Factors Influencing International School Leaders' Views of Inclusive Education and the

Inclusion of Students with Special Needs

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DEDICATIONS

To Brian, Augustus, and Andrew, my dream team.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to determine the factors influencing international school leaders' views of inclusive education and the inclusion of students with special needs. The first research question focuses on international school leaders' definition of inclusive education. The remaining questions examine the institutional, classroom, and individual factors that influence international school leaders' views of the inclusion of students with special needs.

The study is a mixed-methods design. In stage one of the research, a survey was administered to the current members of the Academy for International School Heads with a return rate of 16.5% via online. The survey is modeled after Bailey's Inclusion Attitudes Scale (2004). In the second stage, nine survey participants were selected for a semi-structured interview.

The study results are organized by research question. The study findings suggest that institutional factors play a prevalent role in influencing international school leaders' views on the inclusion of students with special needs. In particular, a lack of access to specialists, negative stakeholder views, admittance policies, and a lack of teacher training are identified as potential barriers to the inclusion of students with special needs at international schools. Classroom factors such as the level of special need and teacher workload/classroom management are also identified as obstacles while the social benefits are a facilitator. Individual factors do not appear to influence international school leaders' views on the inclusion of students with special needs; however, a specific

leadership approach that promotes inclusive education in international schools is

identified.

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CHAPTER ONE

STUDY INTRODUCTION

"[I]magine what might be achieved" (Ainscow and Sandill, 2010, p. 412).

Introduction

"While all societies have faced the fact of individuals who differed physically, intellectually, or socially, how these differences have been addressed mirrors the vibrant and shifting gestalt of societal dynamics and forms one critical indicator of a society's humanity" (Winzer, 2007, p. 21). Advocates for inclusive education seek to welcome all into a school community by rejecting exclusionary practices and the marginalization of peoples. Through a global focus and effort on inclusive education, a "reversal of the policy of invisibility that for centuries was the dominant paradigm in education [is] being replaced by one of equal access and education for all" (Fletcher, 2005, p. 279). This notion of inclusive education, however, reaches beyond the walls of the classroom or even the school building, for one of the guiding tenants of this movement is the belief that inclusive education "is not a marginal issue but is central to the achievement of high quality education for all learners and the development of more inclusive societies" (Inclusive Education, 2016). Hence, inclusive education has both a local and global context as it directly impacts the neighborhood school but is also characterized as a global phenomenon, as "it has emerged in a period that is characterized by globalization in many aspects of human activity" (Artiles & Dyson, 2005, p. 38).

Shortly after the World Declaration on Education for All in 1990, the Salamanca Declaration and Framework for Action (UNESCO, 1994), sought to refocus the effort to

educate all by specifically concentrating on students with disabilities. According to the 1994 Salamanca Framework:

> Schools should accommodate all children regardless of their physical, intellectual, social, linguistic or other conditions. This should include disabled and gifted children, street and working children, children from remote or nomadic populations, children from linguistic, ethnic or cultural minorities and children from other disadvantaged or marginalized areas or groups. (p. 6)

This framework has set the stage for a global focus on the issue of inclusive education, which was built on previous UN mandates such as the Declaration of the Rights of the Child (United Nations, 1959), United Nations Conventions Against Discrimination in Education (UNESCO, 1960), Declaration on the Rights of Mentally Retarded Persons (UN General Assembly, 1971), Declaration on the Rights of Disabled Person (United Nations, 1975), and the World Declaration on Education for All (UNESCO, 1990). Building on the foundation of the Salamanca Framework, the Dakar Framework (UNESCO, 2000) identifies the goal of Education For All (EFA) with six key goals that complement the Salamanca Framework; the first of which focuses on improving the access to education for the most vulnerable and disadvantaged (2004). Both frameworks establish the right to education for all. Yet, Christie (2011) cautions that "[a]s with other dimensions of modernity, rights are not always what they seem. While elegant in abstract, rights are often less clear in the complex conditions of life" (p. 3).

The concept of inclusive education emerges from a variety of discourses, which include, but are not limited to "social justice, diversity, equality, democracy, citizenship and identity" (Mac Ruairc, Ottesen, & Precey, 2013, p. 7). As a result of having so many origins, "some difficulty [arises] when offered as a rationale or framework upon which to base and shape a system of schooling" (Mac Ruairc et al., 2013, p. 7). Another challenge for implementing inclusive education is that there is not a universal definition. Ainscow and Miles (2008) identify five different perspectives or ways of defining inclusive education:

1. Inclusion is about educating students with special needs in mainstream classes.

2. Inclusion refers to education for those traditionally excluded as a result of disciplinary actions.

3. Inclusion is concerned with students typically excluded socially, for example pregnant girls.

4. Inclusive education means a common comprehensive school for all.

5. Inclusion is about educating all students, which is primarily a focus in the South where school is not always free and compulsory for all children. (Ainscow & Miles, 2008)

Armstrong, Armstrong and Spandagou (2011) maintain that inclusive education needs to be "understood in the context of an approach to the 'problems' of social diversity in societies that are highly diversified internally and yet globally interconnected" (p. 30). Each of the previously mentioned definitions deals with issues

of diversity within societies and schools, and each definition is concerned with issues of access and equity. Given the foci of access and equity, studying inclusive practices within (mostly) private international schools poses some conundrums as the nature of private schools is that they are generally exclusive. Hence forth, and for the purpose of this research, the discussion on inclusive education within international schools focuses solely on students with special needs.

Just as inclusive education has become internationalized so too has international education. The demand and desire for an international education has expanded due to market forces such as globalization and technological development. The growth of the K-12 international school sector has increased fourfold since 2002 alone. In 2002, one million children worldwide attended international schools (ISC Research, 2013). The latest data from 2015 suggest that the number of students has now increased to over four million in 8,000 schools (ISC Research, 2016). Similarly, in 2014, the International Baccalaureate Organization had a "significant milestone in the growth of IB World Schools, with 5,000 programmes creating educational opportunities for 1.3 million students worldwide" (IB Annual Review, 2014). The students of these international schools, according to Hayden and Thompson (2008), can be divided into three distinct categories "the global nomad, the returnee, and the host country national" (p. 43).

In many ways there are strong parallels to the proliferation of inclusive education policies and the growth of international education - both phenomena arose from the pedagogical, political, and technological transformations of the twentieth century. With the rapid growth of international schools, along with the number of expatriates receiving

education outside of the state system and the number of local elite choosing this option of education, the policy implications are far and wide (Hayden & Thompson, 2008).

Statement of the Problem

A great deal of literature focuses on the stakeholder perceptions of inclusive education, such as teachers' perceptions (Bowman, 1986; Center & Ward, 1987; Leyser, Kapperman, & Keller 1994) and principals' perceptions on inclusion (Bailey & du Plessis, 1997; Barnett & Monda-Amaya, 1998; Downing, Eichinger & Williams, 1997; Dyal, Flynt & Bennett-Walker, 1996; Horrocks, White & Roberts, 2008; Praisner, 2003; Taylor, 2005). However, a considerable gap exists in the literature when it comes to inclusive education and practices within the international school setting, though a few studies do examine the extent to which inclusive education is occurring in private or independent schools. For example, Walton, Nel, Hugo and Muller (2009) determine in their study of independent schools in South Africa that students who typically might "experience barriers to learning" are in fact included in such schools (p. 105). Likewise, Das and Kattumuri (2011) examine children with disabilities in private inclusive schools in Mumbai and their experiences and support. Woodhead, Frost and James (2012) conclude that in India there is "little evidence that the growth in private school sector will make a major postitive contribution to the achievement of EFA goals" (p. 8).

There are many factors that may predict the success of an inclusive education program or school. Many scholars believe that the success of any program depends on the school leader. For inclusive education, the significant role of school leaders cannot be overstated when it comes to whether or not a school embraces inclusive education

practices (Angelides, 2012; DiPaola, & Walther-Thomas, 2003; Ingram, 1997; Riehl, 2000; Ryan, 2006). Riehl (2000) argues that historically principals have not been effective change agents in the realm of inclusive education. However, this is not a static issue; principals, as the leaders, can help define the meanings of such terms and influence the organizational culture of schools (Riehl, 2000). There is also evidence that the democratic process can create the conditions for learning with a diverse population; however, it is difficult to embrace this tradition in reality (Riehl, 2000). As with inclusive education in international schools, a significant gap exists in the literature when it comes to looking at the role of leadership in inclusive international education. Consequently, as more families live outside of their host country and as more nationals demand an international education, the issue surrounding who has access to this perceived 21st century education is important for families, students, policy makers and educators.

Significance of the Problem

On a practical level, international schools, particularly those in the private sector, are inherently self-selecting since "[t]hey are usually private and fee-paying schools" (Hayden, 2006, p. 11). Nonetheless, expatriate parents often have little choice in where to send their children while living in a foreign country, and therefore, the international school is generally the most viable option. Determining to what extent such schools provide services for students with special needs is of the upmost importance for parents when determining where, and if, to relocate. In a similar vein, host country parents, wanting their children to gain a perceived advantage by obtaining an international

education, may be drawn to enroll their children in international schools (Hayden, 2006). The experience a student has in an international school setting impacts his/her understanding of other peoples. It also determines, in part, the type of social capital that one is able to gain. Accordingly, Bates and Davis (2004) contend that those who promote inclusive policies are at the same time promoting social capital – as one inherently strengthens the other.

On a broader scale, Brown and Lauder (2011) explore the link between international schools and social class formation, and the extent to which international schools, in a globalized world, are contributing to a new global transnational class. If this premise is true and a new transnational class is forming in these international schools, who is allowed to have access? Bunnell (2010) states that despite how class may be identified, "[i]nternational schooling has always involved a unique 'class-in-itself', . . . such as the 'Third Culture Kid'" (Useem & Downie, 1976 as seen in Bunnell, 2010, p. 353).

The concept of internationalism or global mindedness is embedded in the framework of many international schools, yet idenfitying a commonly accepted definition and application of such terms is a daunting task. Regardless, Bates (2012) argues that if international schools produce global citizens, their obligation is to the world and not just a nation and within this obligation is the "inclusion of the excluded and marginalized" peoples (p. 273). Using Allport's (1954) social contact theory, knowing and interacting with the excluded and marginalized peoples is essential for a global citizen's understanding of his/her obligations. Slee & Allan (2001) caution that it

is also not just about including students with special needs; it is about educating all children and ending exclusionary practices. For these reasons, the degree to which a school embraces inclusive education practices and grants access impacts not only those students who are traditionally marginalized, it also impacts those who are not.

To this end, in this study international schools are studied from the vantage point of inclusive education. Some of the broader issues raised in the Salamanca Framework for inclusive education and by Slee and Allen (2001) may not be able to be resolved, as international schools are private and inherently have a level of exclusion because of the social capital and financial requirements needed to enroll in such schools. However, in this study inclusive education at international schools is examined from a leadership lens in order to understand the factors influencing international school leaders' views of inclusive edcuation and the inclusion of students with special needs.

Study Rationale

The school leader plays a vital role in shaping inclusive education practices within a school (Ainscow & Sandill, 2010; Bailey & du Plessis, 1997; DiPaola & Walther-Thomas, 2003; Goodlad & Lovitt, 1993; Guzman, 1997; Guzman & Schofield, 1995; Ingram, 1997; MacFarlane & Woolfson, 2013; McLeskey & Waldron, 2002; Praisner, 2003; Salisbury, 2006). As a result, understanding the views of international school leaders is an important first step in understanding the extent to which international schools incorporate the inclusion of students with special needs. Furthermore, as there is a significant gap in the literature concerning international schools and inclusive education, which is a critical, global issue (UNESCO, 1994), this

study contributes to an important phenomenon within the field of education: leadership views on inclusive education at international schools.

Additionally, the focus of the research revolves around the views of international school leaders towards the implementation and practicality of endorsing and practicing inclusive education. As Bailey and du Plessis (1997) note that "[w]hile attitudes are usually regarded as stable, individuals can hold different attitudes about the same concept." (p. 430). For example, a person may "believe in normalization and the rights of people with disabilities"; yet, in practical terms, the person cannot "fully endorse placement in regular schools" (Bailey & du Plessis, 1997, p. 430).

Value Premise

The values underlying this research originate from the concepts of social justice and human rights. Germinating from those assumptions is the premise that all children deserve a rights-based education system, which "means that children should be seen as holders of the right to education, which implies not only the right to have access to education, but also that human rights must also be applied in education and promoted through education" (Sandkull, 2005, p. 2). Thus, a rights-based approach to inclusive education includes the use of standards and norms as established by universally recognized human rights structures. This rights-based education system can work in conjunction with what Landorf and Neven (2007) refer to as "inclusive global education" (p. 712) in international schools.

Statement of Study Purpose

The purpose of this study is to determine the factors influencing international school leaders' views of inclusive education and the inclusion of students with special needs.

Research Questions

1. In what ways do international school leaders define inclusive education?

2. What are the institutional factors influencing the views of international school leaders towards the inclusion of students with special needs?

3. What are the classroom factors influencing the views of international school leaders towards the inclusion of students with special needs?

4. What are the individual factors influencing the views of international school leaders towards the inclusion of students with special needs?

Context of the Study

In order to understand the factors influencing international school leaders' views on inclusive education and the inclusion of students with special needs, the study focuses on international schools leaders from around the world that are active members of the Academy for International School Heads (AISH). AISH is a professional organization "built by heads, for heads. . . [which allows] [m]embers [to] collaborate with each other, offer advice, mentor, support and advocate via personalized interaction and through . . . [their] member community list-serve AISHnet" (Academy for International School Heads, 2013). For the instrument, I utilized a survey that was distributed to members of the Academy of International School Heads via email. The survey, which is based on

Bailey's (2004) inclusion instrument, measures factors which influence international school leaders' views of inclusive education and the inclusion of students with special needs. To complement the survey, I conducted semi-structured individual interviews with international school leaders.

Key Definitions

In order to provide clarity on the key terms that are used in this study, definitions are provided below. In particular, the term inclusive education is given a more narrow definition for the purposes of this research.

Inclusive education. Inclusive education refers to providing instructional environments and support that enhance the learning of all students, including those with special needs.

Students with special needs. Students with special needs are defined as students who require supplemental support to address learning, communication, physical, emotional or behavioral challenges (Education Review Office of New Zealand, 2012).

Special education/special needs education. For the purpose of this study, special education or special needs education for students with special needs is defined as programs and support services that address the education needs of these students in a PK-12 school setting.[1]

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[1] [1] This definition is a modified version of Florian's (2014) definition of special needs education. "Special needs education is defined as 'educational intervention and support designed to address special educational needs' wherever that intervention takes place" (Florian, 2014, p. 10).

International schools.

> International schools serve the children of those international organisations and
> multinational companies whose parents are called upon to work in many different
> countries and to change their assignment at frequent intervals; the schools also
> educate the children of the diplomatic corps, and offer educational opportunities
> to children of host country nationals who want their children to learn English or
> who prefer the greater flexibility which an international school offers over the
> national system. (Murphy, 1991, p. 1 as seen in Hayden, 2006, p. 11)

Additionally, "[t]hey are usually private and fee-paying schools" (Hayden, 2006, p.11).

Intercultural school. At an intercultural school, faculty, students, and parents purposefully engage in intercultural and cross-cultural dialog with others through the curriculum, culture exchanges, and school and cultural celebrations - with the aim of developing intercultural understandings and competencies.

Academy for International School Heads (AISH). AISH is a non-profit, member-based professional organization, dedicated to support, professional development and advocacy, founded in 1999 by 15 organizations and individuals" (What is AISH, 2007). "The Academy serves international school heads through focused advocacy, support and professional development" (What is AISH, 2015).

Next Frontier Inclusion (NFI). NFI is an organization dedicated to supporting international schools as they adopt inclusive education models. NFI's mission is: "We promote and protect the interests of children who learn in different ways or at different rates. We do this by supporting schools in all aspects of their journey towards inclusion"

(Our Mission, NFI, 2016). To this end, NFI provides publications, workshops, and trainings for international school faculty members (NFI, 2016).

<div align="center">**Conceptual Framework**</div>

In order to effectively understand the factors or forces which contribute *to* and *against* the inclusion of students with special needs at international schools, Lewin's Field Theory was the framework used for this study. With Lewin's Field Theory it "is possible to understand, predict and provide the basis for changing the behavior of individuals and groups by constructing a 'life space' comprising the psychological forces influencing their behaviour at a given point in time" (Burnes & Cooke, 2012, p. 2). To understand Lewin's field analysis, it is essential to have an understanding of the concept of life space. The life space includes those items that are perceived by the individual (M. Lewin, 1998 as seen in Burnes & Cook, 2012, p. 2). Each section of the life space symbolizes a unique psychological space (Burnes & Cooke, 2012).

The life space is a tool for an individual or group to evaluate a situation so that if the desire is present, a change can happen. Following in the Gestalt tradition, a holistic reflection takes place by the individual or the group. Figure 1 illustrates Lewin's life space, which helps explain how a person or group can reach their respective goals (Burnes & Cooke, 2012).
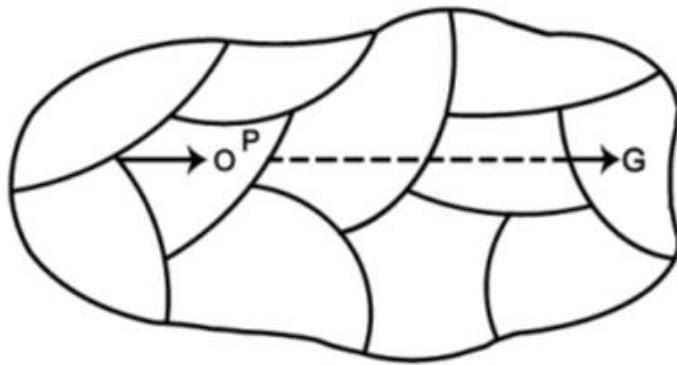
Figure 1: "Life space with person and goal" (Burnes & Cooke, 2012, p. 7).

In the figure above, P represents where the person is now, O is the current situation and G is the goal. The forces between the O and G are those against change and the forces behind O are those in favor of change – while the dotted line is the quickest path to the intended goal (Burnes & Cook, 2012).

In the context of this study, the aim is to identify the institutional, classroom and individual factors impacting international school leaders' views on the inclusion of students with special needs. These forces (institutional, classroom, and individual) are analyzed and given valence. Using Lewin's Field Theory and the concept of the life space, a pathway for international schools to become more inclusive towards students with special needs is identified.

Delimitations of Study

In this study, inclusive education is delimited to specific learning difficulties and students with a disability – other barriers to learning, such as socioeconomic barriers, are not evaluated. The focus of the study is to examine institutional, classroom, and individual factors influencing international school leaders' views of inclusive education, and therefore, other factors are not explicitly examined. Similarly, only international

school leaders' views are studied while other key stakeholders' views are not considered for this study. Lastly, the extent to which international schools engage in inclusive education is not assessed in this study.

Conclusion

In this chapter, an introduction to inclusive education is provided, along with key international agreements about inclusive education. In particular, the Salamanca Declaration and Framework for Action (UNESCO, 1994) is introduced. Likewise, international schools with their growth and impact on students, families, educators, and policy makers are identified. The statement of the problem, the context of the study, the study rationale, and key definitions are provided. Lastly, the statement of the study purpose and subsequent research questions are presented.

CHAPTER TWO

A REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

Though there is a significant amount of literature in the field of education on inclusive education, little literature regarding inclusive education in international schools exists. As a result, the areas explored in the literature review are concerned with more general issues pertaining to inclusive education initially while the focus of the paper narrows to a micro level. The first section topic *The Road to Inclusion* chronicles a general history of how those who differed were treated and cared for; particular attention is given to the historical context, policies and movements such as exclusion, segregation, normalization, mainstreaming, and inclusion. To complement the historical development of inclusive education, the cultural elements associated with inclusive education are explored in the section *The Cultural Component.* In the next section, *Theoretical Influences,* a more detailed analysis of the differing models and perspectives that have shaped the movement towards inclusive education is provided. The third section, *The Change Agent,* is divided into two parts with the principal as the subject: in the first section, the topic examined pertains to the literature on the attitudes and perspectives of principals towards inclusive education. The latter half explores leadership theory in intercultural settings and the role of the school leader in inclusive schools. To understand and evaluate the leadership barriers to inclusive education, Lewin's Field Theory is utilized and examined in the section titled *Framework*. Lastly, a brief overview is provided of whom international schools historically and presently serve in *The Local*

Global School. In an effort to conceptualize the approach presented, the major bodies of

literature and focus of this literature review are identified in Figure 2.
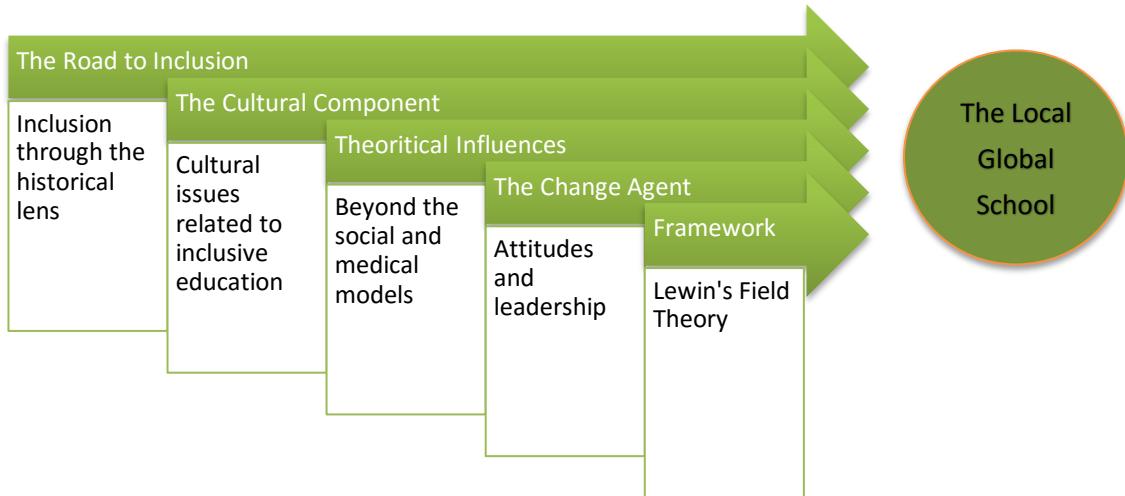
Figure 2: Inclusive education literature review for the local global school.

The Road to Inclusion

Inclusive education has its genesis in larger social and political trends and

developments; therefore, a natural place to start an inquiry into the history of inclusive

education is to begin with how persons with a disability were dealt with in an

institutional setting. According to Thomas (2013), inclusion "emerged out of special

education. While its current concerns are indeed desegregative . . . the field nevertheless

has a history, and that history—a long one—is of an instinct to expect and to identify

difference and disability" (p. 475). Warnock describes inclusive education's historical

alignment with special education, noting "As a concept it was originally aligned to the

developments within special education when thinking shifted from the idea of integration

to the more challenging idea of inclusion and mainstreaming of special education

provision" (Warnock, 1978 as seen in Mac Ruairc, 2013 p. 9). Since inclusive education

has its roots in what is typically referred to as special education, it is imperative to study the roots of special education. Dyson (2002) notes that inclusive education "explores the potential of the concept of dilemmas as a means of understanding the field" and the history of special education (as seen in Mitchell, 2005, p. 14). Armstrong (2002) concurs with "Safford and Safford's (1996) notion that the human societies don't pass through discrete periods or stages, 'abandoning practices of one era as the next is born'. Instead 'Vestiges of older beliefs remain, even today'" (Armstrong, 2002, p. 437 as seen in Artiles & Dyson, 2005, p. 14). In acknowledging the legacy of older beliefs, we must also remember, according to Thomas (2007), "that special education is a product of social and political frameworks – the ways people think at a particular time frame their views about what is good for children and how education should be made to happen. It is a product of Foucault's 'archive'" (p. 248). Accordingly, the road to inclusion is full of dilemmas, dichotomies and transformations.

Even though the issue of inclusive education is now a global phenomenon, the early part of special education has a focus in Western Europe and the United States; yet, the scope will become wider, or more global, after World War II. This intellectual and historical journey is cumbersome to some extent as Winzer (2009) notes: "Save perhaps for the history of deaf education, there is so little comprehensive research that historical development remains a relatively unexplored cul-de-sac within the history of education" (p. ix). This absence of a historical pursuit is not subject to special education alone, as Baynton (2013) states: "Disability . . . one of the most prevalent justifications for inequality, has rarely been the subject of historical inquiry" (p. 17). Winzer (2009) also

argues that the history of special education revolves around the history of disability in addition to specialized schooling. How societies have dealt with these two central issues to inclusive education vary considerable with time and place.

Enlightenment through the Nineteenth Century

The history of special education is not bound to one particular locale, although in terms of an intellectual movement, its origin can be found during the Age of Enlightenment, as "its humanitarian philosophy prompted ideas about the equality of all people and the human responsibility to take care of others" (Winzer, 2007, p. 23). Traditionally marginalized peoples, the poor and disabled, for example, became products of reform movements (Winzer, 2007). In step with John Locke and other French philosophes, Abbe Michel Charles de l'Epee promoted sign language (Winzer, 2007). Shortly thereafter, Valentin Häuy began "using a raised print method" for the blind while in "1810, Edouard Seguin devised pedagogy for those considered to be mentally retarded" (Winzer 2007, p. 23). Valentin Häuy's school, which opened its doors in 1784 is generally considered the "first school in the world for the blind" (Winzer, 2009, p. 4). Later in 1826 in Paris, an institution for mentally impaired children was founded and due to the developments previously discussed "[t]he influence of the French pedagogical initiatives was pervasive" (Winzer, 2009, p. 5). As a result of such developments, at the turn of the century, permanent institutions were part of the societal fabric in Europe and Britain (Winzer, 2007).

Across the Atlantic, the Americans, guided by the "humanitarian philosophy, evangelical commitment, and unbounded philanthropy" created facilities for

"exceptional individuals" (Winzer, 2007, p. 24). Early special education in the US was duplicitous in nature; while it served to protect disabled students - it also excluded and marginalized the same population (Winzer, 2007). Pupils in such institutions were seen as benefactors of public charities and these institutions were often set in rural areas "where the daily regimes were typical of rural life" (p. 25) and accordingly, tasks were based on nineteenth century gender roles (Winzer, 2007). In many ways, special education preceded and informed general education; case in point, Horace Mann "was deeply influenced by his close friend, Samuel Gridley Howe, superintendent of the first school for the blind in the United States" (Winzer, 1998, p. 212). It was under Horace Mann that public education took root in the US; however, students outside of the societal expectations were viewed as troublesome (Winzer, 2007). Echoing a model developed in 1859 in Germany, schools in the east began the practice of ungraded classrooms and they "tended to show the unholy trinity of academic retardation, low intelligence and undesirable behaviour" (Winzer, 2007, p. 26). Thus even though mandatory schooling emerged in the 1890s, there were many exceptions granted including ones for disabled children (Trent, 1994; Winzer, 2007).

First Half of the Twentieth Century

In Europe at the turn of the twentieth century, in many places, school was generally "free and compulsory" for disabled students (Winzer, 2007). "By 1900, Prussia, the Scandinavian countries, England, Switzerland, and Austria had created" special classes for slower learners (Trent, 1994, p. 147). Likewise from 1890 onward in the US, special classes for students with disabilities gained momentum (Winzer, 2007).

As Trent (1994) notes, "By 1913, 108 cities had special classes and special schools" (as seen in Winzer, 2007). These special classes and special schools emerged due to many factors such as: the rise of immigrant children in local schools, fewer child laborers, government involvement in the family, new legislation, and compulsory attendance (Winzer, 2007). During this time period, the medical model of disability (which placed disability as a human deficiency) guided thought, which was furthered by Social Darwinism (Winzer, 2007). In Britain, for example, "Sir Francis Galton, who in *Hereditary Genius, its Laws and Consequences* (1869), proclaimed that it would be perfectly possible to 'produce a highly gifted race of men by judicious marriages during several consecutive generations'" and his protégé Karl Pearson focused intellect on heredity and not education (Thomas, 2007, p. 249). Hence, "such thought encouraged a view that intellectual strata should be separated and segregated for the purpose of such breeding" (Thomas, 2007). Winzer (2007) explains, "As biology became destiny, evolutionary analogies, explanations, and ways of thinking rapidly became ubiquitous in North America" (p.27).

Sterilization, beginning in 1907, was supported by special education professionals. "By the mid-1930s, more than 20,000 people with mental retardation and epilepsy had been sterilized" in the U.S. (Winzer, 1993 as seen in Winzer, 2007). Special educators during this time period focused on the medical model also known as the defect or within child model (Winzer, 2007). "A defect or 'within-child model' is based on the assumption that the origins of learning difficulties lie largely within the child" (Mittler, 2000, p. 3).

Pre and post-World War I, the field of special education and special services expanded with the evolution of "psychology, mental testing, social work, and health care" in America (Winzer, 2007). After the First World War, even though people with disabilities remained ostracized socially, in schools there was a move towards viewing them as a "pool of potentially productive citizens" with the aid of special education (Winzer, 2009, p. 103).

Post World War II

Following the Second World War, three significant changes occurred: 1) eugenics became discredited, 2) the questioning of separation and marginalization occurred (Thomas, 2013), and 3) the social model of disability was born. According to Thomas (2013):

The new anti-discriminatory climate that had developed across the world in the decades spanning the 1950s to the 1980s had its roots also in other, broader movements. . . There was a resurgence of interest in progressive educational thinkers, which was stimulated by figures such as John Holt and Lawrence Cremin in the USA and Jean Piaget and Lev Vygotsky in Europe. Notions that success or failure at school were constructed rather than within-child led educators to question beliefs about the crystal-hard relationship that had been assumed to exist between ability and achievement. (p. 476)

The new global institution of the United Nations was formed and with this organization came the monumental UN Declaration for Human Rights (UNDHR) in 1948 (Assembly, 1948); though not explicitly promoting education for disabled peoples,

the declaration put forth a global effort on human rights. Peters (2007) cautions though, for "despite the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights, disability issues throughout the 1940s and 1950s promoted a welfare perspective. This perspective focused on disability prevention and rehabilitation (UN, 2002c)" (Peters, 2007, p. 101). Building on the foundation of the UNDHR, the Declaration of the Rights of the Child was signed in 1959, which states according to principle 5, "The child who is physically, mentally or socially handicapped shall be given the special treatment, education and care required by his particular condition" (United Nations, 1959). The declaration further identifies that "[t]he child is entitled to receive education, which shall be free and compulsory, at least in the Elementary stages" under principle 7 (United Nations, 1959).

With the global shift towards the promotion of human rights, the notion of segregation came under increasing scrutiny. Erving Goffman's book *Asylums* (1961) provoked discussion on the merits of separation (Thomas, 2013). A historic turning point in the U.S. away from segregated classrooms was the *Brown v. Board of Education* (1954) decision that declared separate was not equal (Winzer, 2007). "[T]he precedents set in *Brown* resulted in sweeping changes in the schools' policies and approaches to students with disabilities" (Yell, Rogers & Rogers, 1998 p.220). Reynolds (1962) reflected the emerging sentiment towards students with disabilities: "that normal home and school life should be preserved if at all possible. When a special placement is necessary to provide suitable care or education, it should be no more "special" than necessary" (1962, p. 368). In line with the 1960s social and political climate, advocates of special education reform promoted the normalization philosophy and made "a case

against special education as it was practised at that time" (Winzer, 2007). Still, tensions continued to exist, for as special classes grew in numbers, "the concept of special classes was attached at the national level" (Winzer, 2009, p. 106).

Normalization along with mainstreaming began to influence the direction of special education. Normalization, an approach adopted from Scandinavia and introduced by Neils Erik Bank-Mikkelson (1969), which "was later refined by Benge Nirje", focused on the notion that "all individuals who are exceptional . . . should be provided with a living environment and education as close to normal as possible" (Winzer, 2009, p. 107). Thus, people with disabilities were to be treated "fairly and humanely" (Winzer, 2009, p. 107). Accordingly, "[t]he concept of normalization implied the placement of people with disabilities in the "mainstream" of life. Integration was the process of implementing mainstreaming" (Bailey & du Plessis, 1997, p. 428).

A paradigm shift occurred toward how mental retardation was perceived in special education with the publication of the publication of 1959 *Manual of Terminology and Classification of Mental Retardation* (Winzer, 2009). The American Association of Mental Deficiency moved away from Edgar Doll's 1941 definition of mental retardation as incurable and as a deficit or medical model to a more optimistic perspective with disability as a social construct which "challenge[d] the oppressive binary assumptions of normal versus pathological, autonomous versus dependent, competent versus retarded, and integrated versus segregated" (Winzer, 2009, p. 111).

Building on the foundation of the UN Declaration of Human Rights, the Convention Against Discrimination in Education (Office of the United Nations High

Commissioner for Human Rights, 1960) promoted a more progressive stance toward education. This particular document does not overtly discuss students with disabilities, but as Peters (2007) notes in her policy analysis, there are many points within the actual text that given the historical context of the document may be inferred to those with disabilities.

> In this document, the language *individual capacity* (notably, not potential) covertly reflects the then-current belief in, and widespread use of, the IQ test as an objective and rational way to define normal capacity and as a useful way to differentiate normal intelligence from deviance, subnormality, or "mental retardation." An *equivalent* education reflects the then-current belief (only beginning to be challenged by racial groups) that education could be separate and equal. (Peters, 2007, p. 101)

Despite such UN declarations as the Convention Against Discrimination in Education, "[l]eaders in the emerging field of special education documented racially-based disparities in service in the 1960s and 1970s" (Skiba, Simmons, Ritter, Gibb, Rausch, Cuadrado, & Chung, 2008, p. 265). In 1968, Dunn's (1968) seminal article titled *Special education for the mildly retarded –Is much of it justifiable?* sparked the debate on whether special classes were legitimate (Kavale & Forness, 2000, p. 280). Dunn (1968) estimated that 60-80% of the students in special education classes for children with disabilities were "from low status backgrounds-including AfroAmericans, American Indians, Mexicans, and Puerto Rican Americans; those from nonstandard English speaking, broken, disorganized, and inadequate homes; and children from other

nonmiddle class environments" (p. 6) As a result, these special and separate classes inherently drew attention to "serious educational and civil rights issues" (Dunn, 1968, p. 6). According to Vislie (2003):

> Integration was embedded in the western European history of segregation of disabled people. For a century this history had been going on, with few, if any, realizing that in the western societies a strong and total system of segregated institutions for disabled people had been established. Having recognized *the history of segregation*, integration was formulated as a programmatic principle for a new societal practice and for institutional reforms in the western societies in the 1960s. (p. 18)

Additionally, and in line with Dunn's study, efficacy studies in the 1960s and 1970s revealed that students in special classes attained better "social adjustments" but students attained "superior achievements" in normal classrooms (Winzer, 2009, p. 113).

In 1971, the *UN Declaration on the Rights of Mentally Retarded Persons* was issued. In this declaration it was stated that a "mentally retarded person has a right to proper medical care and physical therapy and to such education, training, rehabilitation and guidance as will enable him to develop his ability and maximum potential" (UN, 1971). Despite this global commitment to mentally disabled persons, the language of the declaration also includes the caveat that members of the UN are "aware that certain countries, at their present stage of development, can devote only limited efforts to this end" (UN, 1971). According to Peters (2007), this declaration was noteworthy since it recognized the inalienable right of disabled people to receive education but it also

introduces "the concept of *maximum potential* (vs. *perceived capacity*)" (p. 101).

Building on the previous declarations, UN Declaration for Disabled People (1975) states

"[t]he term "disabled person" means any person unable to ensure by himself or herself,

wholly or partly, the necessities of a normal individual and/or social life, as a result of

deficiency, either congenital or not, in his or her physical or mental capabilities". As

Peters (2007) notes, the UN Declaration for Disabled People represented "a watershed in

drawing from the 1948 Universal Declaration of Human Rights and recognizing the

rights and needs of all people with disabilities for the first time." However, the reliance

on the medical model, as evidenced by the term "deficiency" exemplifies the historical

and contextual understanding of disabilities at that time (Peters, 2007).

In the U.S., the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (1975), "now

Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) and amended in 1997--

revolutionised the practice of special education in the United States (Public Law 94–142

and Public Law 105–17)" (Kavale, 2002, p. 201). The aim of this legislation was to

provide "educational equity and eliminate the mis-education and chronic exclusion

experienced by children with disabilities" with a focus on "FAPE (free appropriate

public education) and LRE (least restrictive environment)" (Kavale, 2002, p. 201).

Inclusion Movement

By the 1980s, a new direction was gaining steam - that of inclusive education -

based on social justice (Winzer, 2007). Prior to the Salamanca Framework, integration

"served as a descriptor of a particular policy concern in the western countries in the

1970s and 1980s" (Vislie, 2003, p. 18). Out of this time period, OECD projects related to

integration were instituted and continued into the 1990s (Vislie, 2003). "By the turn of the 1980s, Unesco formally adopted inclusion as a descriptor for the organization's main activities in the field" (Vislie, 2003, p. 18). Inclusion movement benefitted from the larger adult disability movement involvement in education (Mittler, 2000).

In 1990, "the world's heads of state and education ministers made a public commitment to the goal of 'Education for All by 2000 (EFA 2000) by providing free education to 200 million children world-wide who were not getting access to school" (Mittler, 2000, p. 14). Article 3, point 5 makes explicit reference to students with disabilities: "The learning needs of the disabled demand special attention. Steps need to be taken to provide equal access to education to every category of disabled persons as an integral part of the education system" (UNESCO, 1990).

"Arguably the most significant international document that has ever appeared in the field of special education" (Ainscow & César, 2006, p. 231), the Salamanca Framework placed inclusive education firmly on the global agenda (Mittler, 2000; Ainscow & César, 2006). "The fundamental principle of the inclusive school is that all children should learn together, wherever possible, regardless of any difficulties or differences they may have" (United Nations, 1994a). For, "[i]nclusive schooling is the most effective means for building solidarity between children with special needs and their peers" (United Nations, 1994a). Mittler (2000) argues that Salamanca illuminated some key issues: one, EFA goals included students with disabilities; two, children that struggle to learn are within a much wider group of children that are excluded from education; and three, the framework concretized and solidified the philosophical

underpinnings of inclusive education as well as the actual practice. On the other hand, even though this declaration was weighty and symbolic, Miles and Singal (2010) contend that the mere necessity of it points to the exclusionary nature of broader international education aims. After the Salamanca Framework and with a refocus on the initial aims of the EFA, the Dakar Framework of 2000 was a recommitment to Education For All (UNESCO, 2000). However, some criticized the lack of focus on disabled people with the concerted effort to promote the education of girls (Miles & Singal, 2010).

Cultural Components of Inclusive Education

Although inclusive education has an arguably global focus as a result of documents such as the Salamanca Declaration, the language used to interpret inclusion, the cultural understandings of the terms, and the power relationships associated with this type of education are highly contextualized. In this section, such contextualization is examined.

Language

When discussing inclusive education across cultures, one aspect emerges as a central issue of contention – that of language. "Language is the vehicle of our thoughts, feelings, attitudes and ideas towards objects, ideas, relationships and people" (Chimedza, 2008, p. 128). How terms such as inclusive education, integration, special education, handicap, and learning disabilities are defined, understood and explained is often culturally relevant and contextual. Though translation may appear on the surface a rather superficial aspect of intercultural communication, the consequences of translation in an intercultural or cross-cultural setting for an issue as important and as delicate as inclusive

education are significant. D'Alessio (2008) discusses his work on inclusive education in two cultures: the US and Italy, noting that perfect translations of inclusion and integration do not exist. Further, in Italy, according to Canevaro:

> We prefer to use the term integrazione, because in our language, it acquires a positive meaning when compared with the broader terminology provided by pressing international organizations. The latter insist that the term should be substituted for inclusion, that, in our language, evokes something which is not natural but forced (as seen in D'Alessio, 2008, p. 55).

Thus amongst Western societies, the terminology does not often "translate" and this is also true between the West and other groups or countries. For example, as Talle (1995) notes, the Maasai do not have a word that translates into mental retardation; "the Western conceptualization on mental retardation . . . [is] equivalent to the Maasai term '*olmodai*' which translates to 'fool'" (Chimedza, 2008, p. 124). This same phenomena is true for the languages of Shona and Ndebele in Zimbabwe – as both languages lack a term for the word mental retardation (Chimedza, 2008, p. 124).

Culture as Process

Yet, it is not just between cultures that language issues emerge and connotations change – it is within cultures as well; hence, cultures are not static. One need not look too far back to understand how, historically, students with special needs were labeled and classified. In France, students with learning needs were traditionally conceived and described as "different;" in the latter 1960s and early 1970s, as in many other parts of the world, the focus turned toward the "prevention of maladjustments," which was followed

by "integration" (Plaisance, 2008, p 38). Now bodies like the Economic and Social Council promote the term "in position of handicap" which "incorporates the consequences of the environment with an acknowledgement of the capacities for autonomy of a disabled person" (as seen in Plaisance, 2008, p. 38). Similarly, scholars, Aniscow and Booth, in their seminal work the *Index for Inclusion*, advocate for replacing the term special education needs with "barriers to learning and participating. . . shifting the attention from the individual/medical approach to disability, to the social approach" (as seen in Alession, 2008, p. 6). Culture, in these references, is fluid and dynamic, and as "Street (1993) suggests… Culture is an active process of meaning making and contest over definition" (as seen in Baldwin, p. 58). Hence, as Armstrong and Barton (2008) claim, "[i]t is very clear that we cannot just apply the language of "inclusion" uncritically, assuming that meanings will be shared across cultures – or even within the same national context or education authority" (p. 1).

Identification

Using the dialectic approach and recognizing "that the world is neither monistic nor dualistic" (Nakayama, 1973, pp. 24-29 as seen in Martin, Nakayama & Flores, 1998, p. 6) can aid in the discussion of inclusive education from a cross-cultural or intercultural slant. The tension, or the dialectic, between *over identification* and *under identification* exists in this intercultural discussion and amongst various constituents. If we are to look at a continuum of the two extremes, it is difficult to make an objective judgment regarding where one culture or institution should be regarding "identification"; there are, however, some divergent perspectives on the matter. Case in point, D'Alessio (2008)

proclaims, "Disability does not exist as a unique category; rather, it changes across cultures, histories and contexts. The need to classify it, and to provide people with additional specialisations is an attempt to address the social complexity of reality and, eventually, control it" (p. 65). The labeling, classification and conceptualization of disability is a Western construct and in the tradition of the social science paradigm. According to Gabour (2008), terms like special education are not part of Libyan history or culture but have been "imported from the west. . . mostly by postgraduates studying in foreign context" (2008, p. 77). Gabour goes on to argue that such names "have done more harm than good to our children and education system" (2008, p. 77). Negative classifications of children's needs are even found in school and national documents (Gadour, 2008). This labeling in Libya is cause for concern for parents as they recognize the stigmatization that occurs with such identifiers; yet, schools feel the impetuous to label in order to receive funding (Gadour, 2008).

Historical Context

This tension is part of the present and the past. The degree to which one labels in and amongst cultures needs must be placed in a socio-economic and historical context. "[D]isability is a social construct and not an objective condition" (Sarason, 1985; Edgerton, 1993; Trent, 1994; Armstrong & Barton, 1999 as seen in Chimedza, 2008, p. 123); as such, social constructs emerge from socio-historical contexts (Chimedza, 2008 p. 124). For example, in Zimbabwe, "elements of feudal, neo-colonial, capitalist and even post-modern eras, all . . .[exist] in the same historical moment" (p. 124). And though a country like Uganda might adapt the EFA Framework, the implementation may

not be appropriate, as the resources are not mirrored to those of more developed

countries (p. 124) – as a result of historical and contemporary issues related to

dominance, power and even national boundaries. Or, consider the islands of Trinidad and

Tobago, former slave colonies. Their contemporary education systems emerged from the

colonial era which was initially established "based on values, interests and

interpretations of Western colonialism" (Lavia, 2008, p. 109). Hence, in the post-colonial

era, the nationalists who were guiding the country aimed for an integrated education

system that would lead to greater progress, but "the rhetoric of 'integration' and

'modernisation' however did not resolve the historical circumstances of disabled people"

(Lavia, 2008, p. 109). The situation was much more complex and rooted in history than

even the nationalists recognized (Lavia, 2008). Even today, the social class system is still

intact as "children who are descendants of plantation owners and of the wealthy are

invariably found in the grammar schools" while children from less privileged classes

tend to be at the comprehensive schools (Lavia, 2008, p. 114).

Power

As Armstrong, et al (2005) note that disabled people "have historically been

marginalized[,] ridiculed and seen as burdens to the society" (as seen in Lavia, 2008, p.

109). Who should speak for those that have been voiceless across cultures and time?

More importantly, who has the *power* to speak on the issue of inclusive education? Kelly

(2014), through his critical approach toward intercultural communication, acknowledges

the issue of power, domination and subordination, as "members of dominant groups will

tend to impose their reality on members of subordinate groups" (p. 360). When it comes

to inclusive education, international agencies and developed countries tend to be the dominate groups because of economic power, colonial legacies and military hegemony. Any member "of [the] oppressed groups who question or reject the existential claims. . . of the dominant group violate the socially and politically constructed interaction norms of that speech context" (Young, 1996 as seen in Kelly, 2014, p. 360). Alur (2008) extrapolates on this issue when discussing inclusive education in India, warning that a "new era of neo colonialism has taken over" with "Western 'experts'… [as well as] sectors of the Indian society" (p.98). This colonial aftermath highlights the difficulty in dealing with "experts" or those from the West who are perceived to have more knowledge; "[t]he situation is compounded by Western advisors who fail to point out the informed expertise exists within India itself" (Alur, 2008, p. 98). Irrefutably, *perceived* and *real* power matter when it comes to inclusive education.

Theoretical Influences

The two most prevalent models that emerged in the twentieth century regarding how to educate students with disabilities are the medical or deficit model and the social model. The deficit model focuses on the disabilities being within the child while the social model offers a "sociopolitical analysis" that describes "disability as an ideological construction rather than a reflection of personal defects" (Winzer, 2009, p. 111). Mittler (2000) cautions against "polarizing . . . [defect and social model] as though they are mutually incompatible", for we should consider these two models "in a state of constant and complex interaction" (p. 3). In a similar line of reasoning, fundamental epistemological issues arise when we consider the term disability and whether or not it is

an objective reality or a social construct. "Where does one draw the line between inherent difference, understood as objective and neutral, and socially constructed, understood as interpretation or judgment?" (Gallagher, 2007, p. 517). Even though these two models continue to inform administrators, educators and policy makers, it is important to analyze their development separately so that a more comprehensive understanding of each can be reached.

Medical Model

The medical or individual model in inclusive education "is seen as a technical problem to be solved through diagnosis and remedial interventions" (Corbett & Slee, 2000, p. 143). Bailey (1998) claims "that when one begins to search the literature there is almost nothing of any substance which defines the model, or outlines its strengths and weaknesses" (p. 49). Despite this, Mittler (2000) argues that the medical model "remains highly influential and profoundly affects policy, practice, and attitudes" (p. 3). Under the deficit or medical model, the "causes of disability are attributable primarily to biological individual conditions, which depart from normal human functionings and determine handicap in terms of disadvantage" (Terzi, 2004, p. 142). Oates (1996), viewing the medical model from a child abuse and neglect perspective, identifies the merits of such a model:

1. Studying the problem carefully to find causative factors. This includes good data collection to understand the epidemiology of the problem.

2. Experimentation to help determine the most effective form of treatment.

3. Intervention, which usually means some type of treatment or change in

lifestyle.

4. Rigorous evaluation of the results of experimentation and treatment.

5. Long-term follow-up of patients with the problem to review progress, to

determine the effectiveness of treatment, and to see if any harmful side effects

have developed. (p. 3)

Bailey (1998) combines the work of Oates (1996) and Eastman (1992) to propose that

the "medical model suggests to us the scientist-practitioner model in diagnosis,

prognosis, selection of interventions, and review of the efficacy of our professional

programmers" (p. 53).

As a result of this pathway to inclusive education, "experts" are used to

categorize and determine the nature of the disability; after this initial step, bureaucracy

steps in and dictates the additional services provided for the student (Corbett & Slee,

2000, p. 143). The medical model is focused on sickness, pathology and not the "social

or ecosystem which surrounds the problem, that is, the patient, his or her family, social

and financial circumstances, values and attitudes" (Bailey, 1998, p. 49).

Slee (2009), from a critical theorist perspective, questions "in whose interest does

diagnosis, categorization and treatment work?" (p. 146). The answer to this question

determines the legitimacy of such practices. "If the goal is . . . assimilation, then it may

well be in the interest of the recipient of this intense scrutiny" (Slee, 2005, p. 147).

However, if the goal is to identify "difference as legitimate and valuable, then the answer

forms a critique of the catechism and ceremonies of special education" (p. 146-147).

"[H]aving emerged from the medical model of disability, special education not unexpectedly adopted empiricism as its dominant research tradition" (Gallagher, 2007).

Social Model

The social model, in contrast to the medical model, "focuses on the way in which society excludes disabled people from fully participating" (Florian, 2007). Under the social model, the disability is a "product of specific social and economic structures"; hence, the aim of the social model is to address discrimination "caused by institutional forms of exclusion and by cultural attitudes embedded in social practices" (Terzi, 2004, p. 141).

Allan, Brown and Riddell (1998) discuss the social model into two categories: social constructionist perspective and the social creationist perspective. The former "dismisses individualist notions of disability and attributes causes to environmental factors" (p. 22). Overall, social constructionist prefer to shy away from labeling, which is a contentious perspective according to Soder (1989) (as seen in Allan, et al., 1998, p. 22-23). The social creationist view identifies "disability as oppression and takes account of the material, environmental, social and psychological disadvantage experiences by disabled people" (Allan, et al, 1998, p. 23). It is unapologetically political in nature, expecting "changes in state and welfare provision to improve the material conditions for disabled people" (Allan et al., 1998, p. 23). The social model of disability understands "disability as *socially created,* or constructed on top of impairment, and places the explanation of its changing character in the social and economic structure and culture of the society in which it is found" (Corker & Shakespeare, 2002, p. 3).

While generally accepted amongst inclusive education scholars, the social model has distinct limitations according to Terzi (2004). One, the model engages in "over-socialisation of aspects of impairments and disability", disregarding the impact of any disability. Secondly, the model rejects "the concept of normality in the sense of average human functioning, which, although understandable and justified in deconstructing oppression, can theoretically lead to unwanted conclusions" (p. 155). Others contend that despite how enlightening the social model is that is offers "no practical advice to teachers in the classroom" (Clough, 2000, p. 17).

Bio-Psychosocial Model

The bio-psychosocial model of disability merges the social and medial models together and "rejects the polarisation between the 'medical' and the 'social' model" (Norwhich, 2007, p. 63). This model was established by psychiatrist George Engel in 1977 (Glossary, 2007). Engel's (1977) argues that the "medical model must also take into account the patient, the social context in which he lives, and complementary system devised by society to deal with the disruptive effects of illness [disability]" (1977, p. 132). The model is interactive and "calls for a model of child functioning across a range of life contexts, . . . [which] takes account of social factors and does not focus exclusively on impairments and disorders" (Norwhich, 2007, p.63). "It is based on a broader concept of disability that goes beyond impairments to include activity limitations and social participation restrictions" (Norwhich, 2007, p. 3).

Frameworks

However, some argue that the viewpoints or frameworks guiding special

education and inclusion are multidimensional (Clough, 2000; Thomas & Loxley, 2007).

As Clough and Corbett (2000) contend, "the suggestion of a simple, linear development

from one position to the next is to oversimplify the case . . . there is always a dynamic

relationship between the various perspectives" (p. 9).

Building on her previous work regarding the various theoretical perspectives on

disability Riddell notes that the "essentialist, social constructionist, materialist,

postmodern and disability rights [models] . . . are still evident . . . but can be grouped

under the broad headings of functionalist and critical paradigms" (2007, p. 34). The

functionalist paradigm has its roots in sociologist perspective of Emile Durkheim; she

"developed the view that social cohesion was a natural and desirable state, and conflicts

which threatened this social stability were to be repressed" (Riddell, 2007, p. 35). The

first perspective of the functionalist paradigm is the essentialist, also known as the

medical approach. Riddell argues that "[d]espite the official rejection of the idea that

special education should be reserved for those identified as having medical deficits,

categorical thinking proved to be highly resistant to change" (2007, p. 37); particularly

with regard to diagnosis such as ADHD, making reference to Slee's (1995) "label of

forgiveness" (Riddell, 2007, p. 37). Within the functionalist sphere, Riddell also includes

the managerialist or systems-based approach towards special education noting that such

perspective rely on "the assumption that it is necessary for educators to identify which

children require adapted curricula, without paying a great deal of attention to the

underlying social forces constructing particular individuals and groups as different"
(2007, p. 39).

In contrast, in the critical paradigm, conflict is a by-product of "unequal power
relations or social interactions" (Riddell, 2007, p. 36). The materialist paradigm
encapsulates neo-Marxists thinkers that identify segregation in school systems which
correspondingly match segments in the labor market. This view is challenged, for
example by "New Labour approaches to social inclusion which regard social cohesion,
rather than conflict, as a natural and desirable state" (p. 40). However, Riddell makes
note of some emerging perspectives that try to apply the materialist view with inclusion,
citing Tomlinson (1985), who argues that the expansion of special education, which
mostly includes males from underprivileged backgrounds, mirrors "the collapse of the
youth labour market particularly in the field of manufacturing" (Riddell, p. 2007, p. 36).

The social constructionist perspective, also under the critical paradigm, deals
with the "struggles over the creation and negotiation of categories within the field of
special education…" and "are still taking place and social interactionist theories have a
great deal to offer in terms of understanding the material consequences which ensue"
(Riddell, 2007, p. 42).

The last critical angle is the social model theory under the umbrella of the civil
rights approach. Within this viewpoint, "disability is always experienced within a
specific social context and it is always political, cultural and economic arrangements,
rather than impairments, which exclude" (Riddell, 2007, p. 42). This mode of thinking
has impacted political realm and "everyday thought and action", as disability without

discrimination is now seen as a fundamental right (Riddell, 2007, p. 42). According to

Riddell, "Whilst functionalist accounts tended to be favoured by parents, practitioners

and policymakers because of their focus on how to achieve social improvement, critical

paradigms provided important insights into the forces of change and challenge" (2007, p.

43).

In contrast to previous viewpoints, Clough (2000) categorizes five ideologies that

coincide with time periods; however, all perspectives are "ever present, but certain

perspectives have their 'moment'" (p. 9). These viewpoints include: the psycho-medical

legacy, the sociological response, curricular approaches, school improvement strategies

and disabilities critique (Clough, 2000, p. 9). See Figure 3.
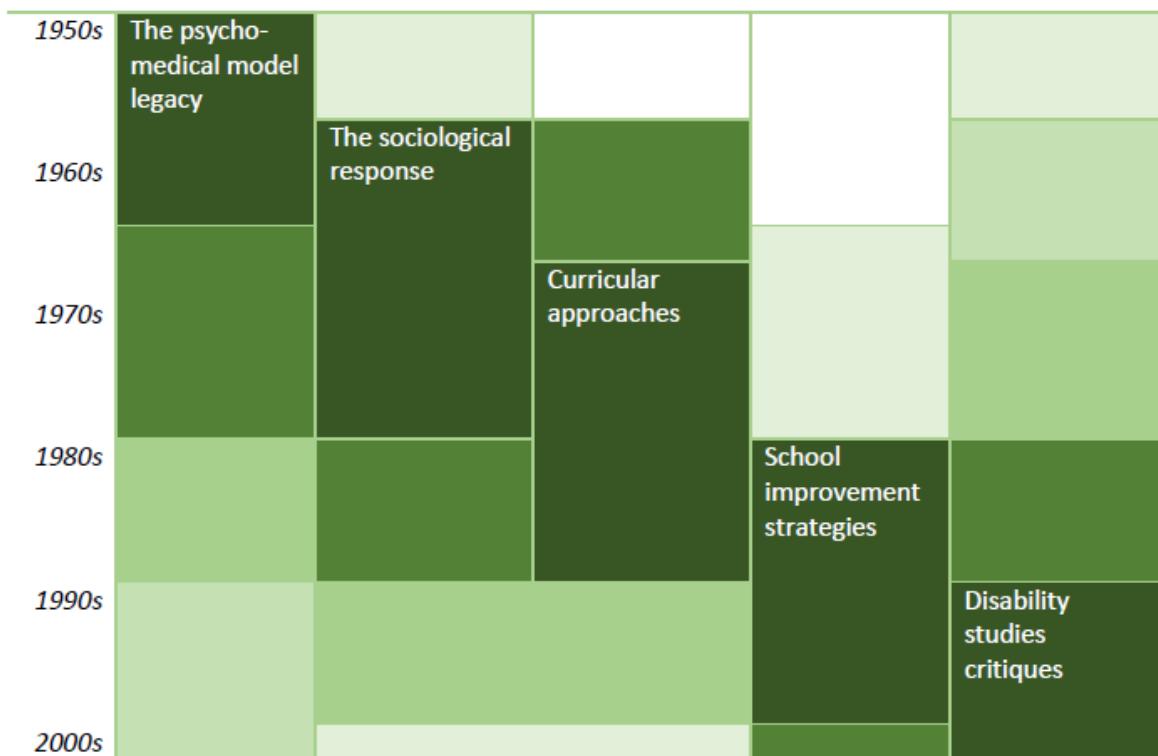
*Figure 3: "*A historical interpretation of the development and interaction of ideologies

leading to present thinking in inclusive education" (Clough, 2000, p. 9).

The psycho-medical legacy is on par with Riddell's (2007) perspective, but the latter categories differ. In the sociological response, and drawing on the sociological expertise from Sally Tomlinson and Len Barton, Clough identifies the conceptual focal point on "social disadvantage rather than individual deficit" (p. 16). The reproduction of institutional structures and professionals with an interest in maintaining structures are at the center of the discussion (Clough, 2000). Clough argues that since the sociological response lacked a pragmatic approach to supporting students with learning difficulties that curricular approaches came into fruition. Clough's curriculum approach encompasses many types of interventions that are curricular in nature. Detailing the history of curriculum development in relation to inclusive education: for example, the early stages of aligning curriculum with assessment had begun as well as the acknowledgment that learning challenges are connected to "instructional conditions" (Clough, 2000, p. 20). From the curricular approach emerged the school improvement strategies which allow one to "step outside the special and inclusive literature" (Booth, 1998 as seen in Clough, 2000, p. 25). This movement explicitly brings together methods identified by Ainscow (1991) such as naturalistic inquiry, collaboration, and data analysis, which support learning difficulties as well as the "mainstream policy concerns of the 1990s" (as seen in Clough, 2000, p. 25). The last ideology that Clough identifies is the disabilities studies critique, which mirrors the critical paradigm that Riddell identifies. Clough makes note of the contributions of Mike Oliver, in particular, and also states that although this perspective is outside educational studies, it has "directly affected the development of schools' policies" (p. 27).

The approaches as well as the understanding of the models, or as Clough refers to them – the ideologies, vary considerably but they all continue to influence and direct perspective and policies. The critical perspectives offer valuable insight into how we identify differences amongst people as well as how we structure society in ways to sustain segregation and social and cultural reproduction. But, understanding how to overcome such segregation and reproduction is the ultimate challenge for educators, and more specifically leaders.

<div align="center">**The Change Agent**</div>

Principals' Attitudes towards Inclusive Education

Since inclusive education is a relatively recent phenomenon, most of research on administrators' views regarding it began in the 1990s (Bailey & du Plessis, 1997). In examining this section of the topic, the focus is solely on the concept of inclusive education – not mainstreaming or integration. This narrows the scope of this section accordingly; however, it also takes into consideration the full meaning of including students with varying levels and backgrounds. For, "inclusion requires changing the system to meet the needs of the child" whereas integration is based more closely on the deficit model and with the idea that the child must adapt to the school (Sharma & Chow, 2008, p. 381).

Bailey and du Plessis's (1997) study focused on the attitudes of 200 principals in Queensland, Australia. For the study, a survey with "30 items purporting to tap attitudes towards inclusion and 16 items which covered . . . demographic information"; in addition, four questions examining inclusion such as "what is the strongest argument for

having inclusion?" (Bailey & du Plessis, 1997, p. 434). The instrument was created after a grounded theory approach was applied based on interviews with three private school principals. The researchers found that 73.2% of the principals supported inclusion. The most significant arguments for inclusive education included the "benefits to included students; and social justice/rights" (p. 434); however, "benefits to peers, the school community, and society received modest support" (p. 434). Almost 50% of the respondents expressed concerns over "inadequate resources and support for classroom teachers" (p. 435). The authors conclude that the principals have a duplicitous relationship with inclusion; on the one hand, they are generally in favor of a philosophical commitment to inclusion – yet, they have "a cautious approach to implementing [inclusion]" (p. 437). As a result, Bailey and du Plessis suggest "that many principals talk the high road of inclusion and walk the lower road of integration" (p.438). The final sentence here identifies the researchers' positionality, deeming integration a lower or less worthy path to follow.

Dyal, Flynt and Bennett-Walker (1996) "[examined] how principals in the state of Alabama perceived the concept of inclusion" (p. 33). With an 82.5% response rate to a random sample, 118 participants (principals in the state of Alabama) answered a questionnaire. The results revealed that 10% of the principals viewed inclusion "as meaning "full" inclusion" (p. 33). In concert with these results, 61% "maintained a continuum of special education placement options in their definitions of inclusion"; and, a majority felt that additional funding was necessary (p. 33). The study revealed that only 2.6% of the principals were in favor of full inclusion and similarly, only 3.5% felt they

"had had excellent training relating to inclusion" – while 44.5% felt the training was insufficient and 52% believe their training was adequate (p. 33). As noted in the conclusion of the article, although the findings are illuminating, the study only utilized a questionnaire, and additionally, it was limited in its geographic location and scope.

Downing, Eichinger, and Williams (1997), studied elementary school educators and teachers in schools utilizing full inclusion, partial integration and no integration for students with disabilities deemed severe. Utilizing structured interviews as the method, nine administrators, nine teachers and nine special education teachers participated from four school districts. When asked about barriers to inclusion, "[t]he most frequently mentioned barrier was negative attitudes of general education teachers, special education teachers, or parent" (p. 137). Regarding the benefits of inclusion, 70% reported on the richness of the learning environment. In order to support inclusion, a strong majority stated "the need for a full-time person to be in the classroom" (p. 137). In general the responses between the different categories of professionals did not vary that much; however, it should be noted that the size of the study is quite small, and therefore, generalizability is difficult (Downing, et al, 1997).

Barnett and Monda-Amaya (1998) set out to determine the knowledge of and attitude towards inclusion of principals of elementary, middle and high schools in Illinois via a survey, for which they had a 57% response rate with 65 surveys returned. Amongst the participants a singular definition of inclusion did not emerged and this "was reflected in how the principals identified terms and populations of students associated with the concept" (p. 189). For example, only 20% of the principals felt that inclusive schooling

included students with "profound disabilities" (p. 189). No relationship between years of experience as an administrator or special education teacher was found with regard to attitudes towards inclusion. In terms of their self-identified leadership styles, only 30% had the visionary leadership style which is commonly promoted in the inclusive literature. The authors identified the limitations of the study, which included: self-reporting, small sample size, and the response rate (Barnett & Monda-Amaya, 1998).

A study by Cook, Semmel and Gerber (1999) assessed the attitudes of two groups of important stakeholders: principals and special education teachers on the topic of inclusion. A sample of stakeholders was selected from the School Environment Project, which included "57 diverse schools" in the study. Among the participants, 49 principals, 29 elementary and 35 junior high school special education teachers returned the survey. Principals and special education teachers had differing perspectives on the belief that "students with mild disabilities improve their academic achievement when placed in the optimally effective environments of a general education classroom with consultant services" (Cook, Semmel & Gerber, 1999, p. 204). Principals were more in favor of this than special education teachers. Those special education teachers "with the most training and experience regarding the education of students with mild disabilities who are expected to lead the implementation of inclusion – appear to warrant grave concerns for the educational opportunities of students with mild disabilities" (p. 204). While 75.51% of the special education teachers "indicated *strong agreement*. . . with the statement that mandated resources should be protected for students with mild disabilities regardless of setting, only 32.65% of principals reported a similarly high rate" (p. 204). The findings

also supported Schumm and Vaughn's (1991) finding that "teachers consistently rated adaptations associated with inclusion as desirable, [yet,] they found them to be significantly less feasible (p. 204). Most principals and teachers agreed "that teachers do not have the instructional skills to meet the academic needs of students with mild disabilities in general classrooms. . . . [which is] consistent with previous reports of general educators' own perceptions of their ability to successfully implement inclusion (Semmel et al., 1991)" (Cook, et al, 1999, p. 204).

Praisner (2003) focused solely on the attitudes of elementary school principals towards the inclusion of students with disabilities. With a sample size of 408 principals at the elementary school level in Pennsylvania, the instrument employed was the Principals and Inclusion Survey (PIS) which "was designed to determine the extent to which variables such as training, experience, and program factors were related to principals attitudes" (p. 136). The answers from the respondents revealed "that most principals agree with the idea of inclusion when it is phrased in a generic and unregulated manner" (p. 138); however, when inclusion practices become more specific and regulated, the attitudes become less favorable. The study also concluded that "the more positive the experiences with students with disabilities the more likely the principal was to choose less restrictive settings" (p. 140). This study also found "no significant relationship between attitude and years of experience in regular education, special education, or elementary administration" (p. 141).

In taking a more specialized approach, Taylor (2005) studied principals' viewpoints on special education in private schools. Adopting Stainback and Stainback's

(1990) definition of an inclusive school, which "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 as seen in Taylor, 2005, p. 281), Taylor notes that there has been little accountability in US private schools regarding special needs since "there have been no large-scale requirements for private schools to disclose the details of their schools to outside agencies" (p. 282). Because there is a dearth of research on inclusive education in private schools, Taylor used the grounded theory approach to support the research as well as a mixed methods approach. The subjects were 77 private schools in Tennessee and information was collected from them via a quantitative design, which included demographic details and to determine the special education services at each school. The second component included a qualitative design with open ended questions, focusing on enrolment policies, mission statement, modification and issues related to barriers in serving students with special needs. Taylor found that "there appeared to be a disconnection between some of the schools' stated missions, their practices, and their strengths and weaknesses as viewed by the administrator" (p. 290); principals felt that smaller class sizes supported inclusive education, in general; and that, an obstacle pertained to a lack of teacher training to support inclusive practices and schooling.

Horrocks, White and Roberts' (2008) study investigated the attitudes principals have towards the inclusion of students with autism and "the relationship between their attitudes and their placement recommendations for children with autism and to identify the relationship between specific demographic factors and attitudes toward inclusion and

placement" (p. 1462). With a response rate of 38%, 571 surveys were returned as a result

of a stratified random sample of principals from public schools in Pennsylvania. The

survey, which included general background information and perspectives towards

inclusion, also included "descriptions of five different students and asked each principal

how he or she would place each of the five students" (Horrocks, et al, 2008, p. 1465).

The results of the data indicated that most of the principals had favorable attitudes

towards inclusion, with a mean score of 3.55 on a 1-5 scale. The Analysis of Variance

(ANOVA) results show that "[p]rofessional experience teaching or supervising children

with autism and holding the belief that children with autism could be included were

positively correlated with Inclusion Attitudes" (p. 1468). Thus, "[a]n overall positive

experience with inclusion was positively correlated with Inclusion Attitude" (p. 1468).

The other significant findings included: "elementary principals had the most positive

placement recommendations"; principals that had spent the longest time in their

respective districts had the "lower Inclusion Attitudes"; and lastly, principals that had the

belief that students with autism were able to be included in regular classrooms "had more

positive Inclusion Attitudes and made higher placement recommendations" (p. 1471).

To establish the rationale for their literature analysis that focuses on "expressed

perceptions from school administrators that indicated perceived threat" from those

students with disabilities, Williams, Pazey, Shelby and Yates (2013) identified the trends

of exclusion. For example, the rise of zero-tolerance policies in conjunction with "high

profile incidents of violence on school campuses" (p. 140). The authors also judge

whether or not the Intergroup Threat Theory "warrants further investigation as a

potential underlying cause" for the high rates of exclusionary discipline practices for students identified as having a disability (p. 146). The findings in this study give weight to the "theory that perceived threats by administrators from students with disabilities may facilitate discriminatory response in circumstances that require disciplinary action" (p. 155). Such threats cause prejudicial behavior towards students with disabilities. However, the authors caution against certainty, as the studies that were studied in this analysis often did not focus explicitly on administrators "personal perceptions of students with disabilities" (p. 156).

Leadership

Leadership can be defined as "the reciprocal process of mobilizing, by persons with certain motives and values, various economic, political, and other resources in a context of competition and conflict, in order to realize goals independently or mutually held by both leaders and followers" (Burns, 1978). As such, the nature of leadership in a school that practices inclusive education is multifaceted. When considering the role of institutional leaders in promoting inclusive education, there is much literature to draw from. The discussion on how to lead successful inclusive schools varies amongst the literature; while some scholars find merit in the impact of transformational leaders on inclusive schooling (Igram, 1997; Angelides, 2012), others focus on the importance of reform, organizational culture and participatory and distributive leadership (Ainscow & Sandill, 2010; Dorczak, 2013; Fullan, 2001; Hallinger, 2003; Riehl, 2000; Shields, 2010). A sentiment that is echoed by many is that a common understanding and dialog about what inclusion means is essential (Booth & Ainscow, 2002; Riehl, 2000; Ryan,

2006). Additionally, "as schools become more inclusive, there is a strong need for principals who are able to define and articulate a mission which incorporates the values of acceptance" (Horrocks, White & Roberts, 2008, p. 146).

      Cross-cultural and intercultural leadership. One of the most important contributors to cross-cultural leadership is Hofstede; in the second edition *Culture's Consequences* (2001), Hofstede articulates five cultural dimensions that have been identified empirically and subsequently, validated. These include: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, individual versus collectivism, masculinity versus femininity, and long-term versus short-term orientation. These cultural dimensions directly impact the leadership styles and the reciprocal relationship between the leader and followers. Hofstede states that "[a]sking people to describe the qualities of a good leader is in fact another way of asking them to describe their culture" (2001, p. 388). As such, in each country the ideal leader or leadership style reflects the cultural norms and expectations of a leader. "In masculine cultures the leader is a masculine hero" while in feminine cultures the leader is modest (p. 388). Or if one is to consider the power distance, for example, "[d]isributing influence comes more naturally to low – than to high-PDI cultures" (p. 389). Hofstede warns that "[l]eadership theories that do not take collective expectations of subordinates into account are basically dysfunctional" (p. 389).

      Kalscheuer (2014) contends that Hofstede, along with Hall, "conceptualize culture . . . [as] relatively stable and homogenous" (p. 179) and that every culture is unique. This uniqueness, however, is identified using the previously stated cultural dimensions, "which reduce cultural uniqueness to variations of an underlying universal

concept – which is normally developed by Western scientist" (p. 179). With such rigid and finite definitions of culture, "cultural differences seem to be naturally given and unbridgeable" (p. 180). As a result, Kalscheuer postulates that "interculturalists fail to consider the possibility of changes . . . [and they] ignore the permanent shifting nature of cultures" (p. 180).

Building on the work of Hofstede and others, the Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) research project set out to "increase our understanding of cross-cultural interactions and the impact of culture on leadership effectiveness" (Northouse, 2010, p. 339). Utilizing Lord and Maher's (1991) implicit leadership theory, a theory which presupposes that individuals have "implicit beliefs about the attributes and beliefs that distinguish leaders from nonleaders" (as seen in Northouse, 2010, p. 348), the GLOBE team delineates "six global leadership behaviors: charismatic/value based, team orientated, participative, humane orientated, autonomous, and self-protective" (as seen in Northouse, 2010, p. 348). These behaviors were then measured and ranked in the 10 country clusters; for example, "[t]he leadership profile in the Confucian Asia countries describes a leader who is self-protective, team orientated, and humane orientated" (Northouse, 2010, p. 350). Given that each country cluster is unique in its design, Javidan, Dorfman, De Luque, and House (2006) have specific recommendations for the typical expatriate or global manager. To begin with, it is not enough for a manager to learn or know about her or his host country. The manager needs to share information about his/her own country, and "the global manager needs to bridge the gap between the two cultures" by explaining, if necessary, how and why the

leadership style may be different than the typical leadership style within the culture (p. 84). Given the extent of the quantitative data collected for the GLOBE studies, the findings presented are valuable as "these studies have contributed to our understanding of culture and leadership" (Northouse, 2010, p. 358). Additionally, the studies have helped to determine universally acknowledged positive and negative attributes of leadership (Northouse, 2010). Nonetheless, the GLOBE research is not without criticism. Northouse (2010) argues that the research findings do not lend themselves to one unifying theory, some of the cultural dimensions are vague, and the way in which leadership is defined is problematic.

Walker and Shuangye (2007) propose that in order to lead effectively in an intercultural school, the administrator must embody the characteristics of an authentic leader by "authentically understanding" and then subsequently, reacting (p. 186). Authentic leadership cannot be arrived at, according to Walker and Shuangye, instead "it is revealed piece by piece through an ongoing iterative process of learning through purposefully engaging" relevant stakeholders "to understand the meaning they ascribe to their school" (p. 185-186). In an intercultural school, the differing "cultural orientations can be used as a bases for ongoing leadership learning" (p. 186). Authentic leadership in an intercultural school requires the leader to participate "in self-directive learning, discovery and reflection" through the process of interaction with the varying cultural orientations (p. 192). Just as Hofstede suggests, Walker and Shuangye point out that a leader cannot rely on a single theory or best practice because the leadership context is culturally unique. In concert with learning, authentic leaders have to strike a balance

between "trusting and mistrusting their previous experience and learning" (p. 193).

Authentic leaders must also learn through student learning and be comfortable with

challenging traditional western constructivist approaches to learning, as these approaches

can flail in certain cross-cultural settings. At the same time, the authentic leader must

learn from the cultural variations (Walker & Shuangy, 2007).

Organizational change and culture. Mayrowetz and Weinstein (1999) contend

that inclusion "is a planned organizational reform, [and therefore] the literature on

leadership for change should provide guidance" (p. 424). Hence, a natural place to begin

it is with Fullan's seminal work, *Leading in a Culture of Change* (2001). In terms of the

ever changing dynamics, Fullan argues that to effectively manage under "messing

conditions" (p. vi), one must understand and utilize the following themes: "pursue [a]

moral purpose, understand the change process, develop relationships, foster knowledge

building, and strive for coherence – with energy, enthusiasm, and hopefulness" (p. 11).

Fullan also challenges the notion of a "superleader . . . because, at best, they provide

episodic improvement followed by frustrated or despondent dependence" (Fullan 2001,

p. 1). As a result, "[d]eep and sustained reform depends on many of us" (Fullan, 2001, p.

2), and a reform movement like inclusive education requires a collective effort.

In a similar vein, Mayrowetz and Weinstein (1999) take a less traditional stance

on leadership and utilize Firestone (1989) and Heller and Firestone's (1995) change

leadership function theory in relation to inclusive schooling and leadership. This theory

identifies six functions that must occur for change: "(a) providing and selling a vision,

(b) providing encouragement and recognition, (c) obtaining resources, (d) adapting

standard operating procedures, (e) monitoring the improvement effort, and (f) handling

disturbances" (Mayrowetz & Weinstein, 1999, p. 425). These functions carried out by an

institution contest the perspective of the leader being the sole agent of change.

Mayrowetz and Weinstein (1999) studied leadership in three different schools in one

school district in New Jersey. The findings suggest that the functions were adhered to by

a variety of people within the district and some outside. The authors conclude that the

functions must be carried out though not solely by the principal. However, they argue

that the principal still has a critical role: "in the two schools where inclusion was

thoroughly institutionalized, the principals were certainly active and effective

participants" (1999, p. 445).

  Examining leadership through the lens of organization culture is applicable in

understanding schools with an inclusive education model. Dorczak (2013) argues that

"when we want to establish permanent and sustainable inclusive processes in our

schools, we need to transform school organisational culture into one that can create good

conditions for inclusiveness on both levels of leadership and educational processes" (p.

48). Drawing on the work of Charles Handy (1986), and his four distinct organizational

cultures (Zeus, Apollo, Athena and Dionysus), Dorczak (2013) identifies the Athena

organizational culture as the most appropriate for an inclusive culture, as it "builds on

teamwork attempting to realize the potential of all members of organisation" (p. 49).

This type of organizational culture needs transactional and, at times, transformational

leadership since the essence of the culture is based on collaboration (Dorczak, 2013).

However, Dorczak (2013), echoing the sentiments of other leadership scholars,

acknowledges that in times of crisis, collaboration may not be the best fit for an institution.

Inclusive leadership. Ryan (2006) promotes inclusive leadership but acknowledges that "[l]eadership and social justice are not natural bedfellows; nor are leadership and inclusion" (p. 7). Traditionally leadership is seen in a hierarchical manner, which is inherently exclusive, for "[t]hey exclude those not privileged enough to occupy formal positions of authority and those who do not possess the personal characteristics needed to influence others" (Ryan, 2006, p. 8). As a result, Ryan rejects the tall organizational structure in favor of flat structures. Similar to Mayrowetz and Weinstein, Ryan (2006) contends that organizations need many leaders. Ryan (2006) also identifies emancipatory leadership as a style that promotes inclusion where leadership has a role both globally and locally with a focus of identifying injustices and then working collaboratively to right the wrong. Ryan (2006) underscores a number of specific activities that inclusive leaders must partake in; these include: "advocating for inclusion, educating participants, developing critical consciousness, nurturing dialogue, emphasizing student learning and classroom practice, adopting inclusive decision and policy strategies, and incorporating whole school approaches" (p. 9).

Ryan's perspective is supported by Booth and Ainscow's important work titled *Index for Inclusion* (2002). In this handbook for creating inclusive schools, the authors focus on how to create inclusive cultures, which is placed in a triangle that also includes producing inclusive policies and evolving inclusive practices (Booth & Ainscow, 2002). The school culture piece is interesting - though the leadership component is not

explicitly stated, certain leadership theories are implied with the attributes of an inclusive school culture containing: collaboration, respect amongst all members of the school, a welcoming environment for all, and the "[s]taff and governors work well together" (Booth & Ainscow, 2002, p. 39). Hence, it appears as if the traditional and exclusionary hierarchical structure is not valued as a contributor to inclusive cultures.

Ainscow and Sandill (2010) discuss the organizational and leadership qualities needed for a school to be inclusive after an extensive review of the literature. The first point explored is "the development of inclusive practices requires processes of social learning within particular organisational contexts" (p. 404). These processes can include peer observations and a shared common language and meaning. In terms of organizational structure, the literature suggests distributive leadership as well as Skrtic's (1999) adhocratic organization (as seen in Ainscow & Sandill, 2010). "Adhocracy is a loose, flexible, self-renewing organic form tied together mostly through lateral means" (Bolman and Deal, 2008, p. 85). "The use of evidence as a means of stimulating experimentation, and collaboration within and between schools, and between schools and the communities they serve, are seen as key strategies" (Ainscow & Sandill, 2010, p. 412). The claim that collaboration needs to happen amongst schools is supported by Fullan (2007) who states that "[l]arge-scale change cannot be achieved if principals identify only with their own schools and are not similarly concerned with the successes of other principals and schools in the district" (p. 302). Lastly, the first step in creating inclusive cultures pertains to staff expectations and getting them to expand "their capacity to imagine what might be achieved" (Ainscow & Sandill, 2010, p. 412).

Transactional-transformational paradigm. In his seminal work, Burns (1978)

presents the transforming and transactional paradigm, identifying transforming

leadership as the ability to "shape and alter and elevate the motives and values and goals

of followers through the vital *teaching* role of leadership" (p. 425). In contrast to the

transforming leader who is "more concerned with *end*-values, such as liberty, justice,

equality" (p. 426), the transactional leader, according to Burns, engages in an exchange

with the follower/s so that each person's mutual interest is met. In this form of

leadership, "values of means - honesty, responsibility, fairness, the honouring of

commitments" are essential components for it to work (Burns, 1978, p. 426).

In extending Burns' work, Bass does not see the transactional and the

transformational leader as polar opposites; instead, "[t]he best leaders are both . . .;

transformational behaviors augment the effects of transactional behaviors" (as seen in

Leithwood & Jantzi, 2005, p. 178). Bass and Avolio (1994) identify transformational

behaviors, or the "Four I's" of transformational leadership, which include: idealized

influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualized consideration

as well as "three transactional dimensions – contingent reward, management-by-

exception, both passive and active" (Bass & Avolio, 1994 as seen in Leithwood & Jantzi,

2005, p. 180).

Northouse (2010) identifies key strengths of a transformational leader. To begin

with, it is a well-researched topic from a myriad of angles. Northouse also claims that it

is innately captivating to many. The "needs of others are central to a transformational

leader" and the process of leading is an exchange between "'the followers' and the

leader's needs" (p. 187). Leadership is given a moral value and under this branch of

leadership, the "approach provides a broader view of leadership that augments other

leadership models" (p. 187). Perhaps most significantly, Bass (1997) argues that the

transactional-transformational paradigm has a universal applicability, which is pertinent

in an intercultural organization such as international schools. In concurrence with Bass'

hypothesis, the researchers in the GLOBE Studies (1999) found

> that several attributes reflecting charismatic/transformational leadership are
>
> universally endorsed as contributing to outstanding leadership. These include
>
> motive arouser, foresight, encouraging, communicative, trustworthy, dynamic,
>
> positive, confidence builder, and motivational. Several other charismatic
>
> attributes are perceived as culturally contingent. These include enthusiastic, risk
>
> taking, ambitious, self-effacing, unique, self-sacrificial, sincere, sensitive,
>
> compassionate, and willful. (p. 250)

Jung, Bass, and Sosik (1995) link two paradigms together, the collectivist culture and

transformational leadership contending that "[s]ince most subordinates in collectivist

cultures have high respect and obedience toward their leaders, transformational leaders'

idealized influence, inspirational motivation and intellectual stimulation processes are

more likely to be enhanced" (1995, p. 14).

Despite the universality of transformational leadership, critics argue that

transformational leadership is a vague notion because it encompasses a plethora of

attributes and actions while at the same time it is problematic to measure (Northouse,

2010). Similarly, this type of leadership is attributed to the trait school of thought and

therefore, it is not perceived of as a learned behavior, according to Brymann, 1992 (as seen in Northouse, 2010, p. 188). Avolio (1999) and Bass and Avolio (1993) claim that the transformational leadership model is "elitist and antidemocractic"; however, Bass and Avolio (1993) and Avolio (1999) negate this claim by arguing "that transformational leaders can be directive and participative as well as democratic and authoritarian" (as seen in Northouse, 2010, p. 189). Lastly, this type of leadership can create the conditions for the abuse of power (Northouse, 2010).

Ingram (1997) sought to determine in his study on leadership in an inclusive setting "if teachers will perceive their principals to exhibit a greater degree of transformational than transactional leadership behaviour" and if the transformational leader helped motivate the teacher (p. 415). Ingram found that leaders in inclusive schools were more likely to be transformational than transactional, and "66 per cent [of the teachers] indicated that their principal exhibited transformational patterns of behaviour 'fairly often' and transactional patterns of behaviour only 'sometimes'" (Ingram, 1997, p. 420). With regard to the second point of inquiry, "highly transformational leadership behaviours had an even stronger relationship with teachers' motivation and willingness to exert effort 'beyond their original expectations'" (p. 421). In closing, Ingram argues that:

> In inclusive schools, it is critical that the principal identify and articulate a philosophy, a vision, that reflects the belief that all children can learn, that all children have the right to be educated with their peers in age-appropriate regular

education classrooms, and that meeting the educational needs of all children is

the responsibility of the school system and staff. (p. 423)

Similar to Ingram's finding, in Angelides' (2012) qualitative study of four

Cypriot schools that are considered inclusive, the results indicated that "the forms of

leadership that supported inclusion, constantly changed and that they were not static" (p.

26). The leaders of the school had to possess a firm knowledge of the local situation so

as to apply the appropriate strategy. Another meaningful finding from the study is that

inclusive leaders support teaching and learning in more informal settings. This finding

was in line with previous research done by Angelides and Karras, 2009; Angelides and

Avraamidou, 2010 (as seen in Angelides, 2012, p. 29). The last important finding related

to hearing the opinions of the students; all the inclusive leaders considered students

perspective when making decisions. Angelides concludes the discussion by stating, "It

seems that what is required is transformational leaders; leaders who are able to influence

and change the culture of their school" (2012, p. 32).

Hallinger (2003), examining the growing trend of transformational leadership,

recommends a hybrid approach to leadership – one that embraces transformational and

instructional leadership, noting that distributive leadership is necessary as it reduces

burnout and it also builds capacity. Though leadership must also be contextualized,

allowing for a situational or contingency approach to leadership that acknowledges that

leadership is a process (Hallinger, 2003).

Breaking away from the more traditional model of the

transaction/transformational leader, Shields (2010) thoroughly distinguishes the

transformative leadership approach. In doing so, Shields asserts "that transformative leadership and leadership for inclusive and socially just learning environments are inextricably related" (p. 559). The transformative model of leadership, located in the critical paradigm, is "founded on critique & promise" with a particular focus on equity and the "goal of individual & organisational transformation" (Precey & Mazurkiewicz, 2013, p. 13). The transformative leader "[l]ives with tension, & challenge; requires moral courage, activism" (Shields, 2010, p. 563). The transformative leader begins with a critical reflection and analysis, understands issues of power, and strives for equity. Shields notes that the transformative theory is often criticized as being "too idealistic and too demanding and . . . [it] place[s] too much responsibility on the shoulders of educators and educational leaders for addressing global ills" (p. 572). Another significant weakness is that the empirical research on the impact of transformative leadership is lacking (Shields, 2010).

Conceptual Framework

Much of Kurt Lewin's research on organizational change is based on the notions of democracy, justice and fairness, as he was firmly committed to resolving social conflict (Burnes, 2004). He examined many different facets of individual and group behavior, from "conflict in marriage . . . [to] communication and attitude change" (Bargal et al., 1992; Cartwright, 1952; Lewin, 1948a as seen in Burnes, 2004, p. 979).

Academically, Lewin was influenced by Gestalt psychology, which emerged from his native homeland. "[A] gestalt is a perceptual pattern or configuration that is the construct of the individual mind" (Burnes & Cooke, 2012, p. 3). Gestalt

psychologists view the individual holistically by understanding the individual parts and their interconnectedness; additionally, individuals are viewed as being products of their present environment and their perceptions of that current environment (Burnes & Cooke, 2012).

As previously noted in Chapter 1, Lewin's Field Theory is a "basis for changing the behavior of individuals and groups by constructing a 'life space' comprising the psychological forces influencing their behaviour at a given point in time" (Burnes & Cooke, 2012, p. 2). To understand Lewin's Field Theory, one must first have an understanding of the concept of life space. The life space includes those items that are perceived by the individual (M. Lewin, 1998 as seen in Burnes & Cook, 2012, p. 2). Each section of the life space symbolizes a unique psychological space (Burnes & Cooke, 2012). Below is a map of a life space of an adolescent and his perception of *free movement* (Lewin, 1939).
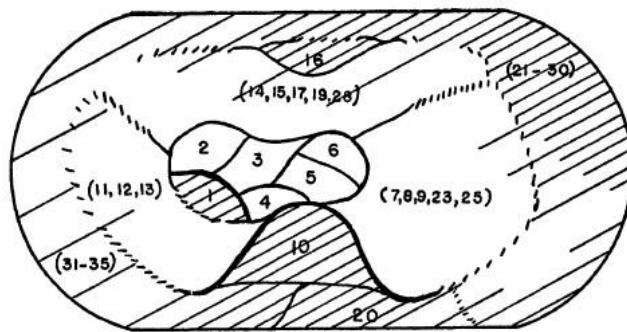
Figure 4: Life space of an adolescent and his perception of free movement (Lewin, 1939, p. 877).

With just a cursory glance, one can notice two distinct features of this life space: the numerical values and the lines. The numerical values represent different freedoms of movement while the lines represent the regions that are not yet accessible

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to the adolescent or those which are no longer accessible; for example, region 10 is for

voting (Lewin, 1939). Additionally, some of the lines are blurred, and thus, the

boundaries are more opaque (Lewin, 1939). If you contrast this life space with an

adult's (see Figure 5 below), it is evident that an adult experiences more certainty than

an adolescent when it comes to free movement.
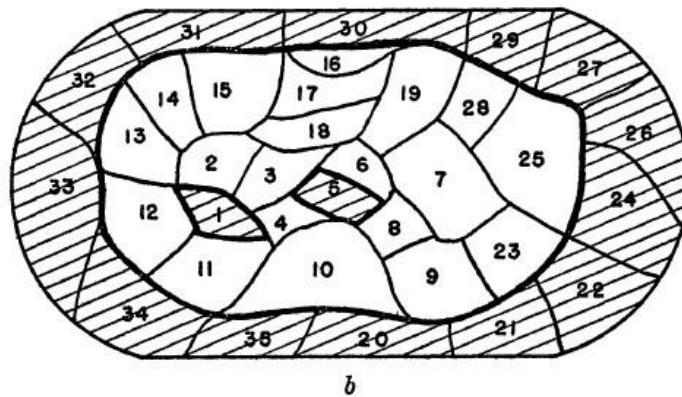
Figure 5: Adult's life space with the perception of free movement (Lewin, 1939, p. 875).

The forces in a life map are dynamic and highly interconnected (Burnes & Cooke,

2012). Lewin also used a formula to describe a person's behavior based on the "set of

symbolic interactions and forces that, depending on their valence (strength), can either

reinforce or change their behavior" (Burnes & Cooke, 2012, p. 5). Below is his formula:

$$B = f(p, e)$$

"[B]ehaviour *B* is a function of the interaction between the person *p* (or group)

and their environment *e*. (*p,e*) is also how Lewin defined the individual or group's life

space" (Marrow 1969 as seen in Burnes and Cooke, 2012, p. 5). As previously

mentioned, the life space is a tool to utilize in order to understand a certain situation

and to promote change by understanding the forces between the O and P, which are

referenced in *Figure 1*.
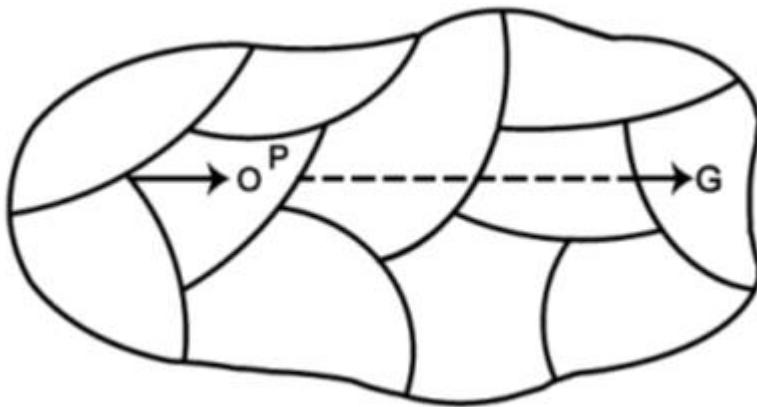
Figure 1: "Life space with person and goal" (Burnes & Cooke, 2012, p. 7)

Lewin lost some of his academic credibility with his own desire to bring credibility to psychology. Lewin "believed his psychological field must be based on mathematical concepts and laws" (Burnes & Cooke, 2012, p. 6); hence, the Lewinian mathematics-based topology. Yet, according to Burnes and Cooke (2012), in trying to find a balance between rigor and relevancy, he lost some relevancy when his dedication to mathematical rigor was undermined by other scholars. For example, Garret (1939) states that Lewin's topology "is merely a novel but cumbersome way of picturing simple psychological situations" (as seen in Burnes & Cooke, 2012, p. 8).

Despite these limitations, the act of constructing a life space for an individual or by a group is the beginning of the change process. For a group or individual to change behavior or to meet a specific goal, understanding the present forces of the individual or group is vital in moving forward because it allows for the "unfreezing of behavior" so that choices can be made about which forces to modify (Burnes & Cooke, 2012). However, Lewin's approach does not stop with Field Theory; it is merely one component of a complex process that includes: group dynamics, action research and the

famous 3-step model (Burnes, 2004).

The Local Global School

Hayden and Thompson (2008) examine the rise in the preference and demand for international schools as the twentieth century progressed. They identify the transition from primarily servicing expatriates to more English medium international schools that cater to the local elite populations (Hayden & Thompson, 2008). There are a variety of international schools groups such as the United World Colleges, European Schools, Shell Schools, Dutch international schools, Yew Chung Schools, National groupings of schools, commercial groupings, and franchises (Hayden & Thompson, 2008). With the exponential growth of schools, along with the number of expatriates receiving education outside of the state system and the number of local elite choosing this option of education, the policy implications are far and wide, as Hayden and Thompson (2008) note.

Citing Thompson's (1998) work, four curriculum categories for international schools are identified: exportation (national curriculums), adaptation (national curriculums, IGCSE, AP International Diploma, French Baccalaureate Option International), integration (European Diploma, IB DP) and creation (MYP, PYP) (as seen in Hayden & Thompson, 2008, p 31). National schools have increasingly showed an interest in the international curriculum for a number of reasons – from dissatisfaction of the A-level examinations to the academic rigor associated with programs such as the IB DP. Additionally, many national schools understand the importance of a more global

perspective and curriculum in both pragmatic and altruistic terms (Hayden & Thompson, 2008).

Hayden and Thompson (2008) explain that the majority of the students at international schools are expatriates still; this demographic has university aspirations – higher than one would find in a national average (p. 43). The tide is shifting, as addressed previously; Hayden and Thompson (2008) divide the student populations of international schools into three categories: "the *global nomad*, the *returnee*, and the *host country national"* (p. 43). For policy-makers, Hayden and Thompson (2008) caution that further research is necessary since many of these TCKs – the global nomads, due to their education, linguistic abilities and adaptability – are likely to have extensive influence in a globalized world as leading professionals for multinational firms (p. 51).

The issue surrounding the development of an elite, distinctive 'class-in-itself' that emerges from international IB World Schools is a complex one. The idea of class is equally multi-layered and there are various ways to look at it. Yet, despite how class is identified, "[i]nternational schooling has always involved a unique 'class-in-itself', . . . such as the 'Third Culture Kid'" (Useem & Downie, 1976 as seen in Bunnell, 2010, p. 353). The common threads that ties TCKs together are their global perspectives, life-styles, and self-perception as worldly citizens (Sklair, 2000 as seen in Bunnell, 2010, p. 253).

A class develops a consciousness once it realizes that its economic interests are interrelated and that it is pragmatic to form a collective identity (Sklair, 2000 as seen in Bunnell, 2010, p. 353). Bunnell (2010) maintains that class consciouness can fall under

two categories: one aimed at "'making money', or 'making good'" (p. 354). Despite this, there are barriers to class consciousness within the IB world, as Bunnell (2010) explains. The IB covers a vast geographical space, there are local cultural contexts, few sudents experience the IB continumn, the lack of advertising by the IB, and so forth (Bunnell, 2010). However, the momentum towards a class consciousness remains. The IB aim to increase access for the DP, the new fundraising branch which will include an alumni forum, the IB Open School, the rebranding, the standardization of the IB Learner Profile, online courses, and the Facebook page all point towards the emergence of a class-in-itself with the potential "to become a 'class-for-itself'" (Bunnell, 2010, p. 356). "This sparks images of annual gatherings of the global elite, air-lifted into Davos or huddles in secretive hotels like the 'Bilderberg Club'" (Bunnell, 2010, p. 356). The author, an IB economics teacher, believes another path is equally viable.

Bunnell argues that the class formation can serve two masters at once: an idealistic objective that promotes peace and tolerance and a more corporate objective. The 'agenda for global businesses' will involve corporate social responsibility, which then can give birth to a third agenda or outcome, as a result of the two former agendas. As Seefried (2007) proposes, IB students will have "a business school brain. . . with a social worker heart"(as seen in Bunnell, 2010, p. 359).

Conclusion

The road to inclusive is full of obstacles with a difficult terrain given the historical context and its origins. The movement to abandon the medical model in favor of a more *just* approach continues to elude, as the previous conceptualizations still

influence our understanding of inclusive education. Cultural components related to language, power, history and identity deserve their rightful place in the inclusive education debate, as international schools are often exemplars of globalization, with many divergent groups and understandings converging at the global local school. Determining how inclusive international schools are with regard to students with special needs is of critical importance as more and more students attend such institutions. As such, the leader of such institutions profoundly impacts the extent to which a school embraces the inclusion of students with special needs.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND METHODS

Introduction

As established in Chapters 1 and 2, examining inclusive education at international schools, places a spotlight on two global trends. The first is the growth of international schools, educating more than four million students worldwide, according to the latest data from the International Schools Consultancy Group (2016). The second, is the Salamanca Declaration and Framework for Action (UNESCO, 1994), which positions an international focus on educating all students, specifically those students with disabilities. As international schools expand their influence (Hayden & Thompson, 2008), it is important to understand the role of inclusive education in international schools. There is a significant gap in the literature on inclusive education at international schools. Thus, given the pivotal role school leaders play in schools with inclusive education models (Angelides, 2012; DiPaola, & Walther-Thomas, 2003; Ingram, 1997; Reihl, 2000; Ryan, 2006), a natural place to address the literature gap on inclusive education at international schools is with international school leaders.

Statement of Study Purpose

The purpose of this study is to determine the factors influencing international school leaders' views of inclusive education and the inclusion of students with special needs.

Research Questions

1. In what ways do international school leaders define inclusive education?

2. What are the institutional factors influencing the views of international school leaders towards the inclusion of students with special needs?

3. What are the classroom factors influencing the views of international school leaders towards the inclusion of students with special needs?

4. What are the individual factors influencing the views of international school leaders towards the inclusion of students with special needs?

Study Methodology and Design Rationale

The methodology for this study is directly related to the epistemological approach undertaken. The foundation of this research lies within a critical theorist and social justice perspective since the focus of this research is on inclusive education. In order to identify factors that influence international school leaders' views of inclusive education, a post-positivist worldview is undertaken in the form of quantitative research. From a post-positivist perspective, phenomenon can be measured in the world as an "objective reality . . . exists "out there" in the world" (Creswell, 2014, p. 7). Additionally, this methodology is deterministic in nature, which allows one to "identify and assess the causes that influence outcomes" (Creswell, 2014, p. 7). For the purposes of this research study, factors that influence international school leaders' views of inclusive education are identified and assessed.

However, in order to have a more holistic approach, a constructivist worldview also guides the qualitative methodology of this research. Given the large geographic

scope of this study, a qualitative and constructivist approach gives a rounder view as this methodology can "focus on the specific contexts in which people live and work in order to understand the historical and cultural settings of the participants" (Creswell, 2014, p. 8). Similarly, the qualitative methodology allows for subjects to construct meaning surrounding their views on inclusive education (Creswell, 2014).

Thus, the research design utilized for this study is a pragmatic, multi-phased mixed methods approach. The purpose or underlining "goal of mixed methods research . . . [is to] draw from the strengths and minimize the weaknesses of both [qualitative and quantitative] in single research studies and cross studies" (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 14-15). In order to objectively measure phenomena, in Stage 2 of the research a survey is utilized to measure and assess the factors influencing international school leaders' views towards inclusive education. As a result of the survey data, in Stage 3 a more subjective or constructivist approach via individual interviews illuminates the quantitative findings with "open-ended questions so that the participants can share their views" (Creswell, 2014, p. 9).

Johnson and Onwuegbuzie (2004) identify a distinct advantage of a mixed methods approach, in particular, "a two-stage sequential design . . . [where] the Stage 1 results can be used to develop and inform the purpose and design of the Stage 2 component" (p. 21). Consequently, using an explanatory sequential mixed methods approach, the qualitative data (the interviews) expands upon the quantitative data (the survey) (Creswell, 2014). A mixed method design "[c]an provide stronger evidence for a conclusion through convergence and corroboration of findings" (Johnson &

Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 21). Lastly, a mixed methods approach allows for "a broader and more complete range of research questions" (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004, p. 21), and through this approach, the researcher gains a deeper understanding of the issue being studied (Hesse-Biber, 2010).

<div align="center">**Research Methods and Rationale**</div>

Survey

The primary instrument used in this study is an online survey. First and foremost, it is the method on which to complete a modified version of Bailey's Inclusion Attitudes Scale (2004). Secondly, "[a] survey design provides a quantitative or numeric description of trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population" (Creswell, 2014, p. 155). In this particular case, the views of international educators towards inclusive education are measured. A benefit of using a survey is that it allows for an "[e]conomy of design and the rapid turnaround in data collection" (Creswell, 2014, p. 157). Similarly, an online survey is cost-effective, quick, wide-reaching, and data friendly (Sue & Ritter, 2012). More importantly, Sue and Ritter (2012) suggest that respondents are more truthful in their responses when filling out an online survey as opposed to in-person interviews.

The survey is a modified version of Bailey's Inclusion Attitudes Scale (2004). This instrument, or a variation of this instrument, has been used in other studies (Ahmmed, Sharma & Deppeler, 2012; Huppe, 2010; Sharma & Chow, 2008). Bailey (2004) embarked on a validation process to ensure the reliability of this instrument, based on a "review of other scales; exhaustive examination of the literature; consultation with specialists in the area of inclusive education for advice and to establish face

validity; and grounding of the study through a small qualitative study" (Bailey, 2004, p.

77). Bailey distributed the survey to 1,367 principals in Queensland, Australia and

achieved a 47.1% return rate with 644 returned (Bailey, 2004). After eliminating any

questionnaire that had more than 20% of the questions unanswered, Bailey (2014) had a

total 639 questionnaires to validate. With the final data set Bailey reached a Cronbach's

alpha of .9210 – underscoring the scale reliability. Using factor analysis, Bailey (2004)

found five subset factors: teacher workload and management, inclusion benefits and

level of disability, learning challenges in inclusive education, excluded students and

professional training. Initially a sixth factor, resource and funding, was included;

however, Bailey (2004) states that "[t]hese are such obvious causes for concern that they

are not worth including. Their inclusion also gives people an automatic excuse to avoid a

difficult program implementation" (p. 82). This line of reasoning holds for this survey

design as well since most international schools are private and therefore determine

tuition costs and resource allocation.

The survey is divided into four sections. Part I measures institutional factors that

influence the views of international school leaders on inclusive education. Part II is

focused on the international classroom factors and their influence on the views of

inclusive education for international school leaders. In the third section, Part III,

institutional data is collected. Part IV, the last section, focuses on individual factors that

influence an international school leaders' view of inclusive education.

The survey has a 4-point Likert scale, thereby eliminating a middle position or

neutral position. This standardized approach of using a Likert scale is used because it

makes it "less likely . . . that respondents will become confused" (Fowler, 2013, p. 105).

Additionally, the survey allows for the collection of a wide variety of data about the

participants, including demographic data and work experience.

Stage 1: Survey design. In Stage 1, Bailey's Inclusion Attitudes Scale (2004)

was modified. To begin with, the survey was shortened from 46 questions (including

demographic data) to 35 questions (including demographic data). While some questions

were eliminated, some were added to meet the specific context of an international

school. Next, the five point Likert scale was changed to a four point Likert scale in order

to encourage a positionality. Lastly, the language of the survey was changed to a), reflect

the international school environment, and b), align with more contemporary terminology.

In this stage, professional feedback was given by dissertation advisors and

colleagues. This feedback provided clarity on the language of the instrument as well as

the length of the survey. As previously mentioned, the survey was purposefully built to

be brief, as international school leaders often face time constraints with such endeavors.

Additionally, "the length of a survey generally are found to have a negative linear

relation with response rates in both mail and web surveys" (Cook et al., 2000, Edwards

et al., 2002; Heberlein & Baumgartner, 1978; Singer, 1978, Walston et al.,

2006; and Yammarino et al., 1991 as seen in Fan, W., & Yan, Z., 2010, p. 133). Upon

completion of the feedback, the final survey was produced.

Stage 2: Survey distribution. In this stage, the survey was administered through

one organization, the Academy of International School Heads (AISH). "The Academy

for International School Heads (AISH) is a non-profit, member-based professional

organization, dedicated to support, professional development and advocacy, founded in 1999 by 15 organizations and individuals" (What is AISH, 2007). The current CEO is Bambi Betts. There were 410 members when the survey was distributed. The survey was distributed by the researcher's former head of school, Andreas Koini, to all current AISH members.

The response rate is essential to the study design, for "the lower the response rate, the less the results can be generalized to the population as a whole" (Utts & Heckard, 2006, p. 109). According to Fowler (2013), email questionnaires "can produce widely varying results" (p. 53). Fowler (2013) cites two studies, Dillman Smyth, & Christian (2008) and Kaplowitz, Hadlock, and Levine (2004), the former obtained a response rate of almost 60% when surveying faculty, while the latter had a response rate of around 30% in a study with students (as seen in Fowler, 2013, p. 53). The aim of this study was to reach the higher benchmark - a response rate of 60% for *Part I* of the survey distribution. To support this response rate goal, participants were informed of their helpfulness in supporting the research by answering the questions, as Sue & Ritter (2012) suggest using behavioral theory, with a focus on cognitive dissonance. Other specific steps were taken in this study to increase the likelihood of a higher response rate such as "identifiable sponsors . . . and repeated contacts" (Fowler, 2013, p. 54). For the survey distribution, an email with the survey link was sent out to the AISH members, which included a brief introduction written by Andreas Koini – an identifiable sponsor. Approximately, one week later, Andreas Koini sent a follow-up email to the same target population (Creswell, 2014).

Despite these efforts, the response rate was low, totaling just 16.5% (n=68). The timing of the survey distribution was problematic. The first contact to the AISH members was the first week of June, 2015. The second contact occurred during the second week of June, 2015. It is common knowledge that the end of the school year is a busy time for school leaders, and it is, therefore, assumed that the timing of the survey distribution impacted the response rate. To overcome this deficit, a greater focus was given to the interviews.

Interviews

Using a mixed methods approach requires a qualitative element and for this study, the second instrument consists of interviews. Individual interviews of nine international educators were completed, which allowed for "a more complex picture of the . . . issue under study" (Creswell, 2014, p. 186). An "in-depth perspective" was derived from interviews on the factors influencing international school leaders' views of inclusive education (Creswell, 2014, p. 222). Additionally, triangulation, using a variety of data sources (Creswell, 2014), adds value to a study and "ultimately fortifies and enriches a study's conclusions, making them more acceptable to advocates of both qualitative and quantitative methods" (Hesse-Biber, 2010). Seidman (2012) argues that when the goal of the research "is to understand the meaning people involved in education make of their experience, then interviewing provides a necessary . . . avenue of inquiry" (para 2). The meaning international school leaders derive from their experience or lack of experience with inclusive education is critical to this study.

Stage 3: Interviews. In Stage 3 international school leaders were interviewed on Skype or telephone based on their willingness to be, as identified in the survey. Additionally, a wide cross-section of international school leaders were chosen to include both genders and varying levels of education, experience, nationalities, and leadership approaches. It was determined by the researcher to stop at nine interviews, as the point of saturation had been reached (Creswell, 2014). The interviews were semi-structured with seven questions; however, there was some flexibility to ask further questions based on the interviewees response. Each interview lasted between 20-30 minutes and all occurred between June and August, 2015.

Data Analysis Procedures

Quantitative

Given the low return rate, the approach towards the data analysis had to be modified. While basic descriptive statistics were always intended to be used and were subsequently used, some of the more complex inferential statistical methods such as analysis of variance and regression analysis were abandoned due to the low response rate.

In analyzing the survey results, descriptive statistics on international school leaders' views of inclusive education were identified. Descriptive statistics illustrate the summary numbers of the sample (Utts & Heckard, 2006). These provides a baseline and a snap shot of the phenomenon being measured in "numerical and graphical summarizes . . . [which] characterize a dataset" (Utts & Heckard, 2006, p. 59). In contrast, inferential statistical methods allows for "generalizations about the population" being studied (Utts

& Heckard, 2006, p. 183). The only inferential statistical method used in this study was the T-test, which was used to determine the mean difference between two populations (Utts & Heckard, 2006) and their views on inclusive education.

Qualitative

The nine individual semi-structured interviews were recorded. The researcher transcribed each interview and reviewed the transcriptions. The interviews were transcribed word-for-word, with two exceptions: one, when the language was inaudible due a poor recording; and two, when an interviewee stuttered or repeated oneself. The raw data were collected, organized and read through many times (Creswell, 2014). After this initial stage, the data were coded from which themes and descriptions were identified with the final stage consisting of the interpretation of the data (Creswell, 2014).

<div align="center">**Conclusion**</div>

In this chapter, a review of the statement of study purpose and research questions are presented. The study design and rationale; research design and rationale; and data analysis procedures are also identified. The results of the study are reported in the proceeding chapter in order of the research questions with the survey results appearing first and then followed by the interview results.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESEARCH FINDINGS

Introduction

The purpose of this study is to determine the factors influencing international school leaders' views of inclusive education and the inclusion of students with special needs. Survey and interview data were collected for this study. The findings of this research are organized in this chapter based on the four research questions:

1. In what ways do international school leaders define inclusive education?

2. What are the institutional factors influencing the views of international school leaders towards the inclusion of students with special needs?

3. What are the classroom factors influencing the views of international school leaders towards the inclusion of students with special needs?

4. What are the individual factors influencing the views of international school leaders towards the inclusion of students with special needs?

Profile of Participants

Survey Participants

Seventy-three members of the Academy for International School Heads filled out the survey from a pool of 410. The response rate was 16.5% (n= 68); incomplete surveys were not included.

Table 1 shows the nationalities of the survey participants. The majority of the survey participants were American (52.1%), British nationalities represented the second largest group (19.2%), followed by Australian (6.8%) and Canadian (4.1%). German,

Mexican, New Zealander and South Africans made up 2.7% of the participants. Lastly,

French and Swiss nationalities were the smallest group at 1.4%.

Table 1

Nationality of survey participants

Nationality	Frequency	Percent
American	38	52.1
British	14	19.2
Australian	5	6.8
Canadian	3	4.1
Austrian	2	2.7
German	2	2.7
Mexican	2	2.7
New Zealander	2	2.7
South African	2	2.7
French	1	1.4
Swiss	1	1.4
Missing	1	1.4

Note: 5 respondents reported dual nationality; both nationalities are included in the above table.

The gender composition of the survey participants, as displayed in Table 2, was

similar to the gender distribution of the Academy for International School Heads. The

composition of AISH is 33% female and 67% male. The survey participants matched the

broader demographics of the organization, and included 20 females and 46 males.

Table 2

Gender of survey participants

Male		Female		Missing		Total	
Count	N%	Count	N%	Count	N%	Count	N%
46	67.6	20	29.4	2	3.0	68	100

In terms of education level, 59.7% of the survey participants have a masters' degree, followed by 34.3% with a doctorate and 6.0% with a bachelors. Table 3 shows the ages of the survey participants. A majority of survey participants (54.4%) were between *50-64 years of age*; 32.4% of the participants were *35-49 years of age*, while 8.8% were *65 and above* and only 3% were between *20-34 years of age*.

Table 3

Age of survey participants

Age	Frequency	Percent
50-64 years	37	54.4
35-49 years	22	32.4
65 and above	6	8.8
20-34 years	2	2.9
Missing	1	1.5

Over 80% of the survey participants have 10 or more years' experience working at international schools and 50% of the participants have 20 or more years' experience, as identified in Table 4.

Table 4

Survey participants' years of experience in international schools

International School Experience in Years	Frequency	Percent
20 and above	34	50.0
10-19	22	32.4
5-9	9	13.2
2-4	2	2.9
Less than 1	1	1.5

Interview Participants

School leaders work at international schools in Asia, Europe, Africa, and North America. The sizes of their schools vary, from less than 250 students to over 1,000. Greater detail is not given to protect the identity of the participants. Almost half of the survey respondents agreed to a telephone or Skype interview (48.5%). Twelve international school leaders were contacted and nine agreed to and completed an interview. The interviewees were chosen based on two main criteria: 1) their willingness to be interviewed as identified in the initial survey and 2) their varying demographics and experience (age, gender, nationality, education level, years of experience in international schools, and leadership style).

Three female and six male school leaders were interviewed for this study. Five of the interviewees have a Masters' degree and four have a Doctorate degree. As demonstrated in Table 5, five interviewees were American, making them the largest group for the interviews, followed by two Canadians, one British and one South African.

Table 5

Nationalities of interviewee participants

Nationality	Frequency
American	5
Canadian	2
British	1
South African	1

Table 6 shows the years of experience interviewees have at international schools. The school leaders have an array of experience within the international school setting from less than 1 year to more than 20 years.

Table 6

Years of experience in international schools of interview participants

Years of Experience in International Schools	Number of Interviewees
20+	4
10-19	2
Less than 1	1
2-4	1
5-9	1

As observed in Table 7, the school leaders represented a cross section of ages, with seven of the interviewees in the most prominent age ranges for the AISH members that responded to the survey: 35-49 and 50-64.

Table 7

Age of interviewee participants

Age of Interviewees	Number of Interviewees
35-49	4
50-64	3
20-34 years	1
65+ years	1

Survey and Interview Findings

Research Question 1: In What Ways do International School Leaders Define Inclusive Education?

Interview results. Interviewees were asked to define inclusive education. As one school leader suggested, inclusive education is a continuum and that "it doesn't mean the same thing to everyone" (Interviewee 7). However, two primary definitions of inclusive education were identified through the interviewee responses; the first fits within the Education For All (1990) perspective of providing an education for all students and the second centers on a school's admittance policy.

The school leaders whose definitions fell within the Education For All perspective discussed ensuring access to education for all students, regardless of circumstance. The following are interviewee examples of this perspective.

I think it really means providing an education for all and that every child deserves a high quality education. (Interviewee 7)

The reason I use that term is basically in order to truly be an inclusive educator you have to be open and accepting of every student who walks in our door. You

can't basically just say I am an inclusive educator; you actually have to practice

that. And that's the key. You have to accept the responsibility that every student

who comes in the door is your student. And it's your responsibility to include

them in an active, engaging and meaningful way. . . And in order to do that, you

have to accept them for who they are, all of their differences, their strengths and

their weaknesses and do everything you can to accommodate them. And again to

do that, you have to be open minded. (Interviewee 6)

I would define inclusive education as opportunities to include all students.

(Interviewee 8)

It's giving everybody the same opportunities irrespective of strengths,

weaknesses, differences. The same opportunity to succeed. (Interviewee 9)

The other definition of inclusive education identified by interviewees placed an emphasis

on a school's admittance policy, as the quotes below demonstrate.

Equity and access … I guess that would be my definition as well. It's equal and

entitlement to all the children who a school enrolls to have access to the mission,

the curriculum and the vision of the school. So in other words, if we say that you

are a student at our school, then you have as much right to access as any other

student. (Interviewee 5)

I guess our definition, my definition – it may not be in line with everybody at

school–is that when we accept students, we accept them with the full knowledge

that every student is different and that we do not identify academic excellence as

being the be all and end all and that students can show excellence in many

different areas that may not have anything to do with academics. And that we as

teachers have a responsibility to ensure that we are providing the best opportunity

for all students regardless of a diagnosis, regardless of physical or other

challenges they may be facing or other differences. (Interviewee 3)

I would define inclusive education as educating any child that our school has

capacity to service. Inclusive means all sorts of differentiation and learning

differences. I also see inclusive education as gifted and talented students as well.

(Interviewee 4)

Research Question 2: What are the Institutional Factors Influencing the Views of International School Leaders towards the Inclusion of Students with Special Needs?

The institutional landscape can play an important role in determining an

international school leader's view towards inclusion education and the inclusion of

students with special needs. The institutional variables examined in this section include:

an institution's philosophy, access to specialists, faculty training, the influence of

stakeholder views, and national laws.

Institution's philosophy towards inclusive education and the inclusion of students with special needs. Based on the results of the study, there are four key

findings regarding the institution's philosophy towards inclusive education. First, a

majority of the survey participants reported that their school mission/vision promotes

inclusive education and that their school's purpose is to enhance the learning of all

students, including those with special needs. Second, most survey participants reported

that their schools' are composed of a diverse faculty. Lastly, most of the survey

participants stated that their school does not have a zero rejection policy for students with special needs. The interviewees identified two reasons which can explicate admittance policies for students with special needs: the business model driving education and a school's ability to serve a student with special needs in terms of trained faculty and/or facilities.

Survey results. The survey results showed that 66.2% percent of the participants reported that their school's mission and/or vision promotes inclusive education, as seen in Table 8. Only a small number, 2.9%, of the survey participants *strongly disagreed* with this claim.

Table 8

Response to survey question: Your international school's mission and/or vision statement promotes inclusive education.

Answer	Frequency	Percent
Agree	30	44.1
Disagree	21	30.9
Strongly Agree	15	22.1
Strongly Disagree	2	2.9

Along similar lines, 73.5% of the participants *strongly agreed* or *agreed* with the statement following statement: *The purpose of your international school is to provide instructional support to enhance the learning of all students including students with special needs.* This result is shown in Table 9.

Table 9

Response to survey question: The purpose of your international school is to provide instructional support to enhance the learning of all students including students with special needs.

Answer	Frequency	Percent
Agree	33	48.5
Strongly Agree	17	25.0
Disagree	14	20.6
Strongly Disagree	4	5.9

As displayed in Table 10, over 90% of the survey participants *strongly agreed* or *agreed* with the statement: *The faculty at your international school come from diverse backgrounds and cultures.*

Table 10

Response to survey question: The faculty at your international school come from diverse backgrounds and cultures.

Answer	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Agree	33	48.5
Agree	29	42.6
Disagree	5	7.4
Strongly Disagree	1	1.5

As demonstrated in Table 11, 91.4% of the survey participants *strongly disagreed* or *disagreed* with the statement: *There is a zero rejection admissions policy for students with special needs at your international school.* Moreover, 40% *strongly disagreed* with the aforementioned perspective.

Table 11

Response to survey question: There is a zero rejection admissions policy for students with special needs at your international school.

Answer	Frequency	Percent
Disagree	35	51.4
Strongly Disagree	27	40.0
Agree	5	7.4
Strongly Agree	0	0
Missing	1	1.5

Interview results. The interview data align with the findings from the survey data concerning a school's admittance policies for students with special needs. According to the interviewees, there are two main forces at work when determining admittance policies for students with special needs at an international school: the business model shaping schools and the ability to serve the students in terms of personnel and facilities.

The first force is the business model or approach to running a school, which can result in a focus on performance data. One interviewee explained the impact of the business model on admittance policies, as described in the follow excerpt.

> I think a lot of the obstacles…in anything in education is what is driving it at the moment. Being driven by business, which means the bottom line, which means data, which means you've got to perform and the emphasis is so much more on that instead of being more inclusive, I am noticing that schools are becoming more selective in their admissions. . . So I think the biggest obstacle is this business model and this competitiveness that comes with it where you are trying to prove through data how good your school is. (Interviewee 9)

Interviewees also elaborated on two other reasons to restrict admissions to an international school for students with special needs: a lack of specialist support for students with special needs and/or facilities that are not designed for students with physical challenges.

Two participants framed restricting admissions as an ethical obligation if the school does not have the necessary specialist to support students with special needs. Their responses follow.

It would be ethically responsible for me to turn back certain children to other schools where our services are lacking. (Interviewee 4)

I think there is a higher responsibility on being ethical in terms of being sure you can really serve the needs of the students you accept. And I'd love to say we are a fully inclusive school but I know we are not. We don't have the capacity; we don't have the space – the specialism on staff. (Interviewee 5)

Specialist support for students with special needs, as provided by the U.S. State Departments' Office of Overseas Schools, can also influence admissions decision for students with special needs, as noted by one interviewee.

And the US State Department has, over the years, offered support – actually support with an assistant for employees who are going overseas who have children who have some special needs. So for example, if they would come for admissions, their child is on the Autism spectrum or something and they would say, okay, we are entitled to an assistant paid for by the US government. So as a school leader you think – okay, if this child is coming with an assistant and . . .

we don't have to pay for the   assistant, that's fine. So then, I would be inclined to

accept the child. Sometimes it works better and sometimes is doesn't work so

well. But at least the knowledge you have to have an assistant to help out can

change your decision. Whereas another family might come and they can't support

an assistant and you might not be able to accept that child. (Interviewee 8)

Admissions policies are also related to a school's facilities and whether or not a

school is designed to support students with physical challenges. One school leader

discussed this issue, as seen in the following passage.

Inclusive education, for example . . . if you wish to include all students and you

have students who are physically disabled and cannot access parts of the building

because there is no elevator. You certainly would not be able to accept them into

your school because . . . there'd be no way for them to move around the school.

Having said that, I have had kids in wheelchairs and I moved the whole school

around them so that they were always on the first floor. But let me tell you that is

not an easy thing to do. (Interviewee 8)

Along with admissions decisions for students with special needs, two

interviewees discussed the issue of exiting students in certain circumstances. The first

interviewee explained a situation concerning a student with Down Syndrome.

[The student] benefitted massively from being there, but it also reached a point

where the child's self-esteem started getting down because they were lagging

behind and just weren't coping…[I]t was getting to one of those critical points

where you say who is this benefiting now? The rest of the class is getting along

perfectly fine but is the kid benefiting from it? (Interviewee 9)

I've been in a handful of situations where it is possible to be inclusive when kids

are at a certain age and then it is no longer possible once they pass that age. And

this is just a reality of their needs and what the school provides, and again, it has

to do with that college preparatory nature. (Interviewee 2)

Two school leaders identified experiences around admittance or exiting policies

of international schools as defining moments that shaped their views on the inclusion of

students with special needs. The first interviewee spoke of the issues surrounding the exit

of an elementary student with special needs before the student could enter the middle

school. The school had informed the parents of the student's exit after elementary

school. The interviewee further explained:

It wasn't the type of school that could allow [student x] to continue to study. And

this made all of us feel a little bit uncomfortable…And then we started to ask

ourselves, well, why wouldn't we accept this student? Why would we say no to

[student x]? What are the reasons? (Interviewee 3)

Through a reflective process with the teachers, the school decided to keep the student

enrolled. It is important to note that independently of this situation, the mission statement

was re-written during that time with a focus on inclusive education. In a similar vein,

another interviewee discussed denying a student entry as a defining personal moment

and one for the school as well. A family was seeking enrollment for their two children

and one of them had multiple disabilities. The school did not accept the student with

multiple disabilities, as the interviewee explained.

> I think our failure to be able to serve [the student] was strictly the catalyst or sort
>
> of tipping point for me to begin moving our school toward becoming more like
>
> [school x]. (Interviewee 1)

Access to professionally trained staff/specialists. As identified in the previous

section, access to trained specialists is a consideration when determining if to accept a

student with special needs. The survey data regarding access to professionally trained

staff and specialists to support students with special needs indicate that most schools

have a Learning Support Department. The survey and interview data reveal that most

study participants identified the lack of access to trained staff and specialists as an

obstacle to inclusive education at international schools. The interview results indicate

that a school's location, cultural context, and the lack of systemic support can impact the

access to specialist.

Survey results. Of the 68 survey respondents surveyed, 79.4% reported having a

Learning Support Department at their school. The size of the Learning Support

Departments varied, as noted in Table 12, with a majority (53.7%) having 1-4 faculty

positions in the Learning Support Department. Nine school leaders reported ten or more

faculty positions.

Table 12

Response to survey question: If you do have a Learning Support Department at your school, how many faculty positions does it include?

Learning Support Department Size	Frequency	Percent
1-4	29	53.7
5-9	16	29.6
10-19	7	13.0
20 and above	2	3.7

As seen in Table 13, 71.2% of the survey respondents *strongly agreed* or *agreed* that a lack of access to occupational and speech therapists and other professionals makes inclusive education and therefore, the inclusion of students with special needs, difficult at their school.

Table 13

Response to survey question: Lack of access to occupational and speech therapists and other professionals makes inclusive education difficult at your international school.

Answer	Frequency	Percent
Agree	28	41.1
Strongly Agree	21	30.1
Disagree	17	25.0
Strongly Disagree	2	3.0

Interview results. The interview data confirm the survey data regarding the Learning Support Departments and the lack of access to trained specialist. Seven of the interviewees reported having a Learning Support Department within their schools; yet, a majority of the interviewees noted the difficulty in accessing trained specialists. As a

result of the interviews, three variables emerged which may influence an international

school's access to trained specialists: the location, the cultural context, and a lack of

systemic support.

The location of the school has a considerable impact, according to a majority of

the interviewees, on a school's ability to access to specialists. School leaders deemed

specialists as an important consideration for supporting the inclusion of students with

special needs. Two undercurrents propel this location issue: either the specialists are not

in the location or the specialists that are in the location do not speak English. Six of the

participants discussed the difficulty in accessing trained specialists in their school's

location. Below are some of the interviewee statements pertaining to location.

> Absolutely, access to specialists in the neighborhood, also the language
>
> difference because you might get a specialists but they don't work in English or
>
> they don't work in mother tongue of the child. (Interviewee 8)
>
> So the access to specialist help is really not available here. So I've talked to our
>
> principal about how we build that capacity . . . and how to meet the needs of kids
>
> because in [country x], speech pathology and stuff like that must be hidden
>
> somewhere because I don't see it available. (Interviewee 6)
>
> It depends on where the location of the school is. One of our biggest challenges is
>
> that within [city x], there are not a lot of special resources in terms of personnel.
>
> (Interviewee 3)
>
> We do have a special needs program within our school; however, to get proper
>
> evaluations – educational evaluations – no speech and language pathologist, no

occupation therapist and no physical therapist are easily accessible to our

school…The services are the biggest obstacle. (Interviewee 4)

One participant noted a more subtle difficulty in accessing specialists, the cultural

context. Though the student may speak the same language as the specialist, the specialist

may not fully understand the cultural context in which the student lives. For example, the

student may be a third culture kid (TCK) from a bicultural family with the mother

belonging to the host nation while the father does not. The specialists may only see the

child as belonging to the host nation and might, therefore, assume the student has a

certain background, which includes the host country family, school, and socio-cultural

norms. Given that the child does not fit within this viewpoint, a psycho-educational

evaluation can become more difficult, adding another dimension to the location issue

(Interviewee 5). As the interviewee noted,

It is not just language confusion, it is a cultural confusion. Which just makes it

harder; it doesn't make it impossible, just harder to work in a context.

(Interviewee 5)

To overcome the barrier of location, travel becomes a necessity in order to access

trained specialists, according to two interviewees. Some students must travel to other

major cities (Interviewee 3) relatively close to their international school or some must fly

to other countries (Interviewee 4). The latter interviewee discussed the option of hiring a

travelling psychologists but noted that the size of the school did not warrant the expense

(Interviewee 4).

In contrast to views expressed about access to specialists, the two interviewees representing schools in Europe, did not express this as a concern. In fact, one noted that the staffing model in this interviewee's school included a large Learning Support Department with many specialists on hand (Interviewee 1).

International schools are generally not tied to a national system or larger district, and as a result, schools often lack a systemic support structure. Two interviewees made note of this in terms of accessing specialists to support students with special needs. Their perspectives are reported below:

Whether your school has 200 kids or 500 kids, you are not the same as a United States district that's got 100,000 kids and huge resource base plus federal funds to support the learning differences of all kinds of kids that come to those districts. . . so that issue of being relatively small and a million miles from the mothership is just a limitation for international schools – almost universally. (Interviewee 2)

I just think it is so context specific and you don't have the background to rely upon. You don't have your big national system, all of your specialists on tap, whether it be the district or to the local education authority – whatever government you come from. You can kind of be on your own. (Interviewee 5)

This lack of systemic support can also be tied to the financial challenges of running a program to support students with special needs. As one interviewee stated:

It ties back to if you don't have the resources outside of school then it is prohibited. We could never hire a battery of psychologists and psychiatrists….it becomes prohibitive for a small school. (Interviewee 5)

To resolve the cost issue, two interviewees explained that in order to provide specialist and individual support for a student with special needs the cost is carried over to the student's family. Interviewee 1 represents a school that currently includes students with mild, moderate and severe special needs. This school leader explained:

> In our current elementary set up, where you might have a 1:1 assistant or teacher, it here could be considerably higher costs…but we manage to bring that down by the opening of our self-contained classes. . . We actually reduced that supplemental/additional costs by about half. And in some cases, it is simply just that we pass on the cost of therapy such as speech and language ROT to the parents but at a subsidized cost… (Interviewee 1)

Faculty training and viewpoint on the inclusion of students with special needs. The survey results indicated that faculty background and preparation were important considerations. The survey participants reported that some teachers and administrators and most teacher aides are not trained to support students with special needs. Survey respondents also reported that most of their faculty members collaborate to support the learning of all students. The interviewees reported that teacher viewpoints on the inclusion of students with special needs and the lack of teacher training to support students with special needs can be obstacles at international schools. To overcome these obstacles, interviewees identified the importance of teacher recruitment and teacher training.

Survey results. According to the results as shown in Table 14, survey participants stated that only 36.8% of teacher aides are trained to support students with special needs.

Table 14

Response to survey question: Teacher aids are trained to support students with special
needs at your international school.

Answer	Frequency	Percent
Disagree	26	38.2
Agree	25	36.8
Strongly Disagree	16	23.5
Strongly Agree	0	0
Missing	1	1.5

As displayed in Table 15, 62.6% of the survey participants *strongly agreed* or

agreed that administrators are trained to support students with special needs. This view is

similarly aligned with school leaders' views on teachers as demonstrated in Table 16,

where 63.3% *strongly agreed* or *agreed* that teachers are trained to support students with

special needs. Therefore, over 30% of teachers and administrators are not trained to

support students with special needs, according to the survey participants.

Table 15

Response to survey question: Administrators are trained to support students with special
needs at your international school.

Answer	Frequency	Percent
Agree	35	52.2
Disagree	19	28.4
Strongly Agree	7	10.4
Strongly Disagree	6	9.0
Missing	1	1.5

Table 16

Response to survey question: Teachers are trained to support students with special needs at your international school.

Answer	Frequency	Percent
Agree	39	57.4
Disagree	18	26.5
Strongly Disagree	7	10.3
Strongly Agree	4	5.9

Most of the survey respondents (91.2%) reported that their faculty members collaborate to improve the learning for all students at their school. This result is displayed in Table 17.

Table 17

Response to survey question: All faculty members collaborate to improve the learning for all students at your international school.

Answer	Frequency	Percent
Agree	47	69.1
Strongly Agree	15	22.1
Disagree	6	8.8
Strongly Disagree	0	0

Interview results. The interview data help illuminate a more complete story regarding a lack of teacher training to support inclusive education and teachers' views on inclusive education. In the interviews, school leaders did not mention a lack of training for administrators or teacher aides, but instead, six interviewees focused on the lack of teacher training and/or the hesitancy of teachers when it comes to the inclusion of students with special needs. Below are examples of their comments.

I just finished my third year in the international school system in [country x]. It has enhanced – unfortunately, it has enhanced my knowledge that educators aren't as well versed or well-trained in special needs and inclusive education. (Interviewee 4)

Definitely, teachers are probably some of the most skeptical because they are worried about what this is going to mean for their classroom environment. (Interviewee 7)

And the other is teacher comfort and teacher expertise with knowing how to accommodate and how to modify and what is the fine line between accommodations and modifications. (Interviewee 3)

I would say that the biggest obstacle probably is, perhaps understandably hesitancy of teachers, mainstream teachers, who feel uncertain nor unequipped on how to deal with and handle a more inclusive environment. Most of the time I would say that that hesitancy comes not from a desire to serve the children… (Interviewee 1)

In order to overcome teacher apprehension towards the inclusion of students with special needs and the lack of teacher training on inclusive techniques that support students with special needs, targeted recruitment and professional development are necessary, according to a majority of the interviewees. The role of the school leader in promoting the inclusion of students with special needs starts with the hiring process, as two interviewees indicated:

I would say that in my role, hiring – the hiring process is probably the starting

point. The absolute important point at which a school like ours needs to say, "We

are an inclusive school. If you believe in this and if you can buy into this and if

you are prepared to – even if you don't know everything – as long as you are

prepared to work and have accepted professional development, then you are a

good match for our school." (Interviewee 3)

There is a need for schools to be really clear about what they believe so that when

you are recruiting, retaining, training staff, you are very clear about this is what

we believe, so please be sure you believe that before you come here.

(Interviewee 5)

Correspondingly, once faculty are hired, a clear focus on professional

development that supports the inclusion of students with special needs is important,

according to interviewees. The need for teacher professional development in this area

was identified by eight of the nine school leaders. This issue is elaborated upon in the

quotes below from five interviewees.

Training is vital….And as needed, we send them to training and conferences as

soon as possible once they are here if they are not already special education

trained or experienced. (Interviewee 1)

I think another important role of the leader is to . . . basically engage the staff in

meaningful professional development about this stuff because that's another gap I

see. People are kind of left on their own. (Interviewee 6)

It's a regular topic at staff meetings. I have had [consultants] coming in and giving workshops to the teachers. We've attended inclusion workshops and conferences…Anyway it is part of our professional development whether that is in a staff meeting or on a professional development day. It is something tomorrow when the staff all return for the school year that is mentioned in my introductory speech... I go through the mission and I talk about the type of school we are… (Interviewee 9)

We've also done quite a bit of professional development in the last two years on differentiation within the class. A lot of it has been focused on working with ESL students but the same strategies apply across for students of all needs. (Interviewee 7)

And the third part is what I'd say is professional development because we can't expect teachers to know how to differentiate or modify programs. (Interviewee 3)

One interviewee tied teacher training to the transient nature of teachers in international schools, as seen below.

Transient teaching, turnover teachers in international schools is very high and that is always hard to build sustainable systems that carry on. You have to do a lot of training and retraining because people come and go. (Interviewee 4)

Lastly, one school leader cautioned that there are limits to professional development for teachers who do not believe in inclusive education. As a result, if a teacher doesn't support inclusive education, as an interviewee explained, "It's going to be very difficult for you to change their perception. So you really have to do some

serious professional development or counsel them out if that is your school mission"
(Interviewee 8).

Parent views. Parents are a key stakeholder at international schools and can
impact international school leaders' views on the inclusion of students with special
needs. The interview results suggests that school leaders disagree as to whether or not
parent views are an obstacle to the inclusion of students with special needs. The
interview results suggest that if an international school leader champions the inclusion of
students with special needs and engages in dialog with parents, then a school leader may
be able to alleviate parent concerns.

Interview results. Parent views were not addressed on the survey, and as such,
there is no quantitative data to report. However, the interviewees provided data on parent
views regarding the inclusion of students with special needs. Interviewees were divided
on the extent to which parent views are an obstacle to the inclusion of students with
special needs. Five of the interviewees identified parent concerns towards the inclusion
of students with special needs as a notable obstacle while four of the interviewees did not
see parent views as a major obstacle.

Below is a sample of how school leaders explained parental views as barrier to
the inclusion of students with special needs; in particular, these address the parent views
of regular education students.

I've always tried to discourage streaming in my class. I think it is counter-

productive. But you always have parents saying but my child is so bright and I

don't want them to be held back by the kids that are struggling. And it is so

wrong because there you can look at all the research that shows that by de-streaming, you actually benefit everybody. And it's the same with inclusive education. People have just preconceived ideas that a child who has a disability is going to hold my child back. And it's an incredibly self-centered way of looking at things. And you know, it's the parents' job to protect their child, but at the same time, that protection can be taken too far. (Interviewee 9)

Parents opinion - because that's a biggie in a private school, as I've said before. Where parents might think, well, if there are too many kids with language limitations in my kid's class that will bring down my child's language level. If there are too many kids in the class with learning disabilities, learning differences, that will impact my child. I don't want that. (Interviewee 8)

That my child who is a high achiever is now going to suffer at the expense of someone who needs more help and it's going to take the teacher's time away. All of those negative things that are the perception of the program. It is probably the biggest challenge because just knowing that you have to fight all those battles once you make the decision to go inclusive or go towards a more inclusive environment, you have to really be ready for that. (Interviewee 7)

It is not just parents of regular education students that present challenges to the inclusion of students with special needs, as one interviewee noted:

Parents do not want their children identified or designated. So there is definitely that so that's a challenge. (Interviewee 6)

This view was shared by another interviewee who, in general, does not view parent concerns as an obstacle to the inclusion of students with special needs. This school leader explained:

> So sometimes parents will withhold information. I think international schools
> have a reputation of being exclusive rather than inclusive regardless of the
> mission statement. And are worried if they divulge all of the information then
> maybe their child won't be accepted. And so I think there is a certain fear and in
> some cultures there is a real stigma attached to any diagnoses or evidence of
> support. (Interviewee 3)

Other school leaders expressed that parent views on the inclusion of students with special needs at international school were not a significant barrier, as the interview quotes below demonstrate.

> The second might be, and probably a distance second, is just the community's
> concern that somehow you are going to dilute or degrade the quality of education
> of the regular students by becoming more inclusive. But I actually have found
> that to be very rarely an issue or expressed. And that in many ways our parent
> population has had greater experience and exposure to the benefits of inclusive
> interaction between mainstream students and special education students and what
> benefits that produces more than our teachers have. But there are some who are
> concerned about whether you are diverting resources from their child in this
> process. (Interviewee 1)

I have the sense that the parent community is really supportive. On occasion some new parents might wonder; I don't know if it is a concern or if it is any real push back. What does that mean if you've got those students in my child's classroom? Is it still going to be high quality? Is my child going to be losing out because a teacher is modifying for another child? Is the level, in general, lower? But, I think those are just natural questions. I don't think there is any real significant concern among our parent body – at least not that I've heard. (Interviewee 3)

Another school leader linked calming parental concern through championing an inclusive vision.

We are selling the value of inclusive education, everybody benefits, everybody wins, everybody gets to learn about the richness and diverseness of humanity and be more successful at the end of the day. We have very smart, very sensible parents who got that so anyone who had concerns it was only a quick conversation and it was cleared up. (Interviewee 5)

One interviewee, whose school is currently adopting an inclusive model, uses the success of other international schools to support the vision and this tends to quell apprehension amongst parents (and teachers). The school leader explained:

We've been able to copy or model other programs that are already set up and already successful – whether that's [schools x, y, and z]. Those are some of the few that we've been able to model our program with and then also talking with other teachers and with parents and when we talk about these programs, often

times the initial pushback is well isn't this going to dilute our program? And then

you list all these other schools, these really well-known schools around the world,

that also have similar programs and that shoots down any type of push back in

that regard. (Interviewee 7)

National laws. The findings suggest that many international schools are not

required by host country national laws to include students with special needs.

Survey results. A majority (83.9%) of the survey participants *strongly disagreed*

or *disagreed* with the following statement: *National laws in your host country require*

the inclusion of students with special needs at your international school. The results

follow in Table 18.

Table 18

Response to survey question: National laws in your host country require the inclusion of
students with special needs at your international school.

Answer	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Disagree	35	51.5
Disagree	22	32.4
Agree	8	11.7
Strongly Agree	2	2.9
Missing	1	1.5

Interview results. The survey findings are implicitly supported by the interview

results; interviewees did not identified national laws as being a catalysts or challenge for

inclusive education. One interviewee, however, made note of a national school system

that was too rigid and not inclusive, and therefore, the international school became an

alternative schooling option by default (Interviewee 2).

Research Question 3: What are the Classroom Factors Influencing the Views of International School Leaders towards the Inclusion of Students with Special Needs?

The classroom dynamics can affect international school leaders' views on the inclusion of students with special needs as well. The classroom components studied in this section include: teacher workload and management, the type of special needs, and the social and academic benefits.

Impact on teacher workload and classroom management. According to the survey results, survey respondents reported that including students with special needs in the international school classroom impacts teacher workload and teacher classroom management. Interviewees reported that in order to reduce the impact on teacher workload and classroom management, some schools provide the regular education teacher with support in the classroom or from trained faculty.

Survey results. Table 19 shows the survey responses to the prompt: *Students with special needs in an international school classroom have a minimal impact on teacher workload*. A majority (80.9%) of the international school leaders surveyed *strongly disagreed* or *disagreed* with the aforementioned prompt.

Table 19

Response to question: Students with special needs in an international school classroom have a minimal impact on teacher workload.

Answer	Frequency	Percent
Disagree	50	73.5
Agree	12	17.6
Strongly Disagree	5	7.4
Strongly Agree	1	1.5

The response was similar regarding classroom management when including students with special needs in international school classrooms. As displayed in Table 20, 88.2% percent of the survey respondents *strongly agreed* or *agreed* with the statement: *Including students with special needs creates additional challenges for classroom management at international schools.*

Table 20

Response to question: Including students with special needs creates additional challenges for classroom management at international schools.

Answer	Frequency	Percent
Agree	50	73.5
Strongly Agree	10	14.7
Disagree	8	11.8
Strongly Disagree	0	0

Interview results. The interviewees were not directly asked about teacher workload or classroom management. However, the interview results create a complex picture regarding classroom management and teacher workload as a result of the inclusion of students with special needs. While only four school leaders made references that directly related to classroom management and/or teacher workload, the focus on professional development, as discussed in the previous section, could be seen as a way schools try to assuage issues surrounding teacher workload and classroom management.

Nonetheless, three of the interviewees who discussed these issues did so in the context of supporting the regular education teacher in the classroom or with the support of trained faculty to minimize workload or classroom management challenges. Their explanations are below.

We've got four special education teachers on our staff. Obviously and I like them

to spend as much time with the teachers, the regular teachers to help them cope

with different ability groups in their classroom. (Interviewee 9)

The interns are either qualified teachers in their first year teaching or they are

working on their certification . . . They have two roles: one is to learn how to be a

teacher from the supervising teacher and to support them in all aspects of

teaching and learning in the classroom. But they also are members of the student

services department. There are students in their class who have an intervention

plan and IEP of some kind. It is there responsibility to just stay on top of it. . . All

those kinds of things – work with children, or sometimes it might be they take

the class so that the class teacher can take the child that needs a bit of extra help

as well. (Interviewee 5)

Once the teacher comes to the school, I believe that it is important to make sure

there is sufficient support in terms of learning support department or counselling

department or language development or whatever the department is, whatever the

students' need is so that the teacher doesn't feel like they are alone.

(Interviewee 3)

Another interviewee discussed Learning Support teachers who go into the

classroom to support the students. Even though the school leader did not directly discuss

this in relation to providing support for the regular education teacher, the end result may

be the same with the teacher receiving some support in terms of classroom management

or workload.

We've got LLS specialist trained teachers who are in classrooms with kids.

(Interviewee 2)

Type of special needs. The survey and interview data uncover a trend regarding the type of special need; as the special need becomes more pronounced, study participants begin to disagree over whether or not a student should be included in an international school classroom. The interview results show that some school leaders identified disruptive classroom behavior as an obstacle to the inclusion of students with special needs.

Survey results. All survey participants *strongly agreed* or *agreed* with the following statement: *Students with mild special needs should be included in international school classrooms,* as shown in Table 21.

Table 21

Response to question: Students with mild special needs should be included in international school classrooms.

Answer	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Agree	37	54.4
Agree	31	45.6
Disagree	0	0
Strongly Disagree	0	0

However, when it comes to including students with moderate special needs, 13.2% of the respondents did not think they should be included in international school classrooms, as identified in Table 22. While 85.3% of the survey respondents *strongly agreed* or *agreed* that students with moderate special needs should be included.

Additionally, the number of *strongly agreed* drops from 54.4% to 35.3% when differentiating between mild and moderate disabilities.

Table 22

Response to survey question: Students with moderate special needs should be included in international school classrooms.

Answer	Frequency	Percent
Agree	34	50.0
Strongly Agree	24	35.3
Disagree	9	13.2
Strongly Disagree	0	0
Missing	1	1.5

As identified in Table 23, a greater distribution of answers is found when respondents were asked about students with severe special needs in the international school classroom. Almost half of the respondents, 47% *strongly disagreed or disagreed* with their inclusion in the international school classroom. Similarly, only 11.8% *strongly agreed* that students with severe special needs should be included in international school classrooms.

Table 23

Response to question: Students with severe special needs should be included in international school classrooms.

Answer	Frequency	Percent
Disagree	27	39.7
Agree	26	38.2
Strongly Agree	8	11.8
Strongly Disagree	5	7.3
Missing	2	2.9

The four point Likert scale is converted to allow for statistical analysis on the type of special needs questions: a score of "1" represents "strongly disagree"; "2", "disagree"; "3", "agree"; "4", "strongly agree". As seen in Table 24, the mean decreases from students with mild to severe learning needs and the standard deviation becomes larger between students with mild and severe learning needs.

Table 24

International school leaders' views on inclusive international school classrooms: Students with the following special needs should be included in international school classroom:

Type of Need:	Valid N	M	SD	95% CI
Mild special needs	68	3.5	.5	[3.42, 3.46]
Moderate special needs	67	3.2	.67	[3.06, 3.38]
Severe special needs	66	2.5	.8	[2.37, 2.76]

Interview results. The survey results are similar to the information gleaned from the interviews. It is important to note that school leaders were not explicitly asked about the levels of special needs but many of them addressed mild, moderate, and severe special needs.

Four interviewees discussed accepting students with mild special needs and to some extent moderate learning needs. Their explanations regarding students with mild to moderate special needs follow.

Most schools internationally deal with the mild group – I think pretty comfortably. (Interviewee 1)

As for as our LSS kids, we are inclusive in terms of mild learning differences and to some extent moderate learning differences. (Interviewee 2)

Yes, we are inclusive by accepting children with medical diagnosis or education

diagnosis such as autism. We have proceeded with a number … of autistic

children. We also have more medical diagnosis such as ADHD coming into our

school and … we accept children or precede with a previous IEP or create our

own IEP. (Interviewee 4)

You know you talk about students who would qualify for IEPs, we are kind of

mild to the mild and moderate, I'd say. That's kind of where we are in that kind

of spectrum. (Interviewee 5)

But we state quite clearly in our admissions literature that we are able to accept

children with mild disabilities. We stretch that definition as far as we can.

(Interviewee 9)

In contrast, a school leader of an inclusive school explicitly stated the acceptance

of students with mild, moderate and severe special needs.

And we are in that latter category. We have fully inclusive programs where kids

with sub 70 IQs and severe learning disabilities do go to our school and integrate

as much as possible in the regular classrooms and self-contained classrooms. . .

(Interviewee 1)

The most noteworthy point that arose from the interviews regarding moderate

and severe special needs was disruptive classroom behavior. For example, a school

leader at a school moving towards an inclusive education model explained:

There is no way we are able to accept at this point in our program children with

significant behavioral issues. We are not set up to be able to do that.

(Interviewee 7)

Similarly, Interviewee 2 explained that within the school's geographic context, the

school could not support the inclusion of students with emotional issues and needs

because the systematic support structure is not accessible.

One school leader described a situation where the school accepted a student with

special needs who had behavior issues. The school leader worked diligently to educate

the school community - the parents and students - with some success, but ultimately, the

student had to exit the school because the student became threatening. As the interviewee

stated,

But unfortunately, the whole thing collapsed at the end. Because once it comes to

protecting the security of our kids…then you can't be inclusive anymore.

(Interviewee 9)

This same school leader, though, had previously had a positive experience with a student

with special needs who would have outbursts in the classroom. The school leader noted

that within a couple of weeks, the other students would not even really notice the

outbursts, and in the end, it was a meaningful learning experience for them (Interviewee

9).

Social and academic benefits. The survey results show that a majority of the

survey respondents believe that students with special needs benefit academically when

included in international school classrooms. The survey and interview results reveal that

the study participants agreed that students with special needs and regular education

students benefit socially from being together in international school classrooms.

   Survey results. Table 25 shows that 89.6% of the leaders surveyed *strongly*

agreed or *agreed* with the following claim: *Students with special needs benefit*

academically from inclusion in international school classrooms.

Table 25

Response to survey question: S*tudents with special needs benefit academically from*
inclusion in international school classrooms.

Answer	Frequency	Percent
Agree	40	58.8
Strongly Agree	21	30.8
Disagree	7	10.3
Strongly Disagree	0	0

   As shown in Tables 26 and 27, survey participants agreed (98.5%) that regular

education students and students with special needs socially benefit from being together

in international school classrooms.

Table 26

Response to survey question: S*tudents with special needs benefit social from inclusion in*
international school classrooms.

Answer	Frequency	Percent
Strongly Agree	37	54.4
Agree	30	44.1
Disagree	1	1.5
Strongly Disagree	0	0

Table 27

Response to survey question: Regular education students benefit socially from interaction with special needs peers in international school classrooms.

Answer	Frequency	Percent
Agree	34	50.0
Strongly Agree	33	48.5
Disagree	1	1.5
Strongly Disagree	0	0

Interview results. Though interviewees were not directly asked about social or academic benefits of inclusive education, three made direct reference to the social benefits only. In this regard, the interview data support the survey data, and it provides some elaboration on the social benefits of including students with special needs in international school classrooms.

Three school leaders discussed the social benefits as being a catalysts for inclusive education and linked the social benefits to the real world. Below are their reasons for embracing inclusive education.

My gut instinct answer is you go to the core of why you become a teacher in the first place. If you are looking for a catalyst, you know what can energize a community around this is well, why do you want your kid to learn? Because you want them to be successful in life. Well, who's in life? People are and all kinds of people. Well, wouldn't you want them to learn with all kinds of people? Isn't that the school – shouldn't school replicate life rather than schools being this little box that prepares for something that is not out there? Shouldn't school be fully inclusive, diverse and vibrant that prepares kids for the real world? And

didn't you go into teaching to help kids and all kinds of kids and isn't that what you value? So I think you just go to the core of why we got into this in the first place. (Interviewee 5)

How can anyone truly argue against providing a great education for all…practicing what you preach, setting an example for the children in your school…that this is what the real world looks like.…Everyone, no matter who you are or where you come from is an important person and everyone deserves a fantastic education. No matter what. And I think that's the biggest catalyst right now for inclusive education in the international school world. (Interviewee 7)

Just the tolerance that they learned in the process of that's [student x], that's how [student x] handles it… And they learned a huge amount and they are going to go out into the wider world and accept people who have those differences. That to me is the educational benefit behind it. (Interviewee 9)

Research Question 4: What are the Individual Factors Influencing the Views of International School Leaders towards the Inclusion of Students with Special Needs?

To answer the final research question, individual variables are explored to determine if they influence international school leaders' views towards the inclusion of students with special needs. The individual variables examined in this section include: gender, age, education level, experience, training, and leadership approach.

Demographic information. The survey results reveal that age does not appear to influence an international school leaders' view on the inclusion of students with special needs.

Survey results. The data displayed on Table 28 identifies the survey response breakdown by age to the claim: *Students with moderate special needs should be included in international school classroom.* A majority of survey participants, regardless of their age, *agreed* or *strongly agreed* with including students with moderate special needs in international classrooms.

Table 28

Age and response to question: Students with moderate special needs should be included in international school classrooms.

Age	20-34 years	35-49 years	50-64 years	65 and above
Strongly Agree	0 (0%)	6 (27.3%)	15 (41.7)	2 (33.3%)
Agree	1 (50%)	13 (59.1%)	17 (47.2%)	3 (50%)
Disagree	1 (50%)	3 (13.6%)	4 (11.1%)	1 (16.7%)
Strongly Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)

Note: Two participants did not answer question to be included in this data.

In Table 29, it is evident that a greater proportion of survey respondents 50 and above, either *strongly disagreed* or *disagreed* with the inclusion of students with severe special needs in international classrooms, as opposed to those under 50 years of age. Just over half of the survey participants 50-64 years of age *strongly disagreed* or *disagreed* with including students with severe needs; 83.3% of survey participants 65 and above also *strongly disagreed* or *disagreed* with their inclusion; while 36.3% of participants 35-49 years of age *strongly disagreed* or *disagreed* with the inclusion of students with severe special needs.

Table 29

Age and response to question: Students with severe special needs should be included in international school classrooms.

Age	20-34 years	35-49 years	50-64 years	65 and above
Strongly Agree	0 (0%)	3 (13.6%)	5 (14.3%)	0 (0%)
Agree	1 (50%)	11 (50%)	12 (34.3%)	1 (16.7%)
Disagree	1 (50%)	7 (31.8%)	16 (45.7%)	3 (50%)
Strongly disagree	0 (0%)	1 (4.5%)	2 (5.7%)	2 (33.3%)

Note: Three participants did not answer questions to be included in this data.

In light of the findings presented in Table 29, a two sample t-test was conducted. It is important to note the relatively small numbers of participants in each category in Table 29. Thus, the survey participants are divided into two groups: those below 50 and those above 50 years of age. The t-test determined if there was a significant difference in the two groups and their response to question regarding the inclusion of students with severe needs.

$$H0: \mu1 - \mu2 = 0$$

The results indicated that there was not a significant difference between the two groups: under 50 years of age (N=24, M=2.7, S.D=0.75) and above 50 years of age (N=41, M=2.46, S.D.=0.83); with a 95% CI [-0.17, 0.66], T =1.18 and a P=0.24. Since the P-value was greater than 0.05, we failed to reject the hypothesis.

Only 20 women answered the survey, as opposed to 46 men; 2 respondents did not identify their gender. As result, only contingency tables are used to display the gender breakdown on regarding the views on including students with moderate and severe special needs in the classroom.

According to results presented in Table 30, 4 males and 4 females *disagreed* with

the inclusion of students with moderate special needs; however, the rest of the females

and males *agreed* or *strongly agreed* with their inclusion in international school

classrooms.

Table 30

Gender and response to question: Students with moderate special needs should be
included in international school classrooms.

Gender	Female	Male
Strongly Agree	9 (45%)	15 (33.3%)
Agree	7 (35%)	26 (57.8%)
Disagree	4 (20%)	4 (8.9%)
Strongly Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)

Note: Three participants did not answer question/s to be included in this data.

A larger difference amongst the genders is found when responding to the

question regarding students with severe special needs being in the classroom, as seen in

Table 31. Whereas 65% of the female survey respondents *strongly disagreed* or

disagreed with their inclusion in an international school classroom, 40.9% of the males

strongly disagreed or *disagreed*. Given the low number of female respondents, a T-test

was not completed on these two groups.

Table 31

Gender and response to question: Students with severe special needs should be included in international school classrooms.

Gender	Female	Male
Strongly Agree	2 (10%)	6 (13.6%)
Agree	5 (25%)	20 (45.5%)
Disagree	11 (55%)	15 (34.1%)
Strongly Disagree	2 (10%)	3 (6.8%)

Note: 4 participants did not answer question/s.

Interview results. The interview data did not uncover any additional insight regarding age or gender.

Education, years of experience, and training. The survey results of this study suggest that the level of education and years of experience at international schools do not appear to impact an international school leader's view on the inclusion of students with special needs within international school classrooms. However, according to the interviews, one variable does arise as a potential influence for school leader and that is exposure and/or training through the Next Frontier Inclusion (NFI) group.

Survey results. A majority of survey participants agreed with the inclusion of students with moderate special needs regardless of the education level attained, as shown in Table 32.

Table 32

Education level and response to survey question: Students with moderate special needs should be included in international school classrooms.

Education Level	Bachelors	Masters	Doctorate
Strongly Agree	0 (0%)	13 (32.5%)	11 (50%)
Agree	3 (75%)	22 (55%)	8 (36.4%)
Disagree	1 (25%)	5 (12.5%)	3 (13.6%)
Strongly Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)

Note: Two survey participants did not complete necessary questions to contribute to this data.

Similarly, Table 33 shows that roughly 50% of international school leaders, regardless of attained education level, *strongly agreed* or *agreed* that students with severe special needs should be included in international school classrooms.

Table 33

Education level and response to survey question: Students with severe special needs should be included in international school classrooms.

Education Level	Bachelors	Masters	Doctorate
Strongly Agree	0 (0%)	6 (15.4%)	2 (9.1%)
Agree	2 (50%)	14 (36%)	9 (40.9%)
Disagree	2 (50%)	15 (38.5%)	10 (45.5%)
Strongly Disagree	0 (0%)	4 (10.3%)	1 (4.5%)

Note: Three survey participants did not complete necessary questions to contribute to this data.

In Tables 34 and 35 there is a breakdown by years of experience and response to whether students with moderate or severe special needs should be included in international school classroom, respectively. Since a majority of the survey participants had 10 or more years of experience in international schools, it is difficult to identify any specific trends for those with less experience.

Table 34

Years of experience and response to survey question: Students with moderate special needs should be included in international school classrooms.

Years of Experience	< 1	2-4	5-9	10-19	20+
Strongly Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (22.2%)	1 (4.5%)	6 (18.2%)
Agree	1 (100%)	0 (0%)	5 (55.6%)	15 (68.2%)	13 (39.4%)
Strongly Agree	0 (0%)	2 (100%)	2 (22.2%)	6 (27.27%)	14 (42.4%)

Note: One survey participant did not complete necessary questions to contribute to this data

Table 35

Years of experience and response to survey question: Students with severe special needs should be included in international school classrooms.

Years of Experience	Less than 1	2-4	5-9	10-19	20+
Strongly Disagree	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	5 (15.2%)
Disagree	0 (0%)	1 (50%)	4 (44.4%)	9 (42.9%)	13 (39.4%)
Agree	0 (0%)	1 (50%)	4 (44.4%)	9 (42.9%)	12 (35.4%)
Strongly Agree	1 (100%)	0 (0%)	1 (11.1%)	3 (14.3%)	3 (9.1%)

Note: Two survey participants did not complete necessary questions to contribute to this data.

Because of the small numbers in each the category, with the exception of the 20+ years category, the survey participants are divided into two groups: group one - less than 20 years of experience and group two - more than 20 years of experience. A two sample t-test was conducted to determine if there was a difference between the two groups, less than 20 years of experience and more than 20 years of experience, regarding their views on including students with severe needs in international school classrooms.

$$H0: \mu1 - \mu2 = 0$$

The results indicated that there was not a significant difference between the two groups: less than 20 years of international schools experience (N=32, M=2.62, S.D.=0.69) and more than 20 years of international schools experience (N=33, M=2.39, S.D.=0.86); with a CI [-0.09, 0.68], T =1.5, and P=0.13. Because the P-value was greater than 0.05, we failed to reject the hypothesis.

Interview results. The interview results did not provide any additional insight into years of experience at international schools or education levels; however, they did show that an exposure to the Next Frontier Inclusion (NFI) organization may have an impact, as identified through the interviews. Six of the interviewees made reference to Next Frontier Inclusion (NFI), in terms of the publicity it has received as well as its education outreach program. Most of these school leaders referenced either being involved with NFI and/or attending NFI workshops. Of the six participants' familiar with NFI, five of them are in support of the inclusion of students with moderate and severe special needs students in the classroom while one is in support of the inclusion of moderate but not severe special needs. Most of the school leaders spoke of NFI's success in promoting the inclusion of student with special needs at international schools. Below are a few comments interviewees made about NFI.

I think that the NFI group has spread the word and been able to demonstrate the practical success of inclusive schools in such a way that a great many more are now joining the bandwagon. (Interviewee1)

And I think that the NFI has done a really, really good job pushing to make sure

…there is an inclusive school in every city so that if a student wants to go there,

they could. (Interviewee 3)

I'd say Next Frontier Inclusion has had a really positive influence.

(Interviewee 7)

Experience with special needs students. The results show that most study

participants have experience working with students with special needs.

Survey results. Eighty-five percent of the participants identified that they had

experience working with students with special needs, with 21 of the participants *strongly*

agreeing, as identified in Table 36.

Table 36

Response to question: I have experience working with students with special needs.

Experience with Students with Special Needs	Frequency	Percent
Agree	37	54.4
Strongly Agree	21	30.9
Disagree	7	10.3
Strongly Disagree	3	4.4

Interview results. The interviews did not disclose any major findings or trends

other than all of the school leaders had experience with students with special needs.

School leaders in full support of inclusive education had previous experience with

special needs as did school leaders not in full support of inclusive education.

Leadership style and approach. Most of survey participants self-identified their

leadership style as either participative or transformation. The interview results suggest

that leaders of inclusive schools need to promote a strong belief and vision, focus on

educating the community, and align policies and practices.

   Survey results. Most of the survey participants self-identified their leadership

style as either Participative (45.6%) or Transformational (36.8%), as identified in Table

37. Directive and Supportive leadership styles were identified by 4.4% of the survey

participants each while 7.3% of the participants aligned themselves with Transactional.

Given the small number of participants, it was not deemed statistically worthy to do any

additional grouping or analysis.

Table 37

Survey participants' leadership style

Leadership Style	Frequency	Percent
Participative	31	45.6
Transformational	25	36.8
Transactional	5	7.3
Directive	3	4.4
Supportive	3	4.4
Missing	1	1.5

   Interview results. Because the survey data do not reveal much as a result of the

size of the study, the interview data do not confirm or deny the leadership approaches.

The interview data do suggest that a leadership approach may be a mediating factor in

relation to ideas about inclusive education. When the interviewees were asked the

following question: *what do you think the role of the school leader is in promoting*

inclusive education at international schools, interviewees identified the following key

leadership components: a strong belief and vision, a focus on educating the community, and an alignment of policies and practice.

To lead an inclusive school, the school leader should have a strong belief in the philosophy of inclusive education and must support that vision, according to three interviewees. One interviewee spoke about the need to have a strong belief, as seen in the following quote.

So the first thing is you absolutely have to believe in your heart that every student who comes in the door is your child and that every one of them is equally as important. (Interviewee 6)

The following two school leaders discussed the importance of setting the vision.

From my perspective it is being really clear about the vision of who we are. I always say we aspire to be an inclusive school. You know that's the aspiration. In fact we use the word community based school more – in other words, we are here for the community. We are not here for one elite part of the community – one select part of the community. We're a community school. It's to preach that message and set that vision. (Interviewee 5)

But a change to becoming an inclusive international school, which most international schools are not, I do not think is possible without the head of the school being completely, and overtly and visibly behind the change in philosophy. (Interviewee 1)

Interviewees also identified the school leader's role in educating the community and faculty about the value of inclusive education and the application of inclusive

education practices. You must continually educate people (Interviewee 2). As another

leader emphasized, "The role is to educate"; but cautioned, "You can't educate in

advance because you don't know exactly the circumstance because each child will be

unique in their need" (Interviewee 9). In specific terms, the two school leaders spoke

about educating faculty on the importance of data. The interviewees explained:

> I think the role of a director/administrator is leading learning. . . So we need to
>
> attempt problem solving methods prior to moving in the channel of evaluations
>
> and thinking. We need to rule out whether it is a curricular problem, is it
>
> instructionally based or is it student based? And collect data, monitor progress
>
> and look at the evidence together. So we have composed problem solving teams,
>
> based on the child's stage of development and the child's need. Those are all
>
> parts to my responsibility as a learning leader, to educate faculty on the value of
>
> data, and the data we value. And also making sure we progress effectively and
>
> efficiently for the child but not to over qualify or jump to any quick conclusions.
>
> So those are steps we as leaders are responsible for training for leading,
>
> participating in and not just making these orders from a different office.
>
> (Interviewee 4)
>
> The other thing that's very important for the leader is to surface student
>
> performance data, to help people analyze it and point things out. . . Again really
>
> get people involved in that data around on student performance. And then
>
> identify where the kids are struggling and then how do we best address these
>
> things. (Interviewee 6)

To this end, professional development is paramount, as previously mentioned. Two school leaders discussed the role of the leader in ensuring that professional development on inclusive practices are a focus when addressing the role of the school leader in promoting inclusive education (Interviewees 3 and 6).

The final aspects the school leader should adhere to are an alignment of policies and practice and purposeful inclusive hiring practices, according to the interviewees. One interviewee explained:

> You got to have some clarity and some communication abilities and just making sure that your school's policies are sensible, promoted and communicated and that they line up. (Interviewee 2).

Along these same lines, another interviewee discussed the importance of establishing checks and balances in a school's policies.

> It is also to put the realistic checks and balances on it, in terms of being sure that our admissions process… we don't get carried away with…sometimes you set the vision and then you get carried away with it and start biting off more than you can chew and letting kids down. It is to put the reality check in place as well. (Interviewee 5)

In order to support the policies, the hiring is key (Interviewees 3 and 5). Similarly, it is important to give the staff member/s in charge of the inclusion program the authority and support needed, as a school leader explained.

> Try and empower that person to be the nuts and bolts person that makes it happen (Interviewee 5).

Ultimately, the school leader is quintessential, according to one participant, who said, "I think they have to be the driver of it" (Interviewee 7). Unlike some organizational movements that can occur from below, moving to or leading an inclusive school, requires leadership and guidance from the top of the organization (Interviewees 1 and 7).

Conclusion

The findings presented in this chapter examine the factors that influence international school leaders' views of inclusive education and the inclusion of students with special needs. How international school leaders define inclusive education was summarized while institutional, classroom, and individual influences towards the inclusion of students with special needs were investigated by synthesizing the results from the survey and the interviews. The results of the study suggest that institutional factors play a principal role in influencing an international school leader's view of the inclusion of students with special needs. Institutional factors such as a lack of access to specialists, negative stakeholder views, admittance policies, and a lack of teacher training were identified as potential impediments to the inclusion of students with special needs at international schools. Classroom factors, according to the study results, also appear to shape an international school leader's view of the inclusion of students with special needs. In particular, the level of special need and teacher workload/classroom management were identified as obstacles while the social benefits were identified as a facilitator. Lastly, the findings suggest that individual factors may have little influence on an international school leader's view on the inclusion of students with special needs;

however, a specific leadership approach that promotes inclusive education in

international schools was identified.

CHAPTER FIVE

IMPLICATIONS FOR THEORY AND PRACTICE

Introduction

The first part of this chapter is a discussion of the research findings and how they align with previous scholarship. This is followed by an examination of the findings through the lens of Lewin's Field Theory. The next section is an analysis of the implications for practice. To this end, the prevailing models of disability (social, medical and bio-psychosocial models) and leadership in international schools are considered and implications are explored. As a result of the findings from this research and the literature review in Chapter Two, a model for international schools to implement inclusive education is proposed. Subsequently, the limitations of this model and the research conducted are identified. Lastly, future research recommendations are made based on the findings of this research.

Before delving into the contents of this chapter, it is useful to revisit the working definitions of inclusive education and students with special needs in this study, as shown below.

Inclusive education refers to providing instructional environments and support that enhance the learning of all students including those with special needs.

Students with special needs are defined as students who require supplemental support to address learning, communication, physical, emotional or behavioral challenges (Education Review Office of New Zealand, 2012).

Discussion of Study Findings

Participants' Definition of Inclusive Education

The majority of interview participants defined inclusive education in two categories. The first definition mirrors the Education For All (1990) perspective and promotes education for all students, while the second definition, though similar in many aspects, also places a focus on a school's admittance policy. These definitions on inclusive education highlight the tension between inclusive education and the college preparatory nature of many international schools. The different interpretations of inclusive education are supported by Armstrong & Barton (2008), who argue that the concept of inclusion does not mean the same thing to everyone amongst different cultures or within one culture, and as result, we should be critical about how the term is applied.

Influence of Institutional Context

In terms of an institution's philosophy towards inclusive education and the inclusion of students with special needs, the results indicate some deviation of philosophy and policy. A majority of the survey participants report that their school's mission and/or vision promotes inclusive education. Similarly, a majority of the survey participants agree that their school's purpose is to enhance the learning of all students, including those with special needs. In contrast, most of the survey participants state that they did not have a zero rejection policy for students with special needs at their school. The mission and purpose of some international schools which promote inclusive education and practices, according to the survey results, suggest a misalignment with the

more restrictive admittance policies for students with special needs. These findings are similar to Taylor's (2005) study on special education in private schools that identified an "incongruence … between some schools' mission statements, their actions, and their principal's statements" (p. 290).

The survey and interview results suggest that most leaders view the lack of access to trained specialist as an obstacle for the inclusion of students with special needs at international schools. As a result, school leaders may deny admissions for students with special needs. As Hayden and Thompson (2008) explain, international schools often operate outside of the national system, and according to the interview results, the lack of systemic support, i.e. belonging to a large state or national system, makes access to the required specialist difficult for some international schools. The study also reveals that the location and cultural context can make access to trained specialists challenging. Thus, the cultural issues such as translation (D'Alessio; 2008 Talle, 2005), identification, and stigmatization (Gabour, 2008) are important when dealing with issues of inclusive education. Furthermore, since culture can be seen as a process, these issues are not static in one place (Street, 1993 as seen in Baldwin, 2012). To add to the complexity, one category of students at international schools do not always identify with a primary or secondary culture and can be referred to as Third Culture Kids or global nomads (Hayden & Thompson, 2008). This may contribute to the difficulty in accessing a trained specialist who understands such a student's cultural schema.

Supporting students with special needs also requires inclusive education expertise by the teacher in the regular international school classroom. The results of this study

suggest that international school leaders identify two issues regarding this topic: 1), regular education teachers can be apprehensive about the inclusion of students with special needs, and 2), regular education teachers need more training to support students with special needs. These findings are similar to what Downing, Eichinger and Williams' (1997) research regarding teacher views on the inclusion of students with special needs as well as Taylor (2005) and Cook's et. al (1999) research that identifies a lack of teacher training to support students with special needs. In order to overcome these barriers, targeted recruitment and professional development that support the inclusion of students with special needs are essential, according to a majority of the interviewees.

Another key stakeholder that impacts an international school leader's view on the inclusion of students with special needs is the parents of international school students. Interviewees disagree over the extent to which negative parent views towards the inclusion of special needs students are a barrier. The negative parental views towards the inclusion of students with special needs can be the result of a fear that the academic standards will somehow be diminished and/or resources will be redirected towards the students with special needs. Downing, Eichinger and Williams (1997) also identify parent negative attitudes as an obstacle to the inclusion of students with special needs. However, the interview results indicate that a dialog with parents that addresses their concerns about a perceived relaxation of the academic standards or redistribution of resources may alleviated this potential barrier to the inclusion of students with special needs. Ryan (2006) argues that inclusive leaders must educate participants and nurture dialog with stakeholders, and in this case, the stakeholders are parents. Additionally, to

lead in a time of change such as a school adopting an inclusive education approach, international school leaders must "pursue a moral purpose" (Fullan, 2001, p. 11) and provide and sell a vision (Firestone, 1989; Heller and Firestone, 1995 as seen in Mayrowetz & Weinstein, 1999, p. 425).

Lastly, the results of the study indicate that national laws appear to have a limited impact on international school leaders' views on the inclusion of students with special needs at international schools. As previously mentioned, international schools often operate outside of the state systems of education, and while some countries regulate international schools, establishing norms and "restricting the number of such schools", other countries take a more "*laissez-faire*" approach to international schools (Hayden & Thompson, 2008, p. 9). This spectrum of regulation may be impacting how international schools include or do not include students with special needs.

Influence of Classroom Dynamics

The study results suggest that there is agreement amongst the school leaders interviewed and surveyed that classroom factors influence their views on the inclusion of students with special needs at international schools. The results show that most survey respondents believe including students with special needs in an international school classroom impacts the teacher workload. Survey participants also generally agree that the inclusion of students with special needs creates additional challenges for classroom management in international school classrooms. These factors may explain teacher apprehension, as Schumm and Vaughn's (1991) finding suggests "teachers consistently rated adaptations associated with inclusion as desirable, [yet,] they found them to be

significantly less feasible" (as seen in Cook, et al, 1999, p.204). However, the interviews and survey results show that most of the study participants agree that the inclusion of students with special needs in the international school classroom yields social benefits for regular education students and students with special needs. These social benefits lie at the heart of the Salamanca Statement, for "[i]nclusive schooling is the most effective means for building solidarity between children with special needs and their peers" (United Nations, 1994).

While all survey participants agree with the inclusion of students with mild special needs in regular international classrooms and most agree with the inclusion of students with moderate special needs, there was disagreement over the inclusion of students with severe special needs. Approximately, half of the survey participants disagree with the inclusion of students with severe special needs in a regular international school classroom. These findings are supported by the interviews as well. In general, the sentiment amongst the interviewees was that international schools accept students with mild and to some degree moderate special needs, but few schools accept students with severe special needs. Barnett and Monda-Amaya's (1998) research confirms these findings; they identify that only 20% of the principals in their study believed that inclusive schooling included students with profound disabilities.

Influence of Individual Circumstances and Experiences

The survey results indicate that most individual factors do not seem to influence an international school leader's view of inclusion of students with special needs. When accounting for such demographic factors as age and gender, these do not emerge as

important variables in a school leader's perspective. The number of years a school leader has spent in international schools and a school leader's education level also do not appear to impact their view on the inclusion of students with special needs. These findings are similar to Barnett and Monda-Amaya's (2005) research where they found no relationship between the years of experience as an administrator and one's attitude towards inclusion as well as Praisner's (2003) finding of "no significant relationship between attitude and years of experience in regular education, special education, or elementary administration" (p. 141).

The only significant aspect that was revealed through the study is an international school leader's familiarity with Next Frontier Inclusion (NFI), according to the interviewees. Most interviewees with exposure to NFI via its workshops or other affiliations, have a strong propensity toward inclusive education at international schools. NFI's mission is to "promote and protect the interests of children who learn in different ways or at different rates. We do this by supporting schools in all aspects of their journey towards inclusion" (NFI, 2016). The overall aim of NFI it to "have an inclusive international school in every city" (NFI, 2016). NFI provides workshops and discussions on inclusion for international schools. Objectives at a recent workshop included:

To empower and energize schools to take the next steps towards inclusion.

To examine methodologies, structures, and tools that make inclusion a realizable goal.

To examine how we might go about recruiting inclusive educators.

(Deciding to Teach Them All, 2015)

Additionally, there are many schools that are members of NFI, thereby allowing for collaboration across schools. Fullan (2007) argues "[l]arge-scale change cannot be achieved if principals identify only with their own schools and are not similarly concerned with the successes of other principals and schools in the district" (p. 302). NFI has supported a movement amongst international schools and provides a platform for leaders and teachers to learn from one another, thereby supporting a systemic change in international schools.

In terms of a leadership approach, interviewees identify specific steps that a leader must take in order to lead a school that promotes the inclusion of students with special needs. First, there must be a strong belief and vision. Fullan (2001) argues that in a time of change, a leader must "pursue a moral purposes (p. 11) while Firestone (1989) and Heller and Firestone's (1995) and Ingram (1997) also identify articulating a clear vision.

Second, the participants suggest that the leader must focus on educating the community. To this end, two key stakeholders are critical: parents and teachers. Ryan (2006) states that inclusive leaders need to educate the parent community and promote dialog. Fullan (2001) also agrees that leaders must "foster knowledge building" in a time of change. Ainscow and Sandill (2010) support this notion of education and argue that "the development of inclusive practices requires processes of social learning within particular organisational contexts" (p. 404), which can include peer observations and a shared common language and meaning.

Lastly, interviewees identify the importance of aligning the policies and practice of inclusive education. Ryan (2006) supports this conclusion by stating that inclusive leaders need to "[adopt] inclusive decision and policy strategies" (p. 9). Similarly, Fullan (2001) states while managing change that leaders should "strive for coherence" (p. 11).

Lewin's Field Theory

As discussed in Chapters 1 and 2, Kurt Lewin's Field Theory can provide a basis for understanding the change process. "Consequently, for Lewin, change was a learning process; he believed that successful behavioural change could only be achieved if individuals or groups could be helped to understand and reflect on the forces that impinge on their lives" (Burnes & Cooke, 2012, p. 413). In Lewin's Field Theory, the life space provides a holistic view of the current situation; all parts of the life space are interdependent (Burnes & Cooke, 2012). In the life space, the forces that are impacting the current situation are constantly changing, creating a "dynamic equilibrium" (Burnes & Cooke, 2012, p. 413).

In the construction of the life space for this study, an assessment of the forces currently shaping the inclusion of students with special needs at international schools is given. Lewin used a complex mathematically topography in his life spaces; however, it has been argued that: 1), the mathematical approach created more confusion, and 2), a life space with a more traditional topography can be useful (Burnes & Cooke, 2012). Therefore, in this application of the life space, the *strength of the force* or *valence* for change or against change are identified on the life space with an H for High, L for Low, or U for Uncertain based on the findings of this study. This approach was used in

DePanflilis' study (1996) that applied "field theory to the implementation of child mistreatment risk-assessment systems" (as seen in Burnes & Cooke, 2012, p. 418).

In Figure 6 that follows, the O represents the current situation. Everything behind O, above and below O are the forces pushing for the change; while everything to the right of the O is resisting the change (Burnes & Cook, 2012). The path explains how to arrive at the intended goal. A more detailed analysis is described after the presentation of Figure 6.
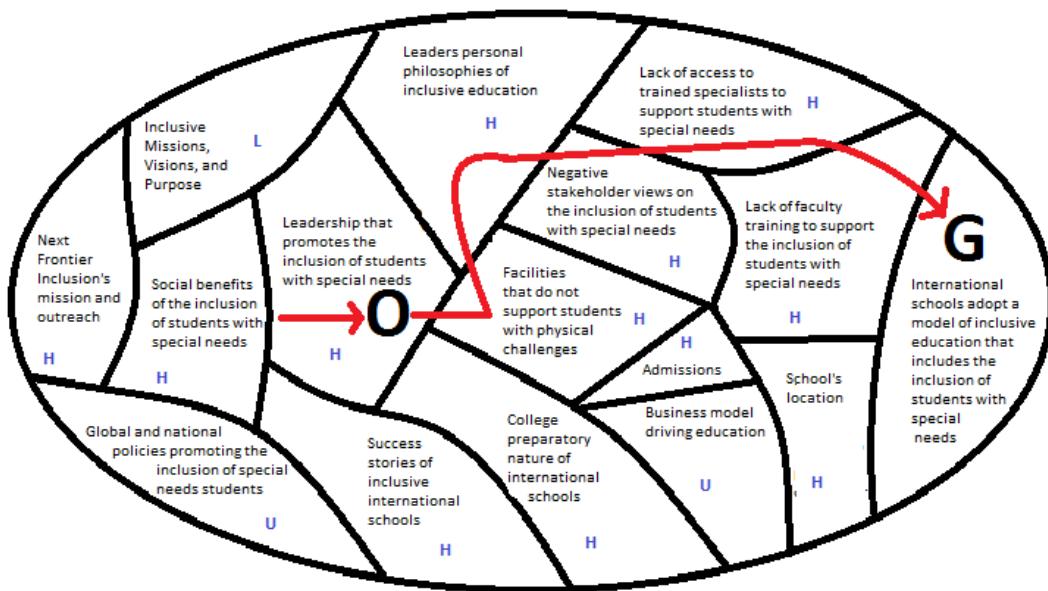
Figure 6: Life space: The inclusion of students with special needs at international schools

Forces for Change

As the results of the study suggests, there are a myriad of forces for change that are pushing international schools towards a model that supports the inclusion of students with special needs. The forces that are given a High valence, based on the research

findings, are: the success stories of other inclusive international schools; leadership that promotes such inclusion; the social benefits; NFI; and school leaders' personal philosophies of inclusive education. Global and national policies towards the inclusion of the students with special needs were given an Uncertain, as the study results showed. While school mission/vision/pupose was given a Low valence because the study results suggest that the vision/mission of the school may not always impact the practices and policies.

Forces Resistant to Change

There are many forces to overcome, mitigate or avoid in reaching the goal of more international schools adopting a model of inclusion that embarces students with special needs. School leaders' personal philosophies of inclusive education can be seen as a force for change but also a force for resistance, depending on the leader. Given the importance of the leader in implementing change, the valence remains High. The other High valence forces are: negative stakeholder perception, a lack of access to trained specialists, a lack of training on inclusive techniques that support students with special needs by key faculty, a school's facilities, admissions policies, and location. The business model driving education at the moment is given an U for uncertain because only one interviewee discussed it.

The Path to the Goal

A potential path (based on Lewin's philosophies) is drawn in Figure 6. Certain forces must be dealt with if international schools are to become more inclusive towards students with special needs. Facilities must first be addressed, as this is a basic human

need. The leader needs to believe in the goal, address stakeholder concerns, ensure a commitment to professional development and to accessing key specialists in order to reach the goal. International schools will most likely remain primarily college preparatory schools; a school's location will not necessarily change; and the business model of education may remain a primary force for financing the cost of education as well as its focus on performance data. Thus, these restraining forces should not be the focus when managing the change to a more inclusive school. Lastly, the admissions policies are not directly taken on because they are seen as a by product of the other forces of resistance such as negative stakeholder views and a lack of access to specialists or teachers trained in inclusive techniques. Thus, if there is a seismic shift in the forces, it is assumed that the admittance policies will shift and become more inclusive towards students with special needs. A more detailed approach for adopting a model of change that supports the inclusion of students with special needs at internaitonal schools is described in the section titled *Recommendations for Practice*.

Implications for Practice

Models of Disability at International Schools

The two prominent models that have influenced practitioners and policy makers alike on inclusive education are the medical model and the social model. As Mittler (2000) notes, these two models are "in a state of constant and complex interaction" (p. 3); this is evident based on the findings of this research. While the social model is most likely understood and even aimed for by international school leaders, the medical model appears to have a pronounced presence.

Medical model. The medical model places the student at the center with a focus on the pathology within the child. In this model, specialists are used to determine the disability and then procedures are followed with services provided for the student (Corbett & Slee, 2000, p. 143). As identified in the Life Space (Figure 6), the findings indicate that access to specialists, to diagnosis and support students with special needs, are considered one of the most significant barriers influencing the views of international school leaders. Slee (2009), from a critical theorist perspective questions "in whose interest does diagnosis, categorization and treatment work?" (p. 146). This question is worth asking in an international school context. For one, in a cross-cultural setting, identification may cause harm because of the stigmatization in a particular culture (Gadour, 2008). Two, constructs such as special education are seen as Western paradigms (Gadour, 2008). The latter point may be mute, for most of the international schools employ Western educated teachers and approach teaching and learning with a "Western liberal philosophy" (Hayden and Thompson, 2008, p. 40). It is assumed that parents knowingly pursue such an education for their children.

Social model. It is in contrast to the medical model that the social model exists, moving the focus away from pathology and the individual student towards a systemic approach. With the social model, ""disability [is viewed] as an ideological construction rather than a reflection of personal defects" (Winzer, 2009, p. 111). It is the social and economic apparatuses that need to be diagnosed – not the student. In this view, the social model addresses discrimination "caused by institutional forms of exclusion and by cultural attitudes embedded in social practices" (Terzi, 2004, p. 141). The evidence from

this study suggests that there are forms of institutional exclusion at international schools. These exclusionary practices are reproducing cultural and social norms that place the student with special needs at the center of the discussion instead of placing the responsibility on the social-cultural-institutional structures to make accommodations for all members of the society. Leaders that set a rights-based vision for the inclusion of students with disabilities adopt an approach that more closely aligns with the social model.

Bio-psychosocial model. The international schools that have moved towards inclusion education have changed "the system to meet the needs of the child" (Sharma & Chow, 2008, p. 381), adopting the approach of the social model while maintaining some of the influences of the medical model, such as identification and interventions or specific learning accommodations or modifications. International schools that adopt an inclusive education approach may be utilizing the bio-psychosocial model. This model "calls for a model of child functioning across a range of life contexts, . . . [which] takes account of social factors and does not focus exclusively on impairments and disorders" (Norwhich, 2007, p.63). This model may be more appropriate for international schools; for strictly using the medical model alone has ethical implications while the social model is critiqued for providing "no practical advice to teachers in the classroom" (Clough, 2000, p. 17).

Leadership for Inclusive International Schools

For international school leaders at inclusive schools or at schools moving towards an inclusive model, there are fundamental leadership issues that need to be

explored. Leaders should consider what it means to lead in the following contexts: *an intercultural school, an inclusive school*, and for those embarking on the road to inclusion, *a time of change*.

      Leadership in an intercultural school. International schools are often culturally diverse but this plurality does not guarantee intercultural understanding. Focusing on intercultural competences where students and faculty members thrive in such a diverse environment requires a specific leadership approach. While Hofstede (2001) and the GLOBE studies (Javidan, et. al., 2006) provide valuable insight into working and leading in cross-cultural settings, Walker and Shuangye (2007) propose that to lead in an international school, a leader should embody the attributes of an authentic leader. An authentic leader partakes in an ongoing learning process with stakeholders in order "to understand the meaning they ascribe to their school" (Walker & Shuangye, 2007, p. 185-186). The leader can use the intercultural diversity as an opportunity for "ongoing leadership learning" (p. 186). Authentic leaders must also strike a balance between "trusting and mistrusting their previous experience and learning" (p. 193) while at the same time, be prepared to critique Western paradigms of education. Being able to critique Western approaches to students with learning needs, may be beneficial in certain inter or cross-cultural circumstances. School leaders and many teachers come from cultures outside of the host country and are all informed by different perspectives on inclusive education. This is further complicated by local perspectives. Thus, it takes a culturally competent person to manage all of this complexity, and the authentic

leadership approach allows for a school leader to be reflective, adaptive and committed to an ongoing learning process.

Leadership in an inclusive school. The literature and this study identify some key elements for leadership in a school that has adopted an inclusive education policy. To begin, a flat organization with power that is distributed amongst the members of an organization better suits inclusive education practices as opposed to a tall, hierarchal structure (Ainscow & Sandill; 2010 Ryan, 2006). Second, the leader needs to help create an inclusive vision. This can be done by getting staff to expand "their capacity to imagine what might be achieved" (Ainscow & Sandill, 2010, p 412) and by providing and selling a vision of inclusion, as this study as well as Ingram (1997) and Fullan (2001) indicate. Three, educating participants about inclusive education (Ryan, 2006; Fullan, 2001) is also essential. This study highlights the need to train teachers, administrators and teacher aides on inclusive education techniques. Therefore, the leader needs to ensure a robust professional development program as well as in-school collaboration; the former point is highlighted by Ainscow and Sandill (2010). The results of this study also indicate the importance of educating parents, as crucial stakeholders in a school's successful move to inclusive education; Ryan (2006) supports this finding. Four, a clear vision and commitment to educating participants must also be complemented by a common understanding of what inclusive education means within a school's particular setting (Booth & Ainscow, 2002; Riehl, 2000; Ryan, 2006). Lastly, this study shows that a school committed to inclusive education should have policies and practices that are aligned with an inclusive education vision (Ryan, 2006).

Leadership in a time of change. Fullan's (2001) seminal work *Leading in a Culture of Change* provides a practical path for implementing change. This framework can assist international school leaders as they approach a planned adoption of a whole-school inclusive education model. Fullan (2001) contends that to effectively lead during a time of a change, one must "pursue moral purpose, understand the change process, develop relationships, foster knowledge building, and strive for coherence – with energy, enthusiasm, and hopefulness" (p. 11). According to Fullan (2001), the leader needs to be a champion of the change process but to have an organizational change, it requires "[d]eep and sustained reform" from many (p. 2). Fullan (2001) also argues that a significant reform, like inclusive education at international schools, can only be achieved if leaders are concerned with the success of other schools and leaders. This study confirms this last point, as addressed by the success of Next Frontier Inclusion since this organization has brought schools together to collaborate, share knowledge and successes. Given that international schools generally operate outside of the national system, belonging to a network of other international schools undergoing the change process becomes even more salient. There are further opportunities for international schools to partner with universities in order to access expertise in teaching and assessing students with special needs. This study identified the importance of building capacity within a school through a professional development program as well.

Recommendations for Practice

The research findings suggest that international school leaders do appreciate and support the idea of including students with special needs. However, leaders are faced

with significant challenges such as the independent and college preparatory nature of most international schools, stakeholder apprehension, and the difficulty in accessing expertise. These challenges are very real issues and cause school leaders much consternation as they navigate admissions and inclusion policies. Because of these restraining forces, it is quite simple for a leader to say, "We don't have the capacity to be inclusive." Given that international schools operate outside of national systems and that they cannot count on a national government to support them, it is easy to take this path. The consequence of taking this path is that the leader abandons a rights' based education where all children, regardless of learning need, are entitled to a quality education.

Model for International Schools to Develop Inclusive Education

However, many international schools can abandon the medical model approach, which places the focus on the child and instead move towards a social or bio-psychosocial model. After considering the Lewin's approach to change via the Life Space (Figure 6), which identified the barriers and facilities to inclusive education, and after considering the implications of this study's findings, a recommendation for practice is proposed. In order to move an international school towards an inclusive education model, school leaders can utilize successful leadership approaches to *intercultural schools*, *inclusive schools,* and *organizational change* in conjunction with the lessons gleamed from this study. A model for international schools to become more inclusive is next in Figure 7 and thereafter, a more detailed explanation is provided.
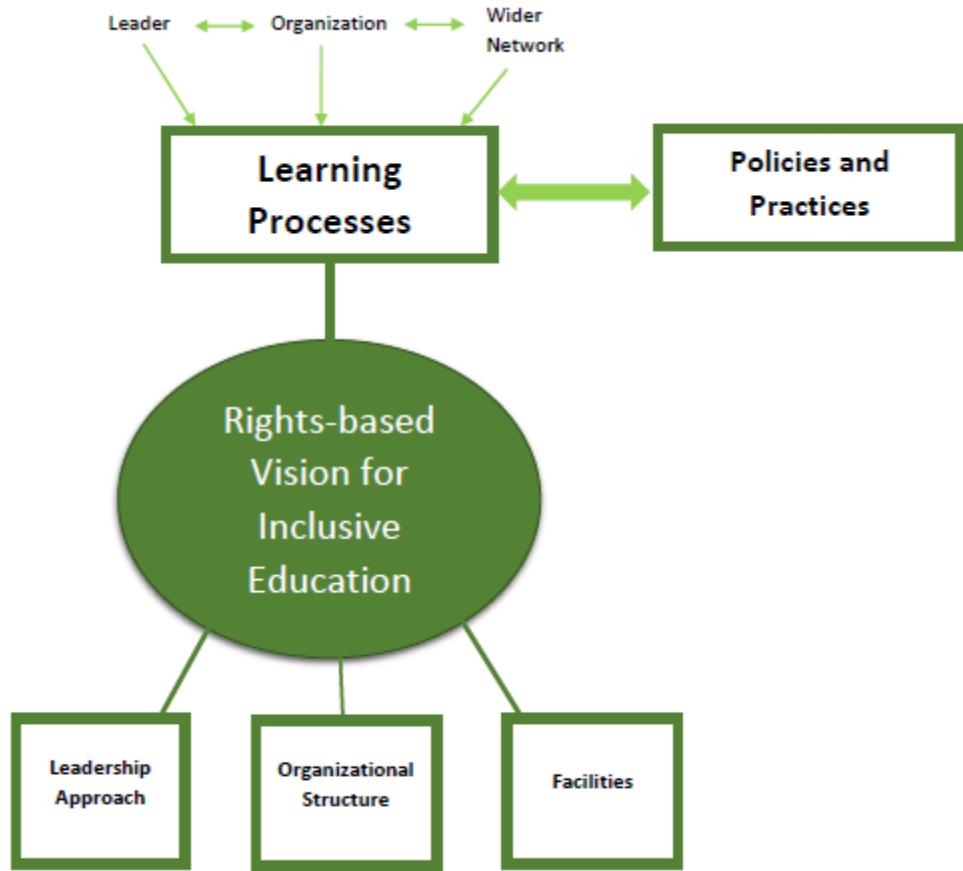
Figure 7: Model for international schools to develop inclusive education

Rights-based vision for inclusive education. As the literature and findings of

this study suggest, a rights-based vision for inclusive education is paramount. This is at

the center of this change model, as it provides the purpose and vision for the change,

thereby driving the leadership approach; organizational structure; facilities; learning

processes; and policies and practices. Approaching inclusive education from a rights-

based position gives more weight to the vision and allows for the school to move

towards a social or bio-psychosocial model of disability and to move away from

exclusionary practices that can reinforce the marginalization of students with special

needs. While on a practical level, such a vision also provides a unique selling point for an international school, as it expands its definition of diversity by including diverse learners.

Leadership approach. In order to effectively lead an international school's move towards inclusive education, the leadership can intertwine the approaches previously discussed: authentic leadership (Walker & Shuangy, 2007), inclusive leadership (Ryan, 2006) and change management leadership (Fullan, 2001). The leadership approach is purposefully placed below the rights-based vision for inclusive education, for the school leaders are "supporting" the vision. Developing intercultural knowledge (Walker & Shuangy, 2007) and possessing an understanding for the change process (Fullan, 2001) will assist the leadership in navigating the complexities of such a change. Additionally, cultivating soft skills such as reflection, adaptation, and a willingness to deconstruct or abandon previously held assumptions will also prove useful to leadership in such a context (Walker & Shuangy, 2007). Perhaps most important though, as the research from this study and the literature show, believing in and promoting the vision of a rights-based inclusive education appears fundamental (Ingram, 1997); this is particularly true in a time of change or transition (Fullan, 2001). Lastly, the school leaders have a vital role in educating the community and reaching out to key stakeholders, including those resistant to change.

Organizational structure. Like the leadership approach, the organizational structure provides a foundation for adopting an inclusive education model. Hierarchal structures are inherently exclusive; therefore, a flatter organization structure more

succinctly promotes an inclusive culture. This in turn can support a school moving towards inclusive education. Flatter organizational structures such as distributive leadership or Skrtic's (1999) adhocracy, as Ainscow and Sandill (2010) note are means by which inclusive education schools operate (as seen in Ainscow & Sandill, 2010). Furthermore, distributive leadership builds capacity and reduces burnout (Hallinger, 2003). Systematic change requires the efforts and support of many, according to Fullan (2001), and as such, a lateral configuration is ideal.

Facilities. Facilities, along with the leadership approach and organizational structure, are a necessary building block for the inclusion of students with special needs. Facilities should be able to accommodate for students with physical challenges so that all students can access essential parts of the school. The results of this study suggests that if facilities are not suitable for students with physical challenges, this can impact admittance decisions.

Learning processes. As previously noted, Lewin (1942) identifies change as a "learning process" (as seen in Burnes & Cooke, 2012, p. 413). Consequently, there is an emphasis on this concept of *learning processes* in this model. The term *learning processes* is used in a cross-cultural, international school adopting inclusive education for three reasons: 1), learning is not linear; 2), the process of learning must allow for the construction and deconstruction of knowledge; and 3), there must be room for challenging assumptions and traditional paradigms. To create shared knowledge in an international school moving towards an inclusive education model, learning processes occur at every level. The learning processes of a school begin with the leadership and

extend to the organization and its members while also engaging, in a meaningful way, with the larger network of international schools.

The leaders. The leadership of an international school moving towards an inclusive model actively engage in the learning process as role models and as active participants. To begin with, Walker & Shuangye (2007) emphasize the importance of continual "leadership learning" based on the intercultural diversity of an international school (Walker & Shuangye, 2007, p. 185-186); knowledge of cultural dimensions and schemas are never complete, particularly when viewing cultural as a moving process. Secondly, school leaders collaborate within their schools; a flatter organization structure can support such collaboration and learning amongst the members (Ainscow & Sandill, 2010). Similarly, school leaders benefit when they learn from other leaders in similar circumstances and those with similar goals of inclusive education in professional networks (Ainscow & Sandill, 2010). Lastly, the leadership needs to "nurture dialog" (Ryan, 2006, p. 9).

The organization. The *organization,* namely key faculty and parents, have vital roles in moving a school towards inclusive education and thus, their participation in the learning processes is necessary. The findings from this study suggest that teachers, teacher aides and administrators need training in inclusive techniques. Accordingly, a robust professional development program that supports ongoing learning can give educators the tools needed to improve inclusive techniques. Organizations such as Next Frontier Inclusion or specialized consultants that schools can access are avenues to access inclusive education training, as the study suggests. Schools can also support

teachers in pursuing Special Needs Education or Inclusive Education degrees in order to build capacity within the school and support the implementation of an inclusive education program. Likewise, since most school leaders self-reported a Learning Support Department in the survey, accessing in-house expertise during regular staff meetings and professional development times could enhance collaborative learning. Lastly, regional conferences and international conferences are a natural venue to support inclusive education training for teachers.

This study identifies the role that *parents* can play when a school moves toward inclusive education. To this end, parent participation in the learning processes and in the discussion about what it means to have an inclusive school could have a positive impact on a school adopting an inclusive model. As this study shows, active engagement with parents, addressing their concerns, and including them in the educational process can reduce their resistance to inclusive education. In this regard, when leaders of the school purposely engage in dialog about inclusive education with these important stakeholders, parent concerns can be mitigated.

The larger network. Engaging in the learning process with the *larger network* of international schools can provide schools moving towards inclusive education with important know-how for implementation, structural approaches, and policies. As previously mentioned, it is helpful if leaders and schools see this change as belonging to a wider movement (Fullan, 2001), and in this case, one of social justice. Given that international schools are not tied to a state system (Hayden & Thompson, 2008), networks, partnerships and collaboration are all the more relevant to overcome the

barriers to inclusive education. For example, overcoming the difficulty many international schools face in finding specialists could be remedied through regional or local cooperation among international schools or through collaboration with universities. Additionally, participating in regional or international associations/groups that educate and advocate for inclusive education can also help inspire educators and given them practical tools. Given the advancements in technology and transportation, schools should be able to access specialists; this, however, may require collaboration amongst schools to work towards this end.

Policies and practices. The ongoing learning processes can inform the policies and practices within a school, but like culture, the learning process is not static and nor should the policies and practices be. The policies and practices can evolve incrementally or significantly depending on the context, capacity, and the will of the organization's members. Nonetheless, having an alignment between the mission/vision with the policies and practices of a school is essential for the change to occur (Ryan, 2006). If the school aims to embrace inclusive education, then the admissions policies, the learning support policies, the hiring practices, and facilities need to reflect that vision.

In conclusion, the findings and implications of this research as well as the literature suggest that there is a path forward for international schools to become more inclusive towards students with special needs. In order to overcome the *forces resistant* to such a change, as examined using Lewin's Field Theory, strengthening the *forces for change* and specifically targeting some resistant forces may result in an inclusive education model. In order to accomplish this, focusing on a rights-based vision for

inclusive education as the driver of such change is paramount. The leadership, facilities, and organization structure can support such a rights-based vision, allowing for the learning processes to take hold and help shape the policies and practices. This model can help provide a framework for how an international school might move towards a more inclusive approach for students with special needs.

Limitations of Model

As the saying goes, "the devil is in the details", and to this end, this model falls short. In practical terms, the most difficult part of moving towards an inclusive education model is in the implementation of the actual program, including, but not limited to, issues such as funding structures, facilities, learning support departments, assessment procedures, and alternative diplomas. This model only outlines an approach from a leadership and organizational perspective. In addition, the assumption in this model is that the focus on the *learning processes* will provide schools, including its community members, with the knowledge to implement the policies and practices that will open the school doors to students who have previously been locked out of many international schools. However, when implementing an education program based on a rights-based model, as Christie (2011) notes, "While elegant in abstract, rights are often less clear in the complex conditions of life" (p. 3). As in this case, implementing an inclusive education program at in international school is complex, at best and chaotic, at worst.

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Limitations of Research

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Given the limitations of this research, it is not appropriate to generalize for all international school leaders when identifying the findings. To start with, only

international school leaders with an active membership with the organization Academy for International School Leaders were targeted. In total, this meant that only 410 school leaders were solicited for this study. According to the ISC Research, there are over 8,000 international schools worldwide (ISC: Research, 2016). Therefore, only a small fraction of international school leaders are members of AISH.

Similarly, the response rate was low for the completed surveys at 16.5% (n=68). This creates two limitations. One, there is a probability of response bias in the survey results. With the low number of participants, it is difficult to determine if the results would have been different if a larger percentage had completed the survey. Two, only basic descriptive statistics were used because there was not a large enough sample to run more complex analytical tools such as regression analysis. Therefore, correlating factors that might influence the views of international school leaders were not identified.

At times, the survey instrument lacked precision in terminology, thereby impacting participants' responses. Specifically, the concepts of mild, moderate and severe learning needs were not clearly defined. This makes the analysis of survey questions pertaining to mild, moderate and severe learning needs less reliable, which impacts the findings for individual and classroom factors. Though the concept of inclusive education for this study focused on students with special needs, the use of the expression *inclusive education* in the survey and interviews may have, at times, lacked clarity by the study participants as well as the researcher.

In addition, with a topic such as inclusive education social desirability is another potential limitation. Social desirability may have influenced participants' answers on the

survey as well as during the semi-structured interviews. Thus, given the limitations of the study, one must be cautious in making any generalizable conclusions about the factors influencing international school leaders' views towards inclusive education.

Lastly, while Lewin's Field Theory was a useful conceptual framework for identifying *forces for* and *forces against* inclusive education at international schools, a leadership model of change could have been, perhaps, more impactful in this study.

Future Research Suggestions

Given how little research has been conducted on inclusive education at international schools as well as the limitations of this study, there are many viable future research directions. The most relevant research would be to investigate the implementation of an inclusive school policy; multiple case studies in various locations (i.e. different continents) could prove useful for school leaders and school communities considering the transition to inclusive education. This research could help illuminate a path for schools in similar circumstances.

A more robust mixed methods study on inclusive leadership approaches at international schools could provide school leaders with a clearer framework on how to approach change management when moving to an inclusive model in an international school setting. It is important to understand how school leaders promote the vision of inclusive education and bring relevant stakeholders on board to support the movement.

An impact study on Next Frontier Inclusion could provide relevant, useful information for NFI and its membership, for as this research suggests, NFI is one of the most successful voices in the international school world promoting inclusive education at

the moment. Along these same lines, focused research on teacher and administrator professional development for inclusive education at international schools would be useful to identify best practices in helping teachers and administrators hone their inclusive education techniques.

One of the most challenging perceptions to overcome about inclusive education is that it will somehow reduce the academic rigor or standing of a school. Therefore, further research on academic results, such as IB examinations or ISA tests, at international schools could provide valuable information for school leaders and stakeholders. Examining the test results before and after a school becomes more inclusive could yield valuable data; for example, determining what, if any, impact inclusive education has on the performance level of high achievers in international schools.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study is to fill the research gap on inclusive education at international schools with a particular focus on the leadership perspective. The study's findings indicate that though international school leaders may be in favor of inclusion, there are perceived obstacles to inclusive education at international schools. These obstacles include institutional conditions, circumstances and the dynamics in an inclusive education classroom. The results of the research show that there are implications for how international schools view disability and how leadership can approach inclusive education. To this end, a model for international schools to develop inclusive education is proposed. Though the limitations of the model and research are

identified, this model can be viewed as a starting point for international schools and

leaders that want to provide an inclusive education that supports the learning for all

students, including those with special needs. Making such a commitment to inclusive

education will ensure that more students with special needs can access a rights-based

education at international schools. As Ainscow and Sandill (2010) so poignantly stated,

"[I]magine what might be achieved" (p. 412).

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APPENDIX A

Permission to Use Inclusion Instrument

Marlo Mitchem <mitch889@umn.edu>   Sun, Nov 24, 2013 at 9:30 AM

To: jeffb@uaa.alaska.edu

Dear Dr. Bailey:

Greetings from Frankfurt, Germany!

My name is Marlo Mitchem. I am the International Baccalaureate Diploma Coordinator at Strothoff International School here in Frankfurt. I am also currently pursuing my Ed.D. at the University of Minnesota. My dissertation topic focuses on international school leaders' attitudes toward inclusive education. I will most likely be examining international schools in Europe, Africa and the Middle East.

I am writing today to ask if you would grant me permission to use the instrument you validated and constructed regarding this topic as seen in your article *The validation of a scale to measure school principals' attitudes toward the inclusion of students with disabilities in regular schools*. I am seeking permission to:

1. Use the current instrument for my dissertation

2. Use the current instrument with adaptation for my dissertation

Thank you kindly for considering my request. Please let me know if you have any questions.

Kind regards,

Marlo Mitchem

Jeffrey G Bailey <jgbailey@uaa.alaska.edu>   Mon, Nov 25, 2013 at 8:15 PM

To: Marlo Mitchem <mitch889@umn.edu>

Yes Marlo, please feel free to use the instrument with the usual credits for my authorship. And good luck with your doctoral research.
Jeff
Jeff Bailey, Ed.D.
Professor and Chair of Special Education
College of Education
University of Alaska Anchorage
Email: jeffb@uaa.alaska.edu
Tel: 1-907-786-4910

APPENDIX B

Initial Contact Email for Survey

Dear AISH members,

One of our AISH strands is to make a significant contribution to leading and learning in the international education context. We have an opportunity to support some research which could add some important data to that conversation.

I am distributing a survey on behalf of Marlo Mitchem, a doctoral candidate at the University of Minnesota in the Organizational Leadership, Policy and Development Program designed for international educators. The purpose of the research is to examine factors influencing international school leaders' views of inclusive education.

The survey is straightforward and should only take 5-10 minutes to complete. Please find the link below.

https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/X2CPRBT

Your participation is greatly appreciated.

Kind regards,

Andreas Koini

APPENDIX C

Survey Consent Form

SURVEY CONSENT FORM
Factors Influencing International School Leaders' Views of Inclusive Education

You are invited to be in a research study examining inclusive education at international schools from a leadership perspective. You were selected as a possible participant because you are an international school leader and a member of the Academy for International School Heads. You are asked to read this form and email the researcher any questions you may have before agreeing to be in the study.

This study is being conducted by: Marlo Mitchem, a doctoral student in the Department of Organizational Leadership, Policy and Development Ed.D. program for International Educators.

Background Information
The purpose of this study is to examine factors influencing international school leaders' views of inclusive education.

Procedures:
If you agree to participate in this study, you are requested to do the following:
Fill out a short survey.

Risks and Benefits of the Study Participation
There is a risk of identification. At the end of the survey, there is a question asking if you would like to be interviewed at a later date. If you answer yes, you can enter your name and e-mail address. Second, there is a small risk that you may feel uncomfortable with some of the questions. You may choose not to answer such questions in the survey.

There are no individual benefits to participating in this study; however, this study will contribute to the body of knowledge on inclusive education at international schools.

Compensation:
You will not receive any payment for participating in this study.

Confidentiality:
The records of this study will be kept private. In any sort of report that might be published, it will not include any information that will make it possible to identify an individual participant or a particular school. Research records will be stored securely and only the researcher will have access to the records. Study data will be encrypted according to current University policy for protection of confidentiality.

Voluntary Nature of the Study:
Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with the University of Minnesota or with the Academy for International School Heads. If you decide to participate, you are free to not answer any question or withdraw at any time without affecting those relationships.

Contacts and Questions:
The researcher conducting this study is: Marlo Mitchem. If you have questions later, **you are encouraged** to contact Marlo Mitchem at Vor der Pforte 16, Dreieich, Germany 63303, +49 172 6321004 or mitch889@umn.edu. You can also contact the researcher's advisers: Dr. Deanne Magnusson at +01 612-626-9647 or magnu002@umn.edu and Dr. Christopher Johnstone at +01 612-625-2505 or john4810@umn.edu.

If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study and would like to talk to someone other than the researcher, **you are encouraged** to contact the Research Subjects' Advocate Line, D528 Mayo, 420 Delaware St. Southeast, Minneapolis, Minnesota 55455; (612) 625-1650.

If you would like a copy of this information, please take a screenshot now to keep for your records.

Statement of Consent:
Clicking the button below indicates that I have read the description of the study and I agree to participate in the study.

APPENDIX D

Survey

Preface

In this survey[1] and study, inclusive education refers to providing instructional environments and support that enhance the learning of all students including those with special needs. For the purpose of this study, students with special needs[2] are defined as students who require supplemental support to address learning, communication, physical, emotional or behavioural challenges.

[1] This survey is modelled on Bailey's (2004) instrument. Bailey, J. (2004). The validation of a scale to measure school principals' attitudes toward the inclusion of students with disabilities in regular schools. Australian Psychologist, 39(1), 76-87.

[2] This definition derives from the following source: (2012). Including Students with Special Needs: School Questionnaire Responses. Education Review Office Government of New Zealand.

Part I: Inclusive Education: Institutional Factors

1. Teachers are trained to support students with special needs at your school.
   Strongly disagree
   Disagree
   Agree
   Strongly agree

2. The faculty at your international school come from diverse backgrounds and cultures.
   Strongly disagree
   Disagree
   Agree
   Strongly Agree

3. Your international school's mission and/or vision statement promotes inclusive education.
   Strongly disagree
   Disagree
   Agree
   Strongly Agree

4. Lack of access to occupation and speech therapists and other professionals makes inclusive education difficult at your international school.
   Strongly disagree
   Disagree
   Agree
   Strongly Agree

5. Teacher aides are trained to support students with special needs at your international school.
   Strongly disagree
   Disagree
   Agree
   Strongly disagree

6. National laws in your host country require the inclusion of students with special needs at your international school.
   Strongly disagree
   Disagree
   Agree
   Strongly Agree

7. Administrators are trained to support students with special needs at your international school.
   Strongly disagree
   Disagree
   Agree
   Strongly agree

8. There is a zero rejection admissions policy for students with special needs at your international school.
   Strongly disagree
   Disagree
   Agree
   Strongly Agree

9. The purpose of your international school is to provide instructional support to enhance the learning of all students including students with special needs.
   Strongly disagree
   Disagree
   Agree
   Strongly Agree

10. All faculty members collaborate to improve the learning for all students at your international school.
    Strongly disagree
    Disagree
    Agree
    Strongly Agree

Part II: Inclusive Education: International School Classrooms

11. Students with special needs benefit academically from classroom participation at international schools.
    Strongly disagree
    Disagree
    Agree
    Strongly Agree

12. Including students with special needs creates additional challenges for classroom management in international schools.
    Strongly disagree
    Disagree
    Agree
    Strongly Agree

13. Students with special needs in an international school classroom have a minimal impact on teacher workload.
    Strongly disagree
    Disagree
    Agree
    Strongly Agree

14. Students with mild special needs should be included in international school classrooms.
    Strongly disagree
    Disagree
    Agree
    Strongly Agree

15. Students with special needs benefit socially form inclusion in international school classrooms.
    Strongly disagree
    Disagree
    Agree
    Strongly Agree

16. Students with severe special needs should be included in international school classrooms.
    Strongly disagree
    Disagree
    Agree
    Strongly Agree

17. Regular education students benefit socially from interaction with special needs peers in international school classrooms.
    Strongly disagree
    Disagree
    Agree
    Strongly Agree

18. Students with moderate special needs should be included in international school classrooms.

Strongly disagree

Disagree

Agree

Strongly Agree

Part III: Institutional Data

19. How many students attend your international school?

1,000 and above

500-999

250-4999

Under 250

20. Do you have a Learning Support Department at your school?
Yes
No

21. If you do have a Learning Support Department at your school, how many faculty positions does it include?
20 and above
10-19
5-9
1-4

22. What type of institution do you lead?
Not-for-profit
For-profit

23. A student can exit your school with the following qualifications:
IB Diploma
Advanced Placement Exams
American High School Diploma
A-Levels
IGCSE
Other (please specify)

Part IV: Inclusive Education: Individual Factors

24. Which statement best explains your approach to leading an international school?
You set the institutional goals and how to achieve them within a specific time-frame.
You encourage others to participate in the decision-making process at your institution.
You address the needs of your subordinates within the work environment and treat them as equals.
You aim to improve the performance of your subordinates through inspiration, intellectual stimulation and an individualized approach.
You intervene only when necessary and work towards mutual exchanges with your subordinates that benefit the institution.

25. I have experience working with students with special needs.
Strongly disagree
Disagree
Agree
Strongly Disagree

26. How many completed years of working at international schools do you have?
20 and above
10-19
5-9
2-4
Less than 1

27. Do you have a Special Education or Inclusive Education qualification?
Yes
No

28. What is your age in completed years?
65 and above
50-64 years
35-4 years
20-34 years

29. What is your nationality?
Fill in the blank

30. What is the highest level of degree you have earned?
Bachelors
Masters
Doctorate

31. In your current position, how many years of experience have you completed?
    5 and above
    3-4
    1-2
    Less than 1

32. What is your current position at your international school?
    Head of School
    Primary School Administrator (Ages 3-10)
    Secondary School Administrator (Ages 11-18)
    Other (please specify)

33. What is your gender?
    Female
    Male

34. Would you be willing to have a telephone or Skype interview with the researcher?
    Yes
    No

35. If you would be willing to have a telephone or Skype interview with the researcher, please leave your name and email below.

APPENDIX E

Sample Initial Contact E-mail for Interview

Subject: Interview Request for Inclusive Education Study

Dear . . .,

Hello. My name is Marlo Mitchem. I am a doctoral candidate at the University of Minnesota. In June you filled out a survey on inclusive education at international schools. In your response, you indicated that you would be willing to be interviewed via Skype or telephone for this study.

I am writing today to see if we could set up a time for an interview in the next 2-3 weeks. The interview should take 20-30 minutes[2]. If you are willing to be interviewed, would you kindly send me a time and date that would suit you? I will do my best to accommodate your schedule; I know how busy school leaders are.

Thank you for your consideration, and I look forward to speaking with you soon.

Sincerely,
Marlo Mitchem

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[2] In the first few email contacts, a time of 30-60 minutes was indicated. After the first few interviews, I modified the estimated interview time to 20-30 minutes.

APPENDIX F

Interview Consent Form

INTERVIEW CONSENT FORM
Factors Influencing International School Leaders' Views of Inclusive Education

You are invited to be in a research study examining inclusive education at international schools from a leadership perspective. You were selected as a possible participant because you are an international school leader and a member of the Academy for International School Heads. Additionally, you stated your willingness to be interviewed on a prior survey on the same topic. You are asked to read this form and ask any questions you may have before agreeing to be in the study.

This study is being conducted by: Marlo Mitchem, a doctoral student in the Department of Organizational Leadership, Policy and Development Ed.D. program for International Educators.

Background Information
The purpose of this study is to examine factors influencing international school leaders' views of inclusive education.

Procedures:
If you agree to participate in this study, you are requested to do the following:
Participate in a 1 hour interview via Skype or telephone. The interview will be taped to ensure accuracy.

Risks and Benefits of the Study Participation
The study has risk. There is a small risk that you may feel uncomfortable with some of the questions. You may choose not to answer such questions in the interview.

There are no individual benefits to participating in this study; however, this study will contribute to the body of knowledge on inclusive education at international schools.

Compensation:
You will not receive any payment for participating in this study.

Confidentiality:
The records of this study will be kept private. In any sort of report that might be published, it will not include any information that will make it possible to identify an individual participant or a particular school. Research records will be stored securely and only the researcher will have access to the records. Study data will be encrypted according to current University policy for protection of confidentiality.

The interview will be stored securely and only the researcher will have access to it. The taped interview will be used for educational purposes only. The interviews will be erased at the conclusion of the study, which will be no longer than one year. In the final written report, you will be given a pseudonym in order to protect your identity and specific information regarding your current school's location will be generalized. For example, if your school is located in Frankfurt, Germany, it will be generalized to a school in Western Europe.

Voluntary Nature of the Study:
Participation in this study is voluntary. Your decision whether or not to participate will not affect your current or future relations with the University of Minnesota or with the Academy for International School Heads. If you decide to participate, you are free to not answer any question or withdraw at any time without affecting those relationships.

Contacts and Questions:
The researcher conducting this study is: Marlo Mitchem. If you have questions later, **you are encouraged** to contact Marlo Mitchem at Vor der Pforte 16, Dreieich, Germany 63303, +49 172 6321004 or mitch889@umn.edu. You can also contact the researcher's advisers: Dr. Deanne Magnusson at +01 612-626-9647 or magnu002@umn.edu and Dr. Christopher Johnstone at +01 612-625-2505 or john4810@umn.edu.

If you have any questions or concerns regarding this study and would like to talk to someone other than the researcher, **you are encouraged** to contact the Research Subjects' Advocate Line, D528 Mayo, 420 Delaware St. Southeast, Minneapolis, Minnesota 55455; (612) 625-1650.

You will be given a copy of this information to keep for your records.

Statement of Verbal Consent:
I, _____ (participant's name), have read the above information. I have asked questions and have received answers. I consent to participate in the study.
Today's date is:_____

APPENDIX G

Semi-structured Interview Questions

1. What are the first words that comes to mind when you hear the phrase inclusive education?
2. What is your definition of inclusive education?
3. What experiences have most influenced your views of inclusive education?
4. How do you think your experience as an international educator has shaped your view of inclusive education?
5. What do you think is the role of the school leader in promoting inclusive education at international schools?
6. Describe the ways in which your school is inclusive.
7. What are the greatest obstacles to inclusive education at international schools?
8. What are the greatest catalysts for inclusive education at international schools?