

THE UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA

THE EFFECTS OF LABELS ON ELEMENTARY TEACHERS'
AND ADMINISTRATORS' PLACEMENT DECISIONS
FOR SPECIAL NEEDS CHILDREN

by

Jack A. Elliott

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A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies of
the University of Manitoba in partial fulfillment of the requirements
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Abstract

This study investigated the effects of labeling on the educational placement decisions of elementary teachers and administrators. Two groups of randomly selected elementary teachers and two groups of randomly assigned principals and vice-principals were presented with labeled and unlabeled conditions. The data were gathered through the use of the Rucker-Gable Educational Programming Scale which presents unlabeled conditions and the Modified Rucker-Gable Educational Programming Scale which presents labeled conditions.

The Rucker-Gable Educational Programming Scale consists of 30 behavioral descriptions of children who are either mentally retarded, emotionally disturbed, or learning disabled. The descriptions do not include labels. Permission was obtained to use the modified version of the scale which uses the same behavioral descriptions, and includes the appropriate labels with each description.

Six null hypotheses were tested in this study. The first null hypothesis was investigated by testing the difference between elementary teachers' and administrators' placement decisions for labeled handicapped children. The teachers placed the labeled children in more segregated classroom settings.

The second null was rejected. The alternate hypothesis which stated that elementary teachers and administrators differ significantly in their placement decisions for unlabeled handicapped

children was accepted. The teachers placed the unlabeled children in more restrictive settings.

The third null hypothesis was investigated by testing the difference between elementary teachers' placement decisions for exceptional children described with labeled and unlabeled descriptions. The teachers placed labeled exceptional children in significantly more restrictive settings.

The fourth null hypothesis was rejected. The alternate hypothesis was accepted which stated that administrators place labeled handicapped children in significantly different placements from those they choose for identical handicapped children who are not labeled. The administrators placed labeled children in more segregated classroom settings.

The fifth null hypothesis was investigated by testing the difference between teachers' placement decisions for labeled handicapped children and administrators' decisions for identical children who are not labeled. The teachers placed labeled handicapped children in more segregated placements.

The sixth null hypothesis was investigated by testing for significant differences between teachers' placement decisions for unlabeled handicapped children and administrators' decisions for identical children who are labeled. The administrators placed labeled children in more restrictive classroom settings.

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Chapter I

Introduction

Attitudes toward special needs people vary widely. Such attitudes range from avoidance to overprotectiveness; and from rejection to acceptance. Historically, and even in modern times, certain societies put to death those who were born physically deformed or mentally retarded (Wolfensberger, 1972). It is only recently in history that legislation has been passed in most places in North America which not only recognizes the dignity of the handicapped individual but enables him to be educated and/or rehabilitated (e.g., Education for All Handicapped Children Act [Public Law 94-142]). Such legislation has resulted in major efforts to develop the potential of handicapped individuals, to help them to live productive lives, and to become contributing members of society. These recent government acts may reflect a more positive attitude toward handicapped people.

While society and government set the tone and make possible the education and/or rehabilitation of handicapped people, much of the success for their endeavors depends upon the attitudes of individual teachers and principals. For the past two decades there has been growing interest in the study of attitudes toward special needs children. It therefore appears pertinent to study the attitudes of teachers and administrators who work with many types of children.

A related concern is the practice of applying labels to individuals. Educators, in particular, are open to criticism because

in identifying children who require special services, terminology is frequently used which may be perceived as having negative connotations, e.g., learning disabilities, emotionally disturbed, and mentally retarded. Use of labels is widespread in legislation, in teacher education, in parent pressure groups, and in establishing educational programs.

A survey of the literature indicates that there are at least six effects to be considered when special needs children are labeled. Many labels originate from the medical model, and as such, have little relevance for educational programming (Deno, 1970). Administrative convenience appears to be one of the only benefits of such labeling.

A second outcome is the tendency to stereotype or to ascribe characteristics of the group to individuals through the use of labels (Reynolds & Balow, 1972). This practice frequently prejudices the interests of the individuals concerned.

The fact that labels tend to become stigmatic and are attached to individuals raises a third issue (Reynolds & Balow, 1972; Jones, 1972). Very often the result is scapegoating and an excuse for poor programs or poor teaching.

Labels or categories of people and of programs are established by legislation. Labeling children is perpetuated because each category creates its own limitations and unique services (Blatt, 1972). In addition, as Deno (1970) points out, each new category tends to create the need for additional categories in order to accommodate those who are excluded.

Jones (1972) believes that insufficient attention has been given to the fact that some labels imply deficiencies and shortcomings.

which can create the accompanying problems of lowered self-concept and expectations which interfere with children's optimum development. The fifth issue, then, is the potential self-debilitating effect that a label may have on a child's personality adjustment.

The self-fulfilling prophecy phenomenon is the sixth issue. Teachers may associate labels with negative expectations concerning children's abilities, behaviors, and potentials (Jones, 1972). This can result in a change in the way teachers treat children, in a change in their teaching strategies and in their curriculum planning, and it is possible that teachers would expect much less from the children than they are capable of achieving. The consequences are that children function according to the prediction of the label.

A major concern is the developing of an understanding of the effects of labels on the expectations of teachers and administrators, and the variables that contribute to these expectations (Reynolds & Balow, 1972; Jones, 1972).

In Manitoba, special needs children have received increased attention since the Second Session, Thirtieth Legislature, 1975, when the Manitoba Legislature passed Bill 58, which stated:

Every school board shall provide or make provision for the education of all resident persons who have the right to attend school and who require special programs for their education. (Bill 58, Section 465(22), 1975)

Bill 58 was not proclaimed at the time so that teachers, parents, school divisions, agencies, and others could make suitable

preparations to meet their responsibilities. Due to a change in the provincial government, Bill 58 will never be proclaimed. Its intent has been incorporated within Bills 22 and 23 which are recent revisions of the Public Schools Act.

The philosophic base prevails. Basically, it is a "do what is best for the child" approach with the view that a child benefits most from an educational placement which is closest to the regular school program, and which provides enough supports to meet his/her individual needs. The terms "integration," "mainstreaming," and "normalization," are frequently used, and refer to the provision of a continuum of services which meet the child's educational needs in the least restrictive setting possible. It can be defined generally as a move to include some handicapped children in regular classes as opposed to educating them in segregated, homogeneous classes. Figure 1 illustrates this continuum of services. The inverted pyramid indicates that fewer children are served at each successive level away from the regular classroom setting and each level represents an increase in the costs and in the level of educational support services required to meet the individual needs of the children served within that setting.

During the past several years, there has been a trend toward partial integration of special needs children into regular classes, particularly in areas such as physical education, art, and music. Several special education service delivery system models have been developed and used to meet the educational needs of handicapped children (Reynolds, 1962; Deno, 1970). Generally, the models propose

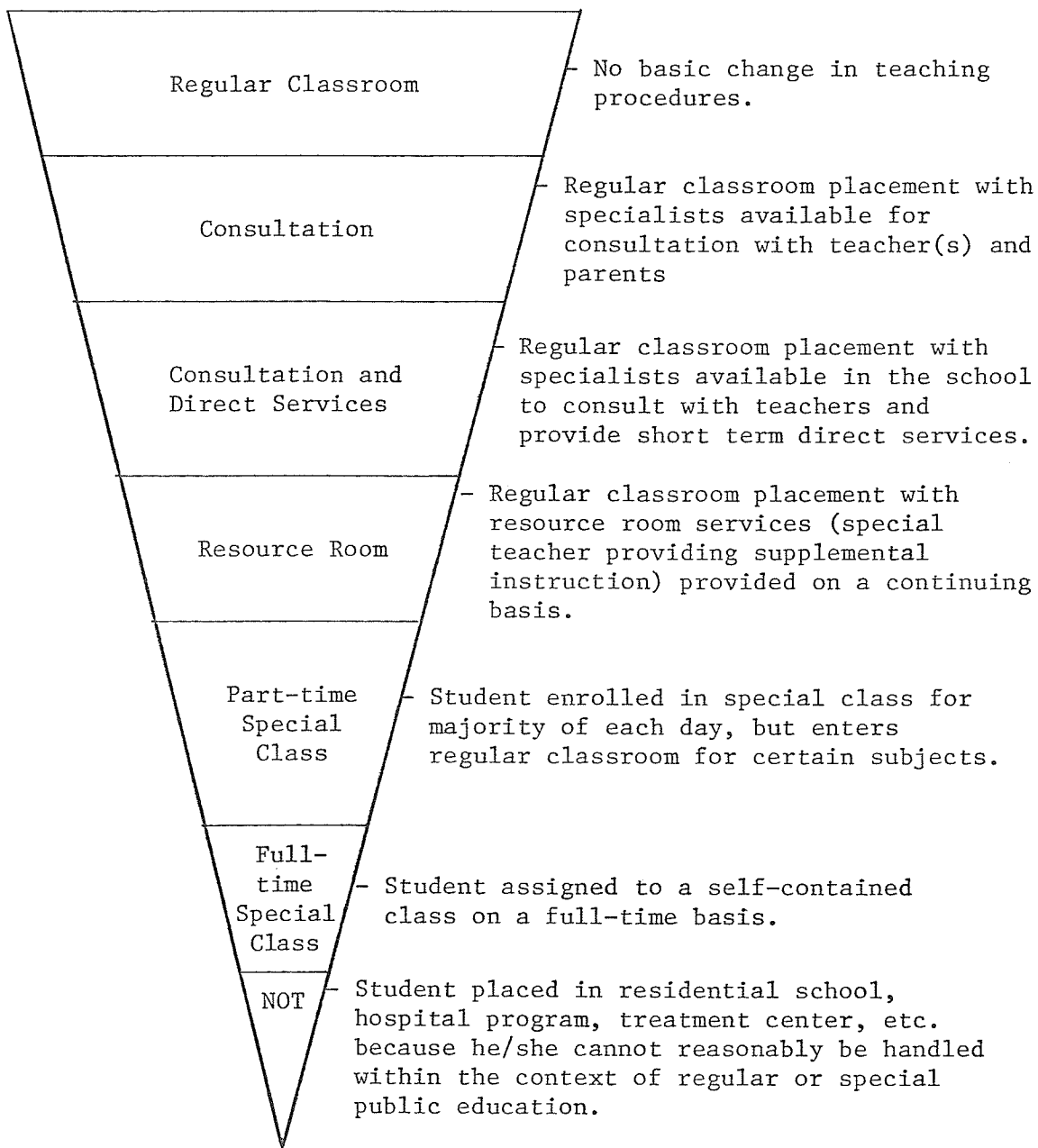


Figure 1. Continuum of placements for respondents to RGEPS and to Modified RGEPS*

*An adaptation from Rucker and Gable (1974).

a continuum of services which involves the least restrictive alternative for placing a child in a program other than a regular class.

The implications of integrating special needs children and subsequent moves toward implementation have caused a great deal of concern among regular classroom teachers and principals.

The teachers' major concerns are in the classroom where they contemplate problems in instruction and in classroom management. School principals, by virtue of their leadership role, must view the special needs child in the broader context of the total school program as well as the community served by their schools.

If the principal supports the integration of special needs children, then as educational leader s/he can help to ensure the success of such a program. On the other hand, should the principal be reluctant to integrate these children, the chances of achieving success are likely to be very limited (Metzner, 1970; Beery, 1974). Even directives from the Superintendent's office will not easily overcome the effects of a negative view. Consequently, principals' attitudes are an important aspect of integration.

It is imperative that the effects of labeling children on teachers' and principals' attitudes and expectations be studied thoroughly. Also, it is important to determine whether there are differences in attitudes and expectations held by teachers and those held by administrators. Regular class teachers and principals are exposed to many special needs children and, therefore, the attitudes

of teachers and principals are of interest. Are there differences in how these two groups perceive exceptional children? Do teachers or principals, as a group, hold more positive attitudes toward exceptional children?

Purpose of the Study

It was the intent of this study to explore two methods of describing special needs children to regular elementary classroom teachers and to elementary principals and vice-principals, and to determine the effects of these methods on the teachers' and administrators' attitudes toward and expectations for these children.

As we proceed toward implementation of the concept of integration and its intent, we must ask ourselves many questions, one of which is, "How can individual special needs children best be described to teachers and administrators?" The self-fulfilling prophecy phenomenon suggests that the use of labels may cause teachers and administrators to respond to certain expectancies conveyed by those labels. If this is so, the use of labels should not be the only means of describing special needs children.

There are at least two other ways of describing special needs children to teachers and administrators which may be more positive in their effects. One method is to describe children in terms of their pertinent behavior and include an appropriate label. It is possible that the inclusion of the behavioral description may remove the negative effects of the label. It may be that the influence of labels is so strong that educators will focus on the labels and will ignore the accompanying behavioral descriptions.

A second method is to describe children solely in terms of their pertinent behaviors, with no labels included (Deno, 1970). It would certainly establish a case against the use of labels if this method were found to produce fewer negative results.

For the purpose of this study, an instrument was selected which asks educators to determine the most appropriate educational placement for children who are portrayed in behavioral terms. Subjects were asked to read each item and select the placement they believed was most appropriate for each child. Possible educational placements ranged from regular classroom to placement outside the public school system. In order to determine the influence of labels, permission was obtained from Dr. T. Gillung to use a second form of the instrument which he had developed by modifying the items to include the appropriate labels based on the recommendation of 20 experts in special education (Rucker & Gable, 1974; Gillung, 1976). If labels influence the expectations of teachers and administrators, it will be reflected in the kinds of educational placements chosen for the children.

Significance of the Study

Although it has been known for many years that successful educational programs for special needs children are largely dependent upon the attitudes of teachers and administrators, the attitudes of teachers and administrators toward integration and toward placement of exceptional children have not been adequately studied. This is particularly true in Manitoba.

This study could be a significant aid to school divisions,

administrators, and teachers in making decisions about the readiness of teachers, principals, and vice-principals to accept placement of special needs children into particular classroom settings. Also, it could be a useful predictor of possible success or failure of attempts to integrate.

The basic significance of this study is that:

1. It represents an attempt to determine a method of describing special needs children so that their handicapping conditions are viewed as positively as possible.

2. It represents an attempt to indicate that part of teachers' and administrators' roles is to foster positive attitudes toward special needs children. Since teacher attitudes are so important to a child's success in school, any method of determining even one influence on these attitudes and expectations is certainly useful.

3. It will provide some information on the impact administrators are likely to have on placement decisions for special needs children. Also, it is very likely that teachers will tend not to carry out new ideas and programming attempts without the approval of their administrators.

4. It may reveal information that will influence special education identification procedures and program changes in a positive direction for integrating special needs children.

5. It may reveal data which could be used to influence the direction of future teacher training activities and courses concerning special needs children.

The study was designed to permit the testing of the following null hypotheses:

Hypotheses

Ho₁: There will be no significant differences between regular class elementary teachers' and administrators' educational placements of handicapped children who are labeled as measured by the Modified Rucker-Gable Educational Programming Scale.

Ho₂: There will be no significant differences between regular class elementary teachers' and administrators' educational placements of handicapped children who are not labeled as measured by the Rucker-Gable Educational Programming Scale.

Ho₃: There will be no significant differences between regular class elementary teachers' educational placements of handicapped children who are labeled and handicapped children with identical behaviors who are not labeled as measured by the Modified Rucker-Gable Educational Programming Scale and the Rucker-Gable Educational Programming Scale.

Ho₄: There will be no significant differences between administrators' educational placements of handicapped children who are labeled and handicapped children with identical behaviors who are not labeled as measured by the Modified Rucker-Gable Educational Programming Scale and the Rucker-Gable Educational Programming Scale.

Ho₅: There will be no significant differences between regular class elementary teachers' educational placements of handicapped children who are labeled as measured by the Modified Rucker-Gable

Educational Programming Scale and administrators' educational placements of handicapped children with identical behaviors who are not labeled as measured by the Rucker-Gable Educational Programming Scale.

Ho₆: There will be no significant differences between regular class elementary teachers' educational placements of handicapped children who are not labeled as measured by the Rucker-Gable Educational Programming Scale and administrators' educational placements of handicapped children with identical behaviors and who are labeled as measured by the Modified Rucker-Gable Educational Programming Scale.

Limitations of the Study

There are several limitations which should be recognized when considering the interpretation of the results of this study:

(a) Since the responses were limited to regular class elementary teachers and to elementary principals and vice-principals in St. James-Assiniboia School Division No. 2, the responses are not necessarily indicative of the attitudes, beliefs, and effects of labels on educators in other school divisions where similar special needs children and programs might exist. (b) There was no statistical analysis of the study's population to determine the effects of variables such as age, years of training, special education courses taken, years of teaching and/or administrative experience, and sizes of schools. (c) A random sample for the population of regular class elementary teachers in St. James-Assiniboia School Division No. 2 was used in the study. This sample

may not be representative of the entire population of elementary teachers even within this one school division. (d) A further limitation of this study may be the disproportionate number of males in the population of principals and vice-principals when compared to the number of males in the population (and therefore possibly in the random sample) of regular class elementary teachers. (e) A further limitation is the inability to control each subject's interpretation of the statements to which they were asked to respond.

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study certain terms which are basic to this research are defined as follows:

Alternative Programming: Synonym for integration, mainstreaming, and the continuum of the cascade model of special education services. Each of these terms conveys the general concept of educating special needs children as much as possible in the regular classroom with additional supportive, consultative, and placement services as needed.

Continuum of Services: The range of possible educational placements for instructional purposes including regular class placement with no educational support services through full-time special class placement to exclusion from public school programming which represents the farthest extreme on the continuum from integration within the regular classroom.

Integration: Conveys the concept of educating special needs children as much as possible in the regular classroom with additional support services provided as required.

Least Restrictive Alternative: Refers to a process which

applies to a full range of services for special needs children who are to be served in the regular classroom where possible, moved from this setting only as far as necessary based on the needs of the child, and returned as soon as possible. Placement must be the least restrictive for the child and still meet his/her needs.

Exceptional Children - Handicapped Children - Special Needs Children: Refer to children who manifest mental, physical emotional or social characteristics to such an extent that they require a modification of the regular school program in order to maximize their potential. For the purposes of this study, these terms are used synonymously, and refer to children who are labeled mentally retarded, learning disabled, and emotionally disturbed. Appropriate program placement is determined by agreement among parents, teachers, and administrators.

Regular Class Elementary Teacher(s) - Elementary Teacher(s): Any teacher(s) teaching regular class children in kindergarten to sixth grade.

Administrators: Refers specifically to principals and vice-principals of elementary schools.

Balance of Presentation

The research study is presented as follows:

1. A review of the related literature in Chapter II, includes literature on the effects of labeling, on the attitudes of teachers and administrators toward special needs children, and on educators' expectations for exceptional children.

2. A description of the study, in Chapter III, discusses the

instruments used, the sample population, the methodology, and the procedures used to analyze the data.

3. The results of the study are presented in Chapter IV. The data relating to each hypothesis are presented and tested, and decisions are made as to which hypotheses are to be retained.

4. The concluding chapter, Chapter V, consists of a summary of the study, a discussion of the results, recommendations, and suggestions for further research.

Chapter II

Review of the Related Literature

The writer will present a review of the related literature in three main divisions: the literature relating to the effects of labeling handicapped children, the literature concerning educators' attitudes toward handicapped children and, the literature pertaining to educators' expectations of exceptional children. Following this review, the relationship of this study to previous research will be considered.

Effects of Labeling

Labels create self-fulfilling prophecies (Erikson, 1962) and abnormal behavior allegedly is caused by negative labels. Labels, teacher attitudes, and expectations have been at the centre of much of the discussion in special education for more than a decade. In spite of negative or contradictory results from a number of studies (Macmillan, Jones, & Aloia, 1974) it is a common belief that labels are solely or at least mainly responsible for stereotyping, lasting stigmas, humiliation, reduced performance, and diminished opportunities (Dunn, 1968; Mercer, 1977).

The potential influence of labeling on performance has been reported as a complex sequence of events ranging from attention to the label, changes in interactions with the child, changes in the child's self-concept, and lowered achievement (Barber, Forgione, Chaves, Calverley, McPeake, & Bowen, 1969). If teachers do not

attend to the label or do not form an expectancy, it is very unlikely that subsequent events will result in a self-fulfilling prophecy.

Results of several studies on the development and maintenance of stereotypes connected with labels are contradictory. Researchers using simulated methods frequently have concluded that labels result in negative expectancies (Foster, Ysseldyke, & Reese, 1975; Ysseldyke & Foster, 1978). Usually these studies exposed student teachers to labeling conditions (e.g., educable mentally handicapped or emotionally disturbed) and then attempted to measure their attitudes and expectancies. Generally those subjects with more knowledge of special education (e.g., education students and students in courses on special needs children) were influenced more by labels than subjects with less knowledge.

Frequently the results of studies on the effects of labels which were conducted in regular classroom settings with teachers who had opportunities to be in contact with the labeled students have been negative. Evidently, teachers develop expectancies more from observation of children's actual behavior than from the labels introduced by researchers (Dusek & O'Connell, 1973; Humphreys & Stubbs, 1977).

The number of studies which follow indicate that labeling is likely to have varying effects.

Guskin (1963) studied the effects of labels and prior information as potential influences upon the considered subnormality of children. Student teachers were asked to rate the behavior of four mentally handicapped children. The ratings were made after two observations, the first when the children were at play and then when talking to a

teacher. The subjects in the experimental group were given different labeling information about the children (i.e., that the child had a speech problem, that the child was mentally handicapped, or the child's correct age). The control group received no information prior to observing the children. Communicating the children's correct ages and indicating the existence of speech problems resulted in greater perceived subnormality than when the children were labeled mentally retarded.

Combs and Harper (1967) presented labeled and unlabeled descriptions of mentally deficient, psychopathic, cerebral palsied, and schizophrenic children to experienced and inexperienced teachers in order to determine whether or not their attitudes toward these children would be influenced. They concluded that labels did affect teachers' attitudes toward the children. Combs and Harper stated that their results indicated:

. . . that professionals should be extremely careful, if not reluctant, to use clinical labels in describing a child to teachers. It is questionable what the effects of such information may be on the teacher's perception of the child, but it has been shown that varying effects do occur. For some labels it is possible that a neutral, or even positive effect may result. For other labels, however, it is likely that the effects will be negative and result in the teacher behaving toward the child in a manner that will foster elements of his behavior that are making him exceptional.

(1967, p. 402)

Salvia, Clark, and Ysseldyke (1973) asked student teachers in regular and special education to view and to rate the behavior of normal children who were labeled gifted, normal, or mentally handicapped. The children were rated on (a) attitude and reaction toward adults, (b) attitudes toward tasks, (c) attitudes toward own performance, (d) motor reactions, and (e) verbalization. They found that those children labeled as gifted were seen more positively than children labeled normal on their attitudes toward tasks and their attitudes toward their own performance. Those children labeled mentally retarded were rated less favorably in all areas than those children labeled gifted and normal.

Labels appear to focus on the areas of weakness rather than enhancing the strengths in behavior (Smith & Greenberg, 1975). Gillung and Rucker (1977) found that labels carried a negative connotation that resulted in lower teacher expectations for both regular and special class teachers. They concluded that teachers apparently perceive a child described with a label as having more severe academic or behavioral problems and as needing more intensive support services than the same child portrayed without a label.

Foster, Ysseldyke, and Reese (1975) investigated the expectations for a normal fourth grade child who was portrayed as both normal and emotionally disturbed. They concluded that the disturbed label had negative effects. Similar findings have been demonstrated for the learning disabilities label (Foster, Schmidt, & Sabatino, 1976).

In his study Gillung (1976) concluded that elementary regular education teachers and special education teachers place handicapped children who are labeled in more segregated educational settings than children with identical behaviors who are not labeled. Also, he found that urban regular education teachers place handicapped children in more segregated educational settings than suburban teachers while urban and suburban special education teachers do not differ in their placement of handicapped children. His results indicated also that regular and special education teachers with high and low levels of teaching experience do not differ in their placement of handicapped children.

In their investigation of the effects of labels and the demands upon teachers to be objective in their assessment of children Foster and Salvia (1977) concluded that:

What teachers think they see is affected by both labels and the demand to be objective. They are more likely to see nonexistent behaviors when a child is labeled and when there is no demand to be objective . . . Even under a demand to be objective, teachers perceived more deviance when the child was labeled learning disabled than when he was labeled normal. Without the demand to be objective, they perceived even more deviance when the child was labeled learning disabled. Thus, although the demand to be objective reduced the impact of the label, it did not remove it. (p. 534)

The effects of labels and label appropriate and label inappropriate behavior on individuals' attitudes toward the disability and acceptability of that behavior was investigated by Algozzine, Mercer, and Counterline (1977). Their findings implied that labels may produce limiting tolerances for acceptable behavior. Individuals possessing deviancy related labels are expected to behave in stereotyped fashions. They concluded that some of the disabilities believed to exist in children may be the result of disturbances in the interface between the child's behavior and other individuals' expectancies toward that behavior as determined by the assigned label.

Jacobs (1978) used the learning disability label as a means of creating bias in a teacher population in order to determine whether or not the communication of the label had an effect on a teacher's ability to observe and interpret children's behaviors in an objective manner. The results indicated that the label may affect the teacher's ability to teach the child and may affect the teacher's ability to make objective educational assessments based on observation of the child's behavior. Negatively perceived labels affect teachers' abilities to make objective evaluations.

The effects of the emotionally disturbed and learning disabled labels on initial teacher bias and on the ability to disregard stereotyped expectancies when confronted with behavior inconsistent with those labels was examined by Ysseldyke and Foster (1978). They concluded that the labels produced initial negative prejudices which were retained upon observance of behavior inconsistent with those

labels. Furthermore, this study established that labeling does result in a change of teacher expectancy toward the child, and this change can alter a teacher's objective evaluation of the child's behavior.

Reschly and Lamprecht (1979) applied the methodology used in studies which reported significant effects of labels, but applied these in a simulation which consisted of longer exposure to the labeled child. Their results cast some doubt on alleged, direct, causal effects of labels and on the prediction that labels cause deviance and result in self-fulfilling prophecies. This evidence suggests that teachers do not retain the expectancy from the label if sufficient opportunity is provided to observe behavior that is inconsistent with the label.

They concluded that the amount and type of information provided are crucial variables in expectancy. A rather large labeling effect occurs when teachers are given little or no information other than the label, and no, or only brief, opportunity to observe the child. It is not that a little knowledge is dangerous, but rather that decisions made in the absence of relevant information are likely to be stereotyped in nature. The results from this study suggest that teachers ultimately form expectancies on the basis of actual behavior. Labels may cause a significant effect on teacher expectancies only when other information is not available.

Abroms and Kodera (1979) found that the four most acceptable handicaps (ulcer, asthma, diabetes, and arthritis) were identical (although not in the same ordinal position) with those identified in

Tringo's study (1970). Of particular interest to them was the extremely low acceptance of cerebral palsy, mental retardation, and mental illness; each of which were viewed as less acceptable than cancer. It should be noted that in this study only handicap labels were given, without descriptions or indications of severity. Their results indicated that three factors characterized the organizational structure of the overall rankings: organic impairments, sensorimotor impairments, and functional impairments. Functional impairments, such as learning disabilities, speech defects, mental illness, and mental retardation, account for the largest number of children receiving special education services. They found that learning disabilities were ranked far more favorably than mental illness or mental retardation.

Summary

Although many people have spoken against the use of labels, the research is not that conclusive. When the mentally retarded label was used, it usually was perceived as having a negative influence. When the differences between labels and behavioral descriptions were researched, the behavioral descriptions usually were viewed more positively.

Attitudes Toward Special Needs Children

It has been stated frequently that successful integration of special needs students depends largely on the teachers who are working with these children in the regular classroom. The explanation for this may have been summarized best by Kidd (1964)

when he wrote:

. . . No matter how defined, no matter the degree of accompanying stigmata . . . of physical impairment; no matter the severity of the malfunction . . . once an individual has been judged inadequate, then that and that alone constitutes his handicap. (p. 1)

Valletutti (1969) wrote that "Segregation or integration is not the critical issue. The values and attitudes of teachers and their effects on the pupil's self-perception and performance are the key questions" (p. 407).

Haring, Stern, and Cruikshank (1958) stated that any plans for integrating special needs children depend largely upon "how the teacher feels toward the exceptional child." Also, they noted that the attitudes, prejudices, needs, and conflicts which teachers have are reflected in their behavior and influence the social growth of exceptional children. They discovered that teachers reacted negatively to the idea of having a blind or physically handicapped child in their classrooms. These teachers expressed fear, rejection, and pity. At least two other studies provide support for the view that the physical context is an important factor which influences attitudes toward handicapped people.

In his study of hierarchical preferences toward special needs groups through the use of social distance scales, Tringo (1970) learned that when subjects were requested to rank their preference toward various handicaps, physical disabilities were ranked first,

sensory disabilities were ranked second, and disabilities evidencing brain damage were ranked third. Mentally retardation was ranked low regularly.

A general factor concerning attitudes toward handicapped people was identified by Jones (1972). This factor, with three separate components, represented a commonality in attitudes across various kinds of special needs. The three separate components were: attitudes toward physical handicaps, attitudes toward psychological handicaps, and attitudes toward the mildly retarded and non-exceptional. Again the physical context in which the handicap is presented appears to be an important factor when considering attitudes toward special needs people.

Regular and special education teachers' levels of information about, and attitudes toward, mental deficiency were investigated by Semmel (1959). The results indicated that special education teachers have significantly greater knowledge concerning mental retardation than do regular class teachers. Special education teachers displayed extensive information involving all aspects of knowledge as assessed by his questionnaire. Regular class teachers displayed significant gaps in their knowledge of the medical and vocational aspects of mental retardation. No significant differences in the two groups positive attitudes, negative attitudes, and "no attitude" scores were found. The two groups were equal in their high acceptance of mentally handicapped people as determined by the positive attitude scores. Semmel concluded that his results imply that having more

knowledge does not necessarily result in more positive attitudes toward mentally retarded people.

Very little research in the realm of attitudes toward the mentally handicapped had been completed when Efron and Efron (1967) published their study. They attributed this lack of research, in part, to the lack of instrumentation. They developed an instrument which they used to measure the attitudes of educators and college students toward mentally retarded people. They discovered that teachers of mentally handicapped children and college students in the field of mental retardation were more optimistic about a retarded person's future, less supportive of segregation and institutional placement of retarded people, and more inclined to view cultural deprivation as a significant cause of mental retardation than were people in general education and in non-education courses. Teachers of retarded students were the only group to differ from any of the others in their acceptance of intimate contact with retarded people. This is viewed as a "corroboration of the notion that personal contact is probably the only way of changing the more personal and less intellectual facet of attitudes" (p. 107).

Fine (1967) investigated the ways in which special and regular class teachers differ in their attitudes and expectations concerning educable mentally retarded children. His results indicate that special class teachers place more emphasis on personal and social adjustment factors than regular class teachers do. Special class teachers appear to be less demanding than regular class teachers in

requiring low ability students to "try harder." Fine concluded that special classes may understimulate educable mentally retarded children in the area of academic performance.

The attitudes of certain groups of teachers toward the educational placement of exceptional children, and the relationship of these attitudes to their knowledge of the area of exceptionality, and to the type and amount of teaching experience were examined by Jordan and Proctor (1969). They found that special education teachers were significantly more informed than were regular classroom teachers, but that their attitudes toward integration were not different from those displayed by regular teachers. Their results also indicated that although knowledge increases with experience, positive attitudes toward classroom placements do not. As a result of their findings, Jordan and Proctor pointed out the following:

Serving as a consultant about exceptional children was related to higher knowledge about them, but did not indicate more "realistic" classroom acceptance. This finding raises questions concerning the kinds of attitudes that consultants convey to regular classroom teachers.

Since the teachers in schools with special education programs did not score higher than those without such programs, the old question of "integrated but separate" is raised. Are special education rooms in regular schools really integrated into the total school, or does their presence make no impact on the regular teachers' attitudes

and knowledge concerning exceptional children? (p. 438)

Barngrover (1971) studied the preferences of educators in special education programs for mildly handicapped children. She discovered that special classes were favored more often by classroom teachers, while nonteaching educators favored the integration of mildly handicapped children into regular classrooms. Reasons given for retaining special classes included assisting teachers by removing less able children, decreasing the disruptions in the regular classroom, and increasing educational services to special needs children because they would experience more success in special classes, would receive more individual attention and specialized assistance, and would receive more realistic preparation for the world of work. Explanations given for integrating the mildly handicapped into regular classrooms included the advantages of heterogeneous groupings in providing greater stimulation, sound peer models, higher expectations, as well as the failure of special classes to meet the needs of these children. The following suggestions were furnished to enable effective integration: smaller classes; team teaching; flexible grouping, grading, and scheduling; individualizing instruction; and readily available support personnel.

When discussing considerations regarding integration, Budoff (1972) included the "amenability of teachers in the regular classes to accommodate children within their rooms who have been formally defined as mentally retarded or emotionally disturbed." He wrote:

When one integrates these labeled children into schools, even with well-intentioned, well-meaning teachers who verbally

indicate they will try to work with the child as they would with any other child, their fears and hesitations and their sense that they will get little payoff from their efforts often work against them. In a number of integration arrangements we have been observing and evaluating, we have seen the urgent need to support the teachers on a continuing basis. (p. 203).

In efforts to include special needs children in regular classrooms, another concern is the attitudes of regular classroom teachers regarding their competency to teach these children. In years past, special educators have been responsible for creating the impression that special needs children must be taught by special education teachers. Also, legislation and pressure groups have supported these attitudes and worked to establish special funding systems. These approaches must be unlearned if the needs of these students are to be met within the realm of regular education.

Shotel, Iano, and McGettigan (1972) examined teacher attitudes toward integration of handicapped children into regular classrooms. In their attempt to determine whether an integrated resource room program would positively influence the attitudes of teachers regarding working with special needs children they found that the resource room had a slight to moderate effect on teachers' attitudes. Also, they found that both groups of teachers in their study, those associated with the resource room program and those associated with self-contained special classes, indicated more positive attitudes toward learning disabled children than they did toward educable

mentally handicapped children. The authors maintained that "If regular classroom teachers believe they cannot teach handicapped children without an array of special methods and materials, then it is indeed unrealistic to expect them to accept with confidence major responsibilities for teaching the children" (p. 683).

Substantial attitude changes occurred when Orlansky (1979) investigated two contrasting instructional methods (active learning vs. traditional lectures). His results implied that perceptions regarding the relative importance of special education services are more susceptible to change than are preferences for teaching exceptional children. In other words, an active learning experience, such as a simulated learning disability, is likely to impress upon an individual the importance of providing special education services for special needs children, but is not likely to increase that individual's desire to work with such children.

Stephens and Braun (1980) asked regular classroom teachers to respond to a questionnaire concerning their willingness to accept educable mentally handicapped, physically handicapped, and emotionally handicapped students into their classrooms. Their results indicated that the three most effective predictors related to willingness to integrate special needs children are: confidence in teaching exceptional children, belief that handicapped children can become useful members of society, and the belief that public schools have a responsibility to educate the handicapped.

When a change in educational programming is considered, the

literature suggests that the involvement of the building principal is of primary importance (Rucker & Gable, 1974). Also, it has been found that teachers tend not to carry out new programs without the direct approval and involvement of the principal (Metzner, 1970). When Beery (1974) initiated a demonstration project to assist regular classroom teachers, he found that one of the important things he had neglected to do was to include the principal in the planning of the project. He inferred that had he included the administrator, and provided him with more information, the project would have achieved a greater level of success.

A review of the literature to determine school administrators' attitudes and knowledge concerning special needs children revealed very few studies which provided much information.

Courtnage (1967) found that school superintendents and special education administrators agree that public education should assume responsibility for most services and programs for special needs children, and that there was strong agreement regarding most internal responsibilities and issues relating to special education administration. He found that both groups agreed that segregated programs for educably mentally handicapped children were the most appropriate placement for that particular handicap. This study points out that some special educators are not in favor of integration even with support services.

The attitude of the principal and the extent of support services within elementary schools was studied by Hanson (1970). He

discovered that there was an apparent trend for maintaining special needs children within regular classrooms when schools had a favorable ratio of support services and principals have higher acceptance scores for special needs students.

In their study of the attitudes of elementary school principals toward the placement of handicapped children into regular class settings, Payne and Murray (1974) concluded that urban elementary principals were more reluctant to integrate handicapped children into regular school programs than were suburban principals. Both groups indicated similar acceptance levels of visually handicapped, hard of hearing, physically handicapped, and learning disabled children, and there were similar perceptions about the categories of special needs children they would be most willing to attempt to integrate. The two groups of principals agreed on the need for teacher and student support services, and rated inservice training as the number one need of regular teachers.

Carpenter (1976) studied the effects of a series of inservice workshops for principals which focused on attitudes and knowledge of mainstreaming handicapped children. The study attempted to assess the influence the workshops had on mainstreaming and what factors were most influential toward making necessary curricular changes. He found that there was a significant change in principals' attitude only in the area of a severe disability after the series of workshops, and there were no statistically significant positive curricular gains.

These studies are among the very few to be found which define the roles or attitudes of school administrators in relation to special education. In matters related to special education, there appears to be a lack of research related to the effect of the school principal both as a facilitator for program change and as an influence on staff.

Summary

The type and degree of handicap and the proximity to non-handicapped people influence attitude scores. Generally those studies which attempted to alter attitudes toward special needs children had positive results. Several studies found special education teachers to be more accepting, less predisposed to segregate, and more interested in social behaviors, while regular class teachers placed more significance on the academic adjustments of special needs children.

Expectations for Special Needs Children

"Expectations" refers to anticipations that educators have concerning present or future functioning of their students. Sheila (1968) suggests that lower student performance in special classes is a result of lower teacher expectations and that the self-fulfilling prophecy phenomenon is related more to teacher variables than to factors inherent in the children.

Teachers' expectations of an individual student's achievement is a cumulative process which occurs over a period of time (Rist, 1970). These expectations are conveyed from grade to grade (or

level to level), either formally or informally. What a teacher believes about a student as a result of previous information influences their expectations for that student.

As part of his doctoral dissertation, Roeber (1971) provided teachers with some student cumulative records and asked them to complete a student rating scale. The results indicated that teachers were influenced by three types of information: test scores, academic achievement records, and former teacher comments.

Kranz (1970) examined the behavior of teachers toward children who were perceived as being high, average, or low in potential and achievement. The teachers' verbal behavior toward the groups of children was analyzed and a significant relationship was found to exist between the amount of praise, negative comments, and controlling statements that were directed toward the different groups. Those children who were perceived as having high potential and achievement received the most praise, while those children who were perceived as having low potential and achievement received more negative and controlling comments.

In their study Brophy and Good (1970) concluded that teachers formed different expectations for different students. For those children for whom teachers had high expectations, teachers expected and praised better performance, while children for whom the teachers held low expectations received less praise.

In his study of the effects of social class stereotyping on teachers' expectations, Mazer (1971) presented case studies of

students described as being from middle class or disadvantaged families to elementary and secondary teachers. The results indicated that the "disadvantaged" label affected teachers' expectations. "Disadvantaged" students were described by teachers as untidy, inattentive, not dependable, poorly motivated, uncooperative, and lacking language skills. Middle class children had none of these characteristics attributed to them.

The perceptions of regular and special education teachers toward normal children and children with various handicaps were examined by Panda and Bartel (1972). They concluded regular and special education teachers had no differences in their perceptions of special needs children. All handicapped children received lower ratings than normal children. Physically handicapping conditions received higher ratings than socio-emotional handicaps.

Summary

Teacher expectations for special needs children are very influential on their interactions with these children. Generally regular class teachers expect less from children classified as special needs children.

Relationship of Present Study to Previous Research

It has been demonstrated that certain kinds of information concerning exceptional children affect the expectations of others. This evidence is particularly important when labels are used to describe handicapped children. The use of labels will most likely lower teachers' expectations for handicapped children and, as a

result, the children will be placed in more restrictive classroom placements. This study represents an attempt to replicate some of the previous research concerning the effects of labeling on elementary teachers' placement decisions. In particular, this study attempts to replicate previous research based on the placement decisions made by a random sample of elementary teachers from St. James-Assiniboia School Division.

Little previous research could be located concerning administrators' expectations for exceptional children. This investigation is an attempt to add to the available information.

This author was unable to locate any research which compared the effects of labeling on elementary teachers' and administrators' placement decisions. There is little reason to assume that administrators' decisions will differ significantly from those made by teachers. Regular class elementary teachers' and administrators' placement decisions for labeled and unlabeled handicapped children are compared in this investigation.

This chapter has reviewed the research related to the present study and has related this study to available research. Chapter III will discuss the methods and procedures to be followed in testing the null hypotheses.

Chapter III

Methods and Procedures

This chapter will discuss the methods and procedures which were employed to investigate the hypotheses posed in Chapter 1. The chapter has been divided into four main subsections which include: description of the data gathering instruments, description of the sample, method of data collection, and research design.

Description of the Data Gathering Instruments

Teachers' and administrators' expectations of special needs children, for whom there are either labeled or unlabeled behavioral descriptions, can be investigated in terms of the educational placements they choose for the students. Since the Rucker-Gable Educational Programming Scale (RGEPS) (Rucker & Gable, 1974) is based on behavioral descriptions, it was chosen to measure the influence of unlabeled behavioral descriptions on the expectations of teachers and administrators (see Appendix A).

The Rucker-Gable Educational Programming Scale (RGEPS) consists of 30 descriptions or very brief case studies of actual children referred for special education services. Each case study includes the child's first name, age or grade, plus information on his or her achievement and behavior. The items describe the behaviors of children who are either mentally retarded, emotionally disturbed, or learning disabled. The children range from mild to severe in terms

of degree of special need. The descriptions, however, do not include labels indicating a particular handicap.

Respondents were asked to choose what they felt was the most appropriate educational setting for each child at the present time from a continuum of seven possible educational placements. The continuum of placement choices ranges from a regular classroom setting to placement outside of public school programs (Not for public education). The respondents were to assume that all of the programs or services were available and competently staffed, that placements within the continuum were flexible, and that it was possible for a student to be moved up or down the continuum after treatment (Rucker & Gable, 1974).

The RGEPS measures both attitude toward and knowledge of special needs children. For the purposes of this study, only attitude scores were considered. Attitude scores can be viewed as a measure of how segregated an educational placement a subject chooses for a special needs child. Attitude scores were calculated directly from each respondent's placement choice using a seven point scale ranging from Regular Classroom (7) to Not for public education (1). A total attitude score is calculated by adding the weighted responses for the 30 items. This total score represents the attitude toward special needs children as reflected by response to the cross section of types and degrees of special needs as presented in the instrument.

Six attitude subscores which represent the type of special need and degree of handicap can be obtained in addition to the total attitude score. Three of the subscores are based on 10 items each

and represent attitudes toward children with mental retardation, learning disabilities, and emotional disturbance. The three subscores representing attitude towards the degree of handicap (mild, moderate, and severe) consist of 8, 16, and 6 items respectively (Rucker & Gable, 1974).

The content validity of this instrument is based on (a) the fact that actual case descriptions were used, (b) the judgment by content experts that the items represent the areas of mental retardation, learning disabilities, and emotional disturbance and, (c) the judgment of the appropriateness of each item by 20 general experts and 45 specific experts. The inter-rater reliability for the RGEPS total attitude score is .99. The split-half reliability for total attitude scores for regular class teachers and principals is reported as .86 and .81 respectively (Rucker & Gable, 1974).

Variation

In order to test the effects of labels on teachers' and administrators' expectations for children with special needs, permission was obtained from Dr. T. Gillung to use the modified form of the RGEPS which he had developed while completing his doctoral studies (see Appendix B). In this altered form, the same behavioral descriptions were used with the appropriate label included in each description (see Appendix C). The labels included in each description were based on the recommendations of 35 experts in special education as being the most appropriate for each of the behaviors described (Rucker & Gable, 1974).

An illustration of one of the items from the RGEPS is: Nancy is a third grader who has difficulty keeping her place during oral reading. Her handwriting is labored, the letters are very large and irregular, and she cannot write on the lines. Her work is disorganized. She gives up easily and needs a lot of personal attention.

In the modified version of the RGEPS the item appears as follows:

Nancy is a learning disabled third grader who has difficulty keeping her place during oral reading. Her handwriting is labored, the letters are very large and irregular, and she cannot write on the lines. Her work is disorganized. She gives up easily and needs a lot of personal attention.

Total attitude scores were used to test the hypotheses under investigation in this study.

Description of the Sample

The population which served as the data source for this study consisted of the regular class elementary teachers and elementary school principals and vice-principals employed by the St. James-Assiniboia School Division #2.

Permission to conduct the study was obtained from Mr. R.A. MacIntosh, Director of Education for the St. James-Assiniboia School Division (see Appendix D).

A total of 120 elementary teachers selected by using a table of random numbers (this total represented approximately 25% of the regular class elementary teachers) and 37 administrators (this total

represented all of the elementary principals and vice-principals) were chosen to form the sample. The names of the elementary teachers, principals and vice-principals were obtained from the school division staff list maintained by the St. James-Assiniboia School Board Office.

Responses were received from 100% of the subjects selected to participate in the investigation.

Method of Data Collection

Each participant's name in the two groups which formed the sample (i.e., teachers and administrators) was assigned a number. Two groups of elementary teachers and two groups of administrators were selected by random assignment from the appropriate portions of the study's sample population.

A table of random numbers was used to randomly assign each of the groups to the two treatment conditions. Group a_1b_1 represented elementary teachers who received labeled behavioral descriptions (modified RGEPS). Group a_1b_2 represented elementary teachers who received unlabeled behavioral descriptions (original RGEPS). Group a_2b_1 represented administrators who received labeled behavioral descriptions (modified RGEPS). Group a_2b_2 represented administrators who received unlabeled behavioral descriptions (original RGEPS). Each of the members of these treatment groups was assigned a subject identification number.

Each subject was supplied with a copy of either the RGEPS or the modified RGEPS, according to his/her assignment as determined by randomization (refer to Appendix E for clarification). Everyone was

provided a response sheet (see Appendix F), a pencil, a self-addressed, stamped envelope for the return of the response sheet, and a covering letter (which included the subject identification number) which requested that one complete the instrument promptly, without discussion with colleagues, and return as soon as possible (see Appendix G). These items were forwarded through the school division's mail system.

The subjects were left on their own to read the written instructions and to respond accordingly. Each subject interpreted the instrument on his/her own. No participants contacted this investigator for clarification.

As the instruments and response sheets were returned, each was examined carefully. When it was noted that an item or items had been omitted, the response sheet (and subject identification number) was deleted from the study. Such omissions would have altered the total attitude scores for those particular subjects and, therefore, would have influenced the results for the respective groups. One hundred and nine responses from the elementary teachers and 35 responses from the administrators were retained for data analysis.

Research Design

The respondents' total attitude scores were obtained by adding their weighted responses (i.e., Regular Classroom = 7, Not for public education = 1) for each of the 30 items on the RGEPS and the modified RGEPS (refer to Appendix F for clarification). These total attitude scores were used to test the null hypotheses of this study.

A Two-Way (2 x 2) Analysis of Variance Factorial Design was

selected as the appropriate statistical method to test for significant differences. A .05 level of significance was established as the criterion for accepting or rejecting each null hypothesis.

A post hoc examination of the results was made by using an appropriate a posteriori multiple comparison test to clarify exactly where the significant differences lie after the significant F ratios were obtained. This was accomplished by using Scheffé's Test (Winer, 1971). This statistical procedure analyzes each possible pair of means to determine whether the two means are significantly different from one another.

For each group then, using Scheffé's test, the following means were tested for significant differences at the .05 and .01 levels:

$$H_0$$

$$\bar{X}_1 = \bar{X}_2 \quad (\text{Mean of Group } a_1b_1 = \text{Mean of Group } a_1b_2)$$

$$\bar{X}_1 = \bar{X}_3 \quad (\text{Mean of Group } a_1b_1 = \text{Mean of Group } a_2b_1)$$

$$\bar{X}_1 = \bar{X}_4 \quad (\text{Mean of Group } a_1b_1 = \text{Mean of Group } a_2b_2)$$

$$\bar{X}_2 = \bar{X}_3 \quad (\text{Mean of Group } a_1b_2 = \text{Mean of Group } a_2b_1)$$

$$\bar{X}_2 = \bar{X}_4 \quad (\text{Mean of Group } a_1b_2 = \text{Mean of Group } a_2b_2)$$

$$\bar{X}_3 = \bar{X}_4 \quad (\text{Mean of Group } a_2b_1 = \text{Mean of Group } a_2b_2)$$

For descriptive purposes only, further investigation of the results was accomplished by using the test for simple main effects (Kirk, 1969). Normally this would be done only when a significant interaction effect was indicated. In this study there was no significant interaction. Due to the fact that there were significant differences between the means of the groups and of the conditions; it



was felt that, for descriptive purposes only, the test for simple effects be calculated and discussed.

The data and their statistical treatment are presented in the following chapter.

Chapter IV

Results

This chapter will present the results of this investigation. The data for each null hypothesis are presented, tested, and a decision made as to the appropriate research hypothesis to retain. A discussion of the results related to the null hypotheses will be found in the discussion section of this thesis.

The raw data tables are located in Appendix E. The scores are presented in the form of total attitude scores which were obtained by adding the weighted responses for each of the 30 items on the RGEPS and the modified RGEPS.

Table 1 presents the disposition of responses.

Table 1
Disposition of Responses

	Number	Per Cent
Instruments forwarded	157	100%
Instruments returned	157	100%
Instruments used in analysis	144	91.72%
Instruments returned but not usable	13	8.28%

Analysis of Variance

The Two-Way Analysis of Variance summary table can be found in Table 2. Table 3 presents a summary of the number of subjects, the means, and the standard deviations for the total attitude scores.

Scheffé's Test

A post hoc probing technique presented in the methods and procedures chapter was used for making a posteriori comparisons of the results in order to clarify further the significant differences. The data for Scheffé's Test are presented in Table 4. In the first section the means are ordered for each of the four groups. Differences between each pair of means (i) are calculated. In part (iii) the critical difference values for testing the differences between each pair of means are presented. The pairs of means which can be considered significantly different are indicated by asterisks in part (iv). The calculated critical difference values in (iii) are compared to the differences in group means (i).

If the values found in step (i) are greater than, or equal to, the values in part (iii), then a significant difference is indicated. A level of significance at the .05 level was found between teachers' placement decisions for unlabeled children and administrator's placement decisions for identical children who were labeled. Significance at the .01 level was found between teachers' placement decisions for labeled handicapped children and teachers' and administrators' placement decisions for identical children who were not labeled. In addition, significant differences at the .01 level

Table 2
Two-Way Analysis of Variance Summary Table

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	Degrees of Freedom	Mean Square	F Ratio
A (Group)	704.52	1	704.52	4.12*
B (Label)	9133.07	1	9133.07	53.37**
A x B	20.45	1	20.45	.12
Within	23957.46	140	171.13	
Total	33699.06	143	235.66	

*p < .05

**p < .001

Table 3
Summary of Means and Standard Deviations
for Total Attitude Scores

	Label			No Label			Group		
	<u>n</u>	<u>\bar{X}</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>\bar{X}</u>	<u>S.D.</u>	<u>n</u>	<u>\bar{X}</u>	<u>S.D.</u>
Teachers	53	109.21	13.02	56	124.71	13.16	109	117.17	15.18
Administrators	18	113.5	11.15	17	130.76	14.79	35	121.89	15.55
Condition	71	110.3	12.64	73	126.12	13.69	144	118.32	15.35

Table 4
Test on Means Using Scheffé's Test

group means		b_1	b_2	b_3	b_4
		109.21	124.71	113.5	130.76
(i)		b_1	b_2	b_3	b_4
difference between means	b_1		15.5	4.29	21.55
	b_2			11.21	6.05
	b_3				17.26
(ii)	.95 (df=3,140)	F=2.68			
F value	.99 (df=3,140)	F=3.95			
(iii)		b_1	b_2	b_3	b_4
critical differences	.95 b_1		7.13	10.14	10.37
	b_2			10.08	10.28
	b_3				12.55
	.99 b_1		8.63	12.28	12.56
	b_2			12.21	12.45
	b_3				15.2
(iv)		Teachers Label	Teachers No Label	Administrators Label	Administrators No Label
Teachers Label			**		**
Teachers No Label				*	
Administrators Label					**

*p < .05

**p < .01

were found between administrators' decisions for labeled handicapped children and administrators' decisions for identical children who were not labeled.

Test for Simple Main Effects

For descriptive purposes only, the test for simple main effects was used in order to answer the following questions: (refer to Appendix E for clarification of letters a_1 , a_2 , b_1 , and b_2)

1. Is there a difference between a_1 and a_2 at b_1 or between a_1 and a_2 at b_2 ?
2. Is there a difference between b_1 and b_2 at a_1 or between b_1 and b_2 at a_2 ?

The results are shown in Table 5. An examination of the data reveals that there is a very significant difference ($p < .001$) between the labeled and unlabeled conditions for both teachers and administrators. Differences between the teachers' and administrators' placements of unlabeled handicapped children were significant at the .1 level.

Graphical representations of the group means being compared are presented in Figure 2 and Figure 3.

Testing the Hypotheses

Testing Hypothesis 1

H_{01} : There will be no significant differences between regular class elementary teachers' and administrators' educational placements of handicapped children who are labeled as measured by the Modified Rucker-Gable Educational Programming Scale.

Table 5
Analysis of Variance Table for Simple Main Effects

Source	SS	df	MS	F
1. Between Subjects:				
2. Between A at b_1	247.57	1	247.57	1.45
3. Between A at b_2	477.4	1	477.4	2.79*
4. Within Subjects:				
5. Between B at a_1	6547.49	1	6547.49	38.26**
6. Between B at a_2	2605.99	1	2605.99	15.23**
7. AB	20.45	1	20.45	
8. Within Cells	23957.46	140	171.13	

*p < .1

**p < .001

For Hypothesis 1, the critical value needed for significance at the .05 level was 3.92 (df = 1,140). The F ratio was significant at the .05 level. Thus null Hypothesis 1 was rejected. The accepted research hypothesis stated that elementary teachers and administrators differ significantly in their placement decisions for special needs children who are labeled.

Testing Hypothesis 2.

H_{o2} : There will be no significant differences between regular class elementary teachers' and administrators' educational

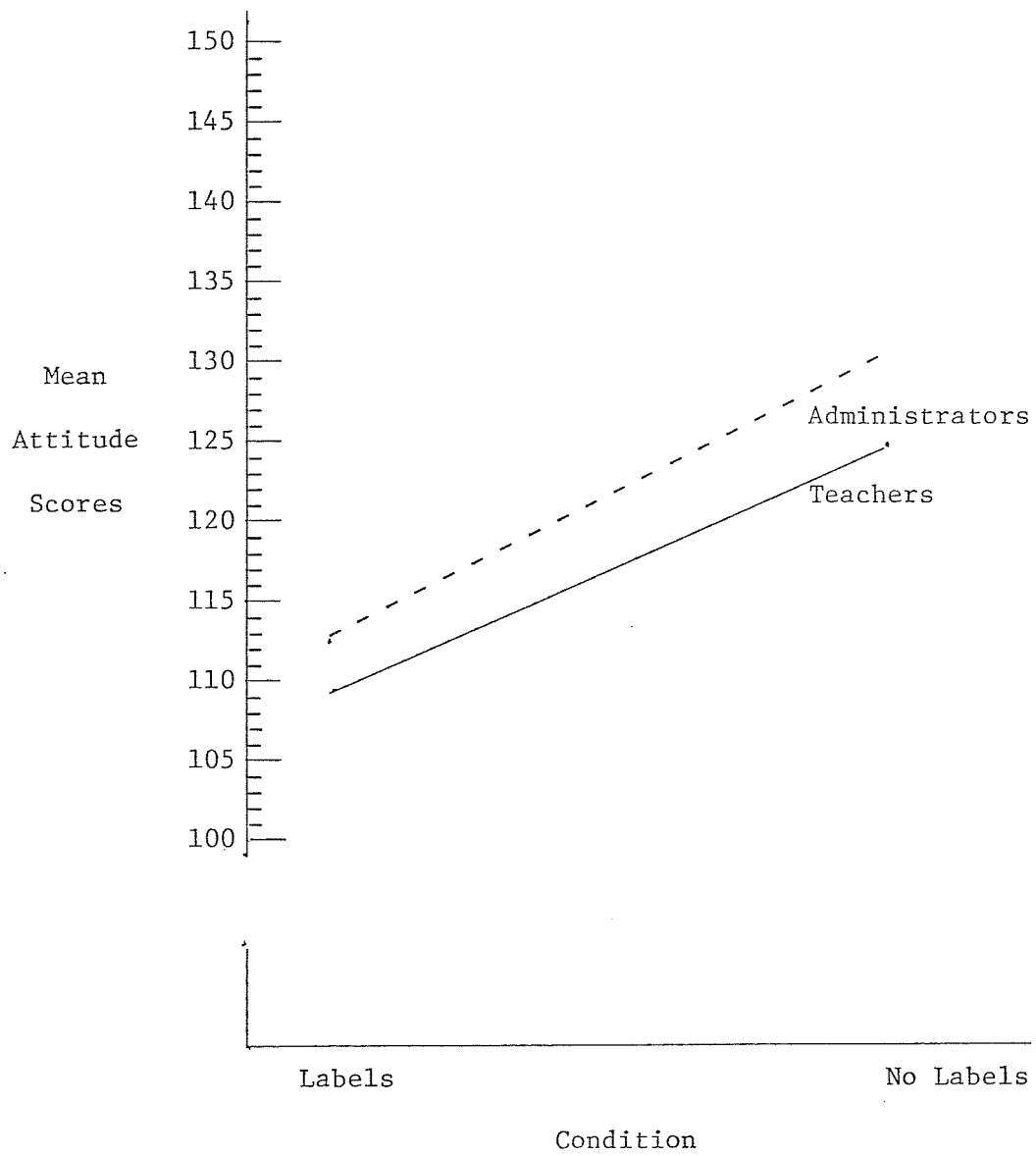


Figure 2. Mean attitude scores for teachers and administrators with focus on condition

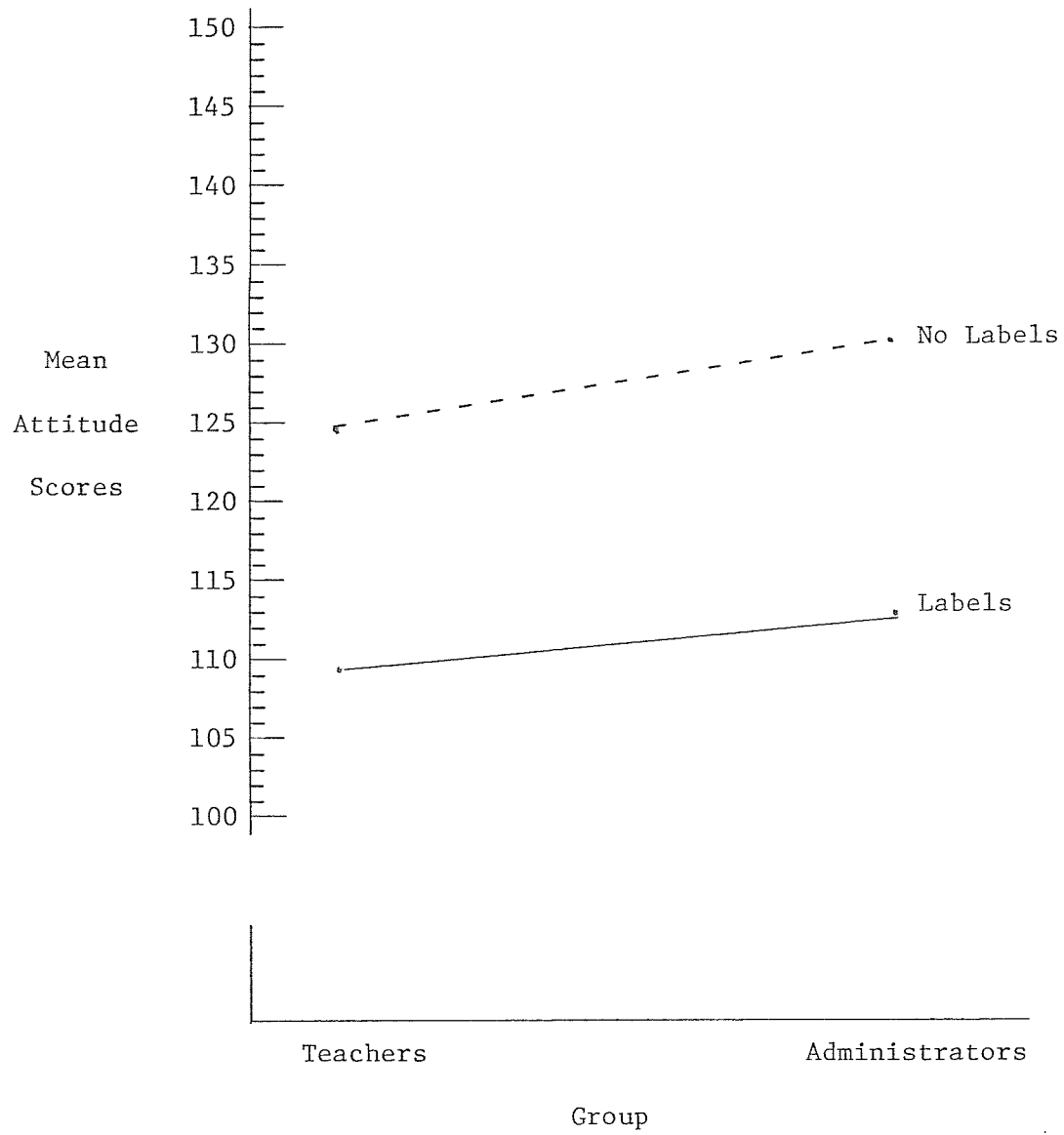


Figure 3. Mean attitude scores for teachers and administrators with focus on group

placements of handicapped children who are not labeled as measured by the Rucker-Gable Educational Programming Scale.

The critical value needed for Hypothesis 2 was 3.92 at the .05 level (df = 1,140). The F ratio was significant at the .05 level and reveals significant differences between the means. Therefore null Hypothesis 2 was rejected. The accepted research hypothesis stated that elementary teachers and administrators differ significantly in their placement decisions for exceptional children who are not labeled.

Testing Hypothesis 3

Ho₃: There will be no significant differences between regular class elementary teachers' educational placements of handicapped children who are labeled and handicapped children with identical behaviors who are not labeled as measured by the Modified Rucker-Gable Educational Programming Scale and the Rucker-Gable Educational Programming Scale.

For Hypothesis 3, the critical value needed for significance at the .05 level was 3.92 (df = 1,140). The F ratio was significant at the .001 level. The F ratio reveals that there was a significant difference between the means. Null Hypothesis 3 was rejected and the alternative hypothesis accepted that there are significant differences between elementary teachers' educational placement decisions for labeled exceptional children and for exceptional children with identical behaviors who are not labeled.

Testing Hypothesis 4

Ho₄: There will be no significant differences between

administrators' educational placements of handicapped children who are labeled and handicapped children with identical behaviors who are not labeled as measured by the Modified Rucker-Gable Educational Programming Scale and the Rucker-Gable Educational Programming Scale.

The critical value needed for Hypothesis 4 was 3.92 at the .05 level ($df = 1,140$). The F ratio was significant at the .001 level and reveals a significant difference between the means. Therefore null Hypothesis 4 was rejected, and the alternative research hypothesis accepted that administrators do place labeled special needs children in educational settings significantly different from those they choose for identical special needs children who are not labeled.

Testing Hypothesis 5

H_{05} : There will be no significant differences between regular class elementary teachers' educational placements of handicapped children who are labeled as measured by the Modified Rucker-Gable Educational Programming Scale and administrators' educational placements of handicapped children with identical behaviors who are not labeled as measured by the Rucker-Gable Educational Programming Scale.

The critical value needed for Hypothesis 5 was 3.92 at the .05 level ($df = 1,140$). The F ratio was significant at the .001 level. The calculated F ratio indicates a significant difference between the means. Null Hypothesis 5 was rejected and the accepted alternative hypothesis stated that elementary teachers' placement decisions for labeled exceptional children differ significantly from

administrators' placement decisions for identical special needs children who are not labeled.

Testing Hypothesis 6

H_{06} : There will be no significant differences between regular class elementary teachers' educational placements of handicapped children who are not labeled as measured by the Rucker-Gable Educational Programming Scale and administrators' educational placements of handicapped children with identical behaviors who are labeled as measured by the Modified Rucker-Gable Educational Programming Scale.

For Hypothesis 6, the critical value needed for significance at the .05 was 3.92 (df = 1,140). The F ratio was significant at the .001 level. The calculated F ratio reveals a significant difference between the means. Null Hypothesis 6 was rejected and the accepted alternative hypothesis stated that elementary teachers' placement decisions for special needs children who are not labeled differ significantly from administrators' placement decisions for labeled exceptional children with identical behaviors.

Summary

Six null hypotheses were tested in this study. The first and second null hypotheses were rejected. It was found that teachers and principals and vice-principals differ significantly in their placements of labeled (null Hypothesis 1) and unlabeled (null Hypothesis 2) exceptional children.

The third null hypothesis was rejected in favor of the alternate hypothesis which states that elementary teachers place labeled

children in more segregated placements than they place identical children who are not labeled.

The fourth null hypothesis was rejected when it was found that administrators place labeled children in significantly different settings than they place identical children who are not labeled.

The fifth null hypothesis was rejected when significant differences were found between teachers' placements of labeled exceptional children and administrators' decisions for identical children who are not labeled.

The sixth null hypothesis was rejected when it was determined that teachers place unlabeled special needs children in significantly less segregated educational settings than administrators decide for labeled children with identical behaviors.

Chapter V

Discussion and Conclusions

The primary focus of this study was to determine whether elementary teachers and administrators have different expectations for exceptional children who are labeled than they do for identical exceptional children who are not labeled. The results indicated that the addition of labels produced significant differences in how the children were viewed by both groups. Teachers and administrators responded with lower expectations for labeled children. It was found also that teachers and administrators differ significantly in their views regarding either labeled or unlabeled children.

Statistical Analysis

Each of the null hypotheses was tested through the use of the following statistical measures. A Two-Factor Analysis of Variance was employed as the initial analysis. Scheffé's probing test was used to clarify where the significant effects occurred. These results indicated that there were significant differences ($p < .05$) between teachers' placement decisions for labeled handicapped children and administrators' decisions for identical children who were not assigned labels. Significant differences ($p < .01$) were found between teachers' placement decisions for labeled exceptional children and teachers' and administrators' decisions for identical children who were not assigned labels. Significance at .01 level

was found between administrators' placement decisions for labeled handicapped children and administrators' decisions for identical children who were not labeled.

For descriptive purposes only, the results from the test for simple main effects will be discussed. An examination of these results indicated statistically significant results ($p < .001$) between the labeled and unlabeled conditions for both teachers and administrators.

Null Hypothesis 1 was rejected revealing that teachers and administrators do differ significantly ($p < .05$) in their placement decisions for labeled exceptional children.

Null Hypothesis 2 was rejected. The alternate hypothesis stated that elementary teachers and administrators do differ significantly ($p < .05$) in their decisions for exceptional children who are not labeled.

Null Hypothesis 3 was rejected. Significant differences ($p < .001$) were found between teachers' placement decisions for labeled special needs children and their decisions for identical children who were not assigned labels. It was found that teachers placed labeled children in more segregated classroom settings.

Null Hypothesis 4 was rejected when it was revealed that administrators place labeled handicapped children in settings significantly different ($p < .001$) from those they choose for identical handicapped children who are not labeled. Principals and vice-principals placed the labeled children in more segregated

classroom settings than they did children who were described without the use of labels.

Null Hypothesis 5 was rejected. Teachers' placement decisions for labeled exceptional children differed significantly ($p < .001$) from those made by administrators for identical children who were not labeled.

Null Hypothesis 6 was rejected when it was determined that teachers placed unlabeled exceptional children in significantly different ($p < .001$) placements from those made by administrators for labeled children with identical behaviors.

The finding of statistically significant differences between teachers' and administrators' placement decisions for labeled (null Hypothesis 1) and unlabeled (null Hypothesis 2) conditions warrants further examination. A review of the mean scores indicates that principals' and vice-principals' mean scores ($\bar{X}_{a_2b_1} = 113.5$, $\bar{X}_{a_2b_2} = 130.76$) are more positive (less segregating) than those for the teachers ($\bar{X}_{a_1b_1} = 109.21$, $\bar{X}_{a_1b_2} = 124.71$) for the respective conditions. Although these differences were significant at the .05 level of significance for the Two-Way Analysis Variance, those same differences did not hold when Scheffé's Test was applied. It is not all that uncommon to follow a significant test of a null hypothesis with Scheffé's Test and find that it does not detect any significant differences (Winer, 1971).

It is noted that the test for simple main effects indicates that the main source of the significant differences between teachers' and administrators' placement decisions is located within the

responses to the unlabeled condition ($p < .1$).

General Comment

Although the results of this study are not directly comparable to past research due to differences in instrumentation, experimental design, sample, and statistical treatment, it is still relevant to review and to summarize some of the previous studies for general tendencies relating to the present study.

A principal finding of this study is that the addition of appropriate labels to the behavioral descriptions of exceptional children lowers teachers' and administrators' expectations for those children (alternate Hypotheses 3 and 4). These results are consistent with the conclusions reached in a number of other studies (Combs & Harper, 1967; Panda & Bartel, 1972; Gillung, 1976; Jacobs, 1978; Ysseldyke & Foster, 1978). Evidently educators respond to a feeling that children described with labels present more instructional difficulties than do the same children described without the use of labels. For elementary teachers and administrators, labels appear to create lowered expectations.

Research on teacher attitudes toward exceptional children indicates that teachers usually underestimate the abilities of such children (Fine, 1967), that they consider special class placement as more appropriate (Barngrover, 1971) and that categorical labels tend to magnify their negative stereotypes of special needs children (Foster, Ysseldyke, & Reese, 1975). Although the research clearly identifies the negative attitudes toward exceptional children held by many educators, little research was located which provided much

insight into the variables which contribute to educators' formation of attitudes (either positive or negative).

A second conclusion is that elementary teachers and administrators differ significantly when their placement choices for either labeled (null Hypothesis 1) or unlabeled (null Hypothesis 2) children are compared. This statistically significant difference in placement decisions for similarly identified children by teachers and administrators might be explained by the probable differences in the levels of training and years of experience of the two groups. It is possible that the selection process that resulted in people being assigned to administrative positions could be a source of differences as well. The fact that teachers may have to deal with similar students directly on a day-to-day basis may have resulted in their more segregated decisions whereas administrators only have to work directly with these students on an occasional basis.

The two groups have many similarities in their backgrounds. Basic cultural and educational backgrounds provide for parallel life styles. With such congruent experiences and orientations, it is understandable that the basic philosophy toward children would be quite similar as well. One would expect that the two groups would have expectations for special needs children which do not differ appreciably as indicated by the results of Scheffé's test.

A possibility is that the administrators' results were influenced by the scores of the vice-principals (all were teaching a minimum of one-third time) and teaching principals (several were teaching approximately one-half time). It is possible that the data

for these individuals influenced the administrators' group results in the direction of those achieved by the teachers' group and account for the similarities in results.

As a result of the conclusions for null Hypotheses 1 to 4, the third major finding is not surprising. Elementary teachers place labeled exceptional children in more segregated classroom placements than administrators place identical children who were not labeled. Elementary teachers place unlabeled exceptional children in less segregated placements than administrators place labeled children with identical behaviors. This is consistent with what one would expect from the earlier results.

The study concludes that administrators are slightly more positive for, or less rejecting of, labeled and unlabeled children than are elementary teachers. These statistically significant results are educationally significant as well. Principals' and vice-principals' influences regarding curricular changes and child management are of vital importance. Administrators play an important role as change agents. It is encouraging to see that administrators' responses, however slight, were in the direction of more positive attitudes toward special needs children.

The process of identifying children as learning disabled, emotionally disturbed, and mentally retarded, and thus in need of additional educational support services may indeed affect classroom teachers' abilities to educate these children. Also, since administrators are key figures in determining their schools' effectiveness, their attitudes and expectations regarding such issues as labeling may affect the attitudes and expectations of the

teachers in their schools.

More research needs to be done to determine which types of exceptional children elementary teachers and administrators can most successfully accept and educate. Although individualization of instruction is widely supported in theory, genuine application of this principle is much more limited within regular classroom settings. The integration of exceptional children requires that school systems remove some of the rigid practices of the past and present and that teachers and administrators become more competent in dealing with the wide range of variables which influence the learning of all children. Educationally handicapped children, as do all children, deserve teachers and administrators who will allow for their optimum personal, social, and intellectual development during their public school experience.

It is possible that the results of this study were influenced by the differences in the composition of the two groups which formed the sample. As indicated in the limitations section of Chapter I, it is very likely that the proportion of females was considerably larger in the teacher sample than in the administrator sample, a reflection of the reality of the composition of the two groups within the St. James-Assiniboia School Division. It is entirely possible that the conclusions may have been different if males and females had been equally represented in each group.

The measurement of any attitude or expectation is a complex task. These constructs are multidimensional and it is possible that they cannot be evaluated adequately in terms of a single

variable such as group membership. To obtain a single attitude score for so many implied meanings may be an oversimplification. While attitudes toward exceptional children are certainly influenced by personal contact, experience, and training, it is true also that certain unique personality determinants play a role in attitude and expectancy formation. It is these individual characteristics that are difficult to account for, to determine, and to measure. However, it is hoped that continued research will continue to provide more accurate data concerning attitudes toward and expectations for exceptional children.

Implications and Further Considerations

The implications of this study suggest that labels may reduce toleration for exceptional children. It appears that individuals who bear such labels are expected to behave in stereotyped ways. This concurs with the findings of Algozzine and Mercer (1977). It is implied, as well, that some of the characteristic disabilities believed to exist in children may, in fact, be the result of dissonance at the interface between the children's behaviors and others' attitudes toward the behaviors as determined by the assigned labels.

An obvious implication of the results of this study is that one should refrain from labeling children. The assignment of labels to descriptions of children appears to have negative effects on the important individuals in their school lives and thus on the children. The conclusion that labeled exceptional children are placed in more segregated program placements is consistent with the findings of

Tringo (1970) and Panda and Bartel (1972). In addition, these studies demonstrated that functional impairments, such as mental retardation, emotional maladjustments, speech impairments, and mental illness, were viewed more negatively than were physical impairments such as visual and hearing problems, physical handicaps, and communication disorders. These results were substantiated by Jones (1974). Jones (1972) contends that labels create stigmata which are likely to lead to special educational interventions for a child and tend to separate him from children without similar labels.

The effects of labels have implications for those individuals who must determine the most appropriate placements for exceptional children. Regular and special education teachers, administrators, resource teachers, counsellors, school psychologists and other related personnel need to keep in mind the fact that reliance on categorical labels may cause children to be placed in more restrictive educational placements than are necessary to best meet the individual needs of the children.

The labeling effect has important implications for the reporting practices employed by public school systems. Reports which emphasize labels may affect classroom teachers' expectations for those children for the remainder of their school career and beyond. In view of the potential harm, it is recommended that reports on individual children focus on the observed behaviors of those children.

The effects of labels have implications for teacher training programs and in-services. The results of this study suggest that all public school personnel should receive some training in the area of

special needs children. Rather than descriptions of categories of exceptional children which often is the focus of attention in introductory courses to exceptional children, it is suggested that the emphasis of such study should be on programming to meet the educational needs of these children. Such courses should include planned experiences through short, structured presentations by, or experiences with, people who represent nonstereotyping images. Presentations by handicapped people to convey information about what it is like to be handicapped, who they are as individuals, and how they expect others to relate to them should form a portion of these experiences. Simulations of disabilities may be useful if carefully structured and, with allowance for observation of the reactions of the nonhandicapped people.

The results, general comments, and implications suggest several possible future studies which may help to clarify and to substantiate present and related findings.

Whether the results of this study can be generalized to the actual school situation is one subject for further research. In the present study, teachers and administrators responded to case studies of exceptional children by placing labeled children in more segregated settings. Whether these two groups would react in a similar manner when confronted with real children is unknown.

Another area which requires further study is whether parents and others in the general public respond to labeling in similar ways. The results of this study would argue against the use of labels in the public school setting, but it is very possible, however, that

parents, community leaders, and organized parent groups and associations, may not support this position. Traditionally, labeling is directly associated with the identification, establishment, and funding of services for exceptional children. Parent groups and associations have exerted tremendous pressures in order to obtain services for specific groups of handicapped children. These groups might fear the loss of these services if the identifying labels were eliminated. Before public education makes great changes concerning the issue of labeling, it would appear critical to research systematically parental and other concerned public views.

Although not within the scope of the present study, it would be of interest to analyze further the data in order to determine whether there were significant differences in the responses to the three labels: 'learning disabled', 'emotionally disturbed', and 'mentally retarded'. In their study, Abroms and Kodera (1979) concluded that of the functional impairments (i.e., learning disabilities, speech defects, mental illness, and mental retardation), which account for the greatest number of children receiving special education services, learning disabilities were ranked most favorably, and mental illness was rated more favorably than mental retardation. Similar conclusions were reached by Shotel et al (1972) and Jones (1974). Further analysis might determine as well whether there were significant differences in the responses to the degree of handicaps (i.e., mild, moderate, or severe).

Further investigation of the public school setting would be of interest to determine whether there would be any variation from this

study's conclusions. Such investigations could include responses from superintendents, junior and senior high teachers and administrators, and school clinicians. In her study of Winnipeg School Division #1 personnel, Morris (1976) concluded that elementary teachers were more positive in their placement decisions for unlabeled exceptional children than were secondary teachers. Although she had included administrators within her study, she did not compare their results with those of the teachers. Additional studies might investigate the attitudes, expectations, and placement decisions made by teachers in integrated settings, in schools which accommodate self-contained classes, and in schools which contain no special education programs.

Conclusions

A subtle predicament exists in public education. Educators are spurred to respond to the unique characteristics and individual needs of their students, and yet at the same time they are warned of the potential harmful effects presumed to accompany the identification of this uniqueness with a label. This situation may have been summarized best when Combs and Harper (1967) wrote that:

. . . significant members of the environment may respond in accordance with attitudes toward a label, rather than factual information and understanding. If these attitudes are negative, the behavior of others toward the child may serve to foster and extend the exceptionality, rather than to help the child adjust. (p. 399)

MacMillan, Jones and Aloia (1974) speculated that factors

independent of the children involved (e.g., teacher characteristics) exert considerable influence on placement decisions. Although they concluded that there is little evidence to prove that labels have harmful effects, it appears obvious from this study that the labels learning disabled, emotionally disturbed, and mentally retarded interacted with the behaviors described in the 30 case studies and, at least, have the potential for more restricted educational opportunities.

It is apparent that considerable additional work needs to be undertaken in the study of the effects of labels on placement decisions. Labels are only one variable among a legion of factors to be considered when developing optimum educational opportunities for children. Reschly and Lambrecht (1979) indicated that amount and type of information are crucial variables in determining expectancies. Other possible variables would include the quality of personnel, other available resources including educational alternatives, the child's background, and the level of supports available outside the school setting. The question remains: What other behaviors interact with the labels?

What assumptions and expectations produce the negative connotations and lowered acceptance of children with functional difficulties? This is an important consideration, since the categorical labels of learning disability, emotional disturbance, and mental retardation frequently are applied to more than 10% of the public school population (Roberts, Lazure et al, 1970). Teachers and administrators need to be keenly aware of the negative effects of

these labels and to exercise great caution in their use. Attempts to eliminate all use of labels is an oversimplification of the issues involved.

One matter of concern regarding the cited stigmatizing effects of the labels remains. If we are to understand the effects of the label per se, we must be able to separate its effects with the effects of the behaviors that are linked with the individual who is labeled. Before a child is labeled emotionally disturbed, he invariably displayed behavior which summoned attention to him as somehow being different and possibly being in need of additional support. This unusual behavior preceded the child's labeled condition and most likely resulted in his being the target of less favorable attitudes by his teachers and principal, even before he was labeled. The real question that was posed in this study then, was what effect do labels have in influencing attitudes and expectations over and above the influences of the specific behaviors exhibited by the children in question? The present study indicates that the labeling effect was very significant for the participating teachers and administrators.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A
Rucker-Gable Educational
Programming Scale

RUCKER-GABLE EDUCATIONAL

PROGRAMMING SCALE

Form A

Chauncy N. Rucker
University of Connecticut

Robert K. Gable
University of Connecticut

Name _____ Date _____

Present position _____

Years teaching experience _____

DIRECTIONS

Teachers are ordinarily faced with a wide variety of problems arising from the many different kinds of students they work with each day. On the following pages are brief descriptions of children actually referred for special education services. For each student you are to indicate what you feel would be the best educational setting at this time.

You would actually need more information before placing most of the students, but please make your best judgements based on the information provided. Assume that all of the programs are available and competently staffed. Also assume that placements within the continuum are flexible and that it is possible for a student to be moved up or down the scale after treatment.

GO ON TO PAGE TWO

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**PLACE EACH STUDENT IN ONE OF THE SEVEN PROGRAMS
FROM THE CONTINUUM BELOW**

REGULAR CLASSROOM - with no basic change in teaching procedures.

CONSULTATION - regular classroom with specialists available for consultation with teacher (or parent) whenever needed.

CONSULTATION & DIRECT SERVICES - regular classroom with specialists available in the school to consult with teacher **and** provide short-term direct services to student.

RESOURCE ROOM - regular classroom with resource room services (special education teacher providing supplemental instruction) provided on a continuing basis in which the student can participate for as much as two hours each day.

PART-TIME SPECIAL CLASS - student enrolled in a special class for the majority of each day, but enters regular classroom for certain subjects.

FULL-TIME SPECIAL CLASS - student assigned to a self-contained special class on a full-time basis.

NOT - student placed in a residential school, hospital program, treatment center, etc. because he or she cannot reasonably be handled within the context of regular or special public education.

If you choose:

	RC	CON	CON&DS	RR	PTSC	FTSC	Not
Regular Classroom, circle number seven	⑦	6	5	4	3	2	1
Consultation, circle number six	7	⑥	5	4	3	2	1
Consultation & Direct Services, circle number five	7	6	⑤	4	3	2	1
Resource Room, circle number four	7	6	5	④	3	2	1
Part-Time Special Class, circle number three	7	6	5	4	③	2	1
Full-Time Special Class, circle number two	7	6	5	4	3	②	1
Not for public education, circle number one	7	6	5	4	3	2	①

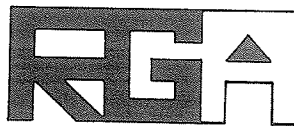
PLEASE RESPOND TO EVERY ITEM

●
RC
CON
CON&DS
RR

- | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|-----|---|
| 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 1. | Nancy is a third grader who has difficulty keeping her place during oral reading. Her handwriting is labored, the letters are very large and irregular, and she cannot write on the lines. Her work is disorganized. She gives up easily and needs a lot of personal attention. |
| 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 2. | Jim's achievement is approximately two years below expectation for his age of nine. He has great difficulty understanding and following directions and forgets them quickly. He seems to lack any social skills. |
| 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 3. | Clifford, a nine year old, is very alert and imaginative; he is able to discuss a variety of topics intelligently, but he is unable to read. |
| 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 4. | Myron is a sixth grader who often becomes aggressive in class. His relationships with other children are usually quarrelsome and he is prone to get into trouble when left alone. |
| 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 5. | Ed repeated kindergarten because of his immaturity and is now having trouble doing his first grade work. If he is included in a group activity, he constantly teases the smaller children. He has to be watched constantly or he will destroy their work in a sadistic manner. |
| 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 6. | Jason, age six, occasionally prints letters backwards, writes from right to left, and is restless in class. His parents are concerned that he is still on reading readiness material rather than in a reading group like his classmates. |
| 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 7. | Herb has made a poor adjustment to his first grade class despite his capability for learning. He has difficulty participating in group functions because he is so mischievous. He often fails to respond to discipline. |
| 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 8. | Ray, age twelve, is a two time repeater with above average potential; he has great difficulty remembering material presented in a visual manner and, in spite of a great deal of remedial reading instruction, remains a non-reader. |
| 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 9. | Kenny is a ten year old with a history of late development. He sat up at age two, he had no recognizable speech until age seven, he learned to walk at age nine, and he is still not toilet trained. |
| 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 10. | Frank's achievement is below that of his fifth grade classmates. He is moody, and a loner who is continually seeking attention and testing adults to see if they like him. At home he has displayed physical violence, but never at school. |
| 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 11. | Leroy beat another first grader so severely that minor surgery was required. He has bitten a number of his classmates and has to be supervised constantly. |
| 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 12. | Charles is an eight year old who has not yet sat up, crawled, or walked. He is unable to communicate in any way. He has no bowel or bladder control, can't feed himself, and is very susceptible to upper respiratory infections. |
| 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 13. | José seems unable to perform the academic requirements of his fifth grade class, particularly in mathematics and language. He has a cheerful compliant personality. He works best on a concrete level. |
| 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 14. | Virginia is an eight year old who does little work in school. She is capable of verbal and physical attacks on anyone when angry. She doesn't seem to care about any school relationships and neither threats nor praise are effective in dealing with her. |
| 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 15. | Tom, age eight, doesn't seem to acquire new skills as quickly as most; he needs to have instructions repeated several times. He has difficulty working individually and needs a great deal of encouragement and supervision. |
| 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 16. | Annalou is new to her present fifth grade class. She seems anxious while she is in school, but is much calmer as soon as she leaves the school grounds. Her schoolwork is slightly below average, but she is quite responsive if encouraged. |
| 7 | 6 | 5 | 4 | 17. | Jesse, an eight year old, has difficulty keeping up with his class in all subjects. He is very large for his age and quite immature socially. He has a noticeable speech problem. |

RC	CON	CON&DS	RR	PTSC	FTSC	Not
7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	6	5	4	3	2	1
7	6	5	4	3	2	1

RC	CON	CON&DS	RR	PTSC	FTSC	Not			
18.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	18.	Stan is a twelve year old of average ability who wants desperately to learn to read, but even though he has had remedial instruction, he is virtually a non-reader. He disturbs other children by humming to himself much of the time. Although he is frustrated in most academic endeavors, he does very well in experiments and class discussions in science and on all oral tests.
19.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	19.	Jerry is a seven year old who disrupts group tasks and refuses to go with his class to lunch or gym. At recess he plays with older children from other classes since his own classmates won't play with him. Although he seems to like his teacher and has above average potential, he seldom completes his work in a satisfactory manner.
20.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	20.	Dan is a six year old who is extremely immature in all areas. He is not able to do any of the tasks that are expected of a kindergartner. His speech is primarily limited to one or two word utterances. He has a negative approach to school.
21.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	21.	Paula is a soft spoken nine year old. She has trouble understanding even simple directions and often chooses to ignore them. She usually cannot do assigned work and reacts by crying or distracting other children.
22.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	22.	Noel is a second grader who was retained in first grade. His performance is low in all subjects, but he appears fairly capable. He is lethargic, passive, and non-reactive, seeming to lack emotional responsiveness. He still checks each letter when copying a word and often confuses letters and whole words.
23.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	23.	Bob is a third grader who wants friends, but his classmates continually make him a scapegoat. Although he is apparently bright, he is very forgetful and seems unaware of what is expected by his teacher.
24.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	24.	Vance, age seven, is a good student in all areas except mathematics which is a constant frustration to him; he is unable to deal successfully with the most basic arithmetic concepts.
25.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	25.	Bill is a very friendly ten year old who has recently learned to write his name. His speech skills are on a very immature level. He has mastered a few simple self-help skills.
26.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	26.	Mel continually disrupts his fifth grade class. He seems to be angry much of the time and often bullies other children. Although he is of average potential, he doesn't have much interest in his studies.
27.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	27.	Christopher is a very articulate second grader with many interests. He works very slowly, particularly in reading. He is weak in phonetic analysis, can't seem to retain reading skills, and any academic growth on his part depends on a great deal of drill.
28.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	28.	Don, age ten, is only slightly slower than his average classmates, but he is clumsy and other students have nicknamed him "Don the dunce".
29.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	29.	Jimmy Lee is an eight year old whose academic performance is well below what is expected for his age. He has difficulty feeding himself, he is not completely toilet trained, and he has very poor motor coordination.
30.	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	30.	Fred is a ten year old fourth grader who was retained in first grade. His attention span is short and many of his interests are immature. His motivation for classroom work is very low, but improves markedly in a one-to-one relationship. He has difficulty with reading, spelling, and arithmetic concepts. His oral performance indicates that he is far more able than his written work would indicate.



**RUCKER-GABLE ASSOC.
ROCKRIDGE, BOX 201C
STORRS, CONN. 06268**

Appendix B

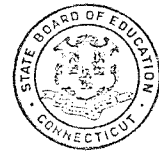
Letter of Permission to Use the Modified Rucker-
Gable Educational Programming Scale



STATE OF CONNECTICUT

MYSTIC ORAL SCHOOL

MYSTIC, CONNECTICUT 06355



TEL. 536-4221

March 16, 1977

Mr. Jack Elliott

Canada

Dear Mr. Elliott:

Please be advised that you have my permission to use the Modified Rucker-Gable Educational Programming Scale for your study.

Please also be advised that I would be interested in your results.

If I can be of any further assistance, please feel free to contact me.

Sincerely,

Tom Gillung, Ph.D.
Acting Superintendent

TG:cmg
cc: Chauncy Rucker
Box U-64
University of Connecticut
Storrs, Ct.

Appendix C
Modified Rucker-Gable
Educational Programming Scale

RUCKER-GABLE EDUCATIONAL
PROGRAMMING SCALE
MODIFIED FORM

Chauncy N. Rucker
University of Connecticut

Robert K. Gable
University of Connecticut

Name _____ Date _____

Present Position _____

Years teaching experience _____

DIRECTIONS

Teachers are ordinarily faced with a wide variety of problems arising from the many different kinds of students they work with each day. On the following pages are brief descriptions of children actually referred for special education services. For each student you are to indicate what you feel would be the best educational setting at this time.

You would actually need more information before placing most of the students, but please make your best judgements based on the information provided. Assume that all of the programs are available and competently staffed. Also assume that placements within the continuum are flexible and that it is possible for a student to be moved up or down the scale after treatment.

GO ON TO PAGE TWO

DIRECTIONS

Please fill in the background data on the Response Sheet. Place each student in one of the seven programs from the continuum below by placing an X in the appropriate space on the Response Sheet.

Regular Classroom - with no basic change in teaching procedures.

Consultation - regular classroom with specialists available for consultation with teacher (or parent) whenever needed.

Consultation + Direct Services - regular classroom with specialists available in the school to consult with teacher and provide short-term direct services to student.

Resource Room - regular classroom with resource room services (special education teacher providing supplemental instruction) provided on a continuing basis in which the student can participate for as much as two hours each day.

Part-Time Special Class - student enrolled in a special class for the majority of each day, but enters regular classroom for certain subjects.

Full-Time Special Class - student assigned to a self-contained special class on a full-time basis.

Not - students placed in a residential school, hospital program, treatment center, etc. because he or she cannot reasonably be handled within the context of regular or special public education.

Mark each item clearly by placing an X on the appropriate line on the Response Sheet.

RC Regular Classroom
CON Consultation
CONDS Consultation + Direct Services
RR Resource Room
PTSC Part-Time Special Class
FTSC Full-Time Special Class
NOT Not for public education

1. Nancy is a learning disabled third grader who has difficulty keeping her place during oral reading. Her handwriting is labored, the letters are very large and irregular, and she cannot write on the lines. Her work is disorganized. She gives up easily and needs a lot of personal attention.
2. Jim is a mentally retarded boy whose achievement is approximately two years below expectation for his age of nine. He has great difficulty understanding and following directions and forgets quickly. He seems to lack any social skills.
3. Clifford, a nine year old learning disabled student, is very alert and imaginative; he is able to discuss a variety of topics intelligently, but he is unable to read.
4. Myron is an emotionally disturbed sixth grader who often becomes aggressive in class. His relationships with other children are usually quarrelsome and he is prone to get into trouble when left alone.
5. Ed, an emotionally disturbed boy, repeated kindergarten because of his immaturity and is now having trouble doing his first grade work. If he is included in a group activity, he constantly teases the smaller children. He has to be watched constantly or he will destroy their work in a sadistic manner.
6. Jason, a learning disabled six year old, occasionally prints letters backwards, writes from right to left, and is restless in class. His parents are concerned that he is still on reading readiness material rather than in a reading group like his classmates.
7. Herb, who is emotionally disturbed, has made poor adjustment to his first grade class despite his capability for learning. He has difficulty participating in group functions because he is so mischievous. He often fails to respond to discipline.
8. Ray, a learning disabled twelve year old, is a two time repeater with above average potential; he has great difficulty remembering material presented in a visual manner and, in spite of a great deal of remedial reading instruction; remains a non-reader.
9. Kenny is a ten year old mentally retarded boy with a history of late development. He sat up at age two, he had no recognizable speech until age seven, he learned to walk at age nine, and he is still not toilet trained.
10. Frank is an emotionally disturbed boy whose achievement is below that of his fifth grade classmates. He is moody, and a loner who is continually seeking attention and testing adults to see if they like him. At home he has displayed physical violence, but never at school.

11. Leroy, an emotionally disturbed boy, beat another first grader so severely that minor surgery was required. He has bitten a number of his classmates and has to be supervised constantly.
12. Charles is an eight year old mentally retarded child who has not yet sat up, crawled, or walked. He is unable to communicate in any way. He has no bowel or bladder control, can't feed himself, and is very susceptible to upper respiratory infections.
13. José is a mentally retarded boy who seems unable to perform the academic requirements of his fifth grade class, particularly in mathematics and language. He has a cheerful compliant personality. He works best on a concrete level.
14. Virginia is an eight year old emotionally disturbed girl who does little work in school. She is capable of verbal and physical attacks on anyone when angry. She doesn't seem to care about any school relationships and neither threats nor praise are effective in dealing with her.
15. Tom, an eight year old mentally retarded boy, doesn't seem to acquire new skills as quickly as most; he needs to have instructions repeated several times. He has difficulty working individually and needs a great deal of encouragement and supervision.
16. Annalou, who is emotionally disturbed, is new to her present fifth grade class. She seems anxious while she is in school, but is much calmer as soon as she leaves the school grounds. Her schoolwork is slightly below average, but she is quite responsive if encouraged.
17. Jesse, an eight year old mentally retarded boy, has difficulty keeping up with his class in all subjects. He is very large for his age and quite immature socially. He has a noticeable speech problem.
18. Stan is a twelve year old learning disabled boy of average ability who wants desperately to learn to read, but even though he has had remedial instruction, he is virtually a non-reader. He disturbs other children by humming to himself much of the time. Although he is frustrated in most academic endeavors, he does very well in experiments and class discussions in science and on all oral tests.
19. Jerry is a seven year old emotionally disturbed child who disrupts group tasks and refuses to go with his class to lunch or gym. At recess he plays with older children from other classes since his own classmates won't play with him. Although he seems to like his teacher and has above average potential, he seldom completes his work in a satisfactory manner.

20. Dan is a six year old mentally retarded boy who is extremely immature in all areas. He is not able to do any of the tasks that are expected of a kindergartner. His speech is primarily limited to one or two word utterances. He has a negative approach to school.
21. Paula is a soft spoken nine year old mentally retarded girl. She has trouble understanding even simple directions and often chooses to ignore them. She usually cannot be assigned work and reacts by crying or distracting other children.
22. Noel is a learning disabled second grader who was retained in first grade. His performance is low in all subjects, but he appears fairly capable. He is lethargic, passive, and non-reactive, seeming to lack emotional responsiveness. He still checks each letter when copying a word and often confuses letters and whole words.
23. Bob is a third grade emotionally disturbed boy who wants friends, but his classmates continually make him a scapegoat. Although he is apparently bright, he is very forgetful and seems unaware of what is expected by his teacher.
24. Vance, a seven year old learning disabled boy, is a good student in all areas except mathematics which is a constant frustration to him; he is unable to deal successfully with the most basic arithmetic concepts.
25. Bill is a very friendly ten year old mentally retarded boy who has recently learned to write his name. His speech skills are on a very immature level. He has mastered a few simple self-help skills.
26. Mel is an emotionally disturbed boy who continually disrupts his fifth grade class. He seems to be angry much of the time and often bullies other children. Although he is of average potential, he doesn't have much interest in his studies.
27. Christopher is a learning disabled second grader with many interests. He is very articulate, but works very slowly, particularly in reading. He is weak in phonetic analysis, can't seem to retain reading skills, and any academic growth on his part depends on a great deal of drill.
28. Don, a ten year old learning disabled boy, is only slightly slower than his average classmates, but he is clumsy and other students have nicknamed him "Don the Dunce".

29. Jimmy Lee is an eight year old mentally retarded boy whose academic performance is well below what is expected for his age. He has difficulty feeding himself, he is not completely toilet trained, and he has very poor motor coordination.
30. Fred is a learning disabled ten year old fourth grader who was retained in first grade. His attention span is short and many of his interests are immature. His motivation for classroom work is very low, but improves markedly in a one-to-one relationship. He has difficulty with reading, spelling, and arithmetic concepts. His oral performance indicates that he is far more able than his written work would indicate.

Appendix D
Letter of Permission to Conduct Study



DIRECTOR OF EDUCATION
R.A. MACINTOSH
SECRETARY-TREASURER
T.C. MACGREGOR
MAINT. SUPERVISOR
L.A. QUILLIAM

The St. James-Assiniboia School Division No. 2

BOARD OFFICE - 2574 PORTAGE AVENUE • WINNIPEG • MANITOBA R3J 0H8 • PH. 888-7951

1977 May 24

_____, Principal
Kirkfield Park School

Winnipeg, Manitoba
R2Y 0S4

Dear

RE: Your letter of May 11

Please consider this permission to contact all the elementary principals and vice principals as well as a random sample of 120 elementary teachers in this division for the purpose of gathering data for your investigation of placement of handicapped children.

I would appreciate receiving a copy of your conclusions when the investigation is complete.

Best wishes,

Yours truly,

R. A. MacIntosh
Director of Education

RAM/mjd

Appendix E
Raw Score Data Tables

Experimental Group a_1 (Teachers-No Labels)

Subject I.D. Number	Total Attitude Score (b_1)	Subject I.D. Number	Total Attitude Score (b_1)
100	100	132	140
101	90	133	111
102	87	135	98
103	131	136	101
104	115	137	123
105	115	138	108
106	117	139	104
107	89	140	115
108	108	141	113
109	124	142	100
112	85	143	132
113	136	144	112
115	118	145	97
116	104	146	96
117	113	147	112
118	120	148	105
119	107	149	109
120	123	150	112
121	117	151	122
122	100	152	90
123	101	153	128
124	120	154	92
126	91	155	100
127	107	156	126
128	102	157	115
130	109	159	102
131	96		

Experimental Group a_2 (Teachers-No Labels)

Subject I.D. Number	Total Attitude Score (b_2)	Subject I.D. Number	Total Attitude Score (b_2)
200	108	229	132
201	126	230	115
202	132	231	124
203	122	232	121
204	132	233	139
205	112	234	97
206	108	235	120
207	118	236	140
208	140	237	121
209	138	238	95
210	116	239	102
211	118	240	119
212	145	241	114
213	130	242	144
214	125	243	145
215	129	244	142
216	131	245	140
217	99	246	122
218	139	247	119
219	128	248	129
221	120	249	107
222	132	250	120
223	122	251	125
224	132	252	136
225	118	253	152
226	103	255	114
227	125	257	140
228	123	258	139

Experimental Group a_2 (Administrators-Labels)

Subject I.D. Number	Total Attitude Score (b_1)
300	115
301	89
302	112
303	108
304	129
305	116
306	107
307	113
308	134
309	119
310	122
311	114
312	123
313	99
315	117
316	114
317	95
318	117

Experimental Group a₂ (Administrators-No Labels)

Subject I.D. Number	Total Attitude Score (b ₂)
401	108
402	143
403	117
404	129
405	124
406	130
407	132
408	131
409	161
410	133
411	134
412	155
413	128
414	104
415	143
416	117
417	134

Appendix F
Response Sheet

HUGGREN-WADDE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMMING SCALE

Chauncy N. Rucker Robert K. Gable
UNIVERSITY OF CONNECTICUT

THE LETTER BOX BELOW WHICH MATCHES EACH LETTER OF YOUR NAME.

SCROLL

LAST NAME		FIRST NAME		W	I
A	A	A	A	A	A
B	B	B	B	B	B
C	C	C	C	C	C
D	D	D	D	D	D
E	E	E	E	E	E
F	F	F	F	F	F
G	G	G	G	G	G
H	H	H	H	H	H
I	I	I	I	I	I
J	J	J	J	J	J
K	K	K	K	K	K
L	L	L	L	L	L
M	M	M	M	M	M
N	N	N	N	N	N
O	O	O	O	O	O
P	P	P	P	P	P
Q	Q	Q	Q	Q	Q
R	R	R	R	R	R
S	S	S	S	S	S
T	T	T	T	T	T
U	U	U	U	U	U
V	V	V	V	V	V
W	W	W	W	W	W
X	X	X	X	X	X
Y	Y	Y	Y	Y	Y
Z	Z	Z	Z	Z	Z

PRESENT POSITION	
A	A
B	B
C	C
D	D
E	E
F	F
G	G
H	H
I	I
J	J
K	K
L	L
M	M
N	N
O	O
P	P
Q	Q
R	R
S	S
T	T
U	U
V	V
W	W
X	X
Y	Y
Z	Z

1.	7	RC	CON	CON & DS	RR	PTSC	FTSC	NOT
2.	7	RC	CON	CON & DS	RR	PTSC	FTSC	NOT
3.	7	RC	CON	CON & DS	RR	PTSC	FTSC	NOT
4.	7	RC	CON	CON & DS	RR	PTSC	FTSC	NOT
5.	7	RC	CON	CON & DS	RR	PTSC	FTSC	NOT
6.	7	RC	CON	CON & DS	RR	PTSC	FTSC	NOT
7.	7	RC	CON	CON & DS	RR	PTSC	FTSC	NOT
8.	7	RC	CON	CON & DS	RR	PTSC	FTSC	NOT
9.	7	RC	CON	CON & DS	RR	PTSC	FTSC	NOT
10.	7	RC	CON	CON & DS	RR	PTSC	FTSC	NOT
11.	7	RC	CON	CON & DS	RR	PTSC	FTSC	NOT
12.	7	RC	CON	CON & DS	RR	PTSC	FTSC	NOT
13.	7	RC	CON	CON & DS	RR	PTSC	FTSC	NOT
14.	7	RC	CON	CON & DS	RR	PTSC	FTSC	NOT
15.	7	RC	CON	CON & DS	RR	PTSC	FTSC	NOT
16.	7	RC	CON	CON & DS	RR	PTSC	FTSC	NOT
17.	7	RC	CON	CON & DS	RR	PTSC	FTSC	NOT
18.	7	RC	CON	CON & DS	RR	PTSC	FTSC	NOT
19.	7	RC	CON	CON & DS	RR	PTSC	FTSC	NOT
20.	7	RC	CON	CON & DS	RR	PTSC	FTSC	NOT
21.	7	RC	CON	CON & DS	RR	PTSC	FTSC	NOT
22.	7	RC	CON	CON & DS	RR	PTSC	FTSC	NOT
23.	7	RC	CON	CON & DS	RR	PTSC	FTSC	NOT
24.	7	RC	CON	CON & DS	RR	PTSC	FTSC	NOT
25.	7	RC	CON	CON & DS	RR	PTSC	FTSC	NOT
26.	7	RC	CON	CON & DS	RR	PTSC	FTSC	NOT
27.	7	RC	CON	CON & DS	RR	PTSC	FTSC	NOT
28.	7	RC	CON	CON & DS	RR	PTSC	FTSC	NOT
29.	7	RC	CON	CON & DS	RR	PTSC	FTSC	NOT
30.	7	RC	CON	CON & DS	RR	PTSC	FTSC	NOT

USE NO. 2 PENCIL ONLY

YEARS TEACHING EXPERIENCE	I.D. NO.
0	0 0 0
1	1 1 1
2	2 2 2
3	3 3 3
4	4 4 4
5	5 5 5
6	6 6 6
7	7 7 7
8	8 8 8
9	9 9 9

SEX
M
F

ADDITIONAL INFORMATION	
0	0 0 0
1	1 1 1
2	2 2 2
3	3 3 3
4	4 4 4
5	5 5 5
6	6 6 6
7	7 7 7
8	8 8 8
9	9 9 9

Appendix G
Letter of Instructions

71 Valleyview Drive,
Winnipeg, Manitoba R2Y OR7
May 27, 1977

101

Dear Colleague:

Bill 58, as passed by the Manitoba Legislature during its Second Session, Thirtieth Legislature, 1975, states that:

Every school board shall provide or make provision for the education of all resident persons who have the right to attend school and who require special programs for their education.

Bill 58 has been passed, but not proclaimed, so that school divisions, teachers, parents and others can prepare themselves to meet their responsibilities.

The underlying philosophy is that children benefit most from the program which is closest to the regular school program, and which at the same time provides enough supports to meet their individual needs. The term "integration" is often used, and means the provision of a continuum of services.

The opinions of teachers and principals are very important for planning towards implementation of this law since the success of any educational program depends largely upon how educators feel, and it is important that the attitudes, knowledge, and understanding of teachers be reviewed before integration begins. Although the results of this study will be used primarily for my Master's Thesis, it is hoped that the findings will be of further value to our school division.

Your name has been selected by random sample from the list of elementary teachers in the St. James-Assiniboia School Division. It would be greatly appreciated if you would complete the enclosed programming scale by shading in the appropriate spaces on the response sheet with the accompanying pencil. Please do not discuss the programming scale with anyone until after you have completed your answers.

Please answer every item by indicating what you feel would be the best educational placement at this time for each student. Twenty to thirty minutes of your time will be required.

A stamped return envelope is provided for your convenience. The covering letter and the pencil need not be returned. Return only the programming scale and the response sheet.

If you would like to see the results of this study, upon completion, a copy will be provided for the Teacher Centre, or you may contact me.

Thank you for your participation in this study. I know your time is valuable; however, prompt response would be appreciated.

Sincerely,



Jack Elliott

Please use _____ as your I.D. number on the response sheet.