed as Machiavellian and manipulative (Thompson, 1979). Herzberg (1968) calls it seduction and rape.

The human resources school of management emphasizes intrinsic motivation by helping workers meet their higher order needs. When the work itself and the work environment challenges, encourages growth, and stimulates the worker, maximum effort and potential are possible. Strategies which help workers meet personal needs while simultaneously meeting the needs of the organization contribute to worker fulfillment and productivity.

Hodgekinson (1991), however, proposes that unless a follower's total personality is identified with the organizational role, the follower can be only partially committed to organizational purpose. Therefore, "motivation is always less than complete" (p. 73). Although it is unlikely that followers will be "completely" motivated to achieve organizational goals, the greater the extent to which the leader can influence the integration of individual needs and organizational needs, the more highly motivated followers will become toward meeting organizational

goals.

Theories of Motivation

Maslows's Hierarchy of Needs

Maslows's Hierarchy of Needs (1954) is based on the premise that all human behavior is directed toward satisfaction of certain needs. Human needs are hierarchially arranged into five categories. Lower needs take precedence over higher needs and direct behavior until they are sufficiently satisfied. When satisfied, needs at the next highest level become most prominent. Lower level needs lose their importance. The theory holds that needs at the fifth, highest, level are never completely satisfied.

The five basic need categories include, in ascending order:

1. Physiological needs - food, shelter, clothing, sex.
2. Safety needs - security, protection, structure, order.
3. Need for belongingness and love - affection, intimate relationships with others, interaction with colleagues.
4. Esteem needs - self esteem: achievement, competence, autonomy; esteem of others: prestige, respect, positive reputation.
5. Self actualization - desire to become all that one is capable of becoming; the fulfillment of one's potential.

In the workplace safety needs can be met by safe working conditions and

job security. Needs for belongingness can be satisfied by the encouragement of collaborative relationships. Esteem needs can be achieved by recognition of excellent performance and through participative decision making practices. Needs for self actualization can be met through opportunities for growth and development (Alkin, 1992). To maximize motivation, the leader must first determine at what level of the hierarchy followers are operating.

Two-Factor Theory

Herzberg (1959) offers an alternative theory of motivation, the Two-Factor Theory, which focuses on the workplace. His theory is based on a study of managers and professionals in Pittsburgh industries. Subjects were asked to identify those situations on their job in which they felt satisfied, and those in which they felt dissatisfied.

The Two-Factor Theory distinguishes two types of work conditions, dissatisfiers and satisfiers. The dissatisfiers, also termed the "hygiene factor", are related to the job context. These include company policy and administration; supervision, interpersonal relationships with supervisors, peers and subordinates; working conditions; personal life; status; and job security. A sense of unfairness is the key to understanding the negative feelings about the job. According to the theory, needs related to the hygiene factor are expected to be met. When they are not met, workers will have poor attitudes toward the job, and poor performance will result. The fulfillment of needs in these areas help workers to avoid

an unpleasant or painful environment. They do not, however, lead to job satisfaction or increased motivation.

The "satisfiers", or motivators, on the other hand, are directly related to job content. "Satisfiers" include: achievement, recognition, responsibility, advancement, and the work itself. The last three are the most potent. Fulfillment of needs related to the "satisfiers" determines the level of worker motivation. Herzberg considered salary to be more of a "dissatisfier" than a "satisfier."

Theoretically, given a worker operating from a neutral point, neither motivated nor unmotivated, satisfaction of the "satisfiers" would increase the motivation level beyond neutral. If needs related to the "satisfiers" are not met, the worker would not become a dissatisfied, unmotivated worker, but would merely have a neutral level of motivation. If, however, needs related to the hygiene factor are not met, the worker would become unmotivated (Herzberg, 1959).

Herzberg (1959) suggests that leaders will increase the motivation level of followers when leaders focus on ways to help followers gain some measure of control over the way in which the job is done, and to realize a sense of achievement and personal growth. Herzberg emphasizes job enrichment as the means to activate the motivators which already lie within individuals.

Expectancy Theory

Expectancy Theory of motivation and performance explains the degree of effort subordinates are willing to exert in the workplace (Vroom, 1964; Porter &

Lawler, 1968). Subordinates choose the level of effort they will exert based on three factors: (1) belief that effort on their part will lead to good performance; (2) perception that the rewards associated with good performance differ from rewards associated with poor performance; and (3) value they place on rewards that are associated with good performance.

Factors which affect the extent to which people believe their efforts will lead to good performance include: (a) conditions in the work environment, (b) the employee's capabilities (knowledge and skills), (c) the employee's confidence in his/her ability to achieve the desired outcomes, and (d) challenges appropriately matched to the employee's skill level (Alkin, 1992).

In addition to believing that effort will result in desired performance, motivation requires a belief that desired performance will lead to valued rewards. Newsome (1990) suggests three factors which affect one's belief that good performance will lead to desired rewards. These include (1) an understanding of what good performance means, (2) a belief that managers can deliver promised outcomes, and (3) demonstrated fairness and consistency of rewards. "Employees who feel unfairly or inequitably treated cannot perceive a linkage between performance and rewards, and therefore are less motivated" (Alkin, 1992, p. 868).

In summary, Expectancy Theory suggests that motivation to perform can be increased by improving rewards, providing techniques for achieving good performance, and creating a work environment that establishes a high probability that good performance will lead to the desired outcome (Alkin, 1992). Ultimately,

motivation to improve employee effort and performance is aimed at the achievement of organizational goals and outcomes. When employees are motivated to exert effort to achieve desired personal rewards, and when this same effort leads to the achievement of goals desired by the organization, there is an integration of personal and organizational goals. The key to motivation is integration of worker and organizational goals (McGregor, 1967).

Transactional and Transformational Leadership and Motivation

Bernard Bass (1985) points to sharp differences in worker motivation generated by transactional and transformational leadership. Bass believes that while transactional leadership accomplishes small increments in followers' level of motivation, transformational leadership can produce quantum leaps in followers' motivation.

In the transactional leadership process one's motivation to exert effort toward organizational outcomes is based on expectancy theory. Bass describes the transactional process as follows:

The leader recognizes the role the follower must play to attain the outcomes desired by the leader. The leader clarifies the role. This clarification provides the follower with the confidence necessary to carry it out to meet the objectives. In parallel, the leader recognizes what the follower needs and clarifies for the follower how these needs will be fulfilled in exchange for the follower's satisfactory outcome and performance. This makes the designated outcome of sufficient value to the follower to result in his [or her] effort to attain the outcome. This is the transactional process at its simplest (Bass, 1985, p. 13).

The exchange process serves to satisfy lower level needs and self-interests of followers.

The transformational leader increases awareness and arouses higher order needs and aspirations in followers, which "transcend self interest and produce extraordinary effort" (Bass, 1985, p. 15). When followers seek to satisfy higher level needs (according to Maslowe's hierarchy) they take on greater responsibilities and become self-directing, self-reinforcing, and self-actualizing. "They themselves are converted into leaders" (Burns, 1978, p. 3). This type of transformation in followers requires a leader with vision, self confidence, and inner strength (Bass, 1985, p. 17).

According to Bass (1985), motivation of followers to do more than they originally expected to do, beyond that generated by the influence of the transactional leader, is achieved in one of three ways:

1. Raising followers' level of awareness and consciousness about the importance and value of designated outcomes and ways of reaching them,
2. Getting followers to transcend their own self-interests for the sake of the team, organization or larger polity, or
3. Altering or expanding followers' aspirations and needs on Maslowe's Hierarchy (p. 20).

Not only does the transformational leader raise the level of awareness about the importance of designated outcomes, but the leader also increases followers' confidence in their own ability to achieve these outcomes.

Motivation of Teachers

Teacher motivation has been the focus of numerous empirical investigations (Fox, 1986; Lortie, 1975; Sergiovanni, 1967). Sergiovanni interviewed 71 elementary and secondary teachers from a variety of Monroe County, New York districts to investigate the causes of work satisfaction and dissatisfaction. His results supported the work of Herzberg. Teachers indicated that achievement, recognition, and responsibility contributed most to their satisfaction and motivation. Dissatisfiers included: poor relations with students, peers, supervision, school policy, and administration. Poor relations with students was perceived to be the biggest dissatisfier.

Lortie (1975), in a study of 6,000 Dade County, Florida teachers, adds support to Sergiovanni's findings. Three-quarters of the teachers considered psychic rewards to be their major source of work satisfaction. Of those teachers who chose psychic rewards, 86% chose "knowing that I have reached students and they have learned" as their greatest psychic reward (p. 104). "The pursuit and maximization of psychic rewards press teachers further into teaching, the source of these rewards" (Thompson, 1979, p. 15).

James Hoge (1977) feels that principals impact teachers' motivation primarily on a one-to-one basis. He states that setting high expectations for accomplishment, and reinforcing teachers' efforts are the most effective strategies principals can use to motivate teachers.

Thompson (1979), based on a review of literature and guidelines from educational practitioners, offers a number of strategies principals can use to increase teacher motivation: (a) praise and encouragement which are non-manipulative and honest; (b) avoidance of punitive criticism; (c) honoring and recognizing teacher efforts; (d) setting difficult, but attainable goals, "heightens motivation by providing a direction for task accomplishment" (p. 23); (e) accurate and honest feedback which is diagnostic rather than judgmental, and which is presented as a collaborative effort; (f) stimulating teachers with new ideas and practices (Schwartzack, cited in Thompson, 1979); (g) sharing of administrative power, referred to as participative management, collaborative decision making, and empowerment; (h) building in more opportunities for personal and professional growth; and (i) "acceptance of teachers as partners in a collective pursuit" (p. 37).

Fox (1986) conducted a nationwide study which examined the principals' ability to provide the conditions for teacher motivation. His subjects included a pool of 100 randomly selected school principals. In addition to submitting a self-evaluation, each principal was evaluated by 10 teachers and the superintendent. Williams found 13 conditions that improve teacher motivation. His findings mirror many of the motivators discussed above.

In addition, Fox's (1986) findings identify four other conditions principals may alter to increase teacher motivation. The first is helping teachers view teaching as worthwhile, teaching and learning as the most important function of the school. Speaking clearly and frequently about this mission, rewarding excellence

in teaching, and allocating resources for instructional purposes will help to convey the importance of teaching, thus increasing teacher motivation.

The remaining conditions identified by Fox (1986) include: (2) the provision of an environment which is physically and emotionally safe for all participants, and reduces distractions to teaching; (3) the adequate allocation of resources for instruction; and (4) inspiring of personal confidence in the principal.

Summary

Sergiovanni (1989) declares that transactional leadership in schools has reached its limits. He states: "Transactional leadership has run its course and thus cannot do anything more to tap the potential of followers, to increase individual performance, or to bring about improved school productivity" (p. 208). Transformational leadership theory suggests that principals who help teachers satisfy their higher order needs while accomplishing the educational goals of the school, will have highly motivated teachers. A sense of achievement, recognition, and autonomy are intrinsic needs many teachers strive to attain.

Summary of Literature Review

The literature review explored three major areas. These included: inclusion, leadership, and motivation.

The first section considered the meaning of inclusive education. Although there is no universal definition for the term, there is widespread agreement that

the intent of inclusive education is to provide an equal educational opportunity for students with disabilities. The right to an equal educational opportunity was legally recognized with the enactment, in 1975, of Public Law 94.142, the Education of All Handicapped Children Act. Passing a law does not translate into acceptance of students with disabilities. Research tends to indicate that although teachers acknowledge the benefits of inclusion for special education students, general education students, and staff, many teachers do not feel that the education of students with disabilities is the responsibility of the general education teacher.

The second section began with a review of selected leadership theories. Emphasis was given to transformational and transactional leadership. The role of the principal as both a transformational and a transactional leader was compared and contrasted. Whereas the transactional principal is concerned with such factors as control, stabilization of programs, and teacher competence, the transformational principal is more concerned with the development of shared values and beliefs, meanings and commitment to common goals. It was noted that inclusive school environments require the sharing of certain values (e.g., equal educational opportunity for all students) and commitment to certain goals (e.g., collaborative problem-solving relationships).

The third section began with a review of selected theories of motivation. It was noted that the key to motivation in the workplace is integration of worker and organizational goals. Worker motivation which is generated by transactional and transformational leadership was compared and contrasted. According to Bass

(1985), transactional leadership accomplishes small increments in followers' level of motivation, but transformational leadership can produce quantum leaps in followers' motivation. The chapter ended with a review of empirical investigations of teacher motivation. It was noted that higher order needs for achievement, recognition, and responsibility contributed most to teacher satisfaction and motivation.

There is a growing move to educate students with disabilities in regular education classrooms, with their nondisabled peers. This movement raises questions about the type of principal leadership most likely to impact teachers' motivation to deliver effective instruction to all students.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine the leadership behaviors of principals in schools which educate students with moderate and severe disabilities in regular education classrooms. More specifically, the purpose was to determine whether principals were more transformational than transactional. Additionally, this study sought to determine whether transformational or transactional leadership behaviors of principals, as perceived by teachers, tend to be more strongly associated with the principals' ability to motivate teachers to exert effort toward achievement of expected goals.

This chapter is organized into four sections: (1) sample composition and selection, (2) instrumentation, (3) data collection procedures, and (4) data analysis.

Sample Composition and Selection

Sampling Frame

The subjects of this study were teachers who work in public K-12 schools; who participated in the Michigan Inclusive Education Project; and were

responsible for moderately or severely disabled students who were enrolled in their regular education classrooms on a full-time basis.

Sampling Design

The inclusion of moderately and severely disabled students in regular education classrooms on a full-time basis is a relatively recent approach to delivery of instruction. This approach is not widespread.

At the time the sample was selected, ten school districts in the state of Michigan were involved in the Michigan Inclusive Education Project and had implemented inclusion programs. This project was a cooperative venture between Special Education Services of the Michigan Department of Education, and the Developmental Disabilities Institute, Wayne State University.

Working in concert with the Coordinator of the Michigan Inclusive Education Project, this researcher was able to identify a population of five school districts who met the selection criteria of having implemented an acceptable inclusion project. More specifically, the selection criteria included schools which enrolled several moderately or severely disabled students in comprehensive inclusive education programs, on a full-time basis. The remaining school districts offered more limited inclusion programs, and therefore, did not meet the criteria for participation in this study. The procedures for selecting schools and the subjects are described in the following section.

Selection Procedures

Subjects were drawn from schools geographically distributed across the state of Michigan. Within the five selected school districts, each school which served moderately and severely disabled students in regular classrooms, on a full time basis, was eligible for inclusion in this study. To determine eligibility, and to secure approval for schools' participation in the study, the following steps were taken:

1. In each school district, a primary contact person was identified, as recommended by the Coordinator of the Michigan Inclusive Education Project. Once contacted, the person was asked to provide the names of the schools within the district which met the criteria for participation in the study. The names and phone numbers of the principals in the identified schools were also requested.

2. Twenty-three principals in the five selected school districts were contacted by phone to: (a) discuss the purposes and expected benefits of participating in this study; (b) verify whether schools met the criteria for participation; (c) gather pertinent information regarding the number of students and teachers, and type of educational programs available to disabled students prior to inclusion; and (d) request approval for teacher participation in the study. To maintain consistency of verbal presentation to principals during initial phone contacts, the Initial Phone Contact Script was used (see Appendix B). Based on phone contacts with principals, it was determined that 15 schools, within the five selected school

districts, met the criteria for participation in the study.

When these schools were asked to participate in the study, one principal expressed discomforting concerns in regards to participating in the study. In another school, verbal approval from the Assistant Superintendent, as well as written approval from the identified potential subjects (teachers) and the teachers' union, were required prior to mailing of questionnaire packets. Verbal approval for study participation was obtained from 14 principals.

3. Principals in identified schools were mailed a packet containing a confirmation letter (see Appendix C) which briefly explained the data collection procedures, and requested completion and return of two attached forms. The List Of Study Participants Form requested the names of teachers who instruct moderate and/or severely disabled students in their regular education classrooms on a full-time basis (see Appendix D). The Student and School Information Form requested data regarding the number of "included" students and the types of programs serving "included" students prior to their inclusion (see Appendix E). Principals were also provided with a copy of the cover letter for teachers (see Appendix F), and information regarding the data collection instrument. To enhance the overall response rate, a self-addressed, stamped, envelope was included for return of requested materials.

Approval for data collection was obtained from the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board (HSIRB) at Western Michigan University. The reader is referred to Appendix G.

Instrumentation

To identify an appropriately valid and reliable instrument for data collection procedures, the investigator utilized the following resources: the Mental Measurement Yearbook, Online Automated Reference Service (OARS), ERIC documents, related dissertations, and other educational references. Unfortunately, however, during the time of this study, empirical research on transformational leadership was limited and therefore instruments designed to measure transformational leadership were relatively rare (Kuhn, 1991; Yukl, 1989a).

A thorough examination of Bass and Avolio's (1990) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire-Form 5R (MLQ) revealed that this instrument satisfied the data collection needs of this study (see Appendix H). The MLQ measures transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire leadership behaviors. The instrument also measures three outcome variables, one of which is extra effort, defined by Bass as the extent to which a leader motivates subordinates. Two other outcome variables measured by the MLQ include: (1) satisfaction with the leader and the leader's methods, and (2) leader effectiveness. Permission to print the MLQ within this document was denied by the publisher. Approved sample items from the instrument are included in Appendix H.

The MLQ is an 80 item questionnaire. It comprises a five-point Likert type scale for rating the frequency of observed leader behaviors. The rating scale has the following designations: 0 = Not at all; 1 = Once in a while; 2 =

Sometimes; 3 = Fairly often; and 4 = Frequently, if not always. The first 70 items measure the independent variable (leadership behavior) and the dependent variable (motivation) in this study. The remaining ten items measure leader effectiveness, satisfaction with the leader and his/her methods, demographic characteristics, and perceived accuracy in representing the leader's performance.

There are two questionnaire forms: the Self-Rating Form, in which the leader rates him or herself as a leader, and the Rater Form in which followers rate the leader. The Rater Form was used in this study. Andrews (cited in Brandt, 1987) supports the use of teachers' perceptions as indicators of principals' leadership, "Researchers may mistrust perceptions, but in a sense the only reality is perceived reality - and peoples' perceptions of their surroundings have a powerful influence on what they do" (p. 10).

Validity

The results of factor analysis, using varimax rotation methods, provide construct validity for MLQ leadership factors in business settings. The same seven leadership factors emerged during two independently conducted factor analyses by Bass (1985). Additionally, almost the same structure was maintained in two replicas of the original factor analysis when conducted by Hater & Bass (1988) and Seltzer & Bass (1990). Factor analytic findings for items representative of each factor ranged from .57 for Individualized Consideration to .77 for Charisma (Bass, 1985).

As a measure of validity for the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Bass, 1985) in the setting of this study, subjects were asked to complete item 80 on the MLQ. Item 80 asked participants to rate the extent to which the questionnaire accurately represented the leadership performance of the person (principal) rated. The rating scale had the following designations: 0 = not at all; 1 = to some degree; 2 = fairly well; 3 = extremely well; 4 = exactly. A frequency distribution and mean rating was computed for this item. The mean rating of item 80 was 2.71, which is interpreted to mean a rating of "fairly to extremely well." This rating suggests that the instrument was generally perceived to be valid for its intended purposes by the subjects of the study.

Reliability

As reported in the Manual for the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Bass & Avolio, 1990, p. 22) alpha reliability coefficients for leadership scales (MLQ Rater Form) are all above .82, except for Management-by-Exception (.79) and Laissez-Faire (.77). The reliability coefficients yielded a range of .77 through .95. The alpha reliability coefficients for the MLQ Self-Rating Form were lower for each scale, yielding a range of .60 to .92. Bass and Avolio recommend using the followers' descriptions of leaders for research purposes due to their higher reliability coefficients.

A reliability check for the MLQ (Bass, 1985) was conducted to provide evidence that within an inclusive education setting, the instrument was consistent in

producing the data for which it is designed. Cronbach alphas were computed for each leadership factor subscale and examined for reliability. The resulting reliability coefficients are presented in Table 1. Nunnally (1978) suggests that a reliability coefficient of .70 or higher is acceptable for hypothesis testing of constructs. With the exception of the scales for contingent reward and management-by-exception, reliability coefficients were in the acceptable range. Contingent reward (.68) closely approached the acceptable value.

Table 1

Internal Consistency of Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Scales

Scale	<u>N</u> of Items	Cronbach alpha
Charisma	10	0.94
Intellectual Stimulation	10	0.80
Individual Consideration	10	0.84
Inspiration	7	0.75
Contingent Reward	10	0.68
Management-By-Exception	10	0.59
Laissez-Faire	10	0.65
Effort (Motivation)	3	0.86

Note: Number = 44; Standardized alphas are reported.

Tests of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire in Educational Settings

The MLQ has been used in leadership research in a variety of settings, including: business, industrial, service, manufacturing, high-technology, military, government, church, correctional, hospital, volunteer organizations, and higher educational settings (Bass and Avolio, 1990; Longshore, 1988; Singer & Singer, 1990; Tucker, 1990; Yammarino & Bass, 1990). Fewer studies have used the MLQ in K-12 educational settings (Arends, 1993; Gorham, 1992). No reports of the use of the MLQ specifically in inclusive education settings were found. The following section, however, reports tests of the MLQ in three studies which investigated transformational leadership in the general K-12 setting. Although the settings of these studies are not identified as being inclusive environments, they have some similarity with the setting of the present study in that they are educational settings at the K-12 level.

Empirical Tests

King (1989) conducted a study comparing transactional and transformational leadership to development and control press. Subjects were comprised of two groups: (1) graduate students who were also employed in education, and (2) members of a professional group of educators. Of the total sample, 103 were K-12 educators and 100 were members of higher education. Forty-three percent of the sample were K-12 principals. Transformational and transactional

leadership were measured using the MLQ (Form 5). Confirmatory factor analysis, using Procrustean rotation, was conducted as a validity check for the MLQ in the educational setting. The procedure was intended to confirm or disconfirm, for education, the factor structure found by Bass (1988) in other settings.

Results readily confirmed Individualized Consideration, Contingent Reward and Inspiration with validity coefficients (cosines among factor axes) ranging from .82 to .99. King's validity coefficients were moderate for Charisma, .56, and Management-By-Exception, .62. Intellectual Stimulation items, however, loaded onto the Charisma scale, with a correlation of only .01 to its assigned factor. Additionally, much of the variance of Charisma was explained by the Intellectual Stimulation scale. In the King study, the Charisma and Intellectual Stimulation scales were not confirmed as measures of distinct factors. Both Charisma and Intellectual Stimulation, however, are factors of transformational leadership.

King (1989) also conducted a test of reliability computing Cronbach alphas for each of the seven (includes laissez-faire leadership) independent leadership factors. With the exception of Management-By-Exception, reliability coefficients were acceptable, ranging from .74 to .96. King reports that these coefficients either approximated or exceeded alphas reported by Bass and Avolio in 1988. The alpha coefficient for Management-By-Exception was .61.

More recently, Hoover, Petrosko and Schulz (1991) conducted a study to test empirically the theory of transformational and transactional leadership. In

their study, subjects included 45 headmasters of private secondary schools in the southeastern United States. The investigation was designed to determine if a similar leadership model would emerge with school leaders as that found in Bass' original research conducted with military and business leaders. Hoover compared the results of factor analysis with the results of the same procedure conducted by Bass in 1985. Five of the six transformational and transactional leadership factors emerged. Inspiration was subsumed under Charisma and considered to be a subset of the Charisma leadership factor.

Koh (1990) tested the validity of Bass' leadership theory with a sample of 90 selected secondary schools in Singapore. A "split sample" technique was used in which half of the sample provided data on their principal's leadership behavior. The other half provided data on affective reactions to the principal's leadership. Results showed the MLQ scale to have reasonably high validity and reliability.

Data Collection Procedures

Upon receipt of the List of Study Participants and Student and School Information forms from principals in selected sites, the information was reviewed for consistency with information gathered during initial phone contacts with the principals. Discrepancies regarding number of "included" students with moderate and severe disabilities resulted in a follow-up call to the principal for clarification. This precaution was taken to eliminate the possibility of including, as subjects, teachers who did not have moderate or severely disabled students enrolled in

their classrooms full-time.

Questionnaire packets were addressed to each teacher and mailed to his/her school address. Questionnaire packets contained a cover letter which explained the purpose and expected benefits of the study; instructions for completing the questionnaire (see Appendix F); the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ); and a self-addressed stamped envelope for return.

To protect the identity of the respondents, respondents' names were not requested, and no identifying codes or marks were included on the questionnaire. The envelopes provided for return of completed questionnaires were addressed to the Department of Educational Leadership, Western Michigan University. Return envelopes were addressed in a manner to distinguish returns from elementary, middle, and high schools. Individual schools and individual respondents remained anonymous.

Questionnaire packets were mailed to seventy-two (72) teachers. In an effort to improve the response rate, a blanket follow-up letter was mailed to each subject two weeks after the initial mailing of the questionnaire packet (see Appendix I).

Data Analysis

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) computer program was used to analyze the collected data. Appropriate statistical procedures (utilizing t-tests for determining equality of means and multiple regression for

determining the correlation between the criterion variable and the linear combination of predictors) were used to test the hypotheses. In all tests of the hypotheses, the 0.05 confidence level was used for determining statistical significance. The hypotheses were stated in the null form, and were either rejected or not rejected.

Hypothesis #1

H₀: There will be no significant difference in the mean transformational and transactional leadership score of principals in schools which educate moderate and severely disabled students in regular education classrooms on a full-time basis.

H_a: Principals in schools which educate moderate and severely disabled students in regular education classrooms on a full-time basis will receive a higher transformational than transactional leadership mean score by teachers.

Hypothesis #2

H₀: There will be no significant difference in the mean motivation score of teachers who perceive principals to exhibit a combination of high transformational/moderate-to-low transactional leadership behaviors and teachers who perceive principals to exhibit a combination of high transactional/moderate-to-low transformational leadership behaviors.

H₄: The mean motivation score for principals perceived to exhibit high transformational/moderate-to-low transactional leadership behaviors will be higher than the mean motivation score for principals perceived to exhibit high transactional/moderate-to-low transformational leadership behaviors.

Hypothesis #3

H₀: The multiple correlation (R) between motivation scores and the linear combination of charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, contingent reward, and management-by-exception scores will equal zero.

H_a: The multiple correlation (R) between motivation scores and the linear combination of charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, contingent reward, and management-by-exception scores will be greater than zero.

Operational Definition of Students With Moderate and Severe Disabilities

The classification of a student as having moderate or severe disabilities, according to the Michigan Department of Education, is a subjective determination which is made on an individual student basis by the student's Individual Education Planning Committee (IEPC). The IEPC, in making this determination, considers how significantly the impairment affects the student's ability to participate in the regular educational program.

For purposes of this study, the operational definition of "students with moderate and severe disabilities" is the group of disability labels of those students who were identified by schools in this study as having moderate and severe disabilities. Therefore, the findings of this study will be generalized only to the identified disability labels. Identified disability labels included: educably mentally impaired, trainable mentally impaired, severely mentally impaired, severely multiply impaired, emotionally impaired, severe learning disabled, and autism. Each of these disability labels is defined in the July, 1992 Revised Administrative Rules for Special Education, Michigan Department of Education (see Appendix A).

Operational Definition of Independent and Dependent Variables

Independent Variable

The independent variable of the study was leadership behaviors of the principal, operationally defined as ratings of transformational leadership behavior and transactional leadership behavior statements on the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Bass, 1985).

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership was defined, operationally, as the composite mean of the charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration leadership factor means. Each factor was operationally defined by

clustering MLQ items to reflect their conceptual definitions. Factor means were computed by averaging the teacher ratings of the MLQ items which comprise the leadership factor.

Charisma Leadership Factor. Items on the MLQ which comprise the charisma leadership factor were represented by statements which describe the following types of leader and follower behaviors: follower identification with and emulation of the leader; leaders who are trusted and seen as having an attainable mission and vision; leaders who are thoroughly respected, have much referent power, hold high standards, and set challenging goals for their followers (Bass & Avolio, 1990, p. 19).

Inspiration Leadership Factor. Items on the MLQ which comprise the inspiration leadership factor were represented by statements which describe the following leader behavior: provides symbols and simplified emotional appeals to increase awareness and understanding of mutually desired goals (Bass & Avolio, 1990, p. 19).

Intellectual Stimulation Leadership Factor. Items on the MLQ which comprise the intellectual stimulation leadership factor were represented by statements which describe the following leader behaviors: encourages followers to question their old way of doing things or break from the past; supports followers for questioning their own values, beliefs, and expectations, as well as those of the leader

and organization; and supports followers who take the initiative to think on their own, address challenges, and consider creative ways to develop themselves (Bass & Avolio, 1990, p. 19).

Individualized Consideration Leadership Factor. Items on the MLQ which comprise the individualized consideration leadership factor were represented by teacher ratings of item statements which describe the following behaviors: followers are treated differently but equitably on an individual basis; followers needs are recognized and their perspectives are raised; and assignments are delegated to followers to provide learning opportunities (Bass & Avolio, 1990, p. 19).

Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership was defined, operationally, as the composite mean of the contingent reward and management-by-exception factor means. Each of the leadership factor means was computed by averaging the scores for the MLQ items which comprise the factor.

Contingent Reward Leadership Factor. Items on the MLQ which comprise the contingent reward leadership factor were represented by statements which describe the following leader/follower behaviors: interactions between leader and followers emphasize an exchange (e.g., the leader provides appropriate rewards when followers meet agreed-upon objectives). "Emphasis is on facilitating the achievement of agreed-upon objectives by followers." Followers' needs are identi-

fied, then linked both to what the leader expects to accomplish and to rewards if objectives are met (Bass & Avolio, 1990, p. 19).

Management-by-Exception Leadership Factor. Items on the MLQ which comprise the management-by-exception leadership factor are represented by statements which describe the following leader behaviors: allows the status quo to exist without being addressed; intervenes only when things go wrong; intervention is for the purpose of making a correction; generally reinforces by correction, criticism, negative feedback, negative contingent reinforcement, and punishment (Bass & Avolio, 1990, p. 20).

Dependent Variable

The dependent variable of the study was the principal's ability to motivate teachers to exert effort toward achievement of expected goals. The dependent variable was defined, operationally, as the mean motivation score. The motivation score was computed by averaging the ratings of three items on the MLQ. These items were represented by statements which describe the following behavior: followers exert effort beyond the ordinary as a consequence of the leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1990, p. 20).

Operational Definitions of Other Terms Related to Hypothesis Testing

Other important terms of the study included two leadership categories:

high transformational/moderate-to-low transactional and high transactional/moderate-to-low transformational. An operational definition of both terms follows.

High transformational/moderate-to-low transactional leadership was defined as the following pair of scores: a transformational leadership score of 3.31 and above and a transactional leadership score of 2.10 and below, on a 4.00 rating scale. High transactional/moderate-to-low transformational leadership was defined as the following pair of scores: a transactional leadership score of 2.16 and above and a transformational leadership score of 3.30 and below, on a 4.00 rating scale.

Both transformational and transactional leadership were considered in defining the leadership category. The 66.7 percentile rank in the distribution of mean transformational and transactional leadership scores was used as the break point for categorizing scores as representing high and moderate-to-low transformational and transactional leadership.

The original research plan proposed the following three leadership categories: high transformational/low transactional, high transactional/low transformational, and moderate transformational/moderate transactional. However, an analysis of the distribution of scores revealed that: (a) only two cases could be categorized as moderate/moderate, and (b) only a small number of cases could be categorized into a high/low category. The original plan was adjusted to include the two high/moderate-to-low leadership categories.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

Introduction

This study sought to determine whether transformational or transactional leadership behaviors were most often demonstrated by principals in schools which educate students with moderate and severe disabilities in regular education classrooms. Additionally, this study sought to determine if there was a relationship between leadership behaviors of principals (transformational vs. transactional) and principals' impact on teacher motivation to exert extra effort.

This chapter is organized into two sections. The first section provides descriptive statistics related to the participation of schools and teachers in the study. The second section presents results of testing of the hypotheses.

Schools and Teacher Participation

Fourteen public schools, drawn from the Michigan Inclusive Education Project, were requested to complete the List of Study Participants and Student and School Information forms (see Appendices D and E). Of the fourteen public schools, twelve schools returned completed forms while two other schools did not. Though proven to be unsuccessful, however, numerous attempts by phone and by

follow-up letters were made to secure completed forms from the two unresponsive schools. Of the 12 responding schools, one school did not include moderate or severely disabled students in regular education classrooms on a full-time basis. Therefore, this school did not meet the criteria for participation in the study.

The participation of teachers was ascertained by the extent to which the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaires (MLQ) were completed and returned. Seventy-two questionnaire packets were mailed to teachers in 11 schools. Table 2 shows the distribution of participation of schools and teachers by elementary, middle, and high school levels.

The questionnaire response rates were: 64% for elementary teachers; 57% for middle school teachers; and 60% for high school teachers. Overall, about

Table 2
Schools and Percentage of Teacher Participation

<u>School Level</u>	<u>Schools N</u>	<u>Mailed</u>		<u>Questionnaires Returned</u>	
		<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>
Elementary	8	36	50	23	52
Middle	2	21	29	12	27
High	1	15	21	9	21
Entire Population	11	72	100	44	100

61% of questionnaires were returned.

Results of Hypothesis Testing

In this section the analysis of the data collected in regard to the three hypotheses is presented. The hypotheses are restated in the null form and appropriate tests are provided to determine whether the hypotheses are either rejected or not rejected. In all test applications, the 0.05 alpha level was used for determining acceptance.

H_1 There will be no significant difference in the mean transformational and transactional leadership scores of principals in schools which educate students with moderate and severe disabilities in regular education classrooms on a full-time basis.

Table 3 presents the results of the t -test for dependent samples.

Since the observed probability of .000 exceeded the established .05 alpha level of significance, the null hypothesis was rejected. In other words, there was a difference in the mean transformational and transactional leadership scores of principals. The mean transformational leadership score was higher than the mean transactional leadership score. Therefore, principals were perceived by teachers to exhibit more transformational leadership behaviors than they exhibit transactional leadership behaviors.

H_2 There will be no significant difference in the mean motivation score of teachers who perceive principals to exhibit a combination of high

Table 3

t-Test Analysis Comparing Scores of Transformational and Transactional Leadership

	Mean	SD	t-value	p
Transformational	2.96	.68	8.25	.000
Transactional	2.04	.49		

Note. N = 44 teachers; SD = Standard Deviation

transformational/moderate-to-low transactional leadership behaviors and teachers who perceive principals to exhibit a combination of high transactional/moderate-to-low transformational leadership behaviors.

Table 4 presents the results of the t-test for independent groups.

Table 4

t-Test Analysis Comparing Motivation Scores by Leadership Category

	<u>N</u>	M	SD	t-value	p
High Transformational/ Mod-Low Transactional	10	3.73	.43	3.35	.007
High Transactional/ Mod-Low Transformational	9	2.48	1.04		

Note. N = Number of teachers; SD = Standard Deviation

Since the observed probability of .007 exceeds the established .05 alpha level of significance, the null hypothesis was rejected. The conclusion is that the mean motivation score of teachers who perceive principals to exhibit a combination of high transformational/moderate-to-low transactional leadership behaviors is different (higher) than the mean motivation score of teachers who perceive principals to exhibit a combination of high transactional/moderate-to-low transformational leadership behaviors. Therefore, teachers perceived that their motivation to succeed and to exert effort toward achievement of expected goals was more positively influenced by principals exhibiting high transformational/moderate-to-low transactional leadership behaviors than by principals exhibiting high transactional/moderate-to-low transformational leadership behaviors.

H₃ The multiple correlation (R) between motivation scores and the linear combination of scores for charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration, contingent reward, and management-by-exception will equal zero.

Table 5 presents the results of multiple regression, stepwise method.

Since the observed probability of .000 exceeds the established .05 alpha level of significance, the null hypothesis was rejected. The conclusion is that there is a relationship between motivation scores and the linear combination of scores for charisma, inspiration, intellectual stimulation, individual consideration, contingent reward, and management-by-exception. Therefore, there is a predictive relationship between the six leadership factors, in combination, and teacher motivation.

Table 5

Stepwise Regression Analysis of Mean Scores for Transactional and Transformational Leadership Factors and Mean Motivation Scores

Last Step: Variables in the Equation					
Leadership Factors	SE B	Beta	df	F	Sig F
Intellectual Stimulation	.225	.256	2/41	52.13	.000
Charisma	.187	.634			

Note. Number = 44; Last Step: Multiple R = .85; R Square = .72; Adjusted R² = .72; Standard Error = .612; PIN = .05.

Only two factors, charisma and intellectual stimulation, remained in the regression equation as significant contributors of the variation associated with the motivation scores. Generally, then, it can be further concluded that, when combined with the other four leadership factors, charisma and intellectual stimulation appear to be strong predictors of the principal's capacity to heighten teachers' motivation to succeed and to exert effort to achieve expected goals.

Summary

The results of testing the hypotheses provide evidence that the leadership behaviors of principals in schools which educate students with moderate and

severe disabilities in regular education classrooms on a full-time basis were perceived by teachers to be more transformational than transactional. In addition, teachers perceived that transformational behaviors of principals had a greater impact on their motivation to do more than they originally expected to do, with a heightened motivation to succeed. Leadership behaviors which are charismatic and intellectually stimulating were the strongest predictors of teacher motivation.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to determine the leadership behaviors of principals in schools which educate students with moderate and severe disabilities in regular education classrooms. More specifically, the purpose was to determine whether principals were more transformational than transactional. Additionally, this study sought to determine whether transformational or transactional leadership behaviors of principals, as perceived by teachers, are more likely to impact teacher motivation to exert extra effort toward achievement of expected goals.

The intent of this chapter is to: (a) interpret and discuss the findings within the constraints of the study and in light of other related literature, (b) make concluding statements about the research, and (c) suggest recommendations for further study.

Interpretation and Discussion of Findings

Hypothesis 1

The data in Table 3 indicate that the difference between the transformational leadership mean the transactional leadership mean is statistically

significant at the .000 alpha level. These data provide evidence to support the hypothesis that principals in schools which educate students with moderate and severe disabilities in regular classrooms are perceived by teachers to exhibit a greater degree of transformational than transactional leadership behaviors.

Of the 44 teachers completing the MLQ, 66% indicated that their principal exhibited transformational patterns of behavior "fairly often" and transactional patterns of behavior "sometimes." Appendix J summarizes the distribution of transformational and transactional mean scores.

An issue posed by these findings was whether similar relationships between transformational and transactional leadership behaviors of principals are found in other educational settings. To shed light on this issue, the findings of the present study were compared to findings of the King (1989) study, which investigated leadership behaviors in K-12 and higher education settings. Findings for the K-12 educational setting were reported separately. The King study was similar to the present study in that: (a) subjects included educators at the elementary, middle, and senior high levels; (b) educators rated the leadership behaviors of their superiors, the majority of which were principals; and (c) data were collected via the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire, Form 5R. The schools in the King study, however, were not described as inclusive schools.

Overall, King (1989) found that transformational leadership behaviors and transactional leadership behaviors of superiors were nearly equally prevalent. King reported a moderate correlation coefficient ($r = .56$, $p < .001$) between

transformational leadership scores and transactional leadership scores. However, the correlation coefficient between transformational and transactional leadership scores was much lower for principals in the present study ($r = .22, p < .01$). Subsequently, differences between the findings of the present study and those of the King study provide probable basis for raising the issue of whether there may be a difference in the leadership behavior of principals in inclusive settings and principals in other K-12 educational settings.

A reasonable explanation for differences between leadership behaviors in King (1989) and the present study is that inclusion represents a major change for most schools. Bass (1985) has proposed that transformational leadership is more prevalent in times of organizational change.

Hypothesis 2

The data in Table 4 indicate that the difference in mean scores for principals who were perceived to exhibit a combination of high transformational and moderate-to-low transactional behaviors and principals who were perceived to exhibit a combination of high transactional and moderate-to-low transformational behaviors is statistically significant at the .007 alpha level. These results provide evidence to support the hypothesis that principals who are perceived to exhibit highly transformational behaviors have a greater impact on teachers' motivation to exert extra effort than principals who are perceived to exhibit highly transactional behaviors.

The motivation scores indicate that highly transactional leadership behaviors moderately influenced teachers' motivation. In contrast, highly transformational leadership behaviors had an even stronger relationship with teachers' motivation and willingness to exert effort "beyond their original expectations". Results of the testing of hypothesis 2 lend support to Bass' (1985) contention that transformational leadership augments transactional leadership. Bass states that, "Transactional leadership provides a basis for effective leadership, but a greater amount of effort, effectiveness, and satisfaction is possible from employees by augmenting transactional with transformational leadership" (Bass & Avolio, 1990, p. 31).

Hypothesis 3

The results in Table 5 indicate that the multiple correlation of .85 between motivation scores and the linear combination of transformational and transactional leadership factor scores is statistically significant at the .000 alpha level. The data provide evidence that there is a predictive relationship between the principals' ability to motivate teachers to exert effort and the combined transformational and transactional leadership factors.

Seventy percent (70%) of the variation in the motivation scores is attributed to the variation in the combination of charisma and intellectual stimulation factor scores. Both of these factors are elements of transformational leadership. To determine which factor may have the strongest relationship with motivation,

the Pearson Product Moment Correlation procedure was employed (see Appendix N). The coefficient between motivation scores and charisma factor scores was higher ($r = .81$) than the coefficient between motivation scores and intellectual stimulation factor scores ($r = .75$), suggesting that charisma has the greatest propensity to contribute to the regression.

These findings suggest that the greater the extent to which the principal is viewed as charismatic, the stronger is the likelihood that teachers will be influenced by the principal to perform beyond teachers' original expectations. Yukl (1982) suggests that principals have a high potential for charismatic influence. This view is supported by Brookover, Brady, Flood, Schweitzer and Wisenbaker (1979) and Hall, Hord and Griffin (1980) in that:

Research suggests that a confident, persuasive principal with a clear vision of how to transform his or her school into an exceptional place has a better chance of winning teacher commitment to new policies and programs and inspiring extra effort to attain academic objectives (cited in Yukl, 1982, p. 8).

It was anticipated that all four transformational leadership factors would make a significant contribution to the principal's impact on teacher motivation. However, the fact that only two of the four transformational factors (charisma and intellectual stimulation) significantly contributed to the variance in teacher motivation, raised a question about the lack of a significant contribution by the other two factors (inspiration and individualized consideration).

To shed light on this issue, a correlation matrix was produced of the six leadership factors (see Appendix M). Intercorrelation coefficients of the

transformational leadership factors were very high, ranging from .71 to .90. Inter-correlations between charisma, inspiration, and individual consideration were highest. In addition, inspiration and individualized consideration were each highly correlated with teacher motivation ($r=.79$ for each factor). However, when combined with charisma, the additional variance accounted for by either factor beyond that attributed to charisma, was negligible.

This discovery points out that whether a principal exhibits behaviors which are charismatic, or inspirational, or considerate of individual teacher needs, the principal may have about the same opportunity to impact teacher motivation. Bass' theory of transformational leadership distinguishes charisma, inspiration, individualized consideration and intellectual stimulation as four distinct leadership factors. Yet, in relationship to teacher motivation, in this study, charisma, inspiration, and individualized consideration tended to be so closely related as to be indistinguishable from each other.

Other researchers, using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), have questioned Bass' four-factor model of transformational leadership. In the Hoover (1991) study, charisma and inspiration were not distinguished as distinct leadership factors. Further, King (1989) concluded that the transformational scales may be measuring a single construct, charisma, rather than four separate constructs. Arends (1993) applied canonical analysis to data collected by the MLQ with teachers in British Columbia. His findings were supportive of a single construct conception of transformational leadership. The limited research

investigating transformational leadership behavior in educational settings (Leithwood, 1992) forestalls strong conclusions regarding the appropriateness of the four-factor model for educational leaders. Additional research in this area is needed to draw firmer conclusions.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The efficacy of achieving changes and meeting new challenges which provide equal educational opportunity for all students is dependent, in large part, upon the principal's leadership and ability to influence teacher motivation. The emerging trend of inclusion of disabled students in regular education classrooms prompted the need to determine those leadership behaviors of principals which influence teacher motivation and which may ultimately impact the quality of education offered to students.

Generally, the findings of this study suggest that the leadership behaviors of principals in schools which educate students with moderate and severe disabilities in regular education classrooms are perceived to be more transformational than transactional. Additionally, this study suggests that principals who are highly transformational, as opposed to highly transactional, have a greater impact on teachers' motivation to perform beyond expectations. More specifically, transformational leadership behaviors which are charismatic and intellectually stimulating appear to be strong predictors of principals' ability to impact teacher motivation in inclusive education settings.

The findings of this study not only answered questions, but raised several questions. One area of inquiry follows: Is transformational leadership of principals more prevalent in schools which educate students with disabilities in regular education classrooms than in other educational settings? And, do transformational leadership behaviors of principals in other educational settings impact teacher motivation at levels similar to that found in the inclusive schools of this study? In other words, does the condition of inclusion impact the leadership behaviors of principals in certain ways?

A second line of inquiry is concerned with the concept of change. It has been suggested that transformational leadership is more prevalent in organizations in times of change (Bass, 1985). Therefore the following questions are posed: Is transformational leadership more prevalent than transactional leadership in schools which are undergoing other kinds of major changes (those not related to inclusion)? Does transformational leadership have a greater impact on the principal's ability to motivate teachers than does transactional leadership in schools which are undergoing other kinds of major changes (those not related to inclusion)? In other words, does the condition of major organizational change impact the leadership behavior of principals in certain ways, without regard to the condition of inclusion?

These and other questions point to the need for further investigation. Inclusion is a recent and emerging trend, and as such, presents unresolved challenges and controversy. Limited attention has been focused on leadership

behaviors in inclusive educational settings. The exploratory results presented in this study serve as a springboard for further research which addresses the impact of leadership behaviors of principals in schools which educate students with disabilities in regular education classrooms, as well as other related issues.

The following specific recommendations for further study are offered:

1. It is recommended that this study be replicated to provide additional evidence of the validity of the findings. It is suggested that the sample size be expanded as a measure of increasing precision of the estimates. It is further recommended, if feasible, that a random sample be selected to increase the generalizability of the findings.
2. It is recommended that a study be conducted which investigates a relationship between the leadership behaviors of principals and the type of educational setting (e.g., inclusive vs. non-inclusive).
3. This study should consider level of school (e.g., elementary, middle, high), size of school, gender and ethnicity of the principal, student characteristics, and other demographic factors to determine if there is a relationship between principals' leadership behaviors within inclusive environments and demographic characteristics of the school and principal.
4. It is recommended that a study be conducted which investigates a relationship between leadership behaviors of principals and the degree to which the school is undergoing major organizational change.
5. It is recommended that future studies consider the appropriateness of

Bass' model for the field of education. More specifically, further research is needed to determine whether the six leadership factor subscales proposed by Bass are the best fit for educational leaders.

6. It is further recommended that future studies which investigate leadership behavior augment quantitative methods with qualitative methods. Such methods might include indepth interviews, observations by trained observers, and ethnographic techniques to measure leadership behaviors.

7. During the course of this study, supplementary analyses of the data were conducted. The results were not reported as they extend beyond the scope of this study. Based on these analyses, further investigation is recommended to determine if there is a relationship between: (a) principals' impact on teacher motivation and teachers' satisfaction with the principal's leadership behaviors, (b) principals' impact on teacher motivation and teachers' perception of the effectiveness of principals' leadership behavior, and (c) leadership behavior of the principal and teachers' level of satisfaction with the principal.

Appendix A

Definitions for Disability Labels: From the Revised Administrative Rules for
Special Education, Michigan Department of Education, July 1992

R 340.1701b Definitions; R to Y.

Rule 1b. As used in these rules:

- (a) "Regular education" means education other than special education programs and services.
- (b) "School social worker" means a social worker approved by the department pursuant to R 340.1012.
- (c) "Services" means instructional services or ancillary and other related services as defined in these rules.
- (d) "Short-term instructional objectives" means objectives written in measurable terms which relate to the annual goals and represent expected achievement over several weeks or months but not more than 1 year.
- (e) "Special education" means specially designed instruction, at no cost to the parents, to meet the unique educational needs of the special education student and is designed to develop the maximum potential of the special education student. All of the following are included in the definition of special education:
 - (i) Classroom instruction.
 - (ii) Instruction in physical education.
 - (iii) Instructional services defined in R 340.1701a(d).
 - (iv) Ancillary and other related services where specially designed instruction is provided and as identified in R 340.1701(c) (ii), (iii), (v), (vi), and (vii).
- (f) "Special education advisory committee" means a committee appointed by the state board of education to advise the state board of education on matters related to the delivery of special education programs and services.
- (g) "Special education classroom" means a classroom that is under the direction of an approved special education teacher and in which a person receives specially designed instruction.
- (h) "Specialized transportation" means transportation provided in an approved school vehicle in a regular seat, wheelchair, or an approved baby seat. This specifically excludes students who need ambulance service, a medical attendant, or other care outside the responsibility of the schools.
- (i) "Superintendent" means the chief executive officer of the public agency or his or her designee.
- (j) "Vocational education" means vocational education as defined in section 7 of Act No. 451 of the Public Acts of 1976, as amended, being §380.7 of the Michigan Compiled Laws.
- (k) "Vocational evaluation" means an evaluation conducted before vocational education, which shall include, at a minimum, an assessment of the student's personal adjustment skills, aptitudes, interests, and achievements and special information regarding the student's handicapping condition.
- (l) "Work activity center" means a program designed exclusively to provide therapeutic activities for handicapped persons whose handicap is so severe that their productive capacity is inconsequential. A work activity center may be operated in conjunction with a sheltered workshop licensed under the fair labor standards act of 1938, as amended, 29 U.S.C. §201 et seq.
- (m) "Youth placed in a juvenile detention facility" means an individual who is placed by the court in a detention facility for juvenile delinquents and who is not attending a regular school program due to court order.

R 340.1702 "Handicapped person" defined.

Rule 2. "Handicapped person" means a person who is under 26 years of age and who is determined by an individualized educational planning committee or a hearing officer to have a characteristic or set of characteristics pursuant to R 340.1703 to R 340.1715 that necessitates special education or ancillary and other related services, or both. Determination of an impairment shall not be based solely on behaviors relating to environmental, cultural, or economic differences.

R 340.1703 Determination of severely mentally impaired.

Rule 3.(1) The severely mentally impaired shall be determined through manifestation of all of the following behavioral characteristics:

- (a) Development at a rate approximately 4 1/2 or more standard deviations below the mean as determined through intellectual assessment.
- (b) Lack of development primarily in the cognitive domain.
- (c) Impairment of adaptive behavior.
- (2) A determination of impairment shall be based upon a comprehensive evaluation by a multidisciplinary evaluation team which shall include a psychologist.
- (3) A determination of impairment shall not be based solely on behaviors relating to environmental, cultural, or economic differences.

R 340.1704 Determination of trainable mentally impaired.

Rule 4.(1) The trainable mentally impaired shall be determined through manifestation of all of the following behavioral characteristics:

- (a) Development at a rate approximately 3 to 4 1/2 standard deviations below the mean as determined through intellectual assessment.
- (b) Lack of development primarily in the cognitive domain.
- (c) Impairment of adaptive behavior.
- (2) A determination of impairment shall be based upon a comprehensive evaluation by a multidisciplinary evaluation team which shall include a psychologist.
- (3) A determination of impairment shall not be based solely on behaviors relating to environmental, cultural, or economic differences.

R 340.1705 Determination of educable mentally impaired.

Rule 5.(1) The educable mentally impaired shall be determined through the manifestation of all of the following behavioral characteristics:

- (a) Development at a rate approximately 2 to 3 standard deviations below the mean as determined through intellectual assessment.
- (b) Scores approximately within the lowest 6 percentiles on a standardized test in reading and arithmetic.
- (c) Lack of development primarily in the cognitive domain.
- (d) Impairment of adaptive behavior.
- (2) A determination of impairment shall be based upon a comprehensive evaluation by a multidisciplinary evaluation team which shall include a psychologist.
- (3) A determination of impairment shall not be based solely on behaviors relating to environmental, cultural, or economic differences.

R 340.1706 Determination of emotionally impaired.

Rule 6.(1) The emotionally impaired shall be determined through manifestation of behavioral problems primarily in the affective domain, over an extended period of time, which adversely affect the person's education to the extent that the person cannot profit from regular learning experiences without special education support. The problems result in behaviors manifested by 1 or more of the following characteristics:

(a) Inability to build or maintain satisfactory interpersonal relationships within the school environment.

(b) Inappropriate types of behavior or feelings under normal circumstances.

(c) General pervasive mood of unhappiness or depression.

(d) Tendency to develop physical symptoms or fears associated with personal or school problems.

(2) The term "emotionally impaired" also includes persons who, in addition to the above characteristics, exhibit maladaptive behaviors related to schizophrenia or similar disorders. The term "emotionally impaired" does not include persons who are socially maladjusted, unless it is determined that such persons are emotionally impaired.

(3) The emotionally impaired shall not include persons whose behaviors are primarily the result of intellectual, sensory, or health factors.

(4) A determination of impairment shall be based on data provided by a multidisciplinary team, which shall include a comprehensive evaluation by both of the following:

(a) A psychologist or psychiatrist.

(b) A school social worker.

(5) A determination of impairment shall not be based solely on behaviors relating to environmental, cultural, or economic differences.

R 340.1707 Determination of hearing impaired.

Rule 7.(1) The term "hearing impaired" is a generic term which includes both deaf persons and those who are hard of hearing and which refers to students with any type or degree of hearing loss that interferes with development or adversely affects educational performance in a regular

classroom setting. The term "deaf" refers to those hearing impaired students whose hearing loss is so severe that the auditory channel is not the primary means of developing speech and language skills. The term "hard of hearing" refers to those hearing impaired students with permanent or fluctuating hearing loss which is less severe than the hearing loss of deaf persons and which generally permits the use of the auditory channel as the primary means of developing speech and language skills.

(2) A determination of impairment shall be based upon a comprehensive evaluation by a multidisciplinary evaluation team which shall include an audiologist and an otolaryngologist or otologist.

(3) A determination of impairment shall not be based solely on behaviors relating to environmental, cultural, or economic differences.

R 340.1708 Determination of visually impaired.

Rule 8.(1) The visually impaired shall be determined through the manifestation of both of the following:

(a) A visual impairment which interferes with development or which adversely affects educational performance.

(b) One or more of the following:

(i) A central visual acuity for near or far point vision of 20/70 or less in the better eye after routine refractive correction.

(ii) A peripheral field of vision restricted to not more than 20 degrees.

(iii) A diagnosed progressively deteriorating eye condition.

(2) A determination of impairment shall be based upon a comprehensive evaluation by a multidisciplinary evaluation team which shall include an ophthalmologist or optometrist.

(3) A determination of impairment shall not be based solely on behaviors relating to environmental, cultural, or economic differences.

R 340.1709 Determination of physically and otherwise health impaired.

Rule 9.(1) The physically and otherwise health impaired shall be determined through the manifestation of a physical or other health impairment which adversely affects educational performance and which may require physical adaptations within the school environment.

(2) Determination of impairment shall be based upon a comprehensive evaluation by a multidisciplinary evaluation team, which shall include 1 of the following:

- (a) An orthopedic surgeon.
- (b) An internist.
- (c) A neurologist.
- (d) A pediatrician.

(e) Any other approved physician as defined in Act No. 368 of the Public Acts of 1978, as amended, being §333.1101 et seq. of the Michigan Compiled Laws.

(3) A determination of impairment shall not be based solely on behaviors relating to environmental, cultural, or economic differences.

R 340.1710 Determination of speech and language impaired.

Rule 10.(1) The speech and language impaired shall be determined through the manifestation of 1 or more of the following communication impairments which adversely affects educational performance.

(a) Articulation impairment, including omissions, substitutions, or distortions of sound,

persisting beyond the age at which maturation alone might be expected to correct the deviation.

(b) Voice impairment, including inappropriate pitch, loudness, or voice quality.

(c) Fluency impairment, including abnormal rate of speaking, speech interruptions, and repetition of sounds, words, phrases, or sentences, which interferes with effective communication.

(d) One or more of the following language impairments: phonological, morphological, syntactic, semantic, or pragmatic use of aural/oral language as evidenced by both of the following:

(i) A spontaneous language sample demonstrating inadequate language functioning.

(ii) Test results, on not less than 2 standardized assessment instruments or 2 subtests designed to determine language functioning, which indicate inappropriate language functioning for the child's age.

(2) A handicapped person who has a severe speech and language impairment but whose primary disability is other than speech and language shall be eligible for speech and language services pursuant to R 340.1745(a).

(3) A determination of impairment shall be based upon a comprehensive evaluation by a multidisciplinary team which shall include a teacher of the speech and language impaired.

(4) A determination of impairment shall not be based solely on behaviors relating to environmental, cultural, or economic differences.

R 340.1711 "Preprimary impaired" defined; determination.

Rule 11.(1) "Preprimary impaired" means a child through 5 years of age whose primary impairment cannot be differentiated through existing criteria within R 340.1703 to R 340.1710 or R 340.1713 to R 340.1715 and who manifests an impairment in 1 or more areas of development equal to or greater than 1/2 of the expected development for chronological age, as measured by more than 1 developmental scale which cannot be resolved by medical or nutritional intervention. This definition shall not preclude identification of a child through existing criteria within R 340.1703 to R 340.1710 or R 340.1713 to R 340.1715.

(2) A determination of impairment shall be based upon a comprehensive evaluation by a multidisciplinary evaluation team.

(3) A determination of impairment shall not be based solely on behaviors relating to environmental, cultural, or economic differences.

R 340.1713 "Specific learning disability" defined; determination.

Rule 13.(1) "Specific learning disability" means a disorder in 1 or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or in using language, spoken or written, which may manifest itself in an imperfect ability to listen, think, speak, read, write, spell, or to do mathematical calculations. The term includes such conditions as perceptual handicaps, brain injury, minimal brain disfunction, dyslexia, and developmental aphasia. The term does not include children who have learning problems which are primarily the result of visual, hearing, or motor handicaps, of mental retardation, of emotional disturbance, of autism, or of environmental, cultural, or economic disadvantage.

(2) The individualized educational planning committee may determine that a child has a specific learning disability if the child does not achieve commensurate with his or her age and ability levels in 1 or more of the areas listed in this subrule, when provided with learning experiences appropriate for the child's age and ability levels, and if the multidisciplinary evaluation team finds that a child has a severe discrepancy between achievement and intellectual ability in 1 or more of the following areas:

- (a) Oral expression.
- (b) Listening comprehension.
- (c) Written expression.
- (d) Basic reading skill.
- (e) Reading comprehension.
- (f) Mathematics calculation.
- (g) Mathematics reasoning.

(3) The individualized educational planning committee shall not identify a child as having a specific learning disability if the severe discrepancy between ability and achievement is primarily the result of any of the following:

- (a) A visual, hearing, or motor handicap.
- (b) Mental retardation.
- (c) Emotional disturbance.
- (d) Autism.
- (e) Environmental, cultural, or economic disadvantage.

(4) A determination of impairment shall be based upon a comprehensive evaluation by a multidisciplinary evaluation team, which shall include at least both of the following:

- (a) The child's regular teacher or, if the child does not have a regular teacher, a regular classroom teacher qualified to teach a child of his or her age or, for a child of less than school age, an individual qualified by the state educational agency to teach a child of his or her age.
- (b) At least 1 person qualified to conduct individual diagnostic examinations of children, such as a school psychologist, a teacher of speech and language impaired, or a teacher consultant.

R 340.1714 Determination of severely multiply impaired.

Rule 14.(1) Students with severe multiple impairments shall be determined through the manifestation of either of the following:

(a) Development at a rate of 2 to 3 standard deviations below the mean and 2 or more of the following conditions:

(i) A hearing impairment so severe that the auditory channel is not the primary means of developing speech and language skills.

(ii) A visual impairment so severe that the visual channel is not sufficient to guide independent mobility.

(iii) A physical impairment so severe that activities of daily living cannot be achieved without assistance.

(iv) A health impairment so severe that the student is medically at risk.

(b) Development at a rate of 3 or more standard deviations below the mean or students for whom evaluation instruments do not provide a valid measure of cognitive ability and 1 or more of the following conditions:

(i) A hearing impairment so severe that the auditory channel is not the primary means of developing speech and language skills.

(ii) A visual impairment so severe that the visual channel is not sufficient to guide independent mobility.

(iii) A physical impairment so severe that activities of daily living cannot be achieved without assistance.

(iv) A health impairment so severe that the student is medically at risk.

(2) A determination of impairment shall be based upon a comprehensive evaluation by a multidisciplinary evaluation team, which shall include a psychologist and, depending upon the handicaps in the physical domain, the multidisciplinary evaluation team participants required in R 340.1707, R 340.1708, or R 340.1709.

(3) A determination of impairment shall not be based solely on behaviors relating to environmental, cultural, or economic differences.

R 340.1715 "Autism" defined; determination.

Rule 15.(1) "Autism" means a lifelong developmental disability which is typically manifested before 30 months of age. "Autism" is characterized by disturbances in the rates and sequences of cognitive, affective, psychomotor, language, and speech development.

(2) The manifestation of the characteristics specified in subrule (1) of this rule and all of the following characteristics shall determine if a person is autistic:

(a) Disturbance in the capacity to relate appropriately to people, events, and objects.

(b) Absence, disorder, or delay of language, speech, or meaningful communication.

(c) Unusual, or inconsistent response to sensory stimuli in 1 or more of the following:

(i) Sight.

(ii) Hearing.

(iii) Touch.

(iv) Pain.

(v) Balance.

(vi) Smell.

(vii) Taste.

(viii) The way a child holds his or her body.

(d) Insistence on sameness as shown by stereotyped play patterns, repetitive movements, abnormal preoccupation, or resistance to change.

(3) To be eligible under this rule, there shall be an absence of the characteristics associated with schizophrenia, such as delusions, hallucinations, loosening of associations, and incoherence.

(4) A determination of impairment shall be based upon a comprehensive evaluation by a multidisciplinary evaluation team. The team shall include, at a minimum, a psychologist or psychiatrist, a teacher of speech and language impaired, and a school social worker.

(5) A determination of impairment shall not be based solely on, behaviors relating to environmental, cultural, or economic differences.

Appendix B
Initial Principal Phone Contact Script

INITIAL PRINCIPAL PHONE CONTACT SCRIPT

Hello,

My name is Patreese Ingram. I'm a doctoral student at Western Michigan University in the Educational Leadership Department. I'm interested in studying the leadership behavior of principals in schools which educate moderately and severely disabled students in regular education classrooms on a full-time basis. Can I have a few minutes of your time to visit with you about the potential of your school being a site for my dissertation study, or is there a better time for you, when I can call back?

(Assuming principal can talk now)

Right now I'm attempting to identify schools within this district which are including moderate and severe students, and which may be willing to participate in the study.

1. Does your school include moderate and severely disabled students in regular classrooms?
2. Are these students included on a full-time basis? _____
3. How many students are included? _____
4. What are the disability labels of students that are being considered by this district to be moderate and severe disabilities? _____

I'd like to read to you the purpose and description of the study. Do you have a few more minutes?

(assuming principal has time)

The literature clearly suggests that the leadership behavior of the principal is critical to the successful implementation of inclusion programs. The purposes of the study I'll be conducting are two-fold: (1) to determine the leadership behavior which tends to be associated with principals in schools which include moderate and severe students in regular classes full-time, and (2) to determine the impact of the principal's leadership behavior on teacher motivation in these schools.

The results of this study may suggest that there are certain leadership behaviors which enhance teacher effort and performance.

I have identified this school as a potential site. It would help my research and benefit the body of leadership literature if you would be willing to have this school participate in the study.

Participating would entail those teachers who have moderate and severe students in regular classes full time, completing a questionnaire that would take about 20 minutes. The anonymity of teachers would be preserved, and the results would not reflect any individual teacher or any individual school.

Are there any questions I can answer for you?

Would you be comfortable with your school participating in this study?

(if yes) Great. I appreciate your support in this effort. Within the next few weeks I will be sending you a letter suggesting a couple of alternative approaches to data collection for your consideration. To help me in planning, when is your school's Spring Break? If you have any questions of me, please do not hesitate to contact me. I may be reached at (616) 243-6041 or (616) 771-2082. Again, I appreciate your willingness to participate.

(if no) May I ask, for my notes, why you would not be interested in having this school participate in the study?

(This information may be helpful in determining if those who do not wish to participate are similar in some way)

Appendix C
Confirmation Letter to Principals

Patreese D. Ingram
932 Lancashire Ct. SE
Grand Rapids, MI 49508

March 22, 1993

Dear

Thank you for supporting this research effort which focuses on the leadership behavior of principals in schools which educate students with disabilities in regular education. The participation of your teachers will make an important contribution in the area of educational leadership.

In an effort to maintain consistency among all schools and to protect the integrity of the study, the following data collection procedure is outlined below.

- * The names of teachers are provided to the researcher.
- * Questionnaires are mailed directly to the school, addressed to each teacher.
- * Upon completion, teachers return the questionnaire to the researcher in the stamped, self-addressed envelope provided by the researcher.

In accordance with university policies regarding the use of human subjects, teacher responses will be completely anonymous. No name or any other identifying character or mark will be placed on the questionnaire or return envelope.

Please list, on the attached form, the names of teachers who instruct, in regular education classrooms, students considered by your district to have moderate or severe disabilities. If you have any questions or concerns regarding any step in the procedure outlined above, please contact me. I may be reached at (616) 771-2082 or (616) 243-6041.

In addition, please provide the information requested under the heading Student And School Information, on the attached sheet. Upon receipt of this material, planning for this school's participation in the study can be completed. The next step will be mailing of questionnaires to teachers at your school.

In this study the data collection instrument will be the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (Form 5R). This questionnaire is copyrighted by Bernard Bass, and is published by Consulting Psychologist Press, Incorporated. Attached, for your review, is a copy of the cover letter which will accompany the questionnaire mailed to teachers.

I look forward to receiving your materials soon. Again, your support of this research effort is greatly appreciated. If, at any time, you have questions, do not hesitate to contact me at one of the numbers listed above.

Cordially,

Patreese D. Ingram
Doctoral Student

Charles Warfield, Ph. D.
Doctoral Dissertation Committee Chairperson

Appendix D
List of Study Participants Form

LIST OF STUDY PARTICIPANTS

Please list the names of teachers in your school who instruct students with moderate or severe disabilities in their regular education classrooms on a full-time basis. Full-time is intended to mean that the student is not provided instruction in a categorical special education classroom or separate facility. If a class is team taught, include the names of both teachers.

1. _____
2. _____
3. _____
4. _____
5. _____
6. _____
7. _____
8. _____
9. _____
10. _____
11. _____
12. _____
13. _____
14. _____
15. _____

If additional space is needed, please include a separate sheet.

Principal _____

Appendix E
Student and School Information Form

STUDENT AND SCHOOL INFORMATION FORM

Name of School _____

Please provide the following information.

Student Information

1. Number of students with either moderate or severe disabilities _____
2. Number of students with moderate or severe disabilities who are educated in regular education classrooms on a full-time basis. (instruction is not provided in a categorical special education classroom or separate facility) _____
3. Prior to inclusion in regular education classrooms, were these students educated in: (Check all that apply)

Separate categorical classrooms in this school _____

Separate categorical classrooms in a district program located in a different school _____

Separate facility for students with disabilities _____

Other (briefly explain) _____

4. When did full-time inclusion of students with moderate or severe disabilities in regular classrooms begin at this school? _____

General School Information

1. Number of teachers in your school _____
2. To assist me in finalizing timelines for the study, please indicate when the 1992-93 school year ends for teachers _____

Thank you for providing this information. Please return this form in the self-addressed stamped envelope to:

Patreese Ingram
932 Lancashire Ct. SE
Grand Rapids, MI 49508

Appendix F
Cover Letter to Teachers

College of Education
Department of Educational Leadership



Kalamazoo, Michigan 49008-5193
616 387-3879

WESTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY

Month Day, 1993

Dear Classroom Teacher:

A variety of forces have led to a dramatic change in the way many parents and educators have come to think about educating children with moderate and severe disabilities. A small, but growing number of schools are including these students in regular education classrooms. As a teacher who is directly involved in an inclusion program, you are in a unique position to contribute to a research study concerned with educational environments which support the inclusion of students with disabilities. The study is a part of my doctoral dissertation in the Educational Leadership Department of Western Michigan University.

The focus of this study is the leadership behavior of principals. The purposes of the study are two-fold: (1) to determine the leadership behavior which tends to be associated with principals in schools which include moderately and severely disabled students in regular education classrooms on a full-time basis; and (2) to determine the impact of the principal's leadership behavior on teacher motivation in these settings.

One of the most appropriate persons to describe the leadership behavior of such principals is the teacher who educates students with challenging disabilities in their regular classrooms. By participating in this study, you will be furnishing information which will help to identify those principal behaviors which teachers believe may enhance teacher efforts to serve students with disabilities.

Participation is accomplished by responding to the enclosed questionnaire which takes about 20 minutes to complete. Instructions for completion are attached. Your responses will be completely anonymous. Neither your name, nor any other identifying code will be placed on the questionnaire or return envelope.

You have been identified as a potential participant, and your participation has been endorsed by your principal. The success of the study is dependent upon a high rate of teacher participation. It would help my research and contribute to the body of leadership literature if you would be willing to complete the attached questionnaire and return it to me in the self-addressed, stamped envelope by _____.

Your support in this research effort is greatly appreciated.

Cordially,

Patreese D. Ingram
Doctoral Student

Charles Warfield, Ph. D.
Dissertation Committee Chairperson

INSTRUCTIONS FOR COMPLETING THE LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE

1. The marking instructions on the first page (upper left corner), and the directions on the second page of the questionnaire are self-explanatory.
2. Please complete the questionnaire individually, reflecting your own opinions. Do not consult with others to answer the questions.
3. Answer questions 1 - 76 and 80. It is not necessary to answer questions 77, 78, or 79.
4. Return your completed questionnaire in the envelope which has been provided. Mail by _____.

Appendix G

Human Subjects Institutional Review
Board Approval Letter

Human Subjects Institutional Review Board



Kalamazoo, Michigan 49008-3899

WESTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY

Date: March 25, 1993

To: Patreese Ingram

From: M. Michele Burnette, Chair *M. Michele Burnette*

Re: HSIRB Project Number 93-03-10

This letter will serve as confirmation that your research project entitled "A descriptive study of the leadership behavior of principals in schools which educate students with moderate and severe disabilities in regular classrooms" has been approved under the exempt category of review by the Human Subjects Institutional Review Board. The conditions and duration of this approval are specified in the Policies of Western Michigan University. You may now begin to implement the research as described in the approval application.

You must seek reapproval for any changes in this design. You must also seek reapproval if the project extends beyond the termination date.

The Board wishes you success in the pursuit of your research goals.

Approval Termination: March 25, 1994

xc: Warfield, EL

Appendix H

Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire - Sample Items



Consulting
Psychologists
Press, Inc.

SAMPLE ITEMS FOR THE MULTIFACTOR LEADERSHIP QUESTIONNAIRE RATER FORM

by Bernard M. Bass and Bruce J. Avolio

This is a questionnaire to provide a description of a leader. When an item is irrelevant or does not apply, or where you are uncertain or don't know, leave the answer blank. Make no more than one mark for each question. This questionnaire is to be answered *anonymously*.

Mark the statement below which applies best:

- ☐ I report directly to the person I am rating.
- ☐ I am a peer or co-worker of the person I am rating.
- ☐ The person I am rating reports directly to me.
- ☐ I am a client, customer, or constituent of the person I am rating.

Directions: Listed below are descriptive statements. For each statement, we would like you to judge how frequently it fits the person you are describing.

Example: *"The person I am rating is someone I can discuss my problems with."*

Use this key for the five possible responses:

0	1	2	3	4
Not at all	Once in awhile	Sometimes	Fairly Often	Frequently

Transformational Leadership Factors

Charisma: The person I am rating has my trust in his or her ability to overcome any obstacle.

Inspiration: The person I am rating uses symbols and images to focus our efforts.

Intellectual Stimulation: The person I am rating enables me to think about old problems in new ways.

Individualized Consideration: The person I am rating coaches me if I need it.

Transactional Leadership Factors

Contingent Reward: The person I am rating makes sure there is close agreement between what he or she expects me to do and what I can get from him or her for my effort.

Management-by-Exception: The person I am rating takes action only when a mistake has occurred.

The Nonleadership Factor

Laissez-Faire: The person I am rating doesn't tell me where s/he stands on issues.

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Appendix I
Follow-up Letter to Teachers

College of Education
Department of Educational Leadership



Kalamazoo Michigan 49008-5193
616 387-3879

WESTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY

May, 1993

Dear Study Participant:

This is a questionnaire return follow-up inquiry. The anonymous nature of obtaining information via the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ), which was sent to you at an earlier time, makes it impossible to determine whether or not your completed questionnaire has been received.

Therefore, if you have completed and returned the questionnaire, please disregard this reminder/follow-up letter and thank you greatly for your participation. However, if you have not completed and returned the questionnaire, I respectfully urge you to do so at your earliest opportunity. The accuracy and timely completion of the study will invariably depend on sufficient and timely return of the questionnaires.

Additionally, if another questionnaire is needed, please call (616) 243-6041 and leave your name and the name of your school. I will mail the questionnaire to you immediately. Thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Patreese D. Ingram
Doctoral Student
Educational Leadership Department, WMU

Appendix J

Distribution of Mean Transformational and
Transactional Leadership Scores

Table J

Distribution of Mean and Percentile of Transformational
and Transactional Leadership Scores

	Mean	<u>Percentile</u>		
		25th	50th	75th
Transformational	2.96	2.42	3.13	3.49
Transactional	2.04	1.70	2.00	2.30

Number = 44

Appendix K

Means, Standard Deviations (SD), and Minimum and Maximum
Values for Scores of Transformational and
Transactional Leadership Behaviors

Table K

Means, Standard Deviations (SD), and Minimum and
Maximum Values for Scores of Transformational
and Transactional Leadership Behaviors

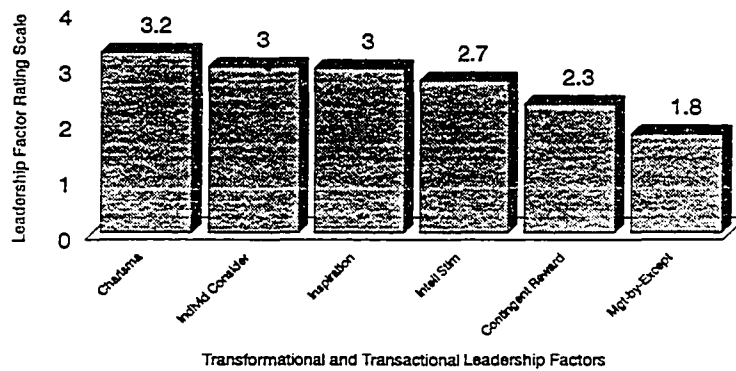
Transformational Factors	Mean	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Charisma	3.24	.77	0.20	4.00
Individual Consid.	2.99	.73	1.00	4.00
Inspiration	2.95	.76	1.00	4.00
Intellectual Stim.	2.73	.65	1.50	4.00
Transactional Factors				
Contingent Reward	2.31	.69	0.80	3.80
Management by Excep.	1.77	.52	0.90	2.90
Laissez-Faire	1.39	.71	0.40	3.20

Note. Number = 44; SD = Standard Deviation
Individual Consid. = Individual Consideration; Intellectual
Stim. = Intellectual Stimulation; Management by Excep. =
Management by Exception

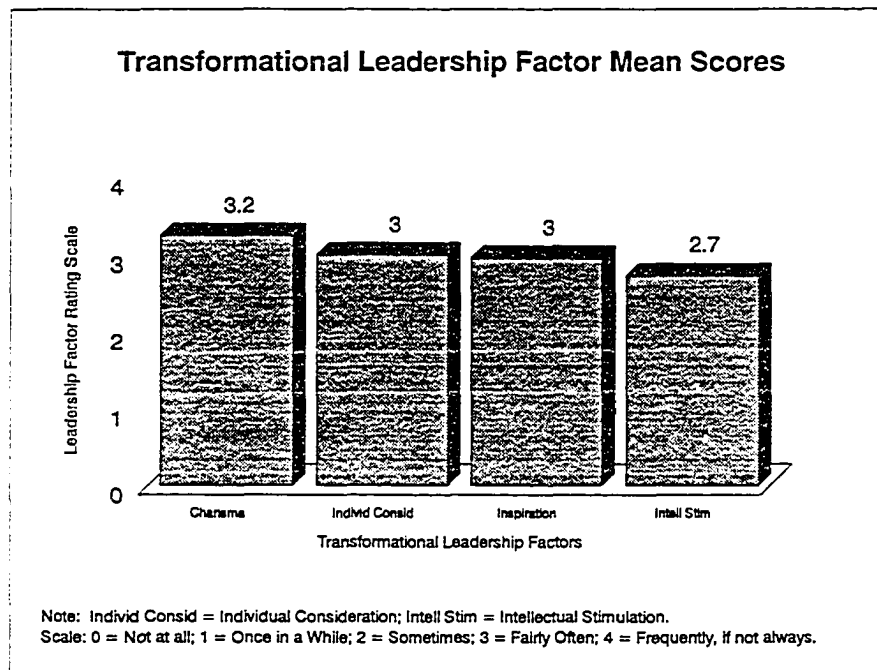
Appendix L

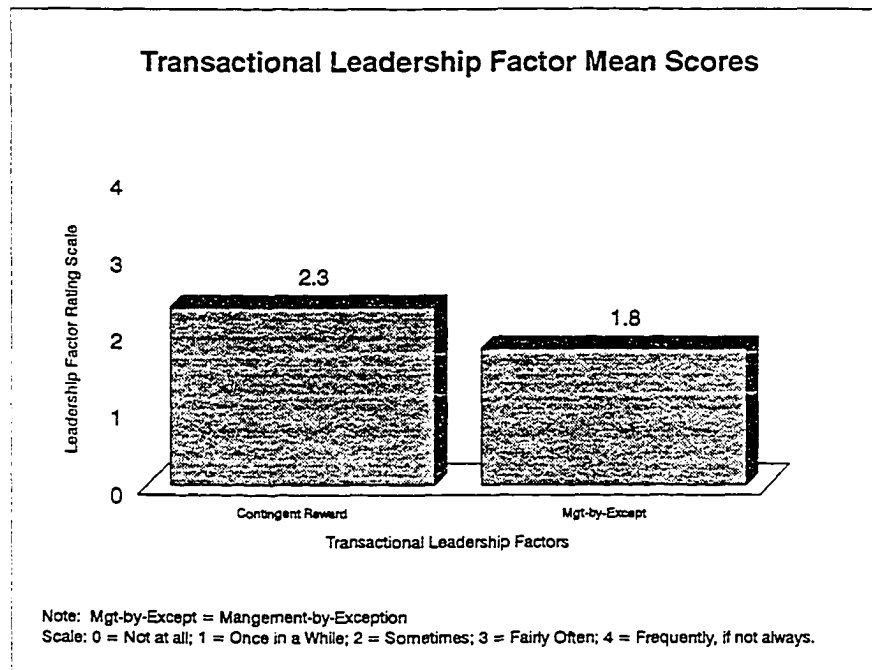
Graphs of Transformational and Transactional
Leadership Factor Mean Scores

Transformational and Transactional Leadership Factor Mean Scores



Note: Individ Consider = Individual Consideration; Intell Stim = Intellectual Stimulation; Mgt-by-Except = Management-by-Exception. Scale: 0 = Not At All; 1 = Once in a While; 2 = Sometimes; 3 = Fairly Often; 4 = Frequently, if not always.





Appendix M

Intercorrelation Coefficients of Leadership Factors

Table M

Intercorrelation Coefficients of Leadership Factors

	Intell	Individ	Inspir	Conrew	Mgtbyex	Laisse
Charisma	.77*	.90*	.87*	.38**	-.24d	-.57*
Intell	----	.79*	.81*	.38**	.03	-.38**
Individ		----	.85*	.42**	-.14	-.55*
Inspir			----	.37*	-.17	-.57*
Conrew				----	.27***	-.23****
Mgtbyex					----	.53*

Note. Number = 44; Scales are abbreviated as follows:

Intell, Intellectual Stimulation; Inspir, Inspiration; Conrew, Contingent Reward;

Mgtbyex, Management-By-Exception; Laisse, Laissez-Faire.

one-tailed * $p = 0.0$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .05$; **** $p < .1$

Appendix N

Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficients Between Leadership Factors and Motivation, Satisfaction, and Effectiveness

Table N

Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficients Between Leadership Factors and Motivation, Satisfaction, and Effectiveness

Leadership Factor	Motivation	Satisfaction	Effectiveness
Charisma	.81 **	.77 **	.72 **
Individual Consideration	.79 **	.73 **	.69 **
Inspiration	.79 **	.64 **	.61 **
Intellectual Stimulation	.75 **	.52 **	.51 **
Contingent Reward	.34 *	.29 *	.26 *
Management By Exception	-.25	-.27 *	-.15
Laissez-Faire	-.52 **	-.73 **	-.60 **

Note. ** one-tail sig. = .000; * one-tail sig. < .05

Appendix O

Results of Student and School Information Form

STUDENT AND SCHOOL INFORMATION FORM

Name of School _____

Student Information

Please provide the following information regarding students in this school who have moderate or severe disabilities.

1. Number of students with either moderate or severe disabilities
 - * Number of moderate or severely disabled students ranged from 3 - 20
2. Number of students with either moderate or severe disabilities who are educated in regular education classrooms on a full-time basis. (instruction is not provided in a categorical special education classroom or separate facility)
 - * Number of moderate or severely disabled students "included" ranged from 1 - 20
 - * Percentage of moderate or severely disabled students "included" ranged from 10 - 100%
The mode was 100%
3. Prior to inclusion in regular education classrooms, were these students educated in: (Check all that apply)

Separate categorical classrooms in this school

- * 8 of 11 schools checked this response

Separate categorical classrooms in a district program located in a different school

- * 9 of 11 schools checked this response

Separate facility for students with disabilities

- * 6 of 11 schools checked this response

Other (briefly explain)

* 3 of 11 schools checked this response

Specific responses included:

resource room in same school

resource room at parents request

4. When did full-time inclusion of students with moderate or severe disabilities in regular classrooms begin at this school?

* Number of years with inclusion programs ranged from 1 - 13 years. The frequency was as follows:

<u>Years of Inclusion</u>	<u>Number of Schools</u>
1	2
2	3
3	4
4	1
13	1

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