

PERCEPTIONS OF KOREAN SPECIAL EDUCATION TEACHERS REGARDING THE
IMPORTANCE AND EXTENT OF ADMINISTRATIVE SUPPORT

By

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This dissertation is dedicated to my country, South Korea.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
ASQ	Administrative Support Questionnaire
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
EBD	Emotional and Behavioral Disorders
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
GET	General Education Teacher
PCA	Principal Component Analysis
PSS	Principal Support Scale
PSQ	Principal Support Questionnaire
SET	Special Education Teacher
SWD	Students with Disabilities

Abstract of Dissertation Presented to the Graduate School
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Administrative support from school principals is considered to be an important factor influencing special education teachers' (SETs) job satisfaction, their work stress, retention and commitment to their work, and potentially the achievement of their students. Despite the importance of administrative support, few researchers have investigated the value of different kinds of administrative support as perceived by special education teachers. Furthermore, data suggest special education teachers are not always provided with the support they want or need to receive the most.

In South Korea, about 60% of special education teachers (SETs) are employed in general education schools. General school principals are legally responsible for overseeing the delivery of special education, but little is known about how SETs receive administrative support from their principals and what kinds of support they believe are most important. This is a timely and relevant problem to address because appropriate administrative support could help to reduce the reported challenges experienced by these Korean SETs.

The purpose of this study was to measure the validity of the Administrative Support Questionnaire (ASQ) for use in examining the perceptions of SETs regarding administrative support provided by principals in South Korean general education schools. In addition, this study was also conducted to understand the SETs' perceptions of both the importance and extent of the administrative support provided by their school principals, and to identify the gap between the extent of and importance of administrative support. House's (1981) four-dimensional framework of social supports provided the conceptual foundation that informed the study's survey methods.

Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) results provided validity evidence of the ASQ for use in Korea. The EFA of survey data from 141 SETs in a rural Korean province revealed that four types of administrative support were considered important: emotional, appraisal, informational, and instrumental support, as posited by the House (1981) framework. For the extent of administrative support, however, only one type of administrative support was found indicating SETs identified any support they received as general support. SETs perceived emotional and instrumental support to be more important than appraisal and informational support. Furthermore, a paired t-test revealed significant mean differences between the extent of and importance of administrative supports. SETs' comments indicate the need for principals to have greater knowledge and understanding of special education and the need for guidelines regarding suitable workload assignments for SETs in general schools. The results of this study could be used to improve Korean policies related to administrative support and to inform Korean policymakers about supports needed by SETs to teach students with disabilities in general education schools.

CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Context for the Study

Administrative support from school principals is considered to be an important factor influencing special education teachers' job satisfaction (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003; Kang & Park, 2002; Lee, 2012; Lee, 2014; Littrell, Billingsley, & Cross, 1994), their work stress (Kim, 2006; Kim, 2010a; Lee, 1996; Oh, 2008; Wheeler & LaRocco, 2009; You, 2008), job commitment and intent to staying in teaching (Conley & You, 2016; Ingersoll & Smith, 2003; Tickle, Chang, & Kim, 2011). Despite the importance of administrative support, few researchers have investigated the value of different kinds of administrative support as perceived by special education teachers (SETs). Some studies suggest special education teachers are not always provided with the support they want or need to receive the most (Cancio, Albrecht, & Johns, 2013; Cross & Billingsley, 1994; Littrell, Billingsley, & Cross, 1994). Furthermore, some studies indicate that, on average, school administrators perceive they provide support to teachers to a greater degree than their teachers' perceive receiving it (Hughes, Matt, & O'Reilly, 2015; Roderich & Jung, 2012).

Definition of Administrative Support for Teachers

Defining administrative support for teachers is not easy (Billingsley, 2004). There is no clear definition for this term (Cancio et al., 2013; Prather-Jones, 2011; Yoon & Gilchrist, 2003) and only a limited number of researchers have described how they used the term. Littrell (1992) stated administrative support is provided by a school principal and "includes four broad types of behaviors: (a) emotional support, (b) appraisal support, (c) instrumental support, and (d) informational support" (Littrell, 1992, p. 30). According to Broughton and Hester (1993), high-support administrators focus on

“providing financial resources, encouraging innovative teaching, and generally creating an atmosphere of openness and comradery [SIC]” (p.173).

Later studies defined administrative support more comprehensively. Rafoth and Foriska (2006) described administrative support as including “(a) time within the school day for meetings, (b) in-service training, (c) reimbursement for time outside the school day, (d) credit toward school district service requirement, (e) clerical/record keeping support, (f) emotional support, (g) parental support, and (h) direct involvement with disruptive students” (p.134). Borman and Dowling (2008) defined administrative support for teachers as meaning, “the school's effectiveness in assisting teachers with issues such as student discipline, instructional methods, curriculum, and adjusting to the school environment” (p.380).

In response to the lack of a clear definition, Prather-Jones (2011) conducted interviews with 13 SETs of students with emotional and behavior disorders using their descriptions to illustrate the supports they desired from their school administrators:

- Teachers looked to principals to enforce reasonable consequences for student misconduct, and to include them in the decision making behind these consequences.
- Teachers felt supported by principals who made them feel respected and appreciated.
- Teachers need support from the other teachers in their schools, and principals play an important role in developing these relationships. (p. 4)

Definitions of administrative support are multi-dimensional, thus, it is not easy to define the term; however, descriptions of it have been developed and the importance of these supports has been examined.

Importance of Administrative Support for SETs

Many existing studies demonstrated the importance of administrative support for SETs. Gersten, Keating, Yovanoff, and Harniss (2001) determined that principal support has strong influences on “virtually all critical aspects of teachers’ working conditions” (p. 557). First of all, administrative support for teachers is crucial for teachers’ retention. According to Billingsley (2007), the most challenging concern in the special education field is the shortage of SETs and retaining SETs is very crucial to resolving this problem. For novice teachers, administrative support was revealed as an important factor that influences the retention of general education teachers (GETs) and SETs in the teaching profession (Darling-Hammond, 2003). Specifically, administrative support increases/predicts teachers’ job satisfaction and influences teachers’ commitment to their jobs and their intent to staying in their positions.

Numerous studies have shown that administrative support is strongly related to teachers’ job satisfaction and intent to stay in teaching (e.g., Ax, Conderman, & Stephens, 2001; Albrecht et al., 2009; Boyd et al., 2011; Cancio et al., 2013; Conley & You, 2016; Cross & Billingsley, 1994; Fish & Stephens, 2009; Gehrke & Murri, 2006; Gersten, Keating, Yovanoff, & Harniss, 2001; Ingersoll & Smith, 2003; Liu & Meyer, 2005; Loeb, Daring-Hammond, & Luczak, 2005; Miller, Brownell, & Smith, 1999; Ott & Arnold, 2005; Plash, & Piotrowski, 2006; Prather-Jones, 2011; Schlichte et al., 2005; Stephens, & Fish, 2010; Tickle, Chang, & Kim, 2011; Worthy, 2005). Among the 237 Emotional and Behavioral Disorders (EBD) teachers in Wisconsin who participated in the Ax et al. (2001) study, 25% mentioned the lack of administrative support was the primary reason for leaving. According to Ingersoll and Smith (2003), who used the 1994-1994 SASS data, 26% of teachers cited poor administrative support as their

reason for job dissatisfaction, which led to leaving their teaching positions. Conley and You (2016) used the 2007-2008 SASS data set and found that administrative support had a direct effect on SET's intention to leave ($\beta = -.19, p < .05$). In addition, administrative support influenced work commitment ($\beta = .58$), career commitment ($\beta = .10$), and job satisfaction ($\beta = .44$), which are three mediating variables of administrative support on SETs' intention to leave.

Furthermore, Tickle, Chang, and Kim (2011) used the 2003-2004 SASS teacher questionnaire data and found that administrative support was the most significant predictor for teachers' job satisfactions ($\beta = .399, p < .01$) in comparison to other predictors such as teaching experience ($\beta = .042$), students behavior ($\beta = .243$), and teacher salary satisfaction ($\beta = .141$). In this study the teachers' satisfaction was the most significant predictor for teachers' intent to staying in teaching ($\beta = .230, p < .01$). In addition, administrative support was also a significant predictor of teachers' intent to stay ($\beta = .030, p < .01$).

According to the report from the National Comprehensive Center for Teacher Quality and Public Agenda (Rochkind, Immerwahr, Ott, & Johnson, 2008), administrative support is more important for teachers rather than higher salaries. When teachers were asked to choose a school by selecting between higher salary and strong administrative support controlling other conditions, 81% of elementary teachers responded that they would select the school with administrative support. Furthermore, Boyd et al. (2011) recruited all novice teachers in New York City to examine the influence of school administration on teacher retention decisions. Boyd et al. (2011) found that administrative and collegial support were the greatest influence on teacher

retention. The SETs are not exceptional. Billingsley (2007) stated administrative support maintains special educators' commitment and involvement in their work.

Second, administrative support could influence students' outcomes. According to Billingsley, Carlson, & Klein (2004), offering support to SETs reduces teachers' attrition and could improve the quality of special education services. Other studies similarly stated the importance of administrative support because it would ultimately enhance students' outcomes (Benz, Lindstrom, & Yovanoff, 2000; Gersten et al., 2001).

Third, administrative support could resolve SETs' emotional difficulties. Administrative supports are crucial for SETs especially because SETs are more likely to be isolated from their co-workers and often need to rely on themselves to figure out their own problem (Hansen, 2007). According to Correa and Wagner (2011), SETs could be the only teachers in the schools working with special populations and thus feel isolation; "principals that designed favorable working conditions, provided equitable caseloads, and gave SETs resources for instruction were instrumental in helping SETs feel supported and an integral part of the school community" (p.19). Ax et al. (2001) insisted "principals who are in touch with these daily realities can provide the individual support needed to reduce their teacher's feeling of isolation, exhaustion, and burnout" (p. 68). Furthermore, Otto and Arnold (2005) found that SETs felt less isolated when they had a conversation with school administrators.

Fourth, administrative support could play an important role for inclusive education. Several studies have indicated the positive influence of administrative support on inclusive education (e.g., Daane, Beirne-Smith, & Latham, 2000; Shade & Steward, 2001). Villa, Thousand, Nevin and Liston (2005) stated that "in a survey of

educator's attitudes toward inclusive education, the degree of administrative support for the practices [for inclusive education] was the most powerful predictor of a general educator's positive feeling toward inclusive practices" (p.43). In another study, Santoli, Sachs, Romey, and McClurg (2008) surveyed 56 middle school teachers' attitudes toward inclusion and found that "respondents felt very strongly (93.4%) that they had administrative support or would be supported by their principal in issues pertaining to students with disabilities" (p.6).

Administrative support from principals is important not only for teachers in the U.S. but also for those in South Korea. In South Korea, administrative support from school principals is also a crucial factor influencing SETs' job satisfaction (Kang & Park, 2002; Lee, 2012; Lee, 2014) and their work stress (Lee, 1996; Oh, 2008; Kim, 2006; Kim, 2010a; You, 2008). Kang and Park (2002) and Lee (2014) found that there is a positive relationship between SETs' job satisfaction and administrative support. According to Kim (2010a), 147 SETs in special schools ($M = 3.24$, $SD = .71$) experienced more stress from their relationship with principals than did 162 GETs in general schools ($M = 2.93$, $SD = .72$) of Gyeongwon province. The difference was statistically significant ($t = -3.860$, $p < .000$). In contrast, there were no significant differences in the stress experienced by GETs and SETs from their relationships with students, parents, and colleagues.

In a recent study, Lee (2014) found that GETs were dissatisfied with the school conditions and overall facilities' support (30%) provided by administrators, while SETs were dissatisfied with the lack of recognition of their work by administrators (28%).

GETs were dissatisfied with their schools' physical conditions, while SETs were dissatisfied when administrators failed to recognize their work.

In Korea, however, administrative support is not necessarily related to students' outcomes, nor is it related to teachers' intent to staying due to different educational systems (i.e., special education curriculum, appointment of principals by promotion and seniority, lack of accountability system for special education to address students' achievement, teacher positions guaranteed by the government, and high teacher retention rates). In addition, the school context for South Korean SETs and special education is different from the U.S.

In Korea, 60% of special education teachers (SETs) are employed in general education schools where results of numerous studies reveal that they receive limited supports from their principals and have difficulties operating special classes (Hwang, 2006; Kim, 2009; Kim, Kim, Choi, & Kwon, 2011; Lee, 2005; Lee, 2008; Lee & Park, 2009). Additional results indicate SETs in general schools have difficulties with implementing the national curriculum for students with disabilities (SWD) (Kim et al., 2011; Yeo, Cho, & Bak, 2004), co-teaching and collaborating for inclusive education (Kim, 2009; Kim, Kim, Choi, & Kwon, 2011; Lee, 2005; Lee, Han, & Yi, 2009), budgeting for the operation of special education classes (Kang & Park, 2002; Lee, 2005; Nam & Ahn, 2013) and supervising their class (Lim & Park, 2009; Tae & Park, 2007). Furthermore, general school principals are in charge of implementing the operation of special education classes including implementation of inclusive education and curriculum for SWD based on the Special Education Act for Individuals with Disabilities and Others ([SEAIDO], 2008). However, little is known about to what degree SETs

receive administrative support from the principal and what kinds of principal support SETs believe are important. This is a timely and relevant problem to address because appropriate administrative support could help support SETs' in meeting school-based challenges.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine Korean SETs' perceptions of administrative support using survey methodology and to provide evidence of the Administrative Support Questionnaire (ASQ) for Korean use. In addition, this study examined the gap between the kinds of support SETs believe are important and the perceived extent to which they receive these supports from their principals. This investigation was intended to raise public awareness of the importance of administrative support for SETs employed in general education schools in South Korea. Furthermore, the results of this study provide implications for policy and practice to improve administrative support for Korean SETs.

Conceptual Framework

This study was guided by the perspective that social supports provide assistance through social relationships (House, 1981). House focused on the role of social supports in reducing work stress and improving health. In House's conceptual framework, supports can be categorized across four dimensions that include emotional, instrumental, informational, and appraisal support. Littrell, Billingsley, and Cross (1994) applied these four dimensions of social support to administrative support provided to teachers in school settings. The first dimension, emotional support, is indicated when administrators establish and maintain supportive and open communication with teachers and show concern for teachers' ideas and opinions. The second, appraisal

support, is indicated by offering frequent and productive feedback to teachers regarding their work performance. The third, informational support, is indicated by providing advice and recommendations for instruction and offering suggestions for improving classroom management. The last, instrumental support, is indicated by providing needed resources and materials to help teachers perform their duties; this includes allowing teachers to have sufficient planning and preparation time.

Investigating the types of administrative support helps principals know how to support teachers better (Littrell et al., 1994). For this reason, House's (1981) four dimensions of social support formed the basis for this study's research questions.

Research Questions

This study examined Korean SETs' perceptions of administrative support (i.e., emotional, appraisal, informational, and instrumental supports) provided by school principals. Specifically, this study was designed to measure the validity of the Administrative Support Questionnaire for use in Korea.

The research questions and assumptions are as follows:

1. What is the construct validity of the Administrative Support Questionnaire when applied in South Korea?
2. What is the reliability of the Administrative Support Questionnaire when applied in South Korea?
3. What type of administrative support have SETs received the most from general school principals?
4. What type of administrative supports do SETs think are important to receive from general school principals?
5. Is there any difference between SETs' perceptions of the extent of and the importance of the four types of administrative support?

Assumptions

This study depended on the following assumptions. With regard to the first question, it was assumed the ASQ would comprise four factors (i.e., emotional, appraisal, informational, and instrumental supports) when applied in South Korea. With regard to the second question, it was assumed the reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of the ASQ would be higher than 0.7 (Kline, 1999) for the internal consistency of the survey questions. For the rest of research questions, the assumptions were as follows:

- H_0 3 (null): There are no significant differences among the types of support that the SETs received.
- H_A 3 (alternate): There are significant differences among the types of support the SETs received.
- H_0 4 (null): There are no significant differences among the types of support that the SETs think are important.
- H_A 4 (alternate): There are significant differences among the types of support that the SETs think are important.
- H_0 5 (null): There is no significant difference between SETs' perceptions of the extent of and importance of the four types of principal support.
- H_A 5 (alternate): There is significant difference between SETs' perceptions of the extent of and importance of the four types of principal support.

Definitions

It is important for the reader to understand how terms are defined in this study.

Administrative/ Principal Support

Administrative "support provided by the principal that includes four broad types of behaviors: (a) emotional support, (b) appraisal support, (c) instrumental support, and (d) informational support" (Littrell, 1992, p. 30).

Special Education Class

Special education class is a class that is established in South Korean general schools for the inclusive education of students with disabilities (Special Education Act for Individuals with Disabilities and Others [SEAIDO], 2008, Article 2, Clause 11).

Inclusive Education

Inclusive education means the appropriate education that students with disabilities receive in general schools with their peers, considering their individual needs, and that does not discriminate based on the types and degrees of student's' disabilities (SEAIDO, 2008, Article 2, Clause 6).

Significance of the Study

This study is significant in being the first to validate the ASQ for use with SETs in South Korean general education schools. There is limited evidence regarding the importance and extent of administrative support provided to teachers in Korea. According to Hicks (2011), "if administrators are concerned with offering positive support to teachers, then it is imperative that they be aware of what teachers perceive to be the most valuable supports" (p. 9). This study investigates both the degree of the importance and the perceived extent of administrative support by SETs to determine whether there is a gap between them, with its end goal being that Korean administrators could provide those supports to SETs who work in special education classes in general education schools. The results of this study could be used to update professional learning for school principals and to inform policy regarding the provision of administrative supports valued by SETs.

This study is also significant for educational policy in South Korea because it (a) reviews the growing body of information related to administrative support for teachers in

the U.S. and in South Korea, (b) describes the contexts of special education in the U.S. and South Korea that could be influenced by administrative support, (c) contributes to the in-service training of South Korean principals in charge of inclusive education, and (d) supports SETs in South Korea by encouraging administrative support from school principals. The findings from this study could be used to improve Korean policies related to administrative support for teachers and to inform Korean policymakers about the importance of support for SETs in the context of inclusive education.

Overview of the Dissertation

This study is presented in five chapters. Chapter 1 introduces the importance of administrative supports for SETs and includes the statement of the problem, research questions, theoretical framework, assumptions, definitions of terms, and significance of the study. Chapter 2 provides a review of the literature related to the definition of and importance of administrative support for SETs. The different contexts for providing special education in general schools in both the U.S. and South Korea are included. Furthermore, the theoretical framework of administrative support and the major findings of research into administrative support for SETs are documented. In addition, the importance of validating the survey questionnaire is included. The discrepancies in the ideal perceptions and the current experiences of SETs regarding administrative supports are also discussed. Chapter 3 presents a description of the methodology and procedures for conducting this study, including the population, sample, instrumentation, data collection, and data analysis. Chapter 4 provides the results of the analysis, and Chapter 5 concludes with a discussion of the major findings of this study with implications for policy and practice, and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER 2 LITERATURE REVIEW

Overview

The purpose of this study is to measure the validity of the Administrative Support Questionnaire (ASQ) for use in examining SETs' perceptions of administrative support provided by principals in South Korean general education schools, and to identify the gap between the importance and extent of administrative support, so that school principals can assist them appropriately. Administrative support plays an important role in retaining teachers in the U.S (Conley & You, 2016; Ingersoll & Smith, 2003; Tickle et al., 2011), and studies have been conducted on the relationship between administrator supports and teachers' intent to staying in teaching, as well as their job satisfaction and work stress. In South Korea, however, the context of administrative support for teachers is quite different (i.e., teachers' retention rate is 99%), so administrative support studies are limited to examining the relationship between teachers' job satisfaction and administrative support (Kang, 2001; Lee, 2012).

This review of literature covers special education in the context of general education schools both in the U.S. and South Korea. This chapter presents a review of the literature regarding: (a) contexts of special education in general schools both in the U.S. and South Korea, but with emphasis on the South Korean context, (b) the conceptual framework of social support guiding this study (House, 1981) and administrative support studies that have used this framework, (c) importance of validation of administrative support questionnaire, and (d) discrepancies in the ideal perceptions and the current experiences of SETs.

Empirical and theoretical literature, as well as national policy documents published in the U.S. and South Korea, were used in the development of this review. To locate literature in the U.S. regarding special education in the context of general schools and administrative support, PsycInfo, ProQuest, and Education Resource Information Center (ERIC) databases were searched through the University of Florida library system. Keywords such as beginning/novice special education teachers, administrator support for special education, principals and special education, elementary special education teachers, inclusive education, special education teachers' challenges, and inclusive education teachers were used. These terms were searched from 2000-2016. Furthermore, influential theoretical frameworks and empirical studies published earlier, or in books and chapters were also reviewed to include seminal research addressing administrative support for SETs. Lastly, the references of each study were reviewed for further resources.

To conduct a review of the Korean literature addressing administrative support and the delivery of special education in the context of general education schools, DBpia, Research Information Sharing Service (RISS), and the Korean Studies Information Service System (KISS) databases were searched through the Daegu University library system. The same keywords for locating the U.S. literature were used. Those terms were searched from 2000-2016. Finally, the reference sections of the identified articles were checked for further resources.

Comparison of Special Education Contexts in the United States and South Korea

This section compares the context of SETs and special education in general schools in both the U.S and the South Korea. The South Korean special education context is discussed in greater depth because of the focus of this study on SET's

perceptions of the extent and importance of administrative support provided by principals in Korean general education schools.

Schools in the United States

The context of teaching special education in the U.S. is presented first. Specifically, special education in the context of general education schools, the challenges for SETs, and school principals and special education in the U.S. are presented in this section.

Special education in the context of general education schools. In the U.S., special education laws have influenced SETs and SWD. SETs were typically employed in special schools as well as residential settings before the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (EAHCA) in 1975 (Shepherd, Fowler, McCormick, Wilson, & Morgan, 2016). After the passage of the EAHCA, free and appropriate public education for all SWD was guaranteed and teachers' roles, as well as responsibilities, were re-defined (Shepherd et al., 2016). In addition, this Act required SWD to be educated in the least restrictive environment (LRE) according to each student's individualized education program (IEP) (Sumbera, Pazey, & Lashley, 2014). In 1997, the amendments to the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA), which was the renamed EAHCA, significantly highlighted the importance of access to academic content for SWD, and the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) in 2002 required access to the general education curriculum for all students, including those with disabilities (Petersen, 2016). Furthermore, the NCLB required school principals to include SWDs' test scores for accountability whether or not they made adequate yearly progress (AYP) (Sumbera et al., 2014). Because of the laws, more SWD have been educated in the context of general education (U.S. Department of Education, 2006).

By 2013-2014, 13% of public schools enrolled students identified as SWD and 6.5 million SWD were served under IDEA (National Center for Education Statistics, 2016.). Of these students, 35% were identified as having specific learning disabilities, 21% as having speech or language impairments, 13% as having other health impairments, 8% as having autism, 7% as having intellectual disabilities, 6% as having developmental delay, 5% as having emotional disturbance, 2% as having multiple disabilities, 1% as having hearing impairments, and the remaining 1% as having orthopedic impairments (National Center for Education Statistics, 2016).

In terms of SWDs' educational placement, 95% of students were enrolled in general schools. Sixty-two percent were placed in general classes for 80% or more of the school day, and 19% were educated for 40% to 79% of the school day in general classes. The remaining 14% of SWD were placed for less than 40% of school time in general classes in 2013-14 (National Center for Education Statistics, 2016).

Challenges for special education teachers in the U.S. More than half of SWD are placed in general classes in general schools for most of the school day; consequently, SETs frequently work in general classes to support them by assisting, co-teaching, and consulting with GETs (Wasburn-Moses, 2005). Wasburn-Moses (2005) surveyed 191 SETs in high school and found that their common roles were “(a) teaching reading and writing, content, and skills, (b) working with students, including making adaptations or accommodations, managing behavior, and consulting with students on their caseload, (c) working with others, such as general education teachers, parents, and administrators, and (d) paperwork” (p. 155). The 59 special educators in a recent study by Urbach et al. (2015) identified various roles played by SETs, including: (a)

instructor, (b) resource manager, (c) collaborator, (d) communicator, (e) relationship builder, and (f) student supporter.

Based on the Digest for Education Statistics 2014 (Snyder, de Brey, & Dillow, 2016), 364,000 SETs worked nationwide; however, studies report that many SET leave their teaching positions (Albrecht et al., 2009; Prather-Jones, 2011). Thus, many studies of SETs' challenges and difficulties in the workplace are often described in the context of teachers' job satisfaction, job stress/burnout, or attritions in the U.S. When SETs are stressed and not satisfied with their job, they are more likely to leave their position.

Tyler and Brunner (2014) categorized factors that challenge teachers and could influence their attrition. The factors include (a) administrative support, (b) professional development, (c) workplace conditions, (d) teacher preparation, (e) teacher mentorship/induction, and (f) workplace decision-making. To understand the attrition phenomenon specifically, Tyler and Brunner adopted Bronfenbrenner's model and described three levels including the microsystem (teacher-classroom interactions), mesosystem (teacher-school interactions), and exosystem (teacher district, teacher-state, and teacher-federal interactions). The three types of systems influence SETs' job satisfaction, ultimately affecting their career decisions. In other words, SETs encounter difficulties on three different levels. Based on the literature, Tyler and Brunner found that student contact time, classroom resources, caseload size, and classroom technology pertained to the microsystem. The scheduling of students, availability of instructional assistance, and consultation/collaboration time constitute the mesosystem. Furthermore, professional development, due process paperwork, and curriculum/instruction form part of the exosystem.

According to Kozleski et al. (2000) SETs have challenges such as “(a) overwhelming amounts of paperwork, (b) unmanageable caseloads, (c) insufficient administrative support, (d) limited curricular and technological resources, (e) inadequate opportunities to plan with their colleagues, and (f) inadequate professional development” (p. 8). Specifically, SETs’ challenges such as excessive paperwork and caseload, and lack of collaboration are emphasized in the following discussion.

Excessive paperwork and caseload. SETs face different challenges such as paperwork for each student’s Individualized Education Program (IEP) compared to GETs (Berry, Petrin, Gravelle, & Farmer, 2011). In addition to IEPs, SETs have more paperwork including evaluations, meeting notices, minutes, reports, and progress documentation (Manning, 2008). Stephens and Fish (2010) examined the motivation factors toward pursuing a career in special education by conducting semi-structured telephone interviews with 15 SETs. The common themes were the excessive demands related to paperwork and one SET stated that “not just doing all the testing, but all of the paperwork and reporting. You (diagnostician) have a lot of duties, I feel more so than general educators” (p.588). SETs understood the importance of IEPs and paperwork; however, they expressed frustration due to an excessive amount of time spent on paperwork tasks rather than teaching (Manning, 2008; Stephens & Fish, 2010). Furthermore, Williams and Dikes (2015) found a positive correlation between the additional hours that SETs spent to complete paperwork and the evidences of burnout.

Williams and Dikes (2015) also found that caseload number is positively correlated with SETs’ burnout. Caseload is usually defined “as the number of special needs student files the teacher is responsible for” (p. 228). Caseload challenges were

also referred to in the Stephens and Fish (2010) study with one SET stating “a lot of teachers who I have talked to have left special education because their caseloads are so big and if they would decrease those caseloads for special education teachers” (p.591). One fourth of the 1,153 SETs in Billingsley et al.’s (2004) analysis also felt that their caseload was unmanageable.

Lack of collaboration. SETs and GETs should work together to provide an appropriate education for SWD in acceptable and comfortable educational settings (Demik, 2008). Demik (2008) examined SETs’ attrition experiences through narrative inquiry and found SETs referred to lack of collaboration with GETs. In addition, one of the five SETs articulated limited acceptance of her students by GETs. The SET stated “instead of ‘us’ and ‘them’, [and] ‘your kids not my kids’, it should be ‘ours’ and it is our program” (p.28). The limited time for collaboration with GETs is another challenge for SETs (Magiera & Zigmond, 2005; Santoli et al., 2008). SETs in the Santoli et al. (2008) study stated that they did not have enough time for collaboration while participating in meetings related to their SWD, or preparing for their teaching responsibilities.

School principals and special education. School principals’ play an important role in delivering special education services to SWD. The principals’ role has shifted to instructional leader for improving teachers’ effectiveness and the achievement of all students (Lashley, 2007; Simpson, LaCava, & Graner, 2004). According to Stevenson-Jacobson, Jacobson, and Hilton (2006), principals spend between 36% and 58% of their work time on special education. Cobb (2015) noted that principals wear many hats such as supervising curriculum delivery, facilitating professional development, providing feedback to teachers, hiring teachers, and confirming that they implement services

according to policies. Furthermore, “principals must not only be aware of special education law but also be prepared for possible legal conflicts in relation to a school’s operations” (p.213).

In order for principals to understand their role for special education aligning with special education law, the National Association of Elementary School Principals (NAESP), the Council for Exceptional Children, and IDEA Partners published joint guidelines for principals to implement IDEA (NAESP, 2001). This guideline indicated the importance of the principals’ role in special education to meet IDEA requirements. The handbook illustrated the principals’ roles such as:

(A)The principal ensures that both regular and special educators share responsibility for the educational achievement of children with disabilities (p. 17), (B) The principal accepts responsibility for hiring and/or recommending for hiring qualified special education and related service personnel, (C) The principal ensures that all staff are knowledgeable about IDEA requirements and demonstrate effective instructional practices for children with disabilities and (D) The principal is responsible, along with the special education director, for allocating staff and other resources as required by the IEP and ensures that all services are provided as specified in the IEP (p. 24).

Advanced preparation standards for special education administrators were recently revised by the Council for Exceptional Children (2013). The standards address administrative competencies for special education including knowledge and skills of assessment; curricular content knowledge; knowledge of programs, services, and outcomes; research and inquiry; leadership and policy; professional and ethical practice; and collaboration.

Schools in South Korea

Administrative support in South Korea is quite different because the contemporary context of special education in Korea is different from that of the U.S.

Becoming a public school teacher in Korea is quite competitive due to guaranteed tenure until retirement at age 62 by the government, and the higher social status of teachers (Ingersoll, 2007). Thus, the overall retention rate for GETs and SETs is 99%, and limited pre-service teachers are accepted into special education preparation programs (easier for entering than elementary general education preparation programs) (Center on International Education Benchmarking, n.d). Currently, fewer than 500 pre-service SETs (elementary and secondary level) pass the National Assessment of Teacher Education (NATE) each year, but more than 1,800 SET candidates from 39 universities graduate every year nationwide (Ministry of Education [MOE], 2015). About 5,600 pre-service elementary GET pass the NATE each year out of 6,000 pre-service teachers that graduate each year from 12 national universities of education. Each of the teacher training programs follows the minimum standards set by the Teacher Certification Authorization Act (Korean Education Development Institute [KEDI], 2006). The fully certified teachers' proportion rate is the highest in the world (Center on International Education Benchmarking, n.d), and 98.1% of current SETs hold a national SET certification (MOE, 2015).

Typically, becoming a principal in Korea is quite difficult and is earned by promotion (KEDI, 2006). Once teachers pass the NATE, they work an assigned school by municipal or provincial offices of education for a maximum of five years before rotation. To be a principal, teacher candidates have at least 25 years of teaching experience and high work performance, training, and additional bonus scores (KEDI, 2006). In general, only 5 out of 100 teachers could be a principal at the end of their career. Principals are not authorized (offices of education and MOE are authorized) to

reward or punish teachers based on work performance, making the position of 'principal' more honorary than authoritative (KEDI, 2006).

Principals are not involved in allotting the salary for teachers; since 1979 teachers are entitled to receive the same amount of salary and incentives from the government whether they are in private schools or public schools (Kim, 2005).

Principals both in public and private schools (99% of special education private schools are funded by the government) operate the school with almost equally assigned budgets from the local offices of education (80% of local budgets are funded by the central government) and the national curricula. Newly appointed principals are encouraged to take 16 hours of on-site training at the Korean National Institute for Special Education (KNISE) when inclusive education is implemented in their schools (KNISE, n.d). Principals are not required to include SWDs' scores for accountability. SWDs in Korea are encouraged to take general assessments (MOE, 2015), however, the students' achievement is not related to evaluations of teachers' effectiveness.

The administrative support for special education in general schools is quite unique in Korea due to the above factors, higher retention rate (99%) and over-supply of teachers, honorific position of principals, and central system of budget and curriculum.

The context of special education in general schools is discussed below.

Overview of special education in general school in South Korea.

Approximately 6,789,267 K-12 school age students are educated in Korean schools. Of these, only 1.2% (n = 88, 067) students are identified as having disabilities (MOE, 2015). Special education services are provided to eligible students whose disabilities are classified into 10 categories similar to those used in the U.S. However, unlike the

U.S, more than half (54.2%) of Korean SWD are classified as having intellectual disabilities ranging from mild, moderate, to severe. Students with physical disabilities comprise the next largest percentage (12.6%), followed by students with autism (11.4%), developmental disabilities (4.9%), hearing impairment (4.0%), specific learning disabilities (3.1%), emotional behavior disorders (2.9%), visual impairments (2.4%), speech impairments (2.3%), and health impairments (2.2%). Each student eligible to receive special education services is provided with an individualized education program (IEP). SWD in both private and public schools are eligible for complete government funding (free education for SWD ages birth-21 years and mandatory education for students ages 3-17 years) (SEAIDO, 2008, Article 3, Clause 1) since the legislation of Special Education Promotion Act (SEPA) in 1977.

Seventy percent of Korean SWD (n= 61,973) are taught in general education schools (MOE, 2015). Nationwide SWD receive special education services in various settings: in special schools (30%), special classes in general schools (50%), or regular classes in general schools (20%). GETs are the sole providers of instruction to 85% of the SWDs placed in regular classes in general schools. The SETs associated with special education support centers provide itinerant education for the remaining 15% of SWD in regular classes (MOE, 2015). Korea has no official data about the average amount of time SWDs spend in regular classes and the average time they spend in special class because there are no existing criteria to separate inclusive education and separate programs (Lim, 2003).

Little is known about how SWDs in general schools receive education tailored to their needs when they are in regular classes (especially, if there is no special class in

the general school); however, general education teachers are trying to help them. According to SEAIDO (2013), national and local governments should provide in-service training or education services for general educators in general schools to support the inclusive education of students with disabilities (Article 8, Clause 2). GETs are encouraged to participate in 60 hours of in-service training for special education (MOE, 2015). Nationwide, 21,609 GETs have participated in special education professional development, and 593 GETs are enrolled in the 29 general education research associations for inclusive education (MOE, 2015). A total of 31 general schools (out of about 10,000 schools nationwide) are model schools tasked with implementing curriculum, developing textbooks and materials, and applying the plan developed for inclusive education (MOE, 2015). The Korean Society of Inclusive Education has published numerous articles for inclusive education study and has supported teachers for inclusive education since 2003.

The inclusive education concept is limited in Korean education (Choi & Han, 2010; Kim, 2013; Kim & Cho, 2005; Lee, 2007; Lim, 2003; Lee & Cho, 2009; Ryu, 2013; Shin, n.d). On the one hand, the term appears in Korean educational policy. General educators should take a special education introduction course in pre-service programs since 2009 (MOE, 2015). The minister of MOE and the superintendent should include special education content for general educators' professional development in order to increase public awareness of special education, also, offer and operate in-service training courses related to special education for general educators in implementing inclusive education (SEAIDO enforcement, Article 5). Furthermore, when students are placed in regular classes in general schools (as opposed to special education classes in

general schools), the regular class is referred to as an “all day full inclusion class” (MOE, 2015, p. 6).

Inclusive education, on the other hand, means something very different in Korean schools. Unlike in the U.S., there is limited collaboration between GETs and SETs (Kim, Kim, Choi, & Kwon, 2011; Kim, 2013; Ryu, n.d.). Ryu (n.d) stated that most GETs do not welcome other teachers, such as SETs, in their class, even though they have a limited knowledge of special education. Moreover, SETs prefer being a homeroom teacher in special schools and in special education classes to being considered an assistant in a general class. Seung’s (2011) study supports Ryu’s point. She examined the current status of inclusive education and the opinions of 42 SETs and 13 GETs in Gwangju municipality using a survey method. The biggest barriers to inclusive education according to SETs were that GETs have no interest in special education and neglect SWD in class (37.5%), while GETs blame SWDs for interrupting the learning of regular students (36.4%).

There is a small amount of evidence about administrators’ perceptions of inclusive education (e.g., Choi, 2008; Kim, 2012) and the importance of in-service training for them. Choi (2008) surveyed 536 elementary school principals in 2 municipalities and 2 provinces to examine principals’ perceptions and attitudes toward inclusive education in South Korea. The principals understood the importance of inclusion, however, they perceived that special schools were more appropriate educational placements for SWD. They perceived their own schools lacked staff, support, or administration for operating inclusive education. Furthermore, SWD did not receive adapted curriculum and instruction. With regard to their perceptions, this study

suggests that the more principals understand inclusive education, the more they have positive attitudes toward inclusive education.

In addition, an empirical study by Kim (2012) demonstrated different perceptions of inclusive education by educators and cultural conflicts involved in the policy adoption of Korean and western cultures. Kim conducted a qualitative case study about inclusive education in Korea by focusing on one school principal, two general education teachers, and two special education teachers in high school. The results from in-depth semi-structured interviews of all participants revealed that they perceived educating students in special classes as inclusive education and inclusive education was interpreted according to their “understanding of inclusive education” (Kim, 2010b, p.117). GETs perceived inclusive education as physically placing SWD in general education settings without instructional adaptations, and expecting the SWD to spend most of the school day in special education classes. The principal expected inclusive education to mean that the two different education systems were housed in one general school with general education classes and special education classes. SETs understood inclusion to mean providing academic accommodations to SWD in general education classes. Kim pointed out that, “whereas inclusive education is grounded in basic human rights in the U.S., Korean society still sees inclusion as a social responsibility related to charity” (p.118).

Inclusive education was mandated in 1994 when the Special Education Promotion Act (SEPA) was completely revised, however, special education classes were mandated as a supplement to support inclusive education. When the SEPA was replaced with SEAIDO in 2008, inclusive education meant the appropriate education

that students with disabilities received in general schools with their peers, considering their individual needs, and that did not discriminate based on the types and degrees of students' disability (Article 2, Clause 6). Both SEPA and SEAIDO stated the special education class is a class that is established in general schools for the inclusive education of students with disabilities (Article 2, Clause 11). In addition, according to enforcement of SEAIDO, the principals in general schools should establish and operate special classes following the special education establishment criteria when inclusive education is implemented in the schools (Article 27, Clause 1). Ryu (2013) maintained the trend in national agencies, such as the KNISE, of evaluating inclusive education practices by focusing on the establishment of a special education class is related to the fact that no additional regulations and enforcement regarding an inclusive education implementation plan are stated in current law. In a current educational setting, a special education class is seen as a tool to implement inclusive education (Kim, 2013; Lim, 2003; Ryu, 2013).

Challenges for Korean special education teachers. The first special education class for students with intellectual disabilities in a general school was established in Daegu in 1971 (Park, 2005). In 1973, the Korean Association for Special Education held the first seminar for the management and establishment of special education classes (Kim et al., 2002). This seminar clearly articulated that special education classes in general schools were for students with intellectual disabilities. The MOE advised that every district or city should install at least one special education class in the general school by 1974. Therefore, 177 special classes were established in that year (Park,

2005) and 9,868 special education classes are currently in general schools nationwide (MOE, 2015).

Currently, 60% of SETs (n = 10, 185) work in special education classes. SETs are assigned to general schools when the sufficient number of students to operate a special class is attending each school. For establishment criteria, the SEAIDO (2008) mandated one kindergarten special education class for every four SWDs, one elementary and middle school special education class for six SWDs, and one high school special education class for seven SWDs (Article 27, Clause 1). In general, one or two novice SETs are assigned to one general school (Lee, 2005; Lim & Park, 2011). According to Lim and Park (2011), 35 out of 100 SETs reported that they are the only SET in the elementary school, and 80 out of 100 SETs were novice teachers who started their career working at the general schools.

SETs operating special classes in general schools have complex and different responsibilities compared to GETs, as well as SETs in special schools (Choi, 2013). In general, SETs working in special education classes provided hourly (as opposed to all day) special education services to students with mild disabilities by mixing special and general education curricula (Kim, Han, & Yi, 2009; Lee, 2005; Shin, Ahn, & Kim, 2013). In addition, SETs in general school are expected to teach students with different types of and various degrees of disability. Unlike special schools where SETs work and collaborate with each other equally, only one or two SETs in general school are expected to take full responsibility for all aspects of special education work, so they have additional burdens (Kim & Chung, 2016). According to high school SETs in Kim, Han, and Yi's study (2009), 51% (32 out of 62) take full responsibility for special

education work exclusively, 40% (25 out of 62) assume special and general education responsibility, as well.

Special education teachers have many challenging responsibilities: Implementing the national curriculum for SWD, co-teaching and collaboration, managing the budget for the special education class, and supervising SETs in general schools. These responsibilities are demonstrated in detail below.

Curriculum for students with disabilities. The national level special education curriculum was developed in 1983 and the central government including KNISE oversees this curriculum for SWD (Yoon, 2011). The national level special education curriculum was recently revised in 2015 and is comprised of a kindergarten education curriculum, a basic education curriculum, a common education curriculum, and a professional subject education curriculum (MOE, 2016). The basic education curriculum is for students with severe disabilities from elementary to high school levels who cannot be educated appropriately through the common education curriculum. The common education curriculum for students with visual, hearing, and physical disabilities (including mild disabilities) is a modified version of the general education curriculum from elementary to middle school levels. The professional subject education curriculum is applied to the high school level for students with visual, hearing, and physical disabilities (including mild disabilities).

SETs have reported the complication of mixing special and general education curricula when applied to individual students with a disability (Kim et al., 2011; Yeo, Cho, & Bak, 2004) because teachers are responsible for constituting the curriculum (Lee & Park, 2009) and because there are no standardized rules for special education

class curriculum (Jung, 2014). According to Shin, Ahn, and Kim (2013), 70% of elementary school SETs, 74% of middle school SETs, and 55% of high school SETs mixed special and general education curriculum for SWDs. In a comparison study on the management of special classes for elementary, middle, and high schools nationwide, Yeo, Chu, and Bak (2004) found that 44% of SETs (116 out of 264) mixed the special and general education curricula and constructing the curriculum was the primary difficulty in managing special education classes for elementary SETs.

In another study, Jung (2014) examined the perceptions of 36 Seoul high school special education class teachers on their needs related to teaching subjects and found that 42% of the SETs focused more on teaching the special education curriculum. Another 42% of SETs balanced the special and general education curriculum. Jung stated that special education classes are housed in a general education school, but they operate separately in terms of curriculum.

An additional study, Lee and Park (2009) focused on who chooses curricula. They investigated current curricular issues in an elementary special education class with 97 elementary SETs in Gyeonggi province. Eighty-four percent of the respondents reported that SETs themselves chose the curriculum for special education classes while 14% stated that they collaborated with principals about curricular decisions. The special education curriculum for general middle schools presents a similar situation. According to Choi and Son (2007), 84% (73 out of 86) of SETs chose the curriculum for middle school special education classes by themselves.

Co-teaching and collaboration for inclusive education. Teachers in many studies (Kim, 2009; Kim et al., 2011; Lee 2005; Lee, Han, & Yi, 2009) acknowledged the

importance of co-teaching and collaboration; however, neither of these are common practices. Lee (2005) examined beginning SETs' occupational socialization by interviewing 15 elementary school SETs in Gyeongnam province. The SETs in his study were skeptical of co-teaching, citing the unfriendly attitudes of GETs toward SETs in general classes. In addition, SETs reported that the development of instructional plans and delivery of instruction together was a rare effort between GETs and SETs, though institutional practices and policies account for part of this problem. Thus, most novice SETs limited their responsibility to operating special classes.

Kim's (2009) study also demonstrated similar results. Kim interviewed five novice SETs on their professionalization and the challenges of working in general education schools. She found that SETs perceived that they were the only people invested in co-teaching. A recent study, Kim, Kim, Choi, and Kwon (2011) examined the perceptions of inclusion by 15 elementary GETs and 15 SETs. The focus group interview results revealed that both GETs and SETs acknowledged the importance of collaboration, but that collaboration was not active. The barrier was considered to be the lack of support systems for collaboration and differences in the educational certification processes of SETs and GETs.

According to Lee, Han, and Yi (2009) who surveyed 62 SETs to examine the status of special education class operation in general high schools, 80% of SETs collaborated with GETs, but not on a regular basis. Furthermore, 15% of SETs reported that they worked only together when there was a problem for a SWD.

Another recent study stated the importance of principals' support for SETs regarding inclusive education and burnout. Kim (2014) surveyed 108 elementary GETs

and 108 elementary SETs from 7 municipalities and provinces to examine the relationship between principals' support for inclusive education and burnout of teachers. The more principals supported teachers with relevant information, the less teachers experienced burnout. GETs experienced less burnout than SETs. Principal support was considered important not only for SETs, but also for GETs regarding inclusive education.

Furthermore, in-service training regarding inclusive education for GETs is important as well. The 60% of elementary, middle, and high school SETs (157 out of 265) in Shin et al. (2013) insisted that school-level in-service training for GETs regarding inclusive education support for SWD is necessary to operate special education classes in general schools.

Lack of support. Overall, SETs perceived a lack of support in schools and felt isolated. SETs in Kim, Kim, & Woo's (2002) study mentioned that they completed special education work by themselves and could not ask other personnel for help because other personnel do not have an interest in special education and lack special education knowledge. Furthermore, SETs felt isolation and frustration due to the school personnel's misunderstanding and low awareness level of special education.

Hwang (2006) examined the adaptation process of 9 novice SETs in special schools and 11 SETs in special classes in general schools in Busan municipality. The teachers participated in a qualitative study, and the SETs in the special class reported that they worked by themselves when implementing special education plans in order to avoid conflicts with GETs. Hwang stated that SETs in special classes had a determined will to support SWD; however, they confronted unfriendly working conditions, which led

to frustration. In addition, SETs in general schools could not share common ideas and interests; they had uncomfortable relationships with GETs and felt isolated.

Lee's (2008) and Kim et al.'s (2011) studies also supported Hwang's (2006) findings indicating lack of support for SETs. Lee conducted a qualitative study on the experiences of four SETs in general and special schools. Unlike SETs in special schools in which SETs could help each other, SETs in general schools felt isolated. SETs felt that no one in the school supported them; they felt ignored. A recent study (Kim et al., 2011) also supported previous findings. SETs in Kim et al.'s (2011) study reported that there was no one to help them when they were assigned in general schools. The SETs did not recognize what they could and could not do; furthermore, they could not ask GETs for help regarding special education issues.

Many SETs felt they received limited support from school administrators. SETs in Kim et al.'s (2002) mentioned that school administrators had no interest or lacked understanding of special education. Furthermore, school administrators preferred operating schools for convenience rather than securing the educational rights of SWD. According to Lee (2005), novice SETs were more likely to be disappointed with school administrators at the first meeting due to the authority and formal attitudes of principals, so they tried to avoid meeting them. The SETs felt school administrators treated them as students and monitored them. The SETs in Kim's (2009) study also believed that administrators were skeptical of special education, so when the teachers inquired about students' needs and activities, the administrators questioned them and were reluctant to support them. Thus, SETs were frustrated with administrators' reactions.

SETs in Lee's (2008) study insisted that principals of general schools do not have open minds about special education and did not understand its uniqueness. Furthermore, school administrators in general schools were not clear about their duties regarding special education. Depending on the principal's attitude, SETs perceived the importance of special education was respected or was neglected.

There is some evidence that teachers' perceptions of principals are not as negative as most studies claim. For example, middle school SETs in Park's (2010) study had difficulties in building relationships with principals, not because of conflicts with the administrators, but because of the hierarchies among teacher positions. When SETs had conversations with principals, they were careful in their behaviors and wording due to the fact that principals are the chief of the schools. Unlike the majority of SETs' perceptions of principals' attitudes and support, some SETs appreciated their school administrators for being respectful of special education and supporting SETs by helping them and asking them questions about special education (Lee, 2005).

Budgets for special education classes. Only a few studies discussed budgets for special education classes and school administration. To operate special education classes, the municipal and provincial offices of education allot a certain amount of money to each school for each special class (MOE, 2015). The funding for special education operation could be the same across the grades or different for elementary, middle, or high schools depending on the municipality and provinces. Currently, there are no regulations for detailed estimation, distribution, and execution of budgets for special education class operations resulting in gaps in the amount of funding among the municipal and provincial offices of education (Nam & Ahn, 2013).

When Kang and Park (2002) conducted a study of principal support by SETs nationwide, they surveyed whether principals support teachers' opinions about budgets for operating special education classes. Kang and Park (2002) adopted Littrell's (1992) survey questions and conducted a content validity for confirming the appropriateness and vagueness of survey questionnaires with one special education professor, two professionals, eight SETs, and one GET. The content validity revealed the importance of financial support for special education class operation and conflicts between principals and SETs about special education budgets. In another study, SETs in Lee's study (2005) reported that the special education class operation budget assigned by municipal or provincial offices of education was not implemented well at the school level. The principal's support in spending the allotted budget for special education purposes is important; however, if the principal does not collaborate, the budget cannot be used for its initial purpose.

A recent study found interesting results regarding special education budgets. The census of special education class teachers in Gangwon province reported that if there is not enough money for operating plans, half of special education teachers modified the plan to fit the budget (Nam & Ahn, 2013). If the funds are not spent in the first semester, however, the remaining special education class operating budget is carried forward to the next school year's budget for general education (73%) and for special education (15%), and to the current year's inclusion/regular class operation budget (12%). There is a possibility that special education budgets could not be used for SWD, but rather for general education students since there is no fiscal regulation or legislation for overseeing special education class budgets.

Supervision of SETs. Researchers have paid some attention to the supervision of teaching in special education classes since 2000, with limited research focused on the supervision of SETs by school administrators or school supervisors. Tae and Park (2007) conducted a qualitative case study about planning and implementing IEPs in elementary schools. One of five elementary SETs in this study stated that the supervision provided by school administrators was superficial and not professional. According to Tae and Park, in-service training should be offered to school administrators about how to supervise SETs in order to improve the quality of special education classes.

Lim and Park (2009) recruited 100 novice elementary SETs in 2 municipalities and 1 province. Thirty-six percent of these SETs did not receive any type of teaching supervision. Among those who were supervised, half of the SETs were provided only one time teaching supervision. The remaining teachers were supervised more than two times. In most cases supervision was provided by principals and vice principals (42%), research lead teachers (21%), SETs (13%), GETs (13%), and school supervisors (7%). SETs were eager to receive instructional supervision, however, they did not use the feedback. More than half of the SETs preferred to receive supervision from a SET with more than five years of teaching experience (62%), an assistant teacher in a special education class (28%), a special education supervisor (7.4%), and school principals (1.5%). Lim and Park (2009) concluded that school administrators should receive in-service training to supervise SETs' teaching.

SETs have reported a lack of support from school administrators so far. The next section will demonstrate the responsibilities of principals of general schools regarding special education.

School principals and special education. According to the SEAIDO (2008) principals are in charge of providing special education services and operating special education classes in schools. Thus, principals play a crucial role in supporting SETs and in setting an environment wherein SWDs could learn appropriately. Principals are in charge of curriculum, IEP, and inclusive education.

The Ministry of Education (MOE) developed the national special education curriculum and the principals of general and special education schools are expected to implement the modified curriculum considering an individual student's type and degree of disability, as well as the students' age, and current and future educational needs (Article 20, Clause 2). Principals should build an IEP team of guardians, special, career and general educators, and special education service personnel in order to provide the appropriate education for the educational needs of SWDs (Article 22, Clause 1).

In terms of inclusive education, principals should make an effort to create an inclusive educational mission by implementing a variety of education plans (Article 21, Clause 1). Additionally, principals who have SWDs in their schools should develop and implement an inclusive education plan for modifying curriculum, providing professionals with assistive technology, and supporting professional development (Article 21, Clause 2). Furthermore, according to Article 21 Clause 3, when inclusive education is implemented, the principals of general schools should establish and operate special classes following the special education establishment criteria (Article 27, Clause 1). So

far, little is known about how principals in general schools manage the tasks based on the SEAIDO (2008) and how principals support SETs who actually operate special education classes and have felt a lack of support from administrators and colleagues.

Summary

SETs both in the U.S. and South Korea have similar challenges. They feel isolated and overwhelmed. In addition, they have difficulties in collaborating with GETs and feel as if they receive limited support from school administrators. In South Korea, however, SETs also face slightly different challenges in: (a) mixing general and special education curricula, or modifying the special education curriculum in special education classes, and (b) securing the special education budget provided by the central government within schools.

Furthermore, there are three additional differences between the U.S. and Korea. First, SETs face different, as well as similar challenges. Second, Korean school principals' responsibilities related to special education are mandated according to national law. Third, the Korean SETs' challenges are related to Korean principals' legally stipulated responsibilities. In the U.S., SETs' challenges are often described in the context of job satisfaction and intent to stay in teaching, In Korea, however, the retention rate is 99% and a teacher's position is guaranteed by the central government. Thus, examining SET's challenges in and of themselves is often the purpose of such studies. In addition, researchers are trying to identify their challenges and to provide recommendation for supporting them.

Unlike the U.S., the responsibilities of Korean general school principals regarding special education are mandated based on SEAIDO (2008). According to SEAIDO school principals in Korean general schools are in charge of the implementation of

curriculum, inclusive education, and IEPs for SWD. Those responsibilities are related to SETs' challenges in attempting to provide inclusive education. Currently, however, limited research exists on how general school principals in Korea support SETs to resolve their challenges.

Different Types of Administrative Support

Malecki and Demaray (2002) defined social support as “an individual’s perceptions of general support or specific supportive behaviors (available or enacted upon) from people in their social network, which enhances their functioning and/or may buffer them from adverse outcomes” (p. 2). According to Letvak (2002), health and well-being are influenced directly by social support and she emphasized the importance of social support for rural residents’ mental health. Demaray and Malecki (2003) examined the importance of social support for students’ bully behaviors. Furthermore, House (1981) emphasized that “social support also appears capable of reducing the level of at least some occupational stressors and of directly promoting aspects of health as well” (p. 7). House (1981) examined the role of social support to help reduce work stress and to improve health.

Specifically, House conceptualized social support as occurring across four dimensions: emotional, appraisal, informational, and instrumental support. Littrell et al. (1994) utilized a framework for administrative support in schools using the House’s conceptual framework, which is one of the most often used to examine administrative supports’ for SETs.

Emotional Support

According to House (1981), emotional support includes offering caring, empathy, trust, and love to other people. This support is considered the most important support type

due to its influences on people's health and stress. Many people think of emotional support when they are being supportive (House, 1981). Littrell et al. (1994) posited that principals could provide emotional support by showing SETs that "they are esteemed, trusted professionals and worthy of concern by such practices as maintaining open communication, showing appreciation, taking an interest in teachers' work, and considering teachers' ideas" (p.297). Bozonelos (2008) organized the sub categories of emotional support including school climate, job awareness and appreciation, and collaboration and colleague support based on the existing studies.

Appraisal Support

Appraisal support includes informing people about how well they are performing or setting expectations for average work performance to "let them decide for themselves whether they are above or below average" (p. 26). According to Littrell et al. (1994), "as instructional leaders, principals are charged with providing ongoing personnel appraisal, such as frequent and constructive feedback about their work, information about what constitutes effective teaching, and clear guidelines regarding job responsibilities" (p. 298). Bozonelos (2008) organized the sub categories of feedback, evaluation, and praise.

Informational Support

Informational support is offering information to people that they can use for solving environmental and personal problems and helping "people to help themselves" (House, 1981, p.25). Littrell et al. (1994) believed that information by principals could be used to improve teachers' classroom practices" (p. 298). As an example, "principals provide informational support by authorizing teachers' attendance at in-service workshops, offering practical information about effective teaching practices and

providing suggestions to improve instruction and classroom management” (p.298).

Bozonelos (2008) organized the sub categories of informational support including induction and mentoring support, and professional development.

Instrumental Support

Instrumental support means providing help directly to people in need.

Specifically, instrumental support includes helping other people pay their bills, do their work, and taking care of them (House, 1981). According to Littrell et al., (1994), “principals directly help teachers with work-related tasks, such as providing necessary materials, space, and resources, ensuring adequate time for teaching and nonteaching duties, and helping with managerial-type concerns” (p. 298). Bozonelos (2008) organized the sub categories of instrumental support including resources and caseload as well as instructional range.

Many researchers used the four types of administrative support to examine the relationship between administrative supports and teachers’ job satisfaction, work stress, and/or intent to leave their positions in both in the U.S. and Korea.

Applying the House Framework in American Studies

In the U.S., many studies of administrative support using House’s (1981) framework for SETs have been conducted; however, most of them are dissertations (e.g., Balfour, 2001; Cihak, 2015; Combee, 2014; Dolar, 2008; Ewy, 2007; Kerr, 2013; Littrell, 1992; Manning, 2008; Wilson, 2009). A limited number of studies are published in peer-reviewed journals (Cancio et al., 2013; Hughes, Matt, & O’Reilly, 2015; Littrell et al., 1994; Roderick & Jung, 2012).

Littrell (1992) was the first to use House’s (1981) framework in educational settings to examine the administrative support effects on teachers’ job satisfaction and

their intention of staying in teaching. DiPaola (2012) validated Littrell et al.'s (1994) survey questionnaire. Cancio et al. (2013) also validated Littrell et al.'s survey questions and recruited teachers for students with Emotional and Behavioral Disorders (EBD) to focus on their attrition. Balfour's (2001) focus group questions were based on the teacher retention literature and House's four types of support were re-conceptualized (i.e., emotional, instructional, technical, and environment support). Balfour's questions were used in subsequent survey questionnaires focusing on the importance of administrative support as viewed by SETs and principals (Roderick & Jung, 2012), and examining the relationship between administrative support and teachers' intent to stay in hard-to-staff schools (Hughes et al., 2015).

Littrell (1992) surveyed 385 Virginia SETs and 313 GETs to study the effects of administrative support on teachers' stress, job satisfaction, school commitment, health, and intent to stay in teaching. The principal support questionnaire (PSQ) for administrative support (N = 40) were developed with the following procedures: (a) interviewing results from SETs and GETs, (b) reviewing administrative support studies, (c) using House's (1981) framework and confirming the questionnaire with House via email, and (d) conducting an expert review for suggestions. The reliability coefficients were reported (ranging from .80 to .90); however, factor analysis results confirming construct validity of the survey question categories were not included. A total 40 questions included: (a) emotional support (n = 12), appraisal support (n = 7), informational support (n = 8), and instrumental support (n = 13). The findings indicated that teachers who perceive high levels of administrative support tend to perceive greater job satisfaction and school commitment, and experience fewer personal health issues.

There was a statistically significant mean differences between GETs ($M = 3.27$) and SETs ($M = 3.10$) for their intention to stay in teaching ($p < .05$).

Littrell (1992) also examined SETs' perceptions of the extent of and importance of administrative support. A four-point Likert scale from one (no extent) to four (great extent) was used to measure extent of support. In addition, a four-point Likert scale from six (not important) to nine (very important) was used to measure the degree of importance of support. There were mean differences for all types of administrative support between the extent of and importance of support. All GETs and SETs perceived that administrative support was important, but they did not feel they received as much as they could. The SETs believed they received emotional support ($M = 3.10$, $SD = 0.67$) the most, followed by appraisal ($M = 2.92$, $SD = 0.67$), informational ($M = 2.64$, $SD = 0.73$), and instrumental support ($M = 2.62$, $SD = 0.64$). They perceived emotional support ($M = 3.63$, $SD = 0.35$) was the most important support, followed by appraisal support ($M = 3.42$, $SD = 0.51$), instrumental support ($M = 3.30$, $SD = 0.47$), and informational support ($M = 3.10$, $SD = 0.66$).

Littrell's (1992) dissertation research and subsequent publication (Littrell et al., 1994) used House's (1981) framework to examine administrative support in the education field and are considered landmark studies. In these investigations, however, both GETs and SETs were the participants; the survey questionnaire was not designed for SETs specifically. Furthermore, no information was provided about factor analysis results for categorizing survey questions to confirm construct validity. Thus, "trust my judgments in making classroom decision" and "show confidence in my actions" were under the appraisal support rather than the emotional support dimension. DiPaola

(2012) moved those two questions from appraisal to emotional support based on factor analysis results.

DiPaola (2012) validated the administrative support questionnaire from Littrell et al.'s (1994) study. With a sample of 118 educators for the pilot study, he conducted an exploratory principal component analysis (PCA) for data reduction. The several survey items such as high loading on several factors and low loading were deleted, thus the survey questions were reduced from the original 40 to 16. The 16 survey questions have high factor loadings.

The emotional, instrumental, and appraisal support were the same as Littrell et al.'s (1994) study; however, DiPaola renamed informational support to "professional support which better captures the meaning of the dimension in the school context" (p.119). Furthermore, DiPaola provided higher reliability coefficients (ranging from .87 to .94) than these of Littrell et al.'s original survey questions.

The four questions for four types of administrative support were finalized and renamed as the Principal Support Scale (PSS). The emotional support survey questions included such as "gives me a sense of importance that I make a difference", "supports my decision", "trusts my judgment in making classroom decisions", and "shows confidence in my actions". The professional support survey questions included such as "gives me undivided attention when I am talking", "is honest and straightforward with the staff", "provides opportunities for me to grow professionally", and "encourages professional growth". The instrumental support survey questions included such as "provides adequate planning time", "provides time for various nonteaching responsibilities", "provides extra assistance with I become overloaded", and "equally

distributes resources and unpopular chores”. The appraisal support survey questions included such as “provides data for me to reflect on following classroom observations”, “provides frequent feedback about my performance”, “helps me evaluate my needs”, and “provides suggestions for me to improve instruction”.

When DiPaola validated the reduced 16 survey questions (PSS) with a new sample of 1,276 high school GETs using a principal axis factor analysis (varimax rotation) with an eigenvalue greater than one criterion, only two factors were found. DiPaola renamed two factors, which were expressive and instrumental support. The expressive support (eight items) is comprised of emotional and professional support, while the instrumental support (eight items) is comprised of both instrumental and appraisal support. The factor loadings of survey items ranged from .652 to .893, which are high factor loadings. In addition, the reliability for the both of expressive and instrumental support was .95, which were high reliability.

DiPaola (2012), however, do not provide detailed information of survey questionnaire whether he used the six point Likert scale that Littrell (1992) used as well and he examined only the extent of administrative support rather than both of the importance and extent of administrative support.

Cihak’s (2015) dissertation used the PSS to examine the role of administrative support in the retention of 12 novice teachers. This phenomenological study revealed the ways in which all support dimensions were important in influencing the novice teachers to remain in their teaching positions. As with the original Littrell et al. questionnaire, the PSS questions were intended for both GETs and SETs. Thus, the survey questionnaire did not examine the SETs’ perceptions specifically.

Cancio et al. (2013) surveyed 408 teachers of students with EBD to examine the relationship between administrative support and attrition. Cancio et al. examined the perceptions of short term and long- term teachers regarding the gap between the extent of and importance of administrative support. The survey questions were developed using Littrell et al.'s (1994) study, a literature review of stress experienced by teachers with EBD, and teachers' experiences. An expert review and pilot study were conducted. A four-point Likert scale was used ranging "from one (no support) to four (great amount of support)" (p.77) for extent of support, and "from one (not important) to four (very important)" (p.77) for importance of support. Cancio et al. already categorized four areas of administrative support before conducting factor analysis based on their literature review: guidance and feedback, opportunity for growth, appreciation, and trust.

Furthermore, based on results of factor analysis with a maximum likelihood extraction with a varimax rotation, four factors (guidance and feedback, opportunity for growth, appreciation, and trust) and 20 questions (originally 43 questions) for administrative support were finalized. When survey items loaded on multiple factors or had low factor loadings such as below .50, those survey items were eliminated. Among the 20 questions, 18 questions originate from Littrell et al.'s (1994) study. The reliability of each factor ranged from .898 to .907. Cancio et al. found a significant correlation between administrative support and intent to stay ($p < .05$).

Furthermore, teachers (both short term and long term) indicated higher scores for the importance of administrative supports and lower scores for the extent to which they received these supports. Compared to short term teachers, long term teachers believed that they received more administrative support, and t-test results revealed statistically

significant differences for three administrative support types with the exception of guidance and feedback, which was a sub-category question ($p < .05$). In terms of the importance of support, no statistically significant differences were found between short term and long term teachers' perceptions.

Cancio et al. (2013) conducted a factor analysis for construct validity and reviewed the literature to update Littrell et al.'s (1994) study; however, they added only 2 new questions and the remaining 18 questions were the same as used by Littrell et al. Cancio et al., however, limited providing information for categorizing survey items into four dimensions (guidance and feedback, opportunity for growth, appreciation, and trust) instead of House's (1981) framework (emotional, appraisal, informational, and instrumental support). Cancio et al. recruited teachers of students with EBD, which limits generalization of the findings to teachers working with this population.

The survey questionnaire used in the remaining two studies was based on Balfour's (2001) dissertation. Balfour examined the influences of certification status on the administrative support needs of 436 novice SETs. Balfour's survey questions were developed to examine SETs' perceptions of administrative support and were based on the teacher retention literature and findings from focus group interviews with eight SETs. The administrative support types developed for Balfour's study were loosely based on the House (1981) framework and included emotional, instruction, technical, and environment support. The survey included 15 questions for emotional, 12 questions for environment, 13 questions for instructional, and 8 questions for technical support. Balfour conducted a content analysis for the survey questions with focus group

interviews and expert reviews. The reliability of the questions ranged from .71 to .93; however, construct validity was not reported.

Roderick and Jung (2012) examined the perceived importance of administrative support by school administrators and special education teachers using a modified set of Balfour's (2001) survey questions. Thirty-five secondary SETs and 59 school administrators participated in the survey. Roderick and Jung (2012) changed environment support to the instrumental domain without explanation, but all of the survey questions remained the same as Balfour's. A four-point Likert scale was used and ranged from one (not valuable at all) to four (extremely valuable). A total of 52 survey questions were included: (a) 16 questions for the emotional domain, (b) 12 questions for the instrumental domain, (c) 13 questions for the instructional domain, and (d) 11 questions for the technical domain.

There were statistically significant differences between the perceptions of SETs and administrators for the emotional, instructional, and technical domains ($p < .05$). No statistical differences between the two groups were found for the instrumental domain. Furthermore, the mean scores for the two groups were the same for the instrumental domain. There were mean score differences between the two groups in the other three domains (ranging from 0.35 to 0.43). The emotional domain mean scores for SETs ranged from 2.41 to 3.49, while for school administrators they ranged from 2.94 to 3.69. The instrumental domain mean scores for SETs ranged from 2.29 to 3.37, while for school administrators they ranged from 2.29 to 3.61. The instructional domain mean scores for SETs ranged from 1.66 to 2.97, while for school administrators they ranged from 2.17 to 3.44. The technical domain mean scores for SETs ranged from 2.05 to

3.07, while for school administrators they ranged from 2.63 to 3.49. Across all four domains, school administrators perceived administrative support as more important than those of SETs overall.

For teachers, the emotional ($M = 3.10$) and instrumental domains ($M = 3.08$) were those where support was valued the most. For example, the top mean scores ranked by SETs were as follows: “supports teachers’ decisions in front of other teachers,” “shows confidence in teachers’ actions and decisions,” “communicates to the school staff that special education students and teachers are an important part of the school,” and “permits teachers to use their own judgment to solve problems” (Roderick, 2011, p.62).

The top mean scores ranked by administrators were different from those of SETs; “is interested in what teachers do in the classroom”, “listens and gives teachers undivided attention when they talk,” “communicates to the school staff that special education students and teachers are an important part of the school,” “makes teachers feel that they are making a difference,” “gives teachers genuine and specific feedback about their work” (p. 63). The results found that there is a noticeable difference between what SETs and administrators perceived as valuable support. Therefore, Roderich and Jung (2012) insisted that administrators should provide the supports that SETs feel are valuable.

Roderich and Jung’s (2012) is the first study to recruit both SETs and school administrators to examine their perceptions of the importance of administrative support. Roderich and Jung found statistically significant differences between SETs and school administrators regarding their perceived importance of administrative support. One of

the weakness of this study is that the sample size was too small (e.g., 35 SETs and 59 school administrators). Furthermore, there is no information of factor analysis results for construct validity.

Hughes et al. (2015) examined the relationship between teachers' intention to stay in hard-to-staff schools, and teachers' and principals' perceived principal supports. Forty-one teachers and 17 administrators from 20 sites in a western U. S. state participated in the survey using Balfour's (2001) survey questionnaire. A strong statistically significant correlation was found between all of the support areas and teachers' retention. Furthermore, principals perceived they provided administrative "support for teachers greater than the support the teachers felt they received" (p. 132). The mean difference in total administrative scores for principals and teachers was 12.41 for instructional support, 7.31 for technical support, 6.94 for environmental support, and 5.76 for emotional support. Hughes et al. recommended that administrators take a look at their leadership style and support for teachers to reduce teachers' attrition.

Hughes et al.'s (2015) study was conducted with GETs rather than with SETs. Furthermore, there is no information about whether the mean differences between principals' and teachers' perception of administrative support were statistically significant differences. This study also did not report construct validity.

Applying the House Framework in Korean Studies

Few studies have examined administrative support for special education teachers in Korea. Only two studies examined administrative support and SETs' job satisfaction, while in the other three studies, administrative support was a sub-category of SET work stress causes/levels (Kim, 2006; Kim, 2010a; Lee, 2014). Only two studies

(Kang & Park, 2002; Lee, 2012) used House's (1981) framework and Littrell et al.'s (1994) survey questionnaire.

Kang and Park (2002), for example, recruited 291 elementary and 60 secondary SETs in general schools nationally using a stratified sampling method to investigate the relationship between SETs' job satisfaction and principals' support. Kang (2001) revised the PSQ (Littrell, 1992) for the contemporary Korean context ($\alpha = .97$). The Korean Teacher Opinionnaire of job satisfaction (Korean Education Association, 1982) ($\alpha = .85$) was also used. A four-point Likert scale was used ranging from one (not at all) to four (very likely). Survey results revealed that the teachers received emotional ($M = 2.96$, $SD = .48$), instrumental ($M = 2.64$, $SD = .50$), informational ($M = 2.39$, $SD = .59$), and appraisal ($M = 2.36$, $SD = .59$) support in descending order, and a significant difference between the support types was found ($p < .001$). Older teachers perceived they received more support than younger teachers ($p < .001$), but there is no significant difference between teaching experience and perceived support. Elementary SETs ($M = 2.73$) perceived that they received more support than secondary SETs ($M = 2.59$), but there was no significant difference. Overall, there was a positive correlation between principal support and job satisfaction ($r = .62$, $p < .01$). Kang and Park concluded that principals respect SETs as professionals, pay attention to SETs, and assist in SETs' duties, all of which are very important.

The Kang and Park (2002) study is the first study using House's (1981) framework and Littrell's et al. (1994) survey questionnaire for a contemporary Korean context. Kang and Park conducted a focus group to modify survey questions for contemporary use in the Korean context, and thus, six questions were deleted due to

vagueness and inappropriateness. Another six questions were revised to clarify the meaning of the questions.

One question related to the special education budget and another question about planning for special education were added. In addition, one question about emotional support was added, as well. Kang and Park (2002), however, did not conduct factor analysis of construct validity. Furthermore, most of the survey questions remained the same as those in Littrell et al. (1994), which means only limited survey questions were related to the South Korean SETs' perceptions of administrative support.

Ten years later, Lee (2012) recruited the census of elementary SETs in Daegu province to examine the relationship between the principal's support and SETs' job satisfaction using a survey method. One hundred twenty-six of the 211 SETs responded to the questionnaire. Kang's (2001) revision of Littrell's (1992) PSQ was used and the reliability was $\alpha = .997$. The revision of the SET's job satisfaction scale (Kim, 2008) was used and the reliability was $\alpha = .955$. A five-point Likert scale ranged from one (not at all) to five (very likely) with survey results revealing that the teachers received emotional ($M = 4.05$, $SD = .78$), appraisal ($M = 3.79$, $SD = .85$), instrumental ($M = 3.40$, $SD = .89$), and informational ($M = 3.29$, $SD = 1.03$) support in descending order and a significant difference between the types of support was found ($p < .001$). Unlike in Kang and Park's (2002) study, SETs in Lee's study perceived that they received more appraisal support than instrumental support. There was no significant difference between teaching experience and the perceived support. There was a positive correlation between principals' support and SETs' job satisfaction ($r = .613$, $p < .01$). Lee found that SETs in

Daegu received more appraisal support than SETs in Kang's study, but there was no significant difference between ages of SETs and principal support.

Kang and Park (2002) and Lee (2012) examined the relationship between principals' support and SETs' job satisfaction. Both of the studies used survey questions about principal's support derived from Littrell's original analysis (1992). Kang and Park revised and deleted a few survey questions to reflect South Korea's special education context after completing an analysis of content validity. Lee subsequently used the survey questions that Kang and Park (2002) revised. Both studies do not use Littrell's survey questions related to job satisfaction. Different survey questions were used in both studies to measure special education teachers' job satisfaction. Both studies found a positive correlation between the principal's support and job satisfaction.

Most American studies of administrative support using House's (1981) framework are related to teachers' attrition or their intent to stay in teaching (e.g., Cancio et al., 2013; Hughes et al., 2015; Littrell, 1992; Littrell et al., 1994) while Korean studies are focused on the relationship between administrative support and SETs' job satisfaction. In the U.S., teachers' retention is an important issue, thus, administrative support studies are often connected to teachers' intent to stay in teaching or attrition. Littrell et al. (1994) insisted administrative support was a crucial factor in the retention of teachers.

Korean teachers' retention rate is 99%, thus, attrition has not been the focus of administrative support studies. As described in an earlier session, Korean teachers' challenges are often related to principals' responsibilities based on special education law, SEAIDO (2008). Thus, when Kang and Park (2002) updated Littrell et al.'s (1994)

survey questions, issues were included related to the special education budget and special education planning, which are related to SETs' challenges and principals' responsibilities.

The Importance of Validity for the Administrative Support Questionnaire

According to Anastasi and Urbina (1997), validity is the “extent to which a test measures what it was developed to measure” (p. 97). Among the different types of validity, construct validity is one of the most important concepts in psychology and is necessary for measuring variables that are not directly observable such as intelligence (Westen & Rosenthal, 2003). According to Westen and Rosenthal (2003), “if a psychological test lacks construct validity, results obtained using this test or procedure will be difficult to interpret” (p.608). Thus, construct validity is important when the researcher examines participants' perceptions.

Construct validity is confirmed by the use of factor analysis (Anastasi & Urbina, 1997). Widaman (1995) also stated that “factor analysis is primarily a method for accessing the construct validity of measures” (p. 287). In addition, Widaman insisted “construct validity is supported if the factor structure of the scale is consistent with the constructs the instrument purports to measure” (p. 287).

So far, only DiPaola (2012) and Cancio et al. (2013) attempted to validate Littrell's (1992) principal support survey questionnaire using Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA). EFA is generally used when “no specifications are made in regard to the number of latent factors (initially) or to the pattern of relationships between the common factors and the indicators (i.e., the factor loading)” (Brown, 2006, p. 14). Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) is usually conducted when conceptual or empirical foundations guide the number of factors and factor loading patterns (Brown, 2006). According to Brown

(2006), "EFA is typically used earlier in the process of scale development and construct validation, whereas CFA is used in later phases after the underlying structures have been established on prior empirical (EFA) and theoretical grounds" (p. 14). DiPaola and Cancio et al. are the only studies that have measured the construct validity of Littrell's questionnaire, thus, validation of this principal support survey questionnaire is in the early stage of scale development.

Both of the studies reported high factor loadings (above .60) with large sample sizes (408 and 1,276) but used different extraction methods. DiPaola (2012) conducted a principal axis factor analysis. Based on the factor analysis extraction methods, the collected data by DiPaola might not be normally-distributed. The principal axis factor analysis is generally used in cases of multivariate normality assumptions violations (Fabrigar, Wegener, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1999). Cancio et al. (2013) used a different method of extraction, which is maximum likelihood extraction. The maximum likelihood extraction is generally used when the collected data are normally distributed (Osborne & Costello, 2009).

DiPaola's (2012) study, however, had limitations in validating the principal support survey using House's (1981) framework. First, in terms of factor numbers, DiPaola identified only two factors rather than the four factors (e.g., emotional, instrumental, professional, and appraisal support) which comprise the ideal of administrative support types suggested by House. Second, DiPaola did not include any information about his use of varimax rotations. Varimax rotation is one of the common orthogonal methods of rotation, which assumes factors are uncorrelated (Osborne & Costello, 2009). According to Osborne and Costello (2009), "in the social sciences we

generally expect some correlation among factors, since behavior is rarely partitioned into neatly packaged units that function independently of one another” (p.136). Church and Burke (1994) also supported that the variable of personality is not independent by nature. Thus, “using orthogonal rotation results in a loss of valuable information if the factors correlated, and oblique rotation should theoretically render a more accurate, and perhaps more reproducible, solution” (Osborne & Costello, 2009, p. 136).

Cancio et al. (2013) also had some limitations with construct validity even though Cancio et al. is the only study that validated both the extent and importance of Littrell’s (1992) administrative support survey items. First, in addition to DiPaola’s (2012) study, Cancio et al. also used varimax rotation, but did not provide any information to justify its use. In addition, Cancio et al. categorized four factors, which are different from House’s (1981) support types without providing information for justifying the categorization.

Currently, there is no study in which a factor analysis has been conducted to validate Littrell’s (1992) principal support questionnaire (PSQ) in Korea. Based on the literature review, the Korean contexts for SETs are different from those in the U.S., so, it is necessary to provide validity evidence for the PSQ in the Korean context. Overall, administrative studies using House’s (1981) framework both in the U.S. and in Korea have methodological issues regarding construct validity.

The Importance of Reliability for the Administrative Support Questionnaire

According to Nunnally (1967), reliability is “the extent to which [instruments] are repeatable and that any random influence which tends to make measurements different from occasion to occasion is a source of measurement error” (p.206). According to Tavakol and Dennick (2011), an instrument’s reliability is related to its validity and “an instrument cannot be valid unless it is reliable” (p.53). One of way to measure reliability

is evaluating internal consistency, which is to “estimate the equivalence of sets of items from the same test (e.g, a set of questions aimed at assessing quality of life or disease severity)” (Kimberlin & Winterstein, 2008, p. 2277). According to Kimberlin and Winterstein (2008), “the coefficient of internal consistency provides an estimate of the reliability of measurement and is based on the assumption that items measuring the same construct should correlate” (p. 2277). Cronbach’s alpha is the most common method to measure internal consistency. Cronbach’s alpha reliability coefficient ranges between 1 and 0 and the closer coefficient to 1 has the greater internal consistency (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011).

Currently, many previous studies (e.g., Balfour, 2001; DiPaola, 2012; Kang & Park, 2002; Lee, 2012; Littrell et al. 1994) estimated Cronbach’s alpha for the PSQ and all of these previous studies found the reliability coefficient was above .70.

Discrepancies between the Importance and Extent of Administrative Supports

Current research about administrative support describe the discrepancies in the ideal perceptions and the current experiences of SETs regarding administrative support. According to Cross and Billingsley (1994), SETs are not always provided the support that they want or need to receive the most. So far, there are two studies examining differences/gaps in the degree of administrative support provided to SETs versus the support that SETs perceive as important. Littrell et al. (1994) investigated the extent of and importance of administrative support perceived by SETs and GETs. Cancio et al. (2013) examined the importance of and extent of administrative support perceived by SETs. Both studies showed that SETs perceived that administrative supports are important; however, their perceptions of the actual extent of administrative supports fell short of what was considered an optimal degree. Roderich and Jung (2012) found a gap

between SETs' and school administrators' perceptions of the importance of administrative supports. In this study, school administrators perceived the importance of administrative support to be greater across support domains than did SETs. There were statistically significant differences between SETs' and school administrators' perceptions regarding the importance of the emotional, technical, and instructional domain ($p < .05$).

Hughes et al. (2015), however, found that school administrators perceived they provided more administrative support than SETs claimed they received. Dissertations have also examined the degree of and the difference between administrator and teacher perceptions of the importance of administrative support. Hick (2013), for example, found significant differences between administrator and teachers' perceptions regarding administrative supports.

Based on Roderich and Jung (2012) and Hughes et al. (2015), the school administrators, as compared to SETs, placed a greater degree of importance on administrative support (Roderich & Jung, 2012), however, they provided administrative support that was below SETs' expectations (Hughes et al., 2015). In addition, the perceptions of teachers and those of principals regarding administrative support were slightly different (Powell, 2004). Roderich and Jung found a difference in the top mean scores ranked by school administrators and SETs. The top five survey questions ranked by school administrators in their study were totally different from those ranked by SETs. SETs perceived "supports teachers' decisions in front of other teachers" as the most important administrative support while school administrators perceived "is interested in which teachers do in the classroom."

So far, there has been limited American research examining the discrepancies in the current experiences of SETs and the ideal perceptions of administrative supports. Furthermore, there are no Korean studies focusing on the administrative supports perceived by SETs and school administrators. In addition, there are no Korean studies examining how SETs perceive the importance of administrative supports and the extent to which they receive them from general school principals.

The Importance of Examining the Discrepancies

Based on the U.S. literature review, there are several important aspects about administrative support that could be useful in the Korean context. First, understanding and implementing knowledge of administrative support strategies could have a positive influence on SETs (Gersten et al., 2001). In particular, SETs in Korea encounter many challenges that could be supported by school administrators, such as the implementation of curriculum and budgets to support special education instruction.

Specifically, SETs could experience different outcomes were they to receive the administrative support that they expect. Manning (2008) insisted that “role ambiguity/conflict, isolation, lack of resources/supplies and resistance to including students with disabilities, are also directly influenced by the support or lack of support” (p.23). Furthermore, Lynn (2015) insisted that even though SETs are expert in the special education field, they have limited power to secure materials and resources for SWD and principals are the primary decision makers for special education funding. When principals understand SETs’ challenges and support SETs’ needs for special education funding and inclusive education, they could make a difference in schools.

Thus, it is important to examine how SETs perceive the extent of and the importance of administrative support, and to support SETs in ways they need it most.

The U.S. administrative support studies illustrated the significant gap between SETs' perceptions of the importance and extent of administrative support; thus it is important to examine whether there is a gap in Korea as well. Information about such a gap in the Korean context could be used as resource for principals' in-service training. There is limited research on how school administrators perceived SET's responsibilities and their challenges. According to Wakeman, Browder, Flower, and Ahlgrim-Dezell (2006) "to be considered competent, principals should have fundamental knowledge of special education as well as knowledge of current issues in special education" (p.154). Gersten et al. (2001) reported that the most important role of school administrators in supporting SETs is to understand their role in delivering services to SWD. Furthermore, Weber (2010) insisted that "by increasing their knowledge in special education, a more positive and collaborative relationship can be developed between the special education teacher and the administrator" (p. 85).

Korean researcher Chung (2001) stated that when a principal has the positive will to support special education, the perceptions of SETs toward special education will be changed and co-teaching encouraged. Thus, an understanding on the part of principals of SETs' challenges and what kinds of administrative support they need are important. By understanding what types of administrative supports SETs perceive as important and to what degree a gap exists between the extent of and the importance of administrative support, school principals could support SETs meaningfully.

CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY

Methods

This study attempted to measure the validity and reliability of the Administrative Support Questionnaire (ASQ) for Korean use. In addition, this study was also conducted to understand the SETs' perceptions of both the importance and extent of the administrative support provided by their school principals, and to identify the gap between the extent of and importance of administrative support.

Specifically, five research questions were examined:

1. What is the construct validity of the Administrative Support Questionnaire when applied in South Korea?
2. What is the reliability of the Administrative Support Questionnaire when applied in South Korea?
3. What type of administrative support have SETs received the most from general school principals?
4. What type of administrative supports do SETs think are important to receive from general school principals?
5. Is there any difference between SETs' perceptions of the extent of and the importance of the four types of administrative support?

SETs in South Korea were surveyed to determine their perceptions of the extent and the importance of administrative support provided by school principals in the following four areas: emotional, appraisal, instrumental, and informational support. These four areas of support are based on House's (1981) social support theory, and were later applied to administrative supports in schools by Littrell et al. (1994). A survey questionnaire based on Littrell et al.'s research was modified for contemporary use within the Korean context. An analysis of the construct validity (factor analysis) and reliability (Cronbach's α) of the survey questions was conducted. Descriptive statistics,

repeated measures one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), and a paired *t*-test was used to analyze the collected survey data. The research procedures discussed in this chapter are divided into seven categories: (a) survey design, (b) participants, (c) reliability and validity, (d) survey instrument, (e) survey procedures, and (f) data analysis.

Survey Design

This study was designed to validate the survey questionnaire used to examine how SETs perceived receiving administrative support from their principal and what kinds of principal support the SETs believed to be important. A survey design is proper to use in assessing these perceptions because it is intended to “measure the prevalence of attitudes, beliefs, and behavior” (Weisberg, Krosnick, & Bowen, 1996, p. 147). The survey used in this study is cross-sectional, meaning that the “survey information is collected at one point in time” (Cresswell, 1994, p. 119). An online survey (Qualtrics) was used because this method is efficient and the most economical way to collect data.

Participants

Currently 7,741 SETs work in 166 special schools (including private schools) and 9,880 SETs work in general education schools nationwide (MOE, 2015). Among 17 municipalities and provinces in Korea, the province in which the participants for this study work has the lowest rate (25%) of establishing special classes in general schools. In addition, there are 20 SETs per 100 students with disabilities in the province, which is the highest ratio in the nation (Congress Report, 2014). Therefore, it is possible that SETs would need more administrative support to teach students with disabilities and manage workloads in this province compared to other municipalities and provinces.

Thus, this province located in a rural area was chosen and is referred to by the pseudonym of Rural Province in this study.

A total of 2,365 SWD in 565 special classes are educated by 566 special education teachers in general schools in Rural Province (MOE, 2016). Among 566 SETs, 419 SETs are female. Half of the SWD ($n = 1,126$) are in elementary schools and educated by 320 elementary SETs. Another 548 SWD are in middle schools and taught by 133 SETs. The remaining 655 SWD are in high schools and are taught by 103 SETs (MOE, 2016). No specific sampling method was used because all special education class teachers in Rural Province's general schools were eligible to participate in this study.

Validity and Reliability of the Instrument

A content analysis of the PSQ developed by Littrell (1992), and adapted later for Korean use by Kang (2001), was conducted to determine the degree of validity of the Questionnaire for contemporary use in South Korean schools. For content validity in suggesting additional question items, deleting unnecessary items, and revising item wording, the draft of the survey was sent to six SETs in general schools not participating in the study. All of the SETs had at least five years of special education teaching experience. The yes or no column indicated the appropriateness in the Korean context and the content clarity or vagueness of the survey questions. An additional comment space at the end of the survey draft helped allow these teachers to express overall opinions about the survey questions. Based on the content validity analysis results, the updated and revised survey questionnaire was sent to those teachers and three professors in South Korean universities for reviews. The professors who had at least 10 years of teaching SET candidates, and supervising candidates' practicum experiences

confirmed the finalized survey questionnaire. Reliability (Cronbach's α) and construct validity (factor analysis) was measured after collecting the final data.

Survey Questions

The survey questions were developed based on the following resources. Six Korean SETs participated in the content validity analysis for revising the PSQ (Littrell, 1992). It was necessary to revise Littrell's (1992) survey questions because they were originally intended for both GETs and SETs. The Korean SETs added their comments about administrative support regarding special education curriculum, budgets, and supervision at the end of the content analysis section. In addition to the content analysis results, Balfour's (2001) and Kang and Park's (2002) administrative support survey questions, DiPaola's (2012) validated PSS, and House's (1981) framework were used to develop the survey questions. Furthermore, the Korean SETs' challenges identified in the literature review were also used to develop the survey questions. Thus, these administrative support survey questions were categorized into four dimensions (i.e., emotional, instrumental, informational, and appraisal support) with content addressing principal supports regarding special education curriculum, co-teaching, special education budgets, and supervision.

Kang and Park (2002) were the first Korean researchers to adapt the PSQ developed by Littrell et al. (1994; Appendix A) for Korean use and translated the survey questions into Korean, and so the Kang and Park questionnaire was used as the primary source for this study's survey instrument. To confirm the content validity of Littrell's survey questionnaire, Kang and Park conducted a pilot study of face-to face interviews and phone interviews with 12 participants including one special education professor, two experts, eight special educators, and one general educator. Among the

original 40 questions, 6 questions were revised. The six questions were revised for clearer meanings (such as “considers my ideas” to “consider my ideas seriously about my education plan,” “allows me input into decisions that affect me” to “reflect my opinions when the principals make a decision that affects me,” and “helps me establish my schedule” to “when needed, the principal collaborates with me to plan schedules for instruction and other activities”). Another six questions were deleted because they were not appropriate for Korean contexts (such as “honest and straightforward with the staff,” “supports me on decisions,” “provides standards for performance,” “helps me evaluate my needs,” “provides helpful information for improving personal coping skills,” and “provides adequate planning time”). Three additional questions were added (such as “accepts my opinions in using the budget allotted to operate a special education class,” “admits and acknowledges my profession/expertise as a special education teacher,” and “accepts and pursues new activities and plans when I suggest them”). Thus, a total of 37 questions were developed for the Kang and Park survey: (a) 14 questions for emotional support, (b) 4 questions for appraisal support, (c) 3 questions for informational support, and (d) 16 questions for instrumental support.

The results of the content analysis for the present study are similar to those of Kang and Park’s (2002) in terms of the deletion and addition of questions. Based on the content analysis results, the most appropriate and clear survey questions were considered for inclusion in this study’s survey questionnaire. When more than half of the respondents ($n \geq 3$) expressed the meaning of a question to be vague and/or inappropriate, the question was deleted. Furthermore, additional survey questions were included in this study to reflect SETs’ challenges related to administrative support and to

address Korean special education contexts. A total of 27 Administrative Support Questionnaire (ASQ) items were developed: (a) questions 1-10 for emotional support, (b) questions 11-14 for appraisal support, (c) questions 15-20 for informational support, and (d) questions 21-27 for instrumental support (Appendix B). The English version of the survey questions was also developed by the researcher (Appendix C) and two Korean professors reviewed the translated survey questions.

Emotional Support Questions

House (1981) stated that emotional support consists of offering empathy, trust, caring, and love to people, thus this support is considered the most important support type due to its influences on people. The first 10 questions are related to an area of support that represents one of Korean SETs' challenges (Table 3-1). Based on the results of the content analysis, four questions from the PSQ (Littrell et al., 1994) (including "acts friendly toward me," "is easy to approach," "gives me a sense of importance and that I make a difference," and "allows me input into decisions that affect me") were deleted because more than half of the respondents (n = 3) found the meaning of these questions to be vague. They expressed confusion about whether the questions applied to work or personal relationships. Another question ("is honest and straightforward with the staff") was deleted because respondents perceived it to be inappropriate to the Korean context. Three other questions ("gives me undivided attention when I am talking," "supports me on decisions," and "treats me as one of the faculty") were also deleted because they were perceived as being too general and not reflecting the support context for Korean SETs.

Thus, only 4 out of 12 questions from the PSQ (Littrell et al., 1994) addressing emotional support were included in this study, however, revisions were made for clearer

meaning according to Korean SETs' comments: (a) "considers my idea" to "my principal considers my ideas for the special education operating plan" (question 1), (b) "shows genuine concern for my program and students" to "my principal pays attention to special education classes and exceptional students" (question 2), (c) "notices what I do" to "my principal understands my work and duties clearly and accurately" (question 3), and (d) "shows appreciation for my work" to "my principal shows appreciation for the difficulties of special education work" (question 4).

The next five survey questions (questions 5-9) were taken from Balfour's (2001) study: "my principal is interested in what I do in the classroom" (question 5), "my principal gives teachers recognition for a job well done" (question 6), "my principal is available to discuss teachers' professional problems or concerns" (question 7), "my principal supports my decision in front of other teachers" (question 8), and "my principal supports my decisions in front of parents" (question 9). There were no revisions needed in Balfour's five survey questions.

The last question (question 10) is also taken from the PSQ (Littrell et al., 1994), "my principal trusts my judgment in making classroom decisions." However, in the PSQ this question was placed originally in the appraisal support rather than the emotional support section. DiPaola (2012), however, conducted "an exploratory principal component analysis with oblimin rotation to evaluate the component structure of the questionnaire" (p.118) and found this question item was loaded on the emotional support section. In addition, according to the House (1981) framework, offering trust, empathy, or caring to other people is considered to be emotional support rather than appraisal support. Thus, question 10 was included as an emotional support question in

the present study. For clearer meaning, question 10 was revised to read “my principal trusts my judgment when I make decisions for my special education class.”

Appraisal Support Questions

Appraisal support is defined as evaluating people on their work performance (House, 1981), however, there are limited studies addressing the supervision of SET’s teaching in Korean general education schools (e.g., Lim & Park, 2009; Tee & Park, 2007). For example, Kang and Park (2002) included only four appraisal support questions (such as “gives clear guidelines,” “offers constructive feedback after observing my teaching,” “provides frequent feedback about my job performance or activities,” “provides suggestions for me to improve instruction”) when they adapted the PSQ (Littrell et al., 1994). In the present study, the appraisal section also has only four questions (questions 11-14, Table3-2).

Of the original seven questions for appraisal support in the PSQ (Littrell et al., 1994), one question was moved to the emotional support section as previously described, and three other questions were deleted (including “gives clear guidelines regarding job responsibilities,” “provides standards for performance,” and “helps me evaluate my needs”) because Korean SETs’ perceived those questions as being more relevant to GETs than SETs in Korean contexts. An additional question, “shows confidence in my actions” was also deleted because it was considered vague in meaning for Korean SETs.

Thus, only two of the seven original questions on the PSQ (Littrell et al., 1994) for appraisal support were included in survey instrument for the present study. Based on SETs’ comments, the two questions were revised to reflect Korean appraisal of SETs work in general schools. The first question, “offers constructive feedback after observing

my teaching,” was revised to read “principal provides constructive feedback for my class supervision” (question 11). The other question, “provides frequent feedback about my performance,” was revised to “my principal provides frequent feedback about non-teaching responsibilities” (question 12). These questions were considered to address both instructional and non-instructional performance.

Two additional questions were added based on the literature review indicating that SETs have challenges with co-teaching and collaboration (e.g., Kim, 2009; Kim et al., 2011; Lee, 2005; Lee et al., 2009). Question 13 was added to read “my principal provides feedback about my collaboration with GETs for planning and delivering instruction,” and question 14 was added to read “my principal provides feedback for inclusive education practices.”

Informational Support Questions

Questions 15-20 comprise the section on informational support, which means providing information to people so that they can solve their problems (Table 3-3). Kang and Park (2002) adapted only three questions from the PSQ (Littrell et al., 1994) (including “provides information on up-to-date instructional techniques,” “provides knowledge of current legal policies and administrative regulations,” “provides opportunities for me to attend workshops, attend conferences, and take courses”). For the present study, four of the eight PSQ (Littrell et al., 1994) questions were deleted. The question “provides helpful information for improving personal coping skills” was considered vague and was recommended for removal. In addition, the question “identifies resources and personnel to contact for specific problems he or she is unable to solve” was not considered appropriate in Korean contexts in which SETs seek these resources, for the most part, by themselves. The question, “assists with proper

identification of special education students” was also deleted because it was not considered appropriate to the principal’s role in Korean general education schools. Identification of at-risk students as SWD who require special education is conducted off campus at special education support centers, where support center personnel evaluate students to determine their eligibility for services. Finally, the SETs analyzing the content of the questions determined that “encourage professional growth” was similar to “provides opportunities for me to attend workshops, attend conferences, and take courses” (question 17), so “encourage professional growth” was not included in this study.

Two informational questions taken from the PSQ (Littrell et al.,1994) study without revision were used in this study: “my principal provides information about current special education legal policies and administrative regulations” (question 16) and “provides opportunities for me to attend workshops, attend conferences, and take courses” (question 17). Even though all of the SETs responding to the content analysis agreed to the appropriateness of question 17 in Korean contexts, that participating in-service training after school or during vacations is permitted for SETs, teachers could not attend when the professional development is held during the school hours. Another SET stated if the in-service training is more than one day, principals do not usually give permission to SETs because no other teacher could teach their classes. If a principal, however, is supportive, the principal will find a substitute SET. Another SET suggested a revision of this question, “my principal allows me to participate in workshop, conferences, and in-service training.”

Two remaining PSQ informational questions were revised for clearer meaning. “Provides information on up-to-date instruction techniques” was revised to “my principal offers practical information about effective teaching practices” (question 18), and “provides suggestions for me to improve instruction” was revised to “my principal provides suggestions to improve instruction and classroom management” (question 20).

Two new survey questions were added for budget and curriculum reflecting Korean contexts. A special education budget question was added because several sources of literature in Korea, including Kang and Park (2002), point out the importance of administrators providing their SETs with an adequate budget. Thus, “my principal gives advice for planning the special education budget” (question 15) was included. A question about support for special education curriculum was added, as well, because SETs have challenges implementing the national special education curriculum for their students. Thus, “my principal gives advice for the implementation of the special education curriculum” (question 19) was included.

Instrumental Support Questions

Seven questions address instrumental support (questions 21-27), which is offering direct help to people (Table 3-4). Eleven of the 13 PSQ questions (Littrell et al., 1994) were deleted due to responses about the content’s vagueness (1 question) and inappropriateness in Korean contexts (6 questions), and for being too general (4 questions). Three of the six SETs who participated in the content analysis were confused by the meaning of classroom discipline in the question “helps me with classroom discipline problems.” Thus, this question was deleted. Three questions related to teachers’ schedules and planning time were also deleted because they were considered inappropriate for Korean contexts. Two questions about solving SETs’

problems were deleted, as well, because they were not considered relevant in a Korean setting in which SETs are expected to communicate with GETs directly and proactively, and to collaborate actively with them. Furthermore, the question, “work with me to plan specific goals and objectives for my program and students,” was deleted because respondents stated planning of education programs for SWD is the SETs’ responsibility. Only sometimes do principals provide suggestions.

Three instrumental questions from the PSQ (Littrell et al., 1994) were deleted because they were considered by respondents to be too general and did not specify supports for SETs. Those questions were “is available to help when needed,” “helps me during parent confrontations, when needed,” and “provides material, space, and resource needs.” In addition, SETs believed that principals must attend IEP meetings and parent conferences, thus, “participates in child study/eligibility/ IEP meetings/ parent conferences” was not included in this study.

Only two instrumental questions from the PSQ (Littrell et al., 1994) were adopted in this study. The question “my principal provides extra assistance when I become overloaded” (question 26) was included without revision. One word was changed in the question, “my principal fairly distributes resources and unpopular chores” (question 27), by replacing the word equally with fairly. Korean SETs participating in the content analysis expressed that principals sometimes believe that SETs do not have to work as much because they work with smaller groups of students, so principals give more work to SETs.

Three instrumental questions were added to the survey based on SETs’ comments. Those questions were “my principal allows the special education budget to

be used for its original purpose” (question 21), “my principal provides resources and support to re-construct the special education curriculum for use in special education classes” (question 22), and “my principal establishes an atmosphere that protects SWD from discrimination” (question 23).

Lastly, two additional instrumental questions were developed based on the literature review of SETs’ challenges. According to the literature review, SETs have difficulties collaborating with GETs, thus, “my principal provides resources and material for inclusive education in-service training for GETs and general students” (question 24), and “my principal allows time for inclusive educational planning and practice with GETs” (question 25) were developed for this survey questionnaire.

Overall, the 27 questions for Korean SETs are categorized into 4 different administrative support type. Specifically, some questions (nine questions) reflect Korean SET’s challenges that were illustrated in Chapter 2: (a) curriculum for SWD (two questions), (b) co-teaching and collaboration for inclusive education (four questions), (c) budgets for special education classes (two questions), and (d) supervision of SETs (one question). Question 19 and 22 such as “my principal provides resources and support to re-construct the special education curriculum for use in special education classes” is related to SETs’ challenges of implementing curriculum for SWD. Questions 13, 14, and questions 24, 25, such as “my principal provides feedback about my collaboration with GETs for planning and delivering instruction” and “my principal allows time for inclusive educational planning and practice with GETs” are connected to co-teaching/ collaboration, which is another challenge for Korean SETs. Questions 15 and 21, “my principal gives advice for planning the special education budget” and “my principal

allows the special education budget to be used for its original purpose,” are related to challenges with budgets for special education. Furthermore, question 11, “my principal provides constructive feedback for my class supervision,” is related to the challenges of evaluating SETs’ instruction.

Design of the Questionnaire

A seven-point Likert scale questionnaire was selected for this study in order to see a greater mean difference between the types of administrative support and between the extent and importance of supports. According to Miller (1956), many psychological studies showed that people have difficulty making selections with more than seven options. Participants were asked to respond on a scale ranging from one (no support) to seven (very supportive) in terms of their perceptions of the extent of administrative support. The importance of administrative support scale was also on the right side of the survey ranging from one (not important) to seven (very important).

The questionnaires covered two sections. The first section asked the SET participants about what kinds of principal support they believed to be important and the second section examined how the SETs perceived receiving administrative support from the principal. Additionally, demographic questions and additional space for feedback followed. The final section addressed demographic information about gender, age, number of years as a special educator, the number of students with disabilities in the special education class, and grade level of their students. The participants had the option of writing any comments about administrative support in the text box at the end of the survey questionnaire section. Six screens were developed for the questionnaire in the online survey in addition to two screens for a cover letter and a thank you note.

The informed consent form was obtained when the participants started the online survey. The screen for a cover letter included a brief introduction to the survey and indicated that the teachers' participation in the survey was voluntary. Online survey data were collected using the Qualtrics survey program. Once the survey was developed, it was distributed through the University's SSL encrypted site (University of Florida, 2016) and all of the responses were downloaded from Qualtrics directly into SPSS.

Procedures

The provincial supervisor of special education in Rural Province has access to all the email addresses of SETs within the province. The provincial supervisor agreed to arrange for the online survey link including the survey questionnaire (Appendix B) to be distributed to SETs on behalf of the researcher. An individual email with a unique survey URL (Qualtrics) was sent to participants in October 2016. When the participants opened the URL, they consented to the form by clicking "I agree to participate," and the instructions for completing the survey was displayed. In addition, the cover letter informed them that (a) all responses would remain confidential and (b) their participation in the survey was voluntary. The supervisor arranged for an email reminder to be distributed every 10 days to all SETs to participate with the online survey link. A total of two reminders were sent.

The first round of the online survey link was distributed electronically on October 20, 2016. Of the 566 SETs in general schools, 106 SETs completed the survey questionnaire. Nine days later, a survey reminder was sent on October 29. The final survey reminder was sent to all the SETs on Nov 7. An additional 83 surveys were received because of the second and final round of reminders. Of the 566 teachers, a total of 189 (response rate of 33%) responded to the online survey. One hundred sixty-

one (85%) of the respondents completed the online survey within 9 minutes, while the remaining 28 (15%) finished the survey within 18 minutes. Forty-eight respondents (25%) completed less than 70% of the survey, thus, their responses were not included. Consequently, 141 surveys were used in the final analysis.

Data Analysis Procedures

The collected data from the online survey were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), Version 24.0 and the Mplus 7. Confirmatory and Exploratory Factor Analysis (CFA, EFA) was conducted to measure the construct validity of the ASQ for Korean use. The reliability of the survey questionnaire was also measured. Descriptive statistics (i.e., frequencies, percentages, mean and standard deviations) were used to summarize the Likert scale data. To examine the differences among the types of administrative support, repeated measures ANOVA was used. For any statistically significant difference, a Post Hoc test was conducted. For the last question, which is to examine the difference between SET's perceptions of the extent of and the importance of the administrative support types, a paired T-test was conducted to analyze the collected data.

Table 3-1. Survey questions for emotional support.

Emotional support (question 1-10)

1. My principal considers my ideas for the special education operating plan
 2. My principal pays attention to special education classes and exceptional students
 3. My principal understands my work and duties clearly and accurately
 4. My principal shows appreciation for the difficulties of special education work
 5. My principal is interested in what I do in the classroom
 6. My principal gives teachers recognition for a job well done
 7. My principal is available to discuss teachers' professional problems or concerns
 8. My principal supports my decisions in front of other teachers
 9. My principal supports my decisions in front of parents
 10. My principal trusts my judgment when I make decisions for my special education class
-

Table 3-2. Survey questions for appraisal support.

Appraisal support (question 11-14)

11. My principal provides constructive feedback for my class supervision
 12. My principal provides frequent feedback about non-teaching responsibilities
 13. My principal provides feedback about my collaboration with GETs for planning and delivering instruction
 14. My principal provides feedback for inclusive education practices
-

Table 3-3. Survey questions for informational support.

Informational support (question 15-20)

15. My principal gives advice for planning the special education budget
 16. My principal provides information about current special education legal policies and administrative regulations
 17. My principal provides opportunities for me to attend workshops, conferences, and take courses
 18. My principal offers practical information about effective teaching practices
 19. My principal gives advice for the implementation of the special education curriculum
 20. My principal provides suggestions to improve instruction and classroom management
-

Table 3-4. Survey questions for instrumental support.

Instrumental support (question 21-27)

21. My principal allows the special education budget to be used for its original purpose
 22. My principal provides resources and support to re-construct the special education curriculum for use in special education classes
 23. My principal establishes an atmosphere that protects SWD from discrimination
 24. My principal provides resources and material for inclusive education in-service training for GETs and general students
 25. My principal allows time for inclusive educational planning and practice with GETs
 26. My principal provides extra assistance when I become overloaded
 27. My principal fairly distributes resources and unpopular chores
-

CHAPTER 4 RESULTS

The Results of Data Analysis

This study measured the validity and reliability of the Administrative Support Questionnaire (ASQ) for use with South Korean SETs. Thus, confirmatory and exploratory factor analysis was used to measure construct validity, and Cronbach's alpha was used to measure the reliability of the ASQ. Furthermore, this study identified the perceptions of SETs regarding both the extent and importance of administrative supports provided to them by general school principals.

In this chapter, demographic information of the participants is introduced first. Descriptive statistics (i.e., mean, standard deviations, frequencies, and percentages) of Likert scale data are displayed to summarize overall data results. The results of data analysis for the five questions follows. Lastly, analysis of the participants' comments regarding administrative support are presented.

Description of Demographic Data

Demographic information was compiled from the collected survey data. Table 4-1 to Table 4-5 display the demographic data. Among a total of 141 participants, 71% of respondents were female (Table 4-1) and 87% were under 40 years of age (Table 4-2). The majority of respondents had less than 10 years of teaching experiences (66%; Table 4-3). In terms of the number of SWD in special education classes, about 79% ($n = 111$) of the responding SETs teach fewer than 6 students in their class (Table 4-4). Furthermore, the majority of teachers (56%) work at elementary schools ($n = 79$; Table 4-5).

Descriptive Statistics

A total of 141 participants answered the 27 questions on the seven-point Likert scale regarding the extent and the importance of administrative support. Responses of the extent of administrative support survey questions ranged from one (no support) to seven (very supportive), and the importance of administrative support survey questions ranged from one (not important) to seven (very important). Table 4-6 presents the overall mean of the extent of administrative support ($M = 4.72$, $SD = 1.49$) and importance of administrative support ($M = 6.10$, $SD = .84$).

In terms of the extent of administrative support, mean scores ranged from 3.64 to 5.74 (Table 4-7), and five questions indicated a mean score below 4.0. The mean of question 26 “my principal provides extra assistance when I become overloaded” was 3.64 ($SD = 2.16$). The mean of question 16, “my principal provides information about current special education legal policies and administrative regulations” was 3.77 ($SD = 2.12$). In addition, the mean of question 19, “my principal provides suggestions to improve instruction and classroom management” was 3.79 ($SD = 1.97$). The mean of question 13, “my principal provides feedback about my collaboration with GETs for planning and delivering instruction” was 3.92 ($SD = 1.97$). Lastly, the mean of question 18, “my principal offers practical information about effective teaching practice” was 3.99 ($SD = 1.95$).

The highest mean score for the extent of administrative support was question 1, “my principal considers my ideas for the special education operation plan” ($M = 5.74$, $SD = 1.52$). Question 10, “my principal trusts my judgment when I make decisions for my special education class” ($M = 5.58$, $SD = 1.45$) and question 21, “my principal allows

the special education budget to be used for its original purpose” ($M = 5.50$, $SD = 1.85$) followed as the next-highest mean scores.

For the importance of administrative support, mean scores ranged from 5.42 to 6.69 (Table 4-7). The lowest mean score was for question 19, “my principal gives advice for the implementation of the special education curriculum” ($M = 5.42$, $SD = 1.64$). Question 20, “my principal provides suggestions to improve instruction and classroom management” ($M = 5.553$, $SD = 1.58$) and question 16, “my principal provides information about current special education legal policies and administrative regulations” ($M = 5.557$, $SD = 1.56$) followed as the next lowest mean scores.

The highest mean score for the importance of administrative support was question 1, “my principal considers my ideas for the special education operation plan” ($M = 6.69$, $SD = .844$). Question 9, “my principal supports my decisions in front of parents” ($M = 6.53$, $SD = .832$) and question 10, “my principal trusts my judgment when I make decisions for my special education class” ($M = 6.53$, $SD = .761$) have the same mean scores. The question 21 “my principal allows the special education budget to be used for its original purpose” ($M = 6.39$, $SD = 1.07$) followed as the next lowest mean scores.

Table 4-8 presents the frequency distribution (including percentages) for the extent and importance of administrative support survey questions response. The frequency (percentage) ranged from 0 (0%) to 62 (44%) for the extent of administrative support while 0 (0%) to 116 (82.3%) for the importance of administrative support. Question 1, “my principal considers my ideas for the special education operating plan” was the highest frequency (percentage) in the seven-point response (very supportive /

very important) for the both of extent of (44%) and importance of (82.3%) administrative support.

In terms of the extent of administrative support survey question 16, 19, and 26, the highest frequency was displayed in the one-point (no support) response. For question 26 “my principal provides extra assistance when I become overloaded,” 33 (23.4%) participants responded that they have no support (one–point). For question 16 “my principal provides information about current special education legal policies and administrative regulations”, 29 (20.6%) participants answered with the one-point (no support). For question 19 “my principal gives advice for the implementation of the special education curriculum,” 26 (18.4%) teachers responded with the one-point (no support).

In terms of the importance of administrative support survey question 9, 21, and 23, the highest frequency was presented in the seven-point (very important) response. For question 9 “my principal supports my decisions in front of parents”, 96 (68.1%) participants answered very important. For question 21, “my principal allows the special education budget to be used for its original purpose,” 95 (67.4%) teachers responded seven-point (very important). Lastly, question 23 “my principal establishes an atmosphere that protects SWD from discrimination,” 96 (68.1%) participants answered seven-point (very important).

Construct Validity of the ASQ When Applied in South Korea

To confirm the construct validity of the principal support survey instrument, factor analysis was conducted. Currently, there are no Korean studies that have validated the administrative support questionnaire even though Kang and Park (2002) and Lee (2012) examined the perceptions of special education teachers in general schools regarding

the administrative support using the PSQ (Littrell et al., 1994). Thus, in this study, a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted to measure the construct validity of the survey questionnaire and examine the reliability of the questionnaire. According to House's (1981) framework and the PSQ, administrative support consisted of four factors. The survey questions for each support type were developed based on the content analysis of the PSQ and the House framework. Thus, the researcher used CFA in Mplus. CFA is generally used when "the researcher specifies the number of factors and the pattern of indicator-factor loadings in advance" (Little, 2013, p. 258). This study assessed whether four factors are still applicable to South Korean school contexts.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis Results

As the earlier survey instrument section presented, the administrative support survey consisted of emotional (question 1-10), appraisal (question 11-14), informational (question 15-20), and instrumental (question 21-27) support. Thus, a CFA using maximum likelihood (ML) parameter estimation was used to examine the fit of the measurement model for the four different administrative support factors (e.g., emotional, instrumental, informational, and appraisal support). The ML estimator was chosen because it "provides more capabilities for statistical inference, such as significance testing and determination of confidence intervals" (Fabrigar et al., 1999, p.279).

To assess the overall model fit, Chi-square (χ^2) goodness-of-fit test, Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Comparative Fit Index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), and Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) were used for all of the 27 extent of administrative support questions and all of the 27 importance of administrative support questions. The measurement model for the extent items representing four factors did not achieve a good fit ($\chi^2(322) = 875.242, p < .001$,

RMSEA = .113 90% CI [.104, .122], CFI = .862, TLI = .849, SRMR = .066). The Chi-square (χ^2) test compares observed values with expected values, so non-statistically significant results mean that the expected values equal the actual values. From the data results, however, a statistically significant result was found. According to Hu and Bentler (1999), RMSEA >.06 is often a questionable fit and a 90% CI should have an upper bound no higher than .08 and a lower bound no higher than .05. The analyzed data illustrate that RMSEA is .113, and the lower bound was .104 and the higher bound was .122. Furthermore, both the CFI and TLI are below <. 90, which represents that the model is a poor fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The only statistic below a cutoff value was the SRMR at .066, which is lower than the cutoff point (.08) for adequate fit, but higher than a good fit point (.05).

In addition, the measurement model for the importance items representing four factors did not have a good fit either ($\chi^2(322) = 1034.701, p < .001, RMSEA = .131$ 90% CI [.123, .141], CFI = .752, TLI = .730, SRMR = .142). First, the results were statistically significant for the Chi-square (χ^2) test. RMSEA is higher than the cutoff (.60). The bounds for the RMSEA are well over the cutoffs (.05 and .08). In addition, both the TLI and CFI are below <. 90, which shows the model has a poor fit. Lastly, SRMR is higher than the cutoff point for good (.05) or adequate (.08) fit.

Overall, the CFA results have not confirmed the factor structure of either the extent or the importance of the four administrative support types. The results of this analysis illustrated unacceptable model fit, and an EFA was conducted to determine the number of factors underlying the data.

Exploratory Factor Analysis Results

The EFA was conducted to examine the factor structure of the ASQ. EFA with ML extraction using oblique rotation was conducted for both of the 27 extent of and importance of administrative support survey items. For the extent of administrative support survey items, only two factors of the eigenvalues for correlation matrix were greater than 1.0. The Kaiser-Guttman criterion, where a researcher retains factors that have an eigenvalue greater than 1, is one of most common criteria to decide the number of factors to retain from an exploratory factor analysis (Widaman, 1995). Another common criterion is the scree test, which reveals “the last substantial drop in the magnitude of the eigenvalues” (p.278, Fabrigar et al, 1999). These two criteria suggest retaining two factors. These two factors explain 70.3% of the variance in the items. The correlation between the first and second factor, however, is 0.79, meaning they are highly correlated with each other and it can be concluded that only one factor, general support, in the extent of administrative support type exists.

In terms of the 27 importance of administrative support survey items, 6 factors of the eigenvalues for correlation matrix were greater than 1.0. Based on the scree test (Appendix E), four factors could be retained because “there are four eigenvalues before the last big drop” (p. 35, Preacher & MacCallum, 2003). According to Preacher and MacCallum (2003), “retaining as many factors as there are eigenvalues that fall before the last large drop on a scree plot” is another criterion to determine the number of factors. The four factors explain 67.62% of cumulative variance.

Table 4-9 presents the EFA results including factor loadings. Even though four survey items moved (e.g., from instrumental support to informational support), the majority of items remained related in the same as expected factor (based on the results

of survey development). Factor one is named as emotional support and factor two is named as appraisal support. Factor three is named as informational support and factor four is named as instrumental support. Question 17 loaded on instrumental support rather than informational support. Questions 25-27, however, loaded on informational support rather than instrumental support.

The seven question survey items have below .5 factor loading (e.g., question 1, 4, 8, 10, 11, 12, and 25). One item is below .3, which is question 1. According to Brown (2006), "factor loadings greater than or equal to .30 or .40 are often interpreted as salient," thus, the question 1 survey item was eliminated because its loading is .283. The question 10 survey item was a cross-loading of both emotional support (0.464) and instrumental support (0.484). Thus, the question 10 survey item could be interpreted as an aspect of both emotional and instrumental support.

Based on the factor loadings, nine items of emotional support (question 2-10) strongly load on factor 1. The four items of appraisal support (question 11-14) load on factor 2. The eight items of information support (question 15, 16, 18-20, and 25-27) load on factor 3. The six items of instrumental support (question 10, 17, and 21-24) load on factor 4 (Appendix D).

All factors are positively correlated with one another, with correlations ranging from .260 to .648 (Table 4-10), indicating that they are related but distinct factors. Thus, four factors exist for the importance of administrative support for Korean SETs.

Reliability of the ASQ When Applied in South Korea

In order to measure the internal consistency of the importance of administrative support and the extent of administrative support, Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients were calculated. Cronbach's alpha for each of the four factors of administrative support

perceived to be important by the SETs include the following: (a) nine survey questions (questions 2-10) of emotional support ($\alpha = .923$), (b) four survey questions (questions 11-14) of appraisal support ($\alpha = .894$), (c) eight survey questions (questions 15, 16, 18-20, and 25-27) of informational support ($\alpha = .926$), and (d) six survey questions (questions 10, 17, and 21-24) of instrumental support ($\alpha = .881$). The Cronbach's alpha for the one factor of extent of administrative support is .971. George and Mallery (2003) suggested the cutoff point for reliability coefficients as: “ $\alpha > .9$ – excellent, $\alpha > .8$ – good, $\alpha > .7$ – acceptable, $\alpha > .6$ – questionable, $\alpha > .5$ – poor, and $\alpha < .5$ – unacceptable” (p. 231). High reliability for all four different types was reported for the importance of administrative support and the extent of administrative support perceived by SETs.

Type of Administrative Support SETs Have Received the Most

Based on the EFA results, only one factor, general support, was found for the extent of administrative support. Thus, this research question could not be answered because the data indicated no distinction among the different types of support.

Types of Administrative Support SETs Think Are Important

Repeated measures ANOVA was used to compare teachers' responses regarding the different types of administrative support. Based on the EFA results, there was only one factor (support type) for the extent of administrative support, but four factors for the importance of administrative support survey questions. For the four support dimensions for the importance of administrative support, ANOVA with repeated measures was conducted to examine significant difference between the means of the different support types overall.

The means of the individual's total scores for emotional support (question 2-9), appraisal support (question 11-14), informational support (question 15,16, 18-20, and

25-27), and instrumental support (question 10, 17, and 21-24) were compared. As collected data violated the assumptions of sphericity and epsilon value is $>.75$ (Table 4-11), the Huynh-Feldt value is reported (Lomax & Hahs-Vaughn, 2012). Repeated measures ANOVA with a Huynh-Feldt correction show (Table 4-12) that the mean scores for the importance of four administrative support types are statistically significant different at the p -value of $.05$ ($\eta_p^2 = .231$, $F(2.532, 354.449) = 42.11$, $p < .001$). The types of administrative support explain 23% of the variance in SETs' perceptions of the degree of the importance of administrative support.

The mean scores and standard deviation for the four different types of administrative support are also calculated. The mean scores for four support types are as follows: (a) emotional support ($M = 6.386$, $SD = .788$), (b) appraisal support ($M = 5.787$, $SD = 1.22$), (c) informational support ($M = 5.759$, $SD = 1.16$) and (d) instrumental support ($M = 6.32$, $SD = .819$) (Table 4-13). The mean scores for emotional and instrumental support were almost the same level (Figure 4-1). The mean scores for appraisal and informational support were also almost the same degree.

A Bonferroni Post-Hoc test was used to determine where the differences occurred for the four support types. Table 4-12 illustrates the significance level for the differences among the different support types. No statistically significant mean difference between emotional and instrumental support, and between appraisal and informational support were found.

Post-hoc tests using the Bonferroni correction (Table 4-14) found statistically significant differences between administrative emotional support and appraisal support, between emotional support and informational support, between appraisal support and

instrumental support, and between informational and instrumental support ($p < .001$). Emotional support is more important than appraisal support, which is a statistically significant difference. Emotional support is also more important than informational support. Instrumental support is more important than appraisal support, which is a statistically significant difference. Instrumental support is also more important than informational support. Thus, emotional and instrumental support are both more important than appraisal and informational support.

Discrepancies in the Extent and Importance of Administrative Supports

According to the EFA results, only one support type was found for the extent of administrative support while four types were found for the importance of administrative support. Therefore, two way repeated measures ANOVA could not be conducted. As an alternative way, a paired t-test was conducted.

The paired t-test comparing the teachers' perceptions of the extent and the importance of administrative support for the same questions was conducted. Statistically significant mean differences between the extent and the importance of administrative support for all of 27 survey items are found ($p < .001$). In addition, the mean differences show that teachers perceived administrative support as more important than the support they received in the schools across the 27 items (Appendix F). The mean differences between the extent of and importance of administrative support ranged from .84 to 2.08. The greatest gaps are found for question 26 "my principal provides extra assistance when I become overloaded" ($MD = 2.08$, $SD = 2.14$), question 16 "my principal provides information about current special education legal policies and administrative regulations" ($MD = 1.764$, $SD = 2.20$), and question 27 "my principal fairly distributes resources and unpopular chores" ($MD = 1.76$, $SD = 2.02$)

while the least gaps are found for the question 21 “my principal allows the special education budget to be used for its original purpose” ($MD = .84$, $SD = 1.99$), question 17 “my principal provides opportunities for me to attend workshops, conferences, and take courses” ($MD = .86$, $SD = 1.85$), and question 10 “my principal trusts my judgment when I make decisions for my special education class” ($MD = .94$, $SD = 1.41$).

Additional Information

A multiple regression was conducted to predict both the extent of and importance of administrative support based on teachers’ age, teaching years, teaching grade level, teacher’s gender, and the number of students they teach. Table 4-15 shows that the teachers’ characteristics do not predict with statistical significance the extent of administrative support ($F(5,133) = 1.704$, $p = .138$). In addition, from Table 4-16 to 4-19 illustrates that teachers’ characteristics do not predict with statistical significance the importance of emotional support ($F(5,133) = .985$, $p = .430$), appraisal support ($F(5,133) = .179$, $p = .970$), informational support ($F(5,133) = .465$, $p = .802$), or instrumental support ($F(5,133) = 1.537$, $p = .183$).

Analysis of Comments for Administrative Support

At the end of the survey questionnaire, respondents provided their own comments about administrative support. Thirty-three of the 141 participants shared their opinions. The most frequent themes addressed the need for principals to have greater knowledge and understanding of special education ($n = 14$) and the need for guidelines regarding suitable workload assignments for SETs in general schools ($n = 11$). Several respondents commented that the budget for special education should be used for its intended purposes ($n = 2$), and criticized problems created by uninformed principals and

the importance of SETs' opinions in developing educational policy (n = 6). Table 4-20 presents participants' comments organized by categories and the following themes.

Principals' greater knowledge and understanding of special education. In terms of greater awareness of special education and the need for in-service training for principals, participants expressed concerns that principals have limited knowledge and understanding of special education. Participants commented that principals should understand the necessity of special education classes and inclusive education, and the importance of students' IEPs. In addition, SETs stated that "principals should understand that SETs do not have an easy job even if SETs have a small number of students."

Guidelines regarding suitable workload assignments for SETs in general schools. Many participants mentioned the necessity of having clearer guidelines for and limitations to what makes up the workload for SETs in general schools. SETs commented that they have heavy work-loads and are assigned additional general education tasks. SETs stated that they should have work guidelines so that they are not overwhelmed by general education tasks and can focus on special education tasks exclusively.

Current problems created by uninformed principals and importance of SETs' opinions in developing educational policy. Five participants shared current problems created by uninformed principals and one participant remarked on the importance of SETs' opinions in developing educational policy. One teacher shared the current status of administrative support, "when it comes to administrative support, principals give more work to SETs (instead of actually supporting SETs)." Furthermore,

another teacher had a negative perspective of administrative support, “among SETs, frankly speaking, when the principals do not have an interest in special education, it is more helpful to SETs.” Lastly, one teacher pointed out the importance of SETs’ participations in developing special education policy. One participant commented that “SETs’ opinions should be reflected as much as possible not just the opinions of principals in special schools.”

Table 4-1. Frequency distribution of teachers' gender.

Gender	N	%
Male	40	28.37
Female	101	71.63
Total	141	100

Table 4-2. Frequency distribution of teachers' age.

Teachers' age	N	%
Less than 29 years old	35	24.82
30-39 years old	61	43.26
40-49 years old	27	19.15
50-59 years old	17	12.06
Older than 60 years old	1	0.71
Total	141	100

Table 4-3. Frequency distribution for years of special education teaching experience.

Years of experience	N	%
Less than 5 years	57	40.71
6-10 years	35	25.00
11-15 years	26	18.47
16-20 years	7	5.00
More than 21 years	15	10.71
Total	140	100

Table 4-4. Frequency distribution of the number of students in special education class.

Number of students	N	%
Less than 6 students	111	78.72
7 students	11	7.80
8 students	9	6.38
More than 9 students	10	7.09
Total	141	100

Table 4-5. Frequency distribution of responses by current teaching grade level.

Position	N	%
Elementary school	79	56.03
Middle school	38	26.95
High school	24	17.02
Total	141	100

Table 4-6. Mean and standard deviation for the overall extent and importance of administrative support.

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
Extent	141	1.00	7.00	4.7274	1.49527
Importance	141	2.77	7.00	6.1055	.84498

Table 4-7. Mean and standard deviation for the extent and important of administrative support survey questions.

Questions	N	Mean	SD
Extent1: My principal considers my ideas for the special education operating plan	141	5.7447	1.5278
Importance1	141	6.6950	.84467
Extent 2: My principal pays attention to special education classes and exceptional students	140	5.4000	1.62179
Importance2	140	6.4786	.94806
Extent3: My principal understands my work and duties clearly and accurately	141	5.2340	1.5704
Importance3	140	6.4500	.89221
Extent4: My principal shows appreciation for the difficulties of special education work	141	4.6383	1.9613
Importance4	141	6.2482	1.20212
Extent5: My principal is interested in what I do in the classroom	141	4.8936	1.6548
Importance5	140	6.2357	1.02213
Extent6: My principal gives teachers recognition for a job well done	141	4.9858	1.79677
Importance6	138	6.2464	1.14504
Extent7: My principal is available to discuss teachers' professional problems or concerns	141	4.8794	1.96932
Importance7	141	6.4397	.95893
Extent8: My principal supports my decisions in front of other teachers	141	4.8865	1.71586
Importance8	140	6.3000	1.16112
Extent9: My principal supports my decisions in front of parents	141	5.1773	1.73322
Importance9	141	6.5319	.83284
Extent10: My principal trusts my judgment when I make decisions for my special education class	141	5.5887	1.45441
Importance10	141	6.5319	.76114
Extent11: My principal provides constructive feedback for my class supervision	138	4.5000	1.88443
Importance11	138	5.9783	1.22306
Extent12: My principal provides frequent feedback about non-teaching responsibilities	141	4.4397	1.94704
Importance12	140	5.6929	1.44390

Table 4-7. Continued.

Questions	N	Mean	SD
Extent13: My principal provides feedback about my collaboration with GETs for planning and delivering instruction	141	3.9220	1.97510
Importance13	140	5.6286	1.50941
Extent14: My principal provides feedback for inclusive education practices	141	4.1560	1.93200
Importance14	141	5.8440	1.38504
Extent15: My principal gives advice for planning the special education budget	141	4.7872	1.92283
Importance15	140	5.8214	1.36907
Extent16: My principal provides information about current special education legal policies and administrative regulations	141	3.7730	2.12928
Importance16	140	5.5571	1.56982
Extent17: My principal provides opportunities for me to attend workshops, conferences, and take courses	131	5.3664	1.83222
Importance17	141	6.2199	1.12181
Extent18: My principal offers practical information about effective teaching practices	130	3.9923	1.95093
Importance18	139	5.6187	1.47636
Extent19: My principal gives advice for the implementation of the special education curriculum	131	3.7939	2.05208
Importance19	140	5.4286	1.64095
Extent20: My principal provides suggestions to improve instruction and classroom management	131	4.1985	1.98231
Importance20	141	5.5532	1.58306
Extent21: My principal allows the special education budget to be used for its original purpose	131	5.5038	1.85793
Importance21	141	6.3901	1.07420
Extent22: My principal provides resources and support to re-construct the special education curriculum for use in special education classes	132	4.4427	2.00446
Importance22	140	6.0286	1.21704
Extent23: My principal establishes an atmosphere that protects SWD from discrimination	130	5.2154	1.69808
Importance23	138	6.5145	.88981

Table 4-7. Continued.

Questions	N	Mean	SD
Extent24: My principal provides resources and material for inclusive education in-service training for GETs and general students	131	4.8931	1.93848
Importance24	139	6.2662	1.09396
Extent25: My principal allows time for inclusive educational planning and practice with GETs	141	4.9504	1.92103
Importance25	138	6.1812	1.12850
Extent26: My principal provides extra assistance when I become overloaded	140	3.6429	2.16270
Importance26	138	5.6957	1.60113
Extent27: My principal fairly distributes resources and unpopular chores	140	4.5071	2.02323
Importance27	139	6.2518	1.12349

Table 4-8. Frequency distribution for the extent and importance of administrative support survey questions.

	(1) no support / not important	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7) very supportive / very important
Extent1	3 (2.1%)	4 (2.8%)	7 (5.0%)	13 (9.2%)	20 (14.2%)	31 (22.7%)	62 (44.0%)
Importance1	1(0.7%)	0 (0%)	1(0.7%)	4 (2.8%)	2 (1.4%)	17 (12.1%)	116 (82.3%)
Extent 2	4 (2.8%)	7 (5.0%)	7 (5.0%)	18 (12.8%)	24 (17.0%)	35 (24.8%)	45 (31.9%)
Importance2	0 (0%)	1 (0.7%)	0 (0%)	9 (6.4%)	8 (5.7%)	25 (17.7%)	97 (68.8%)
Extent3	4 (2.8%)	5 (3.5%)	8 (5.7%)	30 (21.3%)	20 (14.2%)	38 (27.0%)	36 (25.5%)
Importance3	(0%)	0 (0%)	1 (0.7%)	7 (5.00%)	11 (7.8%)	30 (21.3%)	91 (64.5%)
Extent4	11 (7.8%)	16 (11.3%)	14 (9.9%)	24 (17.0%)	15 (10.6%)	29 (20.6%)	32 (22.70 %)
Importance4	2 (1.42%)	1 (0.7%)	2 (1.42%)	7 (4.96%)	14 (9.93%)	30 (21.28%)	85 (60.28%)
Extent5	3 (2.1%)	11 (7.8%)	16 (11.3%)	25 (17.7%)	30 (21.3%)	25 (17.7%)	31 (22.0%)
Importance5	0 (0%)	1 (0.7%)	2 (1.4%)	8 (5.7%)	14 (9.9%)	42 (29.8%)	73 (51.8%)
Extent6	7 (5.0%)	9 (6.4%)	11 (7.8%)	30 (21.3%)	19 (13.5%)	25 (17.7%)	40 (28.4%)
Importance6	0 (0%)	2 (1.4%)	3 (2.1%)	9 (6.4%)	12 (8.5%)	31 (22.0%)	81 (57.4%)
Extent7	12 (8.5%)	10 (7.1%)	14 (9.9%)	19 (13.5%)	18 (12.8%)	28 (19.9%)	40 (28.4%)
Importance7	0 (0%)	1 (0.7%)	1 (0.7%)	7 (5.0%)	10 (7.1%)	29 (20.6%)	93 (66.0%)
Extent8	7 (5.0%)	8 (5.7%)	12 (8.5%)	30 (21.3%)	25 (17.7%)	28 (19.9%)	31 (22.0%)
Importance8	2 (1.4%)	0 (0%)	3 (2.1%)	8 (5.7%)	7 (5.0%)	36 (25.5%)	84 (59.6%)
Extent9	8 (5.7%)	6 (4.3%)	8 (5.7%)	20 (14.2%)	28 (19.9%)	31 (22.0%)	40 (28.4%)
Importance9	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (0.7%)	7 (5.0%)	4 (2.8%)	33 (23.4%)	96 (68.1%)
Extent10	2 (1.4%)	4 (2.8%)	6 (4.3%)	21 (14.9%)	20 (14.2%)	40 (28.4%)	48 (34.0%)
Importance10	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (0.7%)	3 (2.1%)	8 (5.7%)	37 (26.2%)	92 (65.2%)

Table 4-8. Continued.

	(1) no support / not important	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7) very supportive / very important
Extent11	15 (10.6%)	10 (7.1%)	10 (7.1%)	30 (21.3%)	27 (19.1%)	21 (14.9%)	25 (17.7%)
Importance11	1 (0.7%)	2 (1.4%)	2 (1.4%)	13 (9.2%)	18 (12.8%)	42 (29.8%)	60 (42.6%)
Extent12	15(10.6%)	15 (10.6%)	13 (9.2%)	23 (16.3%)	25 (17.7%)	25 (17.7%)	25 (17.7%)
Importance12	1 (0.7%)	6 (4.3%)	6 (4.3%)	13 (9.2%)	23 (16.3%)	38 (27.0%)	53 (37.6%)
Extent13	25 (17.7%)	14 (9.9%)	17 (12.1%)	28 (19.9%)	23 (16.3%)	16 (11.3%)	18 (12.8%)
Importance13	3 (2.1%)	5 (3.5%)	7 (5.0%)	11 (7.8%)	24 (17.0%)	40 (28.4%)	50 (35.5%)
Extent14	19 (13.5%)	15 (10.6%)	15 (10.6%)	28 (19.9%)	22 (15.6%)	24 (17.0%)	18 (12.8%)
Importance14	2 (1.4%)	3 (2.1%)	5 (3.5%)	11 (7.8%)	24 (17.0%)	35 (24.8%)	61 (43.3%)
Extent15	13 (9.2%)	11 (7.8%)	9 (6.4%)	22 (15.6%)	23 (16.3%)	31 (22.0%)	32 (22.7%)
Importance15	1 (0.7%)	3 (2.1%)	5 (3.5%)	18 (12.8%)	16 (11.3%)	38 (27.0%)	59 (41.8%)
Extent16	29 (20.6%)	19 (13.5%)	23 (16.3%)	16 (11.3%)	13 (9.2%)	20 (14.2%)	21 (14.9%)
Importance16	2 (1.4%)	5 (3.5%)	11 (7.8%)	17 (12.1%)	19 (13.5%)	32 (22.7%)	54 (38.3%)
Extent17	6 (4.3%)	9 (6.4%)	9 (6.4%)	12 (8.5%)	16 (11.3%)	29 (20.6%)	50 (35.5%)
Importance17	0 (0%)	1 (0.7%)	2 (1.4%)	13 (9.2%)	15 (10.6%)	28 (19.9%)	82 (58.2%)
Extent18	19 (13.5%)	13 (9.2%)	23 (16.3%)	23 (16.3%)	16 (11.3%)	19 (13.5%)	17 (12.1%)
Importance18	4 (2.8%)	0 (0%)	7 (5.0%)	21 (14.9%)	22 (15.6%)	33 (23.4%)	52 (36.9%)
Extent19	26 (18.4%)	17 (12.1%)	15 (10.6%)	23 (16.3%)	18 (12.8%)	14 (9.9%)	18 (12.8%)
Importance19	3 (2.1%)	6 (4.3%)	11 (7.8%)	19 (13.5%)	22 (15.6%)	27 (19.1%)	52 (36.9%)
Extent20	16 (11.3%)	16 (11.3%)	17 (12.1%)	21 (14.9%)	21 (14.9%)	18 (12.8%)	22 (15.6%)
Importance20	3 (2.1%)	4 (2.8%)	7 (5.0%)	24 (17.0%)	22 (15.6%)	22 (15.6%)	59 (41.8%)

Table 4-8. Continued.

	(1) no support / not important	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7) very supportive / very important
Extent21	10 (7.1%)	5 (3.5%)	4 (2.8%)	11 (7.8%)	16 (11.3%)	30 (21.3%)	55 (39%)
Importance21	1 (0.7%)	1 (0.7%)	0 (0%)	8 (5.7%)	15 (10.6%)	21 (14.9%)	95 (67.4%)
Extent22	15 (10.6%)	15 (10.6%)	10 (7.1%)	20 (14.2%)	27 (19.1%)	16 (11.3%)	28 (19.9%)
Importance22	0 (0%)	3 (2.1%)	4 (2.8%)	10 (7.1%)	17 (12.1%)	41 (29.1%)	65 (46.1%)
Extent23	4 (2.8%)	7 (5.0%)	13 (9.2%)	14 (9.9%)	27 (19.1%)	25 (17.7%)	40 (28.4%)
Importance23	0 (0%)	1 (0.7%)	0 (0%)	6 (4.3%)	9 (6.4%)	26 (18.4%)	96 (68.1%)
Extent24	9 (6.4%)	13 (9.2%)	10 (7.1%)	17 (12.1%)	21 (14.9%)	24 (17.0%)	37 (26.2%)
Importance24	0 (0%)	2 (1.4%)	2 (1.4%)	9 (6.4%)	10 (7.1%)	37 (26.2%)	79 (56.0%)
Extent25	10 (7.1%)	13 (9.2%)	11 (7.8%)	14 (9.9%)	22 (15.6%)	34 (24.1%)	37 (26.2%)
Importance25	2 (1.4%)	0 (0%)	2 (1.4%)	8 (5.7%)	11 (7.8%)	47 (33.3%)	68 (48.2%)
Extent26	33 (23.4%)	23 (16.3%)	14 (9.9%)	19 (13.5%)	13 (9.2%)	18 (12.8%)	20 (14.2%)
Importance26	5 (3.5%)	5 (3.5%)	5 (3.5%)	8 (5.7%)	24 (17.0%)	33 (23.4%)	58 (41.1%)
Extent27	17 (12.1%)	14 (9.9%)	11 (7.8%)	22 (15.6%)	18 (12.8%)	31 (22%)	27 (19.1%)
Importance27	1 (0.7%)	1 (0.7%)	2 (1.4%)	7 (5.0%)	16 (11.3%)	32 (22.7%)	80 (56.7%)

Table 4-9. Factor loadings with oblique rotation (* significant at 5% level).

Items Number	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Q1	0.283*			
Q2	0.723*			
Q3	0.618*			
Q4	0.464*			
Q5	0.720*			
Q6	0.664*			
Q7	0.764*			
Q8	0.444*			
Q9	0.788*			
Q10	0.464*			0.484*
Q11		0.307*		
Q12		0.418*		
Q13		0.944*		
Q14		0.871*		
Q15			0.523*	
Q16			0.580*	
Q17				0.569*
Q18			0.799*	
Q19			0.853*	
Q20			0.970*	
Q21				0.695*
Q22				0.552*
Q23				0.581*
Q24				0.651*
Q25			0.426*	
Q26			0.667*	
Q27			0.732*	
Eigenvalue	12.915	2.280	1.818	1.250
Cumulative Variance	47.83	56.27	63.00	67.62

Table 4-10. Factor correlation matrix for administrative support factors.

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Factor 1	1			
Factor 2	0.538	1		
Factor 3	0.408	0.648	1	
Factor 4	0.410	0.260	0.428	1

Table 4-11. Mauchly's test for sphericity for repeated measures with ANOVA.

	Mauchly's w	Approx. chi- square	Df	Sig	Epsilon		
					Greenhouse- Geisser	Huynh- Feldt	Lower- bound
Importance	.721	45.442	5	.000	.828	.844	.333

Note: May be used to adjust the degrees of freedom for the averaged tests of significance.

Table 4-12. Repeated measures ANOVA on the importance of administrative supports.

		Df	SS	MS	F	P.	Partial Eta Squared
Importance	Sphericity Assumed	3	48.304	16.101	42.118	.000	.231
	Greenhouse- Geisser	2.484	48.304	19.448	42.118	.000	.231
	Huynh-Feldt	2.532	48.304	19.077	42.118	.000	.231
	Lower-bound	1.000	48.304	48.304	42.118	.000	.231
Error (importance)	Sphericity Assumed	420	160.563	.382			
	Greenhouse- Geisser	347.726	160.563	.462			
	Huynh-Feldt	354.499	160.563	.453			
	Lower-bound	140.000	160.563	1.147			

a. Computed using alpha = .05

Table 4-13. Mean and standard deviation for the importance of administrative support.

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	SD
Emotional support	141	2.89	7.00	6.3863	.78896
Appraisal support	141	1.50	7.00	5.7878	1.22132
Informational support	141	2.38	7.00	5.7592	1.16698
Instrumental support	141	2.17	7.00	6.3277	.81915

Table 4-14. Bonferroni post-hoc comparison on the importance of administrative support (* significant at 5% level).

(I) Importance	(J) Importance	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	P	95% Confidence Interval for Difference	
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound
1	2	.599*	.079	.000	.388	.809
	3	.627*	.075	.000	.426	.828
	4	.059	.055	1.000	-.088	.206
2	3	.028	.069	1.000	-.158	.214
	4	-.540*	.086	.000	-.771	-.309
3	4	-.568*	.073	.000	-.765	-.371

Note: 1 = Emotional support, 2 = appraisal support, 3 = instrumental support, 4 = informational support.

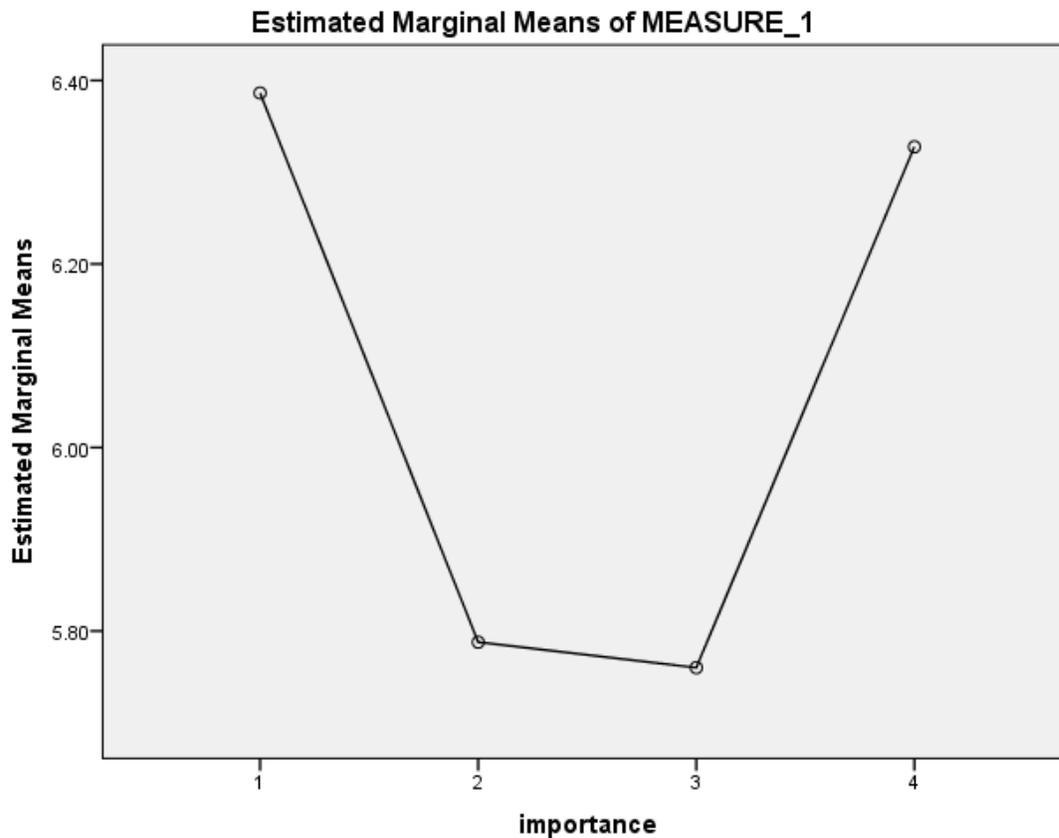


Figure 4-1. Means of the importance of administrative support (Note: 1 = Emotional support, 2 = appraisal support, 3 = instrumental support, 4 = informational support).

Table 4-15. Regression for the extent administrative support with teachers' demographic predictors.

Model	Df	SS	MS	F	P.
Regression	5	18.809	3.762	1.704	.138 ^b
Residual	133	293.604	2.208		
Total	138	312.413			

a. Dependent Variable: extentmean

b. Predictors: (Constant), grade, gender, years, number of students, age

Table 4-16. Regression for the importance of emotional support with teachers' demographic predictors.

Model	Df	SS	MS	F	P.
Regression	5	3.097	.619	.985	.430 ^b
Residual	133	83.646	.629		
Total	138	86.743			

a. Dependent Variable: emotionalsup

b. Predictors: (Constant), grade, gender, years, number of students, age

Table 4-17. Regression for the importance of appraisal support with teachers' demographic predictors.

Model	Df	SS	MS	F	P.
Regression	5	1.382	.276	.179	.970 ^b
Residual	133	205.134	1.542		
Total	138	206.516			

a. Dependent Variable: appraisalsup

b. Predictors: (Constant), grade, gender, years, number of students, age

Table 4-18. Regression for the importance of informational support with teachers' demographic predictors.

Model	Df	SS	MS	F	P.
Regression	5	3.226	.645	.465	.802 ^b
Residual	133	184.714	1.389		
Total	138	187.940			

a. Dependent Variable: informationalsup

b. Predictors: (Constant), grade, gender, years, number of students, age

Table 4-19. Regression for the importance of instrumental support with teachers' demographic predictors.

Model	Df	SS	MS	F	P.
Regression	5	5.050	1.010	1.537	.183 ^b
Residual	133	87.422	.657		
Total	138	92.472			

a. Dependent Variable: instrumentalsup

b. Predictors: (Constant), grade, gender, years, number of students, age

Table 4-20. Respondents comments about administrative support.

Category	Themes	Comments
Principals' greater knowledge and understanding of special education	Principals' understanding of special education	1. Having a basic knowledge of special education (i.e. importance of IEP and assistive technology)
		2. Having public promotions about special education for principals
		3. Understanding that SWDs' behaviors do not result from the lack of SETs' ability
		4. Understanding the necessity of special education classes and inclusive education
		5. Understanding that SETs do not have an easy job even if they teach a small number of students
		6. The status of SETs differs depending on the principal's interest level in special education,
		7. Understanding SETs' work and changing their beliefs that SETs do easy jobs
		8. Trusting and agreeing with the SET's educational beliefs and teaching philosophies
		9. Treating or viewing SETs and GETs equally, not separately or discriminating against them
		10. More in-service training for principals than now
		11. Receiving more practical in-service training to support special education classes and SWD
		12. Expecting basic professionalism for special education from principals and vice principals
Need for in-service training for principals	Need for in-service training for principals	
Need for guidelines regarding suitable workload assignments for SETs in general schools	Heavy-workload	1. Assigning special education work exclusively for SETs rather than assigning them general education tasks additionally
		2. Not being assigned additional general education work to SETs because SETs could not focus on the special education work due to other general education work
		3. Not being assigned the additional tasks or chores that other GETs avoid
	Necessity of guidelines for workload assignment	4. Having special education work guideline so that SETs are not overwhelmed by the general education tasks
		5. Misunderstanding of SETs' work as being an easy job, and assigning all kinds of general education tasks that could be related to special education

Table 4-20. Continued.

Category	Themes	Comments
Budget for special education classes		1. Spending the special education budget for its intended purposes
Current problems created by uninformed principals & importance of SETs' opinions in developing educational policy	Problems created by uninformed principals	1. Having little knowledge about special education, but having strong administrative authority
		2. Helping SETs more when principals ignore and have no interest in special education
		3. Causing more serious problems when principals receive only several in-service trainings and make decisions by themselves without taking responsibility for the consequences.
		4. Receiving in-service training emphasizing ideal inclusive education practices (that are totally different from the Korean context).
		5. Understanding the difficulties of SETs' work and changes their beliefs that SETs do easy jobs compared to GETs
	Importance of SETs' opinions in developing educational policy	6. Reflecting SETs' opinions as much as possible not just the opinions of school administrators.

CHAPTER 5 DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Discussion

Administrative support from school principals is important for increasing job satisfaction (Ingersoll & Smith, 2003; Tickle, Chang, & Kim, 2011), reducing the work stress of SETs (Wheeler & LaRocco, 2009), and contributing toward their intent to stay in their teaching positions (Conley & You, 2016; Ingersoll & Smith, 2003; Tickle, Chang, & Kim, 2011). In addition, administrative support can influence positive attitudes toward inclusive education (Villa et al., 2005). Previous studies, however, reveal that SETs in the U.S. have not received administrative support to the degree they expected (Cross & Billingsley, 1994; Hughes et al. 2015; Roderich & Jung, 2012). Korea is not an exception, and Korean SETs have many challenges working in general schools. Currently, there are limited studies of administrative support in Korea. Thus, this study examined Korean SETs' perceptions regarding the importance and extent of administrative support, and the gap that exists between them.

So far, only two studies in the U.S. validated the PSQ (Littrell et al., 1994) by conducting a factor analysis; no Korean studies have examined the validity of an administrative support scale for SETs. Thus, this study attempted to measure the validity and reliability of the Administrative Support Questionnaire (ASQ), developed for Korean use in the present study, by using a factor analysis and Cronbach's alpha. The ASQ, grounded in House's (1981) four-fold support framework, was developed based on the content analysis results of the PSQ, several studies (e.g., Balfour, 2001; Kang & Park, 2002), and the literature review of Korean SETs' challenges. A total of 141 Korean SETs in one rural province participated in the ASQ. Major findings are discussed in the

following sections related to each research question: (a) factor analysis and Cronbach's alpha results, (b) types of support received most, (c) most important types of support, (d) gap between the extent and importance of administrative support, and (e) SETs' challenges.

Questions 1 and 2: Factor Analysis and Cronbach's Alpha Results

New survey questions were developed for the ASQ reflecting Korean school contexts. Each question was based on House's (1981) social support framework and categorized into four support types. Thus, the researcher assumed questions 1-10 would be loaded on emotional support, questions 11-14 would be loaded on appraisal support, questions 15-20 would be loaded on informational support, and questions 21-27 would be loaded on instrumental support. The results of the CFA, however, indicated that the model fit was not good for survey questions addressing either the extent of or importance of administrative support.

CFA is conducted when the number of factors and factor loading patterns are guided by theoretical perspectives (Brown, 2006). In this case, although there were theoretical assumptions that specify how the questions are related to one another (i.e., theoretically the specified four-factor model is correct), the CFA results were not aligned to the assumptions. Part of this could be that the survey was translated to Korean, and this study is the first attempt to model the administrative support factor structure with Korean SETs. Additionally, Littrell et al.'s (1994) survey questions were revised based on the results of the content analysis and the reflection of the Korean context, which could be related to the CFA results. The combination of these circumstances may have influenced the questions and changed the underlying relationship between them, which appears to render the original theory incorrect.

The original PSQ (Littrell et al. 1994), however, had not previously been analyzed through CFA. In two more recent studies about administrative support, DiPaola (2012) and Cancio et al. (2013) conducted a factor analysis, but they conducted exploratory rather than confirmatory factor analyses. As stated earlier, EFA is used when scale development is in the early stage “to determine the appropriate number of common factors, and to ascertain which measured variables are reasonable indicators of the various latent dimensions (e.g., by the size and differential magnitude of factor loadings)” (Little, 2013, p.258). Because the ASQ is still in the early development stage, and this is the first study to provide evidence for its construct validity in Korea, it was appropriate to conduct an EFA.

Exploratory factor analysis. Both Cancio et al. (2013) and DiPaola (2012) conducted EFA with varimax rotation, which assumes each factor is uncorrelated (Osborne & Costello, 2009). Behavior or personality cannot be independent in social science (Church & Burke, 1994), therefore, oblique rotation, which assumes factors are correlated, was used in this study. The results of the EFA for both the extent and importance of administrative supports are discussed in this section.

Extent of support. The EFA results confirmed that only one factor, general support, was found for the extent of administrative support. Participants’ comments indicated that SETs did not categorize the specific types of administrative support they received or about which they had concern. Concerns were expressed about the importance of principals’ needing greater knowledge and understanding of special education, rather than about the degree of administrative support that they received. In other words, SETs perceived receiving a slightly below average to above average

extent of administrative support, but had additional concerns and did not categorize the support they were receiving.

Previous American studies found two factors (DiPaola, 2012) and four factors (Cancio et al., 2013) for administrative support. The two factors of DiPaola's study were *expressive support* (emotional and professional support) and *instrumental support* (instrumental and appraisal support). Before conducting a factor analysis, Cancio et al. (2013) already defined factors differently from Littrell et al. (1994) based on their literature review. They used the four terms *guidance and feedback*, *opportunity for growth*, *appreciation*, and *trust*. The present study is not exceptional in having only one factor, general support, for the extent of administrative support.

Importance of support. EFA results found four factors for the importance of administrative support and most of the survey items under each factor remained, as expected. Thus, factors were labeled as *emotional*, *appraisal*, *information*, and *instrumental support*. Four out of 27 survey questions moved from instrumental support to informational support and vice versa. Question 17, "provides opportunities for me to attend workshops, attend conferences, and take courses," which originated from the PSQ (Littrell et al., 1994) was loaded as instrumental support rather than informational support. Results of the content analysis for the ASQ indicated in-service training during school hours for SETs is dependent on the principal's permission, which prompted the revision: "my principal allows me to participate in workshops, conferences, and in-service training." Thus, participants might perceive that participating in-service training is related to receiving direct help from principals (instrumental support) rather than

principals providing information to SETs through professional development so that SETs could solve problems (informational support).

Questions related to SETs work time and work-load were loaded on information support rather than instrumental support: question 25 “my principal allows time for inclusive educational planning and practice with GETs,” question 26 “my principal provides extra assistance when I become overloaded,” and question 27 “my principal fairly distributes resources and unpopular chores.” Although questions 26 and 27 were loaded on instrumental support when DiPaola (2012) conducted the factor analysis, in the Korean context the results were different. According to Preacher and MacCallum (2003), “factor loading will vary due to sampling error, it is unreasonable to assume that loadings that are high in a single sample are corresponding high in other samples or in the population” (p. 27). Thus, factor loading results could be different depending on the sample.

Korean SETs in the content analysis expressed that principals sometimes believe that SETs do not have heavy workloads, and so they assign more duties to them. Thirty percent of the participants who provided comments to the survey also confirmed SETs’ were assigned additional general education tasks, or chores that their GET colleagues avoid, in addition to their special education assignments. Based on comments from the content analysis and survey, SETs would like principals to appreciate that they have intensive workloads teaching students with disabilities, rather than assigning them both general and special education work. SETs might perceive that principals are not informed about SETs workloads, and so they are not able to help SETs directly. In other words, SETs might perceive that support for their work time and

heavy workload is not related to instrumental support provided directly by their principals, but rather related to information needed by their principals to support the work of SETS and to help them solve their problems. Kim et al. (2002) and Kim et al. (2011) found similar results that SETs employed in general schools reported other teachers and school administrators lack special education knowledge and misunderstand their work.

Question 10 was cross-loaded for two factors and question 1 had a factor loading of below 0.3. Question 10, “my principal trusts my judgment when I make decisions for my special education class” was cross-loaded on emotional support and instrumental support. Originally Littrell et al. (1994) placed the question about trusting teachers’ judgment in the appraisal support category; however, DiPaola’s (2012) factor analysis results determined the question was loaded on emotional support. In the present study, participants might have perceived their principals’ trust as being emotional support that directly facilitates their classroom decision making. It should be noted that question 1 on the ASQ, “my principal considers my ideas for the special education operating plan,” was deleted because of low factor loading (.283) although the mean score for this question was ranked highest among the 27 importance questions with 82% of respondents selecting the *very important* response option (a score of 7 on the 7-point Likert scale).

The EFA results demonstrate that four factors, aligned with the House (1981) framework, were found for the importance of administrative support. Thus, this study provides evidence for the construct validity of the ASQ for Korean use.

Cronbach's Alpha results (Reliability of the ASQ). The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient results indicated internal consistency of the survey questionnaire "based on the assumption that items measuring the same construct should correlate" (Kimberlin & Winterstein, 2008, p. 2277). High Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients (above .80) for both the extent of and importance of administrative support survey questions indicate that the items for each support type measure the constructs well. Previously, Kang and Park (2002) and Lee (2012) reported .97 for reliability coefficients for the PSQ (Littrell et al., 1994). In the present study, many PSQ questions were revised and new questions were added. This could explain why the reliability is lower than in previous Korean studies, however, the Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients are high for the cutoff point, $> .8$, suggested by George and Malley (2003).

Question 3: Types of Support Received Most

The EFA results indicate only one factor (support type) was found for the extent of administrative support. Thus, the third research question addressing, "what types of administrative support SETs have received the most from general school principals," could not be answered. In their comments, none of the participants mentioned the different types of support they received, but they emphasized principals' lack of knowledge about special education and about the workload assignments of SETs. Thus, participants perceived receiving administrative support in general, but they did not distinguish between the different types of administrative support they received.

Previous studies (i.e., Kang & Park, 2002; Lee, 2012; Littrell et al., 1994) did not conduct factor analyses, but all of these studies found that emotional support was the administrative support type that teachers reported receiving the most. The rankings were different, however, for the rest of the administrative support types that teachers

received. Participants in Littrell et al. (1994) perceived receiving appraisal, informational, and instrumental support in that order. Korean SETs in Kang and Park (2002) perceived receiving instrumental, informational, and appraisal support in that order. Korean SETs in Lee (2012) perceived receiving appraisal, instrumental, and informational support in that order.

Question 4: Most Important Types of Support

In terms of the importance of administrative support that SETs perceived in the present study, emotional and instrumental support were considered more important than appraisal and informational support. There was no statistically significant difference, however, between emotional and instrumental support, and between appraisal and informational support. SETs in Roderick and Jung (2012) also valued the emotional and instrumental domains the most. In addition, SETs in Littrell et al. (1994) also perceived emotional support was the most important to be received from principals, following appraisal, instrumental, and informational support.

None of the previous studies, however, directly compared the types of administrative support that SETs perceived important after factor analysis. Thus, discussion of the importance of administrative support types is limited in both American studies and Korean studies.

Question 5: Gap between the Extent and Importance of Administrative Support

Four factors were not found for both the extent of and importance of administrative support; therefore, a paired t-test was conducted as an alternative way to analyze these data. The significant mean differences between the extent of and importance of administrative support ($p < .001$) demonstrated that SETs experience a gap between the support they currently receive and degree of support they expect to

receive from principals. The greatest mean differences were found for the tasks and chores areas such as question 26, “my principal provides extra assistance when I become overloaded” and question 27, “my principal fairly distributes resources and unpopular chores.” It should be noted that question 26 has the lowest mean scores for questions about the extent of administrative support. Furthermore, 23% of participants responded that they receive no support for extra assistance when they become overloaded (average mean score of 1 on the 7-point Likert scale). These findings are supported by participants’ comments indicating that principals fail to provide support because they lack knowledge about SETs’ workloads.

Previous studies support the importance of principals’ recognition of SETs’ tasks. For example, Lee (2014) found that SETs were unsatisfied when administrators did not recognize the extent and intensiveness of SETs’ work. Gersten et al. (2001) emphasized that the most crucial role of principals in supporting SETs is to have a basic knowledge of their roles in educating SWD.

SETs’ Challenges

Based on the literature review for this study, SETs in Korea face many challenges in general schools, such as implementing curriculum for SWD, co-teaching and collaboration with GETs, and securing budgets for special education classes. In addition, SETs have difficulties receiving supervision from school principals. Thus, the ASQ addressed these SETs’ challenges within House’s (1981) framework.

Curriculum for SWD. Questions 19 and 22 were related to support for implementing the national special education curriculum for SWD. The mean score for the *extent* of administrative support for question 19, “my principal gives advice for the implementation of the special education curriculum,” is the second lowest mean score of

the 27 questions addressing the extent of administrative support ($M = 3.79$). Eighteen percent of SETs responded that they receive no support for the implementation of the special education curriculum. The mean score for the *importance* of administrative support for question 19, however, is the lowest among the 27 importance of administrative support survey questions ($M = 5.42$). The mean scores for both the extent and importance of administrative support for question 22 (“my principal provides resources and support to re-construct the special education curriculum for use in special education classes”) is somewhat higher. According to SEAIDO (2008), school principals are expected to implement a re-constructed or modified special education curriculum considering students’ characteristics; however, SETs receive limited support in this area and may perceive that receiving support from principals regarding the special education curriculum is less important than other types of administrative support.

Previous studies (e.g, Kim et al., 2011; Yeo et al., 2004) found that SETs have difficulties in implementing curriculum and Jung (2014) claimed no existence of standardized rules for curriculum in special education classes. None of the SETs in the present study, however, mentioned the difficulties of implementing a special education curriculum in general schools in their comments at the end of the survey. Survey results could indicate that although administrative support is lower in this area, it would be hard for principals to support SETs in modifying and implementing the special education curriculum because they lack basic knowledge about special education practices.

Co-teaching and collaboration. Questions 13, 14, 24, and 25 related to SETs’ challenges with co-teaching and collaboration as inclusive practices. The mean score of the extent of administrative support for question 13, “my principal provides feedback

about my collaboration with GETs for planning and delivering instruction,” was one of the lowest mean scores among the 27 survey questions addressing the extent of administrative support. Twenty-five SETs (17%) responded that they receive no support in this area.

Participants considered support for co-teaching and collaboration important (average score of 5.6 on the 7-point Likert scale), however, they perceived receiving less support (average score of 4.47) than expected given its importance. According to SETs’ comments, principals need greater knowledge to understand inclusive education and special education. Comments suggest current in-service training for principals focuses on the ideal of inclusive education, which differs from the reality of the Korean education context. Kim et al. (2011), Kim (2013), and Ryu, (n.d.) also stated that inclusive education is different in Korean contexts. Previous studies also suggest other reasons for limited support including that co-teaching and collaboration are not common practices (Kim, 2009; Kim et al., 2011; Lee 2005; Lee, Han, & Yi, 2009) in the Korean context, which relies on the use of special education classes within general education schools.

Budget for special education classes. Questions 15 and 21 are connected to SETs’ challenges in securing budgetary resources for operating special education classes. In responding to question 21 (“my principal allows the special education budget to be used for its original purpose”), about 67% of SETs indicated a mean score of 6.38 on a 7-point Likert scale for the importance of administrative support in this area. This is one of the highest scores among the 27 questions addressing the importance of administrative support. The mean score for the extent of support in this area, however,

is also high ($M = 5.5$), which is the third highest score among the 27 questions addressing the extent of administrative support. Two SETs shared their comments on the special education budget, insisting that the special education budget should be spent for its intended purposes. Previously, Lee (2005) found that the budget for special education classes is not implemented well in schools, and Kang and Park (2002), Lee (2012), and Nam and Ahn (2013) also discussed the need for administrative support in this area. Budget management for special education classes is uncertain and budgets may not be used for their intended purpose.

Supervision for SETs. Questions 11, 16, and 26 are related to principals' supervision of SETs assignments. More than 70% of the SETs indicated this was an important to very important aspect of administrative support. None of the SETs, however, shared comments about the supervision they received from their principals. Previous study, Lim and Park (2009) found half of SETs who received supervision had only one time supervision for their teaching and SETs in Tae and Park (2007) insisted supervision by principals was superficial.

In terms of SETs' workloads, question 26 "my principal provides extra assistance when I become overloaded," had the lowest mean scores among the 27 extent of administrative support survey questions. In addition, the highest frequency was displayed in the no support response (score of 1 on the 7-point Likert scale) for this question. Furthermore, 11 SETs shared comments about the need for guidelines for adequate workload assignments for SETs in general schools. SETs stated that principals do not know that SETs are already overwhelmed by general and special

education work, and principals think that they can add additional general education work to SETs' workload.

Responses to question 16 indicate that SETs might perceive that it is not necessary to receive information about current special education legal policies from principals. The mean for the importance of administrative support in this area was 5.55, which was the third lowest mean score for the 27 questions addressing the importance of administrative support. Data also show SETs receive limited information about special education policies. The mean score for the extent of administrative support in this area was 3.77, which was the second lowest mean score for the 27 questions addressing the extent of administrative support. In addition, the highest frequency (20%) of scores indicated a response of no support (score of 1 on the 7-point Likert scale).

Limitations

There are some limitations to consider when interpreting the results of this study. First, the selection bias of participants affects the external validity of this study. The sample is comprised of SETs only from one rural province in South Korea, so the findings might limit generalization to SETs in other municipal or suburban areas and provinces. Second, there might be a non-response bias in that the answers of respondents might be different from those of non-respondents. This limitation is a general concern of survey design. In addition, the supervisor of special education for the rural province arranged for the Qualtrics survey link to be distributed; there is a possibility that SETs' responses (e.g., few answers for low support response options) might have been influenced by this approach.

A Principal Component Analysis (PCA) for data reduction of the PSQ (Littrell et al., 1994) was not conducted for this study, therefore, cross-loading of one survey item

(question 10) was not deleted. Most of the items in the ASQ have moderate factor loadings. According to Yong and Pearce (2013), “a factor loading for a variable is a measure of how much the variable contributes to the factor; thus, high factor loading scores indicate that the dimensions of the factors are better accounted for by the variables” (p. 80-81), thus, high factor loading ($> .70$) would be assumed for future study.

In addition, the sample size for this study ($n = 141$) was relatively small, which could be related to factor loadings. In terms of factor loading, seven survey question items (e.g., question 1, 4, 8, 10, 11, 12, and 25) have below .5 even though factor loading of .30 is the suggested cutoff point (Brown, 2006). In addition, only four survey question items (e.g., question 14, 15, 19, and 20) have above .80 factor loadings. The factor loadings of the remaining survey question items range from .40 to .60. According to Fabriger et al. (1999), “under conditions of moderate communalities (e.g., .40 to .70) and moderate over determination of factors, a sample of 200 or more seems advisable” (p.283).

Furthermore, the sample size was not large enough to split in half to conduct a CFA after the EFA. According to Fabrigar et al. (1999), “an EFA could be conducted on one half of the data providing the basis for specifying a CFA model that can be fit to the other half of the data” (p. 277).

Conclusion

This study provides evidence of construct validity for the use of the ASQ in Korea, and analysis of Korean SETs’ perceptions of the extent and the importance of administrative support. The factor analysis results indicate that SETs perceive the importance of four different types of administrative support (e.g., emotional, appraisal,

informational, and instrumental support) even though they perceive the extent of administrative support as being only one type of support. In other words, SETs consider the four types of support as being important for principals to provide, but they do not distinguish among the types of support they receive. SETs are isolated in general education schools and teach in special education classes. School principals are less informed about special education and SETs may perceive that principals provide administrative support that is more generic than specific. The statistically significant mean score differences between SETs' perceptions of the extent of and the importance of administrative support represent that SETs do not perceive receiving the extent of support to the degree they expect from principals given the importance of support for each item of the ASQ.

The data suggest, however, that SETs were receiving adequate administrative support. Although t-test results demonstrated a significant gap between the perceived extent and importance of administrative support across the 27 questions, this gap does not seem to be practically significant. Scores for the extent of support they received ranged from only slightly below to somewhat above average. Thus, the SETs perceived receiving close to average levels of support, even though they considered the importance of receiving support across each item to be much higher.

The SETs' comments illustrate the need for principals to have a basic knowledge of special education and to understand that SETs have heavy workloads with general and special education tasks. According to Thornton, Peltier, and Medina (2007), school administrators who support SETs are actively cognizant of SETs' responsibilities. In addition, Wakeman et al. (2006) insisted that principals should have

a basic knowledge of special education and of current special education issues. The researcher can infer that discussing the extent and importance of administrative support by principals is in quite an early stage in Korea. SETs perceive that principals need a basic knowledge of the importance of special education classes and inclusive education to support SETs.

Implications for Policy and Practices

This study provides several implications for policy and practices in Korea. These implications address (a) the need for policymakers to explore the reasons why SETs distinguish among four types of administrative support as being important, but fail to distinguish more than one type for the extent of support they receive; (b) the need of in-service trainings for principals about basic special education; and (c) the need for work guidelines about suitable workloads for SETs in general schools.

The EFA results determined only one type of support for the extent variable indicating that SETs perceived no difference in the types of administrative support they received. However, the EFA results for the importance variable determined four factors. This suggests teachers are saying there is something important that distinguishes the four types of administrative support, but they do not see the differences in practice. Policymakers might look more closely at the reasons why SETs perceive administrative support to be generic.

Principals in Korea should receive in-service trainings for fundamental knowledge of special education. According to SELIDO (2008), principals are in charge of offering special education services and operating special education classes in schools. In-service training (professional development) should include the importance of IEPs and assistive technology, the necessity of inclusive education and special education

classes, and the scope and substance of SETs' tasks and challenges. Policy guidelines about suitable workloads for SETs in general schools should be developed with the input of SETs, and mandated to improve inclusive education in Korean schools.

Recommendations for Future Research

This study was the first study to provide construct validity evidence for the ASQ for Korean use, therefore, replication studies would be necessary. Future research using ASQ with a different sample could confirm the relevance of the four factors for the importance of administrative support. According to Fabrigar et al. (1999), "when a given number of factors for a battery of measure variables is shown to be appropriate in more than one data set . . . a researcher can be more confident that the optimal number of factors has been extracted" (p.281).

Future research could focus more narrowly on administrative support for inclusive education. Even though the SELIDO (2008) indicates principals should attempt to accomplish an inclusive educational mission by creating education plans (Article 21, Clause 1), this study provides limited evidence to what degree and how principals should support SETs for inclusive education. In addition, little is known about how principals in general schools support SETs for inclusive education.

In addition, future research could be conducted by recruiting both school principals and SETs to examine the differences between what those two groups perceive to be the most important and the most valuable support to receive from principals. Roderick and Jung (2012) found a noticeable difference between what administrators and SETs perceived important support to receive. Currently, no Korean studies examine the administrative support perceptions of both SETs and principals in general schools, therefore, it would be meaningful to conduct such a study.

APPENDIX A
SURVEY QUESTIONS OF LITTRELL EL AL.'S STUDY

Description of Factor 1 (Emotional Support)

1. Acts friendly toward me
2. Is easy to approach
3. Gives me undivided attention when I am talking
4. Is honest and straightforward with the staff
5. Gives me a sense of importance and that I make a difference
6. Considers my ideas
7. Allows me input into decisions that affect me
8. Supports me on decisions
9. Shows genuine concern for my program and students
10. Notices what I do
11. Shows appreciation for my work
12. Treats me as one of the faculty

Description of Factor 2 (Appraisal Support)

13. Gives clear guidelines regarding job responsibilities
14. Provides standards for performance
15. Offers constructive feedback after observing my teaching
16. Provides frequent feedback about my performance
17. Helps me evaluate my needs
18. Trusts my judgment in making classroom decisions
19. Shows confidence in my actions

Description of Factor 3 (Informational Support)

20. Provides helpful information for improving personal coping skills
21. Provides information on up-to-date instructional techniques
22. Provides knowledge of current legal policies and administrative regulations
23. Provides opportunities for me to attend workshops, attend conferences, and take courses
24. Encourages professional growth
25. Provides suggestions for me to improve instruction
26. Identifies resource personnel to contact for specific problems he or she is unable to solve
27. Assists with proper identification of special education students

Description of Factor 4 (Instrumental Support)

28. Is available to help when needed
29. Helps me establish my schedule
30. Helps me solve problems and conflicts that occur
31. Establishes channels of communication between general and special education teaching and other professionals

32. Helps me with classroom discipline problems
33. Helps me during parent confrontations, when needed
34. Provides time for various nonteaching responsibilities (e.g., IEP, conferences)
35. Provides adequate planning time
36. Provides material, space, and resource needs
37. Participates in child/study/eligibility/IEP meeting/ parent conferences
38. Works with me to plan specific goals and objectives for my program and students
39. Provides extra assistance when I become overloaded
40. Equally distributes resources and unpopular chores

APPENDIX B
SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE (KOREAN VERSION)

교장의 지원 설문문항

특수학급 선생님들께: 저는 플로리다 대학교에서 특수교육 박사과정에 있는 최나리입니다. 저는 특수학급 교사들이 인식하는 학교장의 지원에 관해 연구를 하고 있습니다.

본 설문지를 작성하는데 15-20 분 정도의 응답시간이 걸릴 것이며 선생님들의 참여는 자발적이며 응답내용은 비밀로 보장이 될 것입니다. 설문에 관해 어떠한 질문이 있을 경우에 전화 또는 이메일로 (1-352-777-6326, nc7594@ufl.edu) 연락을 주시기 바랍니다. 이 연구에 관해 플로리다 대학교 연구 윤리 위원회의 승락을 받았기에 혹시 연구 참가자로서 선생님의 권리에 질문이 있을 경우에 irb2@ufl.edu 로 연락을 주시면 됩니다.

설문 문항 응답에 선생님께서 즐겁게 응답을 해 주시면 감사하겠습니다. 저는 선생님의 응답을 기다리겠습니다. 설문 문항 협조에 감사드립니다. 만약에 설문 문항 응답에 참여를 원하시면 아래의 '나는 설문 문항에 참여를 동의합니다' 버튼을 클릭해 주시면 감사하겠습니다. 선생님은 설문조사 참여 동의를 언제나 철회할 수 있습니다.

참고로, 김영란 법으로 인해 설문조사에 대한 보상은 지급하지 못해서 양해바랍니다.

○ 나는 설문 문항 참여를 동의합니다

이 설문 문항 작성에 참여해 주셔서 감사합니다. 총 27 개의 설문 문항은 특수학급 선생님들에 대한 학교장의 행정적 지원에 관한 인식을 알아보기 위해 만들어 졌습니다. 각각의 문항에 대해 학교장으로부터 어느 정도의 실질적인 행정적 지원을 받고 있는지 (1= 지원 없음, 7 = 매우 지원을 잘해줌) 그리고 얼마나 중요한지 (1= 중요하지 않음, 7= 매우 중요함) 체크해 주시면 감사하겠습니다.

	실제로 받고 있는 행정적 지원의 정도							행정적 지원의 중요한 정도						
	지원없음 (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	매우지원을 잘해줌(7)	중요하지 않음(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	매우 중요함 (7)
1. 학교장은 특수교육 운영계획에 대한 나의 의견을 고려해준다.	<input type="radio"/>													
2. 학교장은 특수학급과 장애학생에 대해 관심을 가진다.	<input type="radio"/>													
3. 학교장은 특수교사인 나의 업무와 의무를 분명하게 알고 있다.	<input type="radio"/>													
4. 학교장은 특수교육 업무 어려움을 인정 및 표현한다.	<input type="radio"/>													
5. 학교장은 특수학급의 업무와 프로그램에 대해 관심을 가진다.	<input type="radio"/>													
6. 학교장은 나의 특수교육 업무 수행이 잘 되었을때, 그 노력과 성과를 인정해준다.	<input type="radio"/>													
7. 학교장은 내가 당면하는 문제나 어려움이 있을 때 의논할 수 있는 대상이다.	<input type="radio"/>													

	실제로 받고 있는 행정적 지원의 정도							행정적 지원의 중요한 정도						
	지원 없음(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	매우 지원을 잘해줌 (7)	중요하지 않음 (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	매우 중요함(7)
8. 학교장은 다른 교직원들 앞에서 나의 결정을 지지해준다.	<input type="radio"/>													
9. 학교장은 학부모 앞에서 나의 결정을 지지해준다.	<input type="radio"/>													
10. 학교장은 특수교육 및 통합교육 운영에 대한 나의 결정과 판단을 신뢰한다	<input type="radio"/>													
11. 학교장은 나의 수업 장학 후 건설적인 피드백/의견을 제공한다.	<input type="radio"/>													
12. 학교장은 수업 이외의 업무에 관한 피드백/의견을 자주 제공한다.	<input type="radio"/>													
13. 학교장은 내가 장애학생을 위해 일반교사와 협력(수업계획, 준비)하는 것에 대한 피드백/의견을 제공한다.	<input type="radio"/>													
14. 학교장은 통합교육 실천에 관해 피드백/의견을 제공한다.	<input type="radio"/>													

	실제로 받고 있는 행정적 지원의 정도							행정적 지원의 중요한 정도						
	지원없음 (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	매우 지원을 잘해줌 (7)	중요하지 않음 (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	매우 중요함 (7)
15. 학교장은 내가 작성한 특수교육 예산 계획에 관한 조언을 제공한다.	<input type="radio"/>													
16. 학교장은 특수교육 법과 행정적 정책에 관한 최신 정보를 제공해준다.	<input type="radio"/>													
17. 학교장은 내가 연구회, 학회, 또는 연수에 참여할 수 있는 기회를 제공해준다.	<input type="radio"/>													
18. 학교장은 효과적인 수업 활동을 위한 실제적인 정보를 제공한다.	<input type="radio"/>													
19. 학교장은 특수교육 교육과정을 적용할 때 조언을 한다.	<input type="radio"/>													
20. 학교장은 수업과 학급 관리를 개선하기 위한 조언을 한다.	<input type="radio"/>													
21. 학교장은 특수교육예산이 원래의 목적에 맞게 쓰이도록 한다.	<input type="radio"/>													

	실제로 받고 있는 행정적 지원의 정도							행정적 지원의 중요한 정도						
	지원 없음(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	매우 지원을 잘해줌(7)	중요하지 않음 (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	매우 중요함(7)
22. 학교장은 특수학급을 위해 특수교육 교육과정이 재구성될 때 자원 및 지원을 제공한다.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
23. 학교장은 장애학생이 차별 받지 않도록 배려하는 환경을 조성한다.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
24. 학교장은 일반교사와 일반학생들을 위한 통합교육 연수를 할 때 지원을 제공한다.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
25. 학교장은 통합교육 계획 및 활동을 위해 일반교사와 협력할 시간을 허용한다.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
26. 학교장은 내가 업무가 많을 때 별도의 도움을 제공한다.	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○
27. 학교장은 교사들이 선호하지 않는 업무에 대해 공정하게 업무를 분배한다	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○

선생님들의 인적사항에 관해 추가로 간단히 5 문항에 관해 질문을 하고자 합니다. 각문항에 알맞은 답변을 해주시면 감사하겠습니다.

1. 선생님의 성별은 무엇입니까?

- 남자
- 여자

2. 선생님의 연령대는 어떻게 됩니까?

- 29 세 이하
- 30-39 세
- 40-49 세
- 50-59 세
- 60 세 이상

3. 특수교사로서 경력이 어떻게 됩니까?

- 5 년 이하
- 6-10 년
- 11-15 년
- 16-20 년
- 21 년 이상

4. 특수학급에서 몇 명의 학생을 담당하고 있으신가요?

- 6명 이하
- 7명
- 8명
- 9명 이상

5. 어느 학년의 학교에서 가르치시는가요?

- 초등학교
- 중학교
- 고등학교

설문문항 작성에 참여를 해 주셔서 감사합니다. 설문 결과는 특수교사를 위한 학교장 지원을 위해 교사 및 행정가들에게 알리는 기초정보로 쓰여질 수 있기를 바랍니다. 특수교사를 위한 학교장으로부터의 지원에 관한 어떠한 의견이라도 아래 빈 칸에 입력해 주시면 감사하겠습니다.

APPENDIX C SURVEY QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear special education teachers:

My name is Nari Choi, and I am a graduate student at the University of Florida's College of Education. I am conducting a study regarding special education teachers' perceptions of the importance and extent of administrative support they receive from their school principal.

The questions should only take about 15-20 minutes to complete, and your responses are voluntary and will be anonymous. Your identity will be confidential and will be unknown to the researcher. Only the researcher will have access to the information collected online. There is a minimal risk that security of any online data may be breached, but since no identifying information will be collected, and the online host (Qualtrics) uses several forms of encryption and other protections, it is unlikely that a security breach of the online data will result in any adverse consequence for you. Your name will not be recorded, and so your responses will not be identifiable

If you have any questions about this survey, please contact Nari Choi by telephone, 1-352-777-6326, or by email at nc7594@ufl.edu. This study has been reviewed and approved by the University of Florida Institutional Review Board, and if you have any questions about your rights as a participant in this study, you may contact them by email at irb2@ufl.edu

I hope you enjoy completing this questionnaire, and I look forward to receiving your responses. Thank you very much for assisting me with this important study. If you want to participate in this study, please click the "I agree" button below to continue. In addition, you are free to withdraw your consent at any time without penalty. As a participant, you do not have to answer any question you do not wish to answer.

Please note: The Korean Anti-Corruption Bill (Kim young-ran law) prevents compensation to public school teachers. There are no direct benefits or risks to you for participating in the study.

I agree to participate

Thank you for responding to this survey. It contains 27 questions that are intended to help me understand your perceptions about administrative support. For each statement please mark to what degree you received administrative support (1 = no support, 7 = very supportive) and to what degree you think that kind of support is important (1= not important, 7 = very important). In addition, feel free to write down any comments in the text box.

	The extent of administrative support							The importance of administrative support						
	no support (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	very supportive (7)	not important (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	very important (7)
1. My principal considers my ideas for the special education operating plan	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. My principal pays attention to special education classes and exceptional students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. My principal understands my work and duties clearly and accurately	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. My principal shows appreciation for the difficulties of special education work	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5. My principal is interested in what I do in the classroom	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6. My principal gives teachers recognition for a job well done.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
7. My principal is available to discuss teachers' professional problems or concerns.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	The extent of administrative support							The importance of administrative support						
	No support (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	very supportive (7)	not important (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	very important (7)
8. My principal supports my decisions in front of other teachers	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
9. My principal supports my decisions in front of parents	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
10. My principal trusts my judgment when I make decisions for my special education class	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
11. My principal provides constructive feedback for my class supervision	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
12. My principal provides frequent feedback about non-teaching responsibilities	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
13. My principal provides feedback about my collaboration with GETs for planning and delivering instruction	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
14. My principal provides feedback for inclusive education practices	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	The extent of administrative support							The importance of administrative support						
	No support (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	very supportive (7)	not important (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	very important (7)
15. My principal gives advice for planning the special education budget	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
16. My principal provides information about current special education legal policies and administrative regulations	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
17. My principal provides opportunities for me to attend workshops, conferences, and take courses	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
18. My principal offers practical information about effective teaching practices	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
19. My principal gives advice for the implementation of the special education curriculum	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
20. My principal provides suggestions to improve instruction and classroom management	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
21. My principal allows the special education budget to be used for its original purpose	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

	The extent of administrative support							The importance of administrative support						
	no support (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	very supportive (7)	not important (1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	very important (7)
22. My principal provides resources and support to re-construct the special education curriculum for use in special education classes	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
23. My principal establishes an atmosphere that protects SWD from discrimination	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
24. My principal provides resources and material for inclusive education in-service training for GETs and general students	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
25. My principal allows time for inclusive educational planning and practice with general education teachers.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
26. My principal provides extra assistance when I become overloaded	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
27. My principal fairly distributes resources and unpopular chores	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

I would like to know a little bit about your background as an educator. Please take some time to answer the five questions below. Please check the box that represents your response to each item.

1. What is your gender?

- Male
- Female

2. What is your age group?

- Less than 29 years old
- 30-39 years old
- 40-49 years old
- 50-59 years old
- Older than 60 years old

3. How many years worked as a special education teacher?

- Less than 5 years
- 6-10 years
- 11-15 years
- 16-20 years
- More than 21 years

4. How many students with disabilities are you teaching in the special education class?

- Less than 6 students
- 7 students
- 8 students
- More than 9 students

5. Which grade level school are you working in?

- Elementary school
- Middle school
- High school

Thank you so much for your time and participation in the survey! We look forward to sharing the results of this survey with researchers, teacher educators, and administrators, in order to improve the administrative support for SETs. Please let us know anything else that you think is important for us to know regarding administrative support in the box below.

APPENDIX D
QUESTIONS TO ACCORDING TO EACH FACTORS

Description of Factor 1 (Emotional Support)

2. My principal pays attention to special education classes and exceptional students
3. My principal understands my work and duties clearly and accurately
4. My principal shows appreciation for the difficulties of special education work
5. My principal is interested in what I do in the classroom
6. My principal gives teachers recognition for a job well done
7. My principal is available to discuss teachers' professional problems or concerns
8. My principal supports my decisions in front of other teachers
9. My principal supports my decisions in front of parents
10. My principal trusts my judgment when I make decisions for my special education class

Description of Factor 2 (Appraisal Support)

11. My principal provides constructive feedback for my class supervision
12. My principal provides frequent feedback about non-teaching responsibilities
13. My principal provides feedback about my collaboration with GETs for planning and delivering instruction
14. My principal provides feedback for inclusive education practices

Description of Factor 3 (Informational Support)

15. My principal gives advice for planning the special education budget
16. My principal provides information about current special education legal policies and administrative regulations
18. My principal offers practical information about effective teaching practices
19. My principal gives advice for the implementation of the special education curriculum
20. My principal provides suggestions to improve instruction and classroom management
25. My principal allows time for inclusive educational planning and practice with general education teachers
26. My principal provides extra assistance when I become overloaded
27. My principal fairly distributes resources and unpopular chores

Description of Factor 4 (Instrumental Support)

10. My principal trusts my judgment when I make decisions for my special education class
17. My principal provides opportunities for me to attend workshops, conferences, and take courses

21. My principal allows the special education budget to be used for its original purpose
22. My principal provides resources and support to re-construct the special education curriculum for use in special education classes
23. My principal establishes an atmosphere that protects SWD from discrimination
24. My principal provides resources and material for inclusive education in-service training for GETs and general students

APPENDIX E
EXPLORATORY FACTOR ANALYSIS IN THE RESULTS

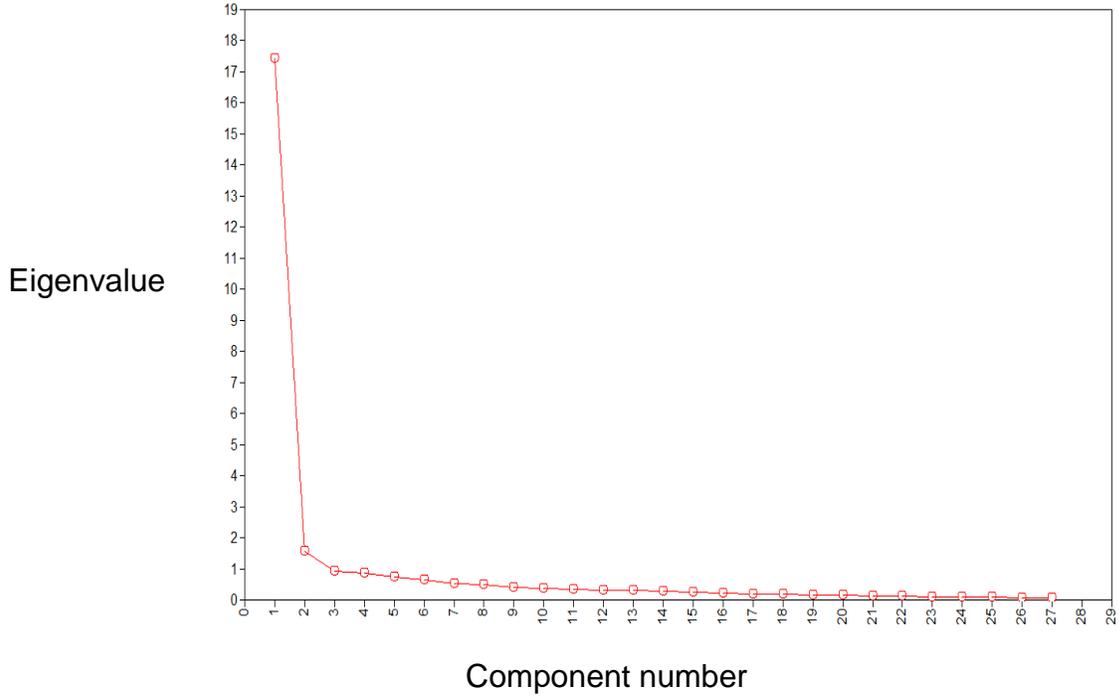


Figure E-1. Scree Plot for the Extent of Administrative Support.

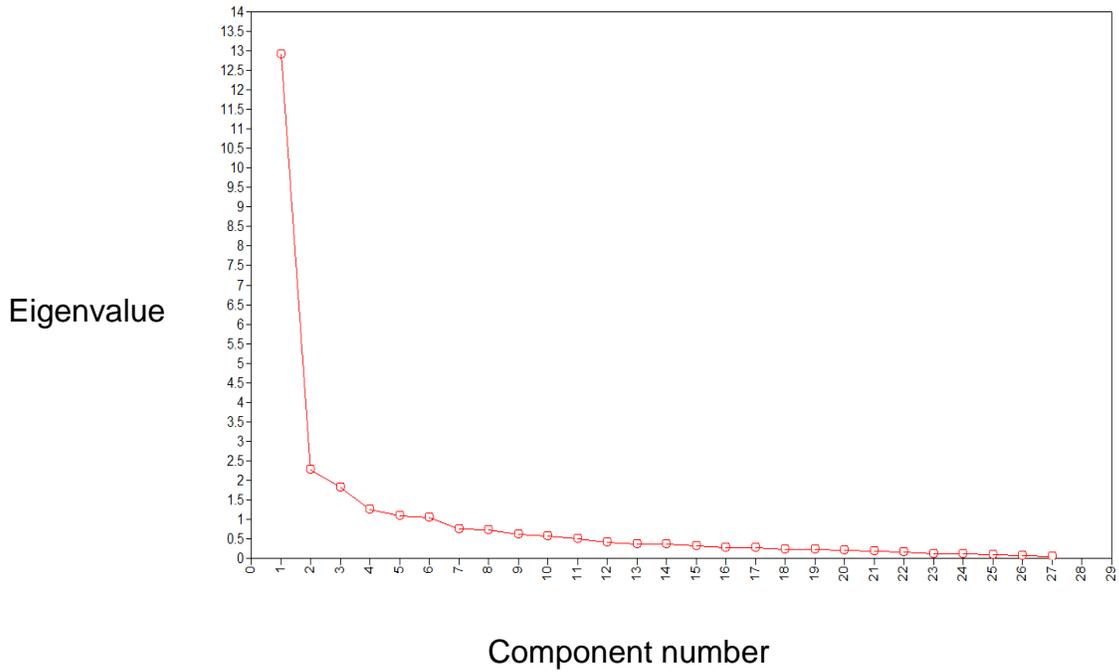


Figure E-2. Scree Plot for the Importance of Administrative Support.

APPENDIX F
 PAIRED T-TEST RESULTS

Table F-1. Paired samples test.

		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		T	Df	Sig.(2-tailed)
					Mean	Lower			
Pair 1	extent 1- import1	-.95035	1.47516	.12423	-1.19597	-.70474	-7.650	140	.000
Pair 2	extent 2- import 2	-1.09353	1.55523	.13191	-1.35436	-.83269	-8.290	138	.000
Pair 3	extent 3- import 3	-1.20714	1.56166	.13198	-1.46810	-.94619	-9.146	139	.000
Pair 4	extent 4- import 4	-1.60993	1.89651	.15972	-1.92569	-1.29416	-10.080	140	.000
Pair 5	extent 5- import 5	-1.35714	1.49373	.12624	-1.60675	-1.10754	-10.750	139	.000
Pair 6	extent 6- import 6	-1.27536	1.77068	.15073	-1.57342	-.97730	-8.461	137	.000
Pair 7	extent 7- import 7	-1.56028	1.88365	.15863	-1.87391	-1.24666	-9.836	140	.000
Pair 8	extent 8- import 8	-1.42143	1.77540	.15005	-1.71810	-1.12476	-9.473	139	.000
Pair 9	extent 9- import 9	-1.35461	1.68241	.14168	-1.63473	-1.07449	-9.561	140	.000
Pair 10	extent 10-import 10	-.94326	1.41307	.11900	-1.17854	-.70799	-7.926	140	.000
Pair 11	extent 11-import 11	-1.45985	1.95168	.16674	-1.78960	-1.13011	-8.755	136	.000
Pair 12	extent 12-import 12	-1.27143	1.84212	.15569	-1.57925	-.96361	-8.167	139	.000
Pair 13	extent 13-import 13	-1.72857	1.94841	.16467	-2.05415	-1.40299	-10.497	139	.000
Pair 14	extent 14-import 14	-1.68794	1.83278	.15435	-1.99310	-1.38279	-10.936	140	.000
Pair 15	extent 15-import 15	-1.04286	1.88852	.15961	-1.35843	-.72728	-6.534	139	.000
Pair 16	extent 16-import 16	-1.76429	2.20075	.18600	-2.13204	-1.39654	-9.486	139	.000
Pair 17	extent 17-import 17	-.86260	1.85540	.16211	-1.18331	-.54189	-5.321	130	.000
Pair 18	extent 18-import 18	-1.65891	1.97443	.17384	-2.00288	-1.31494	-9.543	128	.000
Pair 19	extent 19-import 19	-1.64615	2.02259	.17739	-1.99713	-1.29518	-9.280	129	.000
Pair 20	extent 20-import 20	-1.38931	2.00220	.17493	-1.73540	-1.04323	-7.942	130	.000
Pair 21	extent 21-import 21	-.84733	1.99797	.17456	-1.19268	-.50197	-4.854	130	.000
Pair 22	extent 22-import 22	-1.59231	2.13751	.18747	-1.96323	-1.22139	-8.494	129	.000
Pair 23	extent 23-import 23	-1.32283	1.73151	.15365	-1.62690	-1.01877	-8.610	126	.000
Pair 24	extent 24-import 24	-1.37692	2.00490	.17584	-1.72483	-1.02902	-7.830	129	.000
Pair 25	extent 25-import 25	-1.24638	1.87107	.15928	-1.56133	-.93142	-7.825	137	.000
Pair 26	extent 26-import 26	-2.08029	2.14222	.18302	-2.44223	-1.71835	-11.366	136	.000
Pair 27	extent 27-import 27	-1.76087	2.02017	.17197	-2.10092	-1.42081	-10.240	137	.000

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BIOGRAPHICAL SKETCH

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