

**Secondary Teachers' Attitudes Toward and Willingness to  
Provide Accommodations and Modifications for Students with Disabilities**

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## **Abstract**

The setting of this research study was the Wichita Public Schools, an urban school district of approximately 50,000 students located in Wichita, Kansas. The sample for this research study included over 500 secondary school teachers that were employed by the school district during the 2011-2012 school year. The purpose of this research study was fivefold. The first purpose was to determine the extent of secondary teachers' willingness to provide accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities. The second purpose was to determine the extent that a secondary teachers' willingness to provide accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities was affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female), school level taught (middle school or high school), teaching assignment (general education or special education), personal disability (yes or no), and family member with a disability (yes or no). The third purpose was to determine secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities. The fourth purpose was to determine the extent that secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities were affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female), school level taught (middle school or high school), teaching assignment (general education or special education), personal disability (yes or no), and family member with a disability (yes or no). The last purpose was to determine the extent of the relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers' willingness to provide accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities.

This research study was conducted using survey research and data was collected electronically through Survey Monkey, an online survey tool. A quantitative cross-sectional descriptive survey and a correlation research design were chosen for use in this

research study. The findings of the research study were varied. Secondary teachers were willing to provide accommodations, but were unwilling to provide some modifications. The findings regarding the extent of secondary teachers' willingness to provide accommodations and modifications affected by the independent variables studied were mixed. The willingness of secondary teachers to provide some accommodations and modifications was affected by the variables of the gender of the teacher (male or female), school level taught (middle school or high school), teaching assignment (general education or special education), and personal disability (yes or no). The attitudes of secondary teachers toward persons with disabilities were determined to be positive. Secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities were not affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female), school level taught (middle school or high school), teaching assignment (general education or special education), personal disability (yes or no), or family member with a disability (yes or no). The findings regarding the relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers' willingness to provide accommodations and modifications were mixed.

School district leaders should consider the results of the research study when professional development is provided. The results provide data that may aid in the decision making process of determining what groups of teachers need additional professional development related to increasing willingness to provide accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities.

## **Dedication**

This dissertation is dedicated to the following four individuals:

To three educators who made a tremendous impact on my life and influenced my decision to become an educator: Edie Saylor, Joe Hinz, and Karen Epp of Newton Public Schools, Newton, Kansas. I always aspired to be like each of you, each with your own unique and special ways of teaching kids. When I think of life changing educators, I think of you. You are examples of educators that not only teach and inspire, but also change lives. You all three have made a substantial difference in my life when I not only needed a teacher, but also a role model and mentor. All three guided me in the right direction and not only taught me academics, but also taught me many life lessons. You also taught me the value of being a contributing member of society, giving back. Thank you.

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## **Chapter One**

### **Introduction**

“In the year 2000, U.S. school districts spent approximately \$146 million on the resolution of disputes between families of children with disabilities and school districts” (Mueller, Singer, & Draper, 2008, p. 191). Because school districts are accountable for providing students with disabilities a free and appropriate public education at “public expense, under public supervision and direction, and without charge” (Individuals with Disabilities Education Act [IDEA], 2004, Sec. 602(9)), the need to reduce the likelihood of a violation of the rights of students with disabilities and disagreements with parents is vital. Often times, when the denial of a free and appropriate public education (FAPE) for a student with a disability occurs, the school district provides compensatory education. Compensatory education is defined as “educational services sometimes ordered by a court to be provided for a student to compensate for a past deficient program” (Luker & Luker, n.d.). Sometimes a school district may have to provide a form of compensatory education that may include physical and occupational therapy, summer school, tutoring, and/or small group instruction (Gopal, 2004, p. 14).

School districts should do whatever they can to minimize the risk of needing to provide compensatory education. Resolving the special education issues related to disagreements and compensatory education may result in the need for a judgment hearing, which can be costly to school districts both in terms of money and the strain placed on the relationship between the school district and parents. Some resources used to resolve issues related to the denial of a FAPE are resources that are readily available within the school district. “Attorney’s fees, the hearing officer’s fees, the related costs of

experts and substitutes, not to mention the indirect cost of lost time/emotion/energy expanded by administrative, teaching, and other staff during the hearing is probably greater than most parents realize” (Beekman, 2000, p. 2). Resources used to resolve disagreements include the time of personnel involved and the use of readily available equipment and materials within a school district. “To avoid damages liability, school districts should promulgate and enforce policies that govern the education of children with disabilities so that no dealings with the students will sink to the level of bad faith or gross misjudgment” (Weber, 2002, p. 95).

In addition to concerns about saving money and complying with the law, other concerns exist related to educating students with disabilities. One such area of concern is academic performance on state assessments. The National Center on Educational Outcomes (2010) reported one of the characteristics of students who consistently performed poorly on state assessments is receiving special education services. Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) is the measure of progress on state assessments that determines whether a school district is making progress toward all students being proficient by the end of the 2013-14 school year (U.S. Department of Education [USDOE], 2004a). School districts across the nation should continue to be very concerned, as students with disabilities are often among the lowest scoring group of students on state assessments that determine AYP.

Furthermore, the percentages of eighth-grade students with disabilities performing at or above their state’s proficient level in reading/language arts for 2008-2009 were reported to Congress by the USDOE (2011). It was reported that the subgroup of students with disabilities had the lowest percentage when compared to the subgroups of

females, males, economically disadvantaged, limited English proficiency, and migrant students in 23 school systems operating in all 50 states, the Bureau of Indian Education, Puerto Rico, and Washington D.C. (USDOE, 2011). In light of this information, the identification of secondary general and special education teachers who are less willing to provide accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities and who hold less favorable attitudes toward students with disabilities is important for educational leaders who plan professional development for teachers. Secondary teachers who are reluctant to provide accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities and whose attitudes are negative toward these students may be putting students at risk of performing poorly on state assessments. Teachers who are less willing to provide accommodations and modifications and who hold less favorable attitudes may be in need of professional development related to providing accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities and attitudes toward persons with disabilities.

### **Background**

This research study took place in the Wichita Public Schools (WPS), Unified School District 259. WPS is a public urban school district in the city of Wichita and the largest school district in the state of Kansas. For the duration of the 2011-2012 school year, the enrollment in the WPS was approximately 50,000 students that included students in pre-kindergarten through 12th grade (WPS, 2012, p. 31). During the 2011-2012 school year, 7,913 students were classified as having a disability and were receiving special education services in the WPS. Of the 7,913 students, 3,749 were in elementary school, 1,867 were in middle school, and 2,297 were in high school (WPS, 2011).

Throughout the 2011-2012 school year, the WPS employed approximately 4,100 teachers who served students at 56 elementary schools, 16 middle schools, two kindergarten through eighth grade schools, 10 high schools, and 16 other special program locations (WPS, 2010a). Of the 4,100 teachers employed by the WPS during the 2011-2012 school year, 1277 were secondary general education teachers and 276 were secondary special education teachers (Kansas State Department of Education [KSDE], 2011b).

Student enrollment has increased in the WPS. Total student enrollment for the 2010-2011 school year was 50,033, compared to the total enrollment of 50,108 for the 2011-2012 school year (WPS, 2012, p. 31). Since the 2010-2011 school year, the number of Individualized Education Plans (IEPs) for students with disabilities on file in the WPS has increased. During the 2010-2011 school year, the WPS had 7,812 IEPs on file compared to 7,913 for the 2011-2012 school year (WPS, 2012, p. 31). Each student identified as having a disability and receiving special education services must have an IEP which is defined as a plan created by an agreement between parents, students, and school districts to provide necessary assistance to students with disabilities (Yanoff, 2006, p. 2).

In providing special education services for a student with a disability, due process or procedural safeguards must be followed to ensure that the rights of parents, students, and school districts are not violated (Pierangelo & Giuliani, 2007, p. 43). When an agreement on the services to be provided for a student with a disability cannot be reached, due process provides a set of procedures and options to follow to protect the interests of all parties involved (Siegel, 2011, p. 142). Due process also encompasses

“the rights of families and school boards to get mediation in order to resolve disagreements about services to be provided for a student with special needs” (Yanoff, 2006, p. 7). The process of solving disagreements using due process includes the use of dispute resolution, mediation meetings, and/or due process hearings (National Dissemination Center for Children with Disabilities, 2012). It is the belief of the WPS Mediation Due Process Supervisor that when general and special education teachers hold more favorable attitudes toward persons with disabilities and are more willing to accommodate students with disabilities, less money and time is spent on dispute resolution, mediation meetings, and due process hearings (A. Godsey, personal communication, August 10, 2011).

Because the WPS is educating more students with disabilities every year, identifying secondary teachers’ willingness to provide accommodations and modifications and their attitudes toward persons with disabilities is necessary for the creation of a target population for providing professional development. This professional development could center on activities that promote a more favorable attitude toward students with disabilities and activities that promote a higher level of willingness to accommodate. This in turn may contribute to reducing the need for dispute resolution, mediation meetings, and due process hearings, thereby saving time and money spent when providing compensatory education. Reducing the need for dispute resolution, mediation meetings, and due process hearings also has a nonmonetary benefit by preventing damage to relationships between school districts and families.

Furthermore, additional areas of concern related directly to educating students with disabilities should be discussed. An assessment of content learned by all students is

conducted yearly in the state of Kansas. Students demonstrate knowledge of content learned by participating in state assessments. Students with disabilities are expected to participate in these assessments and perform at a benchmark that increases every year. The IEP is the document that states how a child with a disability should be educated. Properly implemented IEPs are essential to meet the needs of the student and provide a FAPE. Often, students with disabilities are taught in inclusive settings, alongside typically developing children in general education classrooms. Teachers must understand the characteristics of accommodations and modifications and how they apply to the learning process for students with disabilities.

**Adequate Yearly Progress.** The No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 mandated that all school districts in the United States make AYP. AYP has provided a yearly measure to judge whether public schools and districts have been making progress toward having all students 100% proficient in the areas of reading and mathematics by the 2013-2014 school year. The determination of whether a school district has made AYP is measured in five different ways. AYP is measured every school year by analyzing state reading assessment results, state mathematics assessment results, state assessment participation rates, attendance rates in elementary and middle school settings, and graduation rates at the high school level (KSDE, 2012, Sec. 2). For the purpose of AYP, student assessment scores within a school district are disaggregated into five different subgroups. These five subgroups include: all students, students who receive free and reduced meals at school, students with disabilities, English language learners, and racial/ethnic groups (KSDE, 2012, Sec. 5). By disaggregating groups of students within a school district, a more clear and accurate picture of student assessment scores is made.



From this breakdown of scores, identifying subgroups of students who are not making AYP is less difficult.

Groups of students who require individualized attention such as students with disabilities have become a primary concern for administrators as they assist their schools in making AYP. “An estimated 38% of the nation’s public schools did not make AYP in 2010. This marks an increase from 33% in 2009 and is the highest percentage since NCLB took effect” (Usher, 2011, p. 2). Many school districts across the United States have reported their schools are not making AYP because of the subgroup of students with disabilities. In a 2012 national report on the inclusion of students with disabilities in school accountability systems, Harr-Robins et al. (2012) studied the performance of students with disabilities that determined AYP for the 2008-2009 school year. It was noted that students with disabilities performed poorly on assessments that determined AYP, which caused whole schools to miss their AYP targets. Harr-Robins et al. (2012) stated “14 percent missed AYP solely due to SWD subgroup performance in 37 states with relevant data” (p. 34) where SWD is an acronym for students with disabilities. School districts across the nation continue to struggle to meet the ever increasing AYP requirements of NCLB. The total number of schools nationwide failing to make AYP has continued to increase as the year 2014 approaches. “The number of schools failing to make AYP has increased, dramatically so in many cases. In several states, the rate at which schools are failing AYP doubled, tripled, and even quadrupled” (National Education Association [NEA], 2008, para. 1).

The number of school districts in the state of Kansas that have made AYP has varied. For the 2006-2007 school year, 33 school districts in Kansas failed to make AYP

(KSDE, 2011d). During the 2010-2011 school year, 77 school districts in Kansas failed to make AYP (KSDE, 2011d). Schools districts in Kansas have continued to struggle and the number of school districts that failed to make AYP from 2006-2007 to 2010-2011 has fluctuated. The number of school districts in the state of Kansas not making AYP over a five-year period is presented in Table 1.

Table 1

*Number of School Districts in Kansas Not Making AYP*

School Year	2006-2007	2007-2008	2008-2009	2009-2010	2010-2011
No. of Districts	33	25	57	82	77

*Note:* Adapted from *KSDE Adequate Yearly Progress Reports*.

In Kansas and in the WPS, a common challenge has existed related to students with disabilities making AYP. For the 2010-2011 school year, the WPS did not make AYP overall as a school district. Furthermore, students with disabilities did not make AYP in math and reading in the WPS. However, the WPS did make AYP for students with disabilities for their participation rate in the assessments (KSDE, 2011a). As mentioned previously, the number of students who participate in an assessment from each subgroup is another measure that determines if AYP is made. “NCLB requires a 95 percent participation rate, meaning that if less than 95 percent of the students take the test, the school will be identified as not making AYP regardless of how well the students do on the test” (Walsh, Kemerer, & Maniotis, 2010, p. 78).

Students with disabilities in the WPS are among the lowest performing groups of students on the state assessments. Gains, if any, have been very small from year to year, and other subgroups of students have outperformed students with disabilities (KSDE,

2011b). The performance of students with disabilities on reading assessments has been poor. The percentage of students in the WPS that scored proficient and above on the WPS Reading Assessment over a five year period are divided by subgroup and presented in Table 2. As shown in Table 2, the percentage of students with disabilities that scored proficient and above over a five-year period has remained flat in the WPS.

Table 2

*WPS Reading – Percentage of Students Proficient and Above*

Subgroup	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09	2009-10	2010-11
All Students	66.6%	70.0%	70.8%	71.0%	74.8%
Free/Reduced Lunches	60.2%	63.2%	64.2%	65.1%	69.8%
Students with Disabilities	50.8%	47.2%	49.6%	49.9%	50.9%
English Language Learners	49.7%	58.2%	53.7%	54.7%	60.7%
African American Students	54.0%	57.1%	58.2%	59.7%	64.6%
Hispanic	56.4%	62.6%	62.4%	63.6%	68.0%
White	76.6%	78.7%	79.9%	80.5%	83.1%
Asian	77.4%	79.9%	80.3%	81.8%	85.6%
Am. Indian or Alaska Native	72.0%	73.1%	76.0%	69.4%	77.6%
Multi-Racial	66.7%	72.8%	73.8%	73.8%	79.0%
Nat. Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	ND	ND	ND	72.7%	71.4%

*Note.* Adapted from KSDE WPS District Report Card 2006-2007 to 2010-2011. ND = No data available for subgroup; Am. = American; Nat. = Native.

Students with disabilities have continued to perform poorly on mathematics assessments. The percentage of students in the WPS that scored proficient and above on the WPS Mathematics Assessment over a five-year period are divided up by subgroup and presented in Table 3. As shown in Table 3, the percentage of students with disabilities that scored proficient and above over a five-year period has increased by a few percentage points.

Table 3

*WPS Mathematics – Percentage of Students Proficient and Above*

Subgroup	2006-07	2007-08	2008-09	2009-10	2010-11
All Students	64.1%	68.7%	67.6%	67.4%	70.2%
Free/Reduced Lunches	58.5%	62.5%	62%	62.3%	65.5%
Students with Disabilities	45.5%	50.1%	49.4%	49.3%	51.4%
English Language Learners	56.9%	64.0%	59.9%	60.2%	63.8%
African American Students	48.9%	53.9%	52.4%	53.7%	56.6%
Hispanic	58.5%	65.0%	63.4%	62.9%	66.5%
White	72.2%	76.0%	75.1%	75.5%	78.0%
Asian	81.0%	83.3%	84.0%	86.8%	87.2%
Am. Indian or Alaska Native	65.7%	69.2%	68.0%	66.6%	70.6%
Multi-Racial	64.9%	70.9%	70.3%	66.4%	71.0%
Nat. Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	ND	ND	ND	66.7%	60.6%

*Note.* Adapted from KSDE WPS District Report Card 2006-2007 to 2010-2011. ND = No data available for subgroup; Am. = American; Nat. = Native.

Wichita's problem of students with disabilities performing poorly on state assessments is not an uncommon one. In a September 2009 presentation to the Kansas State Board of Education by the KSDE regarding AYP in Kansas schools, reading and mathematics trends were shared (KSDE, 2009). During this presentation, it was noted that students with disabilities statewide consistently scored below AYP goals for reading from 2003 through 2009 (KSDE, 2009, p. 32). It was also noted that students with disabilities statewide from 2003 to 2008 met AYP goals for mathematics (KSDE, 2009,

p. 43). However, beginning in 2009 students with disabilities began to fail to meet AYP goals for mathematics statewide (KSDE, 2009, p. 43). It was also highlighted in this presentation that students with disabilities have continued to be among the lowest performing subgroups of students on state assessments that determine if AYP is made in the state of Kansas (KSDE, 2009, p. 52).

Developments have transpired that have allowed state level departments of education to apply for approval of flexibility waivers to opt out of certain requirements of AYP. On February 14, 2012, President Barack Obama issued a press release on the topic of No Child Left Behind Flexibility. President Obama stated “we’ve offered every state the same deal. We’ve said, if you’re willing to set higher, more honest standards than the ones that were set by No Child Left Behind, then we’re going to give you the flexibility to meet those standards” (Obama, 2012, para. 12). According to Frey, Mandlawitz, and Alvarez (2012), “The ‘flexibility’ waivers of some of NCLB’s requirements are only available to states that agree to meet the administration’s specific requirements, which include setting state policy for teacher evaluations” (p. 67). On February 29, 2012, the USDOE reported “twenty-six new states and the District of Columbia have formally submitted requests...for waivers from key provisions of No Child Left Behind. This adds to the 11 states that the Obama Administration announced earlier this month” (2012b, para. 1). Kansas is a waiver state.

**Individualized Education Plans.** The IDEA of 2004 is the law that provides students with disabilities the right to a FAPE (IDEA, 2004, Sec. 601(d)). The law also has served as the guiding document school districts follow in providing services to

students with disabilities. According to the IDEA 2004, the four primary purposes of the law are:

1. To ensure that all children with disabilities have available to them a free appropriate public education that emphasizes special education and related services designed to meet their unique needs and prepare them for further education, employment, and independent living,
2. To ensure that the rights of children with disabilities and their parents are protected,
3. To assist states, localities, educational service agencies, and federal agencies to provide for the education of all children with disabilities, and
4. To assess and ensure the effectiveness of efforts to educate children with disabilities. (Sec. 601(d))

In carrying out the four purposes of the IDEA, school districts create IEPs for students with disabilities. Students receive services under 13 federal disability categories that include: autism, deaf-blindness, deafness, emotional disturbance, hearing impairment, mental retardation, multiple disabilities, orthopedic impairment, other health impairment, specific learning disability, speech and language impairment, traumatic brain injury, and visual impairment, including blindness (IDEA, 2004, Sec. 602(3)). An IEP is a written document that states how special education services are provided for a student with a disability. Further defined by Armenta and Beckers (2006), an IEP is a document where “annual goals, short-term objectives, individual modifications, and accommodations are detailed with the overriding goal of ensuring that students with disabilities are provided, as nearly as possible, the same educational opportunities in the

same settings as the general school population” (p. 22). An IEP is defined as a written statement for each student with a disability that is developed, reviewed, and revised by members of an IEP team (IDEA, 2004, Sec. 614).

IEPs are developed by multidisciplinary teams. Members of an IEP team include the parents, at least one general education teacher, at least one special education teacher, a representative of the school system who is knowledgeable about curriculum and instruction, an individual who can interpret evaluation results, related service personnel, and sometimes the student (IDEA, 2004, Sec. 614). This team must meet and make many decisions regarding the specifics of educating a student with a disability (Heward, 2009, p. 63). In making numerous decisions about educating a student with a disability, multidisciplinary teams must consider the student’s present level of performance, goals, educational services needed, and the extent of participation in the general education environment (Espin, Deno, & Albayrak-Kaymak, 1998, p. 164). “By law, the IEP must include information about the child and the educational program designed to meet his or her unique needs” (National Center for Learning Disabilities, 2006, para. 4).

**Properly Implemented IEPs and a Free Appropriate Public Education.** When IEPs are properly written and implemented, it is more likely that a FAPE is provided. Bugaj (2000) studied the pitfalls of failing to implement IEPs and identified reasons why specially designed instruction through an IEP was not delivered: “1. Teachers may not be aware of what is required, 2. Teachers may not be knowledgeable about how to make accommodations, 3. Teachers may refuse to follow what has been outlined” (p. 45).

A FAPE is provided when a student with a disability receives their education through specially designed instruction that includes accommodations, related services,



and supplementary aids and services. All of these components related to a FAPE are listed on a student's IEP and must provide some educational benefit for a student.

According to Wright and Wright (2008),

Courts have held that to receive a free appropriate public education, the child must receive meaningful educational benefit. Courts have also held that while children with disabilities are entitled to a free appropriate education, they are not entitled to the "best" education, nor to an education that "maximizes" the child's potential. (para. 6)

The denial of a FAPE by a school district can occur for a variety of reasons. There are typically four areas in which school districts violate the law, resulting in a denial of a FAPE. These four areas include: providing no services, providing the wrong services, providing the right services but not delivering them, and providing the right services with the wrong delivery (Oberman, 2012). Godsey, WPS Mediation Due Process Supervisor, believes that when a FAPE is denied, the violation is generally made by general education teachers, special education teachers, and/or members of the child study teams (personal communication, August 10, 2011). All school staff members who work with students with disabilities must follow the law to ensure that a FAPE is not denied (Weinfeld & Davis, 2008).

One factor that may contribute to the occurrence of a FAPE being denied is teachers not understanding their roles. Scheffel, Rude, and Bole (2005) studied ways to avoid special education litigation in rural school districts, and reported that parents, teachers, and administrators believed that teachers should understand special education law and their role in educating a student with a disability. "Interviewees suggest that this

knowledge is necessary because a large percentage of due process hearings are initiated because parents often believe that teachers do not fully understand their role(s), relevant laws, and the complexities of special education” (Scheffel et al., 2005, p. 5). If teachers understand their role in special education, parents may have more trust in the school system and the need for due process hearings may decrease. Reasons for lack of parent trust include indifference, oversight, and lack of follow-through on behalf of school staff members.

The denial of a FAPE may lead to the need for a due process hearing if school district personnel and parents cannot agree on services for a student with a disability. A due process hearing can be a costly expense in terms of money but also can be costly in terms of the relationship between school districts and parents. In a national assessment regarding special education conflicts between families and school districts, Mueller (2009) reported the following:

The number of due process hearings between parents of children with disabilities and school districts is growing nationwide. This litigation costs millions of dollars and destroys the relationships between the home and school envisioned during the creation of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act. (p. 4)

General and special education teachers must comply with the law to provide a FAPE when working with students with disabilities. Properly implementing accommodations and modifications may lead to providing a FAPE. When a FAPE is provided, the number of violations of the law may be decreased. Violations of the law and the associated consequences can be very costly to a school district, not only in terms of money, but also in strained relationships with parents/guardians.

**Least Restrictive Environment.** An important component of the IEP is the educational placement or the environment where the student with a disability is educated. When a student has an IEP and is receiving special education services for a disability, special education teams must consider educational placement on an individual basis (Giuliani, 2012, p. 168). Students who receive special education services must be placed in the least restrictive environment (LRE) for learning. The definition of the LRE is as follows:

To the maximum extent appropriate, children with disabilities should be educated with children who are not disabled, and special classes, separate schooling, or other removal of children with disabilities from the regular educational environment should occur only when the nature or severity of the disability is such that education in regular classes with the use of supplementary aids and services cannot be achieved. (IDEA 2004, Sec. 612a)

School districts typically have a continuum of services and educational placements to choose from when serving a student with a disability. “The LRE for a student with disabilities is believed to be the appropriate placement closest to the general education classroom” (Lewis & Doorlag, 2006, p. 14). The LRE can range from a very restrictive environment, such as a special school that educates only students with disabilities, to a minimally restrictive environment such as a general education classroom that contains very few students with disabilities. “The determination of what constitutes the LRE for a specific child will vary, based on present level of performance, needs for special education and related services, need for accommodations and modifications, and the resources available” (Downing, 2007, p. 15). Students with disabilities who have the

greatest needs might be expected to be placed in the most restrictive environment.

However, research conducted by Hocutt (1996) on the effectiveness of special education and student placement was in contrast to this expectation. Hocutt (1996) wrote “there is no compelling evidence that placement is the critical factor in student academic or social success; the classroom environment and quality of instruction have more impact than placement per se on the success of students with disabilities” (p. 97). Students with mild to the most severe disabilities can be successful in a variety of settings if people are willing to provide the supports needed in those environments to support the student (Janney, Snell, Beers, & Raynes, 1995).

IEP teams must carefully consider all of the variables related to the LRE and educational placement. Yell, Katsiyannis, Ryan, McDuffie, and Mattocks (2008) reiterated the importance for school districts to place students in the LRE. Several considerations about educational placement must be made so that students with disabilities are educated alongside nondisabled peers. “The primary consideration when determining students’ placement is their individual educational needs, however, it is also important to ensure that they are educated with their nondisabled peers to the maximum extent appropriate” (Yell et al., 2008, p. 49).

**Inclusion.** Inclusion is a term used in education to describe the educational placement of students with disabilities in general education classrooms (Lewis & Doorlag, 2006, p. 5) and often is a placement option for special education teams to consider when determining the LRE. Inclusion can mean different things in different school districts, but some meanings are common in the consideration of the LRE. Common themes include educating a student with nondisabled students to the maximum

extent appropriate and providing supports in the environments where the student with a disability is educated (Crockett & Kauffman, 1999).

The practice of inclusion can be successful when both the student with the disability and the classroom teacher are supported (Kochhar, West, & Taymans, 1999). An integral component that contributes to successful inclusion is the characteristics of the learning environment. Ferguson, Desjarlais, and Meyer (2000), characterized an inclusive classroom as one where staff members have high expectations for all students and where learning is customized to meet individual needs. In an inclusive classroom, teachers can be supported and students with disabilities can be successful through the use of universal design for learning (UDL). “UDL provides a blueprint for creating instructional goals, methods, materials, and assessments that work for everyone—not a single, one-size-fits-all solution, but rather flexible approaches that can be customized and adjusted for individual needs” (Center for Applied Special Technology, 2011, para. 1). “Classrooms that use the UDL model provide flexibility and opportunity for teachers and students by incorporating collaborative partnerships, technology tools, and differentiated instruction” (Evans, Williams, King, & Metcalf, 2010, p. 42). When a teacher designs instruction using the UDL approach, the content is presented to the students in many different ways, the students are engaged in multiple ways, and the students are allowed to express understanding of the content in various ways (King, Williams, & Warren, 2011; National Collaborative on Workforce and Disability for Youth, 2012; Turnbull, Turnbull, & Wehmeyer, 2007). A UDL instructional approach in a classroom can be a highly beneficial experience for the student with the disability because it “offers design principles, technology tools, and implementation strategies for

creating one curriculum that is sufficiently flexible to reach all students” (Hitchcock, Meyer, Rose, & Jackson, 2002, p. 15).

The purpose of inclusion and the LRE when educating students with disabilities is to not unnecessarily separate or segregate students with disabilities from their nondisabled peers. “Segregated education creates a permanent underclass of students and conveys a strong message to those students that they do not measure up, fit in, or belong” (Villa & Thousand, 2005, p. 5). Educating students with disabilities in segregated settings away from their nondisabled peers can be hurtful and potentially reduce the students’ feelings of belongingness to the school community. Excluding a child with a disability from a particular educational environment creates a difficult dilemma.

According to Kunc (2000):

As soon as we take away students’ sense of belonging, we completely undermine their capacity to learn the skills that will enable them to belong. Herein lies the most painful catch-22 situation that confronts students with disabilities: they can’t belong until they learn, but they can’t learn because they are prevented from belonging. (p. 88)

Studies have shown that students with disabilities perform better academically and socially when educated in inclusive environments. In a meta-analysis of the research related to the effects of inclusion, Baker, Wang, and Walberg (1994) determined that students with disabilities performed better academically and socially when educated in regular education classrooms, as compared to students educated in non-inclusive settings. More recently, Robbins (2010) studied inclusive placements and performance on state of Kansas reading and mathematics assessments. Robbins (2010) reported “inclusive

placements had a highly significant, positive effect on student performance” (p. 64). For students with disabilities to have meaningful benefit from inclusion, educators need training. In 1996, Jobe, Rust, and Brissie studied attitudes toward inclusion of students with disabilities and found a significant but modest positive correlation between teacher attitudes toward inclusion and in-service training about the concept of inclusion among a national sample of kindergarten through 12th grade general education teachers (p. 151). More in-service training about inclusion resulted in more favorable attitudes toward the concept of inclusion. Hammond and Ingalls (2003) studied teachers’ attitudes toward inclusion and found that professional development training was essential to the success of inclusive practices (p. 28). The recommendation of additional professional development training for teachers regarding inclusive practices by Ross-Hill (2007) is similar to the findings of Hammond and Ingalls (2003). “More importantly, research has implied that the practices of inclusion cannot advance without such training for all parties involved” (Ross-Hill, 2007, p. 74). Training on inclusion is needed for meaningful inclusive practices to occur, but training is also needed to improve and sustain positive attitudes toward inclusive practices. In a study of attitudes toward inclusion of pre-service and elementary school teachers, Burke and Sutherland (2004) found “teachers’ attitudes are crucial to the success of inclusion programs for children with special needs, since their acceptance of the policy would affect their commitment to implementing it” (p. 164).

**Accommodations.** Accommodations are often necessary for a student with a disability to utilize in order to be successful in completing academic tasks at school and in classroom settings. Accommodations do not reduce the cognitive demands of a task, but rather provide access to completing a task. An example of an accommodation is

another person reading a grade-, course-, and content-appropriate reading passage to a student who has a reading disability. “Accommodations do not reduce learning expectations” (Georgia Department of Education [GDOE], 2008, p. 11).

Accommodations may be utilized on classroom assignments, classroom assessments, and sometimes state level assessments. Accommodations can be defined as changes in the administration of an assessment or assignment in terms of how the student responds to or completes a task (GDOE, 2008, p. 10). Further defined, “Accommodations are tools and procedures in the areas of presentation, response, setting, and timing/scheduling that provide equitable access during instruction and assessments for all students” (KSDE, 2007, p. 8). Accommodations for students with disabilities can typically be divided into four categories which include presentation, response, timing, and setting.

Presentation accommodations change the way the material is presented to a student. A presentation accommodation allows a student to access information in ways that may not require the student to visually read standard print (KSDE, 2007, p. 9). Examples include listening to a recording of printed text or watching a video about the same content. Response accommodations change the way a student responds or demonstrates knowledge. A response accommodation allows a student to complete activities, assignments, and tests in a different way (KSDE, 2007, p. 13). Examples include typing answers on a computer or using a digital voice recorder to record answers. Timing accommodations change the way time is organized or allow the student extended time to complete a task. A timing accommodation increases the length of time to complete an assignment or test or changes the way the time is organized to complete the assignment (KSDE, 2007, p. 17). An example includes allowing completion of a test in



two half-hour segments rather than a single one-hour period. Setting accommodations change the environment of where the student is physically located while completing an assignment or test. A setting accommodation changes the location in which a test or assignment is given or the conditions of the setting (KSDE, 2007, p. 16). Examples include moving the student to a quieter room or adjusting stimuli in the classroom, such as turning the lights off or turning on soothing music in the background.

Students with disabilities who receive special education services and have an IEP often need a variety of accommodations to experience academic success in classrooms. General and special education teachers are often the individuals implementing the accommodations and have a substantial role in determining whether the student experiences academic success. Without the provision of necessary and appropriate accommodations, the student may perform poorly in academics (Zirkel, 1994).

In order to ensure a student has appropriate accommodations, IEP teams should conduct an annual review of the accommodations on an IEP for appropriateness. This should be completed every school year by the team and “based on this review, decide if the student should continue using an accommodation as is, if changes are needed, or if the accommodation should be discontinued” (KSDE, 2007, p. 9). In a study of how rural, suburban, and urban school districts used information on student IEPs to provide accommodations for students with disabilities on state assessments Shriner and DeStefano (2003) recommend “the IEP should be developed during the same academic year as state testing, considering the curriculum and instruction accommodations(s) that the student experienced during the year of testing, and involving teachers who will be implementing the assessment recommendations” (p. 160).

Accommodations should be implemented in ways that are consistent with state and school district policies. Federal law requires states to design accommodations that mirror those used in day-to-day classroom instruction and classroom assessments (Salend, 2009). Friend and Bursuck (2009) wrote that the role of the general education teacher is important to the implementation of special education that includes accommodating students with disabilities. To meet the needs of a student with a disability, general education teachers “systemically implement interventions” (Friend & Bursuck, 2009, p. 36). Teachers must be knowledgeable about the four types of accommodations and the difference between modifications, as they are often required to provide individual accommodations for students with disabilities.

**Modifications.** Understanding the difference between an accommodation and a modification of the way learning occurs is important for educators to continually consider as students with disabilities are educated. Accommodations are different from modifications, which can be defined as “practices that change, lower, or reduce learning expectations” (GDOE, 2008, p. 11). Modifications may reduce the cognitive demands of a task and ultimately can change what the student learns. McLaughlin and Nolet (2004) defined a modification as a change to “the expectations regarding what content a student learns as well as the expectations for learner achievement and outcomes....modifications must be used with caution” (p. 26). An example of a modification is substituting a different reading passage for a student with a reading disability, which does not teach the same content and meet the same objectives of the grade and course level curriculum.

Providing modifications of content for students with disabilities during classroom instruction and/or classroom assessments may have the unintended consequence of

reducing the student's opportunity to learn important content (GDOE, 2008, p. 11).

Because most students with disabilities are expected to learn and be tested on the same essential content as students without disabilities, modifying the content offered to a

student with a disability should take place only with extreme caution and consideration.

It is important for all school staff members to know when it is appropriate to implement modifications for students with disabilities, especially as they relate to state assessments.

“If any student uses a modification on the state assessment that results in an invalid score, the student is considered to be not tested when calculating participation rate for AYP

purposes” (KSDE, 2007, p. 1). Any individual involved in directly educating a student with a disability should have a clear understanding of the concepts of accommodations

and modifications and should be able to apply those appropriately to the learning process.

**General Education Teachers Role.** It is important for each member of an IEP team including the general education teacher to understand their role in providing special education services for students with disabilities. When each member of an IEP team understands their role, conflict and passiveness may be decreased. “*Role conflict* occurs when formal roles and responsibilities clash with the reality of a teacher's work life” (Washburn-Moses, 2005, p. 151). The general education teacher “should be informed of his or her specific responsibilities related to implementing the IEP, and of the specific modifications, accommodations and supports that must be provided to the child in accordance with the IEP” (Gerstein & Gerstein, 2004, p. 122). “*Role ambiguity* occurs when teachers find that they are unable to fulfill their responsibilities because of insufficient information” (Washburn-Moses, 2005, p. 152). Clarifying the role of general education teachers and supporting them through the process of serving a student with a

disability may decrease role conflict and role ambiguity, thereby possibly increasing the chance that the IEP will be properly implemented. Heward (2003) recommended the following roles and responsibilities of teachers in general education classrooms to assist students with disabilities:

Assess each student's present levels of performance for the purpose of identifying and prioritizing instructional targets; design instructional materials and activities so that the student has frequent opportunities for active response in the form of both guided and independent practice; provide systematic consequences for student performance in the form of contingent reinforcement, instructional feedback, and error correction; conduct direct and frequent measurements of student performance and use those data to inform instructional decision making.  
(p. 197)

According to Patterson (2005), "As participants in IEP development and its subsequent implementation, general education teachers must know the key components" (p. 64).

Patterson (2005) wrote that they must know the elements of the IEP and how services are provided in a classroom for a student with a disability.

One way that general education teachers provide services to students with disabilities is through the instructional model of co-teaching. Co-teaching allows an opportunity for general and special education teachers to work together in an inclusive learning environment where all students are involved. "Successful inclusion is predicated on successful co-teaching by the general educator and special educator" (Benner, Bell, & Broemmel, 2011, p. 73). Co-teaching typically involves two or more professionals jointly delivering instruction to a diverse, blended group of students in a single physical

space (Friend & Cook, 2007, p. 113). Co-teaching provides the opportunity for the student with a disability to receive the best of both worlds. The student is taught by both the general education teacher or content area expert and the special education teacher or the expert in delivering instruction. The positive benefits of co-teaching for students with disabilities are not just limited to improved academic performance. “Co-teaching can have a positive impact on student achievement” (Murawski & Swanson, 2001, p. 265). Self-confidence, self-esteem, academic performance, social skills, and peer relationships all were areas of noted improvement in a study about co-teaching by Walther-Thomas (1997, p. 399).

In House Report No. 105-95 (1997) presented to the United States House of Representatives by the Committee on Education and the Workforce, the importance of the general education teacher to the process of educating students with disabilities was highlighted by stating “very often, regular education teachers play a central role in the education of children with disabilities” (p. 103). The role of the general education teacher in a co-teaching model is critical to the academic success of students with disabilities in a classroom (Keefe & Moore, 2004, p. 82). Moreover, the relationship between general education teachers and special education teachers is also important.

**Collaboration Between General and Special Education Teachers.** For students with disabilities to experience success in general education classrooms, they need support (McDonnell, Mathot-Buckner, Thorson, & Fister, 2001). Supporting a student with a disability requires thorough preparation and collaboration between general and special education teachers (Ripley, 1997). The opportunity to collaborate in regard to supporting a student with a disability in general education classrooms is imperative. “Within special

education, collaboration between special and general educators is considered central to the successful inclusion of students with disabilities into general education classrooms” (McLaughlin, 2002, p. 280). Fisher, Frey, and Thousand (2003) recommended that training or professional development for teachers be focused on the areas of “collaborative teaming and teaching, curricular and instructional modifications and accommodations, personal supports, assistive technology, and positive behavioral supports” (p. 46).

To maximize collaboration, general and special education teachers should work together to form highly effective Professional Learning Communities (PLCs). PLCs are a unique opportunity for general and special education teachers to work together to create highly effective learning environments for all students. DuFour, DuFour, Eaker, and Many (2010) defined a PLC as an “ongoing process in which educators work collaboratively in recurring cycles of collective inquiry and action research to achieve better results for the students they serve” (p. 11). When general and special education teachers work together in a PLC, both teachers may benefit. In a research brief that recommended the use of a PLC as a way of integrating novice special education teachers into the school culture, The National Center to Inform Policy and Practice in Special Education Professional Development (2010) reported “the classroom practices of special education teachers, like those of their general education counterparts, may improve. With time, Professional Learning Communities may help place a greater focus on students, including those students who struggle most” (p. 2).

In addition to functioning as a PLC, general and special education teachers need a consistent and regimented common planning time to come together to meet and focus on

student issues. Common planning time where both general and special education teachers can come together to address student issues should exist (Gregory & Chapman, 2007). Kellough and Kellough (2008) defined common planning time as “a regularly scheduled time during the school day when teachers who teach the same students meet for joint planning, parent conferences, materials preparation, and student evaluation” (p. 394). Many (2009) wrote “one of the critical conditions for the development of collaborative cultures is *designated and protected time* for teachers to meet and collaborate during the regular school day” (p. 8). Common planning time provides an opportunity for individuals to work together, but more importantly allows “teachers to share best practices, look at students’ work, and plan curriculum and lessons together” (Inclusive Schools Network, 2012, para. 1). When common planning time doesn’t exist, teachers must get creative in finding opportunities to collaborate. These creative strategies may include an increased reliance on the use of technology such as email, blogs, or websites to collaborate effectively (Koufman-Frederick, Lillie, Pattison-Gordon, Watt, & Carter, 1999).

In summary, the background section contained necessary and pertinent information related to educating students with disabilities. First, adequate yearly progress was explained. Second, individualized education plans were discussed. Third, properly implemented individualized education plans and free and appropriate public education were discussed. Fourth, the LRE was discussed. Fifth, the inclusion of students with disabilities was examined. Sixth, accommodations and modifications were described. Seventh, the role of the general education teacher was analyzed. Last, collaboration between general and special education teachers was reviewed.

## **Statement of Problem**

The main purpose of NCLB was to “ensure that all children have a fair, equal, and significant opportunity to obtain a high-quality education and reach, at a minimum, proficiency on challenging State academic achievement standards and state academic assessments” (USDOE, 2004b, Sec. 1001). To assess the learning and academic progress of all students every school year, NCLB required that all students be tested. NCLB also required that “assessment results and State progress objectives must be broken out by poverty, race, ethnicity, disability, and limited English proficiency to ensure that no group is left behind” (USDOE, 2001, para. 5). Finally NCLB mandated that school districts close the academic achievement gap between students who are from different economic, racial, and ethnic backgrounds as well as students with disabilities, and all students must be 100% proficient in the areas of reading and mathematics by the end of the 2013-2014 school year (Yell, 2006, p. 180).

Recent changes have allowed some states to opt out of certain requirements of NCLB if they “agree to a series of preset conditions, including adopting challenging academic standards, developing educator evaluation systems, and improving the lowest-performing schools” (Riley, 2012, p. 1). The KSDE received approval for a waiver from the USDOE to opt out of certain provisions of NCLB in August, 2012 (Kansas Association of School Boards [KASB], 2012, p. 1). The KSDE is now required to put into place a new system of standards and assessments to measure student academic achievement in the state of Kansas (KASB, 2012, p. 1). Even with the waiver, school districts still have been held accountable for student academic performance based on “state-developed plans designed to improve educational outcomes for all students, close



achievement gaps, increase equity, and improve the quality of instruction” (USDOE, 2012a, para. 1).

Walsh, Kemerer, and Maniotis (2010) wrote, “Each state must have a timeline that ensures all students will meet or exceed the state’s ‘proficient level of academic achievement’ not later than the 2013-2014 school year” (p. 78). In a national evaluation of how students with disabilities performed on assessments that determine AYP, Allbritten, Mainzer, and Ziegler (2004) stated:

Schools and school districts are to be held directly accountable for the learning progress of all students, explicitly including students with disabilities. NCLB mandates that schools include all students with disabilities, as well as students in the general education curriculum, in an assessment and accountability system. (p. 153)

Considering the varied needs of students with disabilities, school districts face the task of educating students with disabilities using the general curriculum, while at the same time complying with the IDEA and NCLB. Students with disabilities are often one of the lowest performing subgroups of students on assessments that measure AYP (Simon, 2010). The failure of one subgroup of students on a state assessment contributes to the failure of a whole school to make AYP (Nagle, Yunker, & Malmgren, 2006). “NCLB virtually guarantees that the presence of special education students in a school will contribute to the school’s failure to make AYP” (Allbritten et al., 2004, p. 157).

The stakes are high for school districts because they are held accountable to ensure that students with disabilities are making gains toward 100% academic proficiency. Optimum learning environments are needed for students with disabilities,

including an education based on the general curriculum, an environment with a sense of belongingness, and a positive relationship with the teacher (Nolet & McLaughlin, 2006). In fact, the teacher has been determined to be one of the most important factors affecting student achievement in the classroom (Hattie, 2012; Marzano, 2003; Sanders, Wright, & Horn, 1997).

One essential component of the IDEA 2004 has been the requirement for students to be educated in the LRE alongside as many nondisabled peers as appropriate (Sec. 612(a)(5)). Accommodations aid the student with a disability in accessing the content and do not change the construct or idea of the content to be learned (KSDE, 2007, p. 5). A major task of any teacher who works with students with disabilities is to ensure that the student learns the content of the general curriculum through instruction and accommodations.

All teachers who work with students with disabilities need ongoing professional development to continually hone their skills. Norman, Caseau, and Stefanich (1998) studied the concept of educating students with disabilities in science classrooms and found that kindergarten through 12th grade science teachers and science methods professors indicated “a need for more training in the rationale for mainstreaming instruction and assessment strategies, and classroom management” (p. 143). Teachers who receive proper training may be more willing to work with students with disabilities.

According to Crockett, Billingsley, and Boscardin (2012), teachers do not properly implement IEPs when they lack proper training which may lead to a violation of the law that may result in a denial of a FAPE. Godsey, WPS Mediation Due Process Supervisor, stated if teachers held more favorable attitudes toward persons with

disabilities and were more willing to accommodate, the occurrences of the denial of a FAPE decreases (personal communication, August 10, 2011). Determining teacher attitudes toward persons with disabilities is necessary to enable the formation of an informed and strategic plan to improve attitudes toward students with disabilities and increase willingness to provide accommodations and modifications.

The need exists to determine secondary teachers' willingness to accommodate, secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities, and the relationship between willingness to accommodate and attitudes toward persons with disabilities. Results may provide information for educational administrators as they decide where to place students with disabilities in education, what type of professional development to provide for teachers, and the target audience for such professional development.

### **Significance**

Budgeted funds available for special education in the WPS have continued to decrease. It was reported in the WPS Comprehensive Annual Financial Report for the year that ended June 30, 2010, that special education expenditures decreased by \$2,800,000 (WPS, 2010b) and for the year that ended June 30, 2011, the budget decreased by \$3,400,000 (WPS, 2011). With fewer dollars available, now more than ever is the time to find ways to foster positive attitudes toward persons with disabilities and support teachers in their willingness to provide accommodations and modifications, which in turn may lead to properly implemented IEPs. Properly implemented IEPs may lead to compliance with the law. "There are parts of the IEP that can be more problematic than others, and if they are not understood or taken seriously, they can create problems-including lawsuits-for a school district" (Armenta & Beckers, 2006, p. 23).

The study of teacher attitudes toward persons with disabilities is important because according to Hunt and Hunt (2000) attitudinal barriers “are more inhibiting and cause more challenges for people with disabilities” (p. 270). Specifically it is important to study the attitudes of teachers because Gourneau (2005) stated “attitudes and actions employed by teachers ultimately can make a positive difference on the lives of their students” (p. 1). The study of the willingness of teachers to provide accommodations and modifications is important because “accommodations help ameliorate the effects of personal characteristics that limit access to critical information and prevent a person from demonstrating his or her true abilities” (Ketterlin-Geller, Alonzo, Braun-Monegan, & Tindal, 2007, p. 194). Moreover, “Educating students with disabilities in the least restrictive environment necessitates the use of accommodations and modifications to help these students have better access to the general education curriculum” (Meadows, 2012, p. ii).

Additionally, the findings of this research study may help to identify groups of teachers who hold less favorable attitudes toward persons with disabilities and who are less willing to provide accommodations and modifications. With those groups of teachers identified, the WPS could target them with professional development aimed at improving attitudes and increasing willingness to provide accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities in secondary classrooms. The improvement of teacher attitudes and increased willingness may contribute to successful inclusion, adherence to LRE mandates, properly implemented IEPs, increased academic achievement among students with disabilities, and a decreased need for compensatory education to be provided, thus saving the WPS money.

### **Purpose of Study**

The purpose of this research study was fivefold. The first purpose was to determine the extent of secondary teachers' willingness to provide accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities. The second purpose was to determine the extent that a secondary teachers' willingness to provide accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities was affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female), school level taught (middle school or high school), teaching assignment (general education or special education), personal disability (yes or no), and family member with a disability (yes or no). The third purpose was to determine secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities. The fourth purpose was to determine the extent that secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities were affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female), school level taught (middle school or high school), teaching assignment (general education or special education), personal disability (yes or no), and family member with a disability (yes or no). The fifth and last purpose was to determine the extent of the relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers' willingness to provide accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities.

### **Delimitations**

According to Lunenburg and Irby (2008), delimitations are self-imposed boundaries set by the researcher on the purpose and scope of the research study. This research study had the following delimitations:

1. The sample for this research study was delimited to secondary general and special education teachers, grades six through 12 employed by the WPS during the 2011-2012 school year.

2. This research study was delimited to a period of data collection that occurred from January 10, 2012 to February 14, 2012.
3. This research study was delimited to the use of an online survey instrument for data collection.
4. This research study was delimited to an urban school district.
5. Participation in this research study was voluntary.

### **Assumptions**

Assumptions are premises that are accepted as true in a research study.

According to Lunenburg and Irby (2008), “Assumptions are postulates, premises, and propositions that are accepted as operational for purposes of the research” (p. 135). The following assumptions were made concerning this research study:

1. General and special education teachers who participated in the research study understood the vocabulary on the survey.
2. General and special education teachers who participated in the research study responded accurately and honestly.
3. The interpretation of the survey results accurately reflected the perceptions and attitudes of the general and special education teachers who participated.
4. The sample participating in the survey was typical of the total population of secondary urban school district teachers, grades six through 12.

### **Research Questions**

Johnson and Christensen (2008) defined a research question as “a statement of the specific question(s) to which the researcher seeks an answer” (p. 78). The following five research questions guided this research study:

1. To what extent are secondary teachers willing to provide accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities?
2. To what extent is a secondary teachers' willingness to provide accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female), school level taught (middle school or high school), teaching assignment (general education or special education), personal disability (yes or no), and family member with a disability (yes or no)?
3. What are secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities?
4. To what extent are secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female), school level taught (middle school or high school), teaching assignment (general education or special education), personal disability (yes or no), and family member with a disability (yes or no)?
5. To what extent is there a relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers' willingness to provide accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities?

### **Definition of Terms**

Key terms are words that can have different meanings and that appear throughout the research study. According to Roberts (2004), "This section of the dissertation provides the definition for the terms used that do not have a commonly known meaning or that have the possibility of being misunderstood" (p. 139). The following terms were used throughout this research study.

**Attitude.** The degree of positive or negative affect associated with some psychological object (Thurstone, 1931, p. 261). Psychological object is defined as “any symbol, phrase, slogan, person, institution, ideal or idea toward which people can differ with respect to positive or negative affect” (Edwards, 1983, p. 2).

**General/Regular Education Teacher.** These two terms are used interchangeably to describe a teacher who primarily teaches students without disabilities and who does not manage a caseload of students with individualized education plans (U.S. Department of Labor, 2010a).

**Child/Student with a Disability.** This is a person identified as having one of the following disabilities or a combination of the following disabilities: mental retardation, hearing impairment, speech or language impairment, visual impairment, emotional disturbance, orthopedic impairment, autism, traumatic brain injury, other health impairment, specific learning disability, deaf-blindness, and multiple disabilities (IDEA, 2004, Sec. 602(3)).

**Special Education.** This term refers to specially designed instruction consisting of adaptations to content, methodology, or delivery of instruction to meet the unique needs of a student that result from the child’s disability to ensure access to the general education curriculum (KSDE, 2011c, p. 51).

**Special Education Teacher.** For the purpose of this research study, this is a teacher who primarily teaches students with disabilities and who manages a caseload of students with individualized education plans (U.S. Department of Labor, 2010b).



## **Overview of Methods**

A quantitative cross-sectional descriptive survey and a correlation research design were chosen for use in this research study. Johnson and Christensen (2008) defined cross-sectional research as using data collected at a single point in time. A purposive sampling method was used to locate the research study participants. A list of secondary teachers in the WPS was generated from predefined lists in the school district electronic mail system. The population of this research study included 1545 general and special education teachers in grades six through 12 teaching in middle and high schools within a large urban school district. The sample included those secondary general and special education teachers who completed the survey.

The survey used for the current research study contained three different sections: items regarding willingness to provide accommodations and modifications, items regarding attitudes toward persons with disabilities, and items measuring demographic data. The survey was completed online using Survey Monkey. Survey data from Survey Monkey was downloaded and imported into IBM SPSS Statistics 20.00 for Windows Data for analysis. Statistical tests used for this research study included one-sample *t* tests tested against null values, two-sample *t* tests to analyze differences between two means, and Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients to measure relationships between two variables.

## **Organization of Study**

This research study contains five chapters. Chapter one included the problem to be studied, background of the research study, significance of the research study, purpose of the research study, delimitations, assumptions, research questions, definition of key

terms, and overview of the methods of the research study. Chapter two contains a review of the literature related to attitudes toward persons with disabilities, teachers' willingness to provide classroom accommodations, and professional development related to attitudes of teachers. Chapter three provides a discussion of methodological information including the research design, population and sample to be studied, sampling procedures, instrumentation, data collection methods, statistical analysis, hypothesis testing, and limitations of the research study. Chapter four includes a summary of the research findings and analysis of the data. Chapter five contains a discussion of the findings, implications for action, recommendations for future research, and conclusion of the research study.

## **Chapter Two**

### **Review of Literature**

This chapter is divided into five sections and presents a review of the literature relevant to accommodating students with disabilities and the attitudes of teachers toward students with disabilities. First, a brief overview of the legislative history of special education is provided. Second, a review of the literature related to attitudes toward inclusion is presented. Third, teacher attitudes toward persons with disabilities are discussed. Fourth, a review of the literature related to teachers' willingness to accommodate is presented. Finally, the need for professional development as it is related to educating students with disabilities is discussed.

#### **Legislative History of Special Education**

The legislative and judicial history focused on educating students with disabilities has now spanned approximately 60 years. One of the earliest indications that changes were on the horizon regarding educating students with disabilities was the case of *Brown v. Topeka Board of Education* (1954). Although the *Brown* case primarily addressed violations of the 14<sup>th</sup> amendment to the United States Constitution related to the segregation of students based on race or ethnicity, the outcome of this landmark case signaled the beginning of many changes to come for students with disabilities (Gargiulo, 2012, p. 44). The *Brown* case determined that a separate education for African American students was unequal and was considered to be discrimination. This case essentially “opened the door to future litigation and legislation limiting discriminatory practices against students who were viewed as different because of race, ethnicity, culture,

language or disability” (Rhodes, Ochoa, & Ortiz, 2005, p. 44). Many students with disabilities have continued to benefit from the decisions made related to this case.

In 1965, the United States Congress added Title VI to the Elementary and Secondary Act (ESEA) which established the Bureau of Education, known today as the Office of Special Education Programs (Title VI, 1964). Title I also provided money for school districts with economically disadvantaged students (ESEA of 1965, Sec. 101). In 1966, when Congress reauthorized the ESEA, additional funds were authorized for school districts (P.L. 89-750, 1966). However, in order for school districts to obtain the additional available funds, they were required to prove that they served disadvantaged students and that they were complying with Title VI of the Civil Rights Act (Richardson & Johanningmeier, 2003).

Two United States Supreme Court decisions during the 1970s set major precedents related to educating students with disabilities. In the court case of *Pennsylvania Association for Retarded Children (PARC) v. Commonwealth of Pennsylvania* (1972), parents brought suit against the commonwealth of Pennsylvania for excluding students with mental retardation. Some students were excluded from school without notice and without being given the opportunity of due process. The litigation resulted in a consent agreement where the parties agreed that it was the obligation of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania to place each student with mental retardation in a free, public program of education and training appropriate to the student’s capacity (Alexander & Alexander, 2005, p. 563). This determination was “later to be followed by Congress in the 1975 statute requiring a free appropriate public education (FAPE) for all children with disabilities” (Alexander & Alexander, 2005, p. 487). The 1972 court case of *Mills*

v. The District of Columbia Board of Education expanded the findings of *PARC v. Commonwealth of Pennsylvania* and established equal protection for students with disabilities. The Court found that students with disabilities should “be provided a free public education, that due process procedures be established, and that students with disabilities receive special education regardless of the school district’s financial capability” (Rhodes, Ochoa, & Ortiz, 2005, p. 45). The rulings of *PARC* and *Mills* gained the attention of many individuals concerned about educating students with disabilities. These rulings contributed to additional litigation and gained the attention of policy makers at the national and state level.

In 1973, Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act was established to provide protection for individuals with disabilities from being discriminated against based on their disability (Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act, 1973). “First, it protects all students with disabilities from discrimination. Second, it provides procedural and substantive protections for students with disabilities who do not receive protection under IDEA” (Jaeger & Bowman, 2002, p. 97). Unlike the IDEA, Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act provided protections for students prekindergarten through 12th grade and for students in post-secondary settings.

In 1975, Congress extended equal education to students with disabilities by enacting P.L. 94-142, known today as the IDEA which mandated that all school systems educate students with disabilities (Gargiulo, 2012, p. 49). Some of the major components of P.L. 94-142 included identifying eligible disability categories, extending special education services to students ages three to 21, requiring school districts to use child-find as a proactive measure to identify children who need special education, using

nondiscriminatory testing, and using a multidisciplinary team to determine a FAPE (Fagan & Warden, 1996).

Additional federal regulations were added to P.L. 94-142 in 1977 that established rules that school districts must follow when serving students with disabilities (Education for All Handicapped Children Act, 1975). So that students with disabilities were provided basic educational rights, “Public Law 94-142 incorporated six tenets: (1) a free appropriate public education, (2) an individualized education program, (3) special education services, (4) related services, (5) due process procedures, and (6) the least restrictive environment (LRE) in which to learn” (Alexander & Alexander, 2005, p. 491). According to Colarusso and O’Rourke (2003), in 1986 additional amendments were made to P.L. 94-142 that provided for

- (a) the extension of the rights and protections of P.L. 94-142 to children with disabilities to ages 3 to 5 years; and
- (b) the provision of funds to assist states in planning, developing, and implementing a comprehensive, statewide system of early intervention for infants and toddlers (birth to age 3 years) with disabilities and their families. (p. 34)

Furthermore, additional changes in the law were still yet to come in the 1990s and after the turn of the century related to the education of students with disabilities.

In 1990, the Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) was enacted and additional changes were made to the law that included the addition of transition services for students with disabilities (Duran, 2006, p. 94). Emphasized previously in the IDEA, school districts were required to provide a statement of transition services on a student’s IEP (IDEA, 1990). The ADA helped to strengthen the requirement that school districts

ensure that students with disabilities were assisted with the transition to life after high school. The ADA helped “to expand opportunities for youth with disabilities in their transition to postschool activities” (Jacob & Hartshorne, 2007, p. 193). Transition services for students with disabilities emphasized the need for a set of coordinated activities to assist the student with the transition from high school to postsecondary life.

In 1997, the IDEA was reauthorized. The reauthorization created additional requirements for school districts when educating students with disabilities. School districts were now required to have students with disabilities participate in state assessments and general education teachers were now required to be a part of the IEP team (IDEA, 1997). Patterson (2005) wrote that six fundamental principles were emphasized in the reauthorization of IDEA ‘97. Those included “a free and appropriate public education; an individualized education program; the least restrictive environment; appropriate evaluations; parent and student participation in decision making; and procedural safeguards” (p. 62-63). These additional requirements helped to clarify and strengthen the intention of the law.

In 2001, the NCLB Act was enacted. NCLB drastically changed the ways that schools and all students were to be assessed related to academic achievement. The premise behind NCLB is that all students would be proficient in the areas of reading and mathematics by the end of the 2013-2014 school year. School districts must make yearly incremental improvements on state reading and mathematics assessments known as AYP toward 100% proficiency. An additional and important definition added to the IDEA 2004 was the definition of highly qualified for the certification of teachers, previously discussed in the NCLB act of 2001 (IDEA, 2004, Sec. 602(10)). Townsend and Bates

(2007) wrote that a highly qualified teacher is defined “as [a person who] has obtained full State certification as a teacher...or passed the State teacher licensing examination, and holds a license to teach in such State” (p. 101). School districts are charged with the challenge of complying with the IDEA and NCLB at the same time. “Schools were and still are under tremendous pressure to meet AYP and standardized test scores, graduating rates, and attendance rate” (Hammel & Hourigan, 2011, p. 35). A particular challenge for school districts is helping students increase their skill set and perform better each year on the assessments.

The IDEA was reauthorized again in 2004 and established additional accountability requirements for school districts. According to Stader (2007), major changes related to serving students with disabilities included:

- (a) addressing school safety and the discipline of disabled children, (b) improving cooperation between parents and school districts, (c) reducing mislabeling and high dropout rates among minority children with disabilities, (d) protecting the rights of children with disabilities, and (e) reducing paperwork. (p. 185)

The challenging task of educating students with disabilities while complying with the IDEA and NCLB still exists today. According to Hardman and Dawson (2008), “Although few people would disagree with the intent of NCLB (2001) and IDEA (2004) to improve the educational performance of students with disabilities, the means to achieve this goal remains controversial” (p. 10).

Many legislative and legal changes have occurred over the years regarding the education of students with disabilities. With its beginnings founded in the desegregation movement of the 1950s, special education has dramatically changed over the years.



Additional compliance components when educating students with disabilities were added in the 1960s. To obtain some funding, school districts were required to comply with certain components of the law. The 1970s and special education are characterized by tremendous change. Several landmark court cases resulted in the addition of due process procedures and the definition of a FAPE. The age of students with disabilities that could be educated at school was expanded along with additional disabilities that qualified for special education services. The 1990s resulted in an added emphasis on the general curriculum and added the requirement for general education teachers to participate in the IEP process. The 21<sup>st</sup> century has brought additional requirements related to educating students with disabilities. Inclusion and participation in state assessments have continued to be a priority. “Both IDEA and NCLB have a multitude of requirements and expectations for states and school districts” (NEA, 2004, p. 1). According to Cortiella (2006), “Never before have the nation’s federal education laws been aligned to provide such powerful opportunities for children with disabilities” (p. 10). The requirements of the IDEA in addition to the requirements of NCLB pose tremendous challenges for school districts as they comply with the law and aim for 100% proficiency.

### **Attitudes Toward Inclusion**

Inclusion is the educational practice of including and educating students with disabilities alongside students without disabilities to the maximum extent appropriate (Keefe & Davis, 1998, p. 54). Inclusion is not defined in the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act of 2004 or by the Kansas State Department of Education. Due to lack of definition by the IDEA, the definition of inclusion can vary. Broadly defined, inclusion is the act of ensuring the concept that “students with disabilities are a part of the overall

school community and should be included in all activities associated with the school” (GDOE, 2010, p. 1). In lieu of defining inclusion, the LRE is defined and determined. The determination of where to educate a student with a disability is made at an IEP meeting and is based on several areas of consideration. Determination of the LRE “must be based on the child’s needs, goals to be achieved, and the least restrictive environment...LRE means the child is provided special education and related services with peers who are not disabled, to the maximum extent appropriate” (KSDE, 2011c, p. 119). Due to the lack of definition and guidance regarding inclusion and LRE, where and how a student with a disability is educated may look different based on how a school district determines the way to educate a student with a disability.

The relationship between inclusion and attitudes toward persons with disabilities is a close one. Teacher opinions and attitudes toward inclusion can be changed through professional development that provides teachers with new knowledge about persons with disabilities by working with students with disabilities, and through the support of resource personnel (Harasymiw & Horne, 1976, p. 399). Numerous research studies have focused on teacher attitudes toward the concept of inclusion (D’Alonzo, Giordano, & Cross, 1996; Oldfield, 2009; Witherspoon, 2005; Van Reusen, Shoho, & Barker, 2000).

The attitudes of general and special education teachers toward the concept of inclusion have been researched. Most researchers have compared specific types of teachers or attitudes toward inclusion of students with specific types of disabilities. In a report of the research related to teacher attitudes toward students with disabilities, Hannah and Pliner (1983) found that a major factor in the success or failure of inclusion is the attitude of the general education teacher. A less favorable attitude toward inclusion

has resulted in a decreased use of effective strategies. Bender, Vail, and Scott (1995) studied 127 kindergarten through eighth grade general education teachers' attitudes toward increased mainstreaming or inclusion of students with learning disabilities in the state of Georgia. They found "teachers with less than positive attitudes toward mainstreaming use effective strategies less frequently" (p. 93).

Attitudes toward inclusion have been found to be affected by the gender of the teacher. Researchers from a midsize Colorado school district identified teacher opinions about inclusion. Pearman, Huang, Barnhart, and Mellblom (1992) reported male teachers had significantly more negative opinions than female teachers about the inclusion of students with disabilities in general education classrooms (p. 179). In contrast to Pearman et al. (1992), Jobe et al. (1996) studied the attitudes of a national sample of kindergarten through 12th grade teachers toward the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classrooms and found no significant difference in attitudes toward inclusion between male and female teachers (p. 151). In contrast to Pearman et al. (1992) and similar to Jobe et al. (1996), Van Reusen, Shoho, and Barker (2000) studied attitudes toward inclusion affected by the gender of the teacher in a suburban San Antonio, Texas high school. Van Reusen et al. (2000) researched attitudes toward inclusion of 125 general and special education teachers and reported attitudes toward the inclusion of students with disabilities were not affected by the variable of the gender of the teacher (p. 13).

In a study conducted in the Northeastern United States that assessed suburban high school general and special education teachers' attitudes toward inclusion, Ferris (1996) found that special education teachers had a more positive attitude toward

including students with disabilities in regular classes than general education teachers did (p. 45). The findings of Witherspoon (2005) are in contrast to the findings of Ferris (1996). Witherspoon (2005) conducted a study related to teachers' attitudes toward inclusion in Sumter School District 17 in Sumter, South Carolina. The study included 131 general and special education teachers district-wide who did not work in fully inclusive settings. Fully inclusive settings or full inclusion is defined as "the full-time placement of all students with disabilities in general education settings" (Coleman, Webber, & Algozzine, 1999, p. 27). Witherspoon (2005) reported general education teachers held significantly more favorable attitudes toward the full inclusion of students with disabilities (p. 69). Also, a significant difference between the attitudes of male and female teachers toward the full inclusion of students with disabilities was not found (p. 69).

Among kindergarten through 12th grade general and special education teachers in the United Arab Emirates, Alahbabi (2006) studied the attitudes toward the inclusion of students with disabilities in general education classes. Alahbabi (2006) reported elementary school teachers were significantly more willing to accommodate than high school teachers (p. 100). Alahbabi (2006) also discovered that special education teachers held significantly more positive attitudes than general education teachers toward the concept of inclusion. These findings are similar to the findings of Ferris (1996).

The results of the studies by Ferris (1996) and Alahbabi (2006) are similar to the results of a study by Hoffman (2006) of suburban, urban, and rural secondary teachers' attitudes toward the inclusion of students with disabilities in general education classrooms from the state of Illinois. Hoffman (2006) found that special education

teachers had a more positive or wider perception toward inclusion when compared to regular education teachers. Supporting teachers who use inclusive practices encourage positive attitudes (Hoffman, 2006, p. 97). Hoffman (2006) also found that secondary teachers who perceived a higher level of support from special education teachers were more likely to have a positive attitude toward inclusion (p. 105).

The severity of a students' disability and additional responsibilities expected of the teacher can influence attitudes toward inclusion. In 2000, Kavale and Forness synthesized research about general education teachers' perceptions toward the inclusion of students with disabilities. Kavale and Forness (2000) concluded "the two factors that seem to influence these perceptions appeared to be the severity level of student disability and the amount of additional teacher responsibility required" (p. 285).

Rural educators have been surveyed and have been reported to hold less favorable attitudes toward inclusive education. In 2007, Ryan studied Minnesota rural and non-rural general education high school teachers' attitudes toward inclusive education. Ryan (2007) found that rural educators had a less positive opinion of inclusive education than non-rural educators (p. 40).

In a cross-section sample of 100 general education teachers from a suburban school district outside New York City, Walpole (2008) studied teachers' attitudes toward inclusion. In contrast to Van Reusen et al. (2000), Walpole (2008) reported female teachers held more favorable attitudes than male teachers toward the inclusion of students with disabilities in both elementary and secondary schools (p. 49). Elementary teachers were also reported to have more favorable attitudes toward the inclusion of students with disabilities than secondary teachers (p. 60).

Oldfield (2009) conducted a meta-analysis of the research related to general and special education teachers' attitudes toward inclusion during the years 1997 to 2007.

Oldfield (2009) stated "though there are exceptions to every rule, there has been a positive change in inclusion over the course of 10 years" (p. 110). This is possibly attributed to the federal mandates of the IDEA and NCLB where more students are now being educated in more inclusive classrooms (Karger, 2005).

### **Teachers' Attitudes Toward Persons with Disabilities**

The concept of attitude has been researched over the years (Allport, 1935; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975; Oskamp, 1991). The attitudes of individuals vary from person to person and are formed based on personal experiences. Many definitions of attitude exist; most refer to feelings of an individual toward some type of object. According to Allport (1935), the concept of attitude is the idea of readiness for response, preparation for behavior, and a predisposition to respond in a particular way to the attitude object (p. 810). Allport (1935) believed that attitude is not passive, but rather exerts a dynamic or directive influence on behavior and that attitude directly influences behavior. Oskamp and Schultz (2005) further described Allport's definition of attitude and stated "an attitude is not behavior, not something that a person does; rather it is a preparation for behavior, a predisposition to respond in a particular way to the attitude object" (p. 9). "The term attitude object is used to include things, people, places, ideas, actions, or situations, either singular or plural" (Oskamp & Schultz, 2005, p. 9). Some researchers have simplified their definition of attitude. Olson and Maio (2003) wrote that social psychologists define an attitude as "tendencies to evaluate objects favorably or unfavorably" (p. 299). More recently, researchers have defined an attitude as a

disposition. “An attitude is now generally seen as a disposition to respond in a favorable or unfavorable manner to given objects” (Oskamp & Schultz, 2005, p. 9). As indicated by previous researchers, attitude has some type of relationship in determining whether an individual responds in a favorable or unfavorable manner to something.

A review of the related literature identified few studies that specifically addressed secondary teachers’ attitudes toward persons with disabilities. Most available attitudinal research (Conine, 1968; Cook, 2001, Leyser & Tappendorf, 2001; Walker, 2008; Wendt, 1999) focused on teachers’ attitudes toward persons with disabilities has been primarily concerned with (a) the attitudes of specific groups of teachers toward groups of student with specific disabilities, and (b) attitudes of elementary level teachers. In a review of the literature related to pre-service teachers’ attitudes toward students with disabilities, Sze (2009) stated “that one of the most important predictors of successful integrating of students with disabilities in the regular classroom is the attitudes of general education teachers” (p. 55). The attitudes of teachers toward students with disabilities may also influence others. “Teacher attitudes not only set the tone for the relationship between teachers and students with disabilities, but they also influence the attitudes of non-disabled students” (Schulz, Carpenter, & Turnbull, 1991, p. 413).

One instrument that is often used to assess attitudes toward persons with disabilities is the Attitudes Towards Persons with Disabilities (ATDP) scales by Yunker and Block (1986). The use of the ATDP scales to assess individual attitudes toward persons with disabilities of secondary general and special education teachers in urban school districts is limited. In a study of Indiana kindergarten through eighth grade teachers’ attitudes toward persons with disabilities, Conine (1968) used the ATDP scale

form O, and found no significant difference emerge regarding the mean scores of attitudes toward persons with disabilities between male and female elementary teachers. Conine (1968) also found no significant difference in the mean scores of attitudes toward persons with disabilities between area of teaching specialization (kindergarten or elementary, special education or speech-hearing, physical education or health, and others such as music, arts, science, etc.) of elementary teachers kindergarten through eighth grade.

Pre-service teacher attitudes toward students with disabilities have been researched. Wilczenski (1994) reported the attitudes of 229 undergraduate pre-service teachers of a small college in the northeastern United States toward the mainstreaming of students with disabilities became less favorable as they entered the field of education (p. 14). The more experience the teachers had, the less favorable attitudes they held toward the mainstreaming of students with disabilities.

Three years later, Lampropoulou and Padelidu (1997) researched attitudes toward persons with disabilities and inclusion between teachers of the deaf, general education teachers, and other special education teachers in northern and southern Greece that included 290 participants. Lampropoulou and Padelidu (1997) reported teachers of the deaf held significantly more favorable attitudes toward persons with disabilities than general or special education teachers (p. 29).

The findings of Soodak, Podell, and Lehman (1998) were consistent with the findings of a study by Wilczenski (1994). In a study of 188 New York metropolitan area kindergarten through 12th grade general education teachers' attitudes toward including students with disabilities in their classrooms, Soodak et al. (1998) found "patterns emerge



concerning how student disability differentially affects teachers' hostility and anxiety" (p. 492). Additionally, Soodak et al. (1998) reported that the willingness of teachers toward including students with learning disabilities decreased with teaching experience (p. 492). One explanation for this provided by Soodak et al. (1998) was that as teachers work with students with disabilities and sometimes experience failure, they do not produce the desired results, therefore decreasing the receptiveness toward students with disabilities (p. 492).

Research that included suburban Chicago general education elementary school teachers and their attitudes toward persons with disabilities by Wendt (1999) identified a significant and positive relationship between a student's ability to demonstrate appropriate behavior and general education elementary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities (p. 33). Identifying the attitudes of teachers toward persons with disabilities is not enough by itself. Researchers should move ahead to identify the relationship between attitudes toward persons with disabilities and other variables.

Van Reusen et al. (2000) conducted a study related to high school teachers' attitudes toward students with disabilities. This research study of 125 general and special education high school teachers' attitudes was conducted in suburban San Antonio, Texas. They found no relationship between teachers' attitudes toward inclusion and gender of the teacher or subject area taught (p. 12).

The findings of Cook (2001) are similar to the findings of Soodak et al. (1998). Cook (2001) studied the attitudes of 70 elementary general education teachers toward their included students with disabilities. Cook (2001) reported it appeared "teachers'

perceptions of severity of disability influence the attitudes they hold toward their included students with disabilities” (p. 212).

Leyser and Tappendorf (2001) researched the attitudes and practices of 91 rural kindergarten through 12th grade general and special education teachers from a Midwestern state regarding the mainstreaming of students with disabilities. They found that female teachers held significantly more positive attitudes than male teachers in the social growth factor that addressed the social aspects of mainstreaming (p. 754). In a study of the attitudes toward persons with disabilities among high school administrators, general education teachers, and special education teachers in Amman, Jordan, Alghazo (2002) found that the overall attitudes of teachers and administrators toward persons with disabilities were negative (p. 39). Alghazo (2002) also found that special education teachers held more favorable attitudes than general education teachers toward persons with disabilities (p. 39).

Further research conducted by Deal (2006) in England on the attitudes of persons with disabilities toward other persons with disabilities found no significant difference between the attitudes of persons with and without disabilities toward other persons with disabilities (p. 279). He also reported persons with disabilities who had high levels of contact with other persons with disabilities were no more or less likely to have a positive attitude toward other persons with disabilities (p. 300). Furthermore, Deal (2006) identified a statistically significant difference in the attitudes toward persons with disabilities between males and females. Females were found to have more favorable attitudes than males toward persons with disabilities (p. 319).

Attitudes toward persons with disabilities affected by the gender of the teacher have been studied. In contrast to Deal (2006), Parasuram (2006) studied the variables that affect teachers' attitudes toward disability and inclusive education of 300 general education teachers in Mumbai, India. Parasuram (2006) found no significant difference in attitudes toward persons with disabilities between male and female teachers (p. 235).

Similar to the findings of Parasuram (2006), Kitchen (2007) studied West Virginia University pre-service teacher attitudes toward persons with disabilities and found that gender of the teacher did not affect attitudes toward persons with disabilities (p. 59). On average, males and females did not have more or less favorable attitudes toward persons with disabilities. Kitchen (2007) also reported subject areas of pre-service teachers in training (math/science, language/social studies, early childhood, and special education) did not affect attitudes toward persons with disabilities (p. 60). On average, pre-service teachers of certain subject areas did not have more or less favorable attitudes toward persons with disabilities.

In a United States national study, Walker (2008) researched the attitudes of 300 counselors in training toward persons who are blind or visually impaired. Counselors are individuals who often work alongside teachers in schools and often work with students with disabilities. Walker (2008) studied the variable of graduate school status (M.S. or Ph.D.) and found no significant difference in attitudes of graduate students. The results indicated that there was no relationship between attitudes toward students who are blind or visually impaired and graduate school status (p. 73).

Research has been conducted to identify whether teachers hold more or less favorable attitudes toward specific types of disabilities. Jones (2009) investigated the

implicit and explicit attitudes of central Indiana urban and rural kindergarten through 12th grade educators toward the emotional disturbance label that included 52 general education teachers and 46 special education teachers. Jones (2009) reported special education teachers held significantly more favorable attitudes than general education teachers toward persons with disabilities (p. 92). An additional finding of Jones (2009) indicated a greater preference for or more favorable attitudes toward students with learning disabilities over students with emotional disturbances among special education teachers grades kindergarten through 12th (p. 97).

The research results of Jones (2009) are in contrast to the findings of Park and Chitiyo (2011). In a study of kindergarten through 12th grade general and special education teachers' attitudes toward students with autism from a small Midwestern school district, Park and Chitiyo (2011) reported elementary teachers had significantly more positive attitudes toward students with autism than middle school or high school teachers (p. 75). They also found that female teachers had significantly more positive attitudes than male teachers toward students with autism. However, when attitudes toward students with autism affected by teaching assignment was studied and then analyzed, Park and Chitiyo (2011) identified no significant difference between general and special education teachers (p. 73).

### **Teachers' Willingness to Accommodate**

A review of the related literature identified few studies that specifically addressed secondary teachers' willingness to provide accommodations for students with disabilities. Most research studies have focused on teachers' willingness to provide accommodations for students with specific disabilities and not for students with disabilities in general

(Tarbox, 2009). The majority of the research available has been limited to post-high school settings, such as college and to specific types of disabilities, such as learning disabilities (Dodd, Hermanson, Nelson, & Fischer, 1990; Nelson, Dodd, & Smith, 1990; Skinner, 2007).

At the college level, measurement of willingness to accommodate students with disabilities has typically focused on accommodating students with learning disabilities and not students with disabilities in general. Dodd, Hermanson, Nelson, and Fischer (1990) studied the willingness of Tribal College faculty members to provide accommodations for students with learning disabilities. They reported faculty members were willing to permit tape recordings of lectures but unwilling to allow misspellings on assignments (p. 14).

In a similar study of college faculty members' willingness to accommodate students with learning disabilities, Nelson, Dodd, and Smith (1990) found that faculty members were less willing to provide students with extra credit assignments, alternative assignments, and copies of lecture notes (p. 187). Nelson et al. (1990) also found a significant difference among faculty members' willingness to accommodate students with learning disabilities between the colleges of education, business, and arts and sciences (p. 187). College of Education faculty members responded more positively to all items compared to the faculty members of all other colleges (p. 187).

Willingness to accommodate has been studied in rural school districts. Lambert, Dodd, Christensen, and Fishbaugh (1996) studied rural Montana secondary teachers' willingness to accommodate students with learning disabilities, and reported mixed results. Lambert et al. (1996) found that rural secondary teachers were undecided about

providing certain accommodations in the future for students with learning disabilities (p. 41). Even though some teachers had provided certain accommodations in the past, some had indicated disagreement about providing the accommodations of allowing extra credit, adjusting grading criteria, and allowing misspellings (Lambert et al., 1996, p. 41).

Mills (1996) conducted a qualitative study of the perspectives related to implementing accommodations for students with disabilities of three general education teachers grades 10th through 12th. This research study was completed in the Tuscaloosa, Alabama School System. Mills (1996) identified several factors that impacted the willingness of the teachers to make accommodations.

Teachers' willingness to accommodate students with special needs is the result of a combination of three factors: a teacher's reason for entering the teaching profession, a teacher's belief system, and the extent of the teacher's routine and level of comfort. (p. 104)

When teachers have more knowledge about students with disabilities, they may be more willing to accommodate students with disabilities. Hannah and Pliner (1983) wrote "teachers who have more information about handicapping conditions are more willing to teach handicapped students" (p. 17). Knowledge of accommodations is important to their proper implementation. Upon researching rural and urban elementary and middle school teachers' knowledge of accommodations for high stakes testing in the state of Oregon, Hollenbeck, Tindal, and Almond (1998) found "teachers' knowledge of allowable accommodations was limited enough to jeopardize the validity of score interpretation" (p. 181).

Research on willingness to accommodate affected by the gender of the teacher has been conducted. Vogel, Leyser, Wyland, and Brulle (1999) investigated the practice of accommodating students with learning disabilities. Vogel et al. (1999) reported university faculty members' attitudes and practices accommodating students with learning disabilities in a public Midwestern university and found female university faculty members significantly more willing than male faculty members to provide a tape-recorded version of an examination (p. 181).

Accommodations may help students with disabilities perform better on standardized assessments. Janson (2002) studied the effects of testing accommodations on standardized test scores and compared two years of assessment data on the Tennessee Comprehensive Assessment Program Achievement Tests (TCAP) where students with disabilities were provided accommodations for assessments in the areas of mathematics, science, and social studies. For the 1999 TCAP, students with disabilities did not receive accommodations. For the 2000 TCAP, students with disabilities received accommodations. Janson (2002) analyzed the assessment scores and found that students who received accommodations on the TCAP in the area of mathematics, sciences, and social studies had an average gain in scores that was significantly higher than students who did not receive accommodations (p. 150).

In 2003, McKinley studied reasons why accommodations for students with attention-deficit/hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) were not provided by general and special education teachers of grades second through fifth. Both general and special education teachers reported inappropriate accommodations (the accommodation was not an appropriate one or the student did not need the accommodation) as the number one reason

why accommodations for students with ADHD were not provided (p. 63). Acceptability of instructional accommodations has been studied. Maddox (2005) investigated teachers' acceptability of instructional adaptations for students with disabilities that included 292 kindergarten through 12th grade general education teachers in the Lawrence County School System, Lawrenceburg, Tennessee. Maddox (2005) reported female teachers were found to have higher scores than male teachers in the domains of additional teaching (more time spent on direct instruction), strategic teaching, and activity adjustment (p. 126).

Research was conducted by Alahbabi (2006) in the United Arab Emirates related to kindergarten through 12th grade general and special education teachers' attitudes toward the inclusion of students with disabilities in general education classes. Alahbabi (2006) found a significant difference in willingness to accommodate students with disabilities between general and special education teachers (p. 97). Special education teachers were found to be significantly more willing than general education teachers to accommodate students with disabilities (p. 97).

Many reasons exist as to why teachers do not provide accommodations for students with disabilities. In a study of Midwestern urban kindergarten through fifth grade general education elementary teachers' perceptions of inclusion and implementation of accommodations for students with disabilities, Zhang (2006) reported five different reasons that prevented them from making accommodations and adaptations for students with disabilities:

The major factors that hindered teachers from making accommodations and adaptations are (a) lack of planning time, (b) lack of support personnel, (c) lack of



resources and materials, (d) heavy workload and large class size, and (e) lack of guidelines and models. (p. 63)

Willingness to accommodate may be related to knowledge and comfort level that teachers feel in regard to implementing accommodations for students with disabilities. In 2008, McKimpson studied rural and urban teacher perceptions about using accommodations in the general education science classroom in the northern Midwest of the United States. McKimpson (2008) found that the majority of urban, suburban, and rural science teachers of students with disabilities in private school settings reported they did not feel very comfortable providing accommodations for students with disabilities (p. 33). This may speak to the need for additional training and experience in providing accommodations (Neal, 2012, p. 68). Type of teaching experience such as a vast or limited experience teaching students with disabilities may impact willingness to accommodate students with disabilities.

Knowledge about accommodations may impact the decision making process related to the selection and utilization of accommodations for students with disabilities. Schumm and Vaughn (1995) reported “when teachers made adaptations for students with disabilities, the adaptations were largely incidental, inconsistent, idiosyncratic, and not part of an overall plan” (p. 345). In a study of suburban special education teachers’ attitudes, knowledge, and decision making about testing accommodations for students with disabilities, Bublitz (2009) found a statistically significant positive and moderate ( $p = .42$ ) correlation between teachers’ knowledge of testing accommodations and the accuracy of decisions made about testing accommodations (p. 83). Bublitz (2009) also found that teachers who have more training in special education do not necessarily have

more knowledge about accommodations as formal training was found not to be a meaningful predictor of accommodation knowledge of teachers in graduate level special education programs (p. 91).

In a national study conducted in the United States of kindergarten through 12th grade general and special education teachers' willingness to provide accommodations for students with bipolar disorder, Tarbox (2009) found "having special education teaching experience appears to affect a teacher's willingness to provide various types of accommodations" (p. 104). Additionally, Tarbox (2009) assessed teachers' willingness to accommodate students with bipolar disorder and found that kindergarten through 12th grade general and special education teachers reported feeling unable to provide certain accommodations due to limitations beyond their control related to staffing, scheduling, and parental participation (p. 108). "This indicates that systems-level change may be necessary to allow teachers to effectively implement some accommodations" (Tarbox, 2009, p. 108). DeStefano, Shriner, and Lloyd (2001) studied the participation of students with disabilities in large-scale assessments. Teachers who assist students with disabilities in the participation of these assessments require tremendous knowledge about accommodations and when they are appropriate. DeStefano et al. (2001) recommended "practitioners addressing assessment issues in their districts or states should be prepared to plan for comprehensive, flexible, and ongoing activities to support the participation requirements of IDEA" (p. 21).

Steffes (2010) investigated the perceptions of accommodations for students with learning disabilities using qualitative measures. This research study was conducted in Colorado and included eight rural and urban general education English and mathematics

teachers. Steffes (2010) found that the majority of the secondary teachers believed there was a need for accommodations for students with learning disabilities, but identified they struggled to find effective ways to implement accommodations for these students (p. 128).

### **Teacher Professional Development**

Administrators should be mindful of the topic and type of professional development when planning training opportunities for teachers. In an analysis of professional development to improve student achievement, Holland (2005), recommended that administrators consider four key components when using professional development as a way to improve student achievement:

First, make sure that professional development focuses on the subject matter teachers will be teaching. Second, align teachers' learning opportunities with their real work experiences, using actual curriculum materials and assessments. Third, provide adequate time for professional development and ensure that the extended opportunities to learn emphasize observing and analyzing students' understanding of the subject matter. Fourth, ensure that school districts have reliable systems for evaluating the impact of professional development on teachers' practices and student learning. (p. 4)

Professional development training provides an opportunity for teachers to increase their skill sets so that they are better equipped to work with and improve the learning of students in the classroom (Guskey, 2000, p. 16). Professional development training must teach teachers specific strategies, vary in terms of topics, method of learning, and be meaningful for their role. "Professional development refers to ongoing

education through which certified education professionals learn processes that relate to classroom instruction. The planned and long-term focus is on improved performance of professionals and their students” (Tienken & Achilles, 2003, p. 154). Professional development is a career-long requirement that aids in increasing the professional skill set and teaching strategies of a teacher. “Professional development can take a variety of shapes: pre-service and in-service education, group work, team curriculum development, peer collaboration, and peer support” (Vrasidas & Glass, 2004, p. 2). The need for professional development has become more important than ever as pressure on teachers has increased to improve student academic achievement and to make AYP (Powell, Higgins, Aram, & Freed, 2009).

The type of professional development provided for teachers is an important consideration. Some types of professional development have been found to be less effective than others. Professional development has been found to be more effective when teachers develop curriculum materials or when they evaluate classroom scenarios or real classroom situations (Huffman, Thomas, & Lawrenz, 2003, p. 384). School districts must carefully consider decisions about what type of professional development to provide for teachers. Kosko and Wilkins (2009) recommended administrators should “offer extensive workshops throughout the school year that focus on specific teaching strategies for students with IEPs” (p. 21). A variety of types of professional development may also contribute to the positive attitudes of teachers toward students with disabilities. Kandel (1999) studied the attitudes and beliefs of general education high school teachers grades seven through 12 in central and northeastern Pennsylvania toward the inclusion of students with learning disabilities. Kandel (1999) identified a need to vary the type of

training provided for teachers. As the number of different types of training increased, the attitudes of high school teachers became more positive toward the concept of inclusion (Kandel, 1999, p. 176). High school teachers involved in fewer training opportunities related to working with students with disabilities held less favorable attitudes toward inclusion of students with disabilities (Kandel, 1999, p. 175).

Educational administrators and policy makers should be considerate in the ways they require teachers to continue increasing their skills through professional development. Establishing a baseline of teacher attitudes toward persons with disabilities, implementing professional development targeting improving attitudes, and reassessing attitudes may be beneficial to evaluate the effectiveness of providing professional development aimed at improving teacher attitudes toward persons with disabilities. “Assessing changes in teacher attitude over time helps to evaluate the effectiveness of experience, changes in training or procedures, or the general progress of program implementation” (“Measuring Teacher Attitudes,” 1985, p. 2).

The continuation of learning for teachers is essential for the successful inclusion of students with disabilities in classrooms. D’Alonzo et al. (1996) studied ways to improve teachers’ attitudes through teacher education toward the inclusion of students with disabilities. They recommended a model to implement change in teacher attitudes toward students with disabilities (p. 308). Training for all educators must be provided. This training leads to improved educator attitudes. Improved educator attitudes leads to a positive effect on the learning environment. A positive learning environment promotes the successful inclusion of students with disabilities (D’Alonzo et al., 1996, p. 308).

Research conducted by Fuchs and Fuchs (1998) assessed urban female educators' instructional adaptations in the area of mathematics for students in grades two through four with learning disabilities. Fuchs and Fuchs (1998) reported some "specialized adaptations implemented by general educators lack inventiveness and reflect reliance on the same strategy over and over again, despite the lack of student responsiveness" (p. 33). Teachers have reported they do not feel prepared to teach students with disabilities. Kandel (1999) measured the attitudes and beliefs of 651 high school general education teachers from central and northeastern Pennsylvania toward the inclusion of students with learning disabilities. Kandel (1999) found that high school teachers did not feel adequately prepared to teach students with learning disabilities (p. 168). Similar to the findings of Kandel, (1999), McKimpson (2008) wrote "when given a list of accommodations required for a student, teachers may have no idea how to arrange these accommodations to maximize the utility of each specific accommodation" (p. 3).

Professional development focused on the adaptation of instruction for students with disabilities may be beneficial. Using national data from *The Study of Personnel Needs in Special Education*, Kosko and Wilkins (2009) studied prekindergarten, elementary, and teachers of core content areas (social sciences, language arts, mathematics, and science) in-service training and their self-perceived ability to adapt instruction for students with disabilities. They found "the more hours of professional development teachers have, the more able they believe they are to adapt instruction for students with IEPs" (p. 20). Within a school system the focus of professional development for teachers can vary, leading to differences in the professional development that teachers receive. The Association for Middle Level Education (2004) recommended

that the topics of professional development for teachers include three areas: “content knowledge (deep understanding of their discipline), pedagogical knowledge (instructional strategies), and knowledge about the uniqueness of young adolescent learners” (p. 1).

Both general and special education teachers need ongoing professional development to work with students with disabilities (Billingsley, 2005, p. 112). In a study of the effects of kindergarten through 12th grade general and special education teachers’ perceptions on inclusion of students with moderate mental retardation in Plano, Texas Independent School District, Jung (1996) found that all teachers working with students with moderate mental retardation were in need of training related to mental retardation (p. 36). Special education teachers need professional development opportunities to increase their skill level related to working with other teachers and with content-specific curriculum. Jung (1996) also reported “although special education teachers have a higher level of training in generic special education, survey results indicated they need training on collaboration strategies and more exposure to appropriate grade-level curriculum” (p. 39). The amount of training a teacher receives has been found to influence attitudes toward inclusion. In a study of 125 suburban San Antonio, Texas general and special education high school teachers’ attitudes toward inclusion, Van Reusen et al. (2000) found that the amount of special education training or experience working with students with disabilities was a contributing factor to whether or not teachers held positive or negative attitudes toward the inclusion of students with disabilities (p. 13).

The impact of professional development on teachers has been found to help students perform better academically. According to Linda Darling-Hammond, “My

research and personal experience tell me that the single most determinant of success for a student is the knowledge and skills of that child's teacher" (as cited in Goldberg, 2001, p. 689). The effect of staff development on third grade teachers in the use of higher order questioning strategies was researched by Caulfield-Sloan (2001). The research study involved 27 teachers from a single school district in the state of New Jersey. Caulfield-Sloan (2001) found that professional development directly influenced the instructional practices of the teachers (p. 57). Training teachers on the use of targeted and specific research-based instructional strategies can improve student academic achievement. Caulfield-Sloan (2001) also reported students who were taught by teachers who had been trained on the concept of higher-order questions performed significantly higher on open-ended science question assessments when compared to students of teachers who had not participated in professional development on the topic of higher-order questions (p. 61). Changing the behavioral or instructional practices of teachers through professional development can positively impact the academic achievement of students.

School level taught may also assist in identifying areas where additional professional development is needed. In an assessment of inclusive practices of rural kindergarten through 12th grade general and special education teachers from a Midwestern state, Leyser and Tappendorf (2001) found that teachers at the high school level reported using differentiated instructional strategies less often than middle and elementary school teachers did (p. 755). Professional development that is focused on individual differences and inclusion has been found to contribute to improved attitudes of pre-service teachers toward individuals with disabilities. Similar to the findings of Van Reusen et al. (2000), Campbell, Gilmore, and Cuskelly (2003) conducted a study that



focused on pre-service teachers from Australia and found that attitudes toward disabilities in general and attitudes toward inclusion were improved after formal instruction on individual differences and inclusive education was provided (p. 374).

Training teachers on targeted and specific strategies related to instructional practices can change the behavior of teachers in a classroom and influence academic achievement (Habegger & Hodanbosi, 2011, p. 41). In an assessment of teacher behavior to improve student writing achievement that included 98 fourth grade students and five fourth grade teachers from New Jersey, Tienken and Achilles (2003) found that student achievement on narrative writing assessments was positively influenced by providing professional development for teachers (p. 165). When adapting instruction to meet the individual and varied needs of students with disabilities in a classroom, some teachers seek to accomplish this in a streamlined fashion. Maddox (2005) conducted a study of teaching adaptations in Lawrence County School System, Lawrenceburg, Tennessee. Maddox (2005) found that kindergarten through 12th grade general education teachers reported the ability to meet the needs of individual students as well as the group at the same time as their most desired adaptation to classroom management (p. 124).

Assuming that all special education teachers are experts in their curriculum content area and teaching methodology is incorrect; both special and general education teachers need ongoing and continual support to teach students with disabilities. Ernst (2006) investigated the attitudes toward inclusion of students with disabilities of Connecticut general and special education high school teachers. Ernst (2006) determined that the more training in special education a high school teacher had, the more positive his or her attitude was toward inclusion (p. 62).

The focus of professional development for teachers is not limited to strategies on how to work with students with disabilities. Sometimes general and special education teachers need additional training on how to teach high-need students in specific subject areas. In a national assessment of instructional practices used and accommodations made by general and special education teachers while providing mathematics instruction, Maccini and Gagnon (2006) surveyed both general and special education teachers listed in the *Quality Education Data School Personnel Data Base, 2000/2001*. Maccini and Gagnon (2006) stated that surveyed teachers reported they had taken very few method courses to teach mathematics to students with learning disabilities, emotional disorders, and behavior disorders (p. 230). Method courses are typically college courses that instruct a teacher how to teach a specific subject or population of students. Fredericks (2005) defined method courses as, “teacher preparation courses that focus on the methods, ways, procedures, or strategies of teaching” (p. 303).

Training teachers how to teach students with disabilities may increase the use of accommodations by teachers who work with students with disabilities. Zhang (2006) studied the perceptions of inclusion and implementation of accommodations for students with disabilities of kindergarten through fifth grade elementary teachers in a Midwestern state. Zhang (2006) reported urban general and special education elementary teachers who attended one to five trainings on how to teach in inclusive classrooms, implemented accommodations at a rate that was significantly more frequent than teachers who had no training (p. 63). Teachers may also feel that they do not possess enough training to provide accommodations for students with disabilities. In a survey of Virginia teachers’ perceptions and knowledge of test accommodations for students with disabilities, Brown

(2007), found that of 155 teachers, 112 (72.3%) disagreed or strongly disagreed to the statement of “during my college teacher preparation program, I received adequate training on testing and test accommodations for students with disabilities” (p. 66).

Lack of available training opportunities related to special education and inclusion may contribute to dissatisfaction among teachers. Lawrence (2008) studied teacher satisfaction regarding inclusion in the state of Indiana. Lawrence (2008) identified that both high school general and special education teachers reported little in-service training was available related to special education issues in general from their school district or special education cooperative (p. 57).

Gender of the teacher is a variable that has been found to impact a teacher’s level of willingness to attend professional development opportunities. Giffing (2009) conducted a study that included all agriculture teachers in the state of Utah. It was reported that female agriculture teachers were more willing to attend professional development workshops or activities dealing with behavior management, while male agriculture teachers were found to be less willing (p. 43).

Similar to the concerns identified by Lawrence (2008), Park and Chitiyo (2011) reported additional concerns about professional development opportunities for teachers (p. 72). Park and Chitiyo researched attitudes toward students with autism of general and special education teachers, kindergarten through 12th grade in a small Midwestern school district. Park and Chitiyo (2011) reported a significant difference in attitudes toward students with autism between teachers who had attended multiple workshops aimed at teaching educators about autism and those who had not. Teachers who had attended

multiple workshops held more favorable attitudes toward students with autism while teachers who had attended one or no workshops held less favorable attitudes (p. 73).

### **Summary**

Chapter two identified and reviewed the relevant literature related to secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and willingness to accommodate. First, the legislative history of special education and the major implications were briefly reviewed, which provided background information about the laws that govern teaching students with disabilities. Next, the literature related to teachers' willingness to accommodate students with disabilities was explored. Third, the relevant literature related to teacher attitudes toward inclusion was examined. Fourth, the literature related to teachers' attitudes toward students with disabilities was identified. Last, the literature related to professional development of working with students with disabilities was discussed. Chapter three presents the research design, population and sample, hypotheses, limitations, data collection procedures, and statistical analyses related to this research study.

## **Chapter Three**

### **Methods**

The focus of this research study was secondary teachers' attitudes toward and willingness to provide accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities. This chapter contains detailed information about the methodology used in conducting this research study. This chapter includes a description of the research design, the sample of teachers studied, sampling procedures, instrumentation, data collection procedures, data analysis, hypothesis testing, and limitations.

#### **Research Design**

A quantitative cross-sectional descriptive survey research design was chosen for use in the current research study. The dependent variables included in the research study were willingness to provide accommodations and modifications and attitudes toward persons with disabilities. The independent variables included in the research study were the gender of the teacher (male or female), school level taught (middle school or high school), teaching assignment (general education or special education), personal disability (yes or no), and family member with a disability (yes or no).

#### **Population and Sample**

The population for this research study was composed of general and special education teachers of any subject grades six through 12 in the WPS. The sample for this research study consisted of 1,545 teachers that met the criteria identified below. The general education teachers who participated in this research study taught students in the following areas: business, English as a second language, family and consumer sciences, fine arts, foreign languages, gifted, junior reserve officer training corps, language arts,

mathematics, physical education, science, social studies, and technology education. The special education teachers who participated in this research study taught students with giftedness, mild to moderate disabilities, severe to profound disabilities, deafness or hearing impairments, and visual impairments.

### **Sampling Procedures**

Nonrandom purposive sampling was used for the current research study. The researcher specified the criteria which were used to locate survey participants. Johnson and Christensen (2008) defined purposive sampling as occurring when the researcher specifies the characteristics of the population of interest and locates individuals with those characteristics. The first established criterion for participation in the research study was school level; only middle and high school teachers were asked to participate. The second establish criterion for participation in the research study was employment with the WPS during the 2011-2012 school year.

### **Instrumentation**

The survey instrument used for this research study was a combination of two surveys, one based on accommodation research by Lambert et al. (1996) and one based on attitudinal research by Yunker, Block, and Campbell (1960). Dale Lambert was contacted and permission was granted to use and change the accommodation survey (see Appendix A). Yunker, Block, and Campbell are deceased and could not be contacted. Hofstra University in Hempstead, New York maintains the Attitudes Towards Persons with Disabilities Scales monograph by Yunker and Block (1986). To obtain a copy of the monograph and permission to use the survey instrument, the researcher contacted Ruth

Mangels of Hofstra University. Mangels advised that the ATDP scale was in the public domain and permission was not needed to use the instrument (see Appendix B).

The survey instrument used in the current research study contained three sections. Section one measured teachers' willingness to provide accommodations and modifications, section two measured attitudes toward persons with disabilities, and section three identified participant demographic information. Section one of the current survey was based on the survey instrument by Lambert et al. (1996) and contained survey items 1 through 20 (see Appendix C). This instrument was used in the current research study to measure willingness to provide accommodations and modifications. Lambert et al. (1996) created this survey instrument based on similar surveys conducted at the postsecondary level to measure college faculty's level of willingness to provide accommodations. Lambert et al. (1996) created the survey instrument by synthesizing and combining previous surveys into one instrument. Lambert et al. (1996) also made adjustments to some of the language so that the instrument would be appropriate for use at the secondary education level. The survey instrument contained items about willingness to provide timing accommodations, presentation accommodations, response accommodations, and modifications. The survey instrument was then used to measure rural secondary Montana teachers' willingness to provide accommodations for students with learning disabilities.

For use in the current research study, minor adjustments were made to the language of the survey by Lambert et al. (1996). Adjustments were made to the Lambert et al. (1996) original survey to simplify the language and to reflect the more contemporary accommodations currently provided in secondary classrooms in the WPS.

The language of items 1, 3-7, 11, and 13-20 was not changed in any way. For item 2, “of class projects, papers, etc.” was changed to “of assignments.” “Digitally record” replaced “tape record” in item 8. The word “your” was deleted from item 9. For items 10 and 12, the word “proctor” was replaced with the words “another person.”

The statement of “As a secondary teacher of a student with a disability, I would:” was added as a stem to each of the statements from the original survey by Lambert et al. (1996). For example, for use in the current research study, survey item number 11 was modified to read, “As a secondary teacher of a student with a disability I would: allow the student extra time to take tests.” The original survey by Lambert et al. (1996) asked participants to select yes or no for each statement to indicate whether they had previously provided the particular accommodation or modification for students with learning disabilities in their classes. For example, original survey item number 11 read “Allow the student extra time to take tests.” The letter Y for yes and the letter N for no were also included immediately to the right of the statement as well as the Likert-type scale for agreement level choices. For the purpose of the current research study, the yes or no choice about providing the selected accommodation was removed. The current researcher did not investigate whether secondary teachers had provided accommodations and modifications in the past.

The language of the Likert-type scale used in the survey by Lambert et al. (1996) to measure teachers’ willingness to provide accommodations and modifications for students with learning disabilities was adjusted for clarification. *Disagree strongly* was changed to *strongly disagree*, *disagree somewhat* was changed to *disagree*, *undecided* was changed to *neutral*, and *agree somewhat* was changed to *agree*. Participants



indicated their responses on the Likert-type scale by selecting their willingness to provide the accommodations and modifications from *strongly disagree*, *disagree*, *neutral*, *agree*, and *strongly agree*. The survey instrument used by Lambert et al. (1996) is appropriate for use in the current research study because the statements contained in the survey reflect accommodations and modifications currently provided in the WPS for secondary students with disabilities.

Section two of the current survey contained items 21 through 40 and were from the Attitudes Towards Disabled Persons (ATDP) scale form O by Yuker and Block (1986) (see Appendix D). These survey items were used to measure attitudes toward persons with disabilities. There are three forms of the ATDP scale (ATDP-O, ATDP-A, ATDP-B). Form A and form B contain 30 items and form O contains 20 items. To keep the survey used in the current research study as brief as possible, the ATDP scale form O was chosen because it contains the fewest number of items. To demonstrate respect for individuals with disabilities, minor adjustments were made to the language of some statements of the ATDP scale form O to reflect the concept of *people first language*. In written or spoken language, “People first language puts the person before the disability, and describes what a person has, not who a person is” (Snow, 2009, p. 3). For example, item 23 previously read “Disabled people are usually easier to get along with than other people.” The revised version of item 23 used in the current survey now reads “People with disabilities are usually easier to get along with than other people.” No items were added or deleted from the original ATDP scale form O (see Appendix D).

The ATDP scale form O by Yuker and Block (1986) used in the current research study to measure attitudes toward persons with disabilities was originally created in the

1950s “in an attempt to provide an objective, reliable, and valid measure of attitudes toward persons with physical disabilities” (Yuker & Block, 1986, p. 1). The ATDP scale has been widely used and is still used today. According to Antonak and Livneh (1988) the ATDP scale “is, without a doubt, the best known and most widely used of the scales purporting to measure attitudes toward people with disabilities in general” (p. 134). The ATDP scale can be used with individuals with and without disabilities to assess general attitudes toward persons with disabilities or to assess attitudes toward persons with specific types of disabilities. Secondary teachers in the WPS work with students with all types of disabilities. In order to reflect this, the language of the ATDP scale form O used in the current research study only referred to disabilities in general, and not to specific disabilities. The ATDP scale by Yuker and Block (1986) is appropriate for use in the current research study because the instrument has been widely used and is believed to be an accurate measurement of an individual’s attitude toward a person with a disability. Because of its frequent use measuring attitudes toward persons with disabilities, “the ATDP is probably one of the best known and most widely used instruments for attitude measurement” (Horne, 1985, p. 51).

Section three of the current survey contained items 41 through 45 and identified participant demographics. Participants were asked to identify their gender, school level taught, teaching assignment, whether they had a personal disability, and whether they had a family member with a disability. To specify gender, participants were asked to select male or female. To indicate school level taught, participants were asked to select middle school or high school. To specify teaching assignment, participants were asked to select general education teacher–any subject or special education teacher–any subject. To

indicate whether they had a personal disability, participants were asked to select yes or no. To respond whether they had a family member with a disability, participants were asked to select yes or no. See Appendix E for the complete survey used in this research study.

To obtain an estimate of the amount of time required to complete the survey used in the current research study, an expert group of 30 classroom teachers employed by the WPS was assembled. Members of this expert group were asked to take the survey, track how much time it took to complete it, and communicate that amount of time to the researcher. Calculation of the average time required resulted in the survey taking approximately 10 minutes to complete. The estimation of time to complete the survey was communicated to survey participants through e-mail.

**Measurement.** Survey items 1 through 20 were used to measure the dependent variable of level of willingness to provide timing accommodations, presentation accommodations, response accommodations, and modifications. Survey items 21 through 40 were used to measure the dependent variable of attitudes toward persons with disabilities. Survey items 41 through 45 were used to identify participant demographics.

Survey items 1 through 20 were analyzed and then divided into the categories of timing accommodations, presentation accommodations, response accommodations, and modifications. Item 2, “allow extended deadlines for completion of assignments” and item 11, “allow the student extra time to take tests” measured timing accommodations. The following items measured presentation accommodations: item 1, “allow the student to digitally record classroom lectures”; item 3, “provide the student with a detailed outline of the material to be covered during the class period”; item 7, “provide the student

with a detailed outline of the material to be covered at the beginning of each grading period”; and item 10, “allow another person to rephrase test questions that are not clear to the student.” The following items measured response accommodations: item 4, “provide the student with a copy of the chapter and a highlighter to highlight material covered”; item 5, “allow the student to complete alternative assignments”; item 8, “allow the student to give oral presentations or digitally record assignments rather than producing written products”; item 9, “allow the student to take alternative forms of exams”; item 12, “allow the student to dictate answers to another person”; item 13, “allow the student to respond orally to essay questions”; item 15, “allow the student to use calculators during a test”; item 16, “allow misspellings, incorrect punctuation, and poor grammar without penalizing the student”; item 17, “allow the use of proof readers to assist in the correction of grammar and punctuation”; item 18, “allow the use of proof readers to assist in the revision of a student’s first draft of a written assignment”; and item 19, “allow the use of a proof reader to assist the student in the substitution of higher level vocabulary in revisions.” The following items measured modifications: item 6, “allow the student to do an extra credit assignment when this option is not available to other students”; item 14, “evaluate the process as well as the solution, giving partial credit”; and item 20, “make adjustment to grading criteria to help the student pass.” The dependent variable of willingness was measured using a 5-point Likert-type scale. The choices were coded for data analysis with values of 1 (*strongly disagree*), 2 (*disagree*), 3 (*neutral*), 4 (*agree*), and 5 (*strongly agree*).

Survey items 21 through 40 were used to measure the dependent variable of attitudes toward persons with disabilities using a 6-point Likert-type scale from Yucker

and Block (1986). The Likert-type scale used to measure attitudes was different from the Likert-type scale used to measure the willingness in items 1 through 20. The choices included *I disagree very much*, *I disagree pretty much*, *I disagree a little*, *I agree a little*, *I agree pretty much*, and *I agree very much*. Based on the measurement requirements by Yuker and Block (1986), the choices were coded for data analysis with values of -3 (*I disagree very much*), -2 (*I disagree pretty much*), -1 (*I disagree a little*), 1 (*I agree a little*), 2 (*I agree pretty much*), and 3 (*I agree very much*).

Four steps were involved in the scoring of the ATDP scale form O. First, the signs of items 22, 25, 26, 31, and 32 were reversed. For those items, positive numbers were changed to negative numbers or negative numbers were changed to positive numbers. Next the responses for all items 21 through 40 were added together and a sum was obtained. Third, the sign of the sum was reversed, from negative to positive or positive to negative. Last, to eliminate negative values, a constant of 60 was added to the sum. The sum is a measure of the respondent's attitude toward persons with disabilities. The total score can range from 0 to 120. "High scores relative to a specific group reflect positive, accepting attitudes; relatively low scores reflect negative, rejecting attitudes" (Yuker & Block, 1986, p. 4).

Survey items 41 through 45 of the survey were used to measure the demographic variables. Item 41 asked the participant to identify their gender (male or female). The choices for gender were coded for data analysis with the values of 1 (*Male*) and 2 (*Female*). Item 42 asked the participant to identify their school level taught (middle or high school). The choices for school level taught were coded for data analysis with values of 1 (*middle school*) and 2 (*high school*). Item 43 asked the participant to identify

their teaching assignment (general education or special education). The choices for teaching assignment were coded for data analysis with values of 1 (*general education*) and 2 (*special education*). Item 44 asked the participant to identify whether they had a personal disability (yes or no). The choices for personal disability were coded for data analysis 1 (*yes*) and 2 (*no*). Item 45 asked the participant to identify whether they had a family member with a disability (yes or no). The choices for family member with a disability were coded for data analysis with values of 1 (*yes*) and 2 (*no*).

**Validity and Reliability.** When determining which instrument to use for a research study, researchers must evaluate the validity and reliability of the instrument. Carmines and Zeller (1979) wrote that validity is “the extent to which any measuring instrument measures what it is intended to” (p. 17). More recently, Black (2002) wrote that in order for an instrument to be considered valid, the “instrument must measure what was intended” (p. 75). Mark (1996) defined reliability “as the extent to which a measuring instrument is stable and consistent” (p. 285). Reliability coefficients of the survey instruments used in the current research study were measured and reported as Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients. To evaluate reliability coefficients, George and Mallery (2003) recommended the following rules of thumb: “> .9 – Excellent, > .8 – Good, > .7 – Acceptable, > .6 – Questionable, > .5 – Poor, and < .5 – Unacceptable” (p. 231). Johnson and Christensen (2008) stated Cronbach’s alpha, which is a reliability coefficient, is used to measure internal consistency and it should “be strong and positive” (p. 145).

When researchers use an instrument to assess attributes of unique groups, evaluating the construct validity of the instrument is necessary. Construct validity is “the

extent to which a higher order construct is represented in a particular study” (Johnson & Christensen, 2008, p. 272). More specifically, Goodwin (2010) defined construct validity as “whether a test adequately measures some construct” (p. 132). Three different ways to establish construct validity include convergent validity, discriminant validity, and face validity. Dmitrienko, Chuang-Stein, and D’Agostino (2007) wrote “convergent validity is established by showing a strong relationship between the scale under review and another validated scale thought to measure the same construct” (p. 377). To determine how different instruments are from one another, discriminant validity is utilized. Eysenck (2004) defined discriminant validity as “the extent to which a test does not assess characteristics that it is not supposed to be assessing” (p. 454). Face validity is used to determine if an instrument is appropriate for the construct being studied. In defining face validity, Kline (2000) wrote “a test is said to be face valid if it appears to be measuring what it claims to measure” (p. 18).

Researchers must also establish the reliability of an instrument and this is completed by conducting a variety of reliability measurements. Four different calculations for instrument reliability include test-retest reliability, split-half reliability, parallel forms reliability, and stability equivalence reliability. “Test-retest measures of reliability involve retesting individuals with the same form of a test after an interval of time” (Yuker & Block, 1986, p. 13). Split-half reliability “involves splitting a test into two equivalent halves and then assessing the consistency of the scores across the two halves of the test” (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). Parallel forms reliability involves using two different forms of the same measurement. “By obtaining scores from two different forms of a test, test users can compute the correlation between the two forms

and may be able to interpret the correlation as an estimate of the test's reliability" (Furr & Bacharach, 2008, p. 105). Equivalence reliability involves using two different forms of the same measurement scale. The calculation of equivalence reliability involves "giving two or more forms of the same survey to the same group of people on the same day or by giving different forms of the survey to two or more groups that have been randomly selected" (Fink, 2009, p. 42).

Information about the validity of the survey instrument by Lambert et al. (1996) was not available. The reliability of the survey instrument by Lambert et al. (1996) has been established; however, the instrument has not been widely used. Lambert et al. (1996) calculated a coefficient alpha to measure the internal consistency of their survey instrument and obtained a coefficient alpha of .87, which indicated good reliability.

The validity and reliability of the ATDP scale has been established and the instrument has been widely used (Kitchen, 2007). "The ATDP has been used in over 325 studies, about 110 of them published in the 1980's" (Yuker & Block, 1986, p. 2). Numerous researchers have used the ATDP scale in their studies (Kulish, 1986; Litvack, Ritchie, & Shore, 2011; Paxton, 1990; Vilchinsky, Werner, & Findler, 2010; Walker, 2008; Zuniga & Fischer, 2010).

To establish construct validity, Yuker and Block (1986) reported that the ATDP scale was correlated with other general measures of attitudes toward persons with disabilities. Yuker and Block (1986) reported the ATDP scale was correlated with the Disability Attitude Adjective Scale by Downes (1968) nine times and resulted in correlations that ranged from .46, which is considered a medium value to .80, which is considered a strong value with a median correlation of .70, which is also considered a



strong value (p. 16). Yuker and Block (1986) also reported the ATDP scale was correlated with the Attitudes Toward Handicapped Index by Lazar (1973) three times and where the ATDP scale used the word handicapped instead of disabled and reported strong correlations that ranged from .78 to .83 with a median correlation of .80 (p. 16).

“Convergent validity was assessed by correlating ATDP scores with scores obtained on other measures of attitudes toward persons with disabilities, and on measures of constructs closely related to attitudes. Such correlations were predicted to be relatively high” (Yuker & Block, 1986, p. 15). Convergent validity was assessed by correlating the ATDP scale with over 50 other instruments that measured attitudes toward persons with disabilities. The individual correlations ranged from .98, which is considered a strong value to .09, which is considered a small value. “Correlations with measures similar to the ATDP should be high while those with dissimilar measures should be low” (Yuker & Block, 1986, p. 17). For example, Yuker and Block (1986) reported research was conducted by Bates (1965) that included slight wording modifications to the ATDP scale. “The data from Bates (1965) indicate the ATDP is robust and minor changes in wording do not matter” (Yuker & Block, 1986, p. 17). The research by Bates (1965) correlated the ATDP scale with slight wording modifications and four strong correlations were reported that ranged from .97 to .98 with a median correlation of .98 (Yuker & Block, 1986, p. 16).

The discriminant validity of the ATDP scale was assessed to identify the relationship between attitude toward persons with disabilities and unrelated concepts. The “discriminant validity implies low correlations between the ATDP scale and measures of concepts that are postulated to be unrelated to these attitudes” (Yuker &

Block, 1986, p. 15). Similar survey instruments assessing attitudes toward persons with disabilities were found to have higher correlations and dissimilar survey instruments measuring other constructs were found to have lower correlations. For example, Yuker and Block (1986) reported the ATDP scale was correlated with a dissimilar Feeling Checklist by Siller (1964). The correlations ranged from .09, which is considered a small correlation to .44, which is considered a medium correlation. A median correlation of .19 was obtained and is considered to also be a small correlation (Yuker & Block, 1986, p. 16).

The reliability of the ATDP scale has been widely tested over the years. Test-retest reliability, split-half reliability, parallel-forms, and stability-equivalence reliability have been used to determine the reliability of the ATDP scale. Using the test-retest method during a period of five weeks or less, Yuker and Block (1986) reported eight studies were conducted to determine the reliability of the ATDP scale form O. The values of the reliability coefficients ranged from .70, which is considered an acceptable value to .95, which is considered an excellent value with a median value of .83, which is considered a good value. Yuker and Block (1986) reported additional testing was conducted using the test-retest method during a period of 4 to 16 months to determine the reliability of the ATDP scale form O (p. 13). The values of the reliability coefficients ranged from .67, which is considered a questionable value to .70, which is considered an acceptable value with a median value of .68, which is considered a questionable reliability coefficient based on the scale recommended by George and Mallery (2003).

Using the split-half method, Yuker and Block (1986) reported six studies were conducted to determine the reliability of the ATDP scale form O (p. 13). The values of

the reliability coefficients ranged from .75, which is considered an acceptable value to .85, which is considered a good value with a median of .80, which is also considered a good value (Yuker & Block, 1986, p. 13). Yuker and Block (1986) reported the calculation of parallel forms correlation of the ATDP scale form O and the ATDP scale form A occurred in three studies, and resulted in reliability coefficients all with questionable values. The coefficients ranged from .61, to .69, with a median value of .67 (Yuker & Block, 1986, p. 13). Yuker and Block (1986) reported the calculation of the parallel forms correlation for the ATDP scale form O and the ATDP scale form B occurred in four studies which resulted in reliability coefficients that ranged from .57, which is considered a poor value to .77, which is considered an acceptable value with a median .68, which is a considered questionable value (p. 13). Yuker and Block (1986) reported the calculation of the stability-equivalence reliability of the ATDP scale form O and the ATDP scale form A was conducted. The stability-equivalence reliability yielded a reliability coefficient value of .62, which is considered a questionable value (p. 13). The calculation of the stability equivalence reliability of the ATDP scale form O and the ATDP scale form B resulted in a median reliability coefficient value of .83, which is considered a good value (Yuker & Block, 1986, p. 13).

For use in the current research study, adjustments to reflect people first language were made to the statements contained in the willingness to provide accommodations and modifications section and to the ATDP scale form O. These changes are believed to have had little or no impact on the validity and reliability of the ATDP scale form O.

According to Yuker and Block (1986), "Minor changes in wording, including using

specific disability names, are assumed to have little effect on the reliability or validity of the scales” (p. 33).

To establish face and construct validity of all sections of the entire survey instrument used in the current research study, an expert group was assembled by reviewing institutional contacts from all approved education preparation institutions at universities in the state of Kansas listed on the Kansas State Department of Education’s website (KSDE, 2010). Through a review of the website, 41 professors were identified. E-mail addresses of the professors were obtained from the websites of the Universities. Of the 41 education professors contacted, 14 responded and reviewed the survey. The expert group review process occurred during the months of August and September of 2010. The expert group was asked to review the survey instrument for ease of accessing the survey on Survey Monkey (see Appendix F). They were also asked to review the survey for correct and appropriate language. The expert group helped to ensure that the instrument was accurate in its measurement of willingness to provide accommodations and modifications and attitudes toward persons with disabilities. Suggestions for modifications to the survey received from the expert group included using people first language and clarifying some of the survey language. Additional minor adjustments were made to the language of the survey based on the recommendations from the expert group.

### **Data Collection Procedures**

Prior to conducting research, the researcher obtained permission to conduct the research study in the WPS by completing the WPS research proposal form (see Appendix G). The completed research proposal form was electronically mailed to Dr. Lisa Lutz,

Director of Innovation and Evaluation for the WPS. After careful examination, the WPS Innovation and Learning committee approved the request to conduct the survey on August 8, 2011 (see Appendix H).

The researcher submitted a completed USD 259 Limited Application for Use of Open Records Form to the WPS clerk of the board to obtain the first and last names of all teachers, grades six through 12 in the WPS on September 2, 2011 (see Appendix I). A representative from the division of Human Resources in the WPS e-mailed the list of all teachers grades six through 12 to the researcher on October 2, 2011. After the list of first and last names of all teachers grades six through 12 were obtained, the names were reviewed by the researcher to ensure that all individuals on the list met the requirements set forth by the researcher (males and females; middle school teachers and high school teachers; general education teachers and special education teachers) for the research study. The names of teachers were used to obtain their WPS email addresses from the WPS district email directory. The researcher used the WPS district email to upload the email addresses into Microsoft outlook as a distribution list.

The process to obtain permission from Baker University to conduct the research study was initiated. An Institutional Review Board (IRB) request was submitted to Baker University on December 15, 2011 (see Appendix J). The Baker University IRB committee approved the research study on December 22, 2011 (see Appendix K). After obtaining approval from the WPS Innovation and Learning committee and the Baker University IRB committee, the WPS teacher union was contacted.

The WPS employs a large number of teachers who are members of the local teacher union known as United Teachers of Wichita (UTW). Prior to contacting the

teachers to request participation in the survey, the researcher formulated a letter that was sent to UTW. The researcher created the letter in collaboration with a group of 10 teachers to ensure that the letter contained clear and appropriate language. The letter provided information about the purpose and requirements for participation in the research study. An e-mail message that contained the letter was sent to UTW on January 9, 2012 in regards to the administration of the survey (see Appendix L). The purpose of sending the message to UTW was to provide clarity about participation in the survey and to inform the organization to direct individuals to contact the researcher if teachers contacted UTW with questions.

Creation and administration of the survey took place through an online survey service called Survey Monkey, which aids in the creation, administration, and data management of surveys (Survey Monkey, 2011). The combined survey instrument was typed into Survey Monkey so that research participants could access the survey online with a provided URL web link. A total of four e-mail requests to participate in the research study were sent to the sample. The survey was opened and the initial electronic mail message was sent to survey participants on January 10, 2012 (see Appendix M). A second e-mail reminding participants about the survey was sent on January 17, 2012 (see Appendix M). A third e-mail reminding participants about the survey was sent on January 24, 2012 (see Appendix M). A fourth and final e-mail was sent on January 31, 2012 (see Appendix M). The data collection process was ended and the survey was closed on February 14, 2012.

## Data Analysis and Hypothesis Testing

Data from Survey Monkey was downloaded and imported into IBM SPSS Statistics 20.0 for Windows. Hypothesis tests were conducted to address each of the research questions. One-sample  $t$  tests were calculated to address the hypotheses for research questions one and three. Two-sample  $t$  tests were calculated to address the hypotheses for research questions two and four. Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were calculated to address the hypotheses for research question five.

**Research question 1.** To what extent are secondary teachers willing to provide accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities? To test each of the four hypotheses below, a one-sample  $t$  test was conducted against a null value of 3.00 at a level of significance of .05.

*H1:* Secondary teachers are willing to provide timing accommodations.

*H2:* Secondary teachers are willing to provide presentation accommodations.

*H3:* Secondary teachers are willing to provide response accommodations.

*H4:* Secondary teachers are willing to provide modifications.

**Research question 2.** To what extent is a secondary teachers' willingness to provide accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female), school level taught (middle school or high school), teaching assignment (general education or special education), personal disability (yes or no), and family member with a disability (yes or no)? Two-sample  $t$  tests were conducted to test the five hypotheses in each of the subsections of *Timing Accommodations*, *Presentation Accommodations*, *Response Accommodations*, and *Modifications* at a level of significance of .05.

***Timing accommodations.***

*H5:* Secondary teachers' willingness to provide timing accommodations is affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female).

*H6:* Secondary teachers' willingness to provide timing accommodations is affected by school level taught (middle school or high school).

*H7:* Secondary teachers' willingness to provide timing accommodations is affected by teaching assignment (general education or special education).

*H8:* Secondary teachers' willingness to provide timing accommodations is affected by personal disability (yes or no).

*H9:* Secondary teachers' willingness to provide timing accommodations is affected by family member with a disability (yes or no).

***Presentation accommodations.***

*H10:* Secondary teachers' willingness to provide presentation accommodations is affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female).

*H11:* Secondary teachers' willingness to provide presentation accommodations is affected by school level taught (middle school or high school).

*H12:* Secondary teachers' willingness to provide presentation accommodations is affected by teaching assignment (general education or special education).

*H13:* Secondary teachers' willingness to provide presentation accommodations is affected by personal disability (yes or no).

*H14:* Secondary teachers' willingness to provide presentation accommodations is affected by family member with a disability (yes or no).



***Response accommodations.***

*H15:* Secondary teachers' willingness to provide response accommodations is affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female).

*H16:* Secondary teachers' willingness to provide response accommodations is affected by school level taught (middle school or high school).

*H17:* Secondary teachers' willingness to provide response accommodations is affected by teaching assignment (general education or special education).

*H18:* Secondary teachers' willingness to provide response accommodations is affected by personal disability (yes or no).

*H19:* Secondary teachers' willingness to provide response accommodations is affected by family member with a disability (yes or no).

***Modifications.***

*H20:* Secondary teachers' willingness to provide modifications is affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female).

*H21:* Secondary teachers' willingness to provide modifications is affected by school level taught (middle school or high school).

*H22:* Secondary teachers' willingness to provide modifications is affected by teaching assignment (general education or special education).

*H23:* Secondary teachers' willingness to provide modifications is affected by personal disability (yes or no).

*H24:* Secondary teachers' willingness to provide modifications is affected by family member with a disability (yes or no).

**Research question 3.** What are secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities? This was calculated and analyzed using the ATDP scale form O scoring scale that results in a score that ranges from 0 to 120. This was analyzed using a one-sample *t* test against a null value of 60.50 at a level of significance of .05.

*H25:* Secondary teachers have a positive attitude toward persons with disabilities.

**Research question 4.** To what extent are secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female), school level taught (middle school or high school), teaching assignment (general education or special education), personal disability (yes or no), and family member with a disability (yes or no)? For hypotheses *H26* to *H30*, a two-sample *t* test was conducted to test for differences between two means at a level of significance of .05.

*H26:* Secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities are affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female).

*H27:* Secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities are affected by school level taught (middle school or high school).

*H28:* Secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities are affected by teaching assignment (general education or special education).

*H29:* Secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities are affected by personal disability (yes or no).

*H30:* Secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities are affected by family member with a disability (yes or no).

**Research question 5.** To what extent is there a relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers' willingness to provide accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities? This was analyzed using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients to measure the strength and direction of the relationships between the variables of willingness to provide accommodations and modifications and attitudes toward persons with disabilities at a level of significance of .05. Two Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were calculated to index the direction and strength of the relationship between the two variables in *H31*. Four Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were calculated to index the direction and strength of the relationship between the two variables in *H32*. Eleven Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were calculated to index the direction and strength of the relationship between the two variables in *H33*. Three Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were calculated to index the direction and strength of the relationship between the two variables in *H34*. A *t* test was calculated for each Pearson product-moment correlation to determine if the relationship was statistically significant.

*H31:* There is a relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers' willingness to provide timing accommodations.

*H32:* There is a relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers' willingness to provide presentation accommodations.

*H33*: There is a relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers' willingness to provide response accommodations.

*H34*: There is a relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers' willingness to provide modifications.

### **Limitations**

Lunenburg and Irby (2008) described the limitations of a research study as conditions not under the control of the researcher. Limitations are factors that may affect the findings or the ability to generalize the results of the research study. Even though the data collected were completely anonymous and teachers were reminded of that several times, some teachers might have not participated for fear that a job-related supervisor might have learned of their responses to the survey items. Study participants may have not taken the survey due to not knowing the researcher. Some individuals who prefer to complete surveys in person or by mail may have decided not to participate. This research study was limited to responses from the survey respondents who completed and submitted the survey.

### **Summary**

Chapter three included a restatement of the purposes of the research study. Research questions were restated and hypotheses were discussed. The participants of the research study were general and special education teachers at middle and high schools and were employed by the WPS. The data collection and analysis procedures were discussed for each of the hypotheses described. Chapter four includes the results of the hypothesis testing.

## Chapter Four

### Results

The purpose of this research study was fivefold. The first purpose was to identify the extent of secondary teachers' willingness to provide accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities. A second purpose was to determine the extent that a secondary teachers' willingness to provide accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities was affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female), school level taught (middle school or high school), teaching assignment (general education or special education), personal disability (yes or no), and family member with a disability (yes or no). The third purpose was to determine secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities. The fourth purpose was to determine the extent that secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities were affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female), school level taught (middle school or high school), teaching assignment (general education or special education), personal disability (yes or no), and family member with a disability (yes or no). The last purpose was to determine the extent of the relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers' willingness to provide accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities. This chapter presents the results of the data analysis. Descriptive statistics were used to describe the sample. Hypothesis tests were conducted. One-sample *t* tests were utilized to identify the difference between sample means and null values. Two-sample *t* tests were utilized to identify differences between two groups defined by the gender of the teacher (male or female), school level taught (middle school or high school), teaching assignment (general

education or special education), personal disability (yes or no), and family member with a disability (yes or no). Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were utilized to index the strength and direction of the relationships between numerical variables. An alpha level of .05 was used as a significance criterion for all statistical tests conducted.

### **Descriptive Statistics**

The population for this research study was 1545 general and special education teachers in grades six through 12 in the WPS. Of the 1545 teachers, 1279 were general education teachers and 266 were special education teachers. Of the 1545 teachers, 722 were middle school teachers and 823 were high school teachers. The IBM SPSS Statistics 20.0 for Windows statistical program was used to analyze the data for this research study. The demographics of the sample and response rates that identify the gender of the teacher (male or female), school level taught (middle school or high school), teaching assignment (general education or special education), personal disability (yes or no), and family member with a disability (yes or no) are presented in Table 4.

Table 4

*Participant Demographics*

Characteristic		<i>n</i>	% of Sample
Gender	Male	155	29.4
	Female	373	70.6
Level	Middle School	204	38.6
	High School	325	61.4
Assignment	General Ed.	394	74.5
	Special Ed.	135	25.5
Has Disability	Yes	51	9.7
	No	475	90.3
Family with Disability	Yes	238	45.2
	No	288	54.8

The descriptive statistics calculated for this research study provided specific information about the sample. The following section contains the results of the hypothesis testing that involved inferential analysis to draw conclusions related to the researcher's expectations of differences in willingness to provide accommodations and modifications, differences in attitudes toward persons with disabilities, differences between groups, and relationships between variables.

### **Hypothesis Testing**

The hypothesis testing addressed five research questions. The results of 34 hypothesis tests are presented below. First, the results of the hypothesis testing that addressed research question 1 are presented in the following order: willingness to provide

timing accommodations, willingness to provide presentation accommodations, willingness to provide response accommodations, and willingness to provide modifications. Second, the results of the hypothesis testing that addressed research question 2 regarding the extent that a secondary teachers' willingness to provide timing accommodations, presentation accommodations, response accommodations, and modifications was affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female), school level taught (middle school or high school), teaching assignment (general education or special education), personal disability (yes or no), and family member with a disability (yes or no) are presented. Third, the results of the hypothesis testing that addressed research question 3 regarding secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities are presented. Fourth, the results of the hypothesis testing that addressed research question 4 regarding the extent that secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities were affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female), school level taught (middle school or high school), teaching assignment (general education or special education), personal disability (yes or no), and family member with a disability (yes or no) are presented. Last, the results of the hypothesis testing that addressed research question 5 regarding the extent of the relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers' willingness to provide accommodations and modifications are presented.

**Research question 1.** To what extent are secondary teachers willing to provide accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities?



Hypothesis testing for research question one utilized one-sample  $t$  tests to identify the extent that secondary teachers were willing to provide accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities.

***Timing accommodations.***

*H1.* Secondary teachers are willing to provide timing accommodations.

A one-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow extended deadlines for completion of assignments" to a null value of 3.00. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(562) = 42.58, p = .000$ ). The sample mean of 4.29 ( $SD = .72$ ) was statistically higher than the null value. On average, secondary teachers were willing to "allow extended deadlines for completion of assignments."

A one-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the student extra time to take tests" to a null value of 3.00. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(549) = 59.33, p = .000$ ). The sample mean of 4.50 ( $SD = .59$ ) was statistically higher than the null value. On average, secondary teachers were willing to "allow the student extra time to take tests."

***Presentation accommodations.***

*H2.* Secondary teachers are willing to provide presentation accommodations.

A one-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the student to digitally record classroom lectures" to a null value of 3.00. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(561) = 30.76, p = .000$ ). The sample mean of 4.11 ( $SD = .85$ ) was statistically higher than the null value.

On average, secondary teachers were willing to “allow the student to digitally record classroom lectures.”

A one-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “provide the student with a detailed outline of the material to be covered during the class period” to a null value of 3.00. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(559) = 20.77, p = .000$ ). The sample mean of 3.79 ( $SD = .90$ ) was statistically higher than the null value. On average, secondary teachers were willing to “provide the student with a detailed outline of the material to be covered during the class period.”

A one-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “provide the student with a detailed outline of the material to be covered at the beginning of each grading period” to a null value of 3.00. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(552) = 9.54, p = .000$ ). The sample mean of 3.40 ( $SD = .99$ ) was statistically higher than the null value. On average, secondary teachers were willing to “provide the student with a detailed outline of the material to be covered at the beginning of each grading period.”

A one-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow another person to rephrase test questions that are not clear to the student” to a null value of 3.00. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(549) = 33.48, p = .000$ ). The sample mean of 4.13 ( $SD = .79$ ) was statistically higher than the null value. On average, secondary teachers were willing to “allow another person to rephrase test questions that are not clear to the student.”

***Response accommodations.***

*H3.* Secondary teachers are willing to provide response accommodations.

A one-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "provide the student with a copy of the chapter and a highlighter to highlight material covered" to a null value of 3.00. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(560) = 24.43, p = .000$ ). The sample mean of 3.92 ( $SD = .89$ ) was statistically higher than the null value. On average, secondary teachers were willing to "provide the student with a copy of the chapter and a highlighter to highlight material covered."

A one-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the student to complete alternative assignments" to a null value of 3.00. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(553) = 27.08, p = .000$ ). The sample mean of 3.95 ( $SD = .83$ ) was statistically higher than the null value. On average, secondary teachers were willing to "allow the student to complete alternative assignments."

A one-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the student to give oral presentations or digitally record assignments rather than producing written products" to a null value of 3.00. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(555) = 21.74, p = .000$ ). The sample mean of 3.80 ( $SD = .87$ ) was statistically higher than the null value. On average, secondary teachers were willing to "allow the student to give oral presentations or digitally record assignments rather than producing written products."

A one-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the student to take alternative forms of exams" to a null value of 3.00. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(548) = 23.39, p = .000$ ). The sample mean of 3.86 ( $SD = .86$ ) was statistically higher than the null value. On average, secondary teachers were willing to "allow the student to take alternative forms of exams."

A one-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the student to dictate answers to another person" to a null value of 3.00. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(547) = 31.76, p = .000$ ). The sample mean of 4.10 ( $SD = .81$ ) was statistically higher than the null value. On average, secondary teachers were willing to "allow the student to dictate answers to another person."

A one-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the student to respond orally to essay questions" to a null value of 3.00. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(543) = 26.73, p = .000$ ). The sample mean of 3.97 ( $SD = .85$ ) was statistically higher than the null value. On average, secondary teachers were willing to "allow the student to respond orally to essay questions."

A one-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the student to use calculators during a test" to a null value of 3.00. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(543) = 33.25, p = .000$ ). The sample mean of 4.10 ( $SD = .77$ ) was statistically higher than the null value. On average, secondary teachers were willing to "allow the student to use calculators during a test."

A one-sample *t* test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow misspellings, incorrect punctuation, and poor grammar without penalizing the student" to a null value of 3.00. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(545) = 10.93, p = .000$ ). The sample mean of 3.42 ( $SD = .91$ ) was statistically higher than the null value. On average, secondary teachers were willing to "allow misspellings, incorrect punctuation, and poor grammar without penalizing the student."

A one-sample *t* test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the use of proof readers to assist in the correction of grammar and punctuation" to a null value of 3.00. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(540) = 28.60, p = .000$ ). The sample mean of 3.96 ( $SD = .78$ ) was statistically higher than the null value. On average, secondary teachers were willing to "allow the use of proof readers to assist in the correction of grammar and punctuation."

A one-sample *t* test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the use of proof readers to assist in the revision of a student's first draft of a written assignment" to a null value of 3.00. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(538) = 30.01, p = .000$ ). The sample mean of 4.00 ( $SD = .77$ ) was statistically higher than the null value. On average, secondary teachers were willing to "allow the use of proof readers to assist in the revision of a student's first draft of a written assignment."

A one-sample *t* test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the use of a proof reader to assist the student in the substitution of higher level vocabulary in revisions" to a null value. A statistically

significant difference was found ( $t(537) = 12.02, p = .000$ ). The sample mean of 3.51 ( $SD = .99$ ) was statistically higher than the null value of 3.00. On average, secondary teachers were willing to “allow the use of a proof reader to assist the student in the substitution of higher level vocabulary in revisions.”

***Modifications.***

*H4.* Secondary teachers are willing to provide modifications.

A one-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the student to do an extra credit assignment when this option is not available to other students” to a null value. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(552) = -9.59, p = .000$ ). The sample mean of 2.54 ( $SD = 1.12$ ) was statistically lower than the null value of 3.00. On average, secondary teachers were not willing to “allow the student to do an extra credit assignment when this option is not available to other students.”

A one-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “evaluate the process as well as the final solution, giving partial credit” to a null value. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(544) = 34.08, p = .000$ ). The sample mean of 4.08 ( $SD = .74$ ) was statistically higher than the null value of 3.00. On average, secondary teachers were willing to “evaluate the process as well as the final solution, giving partial credit.”

A one-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “make adjustment to grading criteria to help the student pass” to a null value of 3.00. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(541) = -1.88, p = .061$ ). The sample mean of 2.91 ( $SD = 1.07$ ) was not statistically different from the null

value. On average, secondary teachers were neither unwilling nor willing to “make adjustment to grading criteria to help the student pass.”

In summary, a total of 20 one-sample  $t$  tests were conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to provide accommodations and modifications. The findings regarding secondary teachers’ willingness to provide timing accommodations, presentation accommodations, response accommodations, and modifications for students with disabilities were mixed.

**Research question 2.** To what extent is a secondary teachers’ willingness to provide accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female), school level taught (middle school or high school), teaching assignment (general education or special education), personal disability (yes or no), and family member with a disability (yes or no)?

***Timing accommodations.***

*H5.* Secondary teachers’ willingness to provide timing accommodations is affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female).

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow extended deadlines for completion of assignments” between male and female teachers. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(526) = -1.81, p = .071$ ). The mean of male teachers ( $M = 4.20, SD = .76$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of female teachers ( $M = 4.32, SD = .70$ ). On average, male teachers were no more or less willing than female teachers to “allow extended deadlines for completion of assignments.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the student extra time to take tests" between male and female teachers. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(526) = -2.50, p = .013$ ). The mean of male teachers ( $M = 4.41, SD = .62$ ) was statistically lower than the mean of female teachers ( $M = 4.55, SD = .57$ ). On average, female teachers were more willing than male teachers to "allow the student extra time to take tests."

*H6.* Secondary teachers' willingness to provide timing accommodations is affected by school level taught (middle school or high school).

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow extended deadlines for completion of assignments" between middle and high school teachers. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(527) = -.08, p = .939$ ). The mean of middle school teachers ( $M = 4.28, SD = .64$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of high school teachers ( $M = 4.29, SD = .77$ ). On average, middle school teachers were no more or less willing than high school teachers to "allow extended deadlines for completion of assignments."

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the student extra time to take tests" between middle and high school teachers. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(527) = -1.51, p = .132$ ). The mean of middle school teachers ( $M = 4.46, SD = .58$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of high school teachers ( $M = 4.54, SD = .60$ ). On average, middle school teachers were no more or less willing than high school teachers to "allow the student extra time to take tests."



*H7.* Secondary teachers' willingness to provide timing accommodations is affected by teaching assignment (general education or special education).

A two-sample *t* test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow extended deadlines for completion of assignments" disabilities between general and special education teachers. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(527) = -.58, p = .561$ ). The mean of general education teachers ( $M = 4.28, SD = .68$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of special education teachers ( $M = 4.32, SD = .83$ ). On average, general education teachers were no more or less willing than special education teachers to "allow extended deadlines for completion of assignments."

A two-sample *t* test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the student extra time to take tests" between general and special education teachers. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(527) = -1.33, p = .185$ ). The mean of general education teachers ( $M = 4.48, SD = .56$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of special education teachers ( $M = 4.56, SD = .68$ ). On average, general education teachers were no more or less willing than special education teachers to "allow the student extra time to take tests."

*H8.* Secondary teachers' willingness to provide timing accommodations is affected by personal disability (yes or no).

A two-sample *t* test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow extended deadlines for completion of assignments" between teachers who have a personal disability and teachers who do not have a personal disability. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(524) = .05, p = .957$ ). The

mean of teachers who have a personal disability ( $M = 4.29$ ,  $SD = .90$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a personal disability ( $M = 4.29$ ,  $SD = .70$ ). On average, teachers who have a personal disability were no more or less willing than teachers who do not have a personal disability to “allow extended deadlines for completion of assignments.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the student extra time to take tests” between teachers who have a personal disability and teachers who do not have a personal disability. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(524) = -1.20$ ,  $p = .233$ ). The mean of teachers who have a personal disability ( $M = 4.41$ ,  $SD = .75$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a personal disability ( $M = 4.52$ ,  $SD = .57$ ). On average, teachers who have a personal disability were no more or less willing than teachers who do not have a personal disability to “allow the student extra time to take tests.”

*H9.* Secondary teachers’ willingness to provide timing accommodations is affected by family member with a disability (yes or no).

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow extended deadlines for completion of assignments” between teachers who have a family member with a disability and teachers who do not have a family member with a disability. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(524) = .39$ ,  $p = .695$ ). The mean of teachers who have a family member with a disability ( $M = 4.30$ ,  $SD = .77$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a family member with a disability ( $M = 4.28$ ,  $SD = .68$ ). On average,

teachers who have a family member with a disability were no more or less willing than teachers who do not have a family member with a disability to “allow extended deadlines for completion of assignments.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the student extra time to take tests” between teachers who have a family member with a disability and teachers who do not have a family member with a disability. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(524) = .69, p = .492$ ). The mean of teachers who have a family member with a disability ( $M = 4.53, SD = .66$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a family member with a disability ( $M = 4.49, SD = .53$ ). On average, teachers who have a family member with a disability were no more or less willing than teachers who do not have a family member with a disability to “allow the student extra time to take tests.”

In summary, a total of 10 two-sample  $t$  tests were conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to provide timing accommodations affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female), school level taught (middle school or high school), teaching assignment (general education or special education), personal disability (yes or no), and family member with a disability (yes or no). The findings regarding the relationship of secondary teachers’ willingness to provide timing accommodations were mixed.

***Presentation accommodations.***

*H10.* Secondary teachers’ willingness to provide presentation accommodations is affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female).

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the student to digitally record classroom lectures" between male and female teachers. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(525) = -.46, p = .647$ ). The mean of male teachers ( $M = 4.08, SD = .90$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of female teachers ( $M = 4.12, SD = .82$ ). On average, male teachers were no more or less willing than female teachers to "allow the student to digitally record class room lectures."

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "provide the student with a detailed outline of the material to be covered during the class period" between male and female teachers. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(523) = -2.23, p = .026$ ). The mean of male teachers ( $M = 3.68, SD = .95$ ) was statistically lower than the mean of female teachers ( $M = 3.87, SD = .86$ ). On average, female teachers were more willing than male teachers to "provide the student with a detailed outline of the material to be covered during the class period."

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "provide the student with a detailed outline of the material to be covered at the beginning of each grading period" between male and female teachers. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(523) = .02, p = .983$ ). The mean of male teachers ( $M = 3.41, SD = .96$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of female teachers ( $M = 3.40, SD = 1.00$ ). On average, male teachers were no more or less willing than female teachers to "provide the student with a detailed outline of the material to be covered at the beginning of each grading period."

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow another person to rephrase test questions that are not clear to the student" between male and female teachers. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(526) = -2.49, p = .013$ ). The mean of male teachers ( $M = 4.01, SD = .85$ ) was statistically lower than the mean of female teachers ( $M = 4.20, SD = .75$ ). On average, female teachers were more willing than male teachers to "allow another person to rephrase test questions that are not clear to the student."

*H11.* Secondary teachers' willingness to provide presentation accommodations is affected by school level taught (middle school or high school).

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the student to digitally record classroom lectures" between middle and high school teachers. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(526) = -.59, p = .554$ ). The mean of middle school teachers ( $M = 4.08, SD = .75$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of high school teachers ( $M = 4.12, SD = .91$ ). On average, middle school teachers were no more or less willing than high school teachers to "allow the student to digitally record classroom lectures."

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "provide the student with a detailed outline of the material to be covered during the class period" between middle and high school teachers. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(524) = .70, p = .484$ ). The mean of middle school teachers ( $M = 3.85, SD = .81$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of high school teachers ( $M = 3.79, SD = .95$ ). On average, middle school teachers were

no more or less willing than high school teachers to “provide the student with a detailed outline of the material to be covered during the class period.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “provide the student with a detailed outline of the material to be covered at the beginning of each grading period” between middle and high school teachers. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(524) = -.44, p = .662$ ). The mean of middle school teachers ( $M = 3.38, SD = .99$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of high school teachers ( $M = 3.42, SD = .99$ ). On average, middle school teachers were no more or less willing than high school teachers to “provide the student with a detailed outline of the material to be covered at the beginning of each grading period.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow another person to rephrase test questions that are not clear to the student” between middle and high school teachers. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(527) = -.26, p = .792$ ). The mean of middle school teachers ( $M = 4.13, SD = .77$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of high school teachers ( $M = 4.15, SD = .79$ ). On average, middle school teachers were no more or less willing than high school teachers to “allow another person to rephrase test questions that are not clear to the student.”

*H12.* Secondary teachers’ willingness to provide presentation accommodations is affected by teaching assignment (general education or special education).

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the student to digitally record classroom lectures”

between general and special education teachers. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(526) = -.20, p = .844$ ). The mean of general education teachers ( $M = 4.10, SD = .82$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of special education teachers ( $M = 4.12, SD = .92$ ). On average, general education teachers were no more or less willing than special education teachers to “allow the student to digitally record classroom lectures.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “provide the student with a detailed outline of the material to be covered during the class period” between general and special education teachers. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(524) = -3.49, p = .001$ ). The mean of general education teachers ( $M = 3.74, SD = .89$ ) was statistically lower than the mean of special education teachers ( $M = 4.05, SD = .88$ ). On average, special education teachers were more willing than general education teachers to “provide the student with a detailed outline of the material to be covered during the class period.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “provide the student with a detailed outline of the material to be covered at the beginning of each grading period” between general and special education teachers. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(524) = -2.16, p = .031$ ). The mean of general education teachers ( $M = 3.35, SD = .97$ ) was statistically lower than the mean of special education teachers ( $M = 3.56, SD = 1.02$ ). On average, special education teachers were more willing than general education teachers to “provide the student with a detailed outline of the material to be covered at the beginning of each grading period.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow another person to rephrase test questions that are not clear to the student" between general and special education teachers. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(527) = -1.61, p = .108$ ). The mean of general education teachers ( $M = 4.11, SD = .76$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of special education teachers ( $M = 4.24, SD = .83$ ). On average, general education teachers were no more or less willing than special education teachers to "allow another person to rephrase test questions that are not clear to the student."

*H13.* Secondary teachers' willingness to provide presentation accommodations is affected by personal disability (yes or no).

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the student to digitally record classroom lectures" between teachers who have a personal disability and teachers who do not have a personal disability. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(523) = -1.10, p = .272$ ). The mean of teachers who have a personal disability ( $M = 3.98, SD = .95$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a personal disability ( $M = 4.12, SD = .84$ ). On average, teachers who have a personal disability were no more or less willing than teachers who do not have a personal disability to "allow the student to digitally record classroom lectures."

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "provide the student with a detailed outline of the material to be covered during the class period" between teachers who have a personal disability and teachers who do not have a personal disability. No statistically significant difference was



found ( $t(521) = -.27, p = .788$ ). The mean of teachers who have a personal disability ( $M = 3.78, SD = 1.05$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a personal disability ( $M = 3.82, SD = .88$ ). On average, teachers who have a personal disability were no more or less willing than teachers who do not have a personal disability to “provide the student with a detailed outline of the material to be covered during the class period.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “provide the student with a detailed outline of the material to be covered at the beginning of each grading period” between teachers who have a personal disability and teachers who do not have a personal disability. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(521) = .81, p = .420$ ). The mean of teachers who have a personal disability ( $M = 3.51, SD = 1.16$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of the teachers who do not have a personal disability ( $M = 3.39, SD = .97$ ). On average, teachers who have a personal disability were no more or less willing than teachers who do not have a personal disability to “provide the student with a detailed outline of the material to be covered at the beginning of each grading period.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow another person to rephrase test questions that are not clear to the student” between teachers who have a personal disability and teachers who do not have a personal disability. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(524) = -.65, p = .515$ ). The mean of teachers who have a personal disability ( $M = 4.08, SD = .93$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a personal disability ( $M = 4.15, SD = .77$ ). On average, teachers who have a personal disability

were no more or less willing than teachers who do not have a personal disability to “allow another person to rephrase test questions that are not clear to the student.”

*H14.* Secondary teachers’ willingness to provide presentation accommodations is affected by family member with a disability (yes or no).

A two-sample *t* test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the student to digitally record classroom lectures” between teachers who have a family member with a disability and teachers who do not have a family member with a disability. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(523) = .27, p = .787$ ). The mean of teachers who have a family member with a disability ( $M = 4.11, SD = .86$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a family member with a disability ( $M = 4.09, SD = .84$ ). On average, teachers who have a family member with a disability were no more or less willing than teachers who do not have a family member with a disability to “allow the student to digitally record classroom lectures.”

A two-sample *t* test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “provide the student with a detailed outline of the material to be covered during the class period” between teachers who have a family member with a disability and teachers who do not have a family member with a disability. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(521) = .85, p = .395$ ). The mean of teachers who have a family member with a disability ( $M = 3.85, SD = .95$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a family member with a disability ( $M = 3.78, SD = .85$ ). On average, teachers who have a family member with a disability were no more or less willing than teachers who do not have a family member

with a disability to “provide the student with a detailed outline of the material to be covered during the class period.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “provide the student with a detailed outline of the material to be covered at the beginning of each grading period” between teachers who have a family member with a disability and teachers who do not have a family member with a disability. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(521) = -.41, p = .680$ ). The mean of teachers who have a family member with a disability ( $M = 3.38, SD = 1.04$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a family member with a disability ( $M = 3.41, SD = .95$ ). On average, teachers who have a family member with a disability were no more or less willing than teachers who do not have a family member with a disability to “provide the student with a detailed outline of the material to be covered at the beginning of each grading period.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow another person to rephrase test questions that are not clear to the student” between teachers who have a family member with a disability and teachers who do not have a family member with a disability. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(524) = .13, p = .897$ ). The mean of teachers who have a family member with a disability ( $M = 4.15, SD = .86$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a family member with a disability ( $M = 4.14, SD = .71$ ). On average, teachers who have a family member with a disability were no more or less willing than teachers who do not have a family member with a disability to “allow another person to rephrase test questions that are not clear to the student.”

In summary, a total of 20 two-sample  $t$  tests were conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to provide presentation accommodations affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female), school level taught (middle school or high school), teaching assignment (general education or special education), personal disability (yes or no), and family member with a disability (yes or no). The findings regarding the relationship of secondary teachers' willingness to provide presentation accommodations were mixed.

***Response accommodations.***

*H15.* Secondary teachers' willingness to provide response accommodations is affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female).

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "provide the student with a copy of the chapter and a highlighter to highlight material covered" between male and female teachers. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(524) = -3.48, p = .001$ ). The mean of male teachers ( $M = 3.74, SD = .91$ ) was statistically lower than the mean of female teachers ( $M = 4.03, SD = .84$ ). On average, female teachers were more willing than male teachers to "provide the student with a copy of the chapter and a highlighter to highlight material covered."

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the student to complete alternative assignments" between male and female teachers. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(524) = -2.60, p = .010$ ). The mean of male teachers ( $M = 3.81, SD = .92$ ) was statistically lower than the mean of female teachers ( $M = 4.01, SD = .77$ ). On average, female teachers were

more willing than male teachers to “allow the student to complete alternative assignments.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the student to give oral presentations or digitally record assignments rather than producing written products” between male and female teachers. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(526) = -1.89, p = .059$ ). The mean of male teachers ( $M = 3.68, SD = .87$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of female teachers ( $M = 3.84, SD = .85$ ). On average, male teachers were no more or less willing than female teachers to “allow the student to give oral presentations or digitally record assignments rather than producing written products.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the student to take alternative forms of exams” between male and female teachers. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(525) = -2.13, p = .034$ ). The mean of male teachers ( $M = 3.75, SD = .90$ ) was statistically lower than the mean of female teachers ( $M = 3.92, SD = .83$ ). On average, female teachers were more willing than male teachers to “allow the student to take alternative forms of exams.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the student to dictate answers to another person” between male and female teachers. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(525) = -3.77, p = .000$ ). The mean of male teachers ( $M = 3.90, SD = .90$ ) was statistically lower than the mean of female teachers ( $M = 4.19, SD = .75$ ). On average, female teachers were more willing than male teachers to “allow the student to dictate answers to another person.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the student to respond orally to essay questions" between male and female teachers. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(524) = -1.80, p = .072$ ). The mean of male teachers ( $M = 3.87, SD = .93$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of female teachers ( $M = 4.02, SD = .80$ ). On average, male teachers were no more or less willing than female teachers to "allow the student to respond orally to essay questions."

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the student to use calculators during a test" between male and female teachers. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(524) = -.23, p = .819$ ). The mean of male teachers ( $M = 4.08, SD = .82$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of female teachers ( $M = 4.09, SD = .75$ ). On average, male teachers were no more or less willing than female teachers to "allow the student to use calculators during a test."

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow misspellings, incorrect punctuation, and poor grammar without penalizing the student" between male and female teachers. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(526) = .11, p = .911$ ). The mean of male teachers ( $M = 3.44, SD = .97$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of female teachers ( $M = 3.43, SD = .89$ ). On average, male teachers were no more or less willing than female teachers to "allow misspellings, incorrect punctuation, and poor grammar without penalizing the student."

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the use of proof readers to assist in the correction of grammar and punctuation" between male and female teachers. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(526) = -2.05, p = .041$ ). The mean of male teachers ( $M = 3.86, SD = .87$ ) was statistically lower than the mean of female teachers ( $M = 4.01, SD = .74$ ). On average, female teachers were more willing than male teachers to "allow the use of proof readers to assist in the correction of grammar and punctuation."

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the use of proof readers to assist in the revision of a student's first draft of a written assignment" between male and female teachers. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(524) = -1.40, p = .161$ ). The mean of male teachers ( $M = 3.93, SD = .86$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of female teachers ( $M = 4.03, SD = .73$ ). On average, male teachers were no more or less willing than female teachers to "allow the use of proof readers to assist in the revision of a student's first draft of a written assignment."

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the use of a proof reader to assist the student in the substitution of higher level vocabulary in revisions" between male and female teachers. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(523) = -1.61, p = .108$ ). The mean of male teachers ( $M = 3.40, SD = 1.02$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of female teachers ( $M = 3.55, SD = .97$ ). On average, male teachers were no more or less willing than female teachers to "allow the use of a proof reader to assist the student in the substitution of higher level vocabulary in revisions."

*H16.* Secondary teachers' willingness to provide response accommodations is affected by school level taught (middle school or high school).

A two-sample *t* test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "provide the student with a copy of the chapter and a highlighter to highlight material covered" between middle and high school teachers. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(525) = 2.83, p = .005$ ). The mean of middle school teachers ( $M = 4.07, SD = .78$ ) was statistically higher than the mean of high school teachers ( $M = 3.85, SD = .92$ ). On average, middle school teachers were more willing than high school teachers to "provide the student with a copy of the chapter and a highlighter to highlight material covered."

A two-sample *t* test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the student to complete alternative assignments" between middle and high school teachers. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(525) = 3.02, p = .003$ ). The mean of middle school teachers ( $M = 4.08, SD = .67$ ) was statistically higher than the mean of high school teachers ( $M = 3.86, SD = .89$ ). On average, middle school teachers were more willing than high school teachers to "allow the student to complete alternative assignments."

A two-sample *t* test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the student to give oral presentations or digitally record assignments rather than producing written products" between middle and high school teachers. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(527) = 2.19, p = .029$ ). The mean of middle school teachers ( $M = 3.90, SD = .77$ ) was statistically higher than the mean of high school teachers ( $M = 3.73, SD = .91$ ). On average, middle school teachers



were more willing than high school teachers to “allow the student to give oral presentations or digitally record assignments rather than producing written products.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the student to take alternative forms of exams” between middle and high school teachers. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(526) = 1.23, p = .220$ ). The mean of middle school teachers ( $M = 3.93, SD = .74$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of high school teachers ( $M = 3.83, SD = .91$ ). On average, middle school teachers were no more or less willing than high school teachers to “allow the student to take alternative forms of exams.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the student to dictate answers to another person” between middle and high school teachers. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(526) = 2.23, p = .026$ ). The mean of middle school teachers ( $M = 4.20, SD = .69$ ) was statistically higher than the mean of high school teachers ( $M = 4.04, SD = .87$ ). On average, middle school teachers were more willing than high school teachers to “allow the student to dictate answers to another person.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the student to respond orally to essay questions” between middle and high school teachers. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(525) = 2.17, p = .030$ ). The mean of middle school teachers ( $M = 4.07, SD = .76$ ) was statistically higher than the mean of high school teachers ( $M = 3.91, SD = .88$ ). On average, middle school teachers were more willing than high school teachers to “allow the student to respond orally to essay questions.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the student to use calculators during a test" between middle and high school teachers. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(525) = -2.73, p = .007$ ). The mean of middle school teachers ( $M = 3.98, SD = .76$ ) was statistically lower than the mean of high school teachers ( $M = 4.16, SD = .77$ ). On average, high school teachers were more willing than middle school teachers to "allow the student to use calculators during a test."

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow misspellings, incorrect punctuation, and poor grammar without penalizing the student" between middle and high school teachers. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(527) = -.84, p = .403$ ). The mean of middle school teachers ( $M = 3.39, SD = .89$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of high school teachers ( $M = 3.46, SD = .92$ ). On average, middle school teachers were no more or less willing than high school teachers to "allow misspellings, incorrect punctuation, and poor grammar without penalizing the student."

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the use of proof readers to assist in the correction of grammar and punctuation" between middle and high school teachers. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(527) = -.03, p = .974$ ). The mean of middle school teachers ( $M = 3.96, SD = .74$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of high school teachers ( $M = 3.96, SD = .81$ ). On average, middle school teachers were no more or less willing than high school teachers to "allow the use of proof readers to assist in the correction of grammar and punctuation."

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the use of proof readers to assist in the revision of a student's first draft of a written assignment" between middle and high school teachers. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(525) = .85, p = .395$ ). The mean of middle school teachers ( $M = 4.03, SD = .69$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of high school teachers ( $M = 3.98, SD = .82$ ). On average, middle school teachers were no more or less willing than high school teachers to "allow the use of proof readers to assist in the revision of a student's first draft of a written assignment."

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the use of a proof reader to assist the student in the substitution of higher level vocabulary in revisions" between middle and high school teachers. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(524) = .11, p = .912$ ). The mean of middle school teachers ( $M = 3.51, SD = .94$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of high school teachers ( $M = 3.50, SD = 1.01$ ). On average, middle school teachers were no more or less willing than high school teachers to "allow the use of a proof reader to assist the student in the substitution of higher level vocabulary in revisions."

*H17.* Secondary teachers' willingness to provide response accommodations is affected by teaching assignment (general education or special education).

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "provide the student with a copy of the chapter and a highlighter to highlight material covered" between general and special education teachers. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(525) = -3.38, p = .001$ ). The mean of

general education teachers ( $M = 3.87$ ,  $SD = .86$ ) was statistically lower than the mean of special education teachers ( $M = 4.16$ ,  $SD = .87$ ). On average, special education teachers were more willing than general education teachers to “provide the student with a copy of the chapter and a highlighter to highlight material covered.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the student to complete alternative assignments” between general and special education teachers. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(525) = -3.32$ ,  $p = .001$ ). The mean of general education teachers ( $M = 3.88$ ,  $SD = .78$ ) was statistically lower than the mean of special education teachers ( $M = 4.15$ ,  $SD = .89$ ). On average, special education teachers were more willing than general education teachers to “allow the student to complete alternative assignments.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the student to give oral presentations or digitally record assignments rather than producing written products” between general and special education teachers. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(527) = -3.86$ ,  $p = .000$ ). The mean of general education teachers ( $M = 3.71$ ,  $SD = .85$ ) was statistically lower than the mean of special education teachers ( $M = 4.04$ ,  $SD = .84$ ). On average, special education teachers were more willing than general education teachers to “allow the student to give oral presentations or digitally record assignments rather than producing written products.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the student to take alternative forms of exams” between general and special education teachers. A statistically significant difference was found

( $t(526) = -5.00, p = .000$ ). The mean of general education teachers ( $M = 3.76, SD = .82$ ) was statistically lower than the mean of special education teachers ( $M = 4.18, SD = .86$ ). On average, special education teachers were more willing than general education teachers to “allow the student to take alternative forms of exams.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the student to dictate answers to another person” between general and special education teachers. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(526) = -1.52, p = .130$ ). The mean of general education teachers ( $M = 4.07, SD = .77$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of special education teachers ( $M = 4.19, SD = .92$ ). On average, general education teachers were no more or less willing than special education teachers to “allow the student to dictate answers to another person.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the student to respond orally to essay questions” between general and special education teachers. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(525) = -4.16, p = .000$ ). The mean of general education teachers ( $M = 3.89, SD = .86$ ) was statistically lower than the mean of special education teachers ( $M = 4.23, SD = .75$ ). On average, special education teachers were more willing than general education teachers to “allow the student to respond orally to essay questions.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the student to use calculators during a test” between general and special education teachers. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(525) = -3.64, p = .000$ ). The mean of general education teachers ( $M = 4.02, SD = .77$ ) was statistically lower than the mean of special education teachers ( $M = 4.30, SD = .75$ ).

On average, special education teachers were more willing than general education teachers to “allow the student to use calculators during a test.”

A two-sample *t* test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow misspellings, incorrect punctuation, and poor grammar without penalizing the student” between general and special education teachers. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(527) = -.34, p = .737$ ). The mean of general education teachers ( $M = 3.42, SD = .90$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of special education teachers ( $M = 3.45, SD = .95$ ). On average, general education teachers were no more or less willing than special education teachers to “allow misspellings, incorrect punctuation, and poor grammar without penalizing the student.”

A two-sample *t* test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the use of proof readers to assist in the correction of grammar and punctuation” between general and special education teachers. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(527) = -2.44, p = .015$ ). The mean of general education teachers ( $M = 3.91, SD = .78$ ) was statistically lower than the mean of special education teachers ( $M = 4.10, SD = .78$ ). On average, special education teachers were more willing than general education teachers to “allow the use of proof readers to assist in the correction of grammar and punctuation.”

A two-sample *t* test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the use of proof readers to assist in the revision of a student’s first draft of a written assignment” between general and special education teachers. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(525) = -1.58, p = .115$ ). The mean of general education teachers ( $M = 3.97, SD = .75$ ) was not statistically different

from the mean of special education teachers ( $M = 4.09, SD = .85$ ). On average, general education teachers were no more or less willing than special education teachers to “allow the use of proof readers to assist in the revision of a student’s first draft of a written assignment.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the use of a proof reader to assist the student in the substitution of higher level vocabulary in revisions” between general and special education teachers. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(524) = -1.06, p = .288$ ). The mean of general education teachers ( $M = 3.48, SD = .96$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of special education teachers ( $M = 3.58, SD = 1.06$ ). On average, general education teachers were no more or less willing than special education teachers to “allow the use of a proof reader to assist the student in the substitution of higher level vocabulary.”

*H18.* Secondary teachers’ willingness to provide response accommodations is affected by personal disability (yes or no).

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “provide the student with a copy of the chapter and a highlighter to highlight material covered” between teachers who have a personal disability and teachers who do not have a personal disability. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(522) = .89, p = .372$ ). The mean of teachers who have a personal disability ( $M = 4.04, SD = .99$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a personal disability ( $M = 3.92, SD = .86$ ). On average, teachers who have a personal disability were no more or less willing than teachers who do not have a personal

disability to “provide the student with a copy of the chapter and a highlighter to highlight material covered.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the student to complete alternative assignments” between teachers who have a personal disability and teachers who do not have a personal disability. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(522) = 1.92, p = .056$ ). The mean of teachers who have a personal disability ( $M = 4.16, SD = .83$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a personal disability ( $M = 3.93, SD = .82$ ). On average, teachers who have a personal disability were no more or less willing than teachers who do not have a personal disability to “allow the student to complete alternative assignments.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the student to give oral presentations or digitally record assignments rather than producing written products” between teachers who have a personal disability and teachers who do not have a personal disability. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(524) = 1.28, p = .201$ ). The mean of teachers with who have a personal disability ( $M = 3.94, SD = .95$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a personal disability ( $M = 3.78, SD = .85$ ). On average, teachers who have a personal disability were no more or less willing than teachers who do not have a personal disability to “allow the student to give oral presentations or digitally record assignments rather than producing written products.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the student to take alternative forms of exams” between



teachers who have a personal disability and teachers who do not have a personal disability. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(523) = 2.21, p = .028$ ). The mean of teachers who have a personal disability ( $M = 4.12, SD = .84$ ) was statistically higher than the mean of teachers who do not have a personal disability ( $M = 3.84, SD = .85$ ). On average, teachers who have a personal disability were more willing than teachers who do not have a personal disability to “allow the student to take alternative forms of exams.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the student to dictate answers to another person” between teachers who have a personal disability and teachers who do not have a personal disability. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(523) = -.39, p = .697$ ). The mean of teachers who have a personal disability ( $M = 4.06, SD = 1.01$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a personal disability ( $M = 4.11, SD = .79$ ). On average, teachers who have a personal disability were no more or less willing than teachers who do not have a personal disability to “allow the student to dictate answers to another person.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the student to respond orally to essay questions” between teachers who have a personal disability and teachers who do not have a personal disability. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(522) = 1.13, p = .260$ ). The mean of teachers who have a personal disability ( $M = 4.10, SD = .92$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a personal disability ( $M = 3.96, SD = .84$ ). On average, teachers who have a personal disability were no more or less willing

than teachers who do not have a personal disability to “allow the student to respond orally to essay questions.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the student to use calculators during a test” between teachers who have a personal disability and teachers who do not have a personal disability. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(522) = 2.93, p = .004$ ). The mean of teachers who have a personal disability ( $M = 4.39, SD = .75$ ) was statistically higher than the mean of teachers who do not have a personal disability ( $M = 4.06, SD = .77$ ). On average, teachers who have a personal disability were more willing than teachers who do not have a personal disability to “allow the student to use calculators during a test.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow misspellings, incorrect punctuation, and poor grammar without penalizing the student” between teachers who have a personal disability and teachers who do not have a personal disability. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(524) = -1.29, p = .196$ ). The mean of teachers who have a personal disability ( $M = 3.27, SD = .96$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a personal disability ( $M = 3.45, SD = .91$ ). On average, teachers who have a personal disability were no more or less willing than teachers who do not have a personal disability to “allow misspellings, incorrect punctuation, and poor grammar without penalizing the student.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the use of proof readers to assist in the correction of

grammar and punctuation” between teachers who have a personal disability and teachers who do not have a personal disability. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(524) = .18, p = .861$ ). The mean of teachers who have a personal disability ( $M = 3.98, SD = .95$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a personal disability ( $M = 3.96, SD = .77$ ). On average, teachers who have a personal disability were no more or less willing than teachers who do not have a personal disability to “allow the use of proof readers to assist in the correction of grammar and punctuation.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the use of proof readers to assist in the revision of a student’s first draft of a written assignment” between teachers who have a personal disability and teachers who do not have a personal disability. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(522) = .76, p = .449$ ). The mean of teachers who have a personal disability ( $M = 4.08, SD = .84$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a personal disability ( $M = 3.99, SD = .77$ ). On average, teachers who have a personal disability were no more or less willing than teachers who do not have a personal disability to “allow the use of proof readers to assist in the revision of a student’s first draft of a written assignment.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the use of a proof reader to assist the student in the substitution of higher level vocabulary in revisions” between teachers who have a personal disability and teachers who do not have a personal disability. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(521) = 1.48, p = .139$ ). The mean of teachers who

have a personal disability ( $M = 3.70$ ,  $SD = .97$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a personal disability ( $M = 3.48$ ,  $SD = .99$ ). On average, teachers who have a personal disability were no more or less willing than teachers who do not have a personal disability to “allow the use of a proof reader to assist the student in the substitution of higher level vocabulary in revisions.”

*H19.* Secondary teachers’ willingness to provide response accommodations is affected by family member with a disability (yes or no).

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “provide the student with a copy of the chapter and a highlighter to highlight material covered” between teachers who have a family member with a disability and teachers who do not have a family member with a disability. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(522) = .35$ ,  $p = .727$ ). The mean of teachers who have a family member with a disability ( $M = 3.95$ ,  $SD = .94$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a family member with a disability ( $M = 3.93$ ,  $SD = .81$ ). On average, teachers who have a family member with a disability were no more or less willing than teachers who do not have a family member with a disability to “provide the student with a copy of the chapter and a highlighter to highlight material covered.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the student to complete alternative assignments” between teachers who have a family member with a disability and teachers who do not have a family member with a disability. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(522) = 1.42$ ,  $p = .157$ ). The mean of teachers who have a family member with a disability ( $M$

= 4.00,  $SD = .83$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a family member with a disability ( $M = 3.90$ ,  $SD = .81$ ). On average, teachers who have a family member with a disability were no more or less willing than teachers who do not have a family member with a disability to “allow the student to complete alternative assignments.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the student to give oral presentations or digitally record assignments rather than producing written products” between teachers who have a family member with a disability and teachers who do not have a family member with a disability. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(524) = -.22$ ,  $p = .829$ ). The mean of teachers who have a family member with a disability ( $M = 3.79$ ,  $SD = .93$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a family member with a disability ( $M = 3.80$ ,  $SD = .80$ ). On average, teachers who have a family member with a disability were no more or less willing than teachers who do not have a family member with a disability to “allow the student to give oral presentations or digitally record assignments rather than producing written products.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the student to take alternative forms of exams” between teachers who have a family member with a disability and teachers who do not have a family member with a disability. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(523) = 1.00$ ,  $p = .318$ ). The mean of teachers who have a family member with a disability ( $M = 3.91$ ,  $SD = .88$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a family member with a disability ( $M = 3.84$ ,  $SD = .83$ ). On average, teachers who

have a family member with a disability were no more or less willing than teachers who do not have a family member with a disability to “allow the student to take alternative forms of exams.”

A two-sample *t* test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the student to dictate answers to another person” between teachers who have a family member with a disability and teachers who do not have a family member with a disability. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(523) = -1.19, p = .234$ ). The mean of teachers who have a family member with a disability ( $M = 4.05, SD = .89$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a family member with a disability ( $M = 4.14, SD = .74$ ). On average, teachers who have a family member with a disability were no more or less willing than teachers who do not have a family member with a disability to “allow the student to dictate answers to another person.”

A two-sample *t* test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the student to respond orally to essay questions” between teachers who have a family member with a disability and teachers who do not have a family member with a disability. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(522) = -1.00, p = .316$ ). The mean of teachers who have a family member with a disability ( $M = 3.93, SD = .97$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a family member with a disability ( $M = 4.01, SD = .72$ ). On average, teachers who have a family member with a disability were no more or less willing than teachers who do not have a family member with a disability to “allow the student to respond orally to essay questions.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the student to use calculators during a test" between teachers who have a family member with a disability and teachers who do not have a family member with a disability. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(522) = .02, p = .982$ ). The mean of teachers who have a family member with a disability ( $M = 4.09, SD = .85$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a family member with a disability ( $M = 4.09, SD = .70$ ). On average, teachers who have a family member with a disability were no more or less willing than teachers who do not have a family member with a disability to "allow the student to use calculators during a test."

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow misspellings, incorrect punctuation, and poor grammar without penalizing the student" between teachers who have a family member with a disability and teachers who do not have a family member with a disability. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(524) = -.65, p = .519$ ). The mean of teachers who have a family member with a disability ( $M = 3.40, SD = .99$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a family member with a disability ( $M = 3.45, SD = .84$ ). On average, teachers who have a family member with a disability were no more or less willing than teachers who do not have a family member with a disability to "allow misspellings, incorrect punctuation, and poor grammar without penalizing the student."

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the use of proof readers to assist in the correction of

grammar and punctuation” between teachers who have a family member with a disability and teachers who do not have a family member with a disability. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(524) = .53, p = .599$ ). The mean of teachers who have a family member with a disability ( $M = 3.99, SD = .82$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a family member with a disability ( $M = 3.95, SD = .75$ ). On average, teachers who have a family member with a disability were no more or less willing than teachers who do not have a family member with a disability to “allow the use of proof readers to assist in the correction of grammar and punctuation.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the use of proof readers to assist in the revision of a student’s first draft of a written assignment” between teachers who have a family member with a disability and teachers who do not have a family member with a disability. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(522) = -.44, p = .658$ ). The mean of teachers who have a family member with a disability ( $M = 3.99, SD = .87$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a family member with a disability ( $M = 4.02, SD = .69$ ). On average, teachers who have a family member with a disability were no more or less willing than teachers who do not have a family member with a disability to “allow the use of proof readers to assist in the revision of a student’s first draft of a written assignment.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the use of a proof reader to assist the student in the substitution of higher level vocabulary in revisions” between teachers who have a family member with a disability and teachers who do not have a family member with a



disability. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(521) = -1.53, p = .127$ ). The mean of teachers who have a family member with a disability ( $M = 3.43, SD = 1.04$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a family member with a disability ( $M = 3.56, SD = .94$ ). On average, teachers who have a family member with a disability were no more or less willing than teachers who do not have a family member with a disability to “allow the use of a proof reader to assist the student in the substitution of higher level vocabulary in revisions.”

In summary, a total of 55 two-sample  $t$  tests were conducted to determine if secondary teachers’ willingness to provide response accommodations was affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female), school level taught (middle school or high school), teaching assignment (general education or special education), personal disability (yes or no), and family member with a disability (yes or no). The findings regarding secondary teachers’ willingness to provide response accommodations were mixed.

### ***Modifications.***

*H20.* Secondary teachers’ willingness to provide modifications is affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female).

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the student to do an extra credit assignment when this option is not available to other students” between male and female teachers. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(523) = -2.40, p = .017$ ). The mean of male teachers ( $M = 2.36, SD = 1.11$ ) was statistically lower than the mean of female teachers ( $M = 2.62, SD = 1.11$ ). On average, female teachers were more willing than

male teachers to “allow the student to do an extra credit assignment when this option is not available to other students.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “evaluate the process as well as the final solution, giving partial credit” between male and female teachers. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(525) = -1.24, p = .216$ ). The mean of male teachers ( $M = 4.02, SD = .78$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of female teachers ( $M = 4.11, SD = .73$ ). On average, male teachers were no more or less willing than female teachers to “evaluate the process as well as the final solution, giving partial credit.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “make adjustment to grading criteria to help the student pass” between male and female teachers. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(526) = -.41, p = .685$ ). The mean of male teachers ( $M = 2.90, SD = 1.15$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of female teachers ( $M = 2.94, SD = 1.04$ ). On average, male teachers were no more or less willing than female teachers to “make adjustment to grading criteria to help the student pass.”

*H21.* Secondary teachers’ willingness to provide modifications is affected by school level taught (middle school or high school).

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the student to do an extra credit assignment when this option is not available to other students” between middle and high school teachers. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(524) = .35, p = .725$ ). The mean of middle school teachers ( $M = 2.56, SD = 1.12$ ) was not statistically different from the

mean of high school teachers ( $M = 2.53, SD = 1.12$ ). On average, middle school teachers were no more or less willing than high school teachers to “allow the student to do an extra credit assignment when this option is not available to other students.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “evaluate the process as well as the final solution, giving partial credit” between middle and high school teachers. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(526) = -.55, p = .586$ ). The mean of middle school teachers ( $M = 4.06, SD = .75$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of high school teachers ( $M = 4.10, SD = .74$ ). On average, middle school teachers were no more or less willing than high school teachers to “evaluate the process as well as the final solution, giving partial credit.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “make adjustment to grading criteria to help the student pass” between middle and high school teachers. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(527) = -1.93, p = .054$ ). The mean of middle school teachers ( $M = 2.81, SD = 1.03$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of high school teachers ( $M = 2.99, SD = 1.10$ ). On average, middle school teachers were no more or less willing than high school teachers to “make adjustment to grading criteria to help the student pass.”

*H22.* Secondary teachers’ willingness to provide modifications is affected by teaching assignment (general education or special education).

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the student to do an extra credit assignment when this option is not available to other students” between general and special education teachers. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(524) = -3.35, p = .001$ ). The mean of

general education teachers ( $M = 2.45$ ,  $SD = 1.06$ ) was statistically lower than the mean of special education teachers ( $M = 2.81$ ,  $SD = 1.23$ ). On average, special education teachers were more willing than general education teachers to “allow the student to do an extra credit assignment when this option is not available to other students.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “evaluate the process as well as the final solution, giving partial credit” between general and special education teachers. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(526) = -.67$ ,  $p = .502$ ). The mean of general education teachers ( $M = 4.07$ ,  $SD = .72$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of special education teachers ( $M = 4.12$ ,  $SD = .81$ ). On average, general education teachers were no more or less willing than special education teachers to “evaluate the process as well as the final solution, giving partial credit.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “make adjustment to grading criteria to help the student pass” between general and special education teachers. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(527) = -3.90$ ,  $p = .000$ ). The mean of general education teachers ( $M = 2.82$ ,  $SD = 1.02$ ) was statistically lower than the mean of special education teachers ( $M = 3.23$ ,  $SD = 1.18$ ). On average, special education teachers were more willing than general education teachers “make adjustment to grading criteria to help the student pass.”

*H23.* Secondary teachers’ willingness to provide modifications is affected by personal disability (yes or no).

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the student to do an extra credit assignment when this

option is not available to other students” between teachers who have a personal disability and teachers who do not have a personal disability. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(521) = 2.04, p = .042$ ). The mean of teachers who have a personal disability ( $M = 2.84, SD = 1.35$ ) was statistically higher than the mean of teachers who do not have a personal disability ( $M = 2.51, SD = 1.09$ ). On average, teachers who have a personal disability were more willing than teachers who do not have a personal disability to “allow the student to do an extra credit assignment when this option is not available to other students.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “evaluate the process as well as the final solution, giving partial credit” between teachers who have a personal disability and teachers who do not have a personal disability. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(523) = .94, p = .350$ ). The mean of teachers who have a personal disability ( $M = 4.18, SD = .84$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a personal disability ( $M = 4.07, SD = .73$ ). On average, teachers who have a personal disability were no more or less willing than teachers who do not have a personal disability to “evaluate the process as well as the final solution, giving partial credit.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “make adjustment to grading criteria to help the student pass” between teachers who have a personal disability and teachers who do not have a personal disability. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(524) = .67, p = .505$ ). The mean of teachers who have a personal disability ( $M = 3.02, SD = 1.32$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a personal disability ( $M$

= 2.91,  $SD = 1.05$ ). On average, teachers who have a personal disability were no more or less willing than teachers who do not have a personal disability to “make adjustment to grading criteria to help the student pass.”

*H24.* Secondary teachers’ willingness to provide modifications is affected by family member with a disability (yes or no).

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the student to do an extra credit assignment when this option is not available to other students” between teachers who have a family member with a disability and teachers who do not have a family member with a disability. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(521) = .49, p = .626$ ). The mean of teachers who have a family member with a disability ( $M = 2.57, SD = 1.15$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a family member with a disability ( $M = 2.52, SD = 1.09$ ). On average, teachers who have a family member with a disability were no more or less willing than teachers who do not have a family member with a disability to “allow the student to do an extra credit assignment when this option is not available to other student.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “evaluate the process as well as the final solution, giving partial credit” between teachers who have a family member with a disability and teachers who do not have a family member with a disability. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(523) = .12, p = .901$ ). The mean of teachers who have a family member with a disability ( $M = 4.09, SD = .78$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a family member with a disability ( $M = 4.08, SD = .71$ ). On average,

teachers who have a family member with a disability were no more or less willing than teachers who do not have a family member with a disability to “evaluate the process as well as the final solution, giving partial credit.”

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to “make adjustment to grading criteria to help the student pass” between teachers who have a family member with a disability and teachers who do not have a family member with a disability. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(524) = 1.19, p = .236$ ). The mean of teachers who have a family member with a disability ( $M = 2.98, SD = 1.11$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a family member with a disability ( $M = 2.87, SD = 1.04$ ). On average, teachers who have a family member with a disability were no more or less willing than teachers who do not have a family member with a disability to “make adjustment to grading criteria to help the student pass.”

In summary, a total of 15 two-sample  $t$  tests were conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers’ willingness to provide modifications affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female), school level taught (middle school or high school), teaching assignment (general education or special education), personal disability (yes or no), and family member with a disability (yes or no). The findings regarding the relationship of secondary teachers’ willingness to provide modifications were mixed.

**Research question 3.** What are secondary teachers’ attitudes toward persons with disabilities?

To identify what secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities were, a one-sample  $t$  test was conducted. This was tested against a null value of 60.50 with an alpha level of .05.

*H25.* Secondary teachers have a positive attitude toward persons with disabilities. A one-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities to a null value of 60.50. A statistically significant difference was found ( $t(481) = 43.70, p = .000$ ). The sample mean of 85.04 ( $SD = 12.33$ ) was significantly higher than the null value. On average, secondary teachers had a positive attitude toward persons with disabilities.

**Research question 4.** To what extent are secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female), school level taught (middle school or high school), teaching assignment (general education or special education), personal disability (yes or no), and family member with a disability (yes or no).

*H26.* Secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities are affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female).

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities between male and female teachers. No significant difference was found ( $t(479) = -1.64, p = .101$ ). The mean of male teachers ( $M = 83.69, SD = 13.17$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of female teachers ( $M = 85.68, SD = 11.90$ ). On average, male teachers did not have more or less favorable attitudes toward persons with disabilities than female teachers.



*H27.* Secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities are affected by school level taught (middle school or high school).

A two-sample *t* test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities between middle and high school teachers. No significant difference was found ( $t(480) = 1.86, p = .063$ ). The mean of middle school teachers ( $M = 86.35, SD = 12.24$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of high school teachers ( $M = 84.21, SD = 12.34$ ). On average, middle school teachers did not have more or less favorable attitudes toward persons with disabilities than high school teachers.

*H28.* Secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities are affected by teaching assignment (general education or special education).

A two-sample *t* test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities between general and special education teachers. No significant difference was found ( $t(480) = .44, p = .664$ ). The mean of general education teachers ( $M = 85.18, SD = 11.87$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of special education teachers ( $M = 84.62, SD = 13.67$ ). On average, general education teachers did not have more or less favorable attitudes toward persons with disabilities than special education teachers.

*H29.* Secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities are affected by personal disability (yes or no).

A two-sample *t* test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities between teachers who have a personal disability and teachers who do not have a personal disability. No statistically significant

difference was found ( $t(477) = -1.40, p = .163$ ). The mean of teachers who have a personal disability ( $M = 82.56, SD = 16.58$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a personal disability ( $M = 85.32, SD = 11.85$ ). On average, teachers who have a personal disability did not have more or less favorable attitudes toward persons with disabilities than teachers who do not have a personal disability.

*H30.* Secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities are affected by family member with a disability (yes or no).

A two-sample  $t$  test was conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities between teachers who have a family member with a disability and teachers who do not have a family member disability with a disability. No statistically significant difference was found ( $t(477) = .571, p = .568$ ). The mean of teachers who have a family member with a disability ( $M = 85.42, SD = 13.19$ ) was not statistically different from the mean of teachers who do not have a family member with a disability ( $M = 84.77, SD = 11.64$ ). On average, teachers who have a family member with a disability did not have more or less favorable attitudes toward persons with disabilities than teachers who do not have a family member with a disability.

In summary, a total of 10 two-sample  $t$  tests were conducted to compare the mean response of secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female), school level taught (middle school or high school), teaching assignment (general education or special education), personal disability (yes or no), and family member with a disability (yes or no). The results of the statistical analyses indicated that secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities were

not affected by the gender of the teacher, school level taught, teaching assignment, personal disability, or family member with a disability.

**Research question 5.** To what extent is there a relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers' willingness to provide accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities?

The direction and strength of the relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers' willingness to provide timing accommodations, presentation accommodations, response accommodations, and modifications were calculated using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients. A *t* test was calculated for each Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient to determine if the relationship was statistically significant.

***Relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers' willingness to provide timing accommodations.***

*H31.* There is a relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers' willingness to provide timing accommodations.

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was calculated to assess the relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers' willingness to "allow extended deadlines for completion of assignments." There was a positive and weak correlation that was not statistically significant between the two variables ( $r = .072$ ,  $df = 480$ ,  $p = .114$ ). Secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities are not related to their willingness to "allow extended deadlines for completion of assignments."

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was calculated to assess the relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the student extra time to take tests." There was a positive and weak correlation that was statistically significant between the two variables ( $r = .195$ ,  $df = 480$ ,  $p = .000$ ). A more positive attitude of secondary teachers toward persons with disabilities was correlated with an increased willingness to "allow the student extra time to take tests."

***Relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers' willingness to provide presentation accommodations.***

*H32.* There is a relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers' willingness to provide presentation accommodations.

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was calculated to assess the relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the student to digitally record classroom lectures." There was a positive and weak correlation that was statistically significant between the two variables ( $r = .165$ ,  $df = 479$ ,  $p = .000$ ). Secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities are related to their willingness to "allow the student to digitally record classroom lectures." A more positive attitude of secondary teachers toward persons with disabilities was correlated with an increased willingness to "allow the student to digitally record classroom lectures."

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was calculated to assess the relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers' willingness to "provide the student with a detailed outline of the material to be covered during the class period." There was a positive and weak correlation that was not statistically significant between the two variables ( $r = .075$ ,  $df = 478$ ,  $p = .102$ ). Secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities are not related to their willingness to "provide the student with a detailed outline of the material to be covered during the class period."

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was calculated to assess the relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers' willingness to "provide the student with a detailed outline of the material to be covered at the beginning of each grading period." There was a negative and weak correlation that was not statistically significant between the two variables ( $r = -.004$ ,  $df = 477$ ,  $p = .927$ ). Secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities are not related to their willingness to "provide the student with a detailed outline of the material to be covered at the beginning of each grading period."

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was calculated to assess the relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers' willingness to "allow another person to rephrase test questions that are not clear to the student." There was a positive and weak correlation that was statistically significant between the two variables, ( $r = .108$ ,  $df = 480$ ,  $p = .017$ ). A more positive attitude of secondary teachers toward persons with disabilities was correlated with an increased willingness to "allow another person to rephrase test questions that are

not clear to the student.” Secondary teachers’ attitudes toward persons with disabilities are related to their willingness to “allow another person to rephrase test questions that are not clear to the student.”

***Relationship between secondary teachers’ attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers’ willingness to provide response accommodations.***

*H33.* There is a relationship between secondary teachers’ attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers’ willingness to provide response accommodations.

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was calculated to assess the relationship between secondary teachers’ attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers’ willingness to “provide the student with a copy of the chapter and a highlighter to highlight material covered.” There was a positive and weak correlation that was statistically significant between the two variables ( $r = .156$ ,  $df = 479$ ,  $p = .001$ ). A more positive attitude of secondary teachers toward persons with disabilities was correlated with an increased willingness to “provide the student with a copy of the chapter and a highlighter to highlight material covered.” Secondary teachers’ attitudes toward persons with disabilities are related to their willingness to “provide the student with a copy of the chapter and a highlighter to highlight material covered.”

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was calculated to assess the relationship between secondary teachers’ attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the student to complete alternative assignments.” There was a positive and weak correlation that was statistically significant between the two variables ( $r = .092$ ,  $df = 479$ ,  $p = .045$ ). A more positive attitude of

secondary teachers toward persons with disabilities was correlated with an increased willingness to “allow the student to complete alternative assignments.” Secondary teachers’ attitudes toward persons with disabilities are related to their willingness to “allow the student to complete alternative assignments.”

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was calculated to assess the relationship between secondary teachers’ attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the student to give oral presentations or digitally record assignments rather than producing written products.” There was a positive and weak correlation that was statistically significant between the two variables ( $r = .138$ ,  $df = 480$ ,  $p = .002$ ). A more positive attitude of secondary teachers toward persons with disabilities was correlated with an increased willingness to “allow the student to give oral presentations or digitally record assignments rather than producing written products.” Secondary teachers’ attitudes toward persons with disabilities are related to their willingness to “allow the student to give oral presentations or digitally record assignments rather than producing written products.”

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was calculated to assess the relationship between secondary teachers’ attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the student to take alternative forms of exams.” There was a positive and weak correlation that was not statistically significant between the two variables ( $r = .086$ ,  $df = 479$ ,  $p = .059$ ). Secondary teachers’ attitudes toward persons with disabilities are not related to their willingness to “allow the student to take alternative forms of exams.”

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was calculated to assess the relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the student to dictate answers to another person." There was a positive and weak correlation that was statistically significant between the two variables ( $r = .124$ ,  $df = 479$ ,  $p = .007$ ). A more positive attitude of secondary teachers toward persons with disabilities was correlated with an increased willingness to "allow the student to allow the student to dictate answers to another person." Secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities are related to their willingness to "allow the student to dictate answers to another person."

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was calculated to assess the relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the student to respond orally to essay questions." There was a positive and weak correlation that was statistically significant between the two variables ( $r = .131$ ,  $df = 479$ ,  $p = .004$ ). A more positive attitude of secondary teachers toward persons with disabilities was correlated with an increased willingness to "allow the student to allow the student to respond orally to essay questions." Secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities are related to their willingness to "allow the student to respond orally to essay questions."

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was calculated to assess the relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the student to use calculators during a test." There was a positive and weak correlation that was not statistically significant between the two variables ( $r = .081$ ,  $df = 478$ ,  $p = .076$ ). Secondary teachers' attitudes toward



persons with disabilities are not related to their willingness to “allow the student to use calculators during a test.”

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was calculated to assess the relationship between secondary teachers’ attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow misspellings, incorrect punctuation, and poor grammar without penalizing the student.” There was a positive and weak correlation that was not statistically significant between the two variables ( $r = .018$ ,  $df = 480$ ,  $p = .691$ ). Secondary teachers’ attitudes toward persons with disabilities are not related to their willingness to “allow misspellings, incorrect punctuation, and poor grammar without penalizing the student.”

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was calculated to assess the relationship between secondary teachers’ attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the use of proof readers to assist in the correction of grammar and punctuation.” There was a positive and weak correlation that was statistically significant between the two variables ( $r = .101$ ,  $df = 480$ ,  $p = .026$ ). Secondary teachers’ attitudes toward persons with disabilities are related to their willingness to “allow the use of proof readers to assist in the correction of grammar and punctuation.” A more positive attitude of secondary teachers toward persons with disabilities was correlated with an increased willingness to “allow the use of proof readers to assist in the correction of grammar and punctuation.”

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was calculated to assess the relationship between secondary teachers’ attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers’ willingness to “allow the use of proof readers to assist in the revision

of a student's first draft of a written assignment." There was a positive and weak correlation that was statistically significant between the two variables ( $r = .153$ ,  $df = 478$ ,  $p = .001$ ). Secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities are related to their willingness to "allow the use of proof readers to assist in the revision of a student's first draft of a written assignment." A more positive attitude of secondary teachers toward persons with disabilities was correlated with an increased willingness to "allow the use of proof readers to assist in the revision of a student's first draft of a written assignment."

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was calculated to assess the relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the use of a proof reader to assist the student in the substitution of higher level vocabulary in revisions." There was a positive and weak correlation that was not statistically significant between the two variables ( $r = .033$ ,  $df = 477$ ,  $p = .469$ ). Secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities are not related to their willingness to "allow the use of a proof reader to assist the student in the substitution of higher level vocabulary in revisions."

***Relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers' willingness to provide modifications.***

*H34.* There is a relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers' willingness to provide modifications.

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was calculated to assess the relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers' willingness to "allow the student to do an extra credit assignment

when this option is not available to other students.” There was a negative and weak correlation that was statistically significant between the two variables ( $r = -.101$ ,  $df = 477$ ,  $p = .026$ ). Secondary teachers’ attitudes toward persons with disabilities are related to their willingness to “allow the student to do an extra credit assignment when this option is not available to other students.” A more positive attitude of secondary teachers toward persons with disabilities was correlated with a decreased willingness to “allow the student to do an extra credit assignment when this option is not available to other students.”

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was calculated to assess the relationship between secondary teachers’ attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers’ willingness to “evaluate the process as well as the final solution, giving partial credit.” There was a positive and weak correlation that was statistically significant between the two variables ( $r = .114$ ,  $df = 479$ ,  $p = .013$ ). Secondary teachers’ attitudes toward persons with disabilities are related to their willingness to “evaluate the process as well as the final solution, giving partial credit.” A more positive attitude of secondary teachers toward persons with disabilities was correlated with an increased willingness to “evaluate the process as well as the final solution, giving partial credit.”

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was calculated to assess the relationship between secondary teachers’ attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers’ willingness to “make adjustment to grading criteria to help the student pass.” There was a negative and weak correlation that was statistically significant between the two variables ( $r = -.114$ ,  $df = 480$ ,  $p = .013$ ). Secondary teachers’ attitudes toward persons with disabilities are related to their willingness to “make adjustment to

grading criteria to help the student pass.” A more positive attitude of secondary teachers toward persons with disabilities was correlated with a decreased willingness to “make adjustment to grading criteria to help the student pass.”

In summary, a total of 20 Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were calculated to index the direction and strength of the relationship between secondary teachers’ attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers’ willingness to provide timing accommodations, presentation accommodations, response accommodations, and modifications. The findings regarding the relationship between secondary teachers’ attitudes toward persons with disabilities and willingness to provide accommodations and modifications were mixed.

### **Summary**

Chapter four contained the results of the data analysis and hypothesis testing related to secondary teachers’ attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers’ willingness to provide accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities. The results of the one-sample *t* tests, two-sample *t* tests, and Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were presented. Chapter five includes a summary of the research study, major findings, connections to the literature, implications for action, recommendations for further study, and conclusions.

## Chapter Five

### Interpretation and Recommendations

Chapter five provides an overview of the problem, the purpose statement, research questions, and methodology. Chapter five also addresses the major findings, implications for action, and recommendations for further research.

#### Study Summary

The first section of this chapter provides a brief summary of the current research study. The summary contains a condensed overview of the limited research that exists related to secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and willingness to provide accommodations and modifications. Second, an explanation of the purpose of the current research study is provided. The third section provides a brief overview of the methodology used in the current research study. Last, the major findings of the research study are presented.

**Overview of the Problem.** As stated in chapter two, limited research exists specifically related to secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and willingness to provide accommodations and modifications. The WPS has not studied secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and school district leaders have not assessed the willingness of secondary teachers to provide accommodations and modifications.

**Purpose Statement.** As stated in chapter one, the purpose of this research study was fivefold. The first purpose was to determine the extent of secondary teachers' willingness to provide accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities. The second purpose was to determine the extent that a secondary teachers' willingness to

provide accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities was affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female), school level taught (middle school or high school), teaching assignment (general education or special education), personal disability (yes or no), and family member with a disability (yes or no). The third purpose was to determine secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities. The fourth purpose was to determine the extent that secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities were affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female), school level taught (middle school or high school), teaching assignment (general education or special education), personal disability (yes or no), and family member with a disability (yes or no). The fifth purpose was to determine the extent of the relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers' willingness to provide accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities.

**Review of the Methodology.** This research study was conducted in an urban school district and used a quantitative cross-sectional descriptive survey and a correlation research design. The population for this research study included general and special education teachers from grades six through 12 in public urban middle and high schools. The sample included general and special education teachers who taught any subject from grades six through 12 in a Midwestern urban school district's middle and high schools. A list of secondary teachers in the school district was generated from predefined lists in the school district electronic mail system. The dependent variables analyzed in this research study were willingness to provide accommodations and modifications and attitudes toward persons with disabilities. The independent variables analyzed in this research study were the gender of the teacher (male or female), school level taught (middle school

or high school), teaching assignment (general education or special education), personal disability (yes or no), and family member with a disability (yes or no). One-sample  $t$  tests were utilized to identify teachers' willingness to provide accommodations and modifications and attitudes toward persons with disabilities. Two-sample  $t$  tests were utilized to identify differences in willingness to provide accommodations and modifications and attitudes toward persons with disabilities affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female), school level taught (middle school or high school), teaching assignment (general education or special education), personal disability (yes or no), and family member with a disability (yes or no). Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients were used to measure the relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and their willingness to provide timing accommodations, presentation accommodations, response accommodations, and modifications.

**Major Findings.** Several major findings were identified in the current research study. The first major finding was the determination of the extent of secondary teachers' willingness to provide accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities. It was determined that secondary teachers are willing to provide timing, presentation, and response accommodations. However, the findings regarding secondary teachers' willingness to provide modifications were mixed. The results indicated that secondary teachers were on average unwilling to "allow the student to do an extra credit assignment when this option is not available to other students" and willing to "evaluate the process as well as the final solution, giving partial credit", but neither unwilling nor willing to "make adjustment to grading criteria to help the student pass."

The second major finding of the current research study was the determination of the extent that a secondary teachers' willingness to provide accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities was affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female), school level taught (middle school or high school), teaching assignment (general education or special education), personal disability (yes or no), and family member with a disability (yes or no). The results are broken out in the subsequent paragraphs.

***Timing accommodations.*** The findings regarding the relationship of the willingness of secondary teachers to provide the timing accommodations of extended deadlines and extra time to test were mixed. The willingness of secondary teachers to “allow extended deadlines for completion of assignments” was not affected by the gender of the teacher, school level taught, teaching assignment, personal disability, or family member with a disability. The willingness of secondary teachers to “allow the student extra time to take tests” was affected by the gender of the teacher. Female teachers were more willing than male teachers to “allow the student extra time to take tests.” However, the willingness of secondary teachers to “allow the student extra time to take tests” was not affected by school level taught, teaching assignment, personal disability, or family member with a disability.

***Presentation accommodations.*** The results of the current research study indicated that the willingness of secondary teachers to provide presentation accommodations were mixed. The results of the analysis indicated that the willingness of secondary teachers to allow the recording of classroom lectures, provide outlines, and allow test questions to be rephrased were mixed. The willingness of secondary teachers to “allow the student to



digitally record classroom lectures” was not affected by the gender of the teacher, school level taught, teaching assignment, personal disability, or family member with a disability.

The willingness of secondary teachers to “provide the student with a detailed outline of the material to be covered during the class period” was affected by the gender of the teacher and teaching assignment. Female teachers were more willing than male teachers and special education teachers were more willing than general education teachers to “provide a detailed outline of the material to be covered during the class period.” However, the willingness of secondary teachers to “provide a detailed outline of the material to be covered during the class period” was not affected by school level taught, personal disability, or family member with a disability.

The willingness of secondary teachers to “provide a detailed outline of the material to be covered at the beginning of each grading period” was affected by teaching assignment. Special education teachers were more willing than general education teachers to “provide a detailed outline of the material to be covered at the beginning of each grading period.” However, the willingness of secondary teachers to “provide a detailed outline of the material to be covered at the beginning of each grading period” was not affected by the gender of the teacher, school level taught, personal disability, or family member with a disability.

The willingness of secondary teachers to “allow another person to rephrase test questions that are not clear to the student” was affected by the gender of the teacher. Female teachers were more willing than male teachers to “allow another person to rephrase test questions that are not clear to the student.” However, the willingness of secondary teachers to “allow another person to rephrase test questions that are not clear to

the student” was not affected by school level taught, teaching assignment, personal disability, or family member with a disability.

***Response accommodations.*** The results of the current research study indicated that the willingness of secondary teachers to provide the response accommodations of providing copies of course material, allowing alternate assignments or exams, allowing oral presentations or responses, allowing the use of calculators, and the use of proof readers were mixed.

The willingness of secondary teachers to “provide the student with a copy of the chapter and a highlighter to highlight material covered” was affected by the gender of the teacher, school level taught, and teaching assignment. Female teachers were more willing than male teachers, middle school teachers were more willing than high school teachers, and special education teachers were more willing than general education teachers to “provide the student with a copy of the chapter and a highlighter to highlight material covered.” However, the willingness of secondary teachers to “provide the student with a copy of the chapter and a highlighter to highlight material covered” was not affected by personal disability or family member with a disability.

The willingness of secondary teachers to “allow the student to complete alternative assignments” was affected by the gender of the teacher, school level taught, and teaching assignment. Female teachers were more willing than male teachers, middle school teachers were more willing than high school teachers, and special education teachers were more willing than general education teachers to “allow the student to complete alternative assignments.” However, the willingness of secondary teachers to

“allow the student to complete alternative assignments” was not affected by personal disability or family member with a disability.

The willingness of secondary teachers to “allow the student to give oral presentations or digitally record assignments rather than producing written products” was affected by school level taught and teaching assignment. Middle school teachers were more willing than high school teachers and special education teachers were more willing than general education teachers to “allow the student to give oral presentations or digitally record assignments rather than producing written products.” However, the willingness of secondary teachers to “allow the student to give oral presentations or digitally record assignments rather than producing written products” was not affected by the gender of the teacher, personal disability, or family member with a disability.

The willingness of secondary teachers to “allow the student to take alternative forms of exams” was affected by the gender of the teacher, teaching assignment, and personal disability. Females were more willing than males, special education teachers were more willing than general education teachers, and teachers who have a personal disability were more willing than teachers who do not have a personal disability to “allow the student to take alternative forms of exams.” However, the willingness of secondary teachers to “allow the student to take alternative forms of exams” was not affected by school level taught or family member with a disability.

The willingness of secondary teachers to “allow the student to dictate answers to another person” was affected by the gender of the teacher and school level taught. Female teachers were more willing than male teachers and middle school teachers were more willing than high school teachers to “allow the student to dictate answers to another

person.” However, the willingness of secondary teachers to “allow the student to dictate answers to another person” was not affected by teaching assignment, personal disability, or family member with a disability.

The willingness of secondary teachers to “allow the student to respond orally to essay questions” was affected by school level taught and teaching assignment. Middle school teachers were more willing than high school teachers and special education teachers were more willing than general education teachers to “allow the student to respond orally to essay questions.” However, the willingness of secondary teachers to “allow the student to respond orally to essay questions” was not affected by the gender of the teacher, personal disability, or family member with a disability.

The willingness of secondary teachers to “allow the student to use calculators during a test” was affected by school level taught, teaching assignment, and personal disability. High school teachers were more willing than middle school teachers, special education teachers were more willing than general education teachers, and teachers who have a personal disability were more willing than teachers who do not have a personal disability to “allow the student to use calculators during a test.” However, the willingness of secondary teachers to “allow the student to use calculators during a test” was not affected by the gender of the teacher or family member with a disability. The willingness of secondary teachers to “allow misspellings, incorrect punctuation, and poor grammar without penalizing the student” was not affected by the gender of the teacher, school level taught, teaching assignment, personal disability, or family member with a disability.

The willingness of secondary teachers to “allow the use of proof readers to assist in the correction of grammar and punctuation” was affected by the gender of the teacher and teaching assignment. Female teachers were more willing than male teachers and special education teachers were more willing than general education teachers to “allow the use of proof readers to assist in the correction of grammar and punctuation.” However, the willingness of secondary teachers to “allow the use of proof readers to assist in the correction of grammar and punctuation” was not affected by school level taught, personal disability, or family member with a disability. The willingness of secondary teachers to “allow the use of proof readers to assist in the revision of a student’s first draft of a written assignment” was not affected by the gender of the teacher, school level taught, teaching assignment, personal disability, or family member with a disability. The willingness of secondary teachers to “allow the use of a proof reader to assist the student in the substitution of higher level vocabulary in revisions” was not affected by the gender of the teacher, school level taught, teaching assignment, personal disability, or family member with a disability.

**Modifications.** The results of the current research study indicated that the willingness of secondary teachers to provide the modifications of adjusting grading criteria, giving partial credit, and allowing extra credit were mixed. The willingness of secondary teachers to “allow the student to do an extra credit assignment when this option is not available to other students” was affected by the gender of the teacher, teaching assignment, and personal disability. Female teachers were more willing than male teachers, special education teachers were more willing than general education teachers, and teachers who have a personal disability were more willing than teachers

who do not have a personal disability to “allow the student to do an extra credit assignment when this option is not available to other students.” However, the willingness of secondary teachers to “allow the student to do an extra credit assignment when this option is not available to other students” was not affected by school level taught or family member with a disability.

The willingness of secondary teachers to “evaluate the process as well as the final solution, giving partial credit” was not affected by the gender of the teacher, school level taught, teaching assignment, personal disability, or family member with a disability. The willingness of secondary teachers to “make adjustment to grading criteria to help the student pass” was not affected by the gender of the teacher, school level taught, teaching assignment, personal disability, or family member with a disability.

The third major finding of the current research study was the determination of secondary teachers’ attitudes toward persons with disabilities. The results of the hypothesis testing indicated that secondary teachers do hold positive or favorable attitudes toward persons with disabilities. The sample mean score obtained on the ATDP scoring scale was 85.04 on a scale from 0 to 120. The results of the statistical analysis indicated that on average, secondary teachers hold a significant and positive attitude toward persons with disabilities.

The fourth major finding of the current research study was the determination of the extent that secondary teachers’ attitudes toward persons with disabilities were affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female), school level taught (middle school or high school), teaching assignment (general education or special education), personal disability (yes or no), and family member with a disability (yes or no). The results of the

current research study failed to find that secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities were affected by the gender of the teacher, school level taught, teaching assignment, personal disability, or family member with a disability.

The last major finding of the current research study was the determination of the extent of the relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and secondary teachers' willingness to provide accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities. The findings of the current research study are presented below in order of the hypotheses.

***Timing accommodations.*** The findings regarding the relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and willingness to provide the timing accommodations of extended deadlines and extra time to test were mixed. Both relationships were determined to be positive. However, one relationship was found to be significant and one was found to be nonsignificant. Secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities were not found to be a predictor of willingness to "allow extended deadlines for completion of assignments." However, a significant relationship was identified between attitudes toward persons with disabilities and willingness to "allow the student extra time to take tests." Secondary teachers who had a more positive attitude toward persons with disabilities were more willing to "allow the student extra time to take tests."

***Presentation accommodations.*** The findings regarding the relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and willingness to provide the presentation accommodations of recording classroom lectures, providing outlines, and allowing test questions to be rephrased were mixed. The results of the Pearson product-

moment correlation coefficients indicated that the relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and willingness to provide the presentation accommodations of recording classroom lectures, providing outlines during the class period, and allowing test questions to be rephrased was positive and small. The results of the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient indicated that the relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and willingness to provide the presentation accommodation of providing outlines at the beginning of the grading period was nonsignificant, negative, and small.

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients indicated relationships that were significant between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and willingness to provide presentation accommodations. When teachers had a more positive attitude toward persons with disabilities, they were more willing to "allow the student to digitally record classroom lectures" and more willing to "allow another person to rephrase test questions that are not clear to the student."

The willingness to provide two presentation accommodations was determined to have nonsignificant relationships with the attitudes of secondary teachers toward persons with disabilities. Secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities were not a predictor of willingness to "provide the student with a detailed outline of the material to be covered during the class period" or "provide the student with a detailed outline of the material to be covered at the beginning of each grading period."

***Response accommodations.*** The findings regarding the relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and willingness to provide the response accommodations of providing copies of course material, allowing alternate



assignments or exams, allowing oral presentations or responses, allowing the use of calculators, and the use of proofreaders were mixed. All relationships were determined to be positive. Some relationships were determined to be significant and some were determined to be nonsignificant.

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients indicated that when teachers had a more positive attitude toward persons with disabilities, they were more willing to: “provide the student with a copy of the chapter and a highlighter to highlight material covered”, “allow the student to complete alternative assignments”, “allow the student to give oral presentations or digitally record assignments rather than producing written products”, “allow the student to dictate answers to another person”, “allow the student to respond orally to essay questions”, “allow the use of proof readers to assist in the correction of grammar and punctuation”, and “allow the use of proof readers to assist in the revision of a student’s first draft of a written assignment.” However, secondary teachers’ attitudes toward persons with disabilities were not a predictor of willingness to: “allow the student to take alternative forms of exams”, “allow the student to use calculators during a test”, “allow misspellings, incorrect punctuation, and poor grammar without penalizing the student”, and “allow the use of proof readers to assist the student in the substitution of higher level vocabulary in revisions.”

***Modifications.*** The findings regarding the relationship between secondary teachers’ attitudes toward persons with disabilities and willingness to provide the modifications of adjusting grading criteria, giving partial credit, and allowing extra credit were mixed. All three relationships were determined to be significant. The results of the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient indicated that the relationship between

secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and willingness to provide the modifications of evaluating the process and giving partial credit was positive and small. The results of the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients indicated that the relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and willingness to provide the modifications of allowing extra credit and making adjustments to grading criteria was negative and small.

When secondary teachers held more positive attitudes toward persons with disabilities, they were more willing to "evaluate the process as well as the final solution, giving partial credit." In contrast, when secondary teachers had more positive attitudes toward persons with disabilities, they were less willing to "allow the student to do an extra credit assignment when this option is not available to other students" and "make adjustment to grading criteria to help the student pass."

**Findings Related to the Literature.** This section contains a discussion of the results of the current research study as they relate to the existing and relevant literature identified in chapter two related to secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and willingness to provide accommodations and modifications. A comparison of the results of the current research study to the existing literature discussed in chapter two yielded numerous similarities and differences. The findings related to the literature are presented below in order of the research questions.

The study's first research question was designed to identify the extent that secondary teachers were willing to provide accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities. The results of the current research study indicated that secondary teachers were willing to allow the recording of classroom lectures, which is

analogous to the findings of Dodd et al. (1990) where it was reported Tribal college faculty members were willing to permit recording of lectures. The results of the current research study also indicated that secondary teachers were willing to provide a copy of the chapter and a highlighter. These results are in contrast to the finding of Nelson et al. (1990) where it was reported that college faculty members were less willing to provide copies of lecture notes. The differences may possibly be due to the fact that the study by Nelson et al. (1990) was conducted at the college level.

The results of the analysis of secondary teachers' willingness to provide response accommodations for students with disabilities were mixed. The results of the current research study indicated that secondary teachers were willing to provide alternative assignments and allow misspellings, incorrect punctuation, and poor grammar without penalty. These findings are dissimilar to the findings of Dodd et al. (1990), Lambert et al. (1996), and Nelson et al. (1996). Tribal College Faculty members were reported to be unwilling to allow misspellings on assignments in a research study conducted by Dodd et al. (1990). Similar to the findings of Dodd et al. (1990), and unlike the results of the current research study, Lambert et al. (1996) reported rural Secondary Montana Teachers indicated disagreement to allowing misspellings. The findings of Nelson et al. (1990) indicated that College Faculty members were less willing to provide alternative assignments. The differences in the findings may be due to the fact that the studies by Dodd et al. (1990) and Nelson et al. (1990) were conducted at the college level. The differences in the findings related to the study by Lambert et al. (1996) may be attributed to the study being conducted in a rural setting.

The results of the current research study indicated that secondary teachers were unwilling to allow extra credit when this option is not available to other students. These results are congruous with the findings of Nelson et al. (1990) where it was reported college faculty members were less willing to provide the student with extra credit assignments and similar to the findings of Lambert et al. (1996), who reported rural Montana secondary teachers indicated disagreement to providing the accommodation of allowing extra credit.

The study's second research question was designed to identify the extent that secondary teachers' willingness to provide accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities was affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female), school level taught (middle school or high school), teaching assignment (general education or special education), personal disability (yes or no), and family member with a disability (yes or no). The results of the current research study indicated that female teachers were more willing than male teachers to allow alternative exams. These results are in agreement with the findings of Vogel et al. (1999) where it was reported that female university faculty members were significantly more willing than male university faculty members to provide a tape recorded version of an examination. The results of the current research study also resemble the findings of Maddox (2005) who studied instructional accommodations and reported female teachers were found to have higher scores than male teachers in the domains of additional teaching, strategic adjustment, and activity adjustment on the Teaching Adaptation Scale.

The results of the current research study indicated that special education teachers were more willing than general education teachers to provide or allow the following

accommodations and modifications: detailed outline during the class period, detailed outline at the beginning of the grade period, copy of the chapter and a highlighter, alterative assignments, oral presentations, alterative exams, oral answers to essay questions, calculators during a test, and the use proof readers for grammar and punctuation. These results are congruous with the findings of Alahbabi (2006) where it was reported special education teachers were significantly more willing than general education teachers to accommodate students with disabilities.

The study's third research question was designed to determine secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities. The results of the current research study indicated that secondary teachers hold positive or favorable attitudes toward persons with disabilities. These results are in agreement with the findings of Oldfield (2009) who synthesized 10 years of research related to general and special education teachers' attitudes toward the inclusion of students with disabilities.

The study's fourth research question was designed to determine the extent of secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female), school level taught (middle school or high school), teaching assignment (general education or special education), personal disability (yes or no), and family member with a disability (yes or no). The results of the current research study indicated that the attitudes of secondary teachers toward persons with disabilities were not affected by the gender of the teacher. These results were similar to the findings of Conine (1968), Kitchen (2007), Parasuram (2006), and Van Reusen et al. (2000), where the researchers reported attitudes toward persons with disabilities were not affected by the gender of the teacher. These results also resemble the findings of Jobe et al. (1996),

Van Reusen et al. (2000), and Witherspoon (2005) where attitudes toward the inclusion of students with disabilities were studied. The effect of gender on attitudes was studied and no difference between male and female teachers was found. The results of the current research study show a disparity with the results of Deal (2006) and Park and Chitiyo (2011). Deal (2006) conducted a study in England and investigated the attitudes of persons with disabilities toward other persons with disabilities. Deal (2006) reported females held significantly more favorable attitudes toward persons with disabilities than males. In alignment with the findings of Deal (2006), Park and Chitiyo (2011) also reported comparable results. Park and Chitiyo (2011) reported attitudes toward students with autism were affected by the gender of the teacher and found that female teachers held significantly more positive attitudes toward students with autism than male teachers. The results of the current research study are in contrast to the results of Pearman et al. (1992), Deal (2006), and Park and Chitiyo (2011). Pearman et al. (1992) studied the inclusion of students with disabilities affected by the gender of the teacher and reported male teachers held significantly more negative opinions about the inclusion of students with disabilities than female teachers. This difference may be attributed to the fact that the study by Pearman et al. (1992) included both elementary and secondary teachers and the characteristics of the sample surveyed were different from the sample in the current research study.

The results of the current research study indicated that attitudes toward persons with disabilities were not affected by teaching assignment. These parallel the findings of Kitchen (2007) and Park and Chitiyo (2011) where the researchers studied attitudes toward persons with disabilities affected by teaching assignment and reported no

difference. The current findings are in contradiction to the findings of Alahbabi (2006), Alghazo (2002), Ferris (1996), Hoffman (2006), Jones (2009), and Lampropoulou and Padeliadu (1997) where the researchers studied attitudes toward persons with disabilities affected by teaching assignment. The researchers reported special education teachers held significantly more favorable attitudes toward persons with disabilities or the inclusion of students with disabilities than general education teachers. A disparity exists between the results of the current research study and the results of Alahbabi (2006), Alghazo (2002), Ferris (1996), Hoffman (2006), Jones (2009), Lampropoulou and Padeliadu (1997), and Witherspoon (2005) where it was reported general education teachers held significantly more favorable attitudes toward the full inclusion of students with disabilities than special education teachers.

The results of the current research study indicated that secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities were not affected by school level taught. The results of the current research study contradict the research findings of Walpole (2008) where it was reported school level taught did affect attitudes toward inclusion. Walpole (2008) reported elementary teachers held more favorable attitudes toward the inclusion of students with disabilities than secondary teachers did. The results of the current research study resemble the findings of Deal (2006), who indicated that whether the teacher had a disability had no effect on attitudes toward persons with disabilities. Deal (2006) reported attitudes toward persons with disabilities were not affected by whether the person had a disability.

## Conclusions

As discussed in chapter one, school districts face a tremendous challenge in educating students with disabilities while at the same time complying with the requirements of the IDEA, NCLB, and properly implementing an IEP. The attitudes of teachers toward persons with disabilities and willingness to provide accommodations and modifications contribute to properly implemented IEPs and compliance with the IDEA. When teachers comply with the IDEA and properly implement IEPs, school districts spend less money and use fewer resources to provide compensatory education. The identification of secondary teachers who hold less favorable attitudes toward persons with disabilities and who are less willing to provide accommodations and modifications helps school districts target groups of teachers who may contribute to the improper implementation of IEPs and noncompliance with the law. Data obtained from survey results could help district staff target groups of teachers who need additional professional development with the goal of developing a higher level of willingness to provide accommodations and modifications. The following section provides recommendations for implications for action.

**Implications for Action.** The results of the current research study provide implications for action and future research. Sweeping generalizations cannot be made regarding secondary teachers' willingness to provide accommodations and modifications and attitudes toward persons with disabilities. A more detailed examination of the willingness of secondary teachers to provide accommodations and modifications and attitudes toward persons with disabilities is required. More specific recommendations for further action are warranted based on the data analysis.



Based on findings of the current research study, the WPS may benefit from providing professional development for all secondary teachers on the topic of modifications for students with disabilities. Additionally, the WPS may benefit from facilitating professional development related to specific accommodations and specific modifications targeted toward secondary male teachers, high school teachers, secondary general education teachers, and teachers who do not have a personal disability.

Secondary teachers in the WPS may benefit from professional development focused on improving attitudes toward persons with disabilities. School district leaders should be mindful of the relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and willingness to provide accommodations and modifications. While a more favorable attitude toward persons with disabilities resulted in an increased willingness to provide some accommodations and modifications, a more favorable attitude also resulted in a decreased willingness to provide some modifications.

Once secondary teachers have learned how to implement accommodations and modifications, additional training on how to apply them in the classroom should be provided. Secondary teachers should be taught how to implement accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities in ways that compliment current lesson planning methods. To minimize the amount of work for the teacher, training should be provided on how to incorporate and streamline accommodations and modifications into everyday lessons.

Finally, the WPS must support secondary teachers in their endeavors of providing accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities. To turn knowledge into action, the knowing-doing gap must be minimized. To accomplish this, Pfeffer and

Sutton (2000), recommended that leaders of an organization “help build systems that facilitate transformation of knowledge into action in a smooth, reliable way” (p. 8). A system in the WPS that promotes the transformation of knowledge about accommodations and modifications into practice should be created that is simple, goal based, and contains measurement processes.

**Recommendations for Future Research.** The first recommendation is to replicate the current research study using additional independent variables, which could include the identification of specific subject areas taught, specific grade levels taught, years of teaching experience, and teacher degree level. The second recommendation is to replicate this research study at some point in the future in the WPS and compare the results to the current research study. Teacher attrition and mobility rates may provide a different sample in the future as many staff placement changes occur every year. Teachers leave the WPS due to retirement, nonrenewal, and natural attrition. Because public opinion and legal issues change over time, conducting this research study in the future may yield different results. A third recommendation is to replicate the current research study with adjustments made to the language of the current survey. The language of the survey could be changed to reflect statements targeted toward individuals with specific types of disabilities such as learning disabilities or autism. The fourth recommendation is to replicate the current research study in different school districts with similar and dissimilar characteristics to the WPS. Similarities and differences in secondary teachers’ attitudes and willingness to provide accommodations and modifications could be compared to a rural, suburban, and other urban school districts. The last recommendation is to add the component of professional development. The

survey could be administered at the beginning of the school year, targeted professional development related to attitudes toward persons with disabilities and willingness to provide accommodations and modifications could be provided, and the same survey could be administered again at the end of the school year to assess changes in attitudes and willingness to provide accommodations and modifications. This could aid in identifying the relationships between the professional development provided, attitudes toward persons with disabilities, and willingness to provide accommodations and modifications.

**Concluding Remarks.** The researcher investigated five research questions. First, the extent of secondary teachers' willingness to provide accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities was investigated. Second, the extent that a secondary teachers' willingness to provide accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities was affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female), school level taught (middle school or high school), teaching assignment (general education or special education), personal disability (yes or no), and family member with a disability (yes or no) was examined. Third, the identification of secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities was conducted. Fourth, the extent that secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities were affected by the gender of the teacher (male or female), school level taught (middle school or high school), teaching assignment (general education or special education), personal disability (yes or no), and family member with a disability (yes or no) was investigated. Last, the extent of the relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities

and secondary teachers' willingness to provide accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities was explored.

Secondary teachers' willingness to provide accommodations and modifications for students with disabilities continues to be of concern as school districts comply with the law and attempt to properly implement IEPs. Professional development should be designed and implemented to equip teachers with the tools necessary to work with students with disabilities and fulfill the obligation of the law. "When schools give the highest priority to maximizing learning outcomes for a diverse population of learners, and allow the necessary time and resources for meeting this priority, we will then have achieved truly 'special' education" (Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1995, p. 232). With purposeful planning and design, special education in the WPS can be an exceptional experience for both students with disabilities and teachers alike.

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## Appendices

**Appendix A: Permission to Use Lambert Survey Instrument**

-----Original Message-----

From: Dale Lambert [<mailto:DLambert@lewistown.k12.mt.us>]  
Sent: Friday, July 10, 2009 7:37 AM  
To: Justin Hawpe  
Subject: RE: Journal Article

Hello Justin,

Yes, you may use anything from the article.

I do have a copy of the survey. I will need to copy and then scan it into a PDF file, and will then send it to your email address.

Please let me know if I can be of additional help, and good luck with your dissertation!

Dale Lambert

---

From: Justin Hawpe [<mailto:jhawpe@usd259.net>]  
Sent: Thu 7/9/2009 11:44 PM  
To: Dale Lambert  
Subject: Journal Article

Dear Mr. Lambert,

My name is Justin Hawpe and I am a doctoral student in Educational Leadership at Baker University in Baldwin City, Kansas. My dissertation research is related to Secondary Teacher Attitudes Toward Individuals with Disabilities and Willingness to Provide Accommodations for Students with Disabilities. I work for Wichita Public Schools in Wichita, Kansas.

I was recently reviewing a journal article from Rural Special Education Quarterly - 1996 and saw your name in this article. I was wondering if you can assist me with some further information.

1. May I have permission to use the survey statements in this article and adjust them as necessary for my research? I will cite sources and give credit.
2. Do you have any more information related to this article such as an actual survey that a participant took?

Thank you for your time.

Sincerely,

Justin C. Hawpe

**Appendix B: Permission to Use the ATDP Scale**

-----Original Message-----

From: Ruth Mangels [<mailto:Ruth.Mangels@hofstra.edu>]

Sent: Thursday, July 09, 2009 11:31 AM

To: Justin Hawpe

Subject: Re: ATDP

Dear Justin:

Thank you for your inquiry. The Attitudes Toward Disabled Persons Scale (ATDP) is a monograph consisting of 86 pages. It is in the public domain and you do not need permission to use it. The monograph consists of scales, administration information, scoring, reliability & validity data, and an extensive list of references. The monograph is available through the Psychology Dept. at Hofstra University. The cost for the monograph is \$10.00 which includes postage, and handling charges. I will also forward some articles to you, free of charge. Please make the check payable to Hofstra University, and send the check to the following address; Hofstra University, Psychology Dept., Room 222 Hauser Hall, Hempstead, NY 11549 on the outside of the envelope please indicate to the attention of: Ms. Ruth Mangels

Thank you for your inquiry and best wishes with your research.

All the best,  
Ruth Mangels

>>>> Justin Hawpe <[jhawpe@usd259.net](mailto:jhawpe@usd259.net)> 7/8/2009 4:32 PM >>>>

I am unsure if you will be able to assist me. If not, can you please advise who I should contact. My name is Justin Hawpe. I am a doctoral student in the Educational Leadership Program at Baker University in Baldwin City, Kansas. My dissertation research focuses on Teacher Attitudes Towards Disabled Persons and Willingness to Accommodate Students. I would like to request the Attitudes Towards Disabled Persons monograph as well as any other documents you may share related to this. I want to obtain the test manual, test forms O, A, B as well as scoring information. I would like to know what the cost is for these documents, as well as the address for payment. Additionally, I need to obtain permission to use the ATDP scale.

Thank you for your time.

Respectfully,

Justin C. Hawpe  
[jhawpe@usd259.net](mailto:jhawpe@usd259.net)



**Appendix C: Lambert Original Survey Instrument**

### Accommodations at the Secondary Level: A Survey of Central Montana

Please complete the following demographical data:

Sex    M    F                      Age 20-30    30-40    40-50    50-60    60-    
 Present teaching position \_\_\_\_\_ Years in present position \_\_\_\_\_  
 Years of teaching experience \_\_\_\_\_  
 Education BA    BA+10    BA+20    BA+30    MA    MA+     
 Do you currently have students with learning disabilities in your classroom? \_\_\_\_\_  
 When students with learning disabilities are placed in your classes do  
 you feel the support services provided by special education personnel:  
   are adequate    are not adequate

This survey consists of 20 accommodations. Each question requires two answers. The first requires circling Y for yes or N for no in answering the question: Have you provided this accommodation to students with learning disabilities placed in your classes in the past? The second involves a Likert scale from 1 to 5. Please circle the number that indicates your response to the question: I would be willing to provide this accommodation to students with learning disabilities in my classroom in the future.

The Likert scale values stand for:

**1=disagree strongly 2=disagree somewhat 3=undecided 4=agree somewhat 5=agree strongly**

1. Allow the student to tape record classroom lectures.	Y	N	1	2	3	4	5
2. Allow extended deadlines for completion of class projects, papers, etc.	Y	N	1	2	3	4	5
3. Provide the student with a detailed outline of the material to be covered during the class period.	Y	N	1	2	3	4	5
4. Provide the student with a copy of the chapter and a highlighter to highlight the material covered.	Y	N	1	2	3	4	5
5. Allow the student to complete alternative assignments.	Y	N	1	2	3	4	5
6. Allow the student to do an extra credit assignment when this option is not available to other students.	Y	N	1	2	3	4	5
7. Provide the student with a detailed outline of material to be covered at the beginning of each grading period.	Y	N	1	2	3	4	5
8. Allow the student to give oral presentations or tape record assignments rather than written products.	Y	N	1	2	3	4	5
9. Allow the student to take alternative forms of your exams (For example a multiple choice test, not an essay test.)	Y	N	1	2	3	4	5
10. Allow a proctor to rephrase test questions that are not clear to the student.	Y	N	1	2	3	4	5
11. Allow the student extra time to take tests.	Y	N	1	2	3	4	5
12. Allow the student to dictate answers to a proctor.	Y	N	1	2	3	4	5
13. Allow the student to respond orally to essay questions.	Y	N	1	2	3	4	5
14. Evaluate the process as well as the final solution, giving partial credit.	Y	N	1	2	3	4	5
15. Allow the students to use calculators during tests.	Y	N	1	2	3	4	5
16. Allow misspellings, incorrect punctuation, and poor grammar without penalizing the student.	Y	N	1	2	3	4	5
17. Allow the use of proof readers to assist in the correction of grammar and punctuation.	Y	N	1	2	3	4	5
18. Allow the use of proof readers to assist in the revision of a student's first draft of a written assignment.	Y	N	1	2	3	4	5
19. Allow the use of a proof reader to assist the student in the substitution of higher level vocabulary in revisions.	Y	N	1	2	3	4	5
20. Make adjustment to grading criteria to help the student pass.	Y	N	1	2	3	4	5

**Appendix D: ATDP Scale Form O**

ATDP-0

Mark each statement in the left margin according to how much you agree or disagree with it. Please mark every one. Write +1, +2, +3: or -1, -2, -3: depending on how you feel in each case.

+3: I AGREE VERY MUCH	-1: I DISAGREE A LITTLE
+2: I AGREE PRETTY MUCH	-2: I DISAGREE PRETTY MUCH
+1: I AGREE A LITTLE	-3: I DISAGREE VERY MUCH

---

- \_\_\_ 1. Parents of disabled children should be less strict than other parents.
- \_\_\_ 2. Physically disabled persons are just as intelligent as nondisabled ones.
- \_\_\_ 3. Disabled people are usually easier to get along with than other people.
- \_\_\_ 4. Most disabled people feel sorry for themselves.
- \_\_\_ 5. Disabled people are the same as anyone else.
- \_\_\_ 6. There should not be special schools for disabled children.
- \_\_\_ 7. It would be best for disabled persons to live and work in special communities.
- \_\_\_ 8. It is up to the government to take care of disabled persons.
- \_\_\_ 9. Most disabled people worry a great deal.
- \_\_\_ 10. Disabled people should not be expected to meet the same standards as nondisabled people.
- \_\_\_ 11. Disabled people are as happy as nondisabled ones.
- \_\_\_ 12. Severely disabled people are no harder to get along with than those with minor disabilities.
- \_\_\_ 13. It is almost impossible for a disabled person to lead a normal life.
- \_\_\_ 14. You should not expect too much from disabled people.
- \_\_\_ 15. Disabled people tend to keep to themselves much of the time.
- \_\_\_ 16. Disabled people are more easily upset than nondisabled people.
- \_\_\_ 17. Disabled persons cannot have a normal social life.
- \_\_\_ 18. Most disabled people feel that they are not as good as other people.
- \_\_\_ 19. You have to be careful of what you say when you are with disabled people.
- \_\_\_ 20. Disabled people are often grouchy.

**Appendix E: Survey Instrument Used in Current Study**

Thank you for participating in my research study. I want to assure you that your participation in this survey is completely anonymous.

As a doctoral candidate in educational leadership at Baker University, I am conducting research regarding students with disabilities.

Your completion of this survey will be a valuable part of my research. This survey is for academic research only.

If you have any questions or concerns about this survey, please contact me. Results of the study will be made available upon request. Thank you for your participation.

Justin C. Hawpe  
Ed.D. Candidate  
Baker University, Graduate School of Education  
Email: [justinchawpe@stu.bakeru.edu](mailto:justinchawpe@stu.bakeru.edu)  
Phone: 316-772-0421

**DIRECTIONS:**

The following statements and questions are designed to provide information about students with disabilities. Please read each item carefully and click the bubble below the response that best represents your agreement level.

Your honesty on this survey is very important to the validity of this research study. The results of this study may potentially impact what type of professional development is provided for teachers in the future. Please be as honest as possible when responding to the questions.

Responding to the survey items indicates that you understand that your participation in this survey is voluntary and anonymous. You may end your participation in this survey at any time by closing your web browser.

On each page of the survey, scroll to the bottom of your screen after you have answered the questions. Click the NEXT button at the bottom of your screen to advance to the next page of the survey. When you are finished completing the survey, click the DONE button at the bottom of your screen to submit your responses.

Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements:

**1. As a secondary teacher of a student with a disability, I would:**

**Allow the student to digitally record classroom lectures.**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Answer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**2. As a secondary teacher of a student with a disability, I would:**

**Allow extended deadlines for completion of assignments.**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Answer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**3. As a secondary teacher of a student with a disability, I would:**

**Provide the student with a detailed outline of the material to be covered during the class period.**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Answer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**4. As a secondary teacher of a student with a disability, I would:**

**Provide the student with a copy of the chapter and a highlighter to highlight material covered.**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Answer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>



Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements:

**5. As a secondary teacher of a student with a disability, I would:**

**Allow the student to complete alternative assignments.**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Answer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**6. As a secondary teacher of a student with a disability, I would:**

**Allow the student to do an extra credit assignment when this option is not available to other students.**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Answer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**7. As a secondary teacher of a student with a disability, I would:**

**Provide the student with a detailed outline of the material to be covered at the beginning of each grading period.**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Answer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**8. As a secondary teacher of a student with a disability, I would:**

**Allow the student to give oral presentations or digitally record assignments rather than producing written products.**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Answer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements:

**9. As a secondary teacher of a student with a disability, I would:**

**Allow the student to take alternative forms of exams (For example a multiple choice test, not an essay test).**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Answer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**10. As a secondary teacher of a student with a disability, I would:**

**Allow another person to rephrase test questions that are not clear to the student.**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Answer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**11. As a secondary teacher of a student with a disability, I would:**

**Allow the student extra time to take tests.**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Answer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**12. As a secondary teacher of a student with a disability, I would:**

**Allow the student to dictate answers to another person.**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Answer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements:

**13. As a secondary teacher of a student with a disability, I would:**

**Allow the student to respond orally to essay questions.**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Answer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**14. As a secondary teacher of a student with a disability, I would:**

**Evaluate the process as well as the final solution, giving partial credit.**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Answer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**15. As a secondary teacher of a student with a disability, I would:**

**Allow the student to use calculators during a test.**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Answer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**16. As a secondary teacher of a student with a disability, I would:**

**Allow misspellings, incorrect punctuation, and poor grammar without penalizing the student.**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Answer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Please indicate your level of agreement or disagreement with the following statements:

**17. As a secondary teacher of a student with a disability, I would:**

**Allow the use of proof readers to assist in the correction of grammar and punctuation.**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Answer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**18. As a secondary teacher of a student with a disability, I would:**

**Allow the use of proof readers to assist in the revision of a student's first draft of a written assignment.**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Answer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**19. As a secondary teacher of a student with a disability, I would:**

**Allow the use of a proof reader to assist the student in the substitution of higher level vocabulary in revisions.**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Answer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

**20. As a secondary teacher of a student with a disability, I would:**

**Make adjustment to grading criteria to help the student pass.**

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
Answer	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>













**41. What is your gender?**

Male      Female  
Answer

**42. Do you teach in a middle or high school?**

Middle School      High School  
Answer

**43. What is your teaching assignment?**

General Education Teacher - Any Subject      Special Education Teacher - Any Subject  
Answer

**44. Do you have a disability?**

Yes      No  
Answer

**45. Do you have a family member that has a disability?**

Yes      No  
Answer

When finished, click the DONE button below

**Appendix F: E-mail Sent to Expert Group**

Justin C. Hawpe  
2506 S. Prescott  
Wichita, KS 67215  
Phone: 316-772-0421  
E-mail: jhawpe@usd259.net

August 27, 2010

Mr./Ms./Dr.  
College or University in Kansas

Dear:

My name is Justin C. Hawpe and I am a doctoral student in Educational Leadership at Baker University. I would like to invite you to serve on an expert panel to assist me with the formulation of a survey regarding secondary teachers' attitudes toward disabled persons and willingness to accommodate students with disabilities. As a part of the survey development process, I am seeking assistance from experts in the field such as you to review and validate my survey.

My research study seeks to serve seven purposes:

1. Identify secondary general education teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities.
2. Identify secondary special education teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities.
3. Identify differences between secondary general education teachers' and secondary special education teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities.
4. Identify secondary general education teachers' willingness to provide selected accommodations.
5. Identify secondary special education teachers' willingness to provide selected accommodations.
6. Identify differences between secondary general education and secondary special education teachers' willingness to accommodate.
7. Identify the relationship of attitudes toward disabled persons and willingness to provide selected accommodations.

The survey consists of two documents that have been combined. The first part of my survey consists of the Attitudes Toward Disabled Persons (ATDP) Form O by Yunker and Block and the second part consists of a set of accommodation statements from a study entitled, Rural Secondary Teachers' Willingness to Provide Accommodations for Students with Learning Disabilities by Lambert, Dodd, Christensen, & Fishbaugh, (1996). For my survey, the language of the ATDP Form O has not been altered in any way. Additionally, the language of the accommodation statements from the study by Lambert et al., (1996) has been modified for my study.

Permission has been received from Hofstra University regarding the use of the ATDP Form O. The ATDP Form O is in the public domain and free for public use. Permission has been obtained from Dale Lambert to use his survey for this research study.

The survey is comprised of 13 sections with a total of 45 questions. Section 1 contains an introduction to the survey. Section 2 contains directions on how to complete the survey. Sections 3 through 7 contain the accommodation statements. Sections 8 through 12 contain the questions from the ATDP Form O. Section 13 contains the demographic questions.

I am requesting that you review my survey for correct and appropriate language. A URL web link was created to enable you to review the survey and can be found at the bottom of this e-mail. When you click the link, an exact copy of the survey will open in your web browser. However, I have added a comment box underneath each question for you to type comments to evaluate the questions. The comment box is on the survey for you only and will not be on the actual survey that will be sent out to the participants of the research study.

Survey URL Web Link: <http://www.surveymonkey.com/s/53VYWMK>  
<<http://www.surveymonkey.com/s/53VYWMK>>

Please contact me if you have any questions or concerns. Your input is greatly appreciated. Thank you for taking the time to review the survey. When the research has been completed, the survey results will be sent to you electronically.

Sincerely,

Justin C. Hawpe

**Appendix G: WPS Research Proposal Forms**

Wichita Public Schools, USD 259

**RESEARCH PROPOSAL**

Investigator(s): Justin C. Hawpe Date:  
07-13-2011

Mailing Address: 2506 S. Prescott, Wichita, KS 67215 Telephone: 316-  
772-0421

E-mail Address: justinchawpe@stu.bakeru.edu, jhawpe@usd259.net

Name and Address of Company, University/College, School/Department: Baker  
University Graduate School of Education, 8001 College Blvd., Ste. 100  
Overland Park, KS 66210  
Phone: 913.491.4432  
Fax: 913.491.0470

University/College Advisor (applicable to students only): Dr. Susan Rogers,  
Baker University Graduate School of Education, 8001 College Blvd., Ste. 100  
Overland Park, KS 66210  
Phone: 913.491.4432  
Fax: 913.491.0470  
E-mail: Susan.Rogers@bakeru.edu

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Complete this form using brief, concise statements and send one copy to Grants & Development Services, Wichita Public Schools, USD 259, 201 N. Water, Wichita, Kansas 67202, for presentation to the Research Council (or e-mail to [rmiller@usd259.net](mailto:rmiller@usd259.net)). This form must be dated and signed by a majority of the USD 259 Research Council members before commencement of any new research project. The investigator(s) agrees upon completion of the research project to submit a copy of the final report to Grants & Development Services, USD 259.

1. Title or brief description of the proposed study:

Secondary Teachers' Attitudes Toward Persons With Disabilities And Willingness To Accommodate

2. Statement of the educational problem:

Limited research currently exists related to Secondary General and Special Education Teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and willingness to provide classroom accommodations. In order to anonymously identify types of teachers that need additional training in working with students with disabilities in classrooms, formal data is needed.

3. Specific purpose and expected outcomes:

Anonymously identify Secondary General and Special Education Teachers' attitudes toward persons with disabilities and willingness to provide classroom accommodations. Identify the difference in attitude between Secondary General and Special Education Teachers. Identify the relationship between attitude and willingness to provide classroom accommodations. Anonymously identify types of teachers through self reported attitudes and willingness who need additional training in fostering an inclusive learning environment. Results of the research will be used to make recommendations in regards to additional training for middle or high school teachers, type of teacher (General or Special Education), and types of classroom accommodations.

4. Hypothesis(es) to be tested (if applicable):

Secondary teachers have a positive attitude towards persons with disabilities (on a scale from -60 to +60).

Secondary teachers are willing to provide timing accommodations for students with disabilities.

Secondary teachers are willing to provide presentation accommodations for students with disabilities.

Secondary teachers are willing to provide response accommodations for students with disabilities.

Secondary teachers are willing to provide setting accommodations for students with disabilities.

There is a relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes towards persons with disabilities and willingness to provide accommodations for students with disabilities.



Females, middle school teachers, special education teachers, individuals with disabilities, and individuals with a family member that has a disability have a positive attitude towards persons with disabilities and are willing to provide accommodations for students with disabilities.

5. What specific USD 259 Strategic Plan Objectives have you identified as being directly related to this proposal? State the relationship (see enclosed listing) and how USD 259 will benefit from this research:

This research study supports the shared belief that "Everyone has worth and dignity and is treated with respect" and the objective that "A coherent, rigorous, safe and nurturing, culturally responsive and inclusive learning community will be fostered and sustained."

6. Description of sample needed: grade levels, students, teachers, and/or management employees, and desired location(s) if there is a preference.

Secondary General and Special Education Teachers grades 6 through 12 that teach any subject.

7. Procedures and methods to be employed. (What will be done by the investigator and participants in the study, data to be gathered, and data gathering instruments to be used?) If possible, attach copy of instrument(s) to be used in gathering data.

The survey consists of two documents that have been combined. The first part of my survey consists of the Attitudes Toward Disabled Persons (ATDP) Form O by Yuker and Block and the second part consists of a set of accommodation statements from a study entitled Rural Secondary Teachers' Willingness to Provide Accommodations for Students with Learning Disabilities by Dale Lambert.

Permission has been received from Hofstra University regarding the use of the ATDP Form O. The ATDP Form O is in the public domain and free for public use. Permission has been obtained from Dale Lambert to use his survey for this research study.

The survey will be administered electronically using [www.surveymonkey.com](http://www.surveymonkey.com) and is comprised of 13 sections with a total of 45 questions. Section 1 contains an introduction to the survey. Section 2 contains directions on how to complete the survey. Sections 3 through 7 contain the accommodation statements. Sections 8 through 12 contain the questions from the ATDP Form O. Section 13 contains the demographic questions.

Results of this survey will be shared with the Wichita Public Schools and may be used as the school district sees fit. Potential uses of the results may include disability awareness, implementation of accommodations, and identifying areas where improvement maybe needed related to the implementation of accommodations and attitudes toward persons with disabilities.

I will need assistance in the administration of the survey. Once completed and approved, the survey will be e-mailed to potential participants. To maximize participation, I am requesting a District Level Administrator e-mail the request to participate to the potential participants. Potential participants are all teachers of any subject area teaching grades 6 through 12 in the Wichita Public Schools.

8. Data treatment and analysis:

Statistical tests used for this research study are t tests for differences between two means and correlation coefficients to measure the strength of relationship between two variables.

9. Expected starting date: October 2011

Duration of study: Two Months

Expected completion date of dissertation or final report: May 2012

10. Protection of human subjects:

- |  |                              |   |
|--|------------------------------|---|
| a. Rights of privacy guaranteed                    | Yes <input type="checkbox"/> | No <input type="checkbox"/>             |
| b. Permission for participation on record          | Yes <input type="checkbox"/> | No <input type="checkbox"/>             |
| c. Clearance by company, university/college/school |                              | Yes <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> |
|  | No <input type="checkbox"/>  |   |



### REQUIREMENTS FOR RESEARCH CHECKLIST

The following requirements have been established for individuals wishing to conduct research in USD 259, Wichita Public Schools:

- 1. Complete "RESEARCH PROPOSAL" form.
- 2. Complete "RIGHTS OF HUMAN SUBJECTS" checklist, if applicable.
- 3. Copy of all survey instruments or questionnaires that will be utilized in conducting the research.
- 4. Copy of proposal abstract or prospectus, if applicable.
- 5. Letter of endorsement from college dean, department head, or research advisor indicating that the project has been reviewed and that the researcher has met all requirements necessary to conduct the proposed research, if applicable.

**All of the above items must be completed and on file at Grants & Development Services, Wichita Public Schools, 201 N. Water, Wichita, Kansas 67202 prior to Research Council Committee approval.**

### RIGHTS OF HUMAN SUBJECTS CHECKLIST

	Yes	No
1. Are you acquainted with the guidelines on the Rights of Human Subjects?	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. Do you explain procedures (in writing or orally) in terms which can reasonably be assumed understandable to subjects (including, and especially, when subject's primary language is not standard English)?	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. Does your treatment include the use or implied use of drugs or electric shock?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
4. Does your treatment include the use of money (including paying subjects to participate)?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
5. Do you explicitly inform subjects of their right to refuse to participate?	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. Do you explicitly inform subjects of rights to withdraw from participation at any time?	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. Do you explicitly offer to answer subject inquiries about your study prior to their participation?	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. Will you assure subjects of anonymity or explicitly inform subjects their responses are not anonymous to the investigator?	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
9. Have you provided adequate safeguards for the data?	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. Could any of your procedures reasonably be construed as anxiety provoking?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
11. Could any of your procedures or questions reasonably be construed as an invasion of an individual's privacy?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
12. Could any of your procedures or questions reasonably be construed as an invasion of an individual's privacy?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
13. Do you intend to use students from your own classes as subjects?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

14. Do your procedures involve any deception of subjects?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
15. Do you offer to debrief subjects at the end of your investigation?	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. Do you obtain informed consent from subjects or the parents or guardians or subjects, or persons responsible for safeguarding data?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
17. Has an endorsement been obtained from university/college advisors or department heads in support of this project? (if applicable)	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
18. Are you going to involve subjects off campus?	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

SCHOOL OF PROFESSIONAL  
AND GRADUATE STUDIES  
Overland Park, Wichita, and Topeka



February 10, 2011

Grants and Development Services  
Dr. Russell Miller  
Wichita Public Schools  
201 N. Water  
Wichita, KS 67202

Dear Dr. Miller:

This letter is written as confirmation that I am the major advisor assigned to work with Justin Hawpe during his doctoral program. The Baker University School of Education Research Analyst and I have approved Justin's study entitled *Perceptions of K-12 General and Special Education Teachers Regarding Classroom Accommodations*.

Justin's study conforms to the following standards of research that are safe and humane:

- No participant will encounter the risk of psychological, social, physical, or legal risk.
- No stress to participants will be involved.
- No participants will be deceived or misled in any way.
- No personal or sensitive information will be requested of participants. However, demographic information will be requested.
- The participants will not be presented with materials, which might be considered to be offensive, threatening, or degrading.
- Participation in the study is voluntary.
- All data utilized in the study will be coded for anonymity. No data from this study will be made part of any permanent record.

If you have any questions regarding Justin's research, please feel free to contact me. My contact information is included below.

Sincerely,

Susan K. Rogers, Ph.D.  
Associate Professor and Ed.D. Program Coordinator  
Baker University School of Education  
8001 College Blvd., Suite 100  
Overland Park, KS 66210  
[vrogers@bakeru.edu](mailto:vrogers@bakeru.edu)  
913-344-1226 (office) 785-230-2831 (cell)

8001 College Boulevard, Suite 100  
Overland Park, Kansas 66210  
913-344-1222 \*fax 913-344-0670  
[www.bakerup.edu](http://www.bakerup.edu)

**Appendix H: Approval From WPS to Conduct Research**



Dr. Lisa Lutz  
Executive Director, Innovation & Evaluation  
316.973.4418, fax 316.973.4536  
E-mail llutz@usd259.net

Aivin E. Morris, Administrative Center  
201 N. Water, Room 410  
Wichita, Kansas 67202

August 3, 2011

Dr. Jodie Hertzog  
Wichita State University  
1845 Fairmount, 404 Lindquist Hall  
Wichita, KS 67260-0025

Re: Research Proposal Dated 7/13/2011

Dear Justin Hawpe,

This letter is in response to your recent resubmission for your research project in the Wichita Public Schools entitled *Perceptions of K-12 General and Special Education Teachers Regarding Classroom Accommodations*. At this time I am pleased to inform you that the Research Council has given approval and the following recommendations for your project:

- As indicated in your proposal, distribution of the ATDP survey will be distributed using district e-mail. Please include the following statement with your e-mail request:
  - This research study has been approved by the USD 259 Research Council, 8/3/2011.

As you proceed with your project, please note that this letter approves the research project as described above and within your application, but that it is incumbent upon the researcher(s) to negotiate distribution. The project also must not unduly increase the workload of any employee of the Wichita Public Schools. If for any reason it becomes necessary to modify what was originally presented in your proposal, the Research Council must be so informed and approve any changes in advance. Copies of any reports related to this research must be submitted to the Office of Innovation & Evaluation and be made available to the participating schools as well. Should you need further information, please feel free to contact me.

On behalf of the USD 259 Research Council,

Dr. Lisa Lutz, Executive Director  
Innovation and Evaluation  
Wichita Public Schools, USD 259



**Appendix I:**

**USD 259 Limited Application for Use of Open Records Form**

KORA Limited Application: 7/1/2011



**USD 259 Limited Application for Use of Open Records Form  
Wichita Public Schools - USD 259  
Wichita KS**

For information or assistance in using the Limited Application, please contact the Human Resources Information Systems Director at 973-4789. KORA allows schools and/or district offices to charge a fee for providing access to or furnishing copies of public records. USD 259 charges \$20 per hour for staff time and 20¢ per page for copying. Fees will be collected in advance. Checks should be made payable to USD 259.

As provided by KSA 45-220(2), the requester certifies that the requester does not intend to, and will not:

1. Use any list of names or addresses contained in or derived from the records or information for the purpose of selling or offering for sale any property or service to any person listed or to any person who resides at any address listed, or
2. Sell, give or otherwise make available to any person any list of names or addresses contained in or derived from the records or information for the purpose of allowing that person to sell or offer for sale any property or service to any person listed or to any person who resides at any address listed.

KSA 2008 Supp. 45-230 makes it unlawful for any person to "knowingly sell, give, or receive, for the purpose of selling or offering for sale any property or service to persons listed therein, any list of names and addresses including but not limited to, employees, students, and vendors contained in or derived from public records." Except:

- a) Lists of names and addresses from public records of the division of vehicles obtained under [K.S.A. 74-2012](#), and amendments thereto;
- b) lists of names and addresses of persons licensed, registered or issued certificates or permits to practice a profession or vocation may be sold or given to, and received by, an organization of persons who practice that profession or vocation for membership, informational or other purposes related to the practice of the profession or vocation;
- c) lists of names and addresses of persons applying for examination for licenses, registrations, certificates or permits to practice a profession or vocation shall be sold or given to, and received by, organizations providing professional or vocational educational materials or courses to such persons for the sole purpose of providing such persons with information relating to the availability of such materials or courses;
- d) lists of names, addresses and other information from voter registration lists may be compiled, used, given, received, sold or purchased by any person, as defined in [K.S.A. 21-3110](#), and amendments thereto, solely for political campaign or election purposes;
- e) lists of names and addresses from the public records of postsecondary institutions as defined in [K.S.A. 74-3201b](#), and amendments thereto, may be given to, and received and disseminated by such institution's separately incorporated affiliates and supporting organizations, which qualify under [section 501\(c\)\(3\) of the federal internal revenue code](#) of 1986, for use in the furtherance of the purposes and programs of such institutions and such affiliates and supporting organizations; and
- f) to the extent otherwise authorized by law.

Records requested: First and Last Names of all General and Special education Teachers who teach in grades 6 through 12 in the Wichita Public Schools \_\_\_\_\_

**I have read, understand, and will comply with the above restrictions on the use of any lists of names and addresses contained in or derived from public records (unless exempt as stated in (a) and (b)).**

Name (Print): Justin C. Hawpe \_\_\_\_\_

On behalf of (Organization/Dept): Division of Special Education, Wichita Public Schools \_\_\_\_\_

Address: 2506 S. Prescott \_\_\_\_\_

City/State/Zip: Wichita, KS 67215 \_\_\_\_\_

Phone: 316-772-0421 \_\_\_\_\_ Fax: \_\_\_\_\_

E-mail: [jhawpe@usd259.net](mailto:jhawpe@usd259.net) \_\_\_\_\_

Signature: *Justin C. Hawpe* \_\_\_\_\_

**Appendix J: Baker University IRB Form**



Date: \_\_\_\_\_


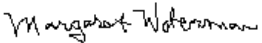
SCHOOL OF EDUCATION  
 NUMBER \_\_\_\_\_  
 GRADUATE DEPARTMENT  
 (IRB USE ONLY)

IRB PROTOCOL

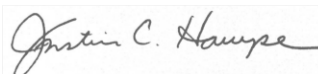
**IRB REQUEST**  
**Proposal for Research**  
**Submitted to the Baker University Institutional Review Board**

**I. Research Investigator(s)** (Students must list faculty sponsor first)

**Department(s)**      **School of Education Graduate Department**

Name	Signature	
1. Dr. Susan Rogers		Major Advisor
2. Margaret Waterman		Research Analyst
3. Dr. Tes Mehring		University Committee Member
4. Dr. Karen Rogers		External Committee Member

Principal Investigator: Justin C. Hawpe  
 Phone: 316-772-0421  
 Email: jhawpe@usd259.net  
 Mailing address: 2506 S. Prescott, Wichita, KS 67215



Faculty sponsor: Dr. Susan Rogers  
 Phone: 913-344-1226  
 Email: srogers@bakeru.edu  
 Expected Category of Review: \_\_\_\_ Exempt    Expedited   \_\_\_\_ Full

**II: Protocol Title**

**SECONDARY TEACHERS' ATTITUDES TOWARDS AND WILLINGNESS TO PROVIDE ACCOMMODATIONS FOR PERSONS WITH DISABILITIES**

**Summary**

The following summary must accompany the proposal. Be specific about exactly what participants will experience, and about the protections that have been included to

safeguard participants from harm. Careful attention to the following may help facilitate the review process:

**In a sentence or two, please describe the background and purpose of the research.**

The purpose of this research is to identify the attitudes of secondary teachers (grades 6 through 12) towards persons with disabilities. Another purpose of this research is to identify to what extent secondary teachers are willing to provide accommodations for students with disabilities. Another purpose of this research is to identify the relationship between secondary teachers' attitudes towards students with disabilities and their willingness to provide accommodations for students with disabilities.

A letter of approval to conduct the survey from the USD 259 Wichita Public Schools Research Council is attached.

**Briefly describe each condition or manipulation to be included within the study.**

The independent variables in this research study are gender (male or female), teaching location (middle school or high school), teaching assignment (general education or special education), has a disability (yes or no), family member has a disability (yes or no).

**What measures or observations will be taken in the study? If any questionnaire or other instruments are used, provide a brief description and attach a copy.**

An electronic survey comprised of 45 questions will be used. See attachment.

**Will the subjects encounter the risk of psychological, social, physical, or legal risk? If so, please describe the nature of the risk and any measures designed to mitigate that risk.**

Subjects will not encounter the risk of psychological, social, physical, or legal risk during this research this study.

**Will any stress to subjects be involved? If so, please describe.**

Subjects will not experience any stress during this research study.

**Will the subjects be deceived or misled in any way? If so, include an outline or script of the debriefing.**

Subjects will not be deceived or misled in any way during this research study.

**Will there be a request for information that subjects might consider to be personal or sensitive? If so, please include a description.**

Subjects will not be asked to provide personal or sensitive information during this research study.

**Will the subjects be presented with materials that might be considered to be offensive, threatening, or degrading? If so, please describe.**

Subjects will not be presented with materials that might be considered to be offensive, threatening, or degrading during this research study.

**Approximately how much time will be demanded of each subject?**

Participation in this survey will take approximately 10 minutes.

**Who will be the subjects in this study? How will they be solicited or contacted? Provide an outline or script of the information which will be provided to subjects prior to their volunteering to participate. Include a copy of any written solicitation as well as an outline of any oral solicitation.**

The subjects of this study are general and special education teachers (grades 6 through 12) in the Wichita Public Schools teaching in the following areas: family and consumer sciences, fine arts, gifted education, junior reserve officer training corps, language arts, mathematics, physical education, science, social studies, students with mild to moderate disabilities, students with severe to profound disabilities, students who are deaf or have hearing impairments, students with visual impairments, technology education, and world languages.

**What steps will be taken to ensure that each subject's participation is voluntary? What if any inducements will be offered to the subjects for their participation?**

No forms of coercion or threats will be used to encourage subject participation. No inducements will be offered to the subjects for their participation. In the email invitation that will be sent to potential participants, it will state clearly that participation in the survey is voluntary and anonymous. Additionally, once opening the survey, the participants will read a statement that states participation in the survey is voluntary and anonymous. Participants may end their participation in the survey at anytime by closing their web browser. Participants are provided with the contact information of the researcher if any questions arise related to voluntary participation.

**How will you ensure that the subjects give their consent prior to participating? Will a written consent form be used? If so, include the form. If not, explain why not.**

Potential participants will be invited to participate in the survey through an email invitation. Clicking on the start button to begin the survey indicates that an individual understands that the survey is voluntary and anonymous. Participants will be informed that taking the survey indicates they give their consent to participate in the survey. A written consent form will not be used. A copy of the email that will be emailed to potential participants is attached to this form.

**Will any aspect of the data be made a part of any permanent record that can be identified with the subject? If so, please explain the necessity.**

No data will be made a part of any permanent record that can be identified with the subject. The data will be collected using Survey Monkey and no data will be collected that contains identification information. The identity of the participants is anonymous.

**Will the fact that a subject did or did not participate in a specific experiment or study be made part of any permanent record available to a supervisor, teacher or employer? If so, explain.**

No information is gathered on whether an employee of the Wichita Public Schools did or did not participate in the survey. Participation in this study is anonymous. Participants are not asked at anytime to provide any data that would reveal their identity. Neither the researcher nor anyone else will know the identities of the participants. Participation in the survey will not be made part of any permanent record available to a supervisor, teacher, or employer.

**What steps will be taken to ensure the confidentiality of the data?**

The data will be collected anonymously using Survey Monkey and access to the data will only be available to the researcher.

**If there are any risks involved in the study, are there any offsetting benefits that might accrue to either the subjects or society?**

Participants in this research study are not subject to any risks during their participation.

**Will any data from files or archival data be used? If so, please describe.**

This research study will not contain data from files or archives.

**Appendix K: Baker University IRB Approval**





December 20, 2011

Justin C. Hawpe  
2506 S. Prescott  
Wichita, KS 67215

Dear Mr. Hawpe:

The Baker University IRB has reviewed your research project application (E-0123-1215-1220-G) and approved this project under Expedited Review. As described, the project complies with all the requirements and policies established by the University for protection of human subjects in research. Unless renewed, approval lapses one year after approval date.

The Baker University IRB requires that your consent form must include the date of approval and expiration date (one year from today). Please be aware of the following:

1. At designated intervals (usually annually) until the project is completed, a Project Status Report must be returned to the IRB.
2. Any significant change in the research protocol as described should be reviewed by this Committee prior to altering the project.
3. Notify the OIR about any new investigators not named in original application.
4. Any injury to a subject because of the research procedure must be reported to the IRB Chair or representative immediately.
5. When signed consent documents are required, the primary investigator must retain the signed consent documents for at least three years past completion of the research activity. If you use a signed consent form, provide a copy of the consent form to subjects at the time of consent.
6. If this is a funded project, keep a copy of this approval letter with your proposal/grant file.

Please inform Office of Institutional Research (OIR) or myself when this project is terminated. As noted above, you must also provide OIR with an annual status report and receive approval for maintaining your status. If your project receives funding which requests an annual update approval, you must request this from the IRB one month prior to the annual update. Thanks for your cooperation. If you have any questions, please contact me.

Sincerely,



Carolyn Doolittle, EdD  
Chair, Baker University IRB

**Appendix L: E-mail Sent to Teacher Union**

My name is Justin C. Hawpe. I work as a Special Education Teaching Specialist for the Wichita Public Schools. Additionally, I am a doctoral candidate in Educational Leadership at Baker University conducting research regarding students with disabilities.

I will administer a survey during the month of January 2012. General and special education teachers, grades 6 through 12 will receive an email with a url web link to Survey Monkey. Teachers will be asked to evaluate statements regarding working with students with disabilities using a Likert scale. Participation in this survey is completely anonymous. Furthermore, teacher participation is voluntary. Teacher participation in this survey is extremely important for the completion of my research study as the results will provide useful information for district leaders who plan professional development for teachers who work with students with disabilities.

I wanted to notify your organization in case you are contacted by individuals questioning the legitimacy of the survey or the requirements for participation. The survey has been approved by the USD 259 Research Council (see attachment) and by the Institutional Review Board of Baker University (see attachment). If individuals contact you with questions regarding my survey, please advise them to contact me via telephone or email. On the next page, I have included the text of the email that teachers will receive.

Please contact me if you have any questions. Thank you.

Justin C. Hawpe  
Ed.D. Candidate  
Baker University, Graduate School of Education  
E-mail: justinchawpe@stu.bakeru.edu

2506 S. Prescott  
Wichita, KS 67215  
Phone: 316-772-0421

**Appendix M: E-mails Sent to Teachers**

**First Email Sent to Teachers:**

**This research study has been approved by the USD 259 Research Council, 8/3/2011**

To All Middle and High School General and Special Education Teachers:

My name is Justin C. Hawpe and I currently work as a Special Education Teaching Specialist for the Wichita Public Schools; however, I previously taught special education at South High School. As a doctoral candidate in educational leadership at Baker University, I am conducting research regarding students with disabilities.

I would like to invite middle and high school general and special education classroom teachers of all subjects to participate in my research study by completing a brief survey. This survey is for academic research only and your completion of this survey will be a valuable part of my research study. Your participation is extremely important for the completion of my research study as the results will provide useful information for district leaders who plan professional development for teachers who work with students with disabilities.

- The survey will take you approximately 10 minutes to complete
- The survey is completed online using Survey Monkey and you do not have to create an account to participate in the survey
- The survey can be completed anywhere you have internet access
- The survey is **voluntary and anonymous**
- Individuals who are not classroom teachers of record such as Data Leaders, Instructional Coaches or Teaching Specialists are asked not to participate

If you have any questions or concerns about this survey, please contact me. Results of the study will be made available upon request. Thank you for your participation.

**Please click on the following link to begin the survey:**

<https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/WJ2LRXH>

Justin C. Hawpe  
Ed.D. Candidate  
Baker University, Graduate School of Education  
E-mail: justinchawpe@stu.bakeru.edu  
Phone: 316-772-0421

**Second E-mail Sent to Teachers:**

**If you have not yet taken this survey, there is still time. If you already have taken it, thank you for your participation.**

**This research study has been approved by the USD 259 Research Council, 8/3/2011**

To All Middle and High School General and Special Education Teachers:

My name is Justin C. Hawpe and I currently work as a Special Education Teaching Specialist for the Wichita Public Schools; however, I previously taught special education at South High School. As a doctoral candidate in educational leadership at Baker University, I am conducting research regarding students with disabilities.

I would like to invite middle and high school general and special education classroom teachers of all subjects to participate in my research study by completing a brief survey. This survey is for academic research only and your completion of this survey will be a valuable part of my research study. Your participation is extremely important for the completion of my research study as the results will provide useful information for district leaders who plan professional development for teachers who work with students with disabilities.

- The survey will take you approximately 10 minutes to complete
- The survey is completed online using Survey Monkey and you do not have to create an account to participate in the survey
- The survey can be completed anywhere you have internet access
- The survey is **voluntary and anonymous**
- Individuals who are not classroom teachers of record such as Data Leaders, Instructional Coaches or Teaching Specialists are asked not to participate

If you have any questions or concerns about this survey, please contact me. Results of the study will be made available upon request. Thank you for your participation.

Please click on the following link to begin the survey:

Justin C. Hawpe  
Ed.D. Candidate  
Baker University, Graduate School of Education  
E-mail: justinchawpe@stu.bakeru.edu  
Phone: 316-772-0421

**Third and Fourth E-mail Sent to Teachers:**

**Recently you received a request to participate in my research study by completing a brief survey. If you have already complete d the survey, please disregard this request. If you have not yet taken this survey, there is still time. If you already have taken it, thank you for your participation.**

**This research study has been approved by the USD 259 Research Council, 8/3/2011**

To All Middle and High School General and Special Education Teachers:

My name is Justin C. Hawpe and I currently work as a Special Education Teaching Specialist for the Wichita Public Schools; however, I previously taught special education at South High School. As a doctoral candidate in educational leadership at Baker University, I am conducting research regarding students with disabilities.

I would like to invite middle and high school general and special education classroom teachers of all subjects to participate in my research study by completing a brief survey. This survey is for academic research only and your completion of this survey will be a valuable part of my research study. Your participation is extremely important for the completion of my research study as the results will provide useful information for district leaders who plan professional development for teachers who work with students with disabilities.

- The survey will take you approximately 10 minutes to complete
- The survey is completed online using Survey Monkey and you do not have to create an account to participate in the survey
- The survey can be completed anywhere you have internet access
- The survey is **voluntary and anonymous**
- Individuals who are not classroom teachers of record such as Data Leaders, Instructional Coaches or Teaching Specialists are asked not to participate

If you have any questions or concerns about this survey, please contact me. Results of the study will be made available upon request. Thank you for your participation.

Please click on the following link to begin the survey:

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