LEADERSHIP PRACTICES AND INCLUSIVE EDUCATION REFORM IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN BANGLADESH

Jahirul Mullick

Thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the

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General Declaration

In accordance with Monash University Doctorate Regulation 17/ Doctor of Philosophy and Master of Philosophy (MPhil) regulations the following declarations are made:

I hereby declare that this thesis contains no material which has been accepted for the award of any other degree or diploma at any university or equivalent institution and that, to the best of my knowledge and belief, this thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference is made in the text of the thesis.

This thesis includes six original manuscripts published in peer-reviewed journals and one unpublished publication. The ideas, development and writing the manuscripts in the thesis were the principle responsibility of the candidate working within the Faculty of Education under the supervision of Associate Professor Joanne Deppeler and Dr Umesh Sharma.

The inclusion of co-authors reflects that the work arose from active collaboration between the researchers and acknowledges the effort of collaborative research. The contribution of the candidate to the manuscripts presented in various chapters is outlined as follows:

Thesis chapter	Publication title	Publication status	Nature and extent of candidate's contribution
2	The journey towards inclusive education in Bangladesh: Lessons learned	Published	Conceptual development, design, data collection and analyses; Co-author (contribution 50%)
5	Leadership practice structures in regular primary schools involved in inclusive education reform in Bangladesh	Published	Conceptual development, design, data collection and analyses; Principal author (contribution 80%)
6	Accountability and Leadership Practices in Bangladeshi Schools: A Supportive Approach for Implementing Inclusive Education Policy?	Published	Conceptual development, design, data collection and analyses; Principal author (contribution 80%)
6	Inclusive education reform in primary schools of Bangladesh: Leadership challenges and possible strategies to address the challenges	Published	Conceptual development, design, administration, data collection and analyses; Principal author (contribution 80%)
7	Development of the Distributed Leadership Practice for Inclusive Education (DLPIE) Scale	Published	Conceptual development, design, administration, data collection and analyses; Sole author (contribution 100%)
7	School teachers' perception about distributed leadership practices for inclusive education in primary schools in Bangladesh	Published	Conceptual development, design, administration, data collection and analyses; Principal author (contribution 80%)
Epilogue	Implementing inclusive education in primary schools in Bangladesh: Recommended strategies.	Published	Conceptual development, design, data collection and analyses; Co-author (contribution 50%)

Sections of published or submitted manuscripts have been renumbered in order to generate a consistent presentation within the thesis.

_____

Jahirul Mullick

22 October 2013

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I would like to express my gratitude and great appreciation to my supervisors, Associate Professor Joanne Deppeler and Dr Umesh Sharma for their encouragement, inspiration and support. Besides being my mentors, they demonstrated a great deal of love and never let me collapse during my doctoral journey. Their belief in my work and, at the same time, criticism and critical comments supported me to develop my research capacity. I would also like to acknowledge the professional expertise they shared with me to structure my research project which helped me to learn qualitative and quantitative research techniques.

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Dedication

This thesis is dedicated to my late son, Boichitro Mullick Shoushommo, who was with us for 68 days (15 April, 2010 to 22 June, 2010) and gave us enormous pleasure and happiness.

List of Publications Included in the Thesis

(in order of appearance in the thesis)

Ahsan, M. T., & Mullick, J. (2013). The journey towards inclusive education in Bangladesh: Lessons learned. *Prospects, 43*(2), 151–164. doi:10.1007/s11125-013-9270-1

Mullick, J., Deppeler, J., & Sharma, U. (2012b). Leadership practice structures in regular primary schools involved in inclusive education reform in Bangladesh. *The International Journal of Learning, 18*(11), 67-82. Retrieved from http://ijl.cgpublisher.com/product/pub.30/prod.3380

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Mullick, J., Deppeler, J., & Sharma, U. (2012a). Inclusive education reform in primary school of Bangladesh: Leadership challenges and possible strategies to address the challenges. *International Journal of Whole Schooling, 8*(1), 1-20. Retrieved from http://www.wholeschooling.net/Journal_of_Whole_Schooling/IJWSindex.html

Mullick, J. (2013). Development of the Distributed Leadership Practice for Inclusive Education (DLPIE) scale. *Asian Journal of Inclusive Education, 1*(1), 31-46. Retrieved from http://ajie-bd.net/images/files/pdf/jahirul.pdf

Mullick, J., Sharma, U., & Deppeler, J. (2012). School teachers' perception about distributed leadership practices for inclusive education in primary schools in Bangladesh, *School Leadership and Management*. doi:10.1080/13632434.2012.723615

Ahmmed, M., & Mullick, J. (2013). Implementing inclusive education in primary schools in Bangladesh: Recommended strategies. *Educational Research for Policy and Practice*. doi: 10.1007/s10671-013-9156-2

List of Abbreviations

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
AUEO	Assistant Upazila (sub-district) Education Officer
DLPIE	Distributed Leadership Practice for Inclusive Education
DPE	Directorate of Primary Education
DSHE	Directorate of Secondary and Higher Education
EFA	Education for All
FSP	Female Secondary School Stipend Project
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GPS	Government Primary School
HDI	Human Development Index
ICE	International Conference on Education
IE	Inclusive Education
IED	Institute of Educational Development
IER	Institute of Education and Research
MOE	Ministry of Education
MOPME	Ministry of Primary and Mass Education
MOWCA	Ministry of Women and Children Affairs
MSW	Ministry of Social Welfare
NPA II	National Plan of Action Phase II
PEDP II	Second Primary Education Development Programme
PEDP3	Third Primary Education Development Programme

PES	Primary Education Stipend
PLC	Professional Learning Community
PTA	Parent Teacher Association
PTI	Primary Teacher Training Institute
RNGPS	Registered Non-Government Primary School
ROSC	Reaching Out-of-School Children
SAARC	South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation
SLIP	School Level Improvement Plan
SMC	School Management Committee
SNS	Social Network Survey
TQI-SEP	Teaching Quality Improvement in Secondary Education Project
TTC	Teachers Training College
UEO	Upazila (sub-district) Education Officer
UPEP	Upazila (sub-district) Primary Education Plan
URC	Upazila (sub-district) Resource Centre

Abstract

This study was undertaken to investigate leadership practices for Inclusive Education (IE) reform in primary schools in Bangladesh. Specifically, the study investigated leadership practice structures, views of school leaders about the accountability approach in primary schools, school leaders' opinions on challenges to implementing IE and possible strategies to address the identified challenges. The study also explored the relationships between school variables, teachers' demographic variables and the perceptions of teachers with regard to distributed leadership practices for IE reform. The school variables included: school location, school size, performance of school and school type. Teachers' demographic variables included: gender, age, teaching experience, educational qualifications of teachers, professional education and professional education in regard to IE. In addition, this study examined the relationship between perceptions of teachers about distributed leadership practices for IE and their satisfaction about the implementation of IE and the work environment in the school.

This study was conducted in three phases and employed a *mixed method* design. Phase-I and III were quantitative in nature and Phase-II was qualitative. In Phase-I, the Social Network Survey (SNS) was used to investigate leadership structures from a distributed perspective. All teachers (n=79) from ten primary schools were invited to participate in Phase-I. The analysis process applied simple descriptive statistics in this phase to identify leaders in each school. The leaders identified by SNS were interviewed in Phase-II. A semi-structured interview protocol was employed to collect data. The participants (n=21) in this phase were head teachers, teachers and key members of the

school community (e.g. members of School Management Committee, local education officials) nominated by the teachers of the ten schools in Phase-I. An inductive thematic analysis approach was employed to analyse the interview data. Themes arising from the qualitative analysis in Phase-II contributed to the development of a scale, entitled the Distributed Leadership Practice for Inclusive Education (DLPIE). The DLPIE scale was administered to 673 participants (e.g., teachers and head teachers) from 308 schools in Phase-III. A two-stage cluster sampling method was applied to select the participants.

Findings indicated that distributed practices were prevalent in all of the schools involved in the study. Individuals who did not hold formal leadership positions in schools inspired and influenced the practices of their colleagues. This study also revealed that there was a significant, positive correlation between teachers' perceptions about distributed leadership practices for IE and their satisfaction about implementation of IE and the work environment in schools. This study further identified that the primary education system in Bangladesh employed a managerial accountability approach that provided limited authority to the members of school communities: in particular, this approach prevented parents and students from being involved in leadership activities in schools.

This study also identified a number of challenges to implementing IE reform including: the negative attitudes of members of school community towards IE; the limited authority of school leaders; a lack of accessible infrastructure; a lack of adequate resources (e.g., assistive devices for students with special needs, learning-teaching materials); and, a lack of professional development opportunities for school educators.

The research has implications for how schools could be better organised to support IE in Bangladesh. One suggestion to support the development of IE might be to expand distributed leadership practices and empower members of the wider school community (e.g., students, parents and others) to ensure their active participation in finding creative solutions to the challenges their school faces in implementing IE.

> …Schools with 'inclusive cultures' are also likely to be characterised by the presence of leaders who are committed to inclusive values and to a leadership style which encourages a range of individuals to participate in leadership functions. Such schools are also likely to have good links with parents and with their communities. (Ainscow & Sandill, 2010, p. 405)

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

The primary education system in Bangladesh is one of the largest in the world with an estimated 89,000 schools, more than 18 million primary school aged children and over 450,000 teachers (Directorate of Primary Education [DPE], 2012a). The first step towards inclusive education (IE) in Bangladesh was enhanced though the *National Plan of Action Phase II* (2003-2015). The National Plan emphasised that *all* primary school-aged children (6-10 years), including those from different ethnic groups, the disadvantaged, and those with a disability, are enrolled and successfully complete primary education (Ministry of Primary and Mass Education [MOPME], 2003). This plan was extended through the *Second Primary Education Development Programme* (PEDP II). The overall goal of PEDP II was to provide quality education and to make primary education accessible for *all* children of primary school age (Nasreen & Tate, 2007). More specifically, PEDP II targeted the educational needs of four groups who were at risk of exclusion, specifically due to gender, special needs, ethnicity and socio-economic disadvantages (Nasreen & Tate, 2007).

IE is still at an early stage of development in Bangladesh and the way it is currently implemented in primary schools is qualitatively different to the goal outlined in IE policy documents (Ahuja & Ibrahim, 2006; Sarker & Davey, 2009). Many of the children in the targeted groups remain out of school, with a recent report revealing more than one-and-a-half million children (9.2% of the total child population) did not go to school (DPE, 2009). In addition, only 60% of those enrolled students successfully

completed their 5-year primary education (United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization [UNESCO], 2012). This indicates that the primary schools in Bangladesh are facing challenges implementing IE reform.

Leadership is considered essential for educational change and reform. Initiatives by the principals or head teachers in schools are, alone, not likely to be sufficient to ensure successful IE reform (Ainscow & Sandill, 2010). It is also evident that, when leadership practices become a shared enterprise and all the members of a school community are engaged in reform activities, inclusion becomes sustainable (Jones, Forlin, & Gillies, 2013; Kugelmass & Ainscow, 2004). 'Distributed leadership' is imperative when implementing IE in regular schools because this leadership style does not believe in "...dividing leadership responsibilities or delegating them but rather seeing leadership coalesce around focused instruction" (Fullan, Hill, & Crévola, 2006, p. 92). IE reform also demands leadership practices become a collective process that includes and ensures fair representation of everyone in the school community and encourages their active participation (Ainscow, 2005; Rayner, 2007). Therefore, leadership should not be a set of roles or responsibilities or activities that an individual needs to undertake. Rather, it needs to be the actions and interactions (e.g., debates, discussions, and dialogues) of all individuals involved in the reform efforts (Harris, 2005, 2008). In this regard, distributed leadership is consistent with the core notion of IE reform that aims to include all children in regular schools and involve all the members of the school community in reform activities.

There have been very few studies that have investigated challenges in relation to IE reform in Bangladesh and attempted to identify possible solutions to overcoming its challenges. Studies investigating educational leadership from a distributed leadership perspective in a non-Western context were also limited. Therefore, this study intended to investigate leadership practices for IE reform in Bangladesh from a distributed leadership perspective.

Purpose of the Study

The overall purpose of this study was to investigate leadership practices for IE reform in primary schools in Bangladesh. Specifically, the study was designed to:

- investigate leadership practice structures in primary schools in Bangladesh;
- examine views of school leaders about the accountability approach in primary schools;
- identify school leaders' opinions of challenges to implementing IE reform;
- determine possible strategies to address the identified challenges;
- identify the perception of teachers 'who are in a formal leadership position' and those 'who do not hold a formal position of leadership' about distributed leadership practices for IE in primary school in Bangladesh and possible differences between their perceptions;
- determine the relationship between school variables and the perceptions of teachers with regard to distributed leadership practices for IE reform;

- determine the relationship between teachers' demographic variables and the perceptions of teachers with regard to distributed leadership practices for IE reform;
- determine the relationship between leadership practices as perceived by teachers and teachers' satisfaction about implementation of IE in school; and
- determine the relationship between distributed leadership practices perceived by teachers and teachers' satisfaction about the work environment in the school.

Significance of the Study

This study was an attempt to explore leadership practices undertaken with a distributed perspective that went beyond the activities, behaviour and role of school heads (e.g., head teacher or principal) in primary schools. Leadership involvement of other stakeholders of the school, such as the members of the School Management Committee (SMC), parents and other teachers, were taken into consideration to reveal the ongoing leadership practices in primary schools in Bangladesh. The study, therefore, provided data related to the collaborative practices of diverse people in formal and informal leadership positions in schools. It was expected that the outcomes of this research would extend the knowledge regarding leadership practices in a non-Western context. In addition, the data and findings of the study might serve as an effective step for other non-Western countries in gaining insights to leadership structures and to

addressing the challenges of implementing IE reform similar to that undertaken in Bangladesh.

The current study is likely to make a valuable contribution to understanding the existing situation of the democratic processes employed in leadership practices in primary schools in Bangladesh. It is hoped that the findings will support primary schools in appreciating the prospects of distributed leadership practices to promote IE reform. The findings might also be useful to further develop and support professional development programs for school leaders in formal and informal positions. The Directorate of Primary Education (DPE) may also use the findings of the study to meet the challenges of implementing IE reform by adopting the strategies proposed by the school leaders.

Theoretical Framework of the Study

Distributed leadership practices guided this study. Distributed leadership is considered an analytical frame that directs attention towards leadership practices rather than leadership as roles and responsibilities (Harris & Spillane, 2008). This study focused on two perspectives of distributed leadership – *distributed perspective on leadership* and *democratic perspective of distributed leadership* (discussions of both notions are presented in Chapter 3). There are two dimensions in the distributed perspective on leadership: leader-plus aspects and practice aspects. This study considered both aspects and applied relevant methodological approaches to investigate them, using clear evidence from Bangladeshi regular primary schools.

Leithwood, Day, Sammons, Harris and Hopkins (2006) observed that, "...what is contingent about leadership is not the basic or core practices but the way they are enacted" (p. 44). School leaders' ways of enacting leadership are expected to vary, depending on cultural and institutional contexts (Dimmock & Walker, 2005; Leithwood et al., 2006). Even within the same country, leadership practices can be context-specific because of the differences in institutions or characteristics of individual teachers. Contextual variables can include: students' socio-economic status, minority status, school location and overall academic performance of the school (Turner, 2008). Other contextual variables identified by Day et al. (2007) were school phase (primary or secondary), school type (government or non-government) and school size. Another research study (Kantabutra & Tang, 2006), conducted in Thailand, revealed that "rural schools appear to operate less efficiently than urban ones" (p. 370) and "school size has a positive effect on both urban and rural schools" (p. 371).

Personal characteristics were also considered salient for understanding the leadership practices of leaders (Hallinger & Leithwood, 1998). Certain personal characteristics of school leaders, including gender and length of teaching experience, tend to have significant correlation with leadership practices at the school level (Coleman, 2007; Hallinger, Bickman & Davis, 1996; Hallinger & Leithwood, 1998; Jean-Marie & Martinez, 2007). Efficacy, commitment, identity, resilience, agency, trust and pedagogical content knowledge of school leaders were also related to leadership practices (Day et al., 2007). This study investigated school location, school size, performance of the school and school type as school variables, with gender, age,

teaching experience, qualification of teachers, professional degree and training in IE as teachers' demographic variables.

Overview of the Thesis

The thesis comprises eight chapters. Chapter 1 introduces the area of research for this study and explains its significance. This chapter also presents the theoretical framework for the study, outlining distributed leadership practices and variables that might have a significant correlation with leadership practices. Chapter 2 includes a manuscript titled 'The journey towards inclusive education in Bangladesh: Lessons learned', to present a general overview of IE in primary education in Bangladesh and examine policy and program level initiatives for IE. Chapter 3 reviews the research literature in relation to the concept of IE, identified challenges in IE reform, concepts and models of leadership including distributed leadership and leadership practices. Chapter 4 outlines the research questions and research methodology, including the sampling procedure, data collection, processes of analyses and ethical considerations of the study. Chapter 5 includes the published manuscript that presents the outcomes of the investigation of leadership practice structures in primary schools in Bangladesh. Chapter 6 includes two published manuscripts that report on the investigation of the accountability approaches employed by the Bangladesh primary education system and leadership challenges in implementing IE reform in this context. Chapter 7 presents two published manuscripts that report on the investigation of the perception of teachers regarding distributed leadership practices in relation to IE. This chapter examines the relationship between distributed leadership practices and the implementation of IE

reform. Chapter 8 discusses the theoretical and practical implications that emerged from the overall study under three themes, including: 1) engagement of members of school community in leadership practices; 2) empowerment of leadership at the school level; and 3) collaboration with a wider school community. This chapter suggests directions for future research based on the limitation and findings of this study. An epilogue discusses the implications of this study in light of a subsequent primary education reform initiative in Bangladesh entitled *Third Primary Education Development Programme* (PEDP3).

> … There are no magic bullets for improving educational systems. There is no alternative to patient and system-based work simultaneously on several fronts. The critical concern is that these efforts should result in cumulative progress rather than periodic regression. (Ahmed, 2009, p. 20)

CHAPTER 2

Inclusive Education Reform in Bangladesh

Introduction

This chapter presents a manuscript titled 'The journey towards inclusive education in Bangladesh: Lessons learned' which describes the historical development of inclusive education (IE) reform at both policy and practice levels in Bangladesh. It critically analyses initiatives undertaken in the last two decades. IE is considered important and is frequently mentioned in different policy documents in Bangladesh but some policies still contain discriminatory language. In addition, the program level initiatives remain unsuccessful in ensuring quality education for *all* students irrespective of their gender, ethnic background, ability and socio-economical position.

Manuscript 1: The Journey Towards Inclusive Education in Bangladesh: Lessons Learned

Declaration for Publication

Ahsan, M. T. & Mullick, J. (2013). The journey towards inclusive education in Bangladesh: Lessons learned. *Prospects*, *43* (2), 151–164 doi: 10.1007/s11125-013-9270-1

The nature and extent of contributions to the work involved the following:

Name	Extent of contribution (%)	Nature of contribution
M. Tariq Ahsan	50%	Initiation of publication, instigator of ideas, conducted literature review, prepared the draft manuscript jointly, submitted for publication; *First author*
Jarirul Mullick	50%	Initiation of publication, instigator of ideas, conducted literature review, prepared the draft manuscript jointly; *Co-author*

Declaration by first author

The undersigned hereby certify that:

(1) the above declaration correctly reflects the nature and extent of the candidate's contribution to this work, and the nature of the contribution of each of the co-authors;

(2) they meet the criteria for authorship in that they have participated in the conception, execution, or interpretation, of at least that part of the publication in their field of expertise;

(3) they take public responsibility for their part of the publication, except for the responsible author who accepts overall responsibility for the publication;

(4) there are no other authors of the publication according to these criteria;

(5) potential conflicts of interest have been disclosed to (a) granting bodies, (b) the editor or publisher of journals or other publications, and (c) the head of the responsible academic unit; and

(6) the original data are stored at the following location(s) and will be held for at least five years from the date indicated below:

Location(s)	There is no personal data that requires storage for this paper.
Signature 1	[redacted] **Date: 17 July 2013**

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OPEN ACCESS

The journey towards inclusive education in Bangladesh: Lessons learned

M. Tariq Ahsan · Jahirul Mullick

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Abstract Several international declarations, signed over the last few decades, are helping to promote Education for All, by eliminating inequalities in both society and education systems. This article, a descriptive review of policy documents and reform initiatives, reports on ways the Government of Bangladesh has responded to these international declarations. The review focuses on issues that promote the inclusion of diverse learners in mainstream primary and secondary schools. The most recent policy in Bangladesh, the National Education Policy 2010, also attempted to address inclusive education. Two major reform initiatives endorsed inclusion: the Second Primary Education Development Program and the Teaching Quality Improvement project. To some extent, these projects brought the philosophy and implementation strategies of inclusion into the country's existing education system. Other initiatives are promoting collaborations between state and private agencies. Lessons from these policies and initiatives should help other developing countries achieve the goals of Education for All through inclusive education.

Keywords Inclusive education · Education for All (EFA) · Diverse children · Public sector interventions · National policies · Bangladesh

The concept of inclusive education (IE) has been reflected in various declarations and policy documents on international human rights. The journey towards IE began in 1948, when the UN declared the right to education for all in Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UN 2007). In the last two decades, the international community witnessed the release of several key guiding policies related to IE, including the Convention on the Rights of the Child (UN 1989), the World Declaration on Education for All (UNESCO 1990), the Salamanca Statement and Framework of Action (UNESCO 1994), the Dakar Framework for Action (UNESCO 2000), and the UN Convention on the Rights

M. T. Ahsan (✉) · J. Mullick
Monash University, Clayton, VIC 3800, Australia
e-mail: [redacted]

J. Mullick
e-mail: [redacted]

of Persons with Disabilities (UN Enable 2008). The core significance of all these policies is that they are addressing and responding to the diverse needs of *all* children, including those with special needs, and treating them equally in society and school. The focus of IE is to reform the education system to fit the learners, rather than expecting the learners to fit the system; it rejects the notion that those learners who cannot fit in will be excluded from the system. Thus, the social model of inclusion encourages IE by recognising diversity and performing in ways that support diverse learners in the regular system.

The special education approach was established based on the philosophy behind the medical model, but a significant change in the early 1980s supported the integration of children with special needs into mainstream schools, particularly in countries of the north (Opertti and Belalcazar 2008; Polat 2011). Although integration attempted to address the segregation problem for these children, it did not ensure their full participation in school activities. Similarly, the full participation of students from different backgrounds is still ignored in the "mainstreaming" approach, because it does not place such children in regular classrooms full time (Dyson 2001). In addition, in the mainstreaming approach, support teachers often withdraw students with different abilities from their regular settings to offer them special support (Forlin 2006). In contrast, IE advocates the full participation of *all* learners. As Polat (2011) argues,

> 'Integration' refers to the partial or full physical placement of disabled learners in mainstream schools while 'inclusion' is much more than physical presence. Inclusion involves the process of changing values, attitudes, policies and practices within the school setting and beyond. (p. 51)

The social justice issue leads IE practitioners to think of reforming the whole school and in fact to go beyond that. Social justice cannot be achieved if students are excluded from schools because of their gender, class, race, or ability (Ryan 2006). The concept of social justice provides strong theoretical support to IE. In the last few decades, those promoting social justice have raised another question: Should we consider children with different abilities, including disabilities, from the "medical" or the "social" model of disability? Most arguments in this debate have criticized the medical model, as it tends to consider differing abilities as examples of deviance that must be treated and handled separately from the mainstream (Loreman, Deppeler, and Harvey 2005). The medical model has helped to justify such discrimination from the perspective of educational rights and human rights; in its efforts to support children, it points out their deficits first, rather than improving teaching-learning approaches to address the needs of all children (Ainscow 1997).

Ainscow and Miles (2008) elaborated on the social model by proposing three points known as a "principled approach to education". They describe these points:

> [...] the process of increasing the participation of students in, and reducing their exclusion from, the curricula, cultures, and communities of local schools; restructuring the cultures, policies and practices in schools so that they respond to the diversity of students in their locality; and the presence, participation and achievement of all students vulnerable to exclusionary pressures, not only those with impairments or those who are categorized as having special educational needs. (p. 20)

It is apparent from the "principled approached to education" that the inclusion philosophy promotes equity and fairness in schools and broadly in society; those values are also the fundamental doctrines of social justice. Most commentators on social justice acknowledge that their focus is the full and equal participation of everyone in a society, which leads to

fairness and welfare for *all* (Bell 2007; Miller 1999; Nussbaum 2006; Rawls 1971; Sen 2005). If all children are considered, then no one can be left behind because of race, beliefs, class, gender, ability, or other factors. Education can provide the agency that people need to fully exercise their citizenship in moving towards social justice; therefore everyone must be included in school.

It is apparent from this description of the social model and the principled approach to education that IE is much more than a matter of bringing all children into regular education; rather, it is a "process aimed to offering quality education for all while respecting diversity and the different needs and abilities, characteristics and learning expectations of the students and communities, eliminating all forms of discrimination" (UNESCO 2009, p. 18). The recent guideline prepared by UNESCO (2009) based on the 2008 International Conference on Education (ICE) recommended that all member states acknowledge IE as their reform strategy through developing national and inter-sectoral policy frameworks to address social inequality. Further, the ICE 2008 report suggested that all member states develop policies and strategies that would ensure a high quality of education for learners from diverse backgrounds and various mother tongues in the regular schools. Hence, it is important for every signatory country that their policies support IE in the regular schools and that those policies do not contradict the values of IE.

Bangladesh is a signatory on all the international declarations and policies that address IE; it started its journey towards IE reforms by enacting the Compulsory Primary Education Act 1990 in the early 1990s. Since then, Bangladesh has been trying hard to achieve both quantitative and qualitative development in education. During the last decade, it has made significant progress in closing the gender gap in enrolment at both the primary and secondary levels (ADB 2010). It has also made progress in the primary enrolment rate, crossing the 90% mark in 2006 (DPE 2008). Despite recent improvements, challenges remain in implementing IE in the education system. In this article we report on findings from a descriptive review of legal and normative policy frameworks, and current initiatives for implementing IE in Bangladesh. Our review acknowledges achievements and identifies challenges that might guide the design of future interventions to facilitate IE in Bangladesh.

Review design

This descriptive review includes a wide range of national documents, including research reports, government policies and acts, progress reports on various national programmes, reports from electronic sources, pamphlets, and newsletters from institutions. We followed a systematic process to identify the documents for review. We started by reviewing the websites of the two ministries in Bangladesh that oversee education: the Ministry of Education (MoE) and the Ministry of Primary and Mass Education (MoPME). MoE is dedicated to secondary and third-level education and MoPME to early childhood, primary, and mass education. To identify relevant links, we used a variety of key words, including policy, act, Education for All, inclusive education, integrated education, special education, equity, and vulnerable children. We also used the two key words "policy" and "act" to identify documents from two other websites: those of the Ministry of Women's and Children's Affairs (MoWCA) and the Ministry of Social Welfare (MSW). We included these two websites in the review process because their policies and laws are connected to IE practices in Bangladesh. We browsed all 152 of the links in these four sites to gain

information and electronic copies of published documents. When no electronic source was available for downloading, we obtained a paper copy to review.

Moreover, our review process included the websites of the Directorate of Secondary and Higher Education (DSHE) and the Directorate of Primary Education (DPE) because our major focus is primary and secondary education in Bangladesh. On these sites, we browsed the sections that included publications, projects, and programmes to promote IE, along with office orders and circulars related to IE. Of the 16 documents at the DPE website, we reviewed 9 that were related to IE; of the 15 documents on the DSHE website, we reviewed 8. Below, we review several of these projects and programmes. As we reviewed all these documents, we used the lens of the social model that promotes a principled approach to education (Ainscow and Miles 2008). That is, we defined IE as not only the presence or participation of those who are usually excluded; we also included the achievement of all children in mainstream education settings.

Policy reforms for inclusive education

Over the last few years, Bangladesh has developed several national policy initiatives that can promote IE. The government has recognized IE as an approach to achieving the goals of Education for All (EFA). In the course of its inclusive reforms, it developed some remarkable policy initiatives to promote IE in Bangladesh. After signing the EFA in 1990, Bangladesh enacted the Compulsory Primary Education Act 1990 (MoPME 1990), which has been formally implemented since 1992. Though this act made primary education compulsory and free for all children, it did not mention the necessity of IE. Moreover, its Section 27.3.3 (e) promoted the medical model by supporting discrimination against children with disabilities with this wording: "the decision of a primary education officer that it is not desirable to enter a child in a primary education institute on account of its being mentally retarded" (MoPME 1990, p. 1). In 2001, to support the rights of persons with special needs, the country enacted the Bangladesh Persons with Disabilities Welfare Act 2001. This act gave children with special needs the legal right to be mainstreamed in different spheres of life including education (MSW 2001). The welfare act also said that children should be provided with an accessible environment and that teacher preparation was important to ensure that children with special needs would be included in education. This act was the first legal framework ensuring the educational rights of people with special needs. However, it suggested segregated educational settings along with including children with disabilities in mainstream education.

Since then, Bangladesh developed the Draft National Child Policy 2010 (MoWCA 2010); it declares that any person under age 18 should be considered a child, and emphasizes not discriminating against children in different sectors including education. It places a special emphasis on girls, to ensure gender equity. The education section places an emphasis on children who are having difficulty gaining an education due to poverty, ethnic backgrounds, or other factors (p. 7). It also places a special emphasis on the rights of children with special needs and children with autism. Section 6.7.2 articulates the values of inclusion as follows: "Initiatives will be taken to ensure inclusion of children with disabilities in the mainstream society including participation in education" (p. 9). However, the same section proposes a segregated model of education for some children with special needs, but gives no clear indication about how a group of children with disabilities would be provided special education (p. 9). Similarly, it suggests segregated education for children with autism.

After it became independent in 1971, Bangladesh formed a series of education commissions that prepared reports in 1974, 1988, 1997, 2003, and 2009. The National

Education Commission report of 1997 (MoE 1997) was the first to recognize IE as a strategy to include disadvantaged children in the education system to ensure education for all. The National Education Policy of 2010 (MoE 2010) also saw IE as important, but it took a confusing stand somewhere between mainstreaming and inclusion. In its goals and objectives section, it mentions the necessity of including in the mainstream education system various groups of children: girls, children with special needs, children from ethnic communities, and children who are disadvantaged by socio-economic factors. Four of its goals and objectives address the values of IE:

> #07: Eliminate discrimination, on the grounds of nationality, religion, class and gender; build up an environment that promotes secularism, global brotherhood, and empathy towards humanity and respect towards human rights
> #22: Bring all socio-economically disadvantaged children into education including street children
> #23: Ensure the development of the cultural and linguistic characteristics of all indigenous and ethnic groups in Bangladesh
> #24: Ensure the rights of all children with disabilities. (MoE 2010, pp. 1–2)

The pre-primary and primary education section of the 2010 policy emphasized several reform ideas that promote the values of IE. These ideas include ensuring that all children can learn their native language, providing physical and assistive facilities, providing food and stipends to children from poor families, introducing flexibility into school schedules in remote areas, and establishing separate toilet facilities for girls.

The policy also placed a priority on introducing pre-primary and primary teachers to the ideas of IE, by preparing "at least one trainer specialized in one area of disability for every Primary Teachers' Training Institute" (MoE 2010, p. 7). However, the document also expressed several concerns about the deficit model that is the basis for teacher preparation programmes, using several terms: "[...] very traditional, incomplete, certificate-oriented, theory-based, providing less practical opportunities, rote-learning based [...]" (p. 56). In addition, it did not address IE adequately at the secondary, tertiary and non-formal education levels.

One noteworthy milestone of policy change is the National Plan of Action Phase II (NPA II), which the Ministry of Primary and Mass Education (MoPME 2003) developed to ensure basic primary education by 2015; it is to be implemented between 2003 and 2015. The document describes Vision 5.2.iii of the NPA II as follows:

> All primary school-age children (6–10 years), boys and girls, including all ethnic groups, disadvantaged and disabled, are enrolled and successfully completing the primary cycle and achieving quality education. (p. 28)

This action plan aimed to implement IE in primary schools by 2015. As a result of the NPA II, the Directorate of Primary Education (DPE) sent an office order or circular (DPE 2007) to all the primary schools in Bangladesh, instructing them to include all children in their regular programmes and to provide required support. Moreover, the country undertook large-scale projects to ensure it was providing education for all, including the Second Primary Education Development Program (PEDP II), which we discuss below.

Reform interventions in the primary education sector

Primary education in Bangladesh is free and compulsory for all children aged 6 to 10; it lasts for 5 years (grades 1 to 5). The Second Primary Education Development Program

(PEDP II) is the major initiative that supports IE through mainstreaming marginalized children, including those who are working, or living in poverty, those who have special needs, and those from ethnic communities. PEDP II was launched in 2004 (DPE 2007) and ended in mid-2010, with a one-year extension (Sabur and Ahmed 2010). Two other projects, the Primary Education Stipend (PES) project and Reaching Out-of-School Children (ROSC), also support the goal of Education for All. In the following sections we briefly describe the design, tasks, and progress of the PEDP II, PES, and ROSC projects.

Second Primary Education Development Programme (PEDP II)

PEDP II was implemented by the DPE, for the mainstream primary education sector with coordinating support from development partners (DPE 2006a). Its overall goal was to provide quality education and make primary education accessible for all children of primary school age (DPE 2007). The fourth component of PEDP II focused on ensuring and facilitating access to quality schooling for all children, especially those who are marginalized (DPE 2009a). The IE framework of PEDP II highlights four areas: gender, children with special needs, ethnic children, and vulnerable groups (e.g., children living in urban slums, street children, refugee children, children from very poor families). Action plans were also developed based on these four themes. The plans were developed to be implemented at three levels: central (ministry and directorate level), district (the middle administrative level), and school. To achieve the goals of the PEDP II, two significant interventions were introduced: the PEDP II innovation grant and a decentralization plan.

PEDP II innovation grant

The goal of the PEDP II innovation grant is to "enhance the role of the school community in meeting the needs of children with social, economic, intellectual or physical impairments, or disadvantages that reduce their ability to attend and complete primary schooling" (DPE 2006b, p. 1). It was expected to promote practical and creative ways to enhance the quality of education for marginalized children. The grants were available from the PEDP II fund, with a particular focus on carrying out the project at the school level in collaboration with communities, the government, and civil society (DPE 2006b). So far, seven projects have been completed with support from innovation grants (DPE 2007).

SLIP and UPEP for decentralization

Two important activities promoting decentralization under PEDP II are the School-Level Improvement Plan (SLIP) and the Upazila Primary Education Plan (UPEP); *upazila* means sub-district in Bangla. Since 2006, UNICEF has provided technical support to the DPE to develop both plans. Implementation of both plans started in 2007 on a pilot basis across 26 sub-districts (DPE 2007). SLIP aimed to encourage community involvement in school activities and to empower members of the community to make policy decisions at the school level. It was expected that through SLIP, parents, teachers, members of school management committees (SMCs) and local communities would work together to improve the quality of learning for all children (DPE 2009a). SLIP worked as a voice from the roots to prevent the exclusion of students disadvantaged by gender, special needs, ethnicity, and socio-economic background. SLIP's activities focused on strengthening head teachers and teachers, increasing their professional motivation, and empowering school communities to

enhance their sense of ownership of the school. UPEP was implemented by involving local government leaders and government officials. UNICEF (2009) reported that the decentralized management of the school calendar has improved school administration in rural areas. Through these school planning exercises, communities and SMCs have become more involved in school management and supervision.

Primary Education Stipend (PES) project

The Primary Education Stipend project was officially launched by the government in mid-2002. Its goal was to support more than 5 million disadvantaged primary school students living in rural Bangladesh, by providing them with cash assistance. It had five objectives: (a) increase the enrolment rate of all school-aged children from poor families; (b) increase their attendance rate; (c) reduce their dropout rate; (d) establish equity in financial assistance to all children of primary school age; and (e) enhance the quality of primary education (MoPME 2010). The action plans emphasized providing 100% stipend support to four targeted groups that tended to be excluded from primary education. The second phase of the project, currently in operation, will be completed in 2013 (MoPME 2010). To be eligible for the stipend, students must achieve marks of 40% on the end-of-year examination and attend 85% of classes each month.

Reaching Out-of-School Children (ROSC)

The major goal of ROSC was to reduce the number of out-of-school children through improved access to quality education. The project was designed to complement the PEDP II by identifying children who are not yet in school (UCIL 2011). It aimed to take the initiative in areas that are relatively substandard, considering the net enrolment rate, primary cycle completion rate, level of poverty, and gender parity. The project was implemented in 60 sub-districts in 34 districts of Bangladesh. It operated for six years (2004–2010) and DPE was responsible for it (MoPME 2010). A ROSC school locally known as the Ananda School (School of Joy) enrolled only those children who had never been enrolled in any school or had dropped out of school more than a year earlier (DPE 2009b). The ROSC project had several key achievements:

- It mobilized stakeholders, raised awareness about primary education, and motivated out-of-school children to enter school.
- It provided education allowances to the enrolled children to support them in continuing and completing their schooling. It also provided grants to the schools to improve the overall quality of education.
- It established a sound structure to manage and implement the project and develop the capacity of service providers by forming a network coordinating body (PAL 2011).

The project has been extended and will be terminated in mid-2013 (MoPME 2010).

Reform interventions in the secondary education sector

At the secondary level, IE is still being implemented on a small scale. The secondary education sector in Bangladesh consists of two levels: secondary (grades 6 to 10) and higher secondary (grades 11 and 12). The government is running projects like the Female

Secondary School Stipend Project (FSP) and Teaching Quality Improvement in Secondary Education Project (TQI-SEP) that promote IE at the secondary level.

Female Secondary School Stipend Project (FSP)

The MOE began running the FSP in 1982 (Raynor and Wesson 2006). Initially implemented in six areas of Bangladesh, it has been expanded nationwide since 1994. It has been funded by the World Bank, the Asian Development Bank, and the governments of Norway and Bangladesh (Directorate of Secondary and Higher Education [DSHE] 2011; Schurmann 2009). This programme provided tuition for female students and monthly stipends for unmarried rural girls up to grade 10. To be eligible for this stipend, the students had to be unmarried, and had to achieve at least 75% attendance and marks of 45% on examinations. This project has dramatically increased the participation of female students: in 2006, girls represented 52% of the total of students. Moreover, instances of early marriage have decreased, women are more empowered, and they have more employment opportunities (DSHE 2011; Raynor and Wesson 2006; Schurmann 2009). The programme undoubtedly contributed to the success of IE by eliminating the gender disparity in Bangladesh. Recently, the government extended the stipend project to grade 12 (DSHE 2011) and approved a project to fund female students at the undergraduate level as well (DSHE 2010). The FSP has clearly been a successful innovation, encouraging girls in Bangladesh to participate in education.

Teaching Quality Improvement in Secondary Education Project (TQI-SEP)

The TQI-SEP (2010) project, which ran from April 2005 until September 2011, was committed to enhancing the quality of secondary level education through four components. These were improving teacher quality through organizational development and capacity building, improving teacher training facilities, strengthening in-service and pre-service teacher training, and increasing equitable access and improving community involvement. IE is one focus of this project. TQI-SEP (2009) defined the target group of IE in secondary education of Bangladesh as girls not enrolled in secondary education, children from ethnic communities, children working either with their families or outside the home, and children with special needs. Table 1 presents the initiatives taken to implement IE through TQI-SEP.

Discussion and conclusions

We have reported on policy initiatives and public sector interventions that addressed the values of IE at the primary and secondary levels in Bangladesh. Now we offer a critical analysis of the policy and practices to consider whether the initiatives actually facilitate IE. We then discuss public sector interventions in primary and secondary education, and conclude with some specific recommendations to further improve the policy and practices.

In response to the EFA declaration (UNESCO 1990), many countries around the world made major shifts in their education policies to ensure the right to education for all of their citizens. Brazil, for example, enacted the Law of Directives and Bases of Education (LDB) in 1996 (Santos and Silva 2009), South Africa passed the Bill of Rights 1994 (Naylor 2009), and Malaysia approved the Education Act 1996 (Gomez 2004). Similarly, the Compulsory Primary Education Act 1990 is considered to be the first legal foundation supporting IE

Table 1 TQI-SEP initiatives promoting IE at the secondary level

Area of initiatives	Features related to IE
Pre-service teacher training curriculum	The B. Ed curriculum was revised in 2006; IE concepts were embedded in various sections.
Standards for teacher training institutions	One component of these standards was promoting inclusion.
Standards for schools	The project set a standard for a quality school that included ensuring access for children with disabilities and creating a female-friendly environment.
Involvement of SMCs and head teachers	Orientation training on IE was introduced for SMC members and head teachers. The training manual clearly defined the concept of IE, along with an inclusive learning-friendly environment, and the roles of teachers and SMC members in promoting IE in secondary schools.
Classroom teachers	Continuous professional development (CPD) was suggested to develop classroom teachers.
	A manual on IE was developed for the CPD; it introduced curriculum flexibility techniques and emphasized meeting individual learning needs.
	A resource book on IE was also prepared for classroom teachers.
	Parent and community involvement was encouraged.
Teacher educators	Teacher educators involved in pre-service and in-service teacher education would receive training on IE from IER, Dhaka University and also earn postgraduate degrees from abroad.
Innovation and Development Fund (IDF)	IDF provides up to three years of funding to any local and state-private collaborations that facilitate teacher training and improve school-level quality.
	It supports innovations relevant to girls, children from disadvantaged backgrounds, and children with disabilities.
	It also supports initiatives that promote learning/educational materials and materials that assist with special needs.

Source: TQI-SEP (2006, 2008, 2009, 2010)

movements in Bangladesh. Still, our analysis of this act found that it discriminates against children with intellectual disabilities by not ensuring their access to regular primary education. This medical model perspective is a barrier to achieving the goals of IE. Other studies echo this observation about policy reforms in Bangladesh (Ahsan 2006; Ahsan and Burnip 2007; Grönlund, Lim, and Larsson 2010; Munir and Zaman 2009).

The Bangladesh Persons with Disabilities Welfare Act 2001 mentioned the right to education of children with disabilities. But it also supported mainstreaming rather than inclusion and some of its sections even promoted segregated education systems. The National Education Policy 2010 also paid little attention to facilitating the values of IE, although it recognized IE as an approach to achieve education for all citizens. IE is not fully considered as the "principled approach to education" in the recent education policy. It also became evident during our review that Bangladesh has no national strategy for IE. We also found that the education policy did propose to make teacher education programmes inclusive and expressed some concern about the status of the country's current teacher education system. This is an indication that policy reforms and practices must be brought into harmony, as specified in the ICE 2008 recommendations, so that they all promote IE in regular schools in similar ways and do not contradict each other.

Another weakness of the recent education policy is that it did not provide equal emphasis on IE for all sectors of education. This policy placed major emphasis on the

primary education sector, but neglected the secondary, higher, and non-formal education sectors. In addition, the policy included integrated education and special education as alternative approaches for educating children with special needs. It also allocated major responsibility to Bangladesh's special education sector to prepare children with special needs, to give them the initial readiness they need to fit into mainstream education. Still, we see no comprehensive approach to IE in addressing issues related to disadvantaged children. For example, this policy recognized that the languages of ethnic communities should be the medium of classroom instruction, but did not mention the use of Bangla sign language for children with hearing impairment. Nor did it consider alternative communication methods for children with autism and those who are intellectually challenged. Therefore, it is apparent from our analysis of the recent education policy that policymakers were hesitant to promote IE and could not fully move out of the shadows of the segregation and medical model.

The Draft National Child Policy 2010 placed special emphasis on disadvantaged children and children with disabilities and autism, to ensure they are included in efforts at education and development. However, the same section of the policy included discriminatory views based on the medical model. For instance, it stated that special education would be provided for children with disabilities who were not able to participate in the regular education for some "unavoidable reasons" (MoWCA 2010, p. 9). It is disturbing to see the discriminatory phrasing used in the primary education act of 1990 still being used in the child policy of 2010—a full two decades later. In summary, our analysis reflects that all the policies and acts remain silent or are inequitable about issues related to creating equal access for children with special needs, and moving them into mainstream education. Based on our analysis, it can be argued that all the policies partially addressed some of the issues of IE but failed to focus clearly on the goals recommended in the 2008 ICE report (UNESCO 2009). As these policies failed to address the needs of all learners and suggested segregated education for some children, the question remains: Are Bangladesh's policies promoting inclusion to ensure social justice, or are they upholding segregation?

In the primary education sector, Bangladesh can point to several achievements: a better net enrolment rate, and gender parity in both enrolment and completion of primary education. Developing action plans to achieve EFA through IE by targeting four marginalized groups has also been an effective strategy, one that reflected the values of IE (UNESCO 1994). Similarly, SLIP, an effective approach to empower local communities and involve them in school activities, can facilitate the implementation of IE, particularly in rural areas. The World Bank (2007) and UNESCO (2008) reported that in many countries, involving the local community in school activities and empowering them through school-based management enhanced equity and improved the efficiency of resource use. Recognizing the educational rights of all children and focusing on out-of-school children in policy and public interventions were good starting points for Bangladesh's move towards IE. The innovation grant project was also a notable milestone in promoting IE through public-private partnerships.

Despite substantial progress in public interventions, progress is slow on improving the quality of education for all children, especially the marginalized (ADB 2008). High rates of repetition (average 12%), dropout (13%), and student absenteeism (19%) are challenges that indicate the need to sharpen the focus of future interventions. The Primary Education Stipend project was designed to increase enrolment rates and reduce repetition, dropout, and absenteeism. Although the project has succeeded in increasing the enrolment rate, recent studies (Chowdhury, Chowdhury, Hoque, Ahmad, and Sultana 2009; DPE 2009a; Nath and Chowdhury 2009) make it clear that the stipend project needs further review.

Similarly, the ROSC project must be extended to high-dropout rural areas where most people are poor and landless.

At the secondary level, TQI-SEP is largely responsible for the implementation of IE. Though the National Education Policy 2010 placed limited emphasis on implementing IE at the secondary level, the government took some initiative to support IE there. These initiatives included reforming pre-service and in-service teacher education curricula, defining the standards for an inclusive learning-friendly environment, preparing human resource development materials, improving classroom practice, and involving stakeholders. TQI-SEP is still implementing IE on a pilot basis in three districts of Bangladesh. However, Dean (2007) identified some limitations of these initiatives: teacher trainers believed that IE was synonymous with special education and that a certain group of children with physical disabilities should be taught in special schools. They also believed that IE was more appropriate for primary education than secondary level. It is a concern that the teacher educators who are responsible for preparing prospective teachers in Bangladesh misinterpreted the concept of IE. Such misinterpretation among teacher educators in Bangladesh regarding the concept of IE has also been reported in several other recent studies (Ahsan, Sharma, and Deppeler 2011, 2012). Similar findings were identified by a study in Cyprus (Angelides, Stylianou, and Gibbs 2006): although higher education institutions claimed they were preparing teachers from a broadly conceived IE approach, pre-service teachers saw this as confined to special education (i.e. deviant, abnormal, special needs) in their lesson plans. It is clear from the findings of these two studies that anyone revising policy to promote IE must ensure that the various stakeholders interpret the reformed policies clearly and correctly.

Gender discrimination has long been an issue in South Asian countries. Studies conducted in Nepal (Acharya 2007), Sri Lanka (Jayaweera and Gunawardena 2007), and Bangladesh (Nasreen and Tate 2007) on social inclusion, gender, and equity found that females are discriminated against in every sphere of life, starting at birth. This affects their nutrition intake, and their access to health care and education, as well as their employment prospects. In this regard, the FSP, which increased the numbers of girls participating in education, can be considered a model to improve their psycho-social lives and their potential livelihoods (DSHE 2011; Raynor and Wesson 2006; Schurmann 2009). Still, some researchers have questioned the success of this project because it did not include the ultra poor citizens and because the programme became politicized during its implementation (Asadullah and Chaudhury 2006; Das, Do, and Özler 2004). Despite those criticisms, this project largely helped Bangladesh to achieve gender parity, and other South Asian countries could benefit from its experience with FSP.

In conclusion, our analysis indicates that the necessity of IE is felt and frequently mentioned in various acts and policies in Bangladesh, though some parts of the policies contain some discriminatory phrases. More inclusive language should be embraced in the policy documents to guide IE initiatives more effectively. Moreover, it is clear from our review that these documents do not reflect the principled approach to education based on the social model. Instead, those policies promote the segregation and mainstreaming based on the medical model. Therefore, the Compulsory Primary Education Act 1990 and the Bangladesh Persons with Disabilities Welfare Act 2001 require substantial revision if they are to meet the requirements of IE reforms suggested in the ICE 2008 (UNESCO 2009). The National Education Policy 2010 also requires amendment so that IE can be implemented thoroughly throughout the primary, secondary, and higher education sectors. A national plan of action for IE is required to cover all sectors of education. Models like the PES project and the FSP need to be continued with appropriate implementation strategies

to ensure they have their intended impact: increasing the enrolment of children who have been excluded, particularly girls. Further studies on the impact and interpretations of those policy documents and initiatives in different areas of the education system (e.g., teacher preparation programmes, school leadership, and curriculum reforms) could provide clearer understanding of the current IE situation in Bangladesh. A comparative study involving several developing countries could be beneficial, allowing them to learn from each other's experiences.

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Author Biographies

M. Tariq Ahsan (Bangladesh) is a doctoral student at the Faculty of Education of Monash University in Australia, in the Australian government's Leadership Awards (ALA) programme. His area of research is pre-service teachers' preparedness for inclusive education in Bangladesh. He also holds a Master's in Special Education from the Flinders University of South Australia, and a B.Ed. with Honours and M.Ed. from the Institute of Education and Research (IER), University of Dhaka. In 2002, he became a full-time member of the faculty (currently associate professor) at IER, University of Dhaka, where he has been teaching courses at the B.Ed. and M.Ed. levels and leading research and training programmes related to IE. His areas of specialization are inclusive education, educational reforms, teacher education (in relation to teachers' attitudes, efficacy, and concerns) for inclusive education, curriculum reform, hearing impairment, and sign language. Tariq is the founding editor of the Asian Journal of Inclusive Education (AJIE).

Jahirul Mullick (Bangladesh) is a doctoral student at the Faculty of Education (Clayton), Monash University. His area of research is leadership practice for inclusive education at the primary level in Bangladesh. He earned his B.Ed. in science education and M.Ed. in educational evaluation and research from the Institute of Education and Research (IER), at the University of Dhaka, and has worked at the Institute of Educational Development (IED) at BRAC University, Bangladesh, where he was involved with development programmes for teachers and school leaders. His research interests are in leadership practice, inclusive education, change and reform in education, education planning and management, assessment, classroom communication, and teacher education.

Chapter Summary

The findings presented in *Manuscript 1* indicated that policies developed in the 1990s were discriminatory and, thus, limited the progress of IE in schools. Subsequently, policies developed following the 'Dakar Framework for Action' (United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization [UNESCO], 2000) including *National Plan of Action II* (NPA II) and *National Education Policy 2010,* have attempted to remove discriminatory language. The findings further indicated that the implementation of IE reform encountered challenges because creating supportive learning environments and opportunities for *all* students requires making changes in the schools. To guide the change and implement IE reform successfully, teachers need to develop their skills so they acquire the necessary techniques to support the establishment of an IE environment. However, this alone is not enough. Leadership at the school level also needs to be proactive to encourage the members of the school community to build their capacity and develop their understanding about IE. The next chapter presents theoretical and empirical evidence from past studies which underpin the proposition that leadership practices have a positive relationship with IE reform.

Systems thinking also need the disciplines of building shared vision, mental models, team learning, and personal mastery to realize its potential. Building shared vision fosters a commitment to the long term. Mental models focus on the openness needed to unearth shortcomings in our present ways of seeing the world. Team learning develops the skills of groups of people to look for the larger picture beyond individual perspectives. (Senge, 2006, p. 12)

CHAPTER 3

Inclusive Education and Leadership Practices

Introduction

There are five sections to this chapter which begins with a discussion of the concept of social justice, along with issues related to inclusive education (IE). Next, the challenges in IE reform, as identified by various studies in economically developing countries, are described. This is followed by a discussion of the nature, evolution and conceptualisation of leadership in relation to different leadership paradigms including trait, behavioural, contingency, transformational-charismatic and organic. This section outlines various leadership theories and styles with special reference to distributed leadership. The chapter then presents how distributed leadership is conceptualised in this study by discussing both distributed perspective on leadership and democratic perspective on distributed leadership. Finally, the effects of culture and the accountability approach to leadership practices are discussed.

Social Justice and the Concept of IE

Social justice was perceived as the distribution of goods, rights, and responsibilities equally among individuals (Rawls, 1971). This approach to social justice had limitations for its individualistic importance to distribution (Ryan, 2006b; Sen, 2000). Ryan (2006b) argued that, "the root of unequal distribution lies not with the distribution itself or exclusively with the individuals who are part of this process, but with the formal and informal rules or norms that govern how members of society treat one another" (p. 5). Similarly, Sen (2000) considered the 'Rawlsian' theory of primary goods as a means rather

than the end and he suggested focusing on 'freedom' as the end. Sen (2000) argued that, with the same basket of primary goods, a person with special needs or an aged person would enjoy less freedom than an "able-bodied person" (p. 72). The point here is that equal distribution of primary goods is one of the means to social justice but process and system transformation is necessary to get freedom, which is a significant aspect of social justice. The three principles of social justice of need, desert and equality suggested by Miller (1999) are significant for system transformation. 'Need' refers to the obligation of each member of a community to satisfy the requirements of others according to his or her ability; 'desert' denotes just distribution, which means every member of the community gets a reward corresponding to his or her contribution; and 'equality' means the just distribution in a relationship of citizenship (Pendlebury & Enslin, 2004).

Despite these differences in theorising social justice, researchers concede that social justice is both a process and a goal (Bell, 2007; Ryan, 2006b). The goal of the social justice process is to establish a just society and, in a just society, any individual or group cannot be discriminated against on the basis of their race, belief, class, gender, disability, ethnicity or socio-economic background. Bell (2007) further explained that "social justice includes a vision of society in which the distribution of resources is equitable and all members are physically and psychologically safe and secure" (p. 1).

IE is consistent with the principles of social justice. It is expected that *all* children, irrespective of their circumstances (e.g., race, belief, class, gender, disability, ethnicity and socio-economic status) should have the same opportunities for high quality education in regular schools located in their respective neighbourhoods. Corresponding to the principles

of social justice, IE also sets the "...agenda to include those groups who have been socially marginalised" (Ainscow & Sandil, 2010, p. 402).

It has become apparent that the goal of IE is not confined to special education needs (Keeffe & Carrington, 2007) and inclusive practice in school is not simply providing educational opportunities to children with special needs. Ainscow (2005) points out four elements which are key to characterising IE. The elements include: a) considering IE as a process; b) identifying and elimination of barriers; c) ensuring presence, participation and performance of all students; and d) putting emphasis on students who are at risk of dropping out. These elements were reflected in the working definition of IE in Bangladesh:

> Inclusive education is an approach to improve the education system by limiting and removing barriers to learning, and acknowledging individual children's needs and potential. The goal of this approach is to make significant impact on the educational opportunities of those: 1) who attend school but who, for different reasons, do not achieve adequately; and those 2) who are not attending school, but who could attend if families, communities, schools and education systems were more responsive to their requirements. (Ahuja & Ibrahim, 2006, p. 106)

IE values all learners as separate individuals, despite their differences, and recognises the right to education of *all* students in regular classrooms. The principles of social justice support IE with an intention to create a just society. Over the past few decades, countries around the world have addressed social justice principles through IE reform and undertaken a number of measures to manage the challenges.

Challenges of IE Reform

Almost two decades have passed since the *Salamanca Statement and Framework of Action* (United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization [UNSCO], 1994) was accepted by the world community. The core argument of the 'Salamanca statement' was to maintain the inclusive environment in schools which would allow *all* children, irrespective of disability, gender, ethnicity or other disadvantages, to receive quality education. The 'Salamanca statement' was a most significant international policy document that provided the impetus for IE reform in many countries. Subsequently, the *Dakar Framework for Action* (UNESCO, 2000) described IE as one of the significant strategies to address marginalisation and exclusion. IE is the UNESCO's "guiding principle for the development work with Governments towards Education for All" (United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization [UNESCO], 2003, p. 29). However, education systems around the world have identified some obstacles to achieving the goals of IE.

It is also clear from international research studies that there are a number of challenges for schools in enacting IE reform (Deng & Guo, 2007, Garcı´a-Huidobro & Corvala´n, 2009; Sunardi, Yusuf, Gunarhadi, Priyono, & Yeager, 2011; Vorapanya & Dunlap, 2012). The following section focuses on three of these challenges - limited resources, non-supportive attitude of members of the school community and top-down policy-making - which influence the progress of IE reform.

Limited resources.

Resource limitation is one of the key challenges to implementing IE reform in Medium Human Development and Low Human Development countries[1]. Literature indicates that countries like South Africa (Stofile, 2008), Nigeria (Ajuwon, 2008), Ghana (Kuyini & Desai, 2007), India (Giffard-Lindsay, 2007), Pakistan (Fazal, 2012), China (Deng & Guo, 2007) and Thailand (Vorapanya & Dunlap, 2012) acknowledged limited resource distribution as one of the important challenges to enabling successful IE reform.

Public expenditure on education is one of the important indicators of the Human Development Index (HDI) used by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP). A recent report (Human Development Report 2011) revealed that Medium Human Development and Low Human Development countries assign a low priority to education (United Nations Development Programme [UNDP], 2011). Member countries of the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC)[2], particularly India, Pakistan, Bangladesh and Sri Lanka spent very minimal amounts on education. There is no other SAARC country except Afghanistan and the Maldives that spend more than 6% of their gross domestic product (GDP) on education. Bangladesh spends only 3.4% of its GDP on education (UNDP, 2011). Therefore, schools involved with IE reform do not get the required financial support from the government. This prevents them from spending on supportive materials, assistive devices and additional support staff to assist children with special needs and children from indigenous backgrounds in regular classroom settings.

[1] Based on score in Human Development Index (HDI) 187 countries were divided in four categories that included: (a) Very High Human Development, (b) High Human Development, (c) Medium Human Development, and (d) Low Human Development (United Nations Development Programme [UNDP], 2011).
[2] SAARC is regional association that aims to promote the welfare and improve the quality of life of people in South Asia. The member countries of SAARC are Afghanistan, Bangladesh, Bhutan, India, Maldives, Nepal, Pakistan, and Sri Lanka.

Also, extra resources could empower schools to provide financial support to children from limited resource families who sometimes come to school without breakfast.

Due to limited resources, the physical environments of schools involved with IE reform were not satisfactory. The challenges related to the physical environment are: a) insufficient classrooms leading to large class sizes that compromise the learning of all students; b) difficulties running group work because of small classrooms; c) limited toilet facilities for students; d) no wheelchair access in classrooms; and e) no functional ramps in schools (Hemmingsson & Borell, 2000; Pivik, McComas, & Laflamme, 2002). A limited fund is clearly one of the barriers to having sufficient classrooms and teachers in schools. These latter are needed to maintain a suitable teacher-student ratio and standard classroom density.

Non-supportive attitude of members of the school community.

The non-supportive attitude of members of the school community towards IE is also identified as one of the major challenges in facilitating successful inclusion (Opertti & Belalca´zar, 2008). According to the United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization [UNESCO] (2005), "Teachers, parents, communities, school authorities, curriculum planners, training institutes and entrepreneurs in the business of education are among the actors that can serve as valuable resources in support of inclusion" (p. 21). Therefore, the attitudes towards inclusion held by members of the school community are critical for successful implementation of IE reform. CREATE (Consortium for Research on Educational Access, Transitions and Equity), from the University of Sussex, published a report on inclusive education in India which revealed that the most challenging aspect of

change is attitudes deeply rooted in cultural assumptions (Giffard-Lindsay, 2007). They identified India's caste system, a socio-religious construct, as a strong barrier to attitudinal change. Another study, conducted in Serbia (Kovačević & Maćešić-Petrović, 2012), identified a number of reasons for non-supportive attitudes of teachers towards inclusion of children with special needs in regular school. The reasons included "a lack of personal contact with pupils with special needs, insufficient information about their needs, capacity and rights in comparison with the so-called normal population" (Kovačević & Maćešić-Petrović, 2012, p. 468). Research studies in South Africa (Stofile, 2008), Nigeria (Ajuwon, 2008), Ghana (Kuyini & Desai, 2007), Lesotho (Johnstone & Chapman, 2009) and Pakistan (Fazal, 2012) also reported that attitudinal change of the people involved in school activities, particularly positive attitudes of the teachers, is must for IE reform.

Top-down policy making.

Along with positive attitudes of teachers and other members of the school community towards inclusion, the entire education administration system needs to be transformed to support IE reform (Macmillan & Edmunds, 2010). System transformation is suggested by changing the top-down decision-making process and centralised administrative control over all matters in schools to democratic decision-making that involve all members of the school community. On the basis of experience gained through supporting education throughout the world, Save the Children, UK (2008), argued that, "participatory dialogue and planning approaches can have a big impact on overcoming prejudice and discrimination at local level because they bring mainstream and excluded populations closer together and focus attention on achieving all children's rights to education" (p. 15). It suggests that systemic transformation is required that supports a

school community's control of the management of IE reform activities. Empowering members of the school community is necessary to encourage them to take responsibility for IE and identify creative solutions to address the challenges.

A review of international literature indicates that, in order to implement IE reform successfully, schools need to adopt organisation-wide professional learning strategies (Ainscow & Sandill, 2010) and school leaders should take exemplary initiatives that foster risk-taking (Ylimaki, Jacobson, & Drysdale, 2007) and create space for the sharing of professional practices among teachers (Kugelmass & Ainscow, 2004, Sharma & Desai, 2008). However, prior to further discussion about the relationship between leadership practices and IE reform, it is important to describe the concept of leadership. According to Zepke (2007), "leadership often becomes a topic of analysis when discussing challenges" and the context it is situated in is an accountability-driven system (p. 301). Although the above discussion indicates that the implementation of IE faces many such challenges in regular schools, it is important to consider that leadership could play a key role in addressing them.

Leadership

Leadership is an important element in executing new ideas and taking risks for change. Rapid, unpredictable and nonlinear change in society demands more sophisticated leadership (Fullan, 2001), and change performs as a driving force in the quest for effective leadership. Kouzes and Posner (1987) argued that leadership is important in a time of "turbulence, conflict, innovation, and change" and "the unique role of leader is to take us on a journey to places we have never been before" (p. 32). This attribute of leadership

makes it different from management. Cuban (1988) described management as the act of maintaining existing organisational arrangements efficiently and effectively, and associates its overall functions with continuation rather than change. In contrast, leadership looks for ways to do what has never been done in the past. Yukl (2002), therefore, claims that most of the definitions of leadership presented in the literature explained it as "a social influence process" of one person or group over other person or group for structuring "the activities and relationship of a group or organization" (p. 3). The two functions that appear to be the central points of the majority of definitions of leadership include: 1) providing direction; and 2) exerting influence (Leithwood & Riehl, 2003). Kouzes and Posner (2003) referred to these two functions as a relationship between leaders and followers:

> In talking to leaders and studying their cases, we see a very clear message woven into every situation and every action: leadership is a relationship. Leadership is a relationship between those who aspire to lead and those who choose to follow. (Kouzes & Posner, 2003, p. 2)

The above-mentioned explanation indicates that leadership is to organise and work with others to set and achieve shared goals. The idea of leadership has changed over time and it is always evolving. The following sections shed light on the evolution of leadership theories and the major paradigms of leadership. It also describes the core characteristics of each of the paradigms.

The Evolution of Leadership Theory

Researchers have divided leadership theories and paradigms into various categories over the years. Van Seters and Field (1990) categorised the evolution of leadership theories

as nine eras including: *personality*; *influence*; *behaviour*; *situation*; *contingency* e; *transactional*; *anti-leadership*; *culture*; and *transformational*. House and Aditay (1997) classified leadership under four paradigms including *trait*, *behavioural*, *contingency* and *neo-charismatic* paradigms. Chronological sequence played an important role in the four categories of leadership theories identified by Avery (2004) which included *classical* (antiquity - 1970s), *transactional* (1970s - mid 1980s), *visionary* (mid 1980s - 2000) and *organic* (beyond 2000). Subsequently, Yukl (2006) classified the theories and empirical studies of leadership into five approaches: *trait*, *behaviour*, *power-influence*, *situational* and *integrative*. Based on the categories presented by these different researchers, leadership paradigms could be divided into five groups, namely trait, behavioural, contingency, transformational-charismatic and organic paradigms (see Table 1).

The *trait* paradigm assumes certain traits and qualities are connected to leadership that make certain people appropriate for leadership. This paradigm often identifies certain personality or behavioural characteristics in leaders that separate them from ordinary people (House & Aditay, 1997; Northouse, 2007; Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2004). On the other hand, the *behavioural* leadership paradigm is based upon the belief that great leaders are made, not born. It, therefore, focuses on the activities of leaders rather than their mental qualities. A core idea of these theories considers that leadership can be learnt through teaching and observation (House & Aditay, 1997; Spillane et al., 2004; Yukl, 2006). *Contingency* paradigm of leadership emphasises contextual factors that might determine which pattern of leadership is the best fit for the situation. According to this paradigm, there is no single best leadership style that suits all situations because

Table 1

The major leadership paradigm

Leadership Paradigm	**Characteristics**	**Major theories and theoreticians**
Trait	• certain traits and qualities are connected to leadership • great leaders are born, not made	• Great Man Theory • Trait Theory • Five Bases of Power Approach • Leader Dominance Approach • Leader Motive Profile (LMP) Theory
Behavioural	• great leaders are made, not born • leadership can be learnt through teaching and observation	• Reinforced Change Theory • Managerial Grid Model • Theory X and Y • Action Theory of Leadership
Contingency	• there is no best leadership style that suits in all situations • different variables influence leadership, e.g. characteristics of the followers, the nature of organisation, leadership style and more	• Contingency Theory • Path-Goal Theory • Situational Theory • Cognitive Resource Theory • Decision Process Theory
Transformational-Charismatic	• focuses upon the relationships formed between leaders and followers • articulates and shares a vision with followers and inspires them by developing skills and confidence in achieving that vision	• Charismatic Leadership • Theory of Transformational Leadership • Visionary Theories • Value-Based Theory of Leadership
Organic	• promotes collective decision-making • emphasis on the reciprocal actions of members of the organisation • has many leaders rather than having one leader	• Distributed leadership theory

achievements depend upon different variables, including the characteristics of the followers, the nature of organisation, leadership style and more (Northouse, 2007; Spillane et al., 2004; Yukl, 2006).The *Transformational-Charismatic* leadership paradigm focuses upon the relationships formed between leaders and followers (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). According to this theory, leaders articulate and share a vision with followers and inspire them by developing skills and confidence in achieving that vision (House & Aditay, 1997; Northouse, 2007). Yukl (2006) further argued that, "transformational and charismatic leadership emphasise that emotional processes are as important as rational processes, and symbolic actions are as important as instrumental behaviour" (p. 278). The *organic* paradigm supports reciprocal actions of all the members of the organisation rather than lending weight to formal distinctions between leaders and followers. In *Organic* leadership, people with different levels of expertise on various issues emerge and get accepted by the group as leaders (Avery, 2004). Distributed leadership theory is part of an organic paradigm of leadership.

In general, the major theories summarised in Table 1 focus on the influence of one person or group over others. Distributed leadership theory proposes leadership influence can emerge through any member of the organisation, irrespective of their position in the traditional hierarchy (Pitts & Spillane, 2009). Similarly, Harris, Leithwood, Day, Sammons and Hopkins (2007) argued that "leadership influence does not only travel in a downward direction but flows throughout the organizational spanning levels and circulating up and down hierarchies" (p. 339). This suggests that distributed leadership does not ignore the formal position of leader within the

organisation; rather, it points out the vertical and the lateral process of leadership which exposes formal leaders as "gatekeepers to distributed leadership practice" in organisations (Harris, 2008a, p. 175). Distributed leadership is consistent with the characteristics of IE that aspire to support participation of all the members of school community in school activities as a change force and to promote democracy (Loreman, Deppeler, & Harvey, 2010). The following sections elaborate the idea of distributed leadership and explain how distributed leadership practices might support IE reform in schools.

Distributed Leadership

Distributed leadership can be explained from two different perspectives. One perspective considers it as a theoretical lens for looking at leadership functions while the other describes it as a democratic practice that supports efficiency, effectiveness and capacity-building in schools (Harris & Spillane, 2008). This study conceptualises distributed leadership from both perspectives. It observes leadership from a distributed perspective first and then considers the democratic perspective as a unit of analysis.

Distributed perspective on leadership.

The 'distributed perspective on leadership' approach has been developed based on theories called *distributed cognition* and *activity theory* (Harris, 2008a; Leithwood, Mascall, & Strauss, 2009; Spillane, Helverson, & Diamond, 2001). These theories draw attention to how the social context influences the interactions and learning of human beings (Harris, 2008a). The core idea of distributed cognition is that the knowledge and

cognition of people are not confined to the individual members of an organisation. Knowledge and cognition exist within all members of the organisation and "in the technical and physical artefacts that constitute the setting in which people find themselves" (Leithwood et al., 2009, p. 5). Activity theory can be explained as three mutual relationships between *subject, object* and *community* (Engeström, 1987). The relationship between subject and object is mediated by *artefacts*, the relationship between subject and community is mediated by *rules*, and *division of labour* mediates the relationship between object and community. Artefacts can include both materials and tools for thinking, and rules include norms, conventions, and social relations within a community, which are both explicit and implicit. Division of labour refers to the "continuously negotiated distribution of tasks, powers and responsibilities among the participants of the activity system" (Cole & Engeström, 1993, p. 7).

For instance, a school is planning to develop a system to improve school effectiveness. The object is the not-yet-ready system which needs to be transformed into a delivered application (see Figure 1). The community consists of all the stakeholders of the school. There is a certain division of labour between teachers, students, and parent representatives. A set of rules is active which covers what it is to be a member of this community and some of these rules might be explicit, like national policy and school policy. In addition, some rules may be designed for this particular initiative, for instance, how the parent and student representatives can be involved with the activities.

In each step of the transformation process, a different set of mediating artefacts needs to be used. School data on current status, teaching, learning material and funds are

the mediating artefacts for this initiative. Whatever the committee members of the school do in a project period is shaped by the context of activity. For instance, the parents' representatives could arrange a meeting involving other parents to raise awareness of the importance of ensuring students' attendance in school.

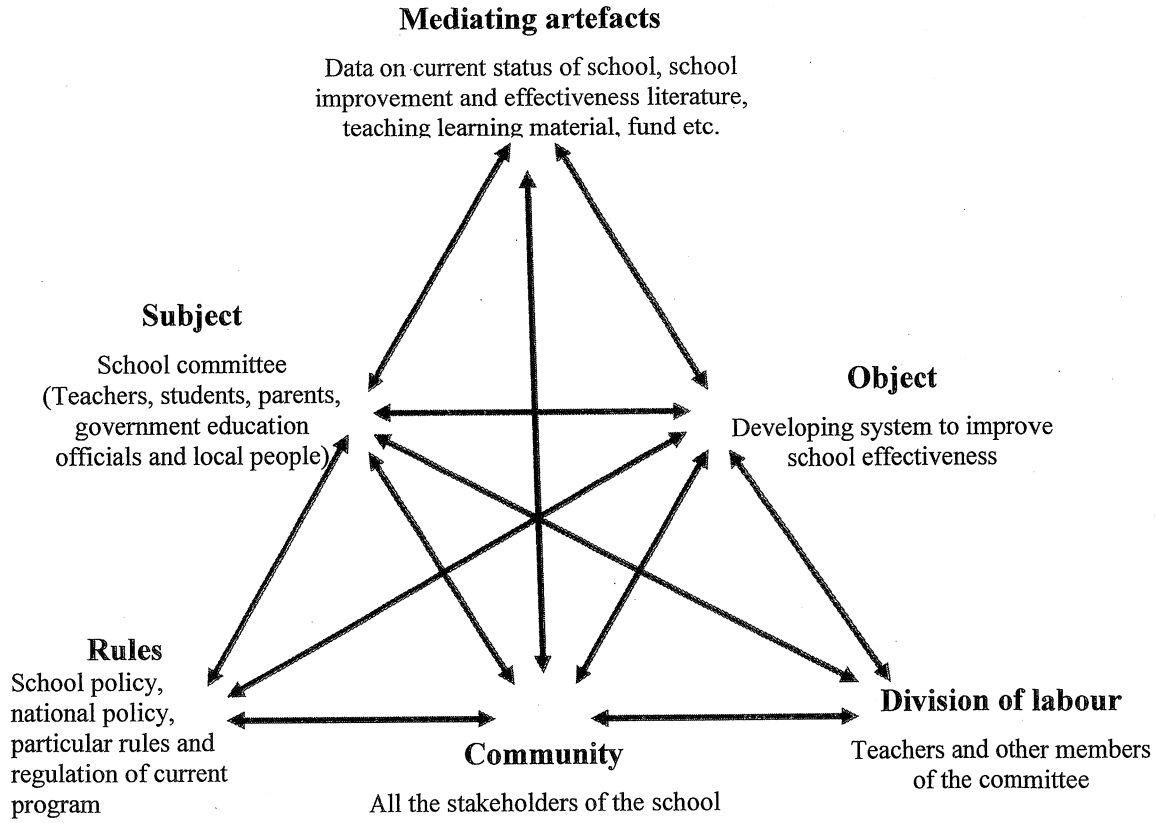

Figure 1. Basic structure of an activity in school (adapted from Engeström, 1987)

This example points to the idea of interdependence of individuals and the environment for a specific activity. This interdependence underscores that human activity is "distributed in the interactive web of actors, artefacts and the situation" (Spillane et al., 2001, p. 23). That means "distributed cognition implies that learning takes place through interactions within and across various teams" (Harris, 2008a, p.

175). Cognition is also distributed through artefacts (materials and cultural) of the context and through other actors in a joint effort to carry out a complex assignment (Pea, 1993).

Similarly, distributed leadership underscores the practice of leadership that is not restricted to any particular person's agency. It is, actually, the outcome of conjoint agency. According to Gronn (2000), distributed leadership is an "emergent property of a group or a network of interacting individuals" (p. 317). Within schools, a distributed perspective on leadership is described

> as a product of the interactions of school leaders, followers, and aspects of their situation. This distributed view of leadership shifts focus from school principals and other formal and informal leaders to the web of leaders, followers, and their situations that gives form to leadership practice. (Spillane & Diamond, 2007, p. 7).

This implies that teachers, parents, students and other people involved in the school system could be the part of leadership practices, irrespective of which working group they are in (e.g., School Management Committee, Parent-Teacher Association, and School Discipline Committee).

The framework Spillane (2006) has proposed for distributed perspective on leadership consists of three components –leaders, followers and situation–and all three elements are necessary to analyse the leadership practices (see Figure 2). A single triangle represents the interaction of all the elements for a specific moment in time, but

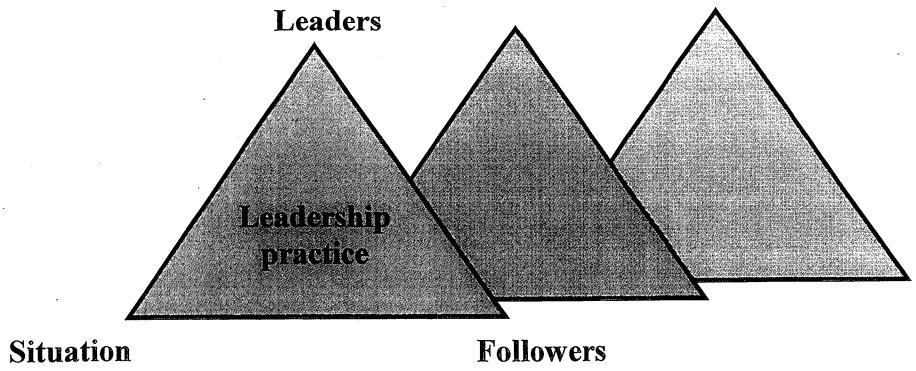

Figure 2. Distributed perspective on leadership practice (Spillane, 2006, p. 15)

the leadership activities demand multiple interactions over time, therefore involving multiple triangles whose interactions are directly or indirectly connected with one another (Spillane, 2006, p. 15).

Democratic perspective of distributed leadership.

Leadership is always considered central to offering quality education and implementing change and key to reform (Fullan, 2005). Although the study of leadership practices and functions are generally concerned about the performance of one person in a formal commanding position, this idea of leadership has changed significantly and schools now rely on leadership from all the members of the school community (Leithwood et al., 2009; Spillane, 2006). Fullan et al. (2006) emphasised this, mentioning that "everyone needs to be a leader" and denoting them as "system thinkers" (p. 92). Leithwood et al. (2006) identified four broad categories of leadership practices of successful leaders. The categories are: determining direction, supporting professional development, designing the organisation, and supervising teaching and learning. Under the four categories, there are fourteen subcategories of leadership

practices (see Manuscript 5 in Chapter 7). These subcategories are supportive of democratic practices that invite members of the school community to take part in leadership functions in schools.

Similarly, transforming schools does not depend on having exceptional leaders because this would be unrealistic and unsustainable (Timperley, 2005). For this reason, introducing change and sustainable improvement by one or two people is always very difficult. Research studies suggest that school improvement and reform are enhanced when leadership takes a broad-based perspective and teachers, parents and students get the opportunity to collaborate and actively take part in the reform activities (Hopkins, 2001; Murphy & Datnow, 2003).

Since schools are complex organisations, a more comprehensive model of leadership is necessary (Gronn, 2003). Moreover, IE reform demands leadership to encourage members of the school community to take part in leadership functions and meet the challenges with creative solutions. IE reform also expects that leaders would support collective decision-making, collaboration among members of the school community and risk-taking. Rayner (2007) and Ryan (2006a) call this leadership 'inclusive leadership' which is "concerned with educational theory, professional knowledge and the growth of praxis" (Rayner, 2007, p. 79). Ryan (2006a) further elaborated the concept of inclusive leadership and identified three leadership practices:

- providing all individuals with a fair chance to influence decisions, practices and policies;

- cooperative processes whereby many individuals work together in diverse ways to make things happen; and
- aiming to achieve inclusion in all areas of school and beyond, following processes that are, in themselves, inclusive.

This indicates that the democratic perspective of distributed leadership is consistent with inclusive leadership and that both views consider leadership practices as a unit of analysis, rather than the activities of individual leaders.

Culture and Leadership

Culture plays a critical role in leadership practices. The Global Leadership and Organizational Behaviour Effectiveness Research Program (GLOBE) was a cross-cultural study that examined the relationship between culture and leadership practices. It was a large research programme conducted in 62 countries with 17,000 respondents from 951 organisations (House & Javidan, 2004). The GLOBE study divided the 62 countries into 10 cultural groups based on common language, geography, religion and historical accounts. These groups included Anglo, Latin Europe, Nordic Europe, Germanic Europe, Eastern Europe, Latin America, Middle East, Sub-Saharan Africa, Southern Asia and Confucian Asia. It was argued, in the GLOBE study, that leadership practices vary significantly from culture to culture (House & Javidan, 2004). For instance, autocratic and top-down structures for leadership are predominant practices in the Asian countries. Alternatively, collective decision-making and power-sharing are common practices in most Western countries. While Bangladesh was not included in the GLOBE study, its geographical, historical and cultural aspects suggest that its

practices are similar to those of the south Asian region (e.g., India and Pakistan). It is, therefore, important to understand the findings about leadership practices in societies from Southern Asia.

The GLOBE study revealed that, in Southern Asia, leaders with autocratic practices were considered more effective than leaders inclined to invite others into the decision-making process. Charisma was valued as one of the important characteristics of leadership (Northouse, 2007). It implied that hierarchical or top-down approaches to leadership that control decisions and do not believe in empowerment are predominant leadership practices in Southern Asia. These findings were supported by two studies (Ali, 2011; Salahuddin, 2012) conducted at the secondary level education in Bangladesh. Ali (2011) identified that head teachers were at the top of the hierarchical bureaucracy ladder in secondary schools in Bangladesh and distributed leadership practices were absent. Ali (2011) further argued that, "the head teachers do delegate some of their daily duties to assistant teachers and senior teachers to ease pressure on their own work loads, but these are not leadership elements in this task allocation" (p.65). A similar finding was identified by Salahuddin (2012), which indicated that leaders perform activities following the rules and regulations prescribed by the central system in which they operate (e.g., Ministry and Directorate responsible for education).

Accountability, Leadership Practices and IE Reform

An Accountability approach is also predominant in forming leadership practices. Accountability is critical for any system because chaos might ensue if people responsible for a certain task are not obligated to inform the system about their actions

and do not endure punishment for irresponsibility. Accountability is considered as one of the catalysts to school improvement (Adams & Kirst, 1999; Leithwood, 2001; Møller, 2009) and educational reform (Fullan, 2007; Leithwood, Steinbach, & Jantzi, 2002), because it intends to improve the quality of education for *all* students in the school (Linn, 2003). Accountability, broadly, demands answers to two questions from a school: 'Is this a good school?' and 'Is it getting better?' (Linn, 2008).

Accountability does not always suggest that a subordinate system needs to be responsible for its actions to the upper system. For this reason, there is no single model of accountability to ensure quality of education for *all* students in a school through actions of IE reform. Anderson (2005) identified three types of accountability in an education policy booklet series of International Academy of Education and International Institute of Educational Planning (IIEP). They are (a) compliance with regulations, (b) adherence to professional norms, and (c) results-driven. Compliance with regulations is very similar to a managerial approach to accountability because its principle is that educators need to adhere to rules and be accountable to the bureaucratic system (Anderson, 2005). These three aspects of accountability were combined by the four-fold classification approach of Leithwood (2001) including: market approach, decentralisation approach, professional approach and management approach. Manuscript 5 in Chapter 6 discusses the features of these four accountability approaches and leadership practices in relation to each of the model.

The nature of IE practices indicates that IE aims for democracy, collaboration within and beyond schools, knowledge-sharing and collegiality. The implementation of

IE reform also puts an emphasis on risk-taking and creative solutions to the challenges it faces. Managerial models (Leithwood, 2001) that promote hierarchical and test-based accountability do not fully support the "school as a community, as a place where students participate in learning and also learn to participate in the life of a community and life in a broader inclusive society" (Curcic, Gabel, Zeitlin, Cribaro-DiFatta, & Glarner, 2011, p. 117). Managerial approaches to accountability or bureaucratic accountability can cause schools to be motivated by test results, with competitiveness as a consequence. It has been argued that the bureaucratic accountability model expects teachers "to perform designated tasks, and thus a performance management system is needed to evaluate their performance" (Fitzgerald, Youngs, & Grootenboer, 2003, p. 94). This approach emphasises outcomes, not the process. Therefore, democratic practice, collective decision-making and collaboration are not properly valued. In contrast, professional and decentralisation approaches to accountability inspire schools to build networks for collaboration, which is compatible with IE practice. According to Fitzgerald and others (2003), "...teachers should genuinely undertake their professional responsibility and proactively monitor (and censure) their own profession" (p. 95). These accountability approaches promote empowerment of school leaders and the community, which are also consistent with IE practices in schools.

Chapter Summary

This chapter has argued that the relationship between social justice and IE suggested that inclusion of *all* children in regular schools so they receive quality education can contribute significantly in developing a just society. It was also explained

in this chapter that distributed leadership is compatible with the principles of IE reform. Distributed leadership, the principal focus of this study, was explained through its two dimensions: *distributed perspective on leadership* and *democratic perspective of distributed leadership*. The following chapter outlines the research design applied in this study to investigate the distributed leadership practices in primary schools in Bangladesh and the relationship between distributed leadership practices and IE reform.

CHAPTER 4

Methodology

Introduction

This chapter outlines the research design and methodology employed to conduct the study. First, the chapter presents the research questions that guided the study. Second, it discusses the procedures that were followed in selecting the participants and collecting the data and the data analysis techniques applied in the three phases of this research. A diagram (see Figure 3) is included in this chapter to illustrate the methodology of this study at a glance. Finally, the chapter describes the ethical considerations shown in this study.

Research Questions

The study was carried out in regular Government Primary Schools (GPSs) and Registered Non-Government Schools (RNGPSs) involved in implementing inclusive education (IE) reform in Bangladesh. The following research questions guided the study:

1. How is leadership practice structured in regular primary schools in Bangladesh?
2. What views do school leaders hold regarding accountability approach?
3. What do school leaders perceive as challenges to implementing IE?
4. What do school leaders perceive as necessary to address the challenges?
5. What is the perception of teachers 'who are in a formal leadership position' and those 'who do not hold a formal position of leadership' about distributed

leadership practices for IE in primary schools in Bangladesh, and are there any significant differences between their perceptions?

6. Is there any significant relationship between the distributed leadership practices for IE perceived by teachers and the following school variables:
    a. School location;
    b. School size;
    c. Performance of school; and
    d. School type?
7. Is there any significant relationship between distributed leadership practices for IE perceived by teachers and the following demographic variables of teachers:
    a. Gender;
    b. Age;
    c. Teaching experience;
    d. Qualification;
    e. Professional degree; and
    f. Training on IE?
8. Is there any significant relationship between the distributed leadership practices perceived by teachers and teachers' satisfaction about implementation of IE in schools?
9. Is there any significant relationship between the distributed leadership practices perceived by teachers and teachers' satisfaction about work environment in school?

Research Design

This study employed a *mixed method* design, employing both quantitative and qualitative methods to provide depth and breadth to the data collected (Creswell, 2008). This design was adopted because a single method (quantitative or qualitative) was not considered adequate to address the research questions outlined in the previous section. This study was conducted in three phases. Figure 3 provides a synopsis of the methodology and covers the participants, instruments and data analysis techniques employed in this study.

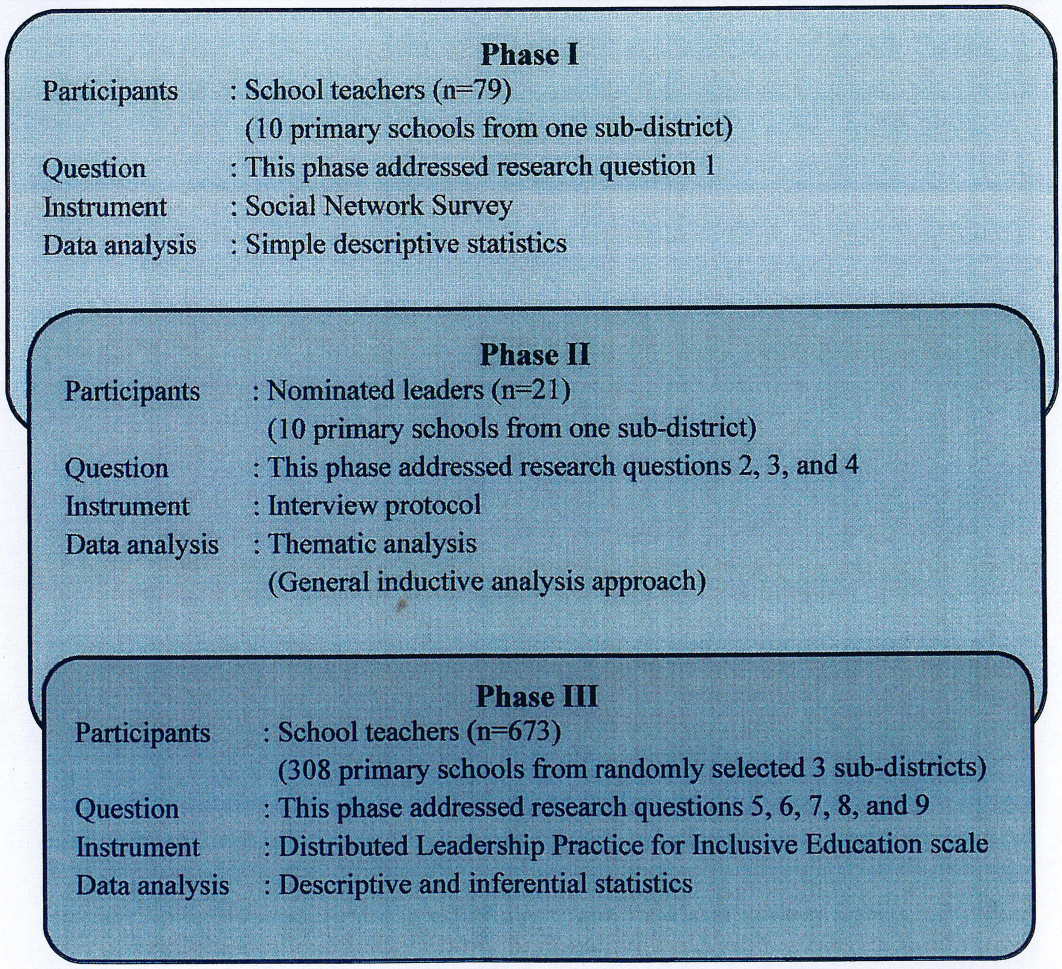

Figure 3. The study methodology in three phases

In **Phase-I**, Social Network Survey (SNS) was used to inform the "social network analysis" for investigating leadership from a distributed perspective (Pitts & Spillane, 2009, p. 187). Seven Government Primary Schools (GPSs) and three Registered Non-Government Primary Schools (RNGPSs) of one sub-district of Bangladesh that are involved in an IE reform initiative – the 'PEDP-II Innovation Grant' participated in this phase. All teachers (n=79) in each of the selected schools were invited to participate in this phase. *Manuscript 2,* titled 'Leadership practice structures in regular primary schools involved in inclusive education reform in Bangladesh', describes, in detail the selection of participants, instrument and data analysis process for this phase.

In **Phase-II,** leaders identified by SNS were interviewed. The participants for this phase were head teachers, teachers and individuals (e.g. SMC members, local education officials) nominated by the teachers of ten schools in Phase-I. Instrument, data collection process and data analysis techniques are outlined in *Manuscript 3,* 'Accountability and leadership practices in Bangladeshi schools: A supportive approach for implementing inclusive education policy?', and *Manuscript 4*, 'Inclusive education reform in primary school of Bangladesh: Leadership challenges and possible strategies to address the challenges'.

In **Phase-III**, a scale named Distributed Leadership Practice for Inclusive Education (DLPIE) was developed, based on the themes arising from the qualitative data collected in Phase-II. Subsequently, the DLPIE scale was employed to investigate distributed leadership practices regarding IE in primary schools in Bangladesh. The

participants for this phase were teachers, including head teachers from 308 primary schools. The schools were randomly selected from three sub-districts, employing a two-stage cluster sampling procedure. The development process of the DLPIE scale is described in *Manuscript 5*, 'Development of the Distributed Leadership Practice for Inclusive Education (DLPIE) Scale', and the data collection process applying the DLPIE scale is presented in *Manuscript 6,* titled 'School teachers' perception about distributed leadership practices for inclusive education in primary schools in Bangladesh'.

Ethical Considerations

This study was conducted according to the code of ethics endorsed by the Monash University Human Research Ethics Committee (MUHREC). Therefore, it considered a number of ethical issues in designing and reporting the research findings. The MUHREC "reviews all research conducted by Monash University staff or students involving human participants and primarily considers issues that constitute integrity, respect for persons, beneficence, justice, consent, research merit and safety" (Monash University, 2009). Appendix A presents the ethics approval letter provided by MUHREC for this study. The following section documents that the data collection and data reporting processes of this study comply with the code of ethics of MUHREC.

Initially, permission was sought from the Directorate of Primary Education (DPE), Ministry of Primary and Mass Education, Bangladesh. The DPE is the central body that oversees primary schools. Upon receiving permission from the Director of the DPE (Appendix B), schools were invited to voluntarily take part in this study. Permission from the schools was sought through a letter accompanied by an explanatory

statement of the purpose of this research and the role of the participants. The explanatory statement described the right of participants to withdraw from this study at any stage of the data collection. In addition, the statement explained that the objective of this study was not to evaluate their teaching or leadership performance. Finally, the participant teachers were requested to complete a consent form after reading the explanatory statement. The data of this study was not shared with other participants or people outside of this research because maintaining anonymity and confidentiality of the participants is a significant code of practice in research (Babbie, 2008). In addition, pseudonyms were used in reporting the findings of the study and the participants were dealt with respect and courtesy in both the data collection and data reporting stage.

Chapter summary

This chapter described how Phase-I and III were quantitative in nature and Phase-II was qualitative, in that it employed a semi-structured interview protocol to collect data. Phase-I and Phase-III investigated the leadership practice structures and Phase-II examined accountability, leadership challenges and possible strategies to overcome the identified challenges. The findings generated from these three phases are presented in the next three chapters. Chapter 5 presents findings from Phase-I. Chapter 6 and Chapter 7 present findings from Phase-II and Phase-III, respectively. These three chapters include five manuscripts: Chapter 5 contains one manuscript and both Chapters 6 and 7 contain two manuscripts each.

> ...A distributed perspective can help leaders identify the dimensions of their practice, articulate the relations among these dimensions, and think about changing their practice. Further, the distributed perspective also suggests that intervening to improve school leadership by focusing exclusively or chiefly on building the knowledge of an individual formal leader in a school may not be the most optimal, or the most effective, use of resources. If expertise is distributed, then the school rather than the individual leader may be the most appropriate unit for thinking about the development of leadership expertise. (Spillane et al., 2004, p. 29)

CHAPTER 5

Leadership Practice Structures

Introduction

Previous studie indicated that South Asian countries are structured hierarchically (House & Javidan, 2004) and Bangladesh is no different in that respect, where decisions are taken at the top of the hierarchy and leaders with autocratic practices are considered effective. Bureaucratic and hierarchical leadership practices are present in schools as well (Ali, 2011; Salahuddin, 2012). Hierarchical leadership practices are inconsistent with the values of inclusive education (IE). It was argued in Chapter 3 that distributed leadership practices are conducive to IE in schools. In particular, there are three features that are common in distributed leadership practices and IE, including: 1) collaboration among all the members of the school community; 2) democratic decision making; and 3) encouragement of leadership initiatives taken by any member of the school community. It was argued, in the previous studies, that distributed leadership practices can be found in hierarchically based cultures (Pitts & Spillane, 2009; Spillane, 2006). By investigating existing leadership practice structures, this chapter attempts to identify features related to distributed leadership practices in primary schools in Bangladesh.

This chapter incorporates *Manuscript 2* titled 'Leadership Practice Structures in Regular Primary Schools Involved in Inclusive Education Reform in Bangladesh' which examined leadership practice structures from a distributed perspective. Social Network Survey (SNS) was applied to reveal whether the other members of the school community are involved in social influence interactions as advice-givers or not.

Manuscript 2 mainly focuses on the leader-plus aspects of a 'distributed perspective on leadership'. This manuscript also attempted to identify the nature of advice leaders provide to inspire and influence the practices of advice-seekers in schools.

Manuscript 2: Leadership Practice Structures in Regular Primary Schools Involved in Inclusive Education Reform in Bangladesh

Declaration for Publication

Mullick, J., Deppeler, J., & Sharma, U. (2012b). Leadership practice structures in regular primary schools involved in inclusive education reform in Bangladesh. *The International Journal of Learning, 18*(11), 67-82. Retrieved from http://ijl.cgpublisher.com/product/pub.30/prod.3380

Declaration by candidate

The nature and extent of my contribution to the work was the following:

Nature of contribution	**Extent of contribution (%)**
Initiation of publication, instigator of ideas, conducted literature review, collected and analysed data, prepared the draft manuscript, incorporated other authors' comments in final manuscript, prepared and submitted for publication	80%

The following co-authors contributed to the work:

Name	**Nature of contribution**
Joanne Deppeler	Feedback on draft manuscript
Umesh Sharma	Feedback on draft manuscript

Candidate's Signature	[redacted]	**Date: 17 July 2013**

Declaration by co-authors

The undersigned hereby certify that:

(1) the above declaration correctly reflects the nature and extent of the candidate's contribution to this work, and the nature of the contribution of each of the co-authors;

(2) they meet the criteria for authorship in that they have participated in the conception, execution, or interpretation, of at least that part of the publication in their field of expertise;

(3) they take public responsibility for their part of the publication, except for the responsible author who accepts overall responsibility for the publication;

(4) there are no other authors of the publication according to these criteria;

(5) potential conflicts of interest have been disclosed to (a) granting bodies, (b) the editor or publisher of journals or other publications, and (c) the head of the responsible academic unit; and

(6) the original data are stored at the following location(s) and will be held for at least five years from the date indicated below:

Location(s)	Faculty of Education, Monash University (Clayton campus)

Signatu	[redacted]	**Date:** 22/07/13
Signatu	[redacted]	**Date:** 22/07/13

Leadership Practice Structures in Regular Primary Schools Involved in Inclusive Education Reform in Bangladesh

Jahirul Mullick, Monash University, Victoria, Australia
Joanne Deppeler, Monash University, Victoria, Australia
Umesh Sharma, Monash Univeristy, Victoria, Australia

Abstract: The purpose of this paper is to report on a study that explored leadership practice structures in regular primary schools involved in inclusive education reform in Bangladesh. The study participants were teachers of ten government-funded regular primary schools of one sub-district in Bangladesh. Social Network Surveys (SNS) were used to inform the 'Social Network Analysis' for investigating leadership from a distributed perspective (Pitts & Spillane, 2009). The SNS asks teachers to identify from whom they receive advice and information regarding enhancing student participation in their schooling, student behaviour, and student learning in relation to three curricular domains (i.e. Language, Mathematics and Science). Teachers were also asked to indicate how frequently they interact with each of the identified personnel and what type of advice they sought from them. Data were analysed to identify instances of leadership and the persons most helpful to teachers in different areas.

Keywords: Distributed Perspective, Leadership Practice, Inclusive Education, Social Network Analysis, School Curricular Domains

Introduction

IN THE RESEARCH literature focused on school effectiveness and school change there is agreement that leadership is critical to the success of reform and school improvement (Fullan, Hill, & Crévola, 2006; Hargreaves & Fink, 2006; Harris, 2008; Leithwood, Jantzi, & McElheron-Hopkins, 2006). In the past, leaders have been thought of as those in a position of authority (e.g. principal or head teacher) and considered their actions and behaviour as leadership practices. These 'positional leaders' and their practices were identified as crucial in promoting change (Deal & Peterson, 1990; Rosenblum & Jastrzab, 1980) and in implementing inclusive education reform (Guzmán, 1997; Ingram, 1997; Riehl, 2000). However, more recently empirical studies have included others beyond those in positions of authority who also take part in leadership activities (Camburn, Rowan, & Taylor, 2003; Spillane, Camburn, & Pareja, 2007). As a consequence, it has been suggested that leadership practices beyond those associated with formal structure and position should be included (Gronn, 2003; Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2004). This distributed notion of leadership emphasises organizational qualities rather than an individual characteristics and extents to multiple individuals beyond the school principal, including regular classroom teachers with no formal leadership designations (Pitts & Spillane, 2009). It also considers leadership as the actions and interactions (e.g. debate, discussion and dialogue) of all the individuals involved with the problem solving and developmental work (Harris, 2005, 2008). This altern-

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ative framework recognises all sources of leadership as important in framing investigations of leadership practice (Spillane, 2006).

Studies of inclusive education (IE) reform have also identified leadership as key to ensuring access and quality in the experiences of all children in a school (Ainscow, 2005; Ainscow & Sandill, 2010; Kugelmass & Ainscow, 2004; Ryan, 2006). IE reform aims to ensure that *all* children in regular schools including children with intellectual or physical impairments, or those who may be socially or economically disadvantaged have the same opportunities for high quality education. IE requires "democratic processes of representation and collaboration" for "understanding and incorporating diverse perspectives, and for generating innovative solutions" (Loreman, Deppeler, & Harvey, 2010, p. 87). These processes are only possible if teachers have opportunities to work collaboratively with others to improve teaching and students' learning in a professional learning community (PLC) (Deppeler, 2010). Distributed leadership has been identified as effective in supporting and contributing to organizational learning through PLC (Dufour, Dufour & Eaker, 2008; Stoll & Louis, 2007). In order to enhance the effectiveness of IE reform initiatives it is, therefore, important to consider the impact of leadership practices from a distributed perspective.

This paper reports on a study that explored the leadership practice structure in regular primary schools that involved in IE reform in Bangladesh. Like many countries throughout the world Bangladesh has enacted a number of policies to move the IE agenda forward. The *National Plan of Action Phase II* (2003–2015) articulates the goal that all primary school-age children irrespective of their gender, special needs, ethnicity and socio-economic disadvantages will be enrolled and successfully complete the primary cycle and attain quality education (Ministry of Primary and Mass Education [MOPME], 2003). In order to achieve the goals these four groups were then targeted through an education development programme, *Second Primary Education Development Programme* (PEDP II) (Nasreen & Tate, 2007). This study is grounded in a distributed perspective on leadership (Gronn, 2000; Spillane, 2006) and aims to answer four questions: 1) who are the school leaders; 2) what types of advice do they provide; 3) how frequently do they interact with the teachers to provide leadership advice; and 4) how influential are the school leaders. The Social Network survey (SNS) (Pitts & Spillane, 2009) was employed to collect data regarding the structure of the relationships among members of the school community.

The Distributed Perspective on Leadership

Based on *distributed cognition* and *activity theory* (Harris, 2008; Leithwood, Mascall, & Strauss, 2009, Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2001) the distributed perspective on leadership emphasised the influence of social context on interaction and learning. In a school, the distributed view of leadership widens the focus from the school principal and other formally appointed leaders to the other teachers and members of the school community that shape the leadership practices (Spillane & Diamond, 2007). Harris (2005) described three conditions that represent the key principles of distributed leadership. Distributed leadership focuses on:

1. the practice rather than the function or outcome of leadership
2. the interactions between people, as these are important as the actions they undertake, and
3. the context, as it shapes and influences the form that distributed leadership takes in schools (Harris, 2005)

The framework Spillane (2006) has proposed for distributed leadership consists of three components–leaders, followers and the situation and all three elements are considered necessary to analyse the leadership practice. One single triangle (Figure 1) represents interaction of all the elements for a specific moment in time.

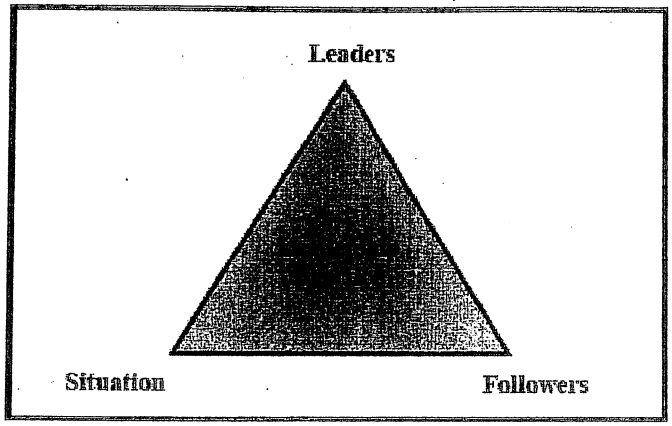

Figure 1: Distributed Perspective of Leadership Practice (Spillane, 2006, p. 15)

Leadership "activities demand multiple interactions over time that produce multiple triangles and 'interactions can be more or less connected with one another" (Spillane, 2006, p. 15) and involve both practice aspects and what Spillane (2006) refers to as the leader-plus aspects.

Practice and Leader-plus Aspects

Practice aspects refer to the three components of leadership practice illustrated in Figure 1. All three components are considered essential to constitute the leadership practice. Leadership practice does not only include the activities, roles or functions of leaders in formal positions but also 'followers' who play a role in shaping leadership practice. "Leadership is not simply something done to followers' (Spillane, 2006, p. 17). Spillane and colleagues (2008) described that, 'from a distributed perspective studying the actions of individuals or aggregating their actions is in sufficient; a distributed perspective frames practice as a product of the interactions of school leaders, followers as aspects of their situation' (p. 191). In different situations individuals' interactions also differs.

The distributed perspective on leadership does not ignore the formal position of the leader within the organization rather it points out the vertical and the lateral processes of leadership. The leader-plus aspects draw attention to the involvement of others in both formal and informal formal roles in leadership activities. Schools are complex organizations making it

difficult for any single person to perform all the leadership activities. Researchers have found that several leaders, including for example district personnel and external consultants, are involved in leadership practices (Camburn, Rowan, & Taylor, 2003; Heller & Firestone, 1995) and can also involve other members of the school community who do not hold formal positions of authority but who "exert influence on persons and things in order to achieve the school's goal" (Leithwood & Riehl, 2003, p. 9). The following study mainly focuses on the leader-plus aspects.

Research Design

Participants

The participants for this study were 79 school teachers from ten regular primary schools of one sub-district of Bangladesh that were involved in the IE reform initiative–the *PEDP-II Innovation Grants* [1]. Among the ten schools seven were Government Primary Schools (GPSs) and the rest were Registered Non-Government Primary Schools (RNGPSs). These schools were included in this study because they had participated in a program of professional development focused on IE. Under the 'PEDP-II Innovation Grants' professional development involves teachers, head teachers and members of the School Management Committee (SMC), and focuses on improving access to schooling for disadvantaged children and promote principles of IE (Nasreen & Tate, 2007). The participating schools of the study were selected purposively to ensure the involvement of different groups which included: schools with male and female head teachers; schools in urban, sub-urban and rural locations, and schools that had been graded by the district education office low, medium and high levels of performance.

Instrument and Data Collection

All the teachers in the ten schools were engaged in social network survey method. The *social network survey* (SNS) was designed to investigate leadership from distributed perspective. The SNS was adapted from the SSSNQ (School Staff Social Network Questionnaire) developed and validated by Pitts and Spillane (2009) to understand the practices and relationships among the members of school community. Modification included translation to Bangla and the subsequent trial with 10 teachers, who were not included in the sampled schools, to eliminate any confusing language arising from the translation and to ensure clarity. The SNS was revised in light of the feedback received in trial. Using the SNS, teachers were to identify to whom they go to for advice regarding enhancing student participation in their schooling, enhancing student behaviour, and enhancing student learning in relation to school curricular domains–Language, Mathematics (see Appendix) and Science. For each question teachers were able to select multiple names from their school member list. The list included all the teaching staff in their school along with names of the members of School Management Committee (SMC), former teachers, parents and the local education officials designated to provide support to primary school in the sub-district. Teachers were also asked, for each

[1] 'PEDP II Innovation Grants' is an intervention under this Second Primary Education Development Programme (PEDP II) program. The central goal of this project is to 'enhance the role of the school community in meeting the needs of children with social, economic, intellectual or physical impairments, or disadvantages that reduce their ability to attend and complete primary schooling' (Directorate of Primary Education [DPE], 2006, p.1)

name identified, to indicate how frequently they interact with each of these personnel (daily or almost daily, once or twice per week, once or twice per month, or a few times per year) and what type of advice they seek from them. The types of advice included: deepening content knowledge, planning or selecting course content and materials, approaches for teaching content to students, strategies to assist all learners, assessing students' understanding of the subject, and/or other. If teachers chose 'other', they were asked to explain 'other' using open space in the SNS. In addition, using a five-point Likert scale teachers indicated how much each advisor influences their teaching practice.

Data Analysis

Data were analysed to identify instances of leadership to enhance students' learning in school curricula (Mathematics, Language and Science); student participation in their schooling; and student behaviour. Simple descriptive statistics were employed in analysing the data. Frequencies were determined to identify the leaders, who influence the work of teachers in primary schools and how often teachers interact with each of these school leaders. Mean scores were calculated to measure how influential the school leaders are. Frequencies were also used to find what types of advices and support teachers seek most from the school leaders to enhance students' learning in school curricular domains (Language, Mathematics and Science).

Findings

Identification of School Leaders

One of the prime objectives of the SNS was to identify the persons in the schools who took share in the responsibility and influence interactions related to school operation and classroom instruction. The advice-givers in social influence interactions were considered as nominated school leaders because they inspired and influenced the practice of advice-seekers. Moreover, their nomination by multiple individuals made them to be considered for the leadership position in schools. The following figure (Figure 2) demonstrates that teachers, head teachers, members of school management committee, education officer, instructor of Upazila Resource Centre (URC), and others (e.g. former head teacher, teachers from other schools) were recognized as leader on the basis of the instances of advice-seeking interactions. Teachers received maximum instances of advice-seeking interactions in student behaviour, and student learning in relation to Language, Mathematics and Science except student participation in their schooling. Members of School Management Committee (SMC) got highest instances of advice-seeking instructions in student participation in their schooling. Parents were mostly consulted for enhancing the student's behaviour.

The nomination by multiple individuals (more than 75 percent nomination) supported to identity forty four leaders from ten schools. Among the nominated leaders there were twenty four teachers, ten head teachers, five members of SMC, two education officers, two URC instructors and one former head teacher. Parents received less than 75 percent of the nomination from the participants of the study and therefore were not considered as nominated leader in school. Nevertheless, they received good number of instances of advice-seeking interactions in enhancing students behaviour.

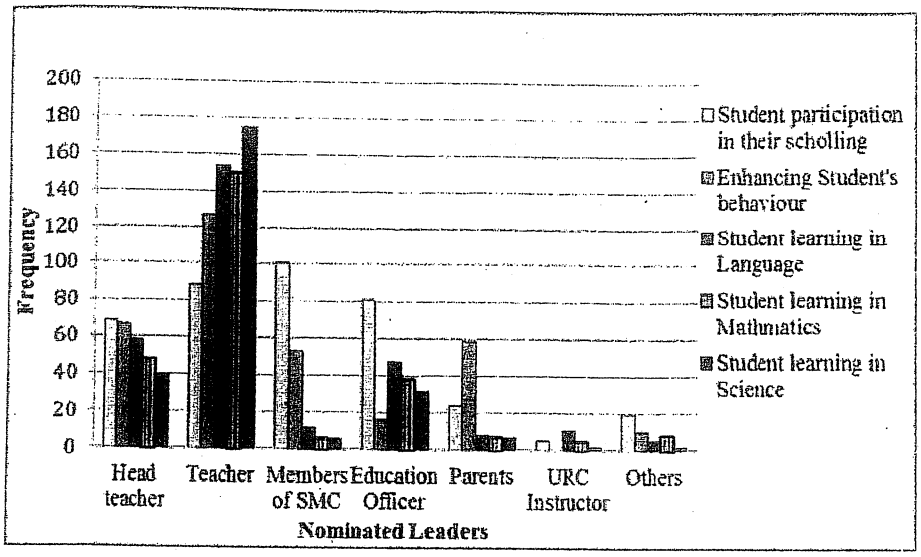

Figure 2: Instances of Advice-seeking Interactions with School Leaders

Leadership Advice

The other important objective of the SNS was to shed light on the types of advice the participants of the study (advice-seekers in primary schools) sought to support student learning in school curricular domains like Language, Mathematics and Science. Instances of advice-seeking interactions demonstrated that for student learning in language teachers were consulted for various advice, for example; deepening content knowledge (68 instances), planning or selecting course content & materials (73 instances), finding approaches for teaching content to students (86 instances), identifying strategies specially to assist low-performing students (83 instances), supporting students to build concept about subject matter (73 instances) and organizing co-curricular activities (3 instances). Head teachers were consulted mostly for deepening content knowledge (46 instances) for student learning in language. Members of SMC and parents were mostly consulted for the strategies specially to assist low-performing students (7 instances) and organizing co-curricular activities (5 instances) respectively. Education offers were consulted for all types of advice like teachers except organizing co-curricular activities and others (e.g. supporting to ease stammering). There were two instances of advice-seeking interaction (head teacher and Members of SMC) regarding support to ease stammering. URC instructor was consulted mostly for identifying strategies specially to assist low-performing students.

Table 1: Nominated Leaders and Types of Advice

Types of Advice	Student learning in Language							Student learning in Mathematics							Student learning in Science						
	Head teacher	Teacher	Members of SMC	Education Officer	Parents	URC Instructur	Others	Head teacher	Teacher	Members of SMC	Education Officer	Parents	URC Instructor	Others	Head teacher	Teacher	Members of SMC	Education Officer	Parents	URC Instructor	Others
Deepening Content Knowledge	46	68	2	32	-	9	1	39	76	-	30	1	5	5	37	65	1	23	-	2	2
Planning or Selecting course content & materials	42	73	1	33	-	9	3	36	66	-	29	-	4	2	29	92	1	23	1	1	1
Approaches for teaching content to students	39	86	2	36	1	9	1	35	79	-	29	-	4	7	30	99	1	27	-	2	1
Strategies specially to assist low-performing students	43	83	7	34	3	10	10	37	96	3	24	4	4	5	33	101	2	25	4	1	1
Supporting students to build concept about subject matter	30	73	2	32	2	9	3	30	60	3	25	2	5	3	27	81	1	23	1	1	1
Organizing co-curricular activities	-	2	2	-	5	-	-	-	-	1	-	1	-	4	1	2	-	1	2	-	1
Others (e.g. supporting to ease stammering)	1	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Teachers received maximum instances of advice-seeking in identifying strategies specially to assist low-performing students for student learning in both Mathematics (96 instances) and Science (101 instances). Deepening content knowledge got most instances in both Mathematics and Science regarding advice-seeking from head teachers.

Frequency of Interaction

Teachers were consulted more frequently (e.g. daily or almost daily, once or twice in a week) for enhancing student participation in their schooling, student behaviour, and student learning in relation to school curricular domains (e.g. Language, Mathematics and Science). The following table (see Table 1) demonstrated that teachers received maximum instances of advice-seeking interactions in daily or almost daily (126 instances) for enhancing student learning in language. Head teachers were in second position to receive the instances of advice-seeking interactions in daily or almost daily. Members of SMC were in top position getting maximum instances of advice-seeking interactions (69 instances) for once or twice in a month and education offers were mostly (25 instances) consulted a few times per year.

Table 2: Frequency of Advice-seeking Interactions with Nominated Leaders

Point in time	Student participation in their schooling							Enhancing Student's behaviour							Student learning in Language							Student learning in Mathematics							Student learning in Science						
	Head teacher	Teacher	Members of SMC	Education Officer	Parents	URC Instructor	Others	Head teacher	Teacher	Members of SMC	Education Officer	Parents	URC Instructor	Others	Head teacher	Teacher	Members of SMC	Education Officer	Parents	URC Instructor	Others	Head teacher	Teacher	Members of SMC	Education Officer	Parents	URC Instructor	Others	Head teacher	Teacher	Members of SMC	Education Officer	Parents	URC Instructor	Others
Daily or almost daily	62	69	4	-	2	-	2	62	100	-	-	2	-	1	51	126	-	-	-	-	-	39	98	-	-	-	-	-	34	91	-	-	-	-	-
Once or Twice in a week	7	18	18	8	8	-	11	3	24	14	-	26	-	6	5	26	2	3	5	1	2	7	35	1	-	4	-	1	6	56	1	1	3	-	-
Once or twice in a month	-	1	69	48	11	3	5	2	2	38	10	27	-	-	2	1	10	35	3	7	2	2	17	5	30	3	4	6	-	20	4	23	2	2	2
A few times per year	-	-	10	25	3	2	2	-	1	1	6	4	-	3	-	1	-	9	-	3	1	-	-	-	8	-	1	1	-	8	1	7	2	-	-

Degree of Influence

As evident from Figure 3 Education offers were identified the most influential leaders in school for enhancing student participation in their schooling, student behaviour, and student learning in relation to school curricular domains (e.g. Language, Mathematics and Science). They were followed by head teachers across all areas and parents were the least influential in advice-seeking interactions.

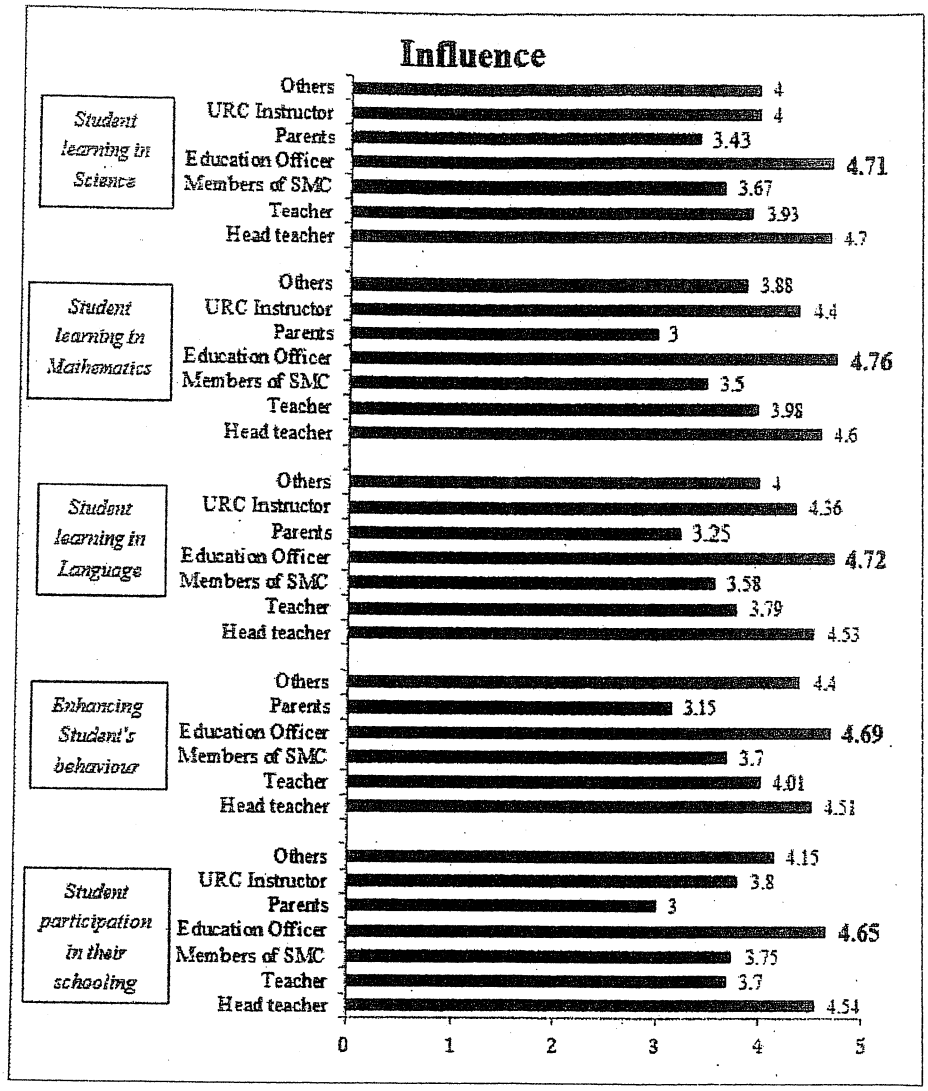

Figure 3: Degree of Influence of School Leaders

Discussion

Consistent with previous research (Camburn et al., 2003; Spillane, Camburn, Pustejovsky, Pareja, & Lewis, 2008), the findings of this study confirmed that along with positional leaders, others without formal positions of authority (e.g. teachers within and outside the school, and parents) were active in the leadership activities in primary schools in Bangladesh. The findings indicate that among the positional leaders, members of SMC were highly active in enhancing student participation in their schooling. Involvement of SMC personnel in school activities is not unexpected in primary school for a number of reasons. First, because

the core functions of SMC is to support all the school activities including full access of *all* students to, and completion of, primary education (Ministry of Primary and Mass Education [MOPME], 2009). Second, it may be because the PEDP II initiative encouraged teachers and members of the community to work together to implement the goals of education for all (EFA). Finally the active involvement of the SMC personnel in school activities might be due to their.

Consistent with Spillane and his colleagues (2008) the findings of this study confirmed that teachers were found to influence the knowledge and instructional practices in specific curricular domains more than the positional leaders. The frequency of receiving advice and information from teachers demonstrates that these leadership practices in regular primary school were highly dependent on the participation of these teachers. Again the emphasis on collaboration and the structure of the professional development aspects of the IE initiative in PEDP II may have motivated teachers to be active in the instructional leadership practices. Nevertheless, it is clear from the study that the involvement of parents in the leadership practices of these schools was low. The importance of parental involvement and home-school collaboration in the success of students in IE cannot be over-stated (UNESCO, 2005). The 'National Education Policy 2010' acknowledges the importance of parents' involvement in improving the quality of education for *all*, highlighting the importance of the Parent Teacher Association (PTA) as a vehicle for providing parents a voice.

The recognition of the education officer as the most influential school leader in all aspects of the school activities puts the distributed leadership practice structure in these schools in question. While the Education officer is not a formal leadership position at the school level, they are responsible, according to the *National Education Policy 2010*, for the academic supervision and monitoring of school activities. These accountability practices are likely to have a strong influence on the leadership practice structures at the school level. The recognition of the head teacher as the second most influential school leader in primary school strengthens the notion that positional leaders are dominant in the leadership practice structure, particularly in exerting influence. Parents were at the bottom of the influence exertion continuum in all the aspects of the school activities. Teachers also had a low position, with influence only in specific curricular domains. This pattern reflects the strong presence of hierarchical control structures in the primary education system in Bangladesh, where the majority of decisions are made by those in higher positions of authority.What is not clear from this study, is how teachers view the influential presence of the education officer in leadership practices, and why parents have so little involvement in the leadership practices of the school. Further research is needed in these areas.

The findings provide strong evidence that the SNS was able to shed light on leader-plus aspect of distributed leadership in Bangladeshi primary schools. Like the earlier study by Pitts and Spillane (2009) we were able to take a *snapshot* of leadership practices, explained as social interactions that influenced knowledge and instructional routines in schools. One limitation of the Social network analysis is that it is based on the assumption that providing advice is indicative of leadership and that it relies on advice-giving relationships (Spillane et al., 2008). It therefore does not capture other behaviours that may be important forms of leadership for teachers (e.g. modelling pedagogy)

It is sometimes argued that due to important cultural differences, educational innovations from the 'west' cannot be easily transported to other contexts. In this instance, however, the findings from this study would appear to support the appropriateness of the SNS (adapted

from SSSNQ (Pitts & Spillane, 2009)) that was applied in a context other than in which it was developed. Despite being translated from English it was easily adapted to the context and provided information about schools involved in IE reform. The findings from this study have implications for both the design and in thinking about who best to involve in future IE initiatives. Leaders and leadership practices are critical if the goals of EFA are to be successfully achieved in Bangladesh by the 2015.

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Appendix

Social Network Survey (SNS)

Student Learning in Mathematics

1. From whom have you received advice or information about *student learning in Mathematics*?

Name	Position
◦	
◦	
◦	
◦	
◦	
◦	

2. How often you ask for advice or information?

Name	Daily or Almost Daily	Once or Twice Per Week	Once or Twice Per Month	A Few Times Per Year
◦	☐	☐	☐	☐
◦	☐	☐	☐	☐
◦	☐	☐	☐	☐
◦	☐	☐	☐	☐
◦	☐	☐	☐	☐
◦	☐	☐	☐	☐

3. Please check the boxes that accurately describe the type of advice or information you seek from each person listed above (select all that apply)

Name	Deepening Your Content Knowledge	Planning or Selecting Course Content & Materials	Approaches for Teaching Content to Students	Strategies Specially to Assist Low-Performing Students	Supporting Students to Build Concept about Subject Matter	Others (Please Specify)
◦	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
◦	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
◦	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
◦	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
◦	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
◦	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

4. Please check the boxes that describe how influential each person listed above is on your work

Name	Very Influential				Not at All Influential
◦	5	4	3	2	1
◦	5	4	3	2	1
◦	5	4	3	2	1
◦	5	4	3	2	1
◦	5	4	3	2	1
◦	5	4	3	2	1

About the Authors

Jahirul Mullick

Jahirul Mullick is a full-time PhD Researcher at Faculty of Education (Clayton), Monash University. His area of research is leadership practice for inclusive education at primary education in Bangladesh. He did his Bachelor of Education (BEd) in science education and Master of Education (MEd) in educational evaluation and research from Institute of Education and Research, University of Dhaka, Bangladesh. Before starting his PhD study, he was working at Institute of Educational Development, BRAC University. He was involved with teacher and school leaders' development programs named Certificate in Education, Post Graduate Diploma in Education and Master of Education. He started his career as an education researcher and was involved with several research projects in Bangladesh.

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Assoc. Prof. Joanne Deppeler
Monash University, Australia

Dr. Umesh Sharma
Monash Univeristy, Australia

It was argued in the literature that, despite a hierarchical management structure, individuals who are not in formal leadership positions can also inspire and influence the activities of others in a distributed perspective on leadership (Spillane, 2006). The findings presented in *Manuscript 2* confirmed that teachers, other than those in formal position of authority, were identified as providing important support and inspiring and influencing practices of other teachers in relation to main curricular domains (e.g., Language, Mathematics, and Science). Ali (2011) and Salahuddin (2012) identified similar findings at the secondary level of education in Bangladesh, that democratic leadership practices might exist even in hierarchical bureaucratic leadership structure. This finding supports the earlier argument by Elmore (2000) that,

> ... most of the knowledge required for improvement must inevitably reside in the people who deliver instruction, not in the people who manage them. Control implies that the controller knows exactly what the controlee (if you will) should do, whereas guidance and direction imply some degree of shared expertise and some degree of difference in the level and kind of expertise among individuals (p. 14).

While the current study was conducted in a South Asian[3] context, it supported the finding of previous studies (Camburn, Rowan, & Taylor, 2003; Jaimes, 2009;

[3] Countries located in the Southern part of Asia which support strong family loyalty and concerned for their communities are considered as the Southern Asia context, for instance, Philippines, Indonesia, Malaysia, India, Thailand and Iran (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta, 2004).

Spillane et al., 2008) conducted in the Anglo[4] regional context, that individuals without formal leadership positions can be involved in leadership activities. In addition, the findings reported in this manuscript supported the theoretical claims of Spillane (2006) that, in a distributed perspective, "...leadership can be either transformational or transactional" (p. 24) and recognises others without leadership positions "...as key players in leadership practice either by design or by default" (p. 25).

Chapter Summary

The manuscript presented in this chapter viewed leadership as shared actions and interactions of all members of the school community and confirmed that distributed perspective on leadership is a compelling lens which can bring people without formal leadership position and their leadership activities into focus. However, a number of concerns were raised in *Manuscript 2* including: a) why parents have limited participation and students were not even considered in leadership practices, and b) what makes the government's education officer imperative in exerting influence on teachers. These practices are not conducive to IE reform and distributed leadership practices because distributed leadership practices demand involvement of all the members of a school community in leadership functions and do not expect outside forces to be in authoritative positions. The next chapter presents the findings that investigated the reasons behind the limited or no participation of parents and students in leadership practices and the authoritative presence of the government's education officer in school

[4] Previous British colonial countries, where English is the dominant language, are considered as in the Anglo region, for instances Canada, the United States, Australia, Ireland, England, South Africa (white sample) and New Zealand (House et al., 2004).

activities. It also presents challenges faced by the school leaders and possible strategies to address these challenges as they related to implementing IE reform in primary schools in Bangladesh.

Schools will continue to face increased demands for greater accountability for some time to come. Thus, learning more about what this means for school leadership seems, in its own right, to be an important challenge. (Leithwood, 2001, 231)

CHAPTER 6

Accountability Practice and Leadership Challenges

Introduction

Accountability approaches employed by the education system are important to understand the leadership practices in schools because, due to different accountability approaches, leadership practices acquire different structures. According to Leithwood (2001), accountability approaches can be divided into four categories including: market approach, decentralization approach, professional approach and management approach. Chapter 6 presents *Manuscript 3,* titled 'Accountability and Leadership Practices in Bangladeshi Schools: A Supportive Approach for Implementing Inclusive Education Policy?', that examined the accountability approach employed by ten Bangladeshi primary schools. This manuscript discusses findings from phase-II of this study. School leaders identified by Social Network Survey (Chapter 5) were interviewed to examine the accountability approach.

Chapter 6 also presents *Manuscript 4*, 'Inclusive education reform in primary school of Bangladesh: Leadership challenges and possible strategies to address the challenges', that summarises a number of challenges for school leaders and suggests possible solutions to address these issues affecting implementation of IE reform. As leadership has a vital influence on educational change and reform (Fullan, 2005), the challenges and possible solutions were investigated from a leadership perspective.

Manuscript 3: Accountability and Leadership Practices in Bangladeshi Schools: A Supportive Approach for Implementing Inclusive Education Policy?

Declaration for Publication

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Declaration by candidate

The nature and extent of my contribution to the work was the following:

Nature of contribution	**Extent of contribution (%)**
Initiation of publication, instigator of ideas, conducted literature review, collected and analysed data, prepared the draft manuscript, incorporated other authors' comments in final manuscript, prepared and submitted for publication	80%

The following co-author contributed to the work:

Name	**Nature of contribution**
Joanne Deppeler	Feedback on draft manuscript

Candidate's Signature	[redacted]	**Date: 17 July 2013**

Declaration by co-author

The undersigned hereby certify that:

(1) the above declaration correctly reflects the nature and extent of the candidate's contribution to this work, and the nature of the contribution of each of the co-authors;

(2) they meet the criteria for authorship in that they have participated in the conception, execution, or interpretation, of at least that part of the publication in their field of expertise;

(3) they take public responsibility for their part of the publication, except for the responsible author who accepts overall responsibility for the publication;

(4) there are no other authors of the publication according to these criteria;

(5) potential conflicts of interest have been disclosed to (a) granting bodies, (b) the editor or publisher of journals or other publications, and (c) the head of the responsible academic unit; and

(6) the original data are stored at the following location(s) and will be held for at least five years from the date indicated below:

Location(s)	Faculty of Education, Monash University (Clayton campus)
Signa [redacted]	**Date:** 22/07/13

Accountability and Leadership Practices in Bangladeshi Schools: A Supportive Approach for Implementing Inclusive Education Policy?

Jahirul Mullick, Monash University, Victoria, Australia
Joanne M. Deppeler, Monash University, Victoria, Australia

Abstract: An accountability approach influences the way in which school leadership is practiced (Leithwood, 2001). A managerial approach to accountability is one which makes leadership practices to follow hierarchical system control (Møller, 2009). Market approach and decentralization approach to accountability respectively increases competition among schools for students and encourages the participation of parents and other community members in school governance structure. Professional approach to accountability emphasises on creating professional learning community (PLC) and distributes leadership to teachers empowering them in decision making (Leithwood, 2005). This paper reports on a study that examined the accountability approach and leadership practices in ten primary schools of Bangladesh that were involved in an inclusive education reform. Interview method was applied to collect data from formal and informal school leaders. Bangladeshi schools primarily use a managerial approach to accountability which makes the leaders of the school to be adherent to rules and accountable to the bureaucratic system. There was evidence of leaders who felt powerless because of the top-down management control system.

Keywords: Leadership Practices, Accountability Approaches, Inclusive Education, Collaboration, Decentralization

Introduction

INCLUSIVE EDUCATION REFORM initiatives in Bangladesh aspire to achieve the equitable access and quality education for *all* students employing frameworks in primary education that prioritise issues related to disadvantages arising from gender, socioeconomic background, ethnicity and special needs (Nasreen & Tate, 2007). These prioritised areas reflect the enormity of the key challenges Bangladesh is facing in inclusive education reform. Recent studies have reported that more than one and half million children (9.2% of the total child population) remain out of school (Directorate of Primary Education [DPE], 2009), and only 50% of the enrolled students can successfully complete the five-year primary education (Nath & Chowdhury, 2009).

Leadership practice has been identified as lever for change to include diverse learners in regular school (Ainscow & Sandill, 2010; Macmillan & Edmunds, 2010). It is also evident from research that school improvement and change are enhanced when leadership takes broad-based approach and teachers, parents and students have opportunities to collaborate and actively take part in reform activities (Fullan, 2006; Murphy & Datnow, 2003). Ryan (2006) supports a decentralization approach and suggests that successful implementation of inclusive education in regular school demands leadership practice to emulate cooperative

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processes which provides a fair chance to all members of the school to influence decisions, practices and policies. Accountability of school is also considered as an integral part of school reform (Leithwood, 2005). There is wide agreement that while accountability is used as a lever for school reform it has a direct influence on leadership practices in school and with different accountability approaches having different effects on leadership practices (Leithwood, 2001, 2005; Leithwood, Steinbach, & Jantzi, 2002).

The purpose of this paper is to report on a study that explored the leadership practices in relation to accountability approach in Bangladesh. It aims to answer the following questions related to primary school in Bangladesh: a) which accountability approach is adopted?, b) what are the practices of leadership in relation to the existing accountability approach?, and c) is the existing accountability approach conducive to inclusive education?. This paper sheds light on the current accountability system and the leadership practices in primary schools of Bangladesh and the suitability of the leadership practices in facilitating inclusive education in schools.

Accountability Approaches

Accountability, in general, means reporting to other people for one's action. It can be defined with the following example–X is accountable to Y when X poses sanction against Y (Kogan, 1986) or in other words X is accountable to Y when X is compelled to inform Y about his or her actions to justify them and to suffer punishment for misconduct (Schedler, 1999). There are a number of different approaches to accountability. In school, there is no single model of accountability to ensure quality of education for *all* students through actions of education reform. Anderson (2005) identified three types of accountability that encompassed (a) compliance with regulations, (b) adherence to professional norms, and (c) results driven. Similarly, Møller (2009) identified five forms of accountability which included political, public, managerial, professional and personal. Leithwood's (2001) conceptualization combines aspects of all these models and uses a four-fold classification approach to educational accountability including: *Market approach, decentralization approach, professional approach, and management approach.* This four-fold approach to educational accountability is used to frame this paper. The following section describes school leadership practices in relation to each of the four approaches (See Table 1 for summary).

A *Market approach* to accountability supports the privatization of schools and allows school choice by opening boundaries for parents and students so that they, as client, can select school with which they are satisfied (Leithwood, 2001). Under this approach, the market plays a role in making schools offer programs which are good for their 'clients'. Thus if any school fails to meet child's educational needs they may risk losing clients who leave to find an alternative school. This accountability approach increases competition among schools for students (Leithwood, 2005). A market approach to accountability results in leadership practices that reflect the following: create marketable product, develop good customer relations, respond to quickly changing market conditions, clarify mission, and allow considerable variation among leaders (Leithwood, 2001).

A *Decentralization approach* to accountability supports increasing the voice of those who are heard least, for instance parents and other members of the local community (Suzuki, 2002), in school governance (Leithwood, 2005). Their participation in decision making, policy development and influencing practices at school level encourages site-based manage-

ment. The system empowers parents and other community members to make decisions on behalf of students and the school; encourages sharing of power and distribution of leadership, and skilled resource management in a decentralization approach (Leithwood, 2001).

A *Professional approach* to accountability has two dimensions. The first is a professional control model, emphasising the creation of a professional learning communities (PLC) and distributes leadership to teachers empowering them in decision making (Leithwood, 2001). The second is a professional standard model, emphasising clear standards of professional knowledge, skill, and performance. Professional standards play the role during the entry to profession (e.g. teacher or head teacher) and subsequently monitoring the compliance by the member of the profession (e.g. teacher associations) (Leithwood, 2005). Møller (2009) explains:

> Codes of ethics have for instance become a familiar part of the rhetoric of professional control of the work in schools, even though the influence of these codes is uncertain. Professional accountability implies that teachers acquire and apply the knowledge and skills needed for successful practice. In addition, it involves the norms of putting the needs of the students at the centre of their work, collaborating and sharing of knowledge, and a commitment to the improvement of practice (p. 40)

In a professional approach leadership practices include: creating professional learning community, distributing leadership amongst the school community, identifying best practices, assisting staff in identifying appropriate standards for their work, setting expectations and monitoring progress (Leithwood, 2001).

A *Management approach* to accountability refers to a hierarchical system of control (Møller, 2009) that focuses on systematic efforts to create more competent, goal-oriented, and effective schools (Leithwood, 2001). Student learning and achievement with careful monitoring of both teaching and progress of students are the key indicators of accountability. Møller (2009) argues that,

> When people talk about holding schools accountable for results, the dominating discourse across the world tends to be related to managerial accountability... It means that schools are held accountable for generating improvement in student learning outcomes, and is based on a view that school will do better if they are given clear information about their performance on national tests (p. 40)

In this approach to accountability leadership practices include: strategic management, systematic data collection and analysis, and planning processes.

Table 1: Accountability Approaches and Leadership Practices (Adapted from Leithwood, 2001)

Market Approach	Decentralization Approach	Professional Approach	Management Approach
◦ Create marketable product ◦ Develop good customer relations ◦ Respond to quickly changing market conditions ◦ Clarify mission ◦ Allow considerable variation among leaders	◦ Empower parents and other community members to make wise decisions on behalf of students and school ◦ Encourage sharing of power and distribution of leadership ◦ Skilled resource management	◦ Create professional learning communities ◦ Distribute leadership to staff ◦ Know about best professional practices ◦ Assist staff in identifying appropriate standards for their work ◦ Set expectations and monitor progress	◦ Strategic management ◦ Skilled in collecting and interpreting systematically collected data ◦ Manage planning processes

Inclusive education reform demands participation of all members of school community in collaborative practice, collective decision-making and problem-solving (Ainscow & Sandill, 2010; Harris, 2003, Rayn, 2006). Leadership practices in the decentralization approach and professional approach to accountability are consistent with the expectations of inclusive education reform. Both these approaches advocate for the distribution of leadership. Moreover, the professional accountability system allows school leaders to be imaginative in their approaches for school improvement and support risk-taking (Møller, 2009). Innovation, risk-taking and involvement of parents and communities in decision making are critical for addressing the challenges related to implementation of inclusive education in school. Combining the decentralization approach and professional approach to accountability Bryk, Sebring, Kerbow, Rollow, and Easton, (1998) argued that, "the ultimate aim is a stronger base of professional norms of practice for educating all children well, coupled with supportive parent and community involvement toward the same ends" (p. 280).

The success of inclusive education reform is more likely to be influenced by the accountability approach adopted and the associated leadership practices. Therefore, the aim of the following study was to examine the accountability approach and leadership practices in primary schools of Bangladesh that were involved in an inclusive education reform.

Methodology

Participants

The participants of this study were school leaders from ten government-funded regular primary schools of one sub-district of Bangladesh that are involved in an inclusive education reform initiative–the 'PEDP-II Innovation Grant'. Among the ten schools seven were Gov-

ernment Primary Schools (GPSs) and three were Registered Non-Government Primary Schools (RNGPSs). The participating schools of the study were selected purposively to ensure the representation of schools with male and female head teachers, schools in urban, sub-urban and rural locations, and schools that have been graded by the district education office at low, medium and high levels of performance. Social Network Survey (SNS) was applied to identify the school leaders. SNS was adapted from the SSSNQ (School Staff Social Network Questionnaire) developed by Pitts and Spillane (2009). Forty four nominated leaders were identified through the SNS process and they were approached to take part in interview method. Twenty one participants admitted to take part in the study that included head teachers (ten), teachers (six), former head teacher (one), members of School Management Committee (two) and sub-district education officers (two).

Data Collection

The data collection was carried out applying interview method with a semi-structured interview protocol. The protocol was finalized following a number of steps which included adapting a draft protocol from 'leadership practices of successful leaders' identified by Leithwood, Day, Sammons, Harris and Hopkins (2006), sending the protocol to relevant experts (one academic person and an education practitioner) for reviewing, doing necessary alterations, and pilot testing. The protocol was pilot tested involving three school leaders, who were not be in the final sample list. After revision based on the results of the piloting, the protocol was finalized for data generation. Interview method with semi-structured protocol was considered appropriate because it supported the interviewer to 'probe the interviewee for clarity or for more detailed information when needed' (Johnson & Turner, 2003, p.305). The protocol was used to guide the conversation for the specific purpose but the process was flexible and allow the researcher to change the sequence and rephrase the words where necessary in order to maintain the intended focus (Johnson & Christensen, 2008; Patton, 2002). The interview sessions took place at participating schools at a time suitable to the participants with assurance of confidentiality. Each interview was audio recorded and lasted for 45 to 70 minutes. The interviews were conducted in Bangla by the first author, whose first language is Bangla.

Analysis

The audio recorded interviews were transcribed and shared with the participants. Necessary changes were made in the verbatim according to their suggestions, and after finalization the first author translated the transcripts into English. Transcriptions were first reviewed to get overall sense of response of each participant and then specific text segments related to objectives of the study were identified. Employing inductive (or emerging) coding process (Creswell & Clark, 2007; Thomas, 2006) codes were developed from the meaningful units collected from the interviews. Initially, the first author developed the major categories based on the sample of transcripts. To ensure reliability of inter-coding the first and second author compared the completed categories. The outcome was compared and little modifications were required.

Findings

The findings of this study are presented under three themes to characterize leadership practices that include teachers as democratic professional or bureaucratic subordinates, teachers as policy makers or policy implementers and community members as actors or observers in school governance. The nature of leadership practices support to identify which approach to accountability is in place at the primary school system in Bangladesh

Teachers as Democratic Professionals or Bureaucratic Subordinates?

All the school leaders reported that they felt powerless, as they could not bring any changes in practice of their schools without the approval of the education office. They expressed that the current system suggests them to follow the instruction given by the central management to plan all the activities for the school. They also believe that if they want to do something new or change any designed activities departmental disciplinary action might have been taken against them. A school leader with resentment stated:

> ...action would be taken against me. Why did you violate the order of the department [central management]... it is not possible. If the department orders to walk like a blind, then I have to. I know my condition... [*Head teacher, School Seven*]

A good number of school leaders also described that head teacher of each school receives briefing from sub-district education office every month in a meeting known as *cluster meeting* or *coordination meeting*. The meeting disseminates recent decisions and office orders from DPE and upcoming activities of the school. Describing the process of decision and information dissemination through coordination meeting a school leader said:

> We have a monthly coordination meeting at sub-district level each month. Similar meeting is also held at district and directorate level. District level meeting is organized just before our meeting schedule and directorate level meeting is arranged 2/3 days before the district level meeting. Following this path the decision and latest information come to us from DPE. [*Head teacher, School Ten*]

Each of the school leaders mentioned that the professional development of the teachers is entirely depends on the decision of the central system. They select the topic, design the course curriculum and then invite the teachers to take part in professional development activities. The involvement of school leaders are ensured through the process of identifying interested teachers from their own school.

Teachers as Policy Makers or Policy Implementers?

Participation of members of the school community in policy making is not the usual practice in primary education system in Bangladesh. All the school leaders mentioned that they are not the part of the policy making, as most of the policies are developed at the top level of the system, Directorate of Primary Education (DPE), and come to them through the district and sub-district education office. Many of the school leaders believe that school as an organization is accountable to the sub-district education office, the immediate upper tier of primary

schools. Sub-district education office guides the schools to prepare annual plan, since they play the role of approving authority of the annual plan of school activities. Describing the practice of preparing the annual plan of her school a school leader noted:

> An official instruction is there [for the school] from the education office [Sub-district education office] regarding preparing the annual plan...the instructions are–this or that event has to be done like this. A list or demo of activities is given to follow and we follow that... [*Assistant teacher, School Ten*]

All the school leaders described that the planning process is similar in every school. Firstly, the school receives a list of activities with some guidelines from the sub-district education office. Then head teacher calls a staff meeting and decide how to execute the premeditated activities. Head teacher, who is the member secretary of the SMC, presents the plan and details of the activities with tentative dates to the other members of the SMC. Finally, the detail plan with the signature of both head teacher and chairperson of the SMC is submitted to the sub-district education office for approval. Seventeen out of twenty one school leaders expressed that Upazila Education Officer (UEO) and Assistant Upazila Education Officer (AUEO) monitor the implementation of the planned activities; particularly AUEOs are assigned to monitor the progress regularly.

Community Members as Actors or Observers in School Governance?

All the school leaders confirmed that community members including parents and local leaders have opportunities to govern the school through their membership and involvement in SMC and PTA's activities. Despite community members involvement in SMC and PTA events, many school leaders believe that they are not empowered enough and they do not have adequate freedom to design the school activities and make decisions. One school leader described the existing practice with this example:

> Government schools are not allowed to go for picnic [yearly outing], but the kindergarten schools [private schools] are going... we cannot. The reason behind this is money. The education officers always say that you must not collect money from the students or from their guardians. They convey this message assertively... If we could take the students to picnics, they would be encouraged, and because of the picnics, annual milads [yearly religious prayer and get-together], or annual sports competition the students would be attracted to school... I think we need these activities, but the government [primary education management system] always put obstacles there [prohibit to take money from parents]. [*Chairperson of SMC, School Nine*]

Every school leader also reported that they are not engaged in recruiting teachers. DPE is solely responsible to appoint teachers and give the placement to schools. The only initiative the school leaders can take is they can report to the sub-district education office about their need following the regulation of the DPE. Based on the requisitions received from all over Bangladesh DPE would take steps to appoint teachers through district and sub-district education office. All the school leaders expressed that primary schools are not permitted to appoint any staff for their schools. One member of a SMC explained it like this:

> We [SMC] do not have any authority to recruit teachers. If anybody [any school] wants he can, but that has to be a voluntary service. However, we cannot recruit. We don't because ... we should give them something [remunerations]. But we don't have anything [fund] to give them. So, if they [voluntary teachers] expect money, what can we do?... we are helpless. [*Chairperson of SMC, School Two*]

Fifteen out of twenty leaders stated that government had introduced School Level Improvement Plan (SLIP) in primary school to empower the school community. Due to the SLIP school community can take decision for the school improvement which is appreciated by most of the school leaders. A school leader described the SLIP as a great opportunity, he said:

> Primary school was always considered as the government stuff, now the local people [school community] are getting the impression that the school is their own. A feeling of ownership is growing gradually and they become very caring for their school... that was absent before the introduction of SLIP. [*Sub-district Education Officer*]

Some of the school leaders described that in spite of the opportunity SLIP has created for school community to contribute in decision making, the control over the school activities are still exhibited by education office. Describing the process of SLIP activities some school leaders mentioned that the improvement plan developed by SLIP needs to submit to sub-district education office for their final approval which is clear indication of controlling.

Discussion and Conclusion

The findings about the nature of the leadership practice made it clear that the management approach to accountability is predominating in government-funded primary schools in Bangladesh. This hierarchical system of control maintains DPE at the top and school at the bottom for decision-making which made schools accountable to the government system not to the market, community or to professional norms. This process can be summarised diagrammatically by Figure 1.

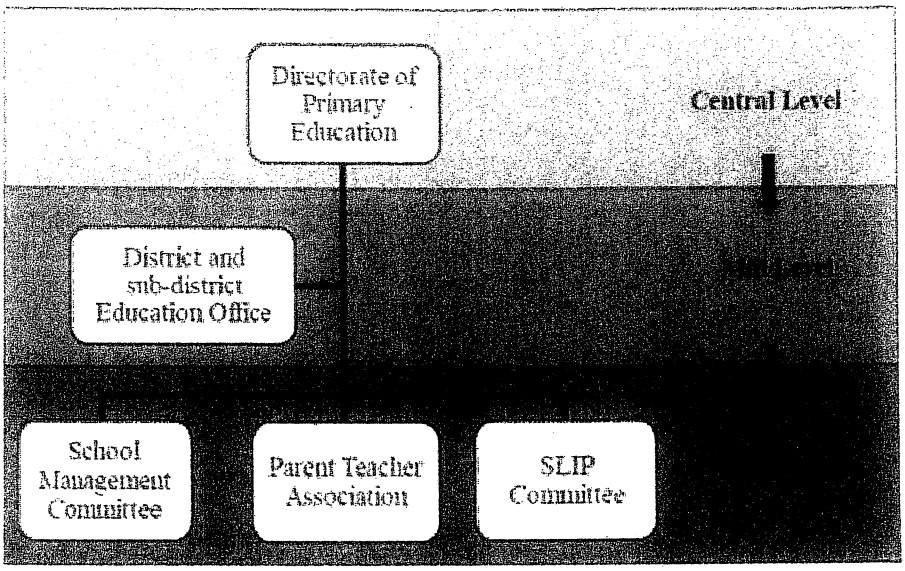

Figure 1: Hierarchical Control Process in Primary Education

The process begins with the policy decisions and point to point guidelines about school activities at DPE, central level. Through Division, District and Sub-district Education Office, which is the second tier of the managerial system (mid level), the decisions and guidelines come to school to be executed. SMC, PTA and SLIP committee usually take part in improving and designing school activities observing the boundary set by the central system. The findings about the leadership practice also made it clear that sometimes parents and community are involved to monitor the implementation of the policies and guidelines with limited or no voice.

Appointing teachers, their professional development, academic supervision, policy making and full financial support to school make school accountable to bureaucratic system. For instance, since the appointment of teachers and their professional development are monitored by government they, certainly, are accountable to the government system not to the school community. The engagement of parents and the community in appointing and supervising the professional development of the teachers could make teachers accountable to the community. In this case introduction of decentralization approach to accountability is very much relevant. Anderson (2005) explained that parents should have responsibility in decision making for their children, advocating for their children, and supporting constructive changes in the educational system, both locally and others.

A recent education policy document named 'National Education Policy 2010' also emphasized on the need to ensure participation of parents and members of the community in school development activities. It admitted to form active Parent-Teacher Association (PTA) and empower the School Management Committee (SMC) to improve quality of education for all. School Management Committee (SMC) and Parent-Teacher Association (PTA) are not new for primary schools in Bangladesh. The SMC were made responsible from mid 2008 to support all the school activities including full access of all to, and completion of, primary education. It encourages teacher leadership and community leadership to work together for

the successful implementation of the EFA goals through inclusive education. Nevertheless, new education policy still supports district sub-district education office to be responsible for academic supervision and monitoring of school activities (Ministry of Education [MOE], 2010). It indicates that Bangladesh wants to follow combined approach to accountability maintaining management approach to accountability in the centre.

The findings about the development of SLIP indicated that at school level to some extent democratic practices are present, but the position of education office (district and sub-district level) in development of SLIP is entirely authoritative. It is acceptable that education offices are taking part in the development process of SLIP, rather performing as approving agency. Involvement of education office as member in SLIP will, definitely, provide the sense of empowerment and ownership to parents and other members of school community. In addition, government-funded primary schools are not in competition in terms of attracting students and growth of the schools, because each school has their own catchment area (Mazumder & Halim, 2006) and teachers are instructed to enrol students from their respective areas. The school choice system that existed in the USA (Jennings, 2010) is absent in Bangladesh and it prevents Bangladeshi parents to get limited or no option to choice schools for their children. The students' learning achievement figures, therefore, could not play any significant role to make school accountable to market. Nevertheless, primary education cycle ending exam know as *terminal examination* has been introduced in 2006 (Directorate of Primary Education [DPE], 2009) and it becomes the indicator of students' learning achievement that could play a vital role to make schools accountable to public. Again, in absence of the school choice system the examination results are not utilized to compare performance of schools, which can lead to make the market approach to accountability active. However, the student achievement plays the role for both mid and central level to poses sanction against school.

Single accountability approach is not satisfactory to achieve the desired goal of ensuring quality education for *all*. Schools often find themselves responding to all the categories of accountability systems (Anderson, 2005) and take the challenge to balance the requirements of each of the model. However, the prime focus needs to be the decentralization and professional approach to accountability. Supporting decentralization approach Mujeri (2010) argued that,

> ...to shift the focus of management control closer to the communities and adjust available resources to local needs and priorities...is necessary to introduce changes in the existing methods to (i) transfer the real authority of school management to the SMCs or local school boards; and (ii) ensure that such units are representative of the local communities in a 'genuine' sense with real participation of the parents, women, the poor and disadvantaged groups, and other stakeholders (p. 186).

Bangladesh has Primary Teacher Training Institute (PTI) in almost all districts and government-funded primary school teachers are obliged to receive their professional degree from PTI (Mullick & Sheesh, 2008). These training institutes, mainly government funded, can take initiative to promote professional standards to ensure inclusive education. Professional association of teachers are also need to be invited to take part in implementation of professional approach to accountability for facilitating inclusive education. Current conditions in Bangladesh do not support a market approach to accountability, because there are very limited numbers of schools in rural and suburban areas. Therefore, competition among schools for

students might not go as planned. Moreover, market approaches to accountability usually are highly inequitable (Lauder & Hughes, 1999) and it fails to ensure access for children from diverse and disadvantaged groups.

In conclusion, this paper has discussed the approaches of accountability and their links with leadership practices and inclusive education. Evidence gathered from leaders indicates that the current management approach to accountability in Bangladesh does not allow the freedom to innovate and develop practices necessary for reforming schools for inclusive education. Alternatively, a professional approach to accountability pays attention to teachers and practices, and upholds collective responsibility for achievement of *all* students. It is important to consider that there may be benefits to the management approach to accountability in Bangladesh because of the autocratic nature of the current operating system. However, it is strongly suggested that both the decentralization and professional approaches be added to enhance the inclusive education reform process. The new education policy of Bangladesh confirmed that they are keen to combine the management and decentralization approach to accountability, but a professional approach was not given any consideration. Without these additional approaches it is unlikely that Bangladesh will achieve the goals set out in inclusive agenda.

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Appendix

Interview Protocol

1. How does your school set direction of the school?

- Building a shared vision
- Fostering the acceptance of group goals
- High performance expectations for all

2. How does your school support professional development of the school?

- Providing individualized support/consideration
- Intellectual stimulation
- Providing an appropriate model

3. How does your school design school organization?

- Building collaborative cultures
- Restructuring
- Building productive relationships with families and communities
- Connecting the school to its' wider environment

4. How does your school supervise teaching learning of the school?

- Staffing the programme
- Providing instructional (teaching and learning) support
- Monitoring school activity
- Buffering staff from distractions to their work

About the Authors

Jahirul Mullick
Jahirul Mullick is full time PhD Researcher at Faculty of Education, Monash University. His area of research is leadership practice for inclusive education at primary schools in Bangladesh. He did his Bachelor of Education (BEd) in science education and Master of Education (MEd) in educational evaluation and research from Institute of Education and Research, University of Dhaka, Bangladesh. Before starting PhD study he was working at Institute of Educational Development, BRAC University. He was involved with teacher and school leaders' development programs named Certificate in Education, Post Graduate Diploma in Education and Master of Education.

A/Prof. Joanne M. Deppeler
Joanne Deppeler is Associate Professor at Faculty of Education, Monash University in Australia. Now she is Associate Dean of Research Degrees. She was co-investigator on several international research projects and chief investigator on Australian research projects focused on inclusive education in primary and secondary schools including an ARC-Linkage project. Her publications include numerous journal articles, book chapters and authored book on inclusive education. She is chair of the International Inclusive Education Research Panel, and member editorial board of international Journal of Inclusive education and the International Journal of Whole Schooling. Her research interests focus on the improvement of inclusive practices in schools and the professional learning of psychologists and teachers to support school improvement.

The finding presented in *Manuscript 3* is consistent with previous research on leadership culture (House et al., 2004) which explained that, in 'South Asia', participative leadership is considered ineffective and leaders with some autocratic characteristics are identified as effective leaders (House et al., 2004). Studies conducted in secondary education in Bangladesh (Ali, 2011; Salahuddin, 2012) also support the argument explained in *Manuscript 3* that a hierarchical system of control is the major leadership practice in Bangladesh. Managerial accountability approach, which is responsible for the hierarchical leadership practices, restrains participation of members of the school community in the decision making process. Due to this managerial accountability system, parents and students have limited access to effective participation and are not actively engaged in schooling. This managerial approach of accountability is inconsistent with the principles of a democratic perspective of distributed leadership and IE values.

As the current accountability approach in primary schools in Bangladesh is not consistent with the characteristics of IE, it raises two questions: a) how do school leaders see the challenges related to implementation of IE reform; and b) what do they consider to be effective strategies to address the identified challenges? *Manuscript 4* presents the findings that resulted from these questions.

Manuscript 4: Inclusive Education Reform in Primary School of Bangladesh: Leadership Challenges and Possible Strategies to Address the Challenges

Declaration for Publication

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Declaration by candidate

The nature and extent of my contribution to the work was the following:

Nature of contribution	**Extent of contribution (%)**
Initiation of publication, instigator of ideas, conducted literature review, collected and analysed data, prepared the draft manuscript, incorporated other authors' comments in final manuscript, prepared and submitted for publication	80%

The following co-authors contributed to the work:

Name	**Nature of contribution**
Joanne Deppeler	Feedback on draft manuscript
Umesh Sharma	Feedback on draft manuscript

Candidate's Signature	[redacted]	**Date: 17 July 2013**

Declaration by co-authors

The undersigned hereby certify that:

(1) the above declaration correctly reflects the nature and extent of the candidate's contribution to this work, and the nature of the contribution of each of the co-authors;

(2) they meet the criteria for authorship in that they have participated in the conception, execution, or interpretation, of at least that part of the publication in their field of expertise;

(3) they take public responsibility for their part of the publication, except for the responsible author who accepts overall responsibility for the publication;

(4) there are no other authors of the publication according to these criteria;

(5) potential conflicts of interest have been disclosed to (a) granting bodies, (b) the editor or publisher of journals or other publications, and (c) the head of the responsible academic unit; and

(6) the original data are stored at the following location(s) and will be held for at least five years from the date indicated below:

Location(s)	Faculty of Education, Monash University (Clayton campus)

Sig [redacted]	**Date:** 22/07/13
Sig [redacted]	**Date:** 22/07/13

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INCLUSIVE EDUCATION REFORM IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS OF BANGLADESH: LEADERSHIP CHALLENGES AND POSSIBLE STRATEGIES TO ADDRESS THE CHALLENGES

Jahirul Mullick
Monash University, Australia

Joanne Deppeler
Monash University, Australia

Umesh Sharma
Monash University, Australia

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Abstract

Inclusive education (IE) is at an early stage of development in Bangladesh. In response to international policies and declarations over the past two decades (UNESCO, 1990; UNSCO, 1994, UNESCO, 2000) IE reform in Bangladesh has enacted a number of national policies and developed several professional development initiatives. This paper reports on the challenges identified by school leaders in attempting to implement IE policies in ten regular primary schools in Bangladesh. Interview data were collected from teachers, head teachers, members of school management committees and sub-district education officers. Data were analyzed using a general inductive thematic analysis procedure. The challenges identified by the participants included lack of authority, students' lack of acceptance, non-supportive views of parents and community, teachers' resistance, limited professional development, limited resources, and physical environment. School leaders also suggested strategies to address the identified challenges that included making local authority active, increasing resources and valuing diversity.

Keywords: leadership challenge, representation, collaboration, distributed leadership, inclusive education (IE)

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Introduction

The intent of Inclusive education (IE) policy is to address and to respond equitably and appropriately to the diverse needs of *all* children irrespective of disability, gender, ethnicity or other disadvantages (Ainscow, Booth, & Dyson, 2006; Booth & Ainscow, 1998). It refers to a continuous process that is concerned with the identification and removal of barriers. It also focuses on presence, participation and achievement of all students with a particular emphasis on those groups of learners who may be at risk of marginalization, exclusion or underachievement (UNESCO, 2005). IE is at an early stage of development in Bangladesh. International policies and declarations such as the *World Declaration on Education for All* (UNESCO, 1990), *Salamanca Statement and Framework of Action* (UNSCO, 1994) *and Dakar Framework for Action* (UNESCO, 2000) have provided the impetus for national initiatives for IE in Bangladesh.

Over the past two decades, in response to international policies and declarations IE reform in Bangladesh has enacted a number of national acts and policies, and developed several action plans. The *National Plan of Action Phase II* (NPA II) is an important strategy in primary education. It emphasized that *all* primary school-aged children, including those from different ethnic groups, socio-economically disadvantaged and those with a disability, should attend and successfully complete the primary school (Ministry of Primary and Mass Education [MOPME], 2003). The NPA II was extended through the *Second Primary Education Development Programme* (PEDP II) with the overall goal of providing 'quality' education accessible to *all* children of primary school age (Nasreen & Tate, 2007). More specifically, PEDP II has targeted the educational needs of four groups who are considered 'at risk' of exclusion because of gender, special needs, ethnicity and socio-economic disadvantages (Nasreen & Tate, 2007).

While commitment to the ideal of achieving 'education for all' is an evident feature of policy the reality of achieving IE reform remains a challenge. There is evidence that the current practices of IE in primary schools are qualitatively different to the goals set out in IE policy (Sarker & Davey, 2007). More than one and half million children (9.2% of the total child population) in the groups targeted by IE policy are reported to remain out of school (Directorate of Primary Education [DPE], 2009). Further, only 50% of the enrolled students are reported to complete the 5 years of primary schooling (Nath & Chowdhury, 2009). If Bangladesh's efforts to make IE are to become a reality, it will need to identify and challenge exclusion at a national level and in the local social contexts in which it occurs (Armstrong, Armstrong & Spandagou, 2011).

Developing IE

The "democratic processes of representation and collaboration are essential for understanding and incorporating diverse perspectives" and for actively involving teachers, parent, students and others in the inclusive school community in finding solutions to the unique challenges of their context (Loreman, Deppeler, & Harvey, 2010, p.87). Representation and collaboration are practiced through professional learning communities (PLCs) which involve shared responsibilities, understandings and decision making, and genuine collaboration focused on quality teaching and learning to achieve what cannot be accomplished alone (DuFour, DuFour, & Eaker, 2009; Dufour, Eaker, & Dufour, 2006; Harris, 2003). The broad philosophy of PLCs is that all members of the school community (e.g. teachers, students, families and members of the local community) work together and

make decision to achieve the goals they have identified for themselves (Stoll, Bolam, McMahon, Thomas, Wallace, Greenwod, & Hawkey, 2006).

Building PLCs requires "forms of leadership that support and nourish meaningful collaboration among teachers" (Harris, 2003, p.322). Distributed leadership is relevant in this context because it recognizes that every individual in one way or another is able to demonstrate leadership and acknowledges both formal and functional leadership in a school (Spillane, 2006; Spillane, Halverson, & Diamond, 2001). Research has confirmed that along with positional leaders, others without formal positions of authority (e.g. teachers, parents and members of the local community) can actively share leadership practices (Mullick, Deppeler, & Sharma, in press; Spillane, Camburn, Pustejovsky, Pareja, & Lewis, 2008).

Distributed leadership and collaborative practices in PLCs are not possible in a managerial accountability system. The managerial system employs a hierarchical structure where responsibilities are assigned solely to those in supervising authority. It has been argued that to meet the challenges of IE , the hierarchical model be replaced with forms of leadership where responsibilities are shared (Ainscow & Miles, 2008) and with a *professional accountability system* in which a community of professionals share the responsibilities for maintaining the standards of the profession (Møller, 2009).

The following study used the features of PLCs, namely of representation, collaboration and distributive leadership as a lens to understand the challenges and suggested strategies to address those challenges identified by school leaders in implementing IE policy in Bangladesh.

Method

Participants

The participants for this study were school leaders identified through Social Network Survey (SNS) by all the teachers (n=79) of ten schools. The SNS was developed in Bangla from the SSSNQ (School Staff Social Network Questionnaire) for identifying leaders and measuring leadership practices (Pitts & Spillane, 2009). SNS was applied to ask teachers to identify to whom they go to for advice regarding enhancing student participation in their schooling, enhancing student behavior, and enhancing student learning in relation to school curricular domains (e.g. Mathematics, Language and Science). Teachers were able to select multiple names from a list of their school staff and other professionals for each area of advice. The list included all teaching staff in their school along with members of the School Management Committee (SMC) and the local education professional designated with responsibilities for providing support to primary schools in the sub-district (in Bangla 'Upazila'). Through the SNS process (i.e., aggregated identification score) thirty five nominated leaders were identified and approached to take part in an interview. Twenty one participants accepted the offer which included head teachers (n=10), teachers (n=7), members of School Management Committees (n=2), and sub-district education officers (n=2). The participants were from ten regular primary schools, seven Government Primary Schools (GPSs) and three Registered Non-Government Primary Schools (RNGPSs) of one sub-district of Bangladesh that are involved in the IE reform initiative: PEDP-II. The participating schools of the study were selected purposively to ensure the involvement of different groups including: schools with male and female head teachers, schools in urban, sub-urban and rural locations, and schools that have been graded by the district education office at low, medium and high levels of performance.

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Data collection

A semi-structured interview protocol was designed to collect qualitative data. The protocol was employed to identify the challenges school leaders face in implementing IE policy and to nominate strategies to address the identified challenges. The interview was considered appropriate as a method because it allowed the researcher to "engage, understand and interpret the key feature of the life-worlds of the participants" and to uncover the "descriptions of specific situations and actions, rather than generalities"(Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2007, p. 355). The final protocol was developed through a piloting process which included: 1) developing a draft protocol, 2) sending the protocol to relevant experts (one academic person and an education practitioner) for reviewing, 3) making necessary alterations, and 4) pilot testing involving three school leaders. The final protocol applied for data collection had the following questions.

- What changes have your school experienced as a result of the policy decision about including diverse learners in regular primary school?
- How does your school respond to the policy decision of including diverse learners in your schools?
- How does your school set direction of the school?
- How does your school support professional development of the school?
- How does your school design school organization?
- How does your school supervise teaching learning of the school?
- What does your school do to promote inclusive education in school?
- What do you perceive as necessary to lead an inclusive school?

The interviews were conducted in person and in Bangla by the first author, whose first language is Bangla. The interview took place at participating schools at a time suitable to the participants. Participants were assured of confidentiality. While the semi-structured protocol guided the conversation for the specific purposes, the process was flexible and allowed the interviewer to change the sequence and rephrase the words where necessary in order to maintain the intended focus (Johnson & Christensen, 2008; Patton, 2002). The interviews were audio recorded and were between 45 to 70 minutes in duration.

Analysis

The audio recorded interviews were transcribed to analyze the responses of the participants. To enhance internal validity (Creswell, 2008), the transcribed data was shared with the participants and necessary changes were made according to their suggestions. The final transcript was translated by the first author into English. "General inductive analysis approach" (Thomas, 2006, p. 238) was followed to analyze the interviewed data. This analysis approach has five steps including: 1) preparation of raw data files (data cleaning), 2) close reading of text, 3) creation of categories, 4) overlapping coding and un-coded text, and 5) continuing revision and refinement of category system (Thomas, 2006). Initially, the first author developed the themes based on the sample of transcripts. The coding process described by Creswell (2002) was followed to develop the themes. There are five steps in coding process for inductive analysis which included: a) Initial reading of text data, b) identify specific text segments related to objectives, c) label the segments of text to create categories, d) reduce overlap and redundancy among the categories, and e) create a model incorporating most important categories (Creswell, 2002, p. 266).

To ensure reliability of inter-coding, the first and second author compared the completed themes and discussed discrepancies until agreement was reached between them. Seven themes were identified related to challenges in implementing IE that included: lack of authority, students' lack of acceptance, non-supportive views of parents and community, teachers' resistance, limited professional development, limited resources and physical environment. Three themes emerged from the analysis related to strategies to address the challenges that included: local authority, making resource available and valuing diversity. The coding is provided in Appendix 1 and Appendix 2.

Findings

The findings are presented in two broad sections that included both the perceived challenges of implementing IE and the strategies nominated by leaders to address some of the identified challenges.

Challenges in Implementing IE

Lack of authority. School leaders identified the centralized management system as one of the most challenging aspects in making school level decisions for IE. They criticized the centrally controlled process that does not allow the involvement of teachers and school community members in policy development and decision making. School Leaders found it unrealistic that decisions made in Dhaka, the capital city of Bangladesh,. must be implemented in schools all over Bangladesh. One school leader noted:

> To whom will you tell the problem? They [Directorate of Primary Education (DPE)] will not pay any attention at all. What they have learned sitting in the AC [Air Conditioned] room is correct to them. But I face the reality and it [DPE's decision] is not always right to me. [*Head teacher, school ten*]

School leaders reported that the head teacher and the School Management Committee (SMC) do not have any authority to employ teachers. Recruiting teachers is the activity of the government officials. The only thing school leaders can do is to inform the Upazila Education Office (UEO) about the class size and number of teachers in their school so that the UEO can report to the higher officials about appointing more teachers. Finally, the Directorate of Primary Education (DPE) situated in Dhaka arranges recruitment exams for teachers based on the requisitions it receives from the schools all over Bangladesh. One school leader said:

> Recruitment is done by the government [DPE]. If we feel there is need for teachers, we make a request. They verify the number of students. The rule states that recruitment dependents on number of students. We just wait for the decision. [*Head teacher, school two*]

Even in respect of more minor issues (e.g., when funding was needed to carry out minor school works), leaders needed to write to the education office and wait for at least a year to get a decision. The decisions do not always go in their favor. Every leader mentioned that the professional development of teachers depends entirely on the decisions of the government education office. School leaders' and teachers' opinions do not contribute to design, content or participation of any of the professional development activities. A head

teacher stated, "... we have little involvement in decision making about training program. Upazila education office can only decide about it... They inform us with notice about topic, schedule and venue of trainings" [*Head teacher, school eight*].

Students' lack of acceptance. Acceptance of diversity is essential for successful implementation of IE. Another strong theme was students' lack of acceptance. School leaders explained that while they are trying to build a culture of respect, understanding and acceptance of *all* children, particularly those with disabilities and the indigenous children within the school community, they are not always successful. The children with disabilities were identified as those in a particularly vulnerable position at school. The students were not considerate or tolerant of the behavior of students with disabilities and did not want to play with them. Moreover, students with disabilities often become the object of fun and were bullied by other students. A head teacher shared his experiences about students' unconstructive attitude towards a boy with special needs. He said:

> Everybody looks intently at him, observe his every activity and always stick with him, wants to tease him and laugh at him...Some other day that student [child with disability] had saliva dripping from her mouth which got the desk wet. So others do not want to sit next to her. No matter how much we try to make it understandable, this doesn't always happen. [*Head teacher, school two*]

A head teacher said:

> In many cases we found that children who have some form of impairments are discouraged to come to school by their own parents. The reason behind this is they believe that their children might victim of teasing and bullying by their peers. [*Head teacher, school eight*]

Children from indigenous groups faced similar intolerance from their fellow students. Indigenous children were teased by other students because their pronunciation and sentence structure pattern is different. A head teacher said, "When they [indigenous children] talk among themselves, the rest [other Bangla speaking children] mock them or make fun of them" [*Head teacher, school three*].

Non-supportive views of parents and community. The response of adults towards IE is important, because they are considered to be models for the children. Parents were believed to be non-accepting of diversity including those with children with disabilities. School leaders perceived that some parents of children with disabilities believed that their children would not be successful in life, would eventually become burdens for them, and did not have high expectations for them in school. Describing one of her experiences about a boy with a disability in her school one teacher said, "...his guardians are not that much aware. They think he will remain like this ... will just live for some time, what else he can make out of life" [*Head teacher, school ten*].

The non-supportive view of community people sometimes creates challenges for the school leaders in attempting to build support for acceptance of diversity in their schools. There was a perception that the community is much more positive about IE because of the awareness promoting programs on IE by the Bangladesh government, development organizations and media. However despite this there was the perception that the many parents and others in the community do not value diversity in schools and believe that opportunities

provided to them to learn in school are wasted on them. One school leader shared her experience of a meeting with parents and other community people:

> They [community people] told us that those who are normal they failed to get proper support to learn when you [teachers] are thinking of disabled children...Is it [learning] in any means possible by them? It is not possible by them. [*Assistant teacher, school ten*]

One head teacher described the very non-supportive views of parents about the inclusion of children with disabilities he encountered in the school. He stated, "The parents sometimes complain that due to this disabled kid, their children are having problems in school. Their learning is hampered" [*Head teacher, school one*].

Teachers' resistance. Despite practical experiences and a 7-days IE professional development (PD) program, primary school teachers remained resistant to IE, wishing to exclude various students from their classrooms. One school leader shared his experiences about enrolling a child from one of the IE targeted groups who had some identified behavioral difficulties. He indicated that some of the teachers in his school voiced their opposition to his enrolment. "They told me that, keeping him the school environment will be threatened and the other kids will not come to school anymore" [*Head teacher, school two*].

Other school leaders said teachers argued for exclusion from the students' perspective:

> It would be a bit better if they [students with additional learning needs] are separated. If they are in the same place...it is observed that the children who are here have negative feelings to those children, that's why... the disabled children feel disturbed. But if they are in separate place it might not happen. [*Assistant teacher, school one*]

> They [indigenous students] do not want to speak. We have to give more effort to make them speak...If we have someone here from their community it would have been better. They would have been more open; staying among so many Bengali is sort of discomfort for them and they remain shy. They don't want to become close and doesn't try to share their culture. [*Head teacher, school three*]

Teachers' resistance was believed to relate to workload. School leaders believed that including children with special needs, indigenous children and children from disadvantaged groups increased the workload of the teachers. They were faced with complaints from teachers about workload. One leader stated that teachers had described their workload as "double compared to their previous workload before introducing the IE policy" [*Head teacher, school four*]. She added:

> [Because of introducing IE] the workload of teachers has been increased. A general child could understand and write properly about something after telling him/her about that once or twice. They [children with special needs and indigenous children] require more time. [*Head teacher, school four*]

Limited professional development. School leaders confirmed that while some teachers voiced support for IE, this was countered by statements regarding lack of confidence or knowledge and skills in teaching diverse learners. Leaders identified that teachers limited knowledge and skill in developing appropriate learning-teaching activities is an important

barrier in getting them to embrace the idea of including *all* children in their classrooms. School leaders believed that teachers needed further professional development (PD) related to teaching in inclusive classrooms as well as on the philosophy of IE. Currently, teachers participated in information sessions related to IE policy that had limited focus on the 'knowhow' or practice of the IE in classroom:

> Each of us [teachers] should have training that would help us to identify that for such disabled student we need to follow such process to support their learning...Currently the process we follow is basically our commonsense. [*Head teacher, school one*]

Another school leader noted, "Training for the teachers is not sufficient. This very short, 7-day training [orientation] is not sufficient for the teacher to teach this type of children [children with special needs]" [*Assistant Thana Education Officer, X sub-district*]. PD was believed to be an effective means of helping teachers to managing diverse learners in ways that would lessen their workload.

Limited resources. The school leaders were concerned about the financial support. They were provided a limited stipend with no financial support for assistive devices, language support, or food for the hungry students. The stipend payments for students (approximately US $ 1.50 for each student per month) in the targeted groups were considered insufficient. School leaders believed this level of financial support was not a satisfactory incentive for the parents to have their children in school rather than employed in paid work which was essential for a family's income. There was no funding for assistive devices or additional care for students with special needs and a general shortage of learning-teaching materials in schools. Language was perceived to be a major barrier to success for indigenous students in primary education. School leaders emphasized that additional language support was required to enable these children to participate in their schooling. Leaders described how hunger prevented children from being active and engaging in learning. "Students cannot regularly come to school without breakfast and do not bring tiffins (play lunch) to eat during school break time" [*Head teacher, school four*].

Another leader stated:

> The kids from poor families cannot come to school with proper meal...making them an active part of the class is quite problematic. With a stomach ache [from hunger] they can't concentrate to learn and are distracted. [*Assistant teacher, school four*]

Physical environment. Other challenges related to the lack of resources for education raised by the school leaders related to the physical conditions of the school environment. The high teacher student ratio (1:50) (DPE, 2009) was not believed to be conducive to IE by the school leaders. Leaders strongly believed that the teachers could not adequately address individual needs of students under these conditions, and that the high teacher student ratio negatively impacted on the range of quality of learning-teaching activities teachers are able to use (e.g. providing opportunities to students to actively participate in group work). Large classes were considered to be particularly disadvantageous to students who were new to schooling (e.g., indigenous children, children living in urban slums, street children, refugee children, children from very poor families).

> Adequate proportion of teachers and students is needed for this type of education [IE]. We don't have that ratio here. If we want to provide additional care for the students of special need in inclusive system we need to have more teachers to provide the extra care for them. [*Head teacher, school seven*]

The quality of teaching is further exacerbated by the physical conditions of the schools with appropriate modifications for students with special needs are absent, as the following quotes illustrate:

> Students with special need may have the mobility limitation and for their access in many schools ramp is available. Some schools do not have this, for example our school do not have ramp. [*Head teacher, school eight*]

> To implement the IE, we need spacious classrooms, more equipment and good toilet facilities. There is a need to renovate the current toilet facilities. Kids cannot get into it. [*Head teacher, school two*]

Strategies to Address Challenges

School leaders suggested a number of strategies that could be adopted to address the identified challenges of implementing IE policy in primary schools in Bangladesh. Three themes were common: local authority, increased resources and valuing diversity.

Local authority. Although school leaders are largely responsible for implementing IE, they do not have the authority to devise or enact solutions to the challenges of this in their school communities. To work for IE, leaders believed they were powerless without authority to make decisions in a number of identified areas: employing teachers and caregivers, devising and implementing initiatives, or identifying and/or mobilizing resources, enabling collaboration with other schools or local organizations, developing and conducting professional development activities, and getting members of the community involved in school activities. One school leader indicated her disappointment when her suggestion to include private schools along with GPS (Government Primary School) and RNGPS (Registered Non-government Primary School) in the survey for identifying children that are excluded from schooling and other information about children in her school's catchment area. She said:

> The rules and regulations they [DPE] set are very rigid. If they would take our opinion, it would be better...the department [DPE] ordered that you have to do it as we said, I mean, they didn't pay any attention to my opinion. [*Head teacher, school ten*]

She believed if they were given authority to make decisions at local and school level the private schools would have been engaged in the work and, in her words, "*the government would get an authentic work*".

Increased resources. Another strong theme related to address the existing challenges was increased resources. School leaders believed that they needed funding to appoint more teachers to reduce the high teacher student ratio, provide professional development opportunity to teachers on inclusive practice, ensure access, and provide inclusive friendly

teaching learning materials to *all* students. School leaders believed that an improved stipend could support the families to manage the cost of buying materials like pens, pencils, rulers, exercise books, etc. Moreover, funding was necessary to arrange the school feeding program to combat against hunger and malnourishment. According to the suggestions of the school leaders, the increased funding could also allow them to provide assistive devices and appoint caregivers for the children with special needs. However, many school leaders believed that if they were allowed to mobilize resources involving the community, they possibly could address all the challenges related to resources and contextual issues. A chairperson of a School Management Committee (SMC) stated:

> My understanding is they [DPE] should allow us to mobilize funds to arrange various necessary school activities like sports competition, picnic, award ceremony etc. If they allow us, we could also take initiative to have more classrooms, improve our toilet facilities and renovate our schoolyard. [*Chairperson of SMC, School nine*]

Valuing diversity. Leaders emphasized the need to increase the valuing of diversity with people in the wider school community. Their suggestions ranged from local awareness activities through to mass media campaigns directed at parents of children in the IE target groups. One head teacher said:

> ...to change their mind more TV and radio programs are needed. Everybody watches TV if they see that all types of children can learn and do well their understanding might be changed. [*Head teacher, School two*]

Many school leaders also believed that involvement of parents and community in school improvement programs was an important strategy for bringing understanding about diversity and improving responses towards IE. Some school leaders believed that teachers working together were a good strategy for solving problems and for reducing teachers' resistance to having students with diverse learning needs in their classroom.

Discussion

Consistent with previous research (Agbenyega, 2007; Caceres, Awan, Nabeel, Majeed, & Mindes, 2010; Deng & Guo, 2007; Giffard-Lindsay, 2007; Huang, 2007; Kuyini & Desai, 2007; Prinsloo, 2001) the findings of this study confirmed that implementing IE as perceived by school leaders in Bangladesh requires empowered local authority, increased resources, and a school community that values diversity. Huang (2007) found three major challenges to implement IE in Taiwan which included: incomplete teams of special education professionals, a lack of concepts about inclusive schooling and limited time for planning and training. That study also identified high student teacher ratio, large class size and school size as barrier to facilitating inclusion successfully. In another related research (Agbenyega, 2007) conducted in Ghana identified the four issues of behavior, student needs, resource issues and professional competency which requires further attention for successful implementation of IE policy.

This study identified the administrative control system and decision making process as a major challenge for making schools more inclusive. It indicated that managerial accountability system limits the capacity of school leaders rather empowers them to meet the challenges and dilemmas involved in IE reform. Empowerment of school leaders to mobilize resources to successfully implement IE is necessary, because empowered school leaders can involve community people in school development work and reform activities. The

hierarchical management system makes the schools of Bangladesh less accountable to the community (Mullick & Deppeler, 2011). Among the South Asian countries decentralization and school-based management are less practiced in Bangladesh (Ahmed & Gavinda, 2010), but meaningful decentralization in planning and resource management is required for effective governance and management (Sabur & Ahmed, 2010). A study by Chowdhury, Chowdhury, Hoque, Ahmad, and Sultana (2009) revealed that 'high accountability of teachers to the local community' had a positive relationship with overall improved performance of the school (p. 27). Loreman (2007) argues for the involvement of the community in schools as one of the pillars of support for IE. Ainscow (2005) also acknowledges the community-school collaboration as one of the key levers for change. Additional resources, which the participants of the study broadly reported to ensure accessibility for students with special needs and food for the students from poor families, can be managed if the close involvement of community is maintained.

Further, the findings of this study indicated that making a school community value diversity might be possible if the members of the community get involved with the school activities. It is echoed in the study of the Save the Children, UK (2008). They argued that, "participatory dialogue and planning approaches can have a big impact on overcoming prejudice and discrimination at local level because they bring mainstream and excluded populations closer together and focus attention on achieving all children's rights to education" (Save the Children, 2008, p. 15). PLCs can also play an important role by encouraging teachers to value diversity. The main beliefs of PLC are, as Servage (2008) described, (1) professional development is crucial to improve student learning; (2) most effective professional development is possible through collaborative and collegial practice; and (3) collaborative work needs to involve inquiry and problem solving in daily teaching practices' contexts. Collaborative practice, the core belief of PLC, would drive teachers to share best practices to implement IE. Collaborative practice is also necessary to increase the efficacy of teachers to facilitate IE in classroom and identify possible strategies to address the challenges they face during daily learning-teaching activities. The existing management system does not allow school leaders to set PLCs, which they believed can work better for the professional development of teachers.

Collaborative practice and collective decision making processes at the school level also indicate to the 'practice aspects' and 'leader plus aspects' of distributed leadership. Spillane (2006) described *practice aspects* as the interaction of leaders, followers and their situation outline the leadership practice. Spillane (2006) was also advocating for leader plus aspects which emphasizes the notion that all members of an organization can lead, and leadership is a form of agency to be distributed or shared (Harris, 2003; Møller, 2009a). Decentralization of the decision making process and support to distributed form of leadership can enhance and contribute to school development and improvement through implementing IE policy.

To address the challenges in implementing IE policy, school leaders also need to see themselves as part of the system which is making progress towards inclusion. Leaders also need to engage themselves in interaction with other schools for capacity building of all partners towards sustainable development. In England, it is known as school-to-school collaboration and some researchers (Ainscow & Howes, 2007; Ainscow, Muijs, & West, 2006) described it as networking. The National College for Leadership of Schools and Children's Services formerly NCSL of the UK is advocating for school-to-school collaboration activities, denoting it as network leadership. The network leadership has openness and trust which support networked schools in sharing data and professional practice to increase the ability of practitioners in identifying good practice and it prepares the schools

"for meaningful external engagement and promotes a momentum for change" (National College for School Leadership [NCSL], 2006, p. 2). Schools in Bangladesh have systematic arrangements for school networking from the early 90s known as cluster meeting and sub-cluster training (Moulton, Rawley, & Sedere, 2002). Though the cluster meeting and sub-cluster training were introduced for information dissemination and in-service professional development, these tools can be used for school-to-school collaboration and joint effort to facilitate inclusion.

PEDP II has taken initiative of decentralization of school management in recent years under the name School Level Improvement Plans (SLIPs). The broad purpose of SLIPs is to strengthening participation of teachers, members of School Management Committee, parents and community in the school activities to support the improvement of the quality of learning for *all* children (ADB, 2008). Successful implementation of SLIPs can acquire the features of PLCs to include *all* children in regular primary schools of Bangladesh to ensure their quality learning. Moreover, school-to-school collaboration or in other word PLCs between schools can provide confidence and increase efficacy of teachers and school leaders to enact IE policy. Nevertheless, initiatives and efforts carried out by positional leaders, principals or head teachers at school are not enough to ensure IE. It indicates leadership needs to be observed from all sources of the school environment and encourages all to play their role in leadership practice to make schools more inclusive. Study on leadership practices for IE is expected to focus on this issue for further understanding. If the goals of equity and equality of opportunity of education are to become a reality in Bangladesh, then the challenges of discrimination and exclusion will need to be identified and addressed by those in the social contexts in which they occur. It is the leaders and other members of the local school communities who are best placed to find the solutions to meet these challenges.

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Appendix 1

Initial codes, reduced codes and themes related to challenges for implementing IE

Initial Codes	Reduced Codes	Themes
• No input in recruitment of teacher • No authority to decide about teacher's employment • No authority in resource mobilisation • No authority to run infrastructure development • Limited say in renovating physical facilities • No participation in PD design/content • No say in sending teachers for PD	No authority and no involvement in decision-making regarding: • Teachers recruitment and employment • Resource management • Design and implementation of PD • Infrastructure development	Lack of authority
• Students with special needs are bullied • Students with special needs are treated as object of fun • Students' refusal to sit, play and learn in the company of student with special needs • Intolerant of language difference	• Non-supportive behavior towards students with special needs • Students' denial to accept the indigenous students	Students' lack of acceptance
• Parents' voice the belief that their children with special needs cannot learn • Parents object to include children with special needs in school alongside their children • Parents have low expectation for their children with special needs • Community leaders believe insufficient resources to include students with special needs	• Fixed abilities • Not everyone should be included • Non-supportive belief of community leaders	Non-supportive views of Parents and community

Initial codes, reduced codes and themes related to challenges for implementing IE (cont.)

Initial Codes	Reduced Codes	Themes
• Uncomfortable with students with special needs • Suggest special school for student with special needs • Resistance towards including 'all' children in school • Limited knowledge about dealing diverse learners • Increased workload	• Resistance about IE • Belief in special education • Capabilities	Teachers' resistance
• PD as orientation to IE with limited focus • No Practical session • Short PD session • Need hands on experience regarding teaching at inclusive classroom	PD perceived as insufficient in terms of: • Breadth • Depth • Duration	Limited professional development
• Little funding for socio-economically disadvantaged students • No funding to feed starving children • No funding for assistive device for students with special needs • No funding to employ extra language support teacher for indigenous students • Need for learning-teaching materials	• Limited funding for disadvantaged students • No fund for extra care for student with special needs • Need for resources to support teaching	Limited resources
• Large class size to ensure learning of all students • Challenges to run group work because of small classroom • Limited toilet facilities for students • No wheelchair access in classroom • No functional ramp in school	• High teacher student ratio • Limitations of physical environment	Physical environment

Appendix 2

Initial codes, reduced codes and themes related to strategies to address the challenges

Initial Codes	Reduced Codes	Themes
• Authority to employ teachers and caregivers • Authority to mobilize resources • Encouraging school leaders to identifying their own strategies to work for inclusion • Providing community more responsibilities with power • Making School Level Improvement Plan (SLIP) committee more active	• Empowering school leaders to take school level decision • Ensuring active involvement of community	Local authority
• Appointing more teachers to reduce teacher student ratio • Providing opportunity to teachers for school-based PD development on inclusive practice • Engaging community people to mobilize funding for infrastructure development • Ensuring access • providing learning-teaching materials	• More funding for schools to support: o Infrastructure development o School feeding program o Having inclusive friendly learning-teaching materials • Appointing more teachers and ensure PD • Mobilizing funds involving community	Increased resources
• Using Television and radio to aware parents and family members • Inviting parents to take part in Parent Teacher Association • Organizing Mother's meeting • Inviting members of School Management Committee to visit schools regularly • Encouraging teachers to discuss common challenges • Discussing issues related to IE in staff meetings	• Increasing the awareness through mass media • Involvement of parents and community in school improvement program • Collaborative effort of teachers in problem solving	Valuing diversity

Although Chapter 5 identified that members of a school community who do not hold formal leadership positions of authority might influence the practices of teachers in schools, parents and students did not actively participate in leadership functions. This is inconsistent with distributed leadership practices. Distributed leadership practices support democratic decision making and the participation of all members of the school community in leadership practices. This chapter (Chapter 6) attempted to identify the source of these inconsistent practices and investigated the accountability approach and leadership challenges in schools.

Schools are not hierarchical relationship-based organisations where knowledge and expertise always travel in downward directions (Lakomoski, 1995). If knowledge and expertise goes in all directions through a complex net of interrelationships, then leadership by 'many' is more rational than the leadership by one (Lakomoski, 1995). In the context of educational change and reform, particularly in IE reform, knowledge development and the active involvement of all members of a school are essential. Manuscript 3, therefore, suggested pursuing a combined approach of accountability which might value decentralisation and support the professional practices of teachers. In this regard, distributed leadership is critical. According to Harris (2008b):

> Distributed leadership means that decision making, communication and direction are provided within and across school networks. It suggests that leadership is most effective in complex systems when it is *laterally distributed and shared.* This suggests that distributed leadership practice is a vehicle of knowledge transfer and knowledge creation. (p. 65)

The statement above illustrates that a managerial accountability approach is not supportive of distributed leadership practices. In addition, a managerial accountability approach prevents parents and students from being involved with the leadership functions in schools. Students' voices are important when implementing IE reform because they assist a school to understand students' learning needs. Fielding (2010) argued that students' voices need to be considered as:

> ...emergent and dialogic, relational and reciprocal both in the manner of their engagement and the intentions to which they aspire. It is about students and teachers working and learning together in partnership, rather than one party using the other for often covert ends. (p. 7)

The argument of Fielding (2010) pointed towards an important value of IE reform that suggests local knowledge and practices should be encouraged to support customised solutions to address challenges individually. Local knowledge and practices are developed through collaboration of all the members of the school community (e.g., teachers, parents, students, education officials of government and local community members). The abovementioned quote also reminds that 'one size fits all' is not a good strategy when implementing IE reform in schools. The strategy suggested by school leaders presented in Manuscript 4, empowerment of the local authority, is also compatible with Fielding's (2010) argument. Empowerment of the local authority challenges the existing accountability approach in primary schools and advocates for a decentralised approach to accountability. To implement IE reform successfully,

empowering the School Management Committee (SMC) and involving teachers, students and their families in collaborative leadership practices seem to be crucial.

Chapter summary

Chapter 6 explained that limited participation of members of a school community in leadership practices and inadequate authority of leaders at the school level are unlikely to facilitate successful IE reform. The argument presented in Manuscript 3 was that the current managerial approach to accountability in primary schools in Bangladesh inhibits the empowerment of the school community and limits the activities of school leaders to support IE reform. In order to promote collaborative decision-making, Manuscript 3 suggested employing a decentralised and professional approach to accountability. Correspondingly, the principle solution suggested in Manuscript 4 to overcome challenges related to IE reform is consistent with the democratic practice aspect of distributed leadership. Manuscript 4 suggested that empowering local authority (e.g., School Management Committee) and engaging students, their families and the wider community in school activities are necessary actions to implement IE reform successfully. Although Chapter 6 argued that distributed leadership practices, which are likely to be promoted through decentralised and professional approaches to accountability, are supportive of IE reform, there are limited studies to establish this relationship. The next chapter presents findings that investigated the relationship between distributed leadership practices in relation to IE and implementation of IE reform.

While it is certainly the case that all leadership is to some extent distributed, as leadership is essentially organisational influence and direction, it does not mean that everyone in the organisation simultaneously leads. Distributed leadership theory would recognise that many people will have the potential to exercise leadership in any organisation but the key to success will be the way that leadership is facilitated, orchestrated and supported. (Harris, 2008a, p. 173)

CHAPTER 7

Distributed Leadership Practices

Introduction

This chapter presents two manuscripts that report on the investigation of distributed leadership practices in regard to inclusive education (IE) in primary schools in Bangladesh. A review of the related literature indicated there was no scale that measured distributed leadership practice for IE in Bangladesh. In response to this absence, therefore, this study attempted to develop a scale, named Distributed Leadership Practice for Inclusive Education (DLPIE), to measure distributed leadership practice for IE. *Manuscript 5,* 'Development of Distributed Leadership Practice for Inclusive Education (DLPIE) scale', explains how the DLPIE scale was prepared. *Manuscript 6*, 'School teachers' perception about distributed leadership practices for inclusive education in primary schools in Bangladesh', presented data from Phase-III that ensued from application of the DLPIE scale. This manuscript reported findings that investigated practices of 'distributed perspective on leadership' and 'democratic perspective of distributed leadership'. It made specific examination of the presence of distributed leadership practice for IE in regular primary schools in Bangladesh. It also investigated whether there is any statistically significant correlation between distributed leadership practice for IE and teachers' satisfaction about implementation of IE and their work environment.

Manuscript 5: Development of Distributed Leadership Practice for Inclusive Education (DLPIE) Scale

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Development of the Distributed Leadership Practice for Inclusive Education (DLPIE) Scale

Jahirul Mullick[a]

[a] *Faculty of Education, Monash University, Victoria, Australia*

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Inclusive education reform is a continuous process and it requires all the members of a school community to accept that not all children are ready to learn the same thing in the same manner at the same time. Members of a school community also need to act jointly to enhance the schooling system to ensure the educational rights of all the children. This paper reports on a study that aims to develop a scale named Distributed Leadership Practice for Inclusive Education (DLPIE). The purpose of DLPIE scale is to measure the distributed leadership practices at regular schools for inclusive education. A two-stage cluster sampling method was applied to identify a sample of 673 primary school teachers including head teachers to participate in this study. The study indicates that the DLPIE scale successfully meets the standards for reliability. Factor analysis was also conducted to identify the possible factors in the scale. The results of the present study provide the final scale that consists of 20 items. It also provides preliminary evidence to further use of this instrument for the purpose of measuring leadership practice for inclusion in regular schools.

Key words: Distributed leadership practices, inclusive education, teachers' perception, scale development, factor analysis

Introduction

Students come to school from different contexts and with diverse abilities. Inclusive education acknowledges this diversity and acts to support diverse learners. Inclusion promotes the notion that all students irrespective of their special needs, gender, ethnicity or other disadvantages need to come to regular schools and share classrooms with their regular age peers (UNESCO, 1994). Enrolling diverse learners in regular settings is one aspect of inclusion and the other aspect is ensuring that all the learners are provided instructions that effectively and efficiently meet their educational needs. According to Ainscow and Miles (2008), inclusion works to ensure presence, participation and achievement of all students, including children vulnerable to exclusionary pressures. Inclusion reform that focuses on presence, participation and achievement of all students is a big challenge for regular schools around the world (Macmillan & Edmunds, 2010; Opertti & Belalca´zar, 2008). Fullan, Hill and Crévola (2006) argued that a systemic solution is necessary for "...knowledge about how to manage change and what is known about instruction" and leadership works as the glue to connect them (p. 87).

However, transforming schools does not depend on having exceptional leaders (Timperley, 2005), because schools become more complex organisations and a more comprehensive model of leadership is necessary (Gronn, 2003). Educational change and school reform literature sustains the view that when leadership is broad-based and it supports all the members of a school community to engage in reform activities through collaborative practices, school improvement gets positive

Corresponding author: Jahirul Mullick, Email: [redacted]

outcomes (Hopkins, 2001; Murphy, 2005; Murphy & Datnow, 2003). In particular, it has been proposed that facilitative leadership can create systems-wide development that is sustainable for inclusion (Jones, Forlin, & Gillies, 2013). It is also evident in research studies that leadership practice is one of the significant levers for changing the school culture to move it to a more inclusive direction (Ainscow, 2005; Kugelmass & Ainscow, 2004; Loreman, 2007). Distributed perspective on leadership is compatible with the broad-based leadership practices that support interactive relationships and participation of all members of the school community.

Distributed perspective on leadership describes leadership as an organisation-wide phenomenon (Pounder, Ogawa, & Adams, 1995) and is engrossed by leadership practices and interactions (Spillane, 2006). According to Harris (2008), distributed perspective outlines leadership as a concerted action that takes place when all members of an organisation work jointly. A distributed perspective promotes the interaction of leaders, followers and their situation to form leadership practice (Spillane & Diamond, 2007) and this is the central component of leadership activity (Harris, 2008). Characteristics and attributes of people in formal leadership positions and their actions are not considered as leadership activity in a distributed perspective (Spillane, 2006), because it focuses on a hierarchical management system. Distributed leadership is more organic and pays attention to interdependent relationships. Harris (2008) explained that, "The *leader-follower* relationship implies a power imbalance, whereas in distributed leadership *all relationships* are important and leadership can only be enacted if there is mutual trust and agreement about the way tasks are undertaken" (p. 40-41).

Inclusive education reform is a continuous process and it requires all members of a school community to value that not all children are ready to learn the same thing in the same manner at the same time. Members of the school community also need to act jointly to enhance the schooling system to ensure the educational rights of all the children irrespective of their backgrounds and abilities.

Leadership practices and inclusive education reform

Focusing specifically on the work of school principals, Riehl (2000) described that school leaders need to do three broad tasks; foster new meanings about diversity, promote inclusive practices within schools, and build connections between schools and communities. However, leadership from formal leaders in schools (e.g., head teacher or principal) is not enough to implement inclusion. Specht and Young (2010) argued that all the school staffs need to be part of the implementation process and it needs to be a collaborative partnership, rather than a top-down initiative. They recommended five strategies that included: a) creating supportive environments; b) develop relationships by exposing students to role models; c) participation; d) promote competence; and e) create a bond between home and school environments, to be implemented by administrators with the support of other school staff members (Specht & Young, 2010). Similarly, Ryan (2006) referred to leadership practices that create an opportunity for all school community members to take part in a cooperative decision-making process which is itself inclusive and aim to achieve inclusion in all areas of school and beyond.

Reviewing a wide range of theoretical literature and empirical research studies, Leithwood et al. (2006) identified four broad categories of leadership practices of successful leaders. The categories are: determining direction, supporting professional development, designing the organization, and supervising teaching and learning. Under the four categories there are fourteen sub-categories of leadership practices and the following table (Table 1) presents all the sub-categories.

Table 1
Leadership practices of successful leaders (Leithwood, 2010)

Determining direction	Designing the organization
• Building a shared vision • Fostering the acceptance of group goals • High performance expectations	• Building collaborative cultures • Restructuring • Building productive relationships with families & communities • Connecting the school to its' wider environment
Supporting professional development	**Supervising teaching and learning**
• Providing individualised support/consideration • Intellectual stimulation • Providing an appropriate model	• Staffing the programme • Providing instructional support • Monitoring school activity • Buffering staff from distractions to their work

These leadership practices demand firm involvement of all the school members (e.g. head teachers, teacher, parents, and community members). In this regard, distributed perspective on leadership can be found to be significant, as Spillane, Halverson and Diamond (2001) described that leadership functions are "... stretched over the work of a number of individuals and the task is accomplished through the interaction of multiple leaders" (p. 20). That means it recognises the leadership responsibility of all members of the school and social influence interaction to implement inclusive education. The central belief of distributed leadership practices points towards strategies required for reform. Harris (2005) described three conditions that represent the key principles of distributed leadership which included:

- focusing on the practice of leadership – which is more important than the function or outcome;
- paying attention to the interactions between people – these are just as important as the actions they undertake; and
- acknowledging that situation shapes and influences the form that distributed leadership takes in schools – it may vary according to the context (p. 25).

A number of studies have investigated distributed leadership practices in schools. These studies found that leadership functions were distributed among several formally designated leadership positions (e.g., principals, deputy principals, curriculum coordinators, year level coordinator, and master/mentor teachers) (Camburn, Rowan, & Taylor 2003; Hulpia, Devos, & Rosseel, 2009; Lima, 2008). Some of the studies identified that teachers who are not in a formal leadership position, but are active in leadership functions, are instrumental in influencing instructional practices in schools (Heck & Hallinger, 2009; Spillane, Camburn, & Pareja, 2007; Spillane et al. 2008). The study by Hulpia et al. (2009) covered both the aspects of distributed leadership: leader-plus aspects and practice aspects, but it defined leadership practices as sharing leadership responsibilities with other members of the leadership team in a school. An inventory, Distributed Leadership Inventory (DLI), was developed "...to investigate leadership team characteristics and distribution of leadership functions between formally designed leadership positions" (Hulpia *et al.*, 2009, p. 1013). Three core functions of successful leaders including: (a) setting a vision; (b) developing people; and (c) supervising teachers' performance were selected to develop the DLI. Designing a school organisation was not, however, included as leadership functions in that study. There appears to be no study that examined distributed leadership practices for inclusion in schools. The current study

aims to develop a scale that can measure distributed leadership practices for inclusive education in schools. The overall premise of this study is a distributed perspective on leadership and the leadership practices of successful leaders identified by Leithwood and colleagues (2006).This study, therefore, aims to develop a scale named *Distributed Leadership Practice for Inclusive Education* (DLPIE). The purpose of DLPIE scale is to measure the distributed leadership practices at regular school for inclusion.

Methodology

Participants.

This study is the third phase of a large research project that investigated leadership practice and inclusive education in Bangladesh. Participants for the third phase of the study were head teachers and teachers from Government Primary School (GPS) and Registered Non-Government Primary Schools (RNGPS). A two-stage cluster sampling method was applied to select the participants. Stage sampling involves selecting the sample in stages that is, taking samples from samples' (Cohen, Menion, & Morrison, 2007, p. 112). The stage cluster sampling process carried out in this study is presented in Figure 1.

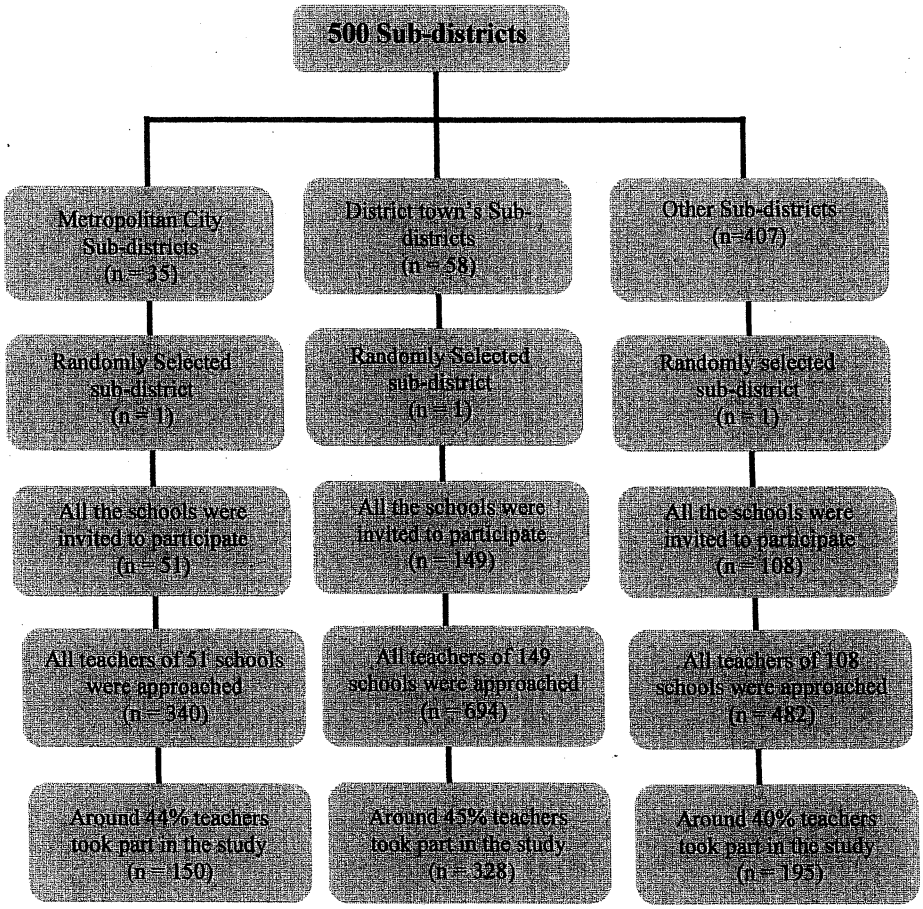

Figure 1. Stage cluster sampling process to select participants

Firstly, 500 sub-districts were divided into three clusters to ensure urban, sub-urban and rural representation. The three clusters were metropolitan city sub-districts (mostly urban), district town sub-districts (mostly sub-urban) and other sub-districts (mostly rural). Secondly, one sub-district was randomly selected from each cluster. There were 51 schools in the selected metropolitan city sub-district and 149 schools in the district town sub-district and 108 schools in the rural sub-district. All the teachers (n=1516) of the sampled schools were approached and finally 673 teachers participated in this study. Participants with missing data were removed from the data set resulting in 466 remaining participants. There were 301 (64.6 %) female participants and165 (35.4 %) male participants (Table 2). Most of them (59.7%) were teachers (not members of the SMC) and other participants were head teachers (19.1%) and teachers (members of the SMC).

Table 2
Demographic and contextual information of the participants

	All		GPS		RNGPS	
	N	%	n	%	n	%
Gender						
Female	301	82.6	261	67.8	40	49.4
Male	165	17.4	124	32.2	41	50.6
Position in school						
Head teacher	89	19.1	61	15.8	28	34.6
Teacher (Member of School Management Committee)	99	21.2	81	21.0	18	22.2
Teacher (Not member of School Management Committee)	278	59.7	243	63.1	35	43.2
Age						
18 to 29	122	26.2	110	28.6	12	14.8
30 to 44	242	51.9	197	51.2	45	55.6
45+	102.	21.9	78	20.3	24	29.6
No. of years in teaching						
Below 5 year	128	27.5	115	29.9	13	16.0
5 to less than 10 years	101	21.7	91	23.6	10	12.3
10 years or more	237	50.9	179	46.5	58	71.6
Qualification						
Secondary School Certificate	48	10.3	30	7.8	18	22.2
Higher Secondary Certificate	102	21.9	79	20.5	23	28.4
Bachelor's degree	179	38.4	150	39.0	29	35.8
Master's degree	137	29.4	126	32.7	11	13.6
Professional degree						
No professional degree	42	9.0	31	8.1	11	13.6
Certificate in Education	375	80.5	314	81.6	61	75.3
Others (BEd or MEd)	49	10.5	40	10.4	9	11.1
Training on IE						
Yes	309	66.3	255	66.2	54	66.7
No	157	33.7	130	33.8	27	33.3
School location						
Urban	160	34.3	134	34.8	26	32.1
Sub-urban	66	14.2	56	14.5	10	12.3
Rural	240	51.5	195	50.6	45	55.6
School size						
Below 200	110	23.6	77	20.0	33	40.7
200-300	179	38.4	146	37.9	33	40.7
Over 300	177	38.0	162	42.1	15	18.5
Performance of school						
High	208	44.6	192	49.9	16	19.8
Medium	243	52.1	181	47.0	62	76.5
Low	15	3.2	12	3.1	3	3.7

The age of a majority of the participants (51.9 %) was between 30 and 44 years. A substantial number (n= 126) of participants' age was between 18 and 29. A significant number of participants attained a Bachelor's degree (38.4 %) and a Master's degree (29.4%). HSC was attained by 21.9 % (n=102) of the participants and SSC, which was the minimum qualification for being a primary school teachers until themid-1990s, was achieved by a small number of participants (n=48). Regarding teaching experience, the majority of participants (50.9%, n=237) had more than ten years of teaching experience. A good number of participants (27.5%, n=128) had less than five years of teaching experience and rest of the participants (n=101) had five to less than ten years of teaching experience.

Most of the participants (91%) held a professional degree (e.g., C-in-Ed, BEd or MEd) and a majority of them (n=309) had received training on inclusive education. Most of the participants' schools were Government Primary School's (82.6%) and others were Registered Non-Government Primary Schools (17.4%).The location of schools for the majority of the participants was rural areas (51.5%, n=240). A good number of participants were from urban regions (34.3, n=160) and the rest were from sub-urban regions (14.2%, n=66). The participants' school-size (total number of students) varied from less than 200 students to more than 300; 23.6 % of the participants were from schools which had less than 200 students and 38.4% of the participants were from schools which had 200 to less than 300 students. The rest of the participants (n=177) were from schools which had more than 300 students. The majority of the participants (n=243) were from schools that had a medium performance rating by the sub-district education office. A good number of participants were from schools that had a high (n=208) performance rating and a very small number participants were form schools that had a low (n=15) performance rating by the sub-district education office.

Instrument development.

The first step of scale development involved identification of distributed leadership practices for inclusion from data collected in the second phase of the larger research. Four broad categories of leadership practices identified by Leithwood and colleagues (2006) were used to develop the interview protocol for the second phase which investigated distributed leadership practices for inclusion. Themes arising from the interviews were used to develop items for the scale. A pool of 42 items was developed in Bangla.

In the second step, each item was developed as a single statement using a six point Likert scale that ranged from strongly disagree (1), disagree (2), somewhat disagree (3), somewhat agree (4), agree (5), to strongly agree (6). A 'neutral', 'not applicable' or 'uncertain' category was not included because according to Bond and Fox (2001), these attract responses from participants who do not understand the statement. In addition, these categories may involve equal appropriateness for both agreement and disagreement even if the wording is precise (DeVellis, 2003).

In the third step, a questionnaire was developed that had two parts; Part A and Part B. Part A sought information related to distributed leadership practices for inclusion in regular schools. There were 42 statements to measure these. Part B of the questionnaire sought contextual information related to the participants' schools and participants' demographic information. It also enquired about teachers' perceptions related to their satisfaction about the work environment and the progress of implementation of inclusion in their schools. A five point Likert scale was applied to distinguish the perceptions of the teachers related to the work environment and the progress of implementation of inclusion.

In the fourth step, the draft questionnaire was sent to an expert panel consisting of five members (e.g., university faculty, education professionals and education researchers) for comments and suggestions. They rated how relevant each item was in measuring leadership practices for inclusion in relation to the Bangladeshi context. Each item was also rated for clarity and conciseness by the expert panel. The questionnaire was revised following their suggestions and included 21 items which were rated highly by the panel. This step was carried out to ensure the content validity of the scale. In the fifth step, the revised questionnaire was pilot tested with 104 participants (teachers from a sub-district) that were purposively selected. These participants were not included in the final data collection.

In the sixth step, statistical analysis of pilot tested data indicated that there was a strong correlation between two items and, therefore, one item was removed from the scale. Twenty items were included in final version of the DLPIE scale. An English version and Bangla version of the DLPIE scale are presented in Appendix A and Appendix B. The possible range of scores for the DLPIE scale was between 20 and 120, because the Likert rating for each item was 1 to 6. The scores from the negative items were subsumed in the final scores after reverse coding. A person who secured a higher score on the DLPIE scale perceived that there was higher levels of distributed leadership practices in relation to inclusion in his/her school compared to a person who achieved a lower score. Thus, the higher the score the more positive the participants' perceptions were about distributed leadership practice for inclusion in their schools.

Data analysis.

The data analysis measure for this paper was started using descriptive statistics. Mean and standard deviations were determined for all the responses. The responses from the study participants (e.g., teachers and head teachers) were factor analysed to determine if their perceptions were clustered in some particular patterns. SPSS 18.0 software was used to do the factor analysis. Parallel Analysis was also conducted to determine the number of factors. Parallel analysis supports researchers to verify the "... significance of components, variable loadings, and analytical statistics" (Franklin, Gibson, Robertson, Pohlmann, &Fralish, 1995, p. 100). Monte Carlo PCA for Parallel Analysis 2.3 software was used to identify random eigenvalue. A reliability estimate was also run to find the inter-item consistency.

Results and discussion

Exploratory factor analyses.

An exploratory factor analysis (EFA) has three phases which include: (a) variables' selection and measurement, (b) determining number of factors, and (c) interpreting the factors (Pohlmann, 2004). The results of the sample (n = 466) were used to carry out exploratory factor analyses, which helped identify a number of factors. First, possibility of factors measurement was determined by Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) value and Bartlett's test score. The KMO value was 0.955, exceeding the recommended value of .6 (Kaiser, 1974) and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity (Bartlett, 1954) was statistically significant (P=.000) which indicates factor analysis is appropriate.

A plot of the eigenvalues showed a clear break and this break in the trend line starts at the second eigenvalue (see Figure 2). This indicates the major portion of variance is explained by the first two factors.

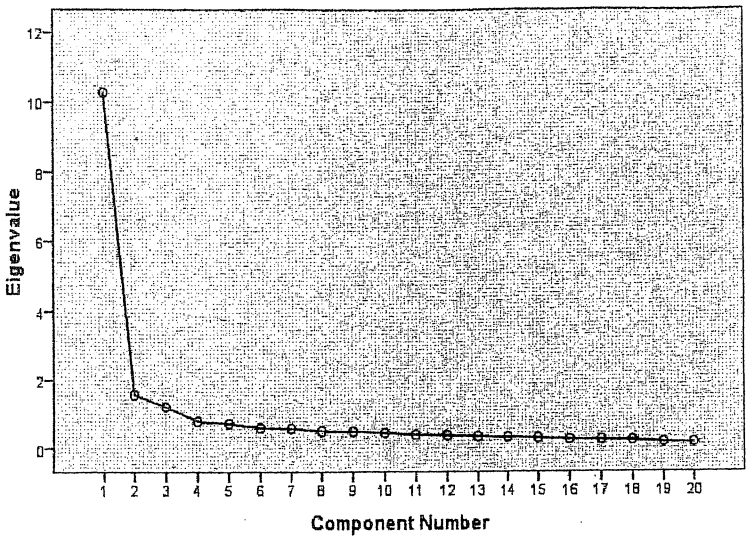

Figure 2. Plot of the eigenvalues (Scree test)

Table 3 presents eigenvalue and variance of 20 components. Pohlmann (2004) explained that, "... an eigenvalue measures the amount of variance explained by a factor" (p.17).

Table 3
Total Variance Explained

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	10.265	51.325	51.325	10.265	51.325	51.325	6.186	30.929	30.929
2	1.567	7.833	59.157	1.567	7.833	59.157	4.921	24.606	55.535
3	1.222	6.109	65.266	1.222	6.109	65.266	1.946	9.731	65.266
4	.781	3.907	69.173						
5	.716	3.579	72.752						
6	.592	2.958	75.709						
7	.572	2.859	78.568						
8	.500	2.498	81.066						
9	.483	2.414	83.480						
10	.442	2.209	85.690						
11	.392	1.959	87.649						
12	.380	1.902	89.551						
13	.347	1.735	91.286						
14	.326	1.631	92.917						
15	.302	1.508	94.426						
16	.264	1.318	95.744						
17	.259	1.296	97.039						
18	.235	1.174	98.214						
19	.181	.907	99.121						
20	.176	.879	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Principal components analysis revealed the presence of three components with eigenvalues exceeding 1 (one). The first eigenvalue 10.265 indicates that 51.325% of variance in the 20 variables is explained by the first component. The second and third component explains another 7.833% and 6.109% of variance. Eigenvalues of the first three components are above 1 (10.951, 1.573 and 1.225) and these three components explain a total of 65.266% of the variance. Components 4-20 explain the remaining 34.734% of variance.

Scree test and eigenvalue presented in Table 3 points towards two different results regarding the number of factors. A parallel analysis was therefore employed to determine the number of factors. The first two eigenvalues obtained from SPSS are larger than the first two values from the random eigenvalue by parallel test (Table 4). This comparison reveals that only first two components are accepted and suggests a two-factor solution.

Table 4
Parallel analysis

Component Number	Actual Eigenvalue from SPSS	Criterion value from Parallel test	Decision
1	10.265	1.3831	**Accepted**
2	1.567	1.3099	**Accepted**
3	1.222	1.2602	Rejected

After determining the number of factors, interpretation of the factors is necessary to complete the analysis process. Rotating the factors to a simple structure is required, because "... it presents the pattern of loadings in a manner that is easier to interpret" (Pallant, 2011, p. 184). SPSS provides many techniques for factor rotation. The most commonly applied orthogonal rotation is Varimax which provides the simplest interpretation of the structure (Pallant, 2011). This analysis used Varimax rotation with a cut off .3, because values between .3 and .6 for the factor coefficients are commonly used in Varimax factor rotation. Table 5 presents rotated component matrix with items (abbreviated). The highest loading for each item is used to identify which component is relevant for each item. There are 11 items which measure Component I and nine items to measure Component II. Component I can be interpreted as 'taking initiatives and supervising'. Component II consisted of items corresponding to respecting efforts by members of school community and group activities; therefore, this factor is labelled as 'group effort and valuing efforts of all'. The two-factor models explained 53.54% of the variance for the distributed leadership practices for IE.

Table 5
Rotated Component Matrix

	Component	
Items *	I	II
Professional Development outside of School (2)	.777	
Invites Parents to participate (3)	.763	
Professional Development in School (1)	.759	
Collaboration with other schools to identify strategies (7)	.733	
Initiatives to raise funds (6)	.726	
Discuss about the progress (5)	.656	
Monitor classroom activities (4)	.640	
Maintains communication with neighbourhood schools (18)	.582	
Support activities even if it is risky (20)	.565	
Make resource materials available (9)	.544	

Play active role in changing policy (19)	.485
Collective decision making process (8)	.706
Set long-term goal (17)	.667
Supports initiatives by teachers (12)	.646
Supports initiatives by students (14)	.623
Supports initiatives by parents (13)	.605
Involves community people (15)	.590
Applies holistic approach (10)	.580
Provides guidance to teachers (16)	.577
Supports initiatives by SMC members (11)	.563

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

** Number in parenthesis indicates the serial number of each item on the DLPIE scale*

Reliability of the DLPIE Score.

The reliability score of the DLPIE was measured by Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Following the method of Fan and Thompson (2001) confidence intervals (95%) were also evaluated. Generally alpha value .70 or above is considered as being acceptable for a Likert type scale (DeVellis, 2003). The scores on the DLPIE revealed internal-consistency reliability estimates larger than .90. The Cronbach's alpha for DLPIE was found to be .945 which is very high and well above .70.

The results of this study indicate that the DLPIE scale has reliability and validity within acceptable limits to justify its use in measuring distributed leadership practice for inclusion in schools. The results also indicate that the construct of the DLPIE is two-dimensional which includes "taking initiatives and supervising" and "group effort and valuing efforts of all". These dimensions of the DLPIE scale allow members of the school community to identify whether the distributed leadership practice for inclusion in each dimension is expressed to the same degree. If there is a difference, it will support schools identifying which dimension requires more efforts to enhance distributed leadership practice for inclusion.

Conclusion

In order to meet the perceived need for a quantitative tool to investigate distributed leadership practices for inclusive education the DLPIE scale was developed. The development of the DLPIE scale is also critical because it is different from currently available measures of leadership practices. It is designed to be used in regular schools with a specific focus on inclusion reform. In essence, it appears that this study has contributed with some important results which have implications for both research and practice. However, the DLPIE scale has some limitations that need to be addressed by future research. First, this study did not apply confirmatory factor analysis which is important to examine the construct validity of a scale. Construct validity helps researchers to point out whether "... the factor structure produced by EFA fits the data from a new sample" (Worthington & Whittaker, 2006, p. 815). Second, this study did not explore the perception of the members of the school community other than teachers. Applying the DLPIE scale to explore the perception of all the members of the school community could better explain the existing practice in regular school. Third, the DLPIE scale is developed in Bangla and that makes it a context-sensitive instrument that examined distributed leadership practices in Bangladeshi primary schools. Additional study is required to test the DLPIE scale's standard in a wider variety of contexts.

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Appendix A

Part A: Distributed Leadership Practice for Inclusive Education (DLPIE) Scale

Please circle the number for each statement that reflects your personal opinion.

Key:	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Somewhat Disagree	4 Somewhat Agree	5 Agree	6 Strongly Agree

1.	My school arranges professional development training on inclusive education in school for teachers	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	My school supports teachers to take part in professional development training on inclusion organized outside of school	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	My school invites parents to take part in school activities for implementing inclusive education	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	My school monitors classroom activities regularly to understand how the inclusive education is practiced in classroom	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	My school discusses the progress of implementation of inclusive education in staff meeting regularly	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	My school takes initiatives to raise funds required to implement inclusive education	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	My school collaborates with other neighbourhood schools to identify strategies to implement inclusive education	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	My school does not follow collective decision making process to implement inclusive education	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	My school supports to make resource materials (e.g. books, posters, charts) on inclusive education available in school	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	My school applies holistic approach for all the school activities to implement inclusive education	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	My school supports initiatives taken by members of school managing committee (SMC) for inclusive education	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	My school supports initiatives taken by teachers for inclusive education	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	My school supports initiatives taken by parents for inclusive education	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	My school supports initiatives taken by students for inclusive education	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	My school involves community people with school activities to facilitate inclusive education	1	2	3	4	5	6
16.	My school provides guidance to teachers about how to perform teaching-learning activities in classroom to facilitate inclusive education	1	2	3	4	5	6
17.	My school does not set any long-term goal for implementing inclusive education	1	2	3	4	5	6
18.	My school maintains communication with neighbourhood schools to share successful and challenging practices related to inclusive education	1	2	3	4	5	6
19.	My school plays an active role in changing the policies of school which are unsupportive to inclusive education	1	2	3	4	5	6
20.	My school supports activities for inclusive education even when it may be risky	1	2	3	4	5	6

Part B: Background Information and perception about work environment and IE

Please respond to the following questions by ticking the box that corresponds with the most appropriate answer that applies to you

1. Your gender

   ☐ Female ☐ Male

2. Your age is _____

3. What is your highest level of qualification?

   ☐ SSC ☐ Master's degree
   ☐ HSC ☐ Others (Please mention)
   ☐ Bachelor's degree

4. How long have you been in teaching profession? _____ years

5. What is the grade of your school as per the sub-district education office?

   ☐ A ☐ C
   ☐ B

6. Where is your current school located?

   ☐ Urban ☐ Rural
   ☐ Suburban

7. What is the type of your current school?

   ☐ Government Primary School ☐ Registered Non-Government Primary School

8. How many students do you have in your school? _____

9. Professional training you received-

   ☐ None ☐ B Ed
   ☐ C-in-Ed ☐ M Ed

10. Do you have any in-service training about inclusion?

    ☐ Yes ☐ No

11. What is your position in school?

    ☐ Head teacher ☐ teacher (member of SMC)
    ☐ teacher (not member of SMC)

12. Are you satisfied with the work environment in your school?

☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	somewhat satisfied	Satisfied	Very satisfied

13. Are you satisfied with the progress of implementation of IE in your school?

☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	somewhat satisfied	Satisfied	Very satisfied

Appendix B

প্রথম অংশ: একীভূত শিক্ষা বাস্তবায়নে নেতৃত্ব প্রদানের চর্চার পরিমাপক

প্রতিটি বাক্যের যে উত্তরটির সাথে আপনার নিজস্ব মতামত সবচেয়ে ভালভাবে মিলে যায় তা বৃত্ত দিয়ে চিহ্নিত করুন।

১	২	৩	৪	৫	৬
একেবারেই একমত নই	একমত নই	কিছুটা দ্বিমত	কিছুটা একমত	একমত	সম্পূর্ণ একমত

১.	আমার বিদ্যালয় শিক্ষকদের একীভূত শিক্ষা-বিষয়ক দক্ষতা উন্নয়নে বিদ্যালয়ে প্রশিক্ষণের আয়োজন করে।	১	২	৩	৪	৫	৬
২.	আমার বিদ্যালয় শিক্ষকদের বিদ্যালয়ের বাইরে অন্য কোনো বিদ্যালয় বা প্রতিষ্ঠানের আয়োজিত একীভূত শিক্ষা-বিষয়ক প্রশিক্ষণ কার্যক্রমে অংশগ্রহণের সুযোগ করে দেয়।	১	২	৩	৪	৫	৬
৩.	আমার বিদ্যালয় একীভূত শিক্ষা বাস্তবায়নে অভিভাবকদের বিদ্যালয় কার্যক্রমে অংশগ্রহণ করেতে আমন্ত্রণ জানায়।	১	২	৩	৪	৫	৬
৪.	আমার বিদ্যালয় শ্রেণীকক্ষে কীভাবে একীভূত শিক্ষা চর্চা করা হচ্ছে তা দেখার জন্য শ্রেণী-কার্যক্রম নিয়মিত পর্যবেক্ষণ করে।	১	২	৩	৪	৫	৬
৫.	আমার বিদ্যালয় একীভূত শিক্ষা বাস্তবায়নের অগ্রগতি যাচাই করতে নিয়মিত স্টাফ মিটিং-এ তা আলোচনা করে।	১	২	৩	৪	৫	৬
৬.	আমার বিদ্যালয় একীভূত শিক্ষা বাস্তবায়নে বিদ্যালয়ের জন্য প্রয়োজনীয় অর্থ সংগ্রহের উদ্যোগ নেয়।	১	২	৩	৪	৫	৬
৭.	আমার বিদ্যালয় একীভূত শিক্ষা বাস্তবায়নের কৌশল নির্ধারণের জন্য স্থানীয় অন্য বিদ্যালয়গুলোর সাথে একযোগে কাজ করে।	১	২	৩	৪	৫	৬
৮.	আমার বিদ্যালয় একীভূত শিক্ষা বাস্তবায়নের জন্য দলীয়ভাবে সিদ্ধান্ত নেওয়ার প্রক্রিয়া অনুসরণ করে না।	১	২	৩	৪	৫	৬
৯.	আমার বিদ্যালয় একীভূত শিক্ষা-বিষয়ক বইপত্র, পোস্টার, চার্ট বিদ্যালয়ে রাখার ব্যবস্থা করে।	১	২	৩	৪	৫	৬
১০.	আমার বিদ্যালয় একীভূত শিক্ষা বাস্তবায়ন-সংক্রান্ত সকল কাজকে সামগ্রিকভাবে বিবেচনা করে।	১	২	৩	৪	৫	৬
১১.	আমার বিদ্যালয় একীভূত শিক্ষার জন্য ম্যানেজিং কমিটির সদস্যরা কোনো প্রস্তাবনা দিলে তা বাস্তবায়নের উদ্যোগ নেয়।	১	২	৩	৪	৫	৬
১২.	আমার বিদ্যালয় একীভূত শিক্ষার জন্য শিক্ষকরা কোনো প্রস্তাবনা দিলে তা বাস্তবায়নের উদ্যোগ নেয়।	১	২	৩	৪	৫	৬
১৩.	আমার বিদ্যালয় একীভূত শিক্ষা বাস্তবায়নের লক্ষ্যে অভিভাবকগণ কোনো প্রস্তাবনা দিলে তা বাস্তবায়নের উদ্যোগ নেয়।	১	২	৩	৪	৫	৬
১৪.	আমার বিদ্যালয় একীভূত শিক্ষা বাস্তবায়নের লক্ষ্যে শিক্ষার্থীরা কোনো প্রস্তাবনা দিলে তা বাস্তবায়নের উদ্যোগ নেয়।	১	২	৩	৪	৫	৬
১৫.	আমার বিদ্যালয় একীভূত শিক্ষা বাস্তবায়নে বিদ্যালয়ের কাজ-কর্মের সাথে স্থানীয় জনগণদের যুক্ত করে।	১	২	৩	৪	৫	৬
১৬.	আমার বিদ্যালয় শ্রেণীকক্ষে কীভাবে একীভূত শিক্ষার সাথে সম্পর্কিত শিখন-শেখানো প্রক্রিয়া পরিচালনা করতে হয় শিক্ষকদের তার দিকনির্দেশনা দেয়।	১	২	৩	৪	৫	৬
১৭.	আমার বিদ্যালয় একীভূত শিক্ষা বাস্তবায়ন করতে বিদ্যালয়ের জন্য কোনো সুদূরপ্রসারী লক্ষ্য ঠিক করে না।	১	২	৩	৪	৫	৬
১৮.	আমার বিদ্যালয় একীভূত শিক্ষা বাস্তবায়নে সাফল্য-ব্যর্থতার দিকগুলো নিয়ে স্থানীয় অন্য বিদ্যালয়গুলোর সাথে আলোচনা করে।	১	২	৩	৪	৫	৬
১৯.	আমার বিদ্যালয় একীভূত শিক্ষার সাথে খাপ খায় না বা বৈসাদৃশ্যপূর্ণ - বিদ্যালয়ের এমন যেকোন নীতিমালা পরিবর্তনে ভূমিকা রাখে।	১	২	৩	৪	৫	৬
২০.	আমার বিদ্যালয় একীভূত শিক্ষা বাস্তবায়নের লক্ষ্যে যেকোন কর্মকাণ্ড ঝুঁকিপূর্ণ মনে হলেও তা বাস্তবায়নে সহযোগিতা করে।	১	২	৩	৪	৫	৬

দ্বিতীয় অংশ: পরিচিতিমূলক তথ্য এবং বিদ্যালয়ের কর্ম-পরিবেশ ও একীভূত শিক্ষা বিষয়ে সন্তুষ্টি

নির্দেশনা : *আপনার ক্ষেত্রে প্রযোজ্য হয় এমন বক্সগুলোতে টিক চিহ্ন দেওয়ার মাধ্যমে নিচের প্রশ্নগুলোর উত্তর দিন।*

১. আপনি -

☐ মহিলা ☐ পুরুষ

২. আপনার বয়স ?ঢ়ঢ়ঢ়ঢ়ঢ়ঢ়ঢ়ঢ়ঢ়ঢ়ঢ়ঢ়ঢ়ঢ়ঢ়ঢ়ঢ়ঢ়ঢ়

৩. আপনার শিক্ষাগত যোগ্যতা?

☐ এস এস সি ☐ স্নাতকোত্তর
☐ এইচ এস সি ☐ অন্যান্য (উল্লেখ করুন) _____
☐ স্নাতক

৪. আপনি কত বছর ধরে শিক্ষকতা করছেন ? ঢ়ঢ়ঢ়ঢ়ঢ়ঢ়ঢ়ঢ়ঢ়ঢ়ঢ়ঢ়ঢ়ঢ় বছর

৫. উপজেলা শিক্ষা অফিসের মূল্যায়ন অনুযায়ী আপনার বিদ্যালয়টি কোন গ্রেডের ?

☐ অ ☐ ই
☐ ই

৬. আপনার বর্তমান বিদ্যালয়টি কোন ধরনের এলাকায় অবস্থিত ?

☐ শহরে (সিটি কর্পোরেশনে অবস্থিত) ☐ গ্রামে (জেলা সদরের বাইরে অবস্থিত)
☐ মফস্বলে (জেলা সদরে অবস্থিত)

৭. আপনার বিদ্যালয়টি কোন ধরনের ?

☐ সরকারি ☐ রেজিস্টার্ড বেসরকারি

৮. আপনার বিদ্যালয়ে মোট শিক্ষার্থীর সংখ্যা কতো? ঢ়ঢ়ঢ়ঢ়ঢ়ঢ়ঢ়ঢ়ঢ়ঢ়ঢ়জন

৯. আপনার সর্বোচ্চ পেশাগত যোগ্যতা কী ?

☐ নাই ☐ বি এড
☐ সি -ইন -এড ☐ এম এড

১০. আপনার একীভূত শিক্ষা বিষয়ে প্রশিক্ষণ আছে?

☐ হ্যাঁ ☐ না

১১. আপনি বিদ্যালয়ে কোন পদে কাজ করেন?

☐ প্রধান শিক্ষক ☐ সহকারী শিক্ষক (এসএমসি-র সদস্য)
☐ সহকারী শিক্ষক (এসএমসি-র সদস্য নই)

১২. সামগ্রিকভাবে, আপনি আপনার বিদ্যালয়ের কাজের পরিবেশ নিয়ে কতটা সন্তুষ্ট?

১	২	৩	৪	৫
খুবই অসন্তুষ্ট	অসন্তুষ্ট	মোটামুটি সন্তুষ্ট	সন্তুষ্ট	খুবই সন্তুষ্ট

১৩. সামগ্রিকভাবে, আপনি আপনার বিদ্যালয়ে একীভূত শিক্ষা বাস্তবায়নের অগ্রগতি নিয়ে কতটা সন্তুষ্ট?

১	২	৩	৪	৫
খুবই অসন্তুষ্ট	অসন্তুষ্ট	মোটামুটি সন্তুষ্ট	সন্তুষ্ট	খুবই সন্তুষ্ট

Chapter 5 presented the findings from Phase-I of the study, which investigated the leader-plus aspect of the distributed perspective of leadership in ten schools from a sub-district in Bangladesh. However, the practical aspect of distributed perspective of leadership was not examined in Phase-I and so, because it was important to investigate this in the context of IE in Bangladeshi schools, the DLPIE scale was developed. Findings presented in *Manuscript 5* reported that there were two factors: 1) 'taking initiatives and supervising' and 2) 'group effort and valuing efforts of all' in the DLPIE which were consistent with practices of distributed leadership and with values that underpin IE.

The following manuscript entitled 'School teachers' perception about distributed leadership practices for inclusive education in primary schools in Bangladesh' applies the DLPIE scale and reports on the perceptions of teachers regarding distributed leadership practices in relation to IE and the relationship between distributed leadership practices and the implementation of IE reform.

Manuscript 6: School Teachers' Perception about Distributed Leadership Practices for Inclusive Education in Primary Schools in Bangladesh

Declaration for Publication

Mullick, J., Sharma, U., & Deppeler, J. (2012). School teachers' perception about distributed leadership practices for inclusive education in primary schools in Bangladesh, *School Leadership and Management*. doi:10.1080/13632434.2012.723615

Declaration by candidate

The nature and extent of my contribution to the work was the following:

Nature of contribution	**Extent of contribution (%)**
Initiation of publication, instigator of ideas, conducted literature review, data collection and analysis, prepared the draft manuscript, incorporated other authors' comments in final manuscript, prepared and submitted for publication	80%

The following co-authors contributed to the work:

Name	**Nature of contribution**
Joanne Deppeler	Feedback on draft manuscript
Umesh Sharma	Feedback on draft manuscript

Candidate's Signature	[redacted]	**Date: 17 July 2013**

Declaration by co-authors

The undersigned hereby certify that:

(1) the above declaration correctly reflects the nature and extent of the candidate's contribution to this work, and the nature of the contribution of each of the co-authors;

(2) they meet the criteria for authorship in that they have participated in the conception, execution, or interpretation, of at least that part of the publication in their field of expertise;

(3) they take public responsibility for their part of the publication, except for the responsible author who accepts overall responsibility for the publication;

(4) there are no other authors of the publication according to these criteria;

(5) potential conflicts of interest have been disclosed to (a) granting bodies, (b) the editor or publisher of journals or other publications, and (c) the head of the responsible academic unit; and

(6) the original data are stored at the following location(s) and will be held for at least five years from the date indicated below:

Location(s)	Faculty of Education, Monash University (Clayton campus)	
Signature 1	[redacted]	**Date:** 22/07/13
S	[redacted]	**Date:** 22/07/13

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School teachers' perception about distributed leadership practices for inclusive education in primary schools in Bangladesh

Jahirul Mullick*, Umesh Sharma and Joanne Deppeler

Faculty of Education, Monash University, Melbourne, Australia

This article reports on the third phase of a larger study that explored the perceptions of teachers about distributed leadership practices for inclusive education (IE) in primary schools involved in IE reform in Bangladesh. The *Distributed Leadership Practice for Inclusive Education* scale was developed specifically for this study to collect data. Participants for the present study were head teachers and teachers from 308 public primary schools. The results of this study indicate that teachers perceived that distributed leadership practices for IE were present in primary schools in Bangladesh. The findings indicate that teachers' perceptions about distributed leadership practices for IE have a significant positive correlation with their satisfaction about the implementation of IE policy.

Keywords: distributed leadership practice; teachers' perception; inclusive education; primary school; collaborative relationship

Introduction

Leadership is an essential element in implementing new ideas (Spillane, Halverson, and Diamond 2004) and the key lever for school reform at all levels of the education system (Fullan 2005). Inclusive education (IE) reform that attempts to ensure access and achievement of *all* children in schools is possible when leadership is shared widely among members of a school community (Ainscow 2005; Ainscow and Sandill 2010; Kugelmass and Ainscow 2004; Rayner 2008). Ryan (2006) argued that successful implementation of IE reform in regular schools requires three leadership practices. First, it should create fair opportunity for all members in a school community to influence decisions, practices and policies. Second, it needs to be a cooperative process that ensures many individuals work together in diverse ways to make things happen. Third, it should aim to achieve inclusion in all areas of school and beyond and follows the process which is itself inclusive (Ryan 2006). These three leadership practices are consistent with the *distributed perspective on leadership.*

The distributed perspective on leadership is grounded in *activity* not in *position or role* (Harris 2005; Spillane, Halverson, and Diamond 2001). It is not a prescription for successful leadership practice, but is intended as a framework to analyse and explain leadership as a practice rather than leadership as a role

*Corresponding author. Email: [redacted]

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(Harris and Spillane 2008; Spillane 2006). When distributed leadership is used as the frame of reference for school leadership, the process builds capacity and involves teachers, students, parents and other members of a school community in implementing reform initiatives. From a distributed perspective, leadership practice is like a group dance, 'where the interactions of the dancers rather than their individual actions allow us to understand what is taking place' (Harris 2005, 14). That means 'the sum of leaders' work adds up to more than the parts' and 'there are high levels of interdependence among those providing leadership' (Leithwood et al. 2004, 60). There are two aspects in the distributed perspective on leadership: the *leader-plus aspect* and the *practice aspect* (Spillane 2006). The leader-plus aspect recognises that multiple leaders are required to lead a school, and the practice aspect describes the interaction of these leaders, their followers and situation (Spillane 2006).

Distributed leadership practices in schools

School leadership practices are distributed among a number of individuals in a school community. Studies found that leadership functions were distributed among several formally designated leadership positions (e.g. principals, deputy principals, curriculum coordinators, year-level coordinator, and master/mentor teachers) (Camburn, Rowan, and Taylor 2003; Hulpia, Devos, and Rosseel 2009; Lima 2008). The study by Hulpia, Devos, and Rosseel (2009) covered both the aspects of distributed leadership: leader-plus aspects and practice aspects, but it defined leadership practices as sharing leadership responsibilities with other members of a *leadership team* in school. An inventory, Distributed Leadership Inventory (DLI), was developed, 'to investigate leadership team characteristics and distribution of leadership functions between formally designed leadership positions' (Hulpia, Devos, and Rosseel 2009, 1013). Three core functions of successful leaders: (1) setting a vision; (2) developing people; and (3) supervising teachers' performance, mentioned in the instructional and transformational leadership models were selected to develop the DLI. However, designing school organisation was not included as a leadership function in this study.

Leadership in schools cannot reside in a single role or even a small group because it needs to be, 'spread much more widely through schools as a collective enterprise, exercised on the basis of distributed authority and influence' (Stoll 2004, 6). Similarly, Elmore (2000) claimed that school leadership needs to be *deromanticised* and the responsibility for leadership widely distributed among all members in a school community. Formally designated leaders, even if they are highly talented, cannot expect improvement in instructional practices and students' performance without leadership coming from teachers and all the members involved in school reform. A number of studies confirmed that teachers who are not in formal leadership positions, but active in leadership functions, are capable of influencing instructional practices in schools (Heck and Hallinger 2009; Spillane, Camburn, and Pareja 2007; Spillane et al. 2008). A recent study (Mullick, Deppeler, and Sharma 2012b) reported that along with formally designated leaders, teachers were active in leadership functions in primary schools in Bangladesh. The study (Mullick, Deppeler, and Sharma 2012b) also revealed that teachers had more influence

on instructional practices and knowledge in school curricular domains (e.g. Language, Mathematics and Science) than the positional leaders.

School variables, teachers' demographic variables and leadership practice

Studies confirmed that school variables have influence on leadership practices in schools. Findings from Turner (2008) clearly indicated that students' socio-economic status, minority student status, school location, and school's academic performance have influence on leadership practice. School phase (primary or secondary), school type (government or not government) and school size were identified as contextual variables which also have influence on leadership practices (Day et al. 2007). Other research (Kantabutra and Tang 2006, 370–1) in Northern Thailand revealed that 'rural schools appear to operate less efficiently than urban ones' and 'school size has a positive effect on both urban and rural schools'.

Leadership practices also differ for demographic variables of the individuals involved in leadership practices. Hallinger and Leithwood (1998) explained that personal characteristics are also salient to understand the leadership practices of leaders. Certain personal characteristics of school leaders such as gender and length of experience have correlation with the leadership practice at school level (Coleman 2007; Hallinger, Bickman, and Davis 1996; Hallinger and Leithwood 1998; Jean-Marie and Martinez 2007).

The present study extended the concept of leadership practices in school from a distributed perspective and included four core functions of successful leaders (e.g. determining direction, supporting professional development, designing the organisation and supervising teaching and learning) as leadership functions (Leithwood et al. 2006). It also considered IE as the focus of the aforementioned leadership functions. In other words, IE was considered as the third component (i.e. situation) of the practice aspect of distributed leadership (see Figure 1). Depending on the activity or situation, school staff can move in and out of leadership and management roles

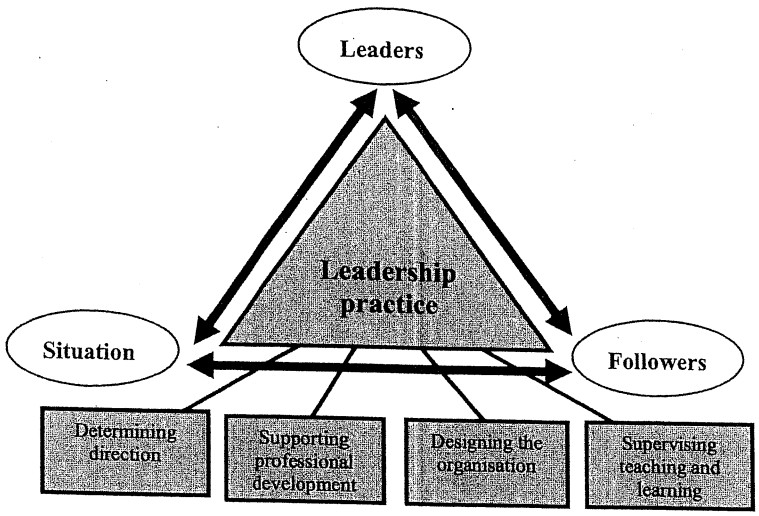

Figure 1. Leaders, followers, situation and leadership practices (Spillane 2006, 15).

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(Spillane and Healey 2010), and this supports leadership practices to take a shape (Pitts and Spillane 2009).

This study also extended leader-plus aspects beyond the formal leadership team in school. The perception of primary school teachers including teachers 'who are in a formal leadership position' (e.g. head teacher and teacher with School Management Committee [SMC] membership) and teachers 'who do not hold a formal position of leadership' was considered to outline the distributed leadership practice for IE in a primary school in Bangladesh. It also examined the relationship between teachers' perception about distributed leadership practices for IE and teachers' satisfaction about implementation of IE and the work environment in school.

This paper aims to explore the following research questions:

(1) What is the perception of teachers 'who are in a formal leadership position' and 'who do not hold a formal position of leadership' about distributed leadership practice for IE in primary school in Bangladesh, and are there any significant differences between their perceptions?
(2) Is there any significant relationship between distributed leadership practice for IE perceived by teachers and the following school variables:
    (a) School location;
    (b) School size;
    (c) Performance of school; and
    (d) School type?

    and the following demographic variables of teachers:

    (a) Gender;
    (b) Age;
    (c) Teaching experience;
    (d) Qualification;
    (e) Professional degree; and
    (f) Training on IE?
(3) Is there any significant relationship between leadership practice perceived by teachers and teachers' satisfaction about the implementation of IE in school?
(4) Is there any significant relationship between distributed leadership practice perceived by teachers and teachers' satisfaction about the work environment in school?

Methodology

This study is the third phase of a large research project regarding leadership practice and IE in Bangladesh. Phase I of the project applied the Social Network Survey (SNS) to investigate leadership from a distributed perspective. It outlined the leadership structure in regular primary schools in Bangladesh (Mullick, Deppeler, and Sharma 2012b). In Phase II, qualitative data were gathered to further understand the leadership practices of the leaders identified from Phase I (with formal leadership designation and without formal leadership designation) (Mullick and Deppeler 2011). Themes arising from the qualitative data collected in Phase II

contributed to the development of the scale used in this study to investigate distributed leadership practices for IE.

Participants

Participants for this study were head teachers and teachers from public-funded primary schools (i.e. Government Primary Schools and Registered Non-Government Primary Schools). These schools account for 75% of the primary schools in Bangladesh and are spread throughout urban, sub-urban and rural areas with high representation in rural areas (Directorate of Primary Education [DPE] 2009). Each school is headed by a teacher (head teacher) who is the 'member secretary' of the SMC. There are two teacher members (one female and one male) who have membership in the SMC and as a consequence are considered as formal leaders along with the head teacher.

A two-stage cluster sampling method was applied to select the participants. 'Stage sampling involves selecting the sample in stages, that is, taking samples from samples' (Cohen, Manion, and Morrison 2007, 112). Figure 2 presents how the stage cluster sampling process was carried out. The process began with dividing 500 sub-districts into three clusters to ensure the urban, sub-urban and rural representation.

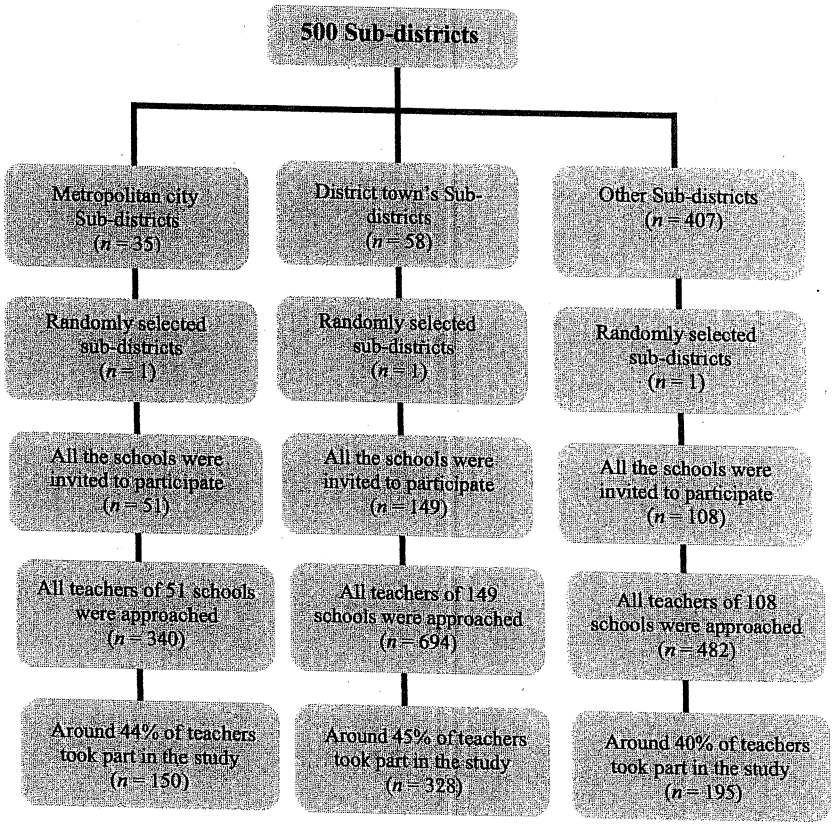

Figure 2. Selection of schools and participants.

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The three clusters were metropolitan city sub-districts (mostly urban), district town sub-districts (mostly sub-urban) and other sub-districts (mostly rural).

One sub-district was randomly selected from each cluster: metropolitan city sub-district, *Rasulpur* (pseudonym) (schools, $n=51$), district town sub-district, *Kalipur* (pseudonym) (schools, $n=149$) and rural sub-district, *Bokulgong* (pseudonym) (schools, $n=108$). All the teachers ($n=1516$) of the sampled schools were approached, and finally 673 teachers participated in this study.

Participants with any missing data were removed from the data-set, resulting in 466 remaining participants: 64.6% ($n=301$) of whom were female and 35.4% ($n=165$) were male. Most of the participants (59.7%) were teachers (not a member of the SMC) and other participants were head teachers (19.1%) and teachers (member of the SMC). The age of the majority (51.9%) of the participants was between 30 and 44 years. A substantial number ($n=126$) of participants' age was between 18 and 29. A significant number of participants attained a Bachelor's degree (38.4%) and a Master's degree (29.4%). HSC (Higher Secondary Certificate) was attained by 21.9% ($n=102$) of the participants, and SSC (Secondary School Certificate), which was the minimum qualification for being a primary school teacher until the mid-1990s, was achieved by a small number of participants ($n=48$). Regarding teaching experience, the majority of participants (50.9%, $n=237$) had more than 10 years of teaching experience. A good number of participants (27.5%, $n=128$) had less than five years of teaching experience and the rest of the participants ($n=101$) had between 5 and 10 years of teaching experience. Most of the participants (91%) received a professional degree (e.g. C-in-Ed, BEd or MEd) and the majority of them ($n=309$) received training on IE.

Most of the participants' schools were Government Primary Schools (82.6%) and the others were Registered Non-Government Primary Schools (17.4%). The location of schools of the majority of the participants was in a rural area (51.5%, $n=240$). A good number of participants was from an urban region (34.3, $n=160$) and the rest of the participants were from a sub-urban region (14.2%, $n=66$). The participants' school size (total number of students) varied from less than 200 students to more than 300; 23.6% of the participants were from schools which had less than 200 students and 38.4% of the participants were from schools which had between 200 and 300 students. The rest of the participants ($n=177$) were from schools which had more than 300 students. The majority of the participants were from schools which had a medium ($n=243$) performance rating by the sub-district education office. A good number of participants were from schools that had a high ($n=208$) performance rating and very few participants were from schools which had a low ($n=15$) performance rating by the sub-district education office.

Instrument

The Distributed Leadership Practice for Inclusive Education (DLPIE) scale was developed specifically for this study to collect data. The DLPIE scale had two parts: *Part A* and *Part B*. Part A sought information related to distributed leadership practices for IE in regular school (see Appendix 1). There were 20 items to measure the distributed leadership practices for IE using a six-point Likert scale (*strongly disagree, disagree, somewhat disagree, somewhat agree, agree* and *strongly agree*). Part B of the questionnaire sought contextual information related to the participants'

schools and participants' demographic information (see Appendix 2). It also enquired about teachers' perceptions related to their satisfaction about their work environment and the progress of implementation of IE in their schools. A five-point Likert scale was applied to distinguish the perceptions of the teachers related to work environment and the progress of implementation of IE.

Instrument development

The first step of the scale development involved identification of distributed leadership practices for IE from data collected in Phase II of the larger research. Four broad categories of leadership practices identified by Leithwood et al. (2006) supported the development of the interview protocol for Phase II, which investigated distributed leadership practices for IE (Mullick, Deppeler, and Sharma 2012a). Themes arising from the interview were used to develop items for the scale. A pool of 42 items was developed. The draft questionnaire was sent to an expert panel consisting of five members (e.g. university faculty, education professionals and education researchers) for comments and suggestions. They rated how relevant each item was in measuring leadership practice for IE in relation to the Bangladeshi context. Each item was also rated for clarity and conciseness by the expert panel. The questionnaire was revised following their suggestions and included 21 items.

The revised questionnaire was pilot tested with 104 participants (teachers from a sub-district) who were purposively selected. These participants were not included in the final data collection. The statistical analysis of pilot-tested data indicated that there was a strong correlation between two items and, therefore, one item was removed from the scale. Twenty items were included in the final version of the DLPIE scale. The possible range of scores for the DLPIE scale was between 20 and 120, because the Likert rating for each item was 1–6. A person who secured a higher score on the DLPIE scale perceived that there was a higher level of distributed leadership practices in relation to IE in his/her school compared with a person who achieved a lower score. Thus, the higher the score, the more positive the participants' perceptions were about distributed leadership practice for IE in their schools.

Data analysis

A reliability estimate was run to find the inter-item consistency. Cronbach's alpha was found to be 0.945 which is very high and well above 0.70; generally, 0.70 or above is considered as being acceptable for any Likert-type scale (DeVellis 2003). Data analysis measures for this article started using descriptive and inferential statistics. Mean and standard deviations were determined for all the responses. Perceptions of *teachers in formal leadership position* and *teachers in no formal leadership position* about distributed leadership practice for IE were compared using one way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2007, 550) described that ANOVA reveals 'there are or are not statistically significant differences between groups', and the Tukey HSD test 'indicates where these differences lie, if they exist'. Another focus of this phase was to explore the difference and use those differences as independent variables – contextual variables and personal demographic variables – to determine if they significantly affect the dependent variable, the perception of teachers about distributed leadership practices for IE. One way ANOVA was used to

examine the differences, and the Tukey HSD test was applied to identify the predictor for the difference.

In addition, Pearson product-moment correlation was conducted to find out relationships between perceived distributed leadership practice for IE, measured by the DLPIE scale, and perceived satisfaction about progress of implementation of IE in school. Pearson product-moment correlation was also applied to identify a possible relationship between perceived distributed leadership practices for IE and perceived satisfaction about the work environment in school.

Results

Perception of teachers

In this study, the overall general mean score of perception of teachers about distributed leadership practice for IE was 85.22 on the DLPIE scale. A higher score on the DLPIE scale is an indication that teachers perceived that there is a higher level of distributed leadership practices for IE in their schools. The rating point was 4.5 after transforming the mean score of 85.22 into a Likert rating that ranged from 1 to 6. This rating point indicates that teachers *somewhat agree* with the perception that in primary schools in Bangladesh distributed leadership practices for IE are present. The means of *teachers who are in a formal leadership position* and *teachers who do not hold a formal position of leadership* are 84.14 ($SD = 20.64$) and 85.95 ($SD = 20.98$), respectively (see Table 1). One way ANOVA indicates there is no significant difference in the perceptions of 'teachers who are in a formal leadership position' and 'teachers who do not hold a formal position of leadership' about distributed leadership practice for IE.

Relationship between leadership practice and contextual variables

One-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was employed to explore the impact of school location, school size, performance of school and school type on perception about distributed leadership practice for IE, as measured by the DLPIE scale. There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < 0.05$ level in DLPIE scale scores for three school locations (urban, semi-urban and rural): $F = 8.80$, $p = 0.000$ (see Table 2). Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 1 (urban) ($M = 90.67$, $SD = 19.90$) was significantly different from those for Group 2 (semi-urban) ($M = 80.98$, $SD = 25.01$) and Group 3 (rural) ($M = 82.75$, $SD = 19.50$). It suggests that schools in an urban area were

Table 1. Leadership practice for IE perceived by teachers.

Participant's position in school	Mean	Std. deviation	Std. error of mean
Teachers who are in a formal leadership position	84.14	20.64	1.50
Teachers who do not hold a formal position of leadership	85.95	20.98	1.26
Total	85.22	20.84	0.97

Table 2. Summary of ANOVA for leadership practice and contextual variables.

Dependent variable	Predictor variables	*F*	*P*
Perception of teachers about leadership practice for IE	School location	8.80	0.000
	School size	6.20	0.002
	Performance of school	1.24	0.289
	School type	2.27	0.133

employing distributed leadership practices more compared with the other contexts (e.g. semi-urban and rural).

Similarly, there was a statistically significant difference in DLPIE scale scores for school size ($F=6.20$, $p=0.002$). Post hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 1 (less than 200 students) ($M=85.05$, $SD=19.49$) did not differ significantly from those for either Group 2 (201–300 students) ($M=89.09$, $SD=18.24$) or Group 3 (more than 300 students) ($M=81.40$, $SD=23.37$). Group 2 ($M=89.09$, $SD=18.24$) had a significantly higher score than Group 3 ($M=81.40$, $SD=23.37$). However, there was no statistically significant difference in the DLPIE scale scores for performance (e.g. high, medium and low) of school ($F=1.24$, $p=0.289$) or school type (Government Primary school and Registered Non-Government Primary school) ($F=2.27$, $p=0.133$).

Relationship between leadership practice and teachers' demographic variables

One-way between-groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to explore the impact of teachers' demographic variables (e.g. gender, age, qualification, teaching experience, professional degree and training on IE) on teachers' perception about leadership practice for IE, as measured by the DLPIE scale. There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < 0.05$ level in DLPIE scale scores for participation in training programme on IE: $F=68.73$, $p=0.000$ (Table 3). The mean score for Group 1 (no training on IE) ($M=74.73$, $SD=23.93$) was significantly different from Group 2 (training on IE) ($M=90.45$, $SD=16.77$). It indicates that teachers with training on IE perceived that there was a higher level of distributed leadership practices in relation to IE in their schools compared with teachers with no training on IE. No statistically significant difference was found for gender, age, qualification, teaching experience and professional degree.

Table 3. Summary of ANOVA for leadership practice and teachers' demographic variables.

Dependent variable	Predictor variables	*F*	*P*
Perception of teachers about leadership practice for IE	Gender	0.00	0.986
	Age	0.32	0.728
	Educational qualification	0.28	0.840
	Teaching experience	0.32	0.728
	Professional degree	2.07	0.127
	Training on IE	68.73	0.000

Table 4. Correlations between perceived leadership practice and satisfaction about IE.

		Satisfaction of teachers about the progress of implementing IE	Leadership practice for IE perceived by teachers
Satisfaction of teachers about the progress of implementing IE	Pearson correlation	1	0.475*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.000
	N	466	466
Leadership practice for IE perceived by teachers	Pearson correlation	0.475*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.000	
	N	466	466

*Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Relationship between leadership practice and satisfaction about IE

The relationship between perceived distributed leadership practice for IE (as measured by the DLPIE scale) and perceived satisfaction about implementation of IE in school was investigated using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. There was a positive correlation between the two variables, $r = 0.48$, $n = 466$ and $p < 0.0005$ (see Table 4). This result indicated that a higher level of satisfaction about implementation of IE was associated with a higher level of perceived distributed leadership practice for IE.

Relationship between leadership practice and work environment satisfaction

Similarly, the relationship between perceived distributed leadership practice for IE (as measured by the DLPIE scale) and perceived satisfaction about work environment in school was investigated using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. There was a positive correlation between the two variables, $r = 0.12$, $n = 466$ and $p < 0.0005$ (see Table 5), with a higher level of satisfaction about work environment associated with a higher level of perceived distributed leadership practice for IE.

Discussion

The perception of teachers 'who are in a formal leadership position' and 'who do not hold a formal position of leadership' was to some extent positive about distributed leadership practices for IE. Two initiatives taken by the Second Primary Education Development Programme (PEDP II) may have influenced the distributed leadership practice for IE. The initiatives included activation of the School Level Improvement Plan (SLIP) and empowerment of SMCs in school. SLIP works for participation of teachers, members of the SMC, parents and community in the school activities to support the improvement of the quality of learning for *all* children (Asian Development Bank [ADB] 2008). Further, SMCs were made responsible for supporting school activities including full access of *all* students to primary education (Mujeri 2010). PEDP II provided training to three members of every SMC with an attempt to generate a supportive relationship between school and the local

Table 5. Correlations between leadership practice and satisfaction about work environment.

		Satisfaction of teachers about work environment	Leadership practice for IE perceived by teachers
Satisfaction of teachers about work environment	Pearson correlation	1	0.118*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.011
	N	466	466
Leadership practice for IE perceived by teachers	Pearson correlation	0.118*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.011	
	N	466	466

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

community (DPE 2009). Both these initiatives encouraged teachers, parents and community people to work together and take leadership responsibilities in implementing the goals of Education for All (EFA) through IE. Despite this, one group that remained conspicuously absent in these processes was students. There were no formal opportunities in any of the two initiatives to involve students directly or seek their opinions with regard to implementation of IE goals. According to Lundy (2007), children have rights 'to have their views given due weight in all matters affecting them' (931) and students' 'involvement in decision making is a permanent, non-negotiable human right' (940). Our previous study (Mullick, Deppeler, and Sharma 2012b), however, confirmed that students were not considered in the distributed leadership practice structure in Bangladeshi primary schools.

The findings of this study also confirmed that the teachers who participated in professional development activities on IE hold more positive perceptions about distributed leadership practices for IE. These results signify two understandings which are that teachers' familiarity and know-how about IE might support them to understand the distributed leadership practices for IE, and/or teachers' familiarity and know-how about IE might support them to exercise distributed leadership practices for IE. The result also indicates that teachers from urban areas perceived that distributed leadership practices for IE are present in their school. There is a significant difference between the urban teachers' perception and that of teachers from semi-urban and rural areas. The reason behind this perception may be that in urban areas public schools need to compete with the private schools to attract students, and schools' accountability to the community is much stronger than in the other areas. Another significant difference was found between the perceptions of teachers from mid-size schools (201–300 students) and teachers from small-size (less than 200) and big-size (more than 300) schools. This suggests that small-size schools and big-size schools are at the back in exercising distributed leadership practices for IE. Small-size schools require fewest staff, and big-size schools require a good number of staff to run school activities. The finding indicates that exercising distributed leadership practices for IE in both types of schools is not as good as in a mid-size school.

The present study reveals that teachers' perceptions about distributed leadership practices for IE have significant positive correlation with their satisfaction about

implementation of IE policy. Distributed leadership practices for IE lead to greater satisfaction about the facilitation of IE policy, because distributed leadership practices provide a fair chance to all the members of a school community, including teachers, to influence decisions, practices and policies. It also supports cooperative relationships (Spillane and Healey 2010) which create opportunity to work together in diverse ways to make inclusion happen in a school. Similarly, this study identifies that teachers' perception about distributed leadership practices for IE has significant positive correlation with their satisfaction about the work environment in a school. It is, therefore, evident that if teachers perceived that their schools are exercising distributed leadership practices for IE they also perceive that the work environment of their schools is satisfactory.

The DLPIE scale was developed focusing on a perceived need for a quantitative tool to investigate distributed leadership practices for IE. While this study provides further evidence as critical for the IE agenda in schools, it is limited because it did not specifically investigate perceptions of all the members of a school community. Therefore, the expectation is that the DLPIE scale would be used in further study to explore the perception of all the members of a school community to better explain the existing situation in Bangladeshi primary schools. IE imposes an obligation to provide high-quality education for *all* students. It is clear that when this obligation is shared, teachers are more likely to take responsibilities for IE reform. Sharing responsibility and practice to address the challenges of inclusive schooling will require sustained effort and commitment. Schools may, therefore, need to create spaces for teachers to work together and critically examine their practices in the light of their goals for IE.

Notes on contributors

Jahirul Mullick is a full-time PhD researcher at the Faculty of Education, Monash University. His area of research is leadership practice for inclusive education at primary schools in Bangladesh. He did his Bachelor of Education in science education and Master of Education in educational evaluation and research at the Institute of Education and Research, University of Dhaka. Before starting PhD study he was working at the Institute of Educational Development, BRAC University. He was involved with teacher and school leaders' development programmes named Certificate in Education, Post Graduate Diploma in Education and Master of Education. He has published several journal articles and co-authored a book in Bangla.

Umesh Sharma is a Senior Lecturer at the Faculty of Education, Monash University in Australia. He was principal investigator on several international and national research projects on various aspects of IE including teacher training and attitude measurement. His publications include numerous journal articles and book chapters. He is a member of the International Inclusive Education Research Panel and a member of the editorial boards of *International Journal of Inclusive Education, Australasian Journal of Special Education* and *International Journal of Whole Schooling*. His research interests are attitude and concern measurement, positive behaviour support and teacher efficacy to implement IE.

Joanne Deppeler is Associate Dean of Research Degrees at the Faculty of Education, Monash University in Australia. She was co-investigator on several international research projects and chief investigator on Australian research projects focused on IE in primary and secondary schools including an ARC-Linkage project. Her publications include numerous journal articles, book chapters and she has authored a book on IE. She is chair of the International

Inclusive Education Research Panel, and a member of the editorial boards of *International Journal of Inclusive Education* and the *International Journal of Whole Schooling*. Her research interests focus on the improvement of inclusive practices in schools and the professional learning of psychologists and teachers to support school improvement.

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Appendix 1. Part A: Distributed Leadership Practice for Inclusive Education (DLPIE) Scale

Please circle the number for each statement that reflects your personal opinion.

Key:	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Somewhat Disagree	4 Somewhat Agree	5 Agree	6 Strongly Agree
1. My school arranges professional development training on inclusive education in school for teachers	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. My school supports teachers to take part in professional development training on inclusion organized outside of school	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. My school invites parents to take part in school activities for implementing inclusive education	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. My school monitors classroom activities regularly to understand how the inclusive education is practiced in classroom	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. My school discusses the progress of implementation of inclusive education in staff meeting regularly	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. My school takes initiatives to raise funds required to implement inclusive education	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. My school collaborates with other neighbourhood schools to identify strategies to implement inclusive education	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. My school does not follow collective decision making process to implement inclusive education	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. My school supports to make resource materials (e.g. books, posters, charts) on inclusive education available in school	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. My school applies holistic approach for all the school activities to implement inclusive education	1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix 2. Part B: Background information and perception about work environment and IE

Please respond to the following questions by ticking the box that corresponds with the most appropriate answer that applies to you

1. Your gender

☐ Female ☐ Male

2. Your age is _____

3. What is your highest level of qualification?

☐ SSC ☐ Master's degree

☐ HSC ☐ Others (Please mention)

☐ Bachelor's degree

4. How long have you been in the teaching profession? _____ years

5. What is the grade of your school as per the sub-district education office?

☐ A ☐ C

☐ B

6. Where is your current school located?

☐ Urban ☐ Rural

☐ Suburban

7. What is the type of your current school?

☐ Government Primary School ☐ Registered Non-Government Primary School

8. How many students do you have in your school? _____

9. Professional training you received:

☐ None ☐ B Ed

☐ C-in-Ed ☐ M Ed

10. Do you have any in-service training about inclusion?

☐ Yes ☐ No

11. What is your position in school?

☐ Head teacher ☐ teacher (member of SMC)

☐ teacher (not member of SMC)

12. Are you satisfied with the work environment in your school?

☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Somewhat satisfied	Satisfied	Very satisfied

13. Are you satisfied with the progress of implementation of IE in your school?

☐ 1	☐ 2	☐ 3	☐ 4	☐ 5
Very dissatisfied	Dissatisfied	Somewhat satisfied	Satisfied	Very satisfied

The findings reported in *Manuscript 6* confirmed the argument presented in Chapter 5 that teachers were actively involved in working together to achieve goals and had influence as part of the collaborative process. Findings supported that a school's location (e.g., urban, semi-urban and rural) and size (number of students) has a significant impact on teachers' perceptions regarding distributed leadership practices in the context of IE. Teachers from schools in urban areas and mid-size schools (201-300 students) perceived that distributed leadership practices for IE prevailed in their schools, indicating the influence of context on distributed leadership practice and confirming the argument that schools located in urban areas are operated more efficiently than schools in rural areas (Kantabutra & Tang, 2006). According to Kantabutra and Tang (2006), the lower efficiency of rural schools is related to limited resources, high teacher-student ratios and lack of trained teaching staff in rural schools. Rural schools in Bangladesh face similar challenges.

The findings of this study were in contrast to the results of past research studies (Coleman, 2007; Jean-Marie & Martinez, 2007) in relation to the influence of teachers' gender, age, qualification, teaching experience and professional degrees on their perceptions about leadership practices. Personal factors appeared to have a very limited influence on Bangladeshi teachers' perceptions about distributed leadership practice for IE. This limited influence of personal factors may be due to the very nature of distributed leadership practice which invites 'all' to take part in leadership activities and acknowledges leadership as the interactions and active collaboration of all members as opposed to taking an individualistic (personal) perspective.

The correlation between teachers' perceptions about distributed leadership practices in regard to IE and their satisfaction about implementation of IE reform indicated that the successful implementation of inclusive practices in schools demands the collaboration and participation of all concerned in leadership practices. Factors of the DLPIE scale, including 'taking initiatives and supervising' and 'group effort and valuing efforts of all', confirmed inclusive leadership and distributed leadership practices are consistent with each other. Both approaches to leadership support teachers, parents, students and others in the school in actively participating and influence decisions, practices and policies.

Chapter Summary

This chapter provided evidence that the perception of teachers about distributed leadership practice for IE has a statistically significant positive correlation with teachers' satisfaction related to the implementation of IE reform. This chapter further supported two perspectives related to distributed leadership practices: 1) context has an influence and personal factors have no influence on teachers' perception about distributed leadership practice for IE; and 2) distributed leadership practices and the practices suggested by inclusive leadership are complementary. The next chapter presents implications of this study for IE reform initiatives in primary schools in Bangladesh. It recommends strategies from a leadership perspective which might be effective in implementing IE reform.

CHAPTER 8

Discussion and Conclusion

A number of theoretical and practical implications have emerged from this study. These implications are discussed under three themes in this chapter: 1) engagement of members of the school community in leadership practices; 2) empowerment of leadership at the school level; and 3) collaboration with a wider school community. Directions for future research are suggested, in light of the limitations of this study.

Engagement of Members of the School Community in Leadership Practices

The primary schools that participated in this study operated under a system in which decisions were made at the central level of administration and implemented at the local school level. Despite this top-down system of authority, the findings of this study confirmed that teachers who were not in formal leadership positions played an important role in influencing knowledge production and teaching practices in their schools. Findings further indicated that, along with positional leaders, other members of the school community took an active part in leadership functions and shared their expertise to support teachers who approached them for guidance and advice. It was argued that the findings provided strong evidence that teachers were acknowledged as leaders more than head teachers in enhancing students' participation in their schooling and improving student behaviour in schools. In addition, teachers were also found to influence decisions that develop student learning related to curricular domains (e.g., Language, Mathematics and Science) and student behaviour. It appears that, even within a system

that is structured hierarchically, distributed leadership practices can operate. This finding is consistent with previous studies (Camburn et al., 2003; Jaimes, 2009) and with the conceptual framework of Spillane (2006) which argued that a distributed perspective on leadership places leadership practices, rather than the roles of principals, at the centre in schools.

Statistically significant positive correlations were found between teachers' perceptions about distributed leadership practices in regard to inclusive education (IE) and their satisfaction about the implementation of IE and their satisfaction with their work environment. It suggests that, if teachers' perceptions about distributed leadership practices in relation to IE are positive, their satisfaction about the implementation of IE and their work environment in schools is also positive. This might be due to the collaborative and distributed nature of leadership practices that support and encourage teachers to take ownership of the teaching and curricular activities that are integral to IE reform.

In light of the findings of this study, a number of strategies are recommended to ensure active engagement of members of school communities in leadership practices. First, to enhance IE reforms in schools, the participation of teachers and other members of a school community in leadership practices need to be recognised and valued. However, before active participation of members of school community in leadership practices can be acknowledged, the importance of social influence and interactions (Pitts & Spillane, 2009) in the distributed perspective on leadership must be accepted.

Second, while advice-seeking interactions among teachers are important for effective teaching and learning, schools that intend to promote teachers' participation in leadership practices could enhance the professional learning community (PLC) in schools and move beyond advice-seeking interactions. Effective practices that support the needs of diverse students require opportunities for all teachers to collaborate on a regular basis. A PLC promotes environments that value "sharing, trust, risk-taking, experimentation, collaborative inquiry and self-assessment" (Department of Education and Training [DET], 2005, p. 7). The PLC provides a structure for the professional development of all teachers and is, therefore, particularly relevant to IE reform which challenges schools to ensure high quality teaching for all learners. School leaders agree that the professional development and learning for teachers was important for facilitating IE reform. As every school and every classroom has its own particular context, school-based collaborative inquiry and sharing of successful practices in a PLC may provide a useful approach to meeting teachers' professional development needs (Deppeler, 2012).

Third, it can be argued that the engagement of members of the school community in leadership practices can be considered a key strategy for promoting positive attitudes and values regarding IE. Simultaneously, if leaders are able to share responsibilities related to the goals of IE in their schools, they are more likely to see that implementing IE reform in schools is possible. Participation in leadership practices may support members of the school to actively influence decisions rather than passively accept the decisions of individuals at the top of the hierarchical authority (Nsubuga,

2008). Collective decision-making and acknowledging the contribution of the members of the school community in leadership practices are possible through 'collaborative discussions'. Students' engagement in distributed leadership practices and participation in collaborative discussion may also "...provide solutions to issues that are of importance to them and therefore provide schools with ideas on how to become more inclusive" (Messiou, 2012, p. 1320). This is consistent with the factors identified by the Distributed Leadership Practice for Inclusive Education scale (Mullick, 2013), *group effort* and *valuing efforts of all*, which reinforce the argument that supporting initiatives taken by teachers, parents, students, community representatives and members of the School Management Committee (SMC) is important in defining distributed leadership practices to promote IE in schools.

Empowerment of Leadership at the School Level

This study revealed that the primary education system in Bangladesh employed managerial accountability approaches that encourage highly bureaucratic leadership practices. Accountability approaches that promote hierarchical leadership practices and make schools accountable primarily to the government education office ignore two practices identified by Nsubuga (2008): 1) participatory governance mechanisms; and 2) democratic decision-making. Both these practices are crucial for IE reform because they support empowerment of teachers, parents and students through their engagement in formal and informal school leadership practices.

Government education officers (e.g., Assistant Upazila Education Officer and Upazila Education Officer) working at the sub-district level had significant influence on

school teachers. School teachers were, generally, not authorized to apply new ideas without the approval of government education officers who supervise teachers and learning-teaching activities in schools. It appears that the current organisational structures inhibit school leaders initiating changes and supporting reform activities. This may make school leaders think they are powerless and subordinate. This lack of authority may promote an understanding that IE is not on the agenda of school leaders; rather, it is the priority of the development partners of Bangladesh[5]. School leaders could easily assume that the Directorate of Primary Education (DPE) has adopted IE policy to receive support from these external development partners for education and this is driving their attempts to influence schools to implement IE reform. Consequently, school leaders may view themselves as 'policy implementers' not 'policy makers', and may be less inclined consider the IE reform initiatives as important for their schools. School leaders' attitudes may, in turn, contribute to the non-supportive attitude of members of the school community towards IE.

A strategy called the School Level Improvement Plan (SLIP) was introduced in primary education in Bangladesh in 2007. It was intended to ensure active involvement of the members of the school community, empower them to take policy decisions at the school level and work as a voice for teachers, students and parents (DPE, 2009). The activation of Parent Teacher Associations (PTA) and School Management Committees (SMC) were other important strategies which aimed to extend the opportunity for

[5] Asian Development Bank (ADB), World Bank, European Union (EU), Japan International Cooperation Agency (JICA), Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA), Department for International Development (DFID), Swedish International Development Agency (SIDA), Australian Agency for International Development (AusAID) and UNICEF

teachers and parents to raise their voices for change and development of their schools. The *Education Policy 2010* described SLIP, SMC and PTA as important parts of decentralised management strategies. Although these initiatives were expected to make school leaders feel empowered, findings from this study indicated that there was little evidence of success. This study argued that SLIP, SMC and PTA, as strategies to enhance decentralised management and empowerment of school leaders, were not fully successful.

A number of strategies may promote empowerment of school leaders. School leaders in both formal and informal positions can acquire authority to play a significant role in translating IE policy to practice through IE reform strategies of, for instance, strengthening SMC, SLIP and PTA activities. Establishing behavioural routines is essential to enhance the effectiveness of the SMC, SLIP and PTA. Additionally, the SMC, SLIP and PTA may function as collaborative discussion platforms to encourage all the stakeholders to join voluntarily. Regular participation of members of the school community is critical to minimise the gap between policy and practice in relation to empowerment of the SMC, SLIP and PTA.

The SLIP platform is also not sufficient to garner suggestions from students on how to make schools inclusive. A distinct arrangement for students to allow them to be part of school leadership functions might assist in achieving this goal. Collaborative discussion meetings involving students are necessary to make their voices evident in the decision-making process in schools. Student representation needs to be ensured in the SMC, in a similar way to the SLIP. Currently, students' voices that are supposed to get

attention through SLIP barely have any influence on decision-making in schools. It is imperative that students "want to be able to talk about their experiences as learners and to know that what they say will be taken seriously" (Rudduck & McIntyre, 2007, p. 103). Although student representation is mandatory in SLIP, the diversity of children's voices can hardly be ensured by this mechanism: one student representative in SLIP is inadequate to portray the majority of students' perceptions about their school experiences. It can also be expected that students' voices might be valuable in identifying the best possible instructional strategies that support the needs of all students, particularly those with special needs. However, as Gordon (2010) explained, while "students do have a voice ... it is unfortunate that many students, especially those from the most vulnerable groups, continue to voice that school is not for them" (p. 3). Factors such as students deciding to leave school early, high dropout rates and the exclusion of students continually send the message that their voices do not get sufficient attention within the existing system.

Finally, involvement of school leaders in teacher recruitment can be an important aspect that might empower school leaders. Their involvement might ensure accountability of new teachers to the school community and inspire them to work as a team. Typically, the recruitment process is managed by the central system with the assistance of the District Education Officer (DEO) and other government officials. As school leaders and the community have no involvement in decisions related to recruitment and discharging teachers from their positions, school leaders become less important to the teachers regarding human resource management (HRM) issues. It might

be argued that the government should maintain authority over teacher recruitment because it is the government that provides the salaries of teachers. This argument could go further to suggest that, if school leaders and community people manage the teacher recruitment process, they might compromise the quality of the process and corruption might occur. The authority to discharge teachers from their positions might also create challenging issues in relation to HRM. However, it can be submitted that, without involvement of school leaders in HRM, the empowerment of school leaders might not succeed. To solve this issue, the recruitment process, for example, could be completed in two stages. In the first stage, school leaders and community people may be involved in nominating a number of teachers for the job. In the second stage, the government education office can take necessary steps to identify the potential person to be employed as a teacher. The two-stage process may also be followed when dismissing teachers who fail to discharge their responsibilities as teachers. This model would, thus, provide the opportunity for school leaders and the community to contribute to HRM decision-making. Although it creates two sources of authority, one of whom can exercise initial control (i.e.., school community) and another with final influence and power (i.e., government education office), it provides a means by which the members of a school community would be a part of the power-sharing.

Collaboration with the Wider School Community

The IE reform programme in Bangladesh gained momentum through the National Plan of Action (NPA II) after the Dakar conference on Education for All (EFA) in 2000 (Ahsan & Burnip, 2007). Since civil rights movements or parental persuasion

and advocacy did not play a significant role in initiating IE reform in Bangladesh, the attitude of members of the school community towards IE remained unfavourable. The school leaders who participated in this study identified collaboration as an important solution to address the challenges in implementing the IE policy in Bangladesh. Similar findings were presented by Deslandes (2006) that argued strongly for collaboration with the wider community. Collaboration is an integral component of the *democratic perspective of distributed leadership*. For IE reform, collaboration is important because it allows members to identify "innovative solutions to the unique challenges in schools" and ensures incorporation of "diverse perspectives" (Loreman, et al., 2010, p. 87). Issues related to IE reform require not only the collaboration of all the members involved in school activities but also collaborative interactions with other schools. Members of a school community need to see themselves as part of the greater system which is making progress towards inclusion. The concept of system thinking, coined by Senge (1992) and later elaborated by Fullan (2005), is crucial for IE reform. System thinking allows all the members of a school community to collaborate with other neighbourhood schools and beyond. Denoting school to school collaboration as networking, Ainscow, Muijs, and West (2006) suggested that implementing IE reform is likely through sharing of expertise and resources between schools.

In light of the findings of the present study, a number of recommendations can be presented to enhance collaboration for successful implementation of IE reform in

schools. First, strategies (e.g., 'cluster'[6] meetings and 'sub-cluster'[7] training) that are likely to promote collaboration and networking between schools need to be supported by the DPE. Cluster meetings and sub-cluster training are expected to assist schools to acquire confidence about their approaches towards IE and support capacity building through learning from each other's experiences.

Although Mullick et al. (2012a) suggested that cluster meetings and sub-cluster training were vital innovations by which to practice collaboration and networking between schools, a recent decision of the DPE indicates that it has gradually become regarded as less important. In the past, full day sub-cluster training was held every alternate month but a recent office order issued by the DPE indicated that it would now be held every third month (Directorate of Primary Education [DPE], 2012b). The priority of sub-cluster training is to help teachers understand and be able to prepare lesson plans and assessment tools (to measure students' achievements) and mark students' answer papers. The agenda and timetable proposed by the DPE indicates that a minimum time (half an hour) is allocated for 'open discussions'. However, these discussions require more time than this and the agenda should include conversations on 'challenges related to IE and possible solutions to these challenges'. It can be argued that achieving short-term and long-term outcomes related to IE reform might be possible

[6] A cluster is made up of 20-30 primary schools from a sub-district. A cluster meeting is held each month and presided by Upazila Education Officer (UEO) to disseminate information and identify strategies for upcoming events like child surveys, preparation for terminal exams and more. The participants of cluster meetings are head teachers of all the schools in a cluster (Haq, 2006).

[7] A sub-cluster is made up of 4-5 schools from a cluster. Teachers of primary schools take part in professional development activities in full day sub-cluster training (Mullick & Sheesh, 2008). The Assistant Upazila Education Officer (AUEO) conducts sub-cluster training, which provides regular professional and technical support to teachers for quality teaching and learning (Andaleeb, 1998). Each of the local schools becomes the venue in turn and all the teachers, including head teachers, of one sub-cluster attend the training (Haq, 2006).

if cluster meeting and sub-cluster training are highly active and neighbourhood schools collaborate to support each other through these strategies.

Second, collaboration with other agencies (both public and private) beyond schools needs to be promoted. A school is not always expected to be fully prepared with its own support systems to offer all sorts of facilities (e.g., financial, physical health, mental wellbeing) to *all* the children to ensure IE. In order to enhance learning of diverse students, schools need to work continuously to improve skills and adopt new strategies. Therefore, collaboration beyond schools can be established with different organisations, including local government organisations, development organisations and charity organisations. Medical professionals working in the government sector and health workers, social workers and other personnel working in development and charity organisations in a locality can provide support to the schools in their neighbourhood.

Finally, members of the school community (e.g., head teacher, teachers, members of SMC, parents) may take leadership initiatives to establish access to wider support systems for schools, particularly for students. If schools undertake community support activities (e.g., tree plantation, hygiene awareness campaign, eco-living campaign, community health awareness etc.) involving local resources, it might be easy to attract attention for support in the future for schools.

Limitations of the Study and Directions for Future Research

Although the above suggestions to facilitate IE reform were given based on the findings of this study, these need to be understood in light of a few limitations. Phase-I

of this study applied the Social Network Survey (SNS) to identify nominated leaders through social networking analysis and to explore the nature of the network and its influence on school practices. The SNS used advice-seeking interactions as the basis for identifying leadership but other forms of interaction (e.g., modelling activities) were not taken into account. It might be that teachers who were not directly involved in 'advice-giving' may not have been identified as leaders but may contribute to leadership in other ways which were not captured by the SNS. This phase involved ten primary schools from a sub-district and limits the ability of the findings to be generalised to other settings beyond the current context. A national representative sample is required to make the findings (based on data collected through SNS) more reflective and to ensure its generalisation.

Phase-III developed the DLPIE scale following standard steps suggested in the literature (Bond & Fox, 2001; DeVellis, 2003) to examine the perception of teachers about distributed leadership practice for IE. This phase also examined the relationship of the perception of teachers about distributed leadership practice with regard to IE, satisfaction about implementation of IE and satisfaction about the work environment in schools. This study did not analyse the perceptions of other members of the school community (e.g., parents, students, members of SMC). Therefore, future studies might include all the members of the school community to examine the existing distributed leadership practices from all possible perspectives. In order to explore the authentic practices and forms of distributed leadership in schools, researchers in future might consider observing formal (SMC, PTA and SLIP meetings) and informal meetings. It is

likely that future research regarding distributed leadership practices for IE in schools may provide additional insights about decision-making processes and the extent and form of the involvement of all members.

While the SNS used in the current study was able to shed light on advice-giving aspects of leadership, further studies are needed to investigate other forms of leadership aspects including, but not restricted to, modelling activities, coaching, mentoring and other forms of professional support. Future research is also needed to explore how the decentralisation procedure can work and what teachers are expecting as, and from, an empowerment process. Decentralisation and teachers' empowerment are compatible with IE reform (Jones et al., 2013), therefore, exploring school leaders' understanding and teachers' voices might be valuable in evincing change in the existing system.

This study identified that the Bangladesh government's education personnel at the sub-district level held influential positions in leadership structures. At the school level, the majority of decisions relating to IE reform were only able to be implemented, with support from government's education personnel at different levels (e.g., division, district, and sub-district), but neither made nor independently executed. Therefore, future studies need to investigate the beliefs and attitude towards IE held by the government's education personnel as they are so dominant in the process. Future studies might also explore the impact of hierarchical management systems on the decision-making process.

Since the important goals of a school are to ensure presence, participation and achievement of *all* students (Ainscow, 2005), future studies could examine the

relationship between student achievement and distributed leadership practices in regard to IE reform in schools. The data on students' achievements generated from the national assessment results may play an important role in further IE studies or a separate assessment process could be developed to fulfil the purpose of the study.

Conclusion

This mixed-method study investigated leadership practices from a distributed perspective. It provided strong evidence that distributed leadership practices were prevalent in schools and teachers without formal leadership positions were involved in leadership functions. The study further identified that the education system in Bangladesh was structured hierarchically with a managerial accountability approach that provided limited authority to members of the school community. This hierarchical approach inhibited the participation of parents and students in leadership practices and limited the authority of school leaders to employ innovative changes. Another key outcome of this study was that it identified statistically significant, positive correlations between teachers' perceptions about distributed leadership practices in regard to IE and their perceptions about satisfaction related to implementations of IE and the work environment in schools. To ensure the active participation of a wider school community (e.g., students, parents and others) and support them in finding creative solutions to the challenges their schools face in implementing IE, distributed leadership practices need to expand by enhancing the contribution and enfranchisement of parents, students and other member of the school community.

Epilogue

Subsequent to the data collection for this study, the government of Bangladesh commenced a sector-wide program, named 'Third Primary Education Development Programme' (PEDP3), in 2011. The intent of the PEDP3 was to establish "an efficient, inclusive and equitable primary education system delivering effective and relevant child-friendly learning" (Directorate of Primary Education [DPE], 2011, p. 3). This section presents the implications of this study for the PEDP3 and includes a manuscript titled 'Implementing inclusive education in primary schools in Bangladesh: Recommended strategies'. This manuscript combines the findings of this study with two other doctoral studies that investigated implementation strategies for inclusive education (IE) reform in primary education in Bangladesh.

It appears that the policy document of PEDP3 acknowledged several strategies raised by this study to enhance school level leadership practices. First, school leaders are expected to generate resources for their schools which empower them to support development plans. Secondly, functions and responsibilities of school level management bodies (School Management Committee, School Level Improvement Plan committee, Parent-Teacher Association) are likely to be expanded to decentralise planning, management and monitoring of school development activities. The recent policy guidelines for the Upazila Primary Education Plan (UPEP) and School Management Committee (SMC) proposed by the Directorate of Primary Education (DPE) indicate that SMC, SLIP and UPEP are expected to require approval for all their activities by the education office of the government (DPE, 2012a, 2012b). It is,

however, highly unlikely that decentralisation of school management and general empowerment of school leaders are possible under these guidelines that support a managerial accountability system.

The policy document of PEDP3 further acknowledged allocation of limited resources as a challenge. In order to address this challenge and reduce disparities, PEDP3 proposed several action-oriented reform strategies such as "reducing overcrowded classrooms through needs based infrastructure development, providing sanitation and water to schools on a needs basis, providing school health and school feeding programmes, providing stipends to the poorest children" (DPE, 2011, p. 4). However, the 'Gender and Inclusive Education Action Plan' of PEDP3 demonstrated that there was no plan related to the improvement of the support system for children with special needs. Despite screening activities and the necessary seating arrangements for children with special needs being mentioned several times, the PEDP3 action plan needs to incorporate two additional strategies to assist these children: 1) the development of a support system for children with disabilities; and 2) providing assistive devices to the children with special needs.

It is expected that the education professionals involved with PEDP 3 may acquire insights from the evidence, findings and recommendations of this study and *Manuscript 7* to implementing IE reform more successfully in primary education in Bangladesh.

Manuscript 7: Implementing Inclusive Education in Primary Schools in Bangladesh: Recommended Strategies

Declaration for Publication

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The nature and extent of contributions to the work involved the following:

Name	Extent of contribution (%)	Nature of contribution
Masud Ahmmed	50%	Initiation of publication, instigator of ideas, conducted literature review, prepared the draft manuscript jointly, submitted for publication; *First author*
Jarirul Mullick	50%	Initiation of publication, instigator of ideas, conducted literature review, prepared the draft manuscript jointly; *Co-author*

Declaration by first author

The undersigned hereby certify that:

(1) the above declaration correctly reflects the nature and extent of the candidate's contribution to this work, and the nature of the contribution of each of the co-authors;

(2) they meet the criteria for authorship in that they have participated in the conception, execution, or interpretation, of at least that part of the publication in their field of expertise;

(3) they take public responsibility for their part of the publication, except for the responsible author who accepts overall responsibility for the publication;

(4) there are no other authors of the publication according to these criteria;

(5) potential conflicts of interest have been disclosed to (a) granting bodies, (b) the editor or publisher of journals or other publications, and (c) the head of the responsible academic unit; and

(6) the original data are stored at the following location(s) and will be held for at least five years from the date indicated below:

Location(s)	There is no personal data that requires storage for this paper.
Signature 1	[redacted] **Date: 20 July 2013**

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ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Implementing inclusive education in primary schools in Bangladesh: recommended strategies

Masud Ahmmed · Jahirul Mullick

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Abstract Continued discrimination towards, and exclusion of, children with special needs, combined with the high dropout rate of students from socio-economically disadvantaged backgrounds, creates considerable pressure on the inclusive education (IE) reform initiatives of developing countries. To minimise the challenges to implementing IE reform policies into classroom level practices, education systems need to apply strategies which are contextually useful. Bangladesh has introduced a number of policies and acts to support IE reform in regular schools. In the past, there were few and limited empirical studies in the context of primary education, which focus on IE. Recently, a number of studies conducted in Bangladesh have identified some contextual issues underpinning IE implementation. This paper reports on three such doctoral studies that investigated issues related to the implementation of IE policy in primary schools in Bangladesh. This paper focuses on the implications of the major findings of those studies. It is expected that the contextual evidence and implications of the findings will help primary education development programmes implement IE policy more successfully.

Keywords Inclusive education · Teacher development · Decentralisation · School leadership · Bangladesh

1 Introduction

Bangladesh undertook a second National Plan of Action (NPA II) in 2002 to achieve education for all (EFA) by 2015. Complying with the principles of inclusive education (IE) (UNESCO 1994), the Dakar Framework of Action (UNESCO 2000) and human rights-

M. Ahmmed (✉)
Faculty of Education, Monash University, Room 413, Building 6, Clayton, VIC 3800, Australia
e-mail: [redacted]

J. Mullick
Faculty of Education, Monash University, 54 Beddoe Ave., Clayton, VIC 3168, Australia
e-mail: [redacted]

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related UN declarations [e.g., UN Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989)], the major goal of the NAP II was to ensure basic primary education for every child without discrimination related to disability, gender, ethnicity or religion. Nevertheless, high average rates of repetition (12 %), dropout (13 %) and student absenteeism (19 %) indicate that the NPA II is facing challenges in achieving education for all within the planned timeframe (DPE 2009). Implementing IE reform is not only a challenge for Bangladesh but also for education systems around the globe (Ainscow 2005). During the Dakar Conference in 2000, the lack of a national policy that supports IE was identified as one of the key challenges for non-Western countries. A decade later, the majority of Western and non-Western countries had adopted policies that supported IE reform (UNESCO 2010). However, there is a mismatch between IE reform at policy and practice level in non-Western countries, particularly in countries with low economic status such as Bangladesh. Continuous discrimination towards children with special needs and exclusion of them from schools, plus the early dropout of socio-economically disadvantaged students has substantially compromised the IE reform initiatives of non-Western countries (Inclusion International 2009). Education systems require contextually relevant strategies to address these complications and implement IE reform policies successfully.

It was argued by researchers (Sharma et al. 2013; Singal 2005) that, typically, educational programmes in developing countries are designed without contextual and empirical evidence and educational polices are drawn up by policy makers with limited participation of members of the school community. Experiences with implementing the first (1997–2003) and second (2004–2011) primary education development programmes in Bangladesh indicated that, without contextual and empirical evidence framing such programmes, they might not be helpful in achieving the intended goals. Subsequently, Bangladesh has launched a programme named the *Third Primary Education Development Programme* (PEDP3), a government initiative with significant financial and technical support from international development partners (e.g., World Bank and Asian Development Bank). It is a sector-wide programme, covering Grades I–V and 1 year of pre-primary education, with the goal of establishing an efficient, inclusive and equitable primary education system delivering effective and relevant child-friendly learning to all children (DPE 2011). In order to make the implementation of IE successful under the PEDP3 initiative, it is important to know the contextual issues embedded in the prospects and challenges of IE practices in Bangladesh. Since IE is at its inception stage in Bangladesh (Ahsan and Mullick 2013), there have been few empirical studies in the setting of primary education. However, recently, a number of studies have been conducted in Bangladesh with a particular focus on IE. This paper reports on the major findings of three doctoral studies investigating issues related to the implementation of IE policy in primary schools, notably on the implications of those findings. The findings of these studies offer contextual evidence and implications that may assist the PEDP 3 to implement IE policy successfully.

2 Strategies to implement IE reform

At the school level, there are four groups of key players who facilitate IE reform. They are teachers, students, parents and community members (Loreman et al. 2010). IE reform demands these players cooperate with each other in decision-making as well as the implementation process, with an aim to achieve inclusion in all areas of school activities. Studies (e.g., Forlin and Sin 2010; Leyser et al. 2011) suggest that teacher education is one of the levers for change towards inclusion since its effectiveness can positively impact on teacher attitudes

and teaching confidence to implement inclusive practices. Sharma et al. (2013) identified that limited professional qualifications of the teachers were a major barrier for the countries from the Asia-Pacific region to implement an inclusive approach in regular schools. Improvement in the quality and content of pre-service and in-service teacher education programmes is necessary. Opertti and Belalcázar (2008) suggested that:

> Teacher education programmes need to change from a deviance/labelling discourse (establishing a hierarchy of cognitive skills to place each student in a rather closed system) to one of inclusion (highlighting the open learning potential of each student, which can progressively be discovered and stimulated) (p. 133).

Active involvement of students, parents and the community in school activities is important for IE reform, because "democratic processes of representation and collaboration are essential for understanding and incorporating diverse perspectives" (Loreman et al. 2010, p.87). The opportunity for all school community members to take part in a cooperative decision-making process might also encourage them to take ownership of IE reform and develop positive attitudes towards inclusion. In order to ensure involvement of these members, decentralisation and empowerment of school level leadership can be considered an effective strategy (Ainscow and Sandill 2010). Resource allocation is another important step to make IE reform effective. Resources are necessary to educate children with special needs and children from disadvantaged backgrounds in regular classroom settings (Kuyini and Desai 2007; Vorapanya and Dunlap 2012). Extra resources could empower schools to, for example, provide financial support to children from socio-economically disadvantaged families who sometimes come to school without breakfast. In addition, teachers need to perceive that they are supported by the school community while implementing IE and they need to feel that the required instructional resources are supplied. Most importantly, the success of IE demands positive attitudes of the teachers (Cook 2002).

3 Methodology

The three doctoral studies considered for this paper were all 'theses by publication' and each of the studies published several papers in academic journals. These papers reported findings related to different aspects of IE in Bangladesh (e.g., pre-service and in-service teachers' attitude and efficacy about IE, and leadership practice for IE). An overview of these three studies is described below, including Table 1 that outlines the papers related to these studies.

3.1 Overview of the studies

3.1.1 Study 1

This study comprises three papers which investigated pre-service teachers' self-efficacy, attitudes and concerns regarding IE in Bangladesh. It also explored beliefs and challenges perceived by the heads of the higher education institutions that provide pre-service teacher education. *Study 1*examined both the primary and the secondary education sector but this paper focuses on the findings specifically related to primary education. The study employed survey questionnaires including the *Teacher Efficacy for Inclusive Practice (TEIP)* (Sharma et al. 2012) and the *Sentiments, Attitudes and Concerns regarding Inclusive Education (SACIE)* (Loreman et al. 2007) scales. The study also employed a semi-structured interview protocol

Table 1 Overview of the three studies and their related papers

Broader study	Title of paper	Participants	Data collection	Data analysis
Study 1	Beliefs of pre-service teacher education institutional heads about inclusive education in Bangladesh	Heads of higher education institutions ($n = 22$)	Interviews	Thematic analysis
	Exploring pre-service teachers' perceived teaching-efficacy, attitudes and concerns about inclusive education in Bangladesh	Pre-service teachers ($n = 1{,}623$)	Survey questionnaires	Multiple regression
	Challenges to prepare pre-service teachers for inclusive education in Bangladesh: beliefs of higher educational institutional heads	Heads of higher education institutions ($n = 22$)	Interviews	Thematic analysis
Study 2	Variables affecting teachers' intentions to include students with disabilities in regular primary schools in Bangladesh	In-service teachers ($n = 738$)	Survey questionnaires	Hierarchical regression
	Impact of demographic variables and school support on teacher efficacy in inclusive classrooms in Bangladesh	In-service teachers ($n = 738$)	Survey questionnaires	Multiple regression
	Variables affecting teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education in Bangladesh	In-service teachers ($n = 738$)	Survey questionnaires	Multiple regression
Study 3	Accountability and leadership practices in Bangladeshi schools: a supportive approach for implementing inclusive education Policy?	Nominated school leaders ($n = 21$)	Interviews	Thematic analysis
	Leadership practice structures in regular primary schools involved in inclusive education reform in Bangladesh	Teachers and head teachers ($n = 79$)	Social Network Survey (SNS)	Descriptive statistics
	Inclusive education reform in primary schools of Bangladesh: leadership challenges and possible strategies to address the challenges	Nominated school leaders ($n = 21$)	Interviews	Thematic analysis

Table 1 continued

Broader study	Title of paper	Participants	Data collection	Data analysis
	School teachers' perception about distributed leadership practices for inclusive education in primary schools in Bangladesh	Teachers and head teachers ($n = 673$)	Survey questionnaire	ANOVA, Tukey HSD and correlation test

to gather data from selected heads of higher education institutions. The participants were pre-service teachers in their final semester/term and heads of higher education institutions [e.g., Deans/Directors of Faculty in a university, principals of Teachers' Training Colleges (TTC), and heads of Primary Teachers' Training Institutes (PTI)]. The total number of participants was 1,623 pre-service teachers (890 from PTI, 539 from TTC and 194 from universities that offer 4-year teacher education) for the survey and 22 institutional heads for interviews. The quantitative data were analysed applying descriptive statistics and multiple regressions. The qualitative data were analysed following thematic analysis procedure.

3.1.2 Study 2

Study 2 includes three papers which examined the variables influencing teachers' intentions to include a student with a disability in a regular classroom, attitudes towards inclusion of students with disabilities, and teacher efficacy to implement inclusive practices. It also explored the views of the teachers towards IE implementation and the factors underpinning these views. *Study 2* applied a number of survey questionnaires including a modified version of the *School Principals' Attitudes toward Inclusion (SPATI) scale* (Bailey 2004) and *TEIP* (Sharma et al. 2012) scales to collect data. The participants of *Study 2* were teachers working in government primary schools in four sub-districts (each from urban and semi-urban, and two from rural sub-districts) of the Dhaka division in Bangladesh. A total of 738 in-service teachers took part in the survey. In addition, 22 in-service teachers participated in focus group interviews (FGI). The quantitative data were analysed applying a series of statistical procedures including one-way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA), Multiple Regression and Hierarchical Regression. A thematic analysis process was followed to analyse the FGI data.

3.1.3 Study 3

Study 3 presented four papers which investigated leadership practices in primary schools involved in IE reform. Distributed leadership practice was the overall frame of *Study 3*. Distributed leadership means leadership should not be a set of roles or responsibilities of any one individual. Rather, it is the actions and interactions (e.g., debate, discussion and dialogue) of all individuals involved with the reform efforts (Harris 2008). *Study 3* collected both qualitative and quantitative data applying three instruments, including a Social Network Survey (SNS), semi-structured interview protocol and a questionnaire. The participants for SNS were all the teachers and head teachers ($n = 79$) from 10 primary schools of one sub-district in Bangladesh. Using the semi-structured interview protocol, head teachers, teachers

Table 2 Predictors of pre-service teachers' self-efficacy, attitudes and concerns about IE (Ahsan et al. 2012a, p. 23)

Dependent variables	Predictor variables	Standardised coefficient β	Sig. P
Teaching-efficacy for IE[a]	Level of training	.063	.041
	Length of training	−.158	.000
	Gender	−.053	.048
	Interaction with a person with disability	.118	.000
	Knowledge of the legislation	.131	.000
	Confidence in teaching a student with disability	.128	.000
Attitudes towards IE[b]	Level of training	.089	.006
	Gender	.056	.047
Concerns about IE[c]	Level of training	.068	.033
	Age	.079	.039
	Interaction with a person with disability	.073	.006
	Confidence in teaching student with disability	.130	.000
	Experience in teaching a student with disability	.078	.013

[a] Teaching-efficacy model ($F14, 1608 = 16.859$, $P < 0.0005$; Adjusted $R^2 = 0.120$)
[b] Attitude model ($F14, 1608 = 2.463$, $P < 0.0005$; Adjusted $R^2 = 0.012$)
[c] Concern model ($F14, 1608 = 9.025$, $P < 0.0005$; Adjusted $R^2 = 0.065$)

and members of school management committee (SMC) ($n = 21$) were interviewed. The survey was completed by 673 teachers and head teachers from three different sub-districts. The survey participants were identified through a two-stage cluster sampling and the quantitative data were analysed applying descriptive statistics, ANOVA, Tukey HSD test and Pearson product-moment correlations. General inductive thematic analysis procedure was applied to analyse the qualitative data.

4 Major findings

Given the trends and objectives of the studies included in this paper, the findings have been presented with two major themes: (a) preparedness of pre- and in-service teachers for IE enactment, and (b) role of leadership for IE reform.

4.1 Preparedness of pre- and in-service teachers for IE enactment

Study 1 found that length of training, contact with a person with a disability, knowledge of the legislation and confidence in teaching a student with a disability are all highly associated with pre-service teachers' teaching efficacy with regard to implementing IE. It also found that teacher training and gender of the pre-service teachers were associated with their attitudes towards IE. Findings also revealed that the duration of teacher training, contact with a

Table 3 Predictors of in-service teachers' intentions, attitudes and efficacy about inclusion (Ahmmed et al. 2012, 2013a,b)

Dependent variable	Predictor variables	Standardised coefficients β	Sig. P
Teachers' intentions to include students with disabilities[a]	Teachers' attitudes	.264	.000
	Perceived school support	.383	.000
	Teacher efficacy	.259	.000
	Age	−.230	.004
	Teaching experience	.261	.002
Teacher attitudes towards IE[b]	Perceived school support	.220	.000
	Past success in teaching student with disabilities	.201	.000
	Contact with a student with disability in the classroom	.097	.008
	Gender	−.116	.001
	Educational qualification	−.106	.007
Teacher efficacy to implement inclusive teaching practices[c]	Perceived school support	.160	.000
	Past success in teaching student with disabilities	.137	.000
	Acquaintance with a person with disability outside the classroom	.209	.000
	Contact with a student with disability in the classroom	.137	.000

[a] Intentions model: $R^2 = 0.42$; R^2 change = 0.015 ($P < .05$);
[b] Attitudes model: $R^2 = 0.157$; R^2 change = 0.146 ($P < .05$);
[c] Efficacy model: $R^2 = 0.142$; R^2 change = 0.131 ($P < .005$)

person with a disability and confidence and experience in teaching students with disabilities influences pre-service teachers' levels of concern about IE (see Table 2). On the other hand, *Study 2* found that teacher attitudes, teaching efficacy and perceived school support positively influenced teachers' intentions towards inclusion. A number of demographic variables (e.g., past success in teaching students with disabilities and contact with a student with a disability) were positively associated with teacher attitudes and teacher efficacy. Across the variables, perceived school support influenced teacher attitudes, teaching efficacy and teacher intentions.

The findings of *Study 1* indicated that pre-service teachers in Bangladesh had moderately positive attitudes, relatively high levels of teaching-efficacy and low levels of concern about IE. However, *Study 2* found that the level of in-service teachers' attitude was close to neutral (neither positive nor negative) and the in-service teachers had fairly high levels of perceived teaching-efficacy. At the same time, the level of intention to include students with disabilities was found to be close to 'somewhat positive'. The focus group interviews in *Study 2* indicated that, although in-service teachers were sceptical about the success of full inclusion under existing conditions in regular schools, they were willing to include students with disabilities in regular classrooms, based on notions of social responsibility and professional obligation. Whilst they considered IE to be an effective approach to achieve education for all, their main concern was the lack of support from major stakeholders, including head teachers, school management committees, colleagues and parents of students with disabilities (Table 3).

Study 1 found that the current pre-service teacher education programme is inadequate because it did not fully prepare teachers for inclusive teaching practices. The duration of the programme is too short and it follows conventional teaching–learning methods. *Study 1* also found that institutional heads believed that pre-service teachers required adequate support at the time of their teaching practicum but this was currently absent. The study further revealed that many pre-service teachers were not sufficiently motivated to choose teaching as a profession. It found the existing teaching–learning approaches required modification to meet the learning needs of all students, which institutional heads believed was not happening in present practice. Congruent with *Study 1, Study 2* found that existing in-service teacher training did not improve teaching efficacy, teacher attitudes or teachers' intentions with regard to IE. *Study 2* further showed that teachers with a qualification of Master's degree or above had less positive attitudes towards IE compared to teachers with below Bachelor and Bachelor degree qualifications.

All three studies found that existing support (including financial support, human resource support, mental and material support) was very important but inadequate for implementing IE in mainstream schools. *Study 2* found that teachers perceived both human and instructional resources were insufficient. *Study 3* revealed that classroom teachers, head teachers and members of school management committees perceived a need for the physical environment of the classroom and school as a whole to be made disability and special needs friendly. Indeed, existing resources fell short of meeting the basic needs of all students and teachers. For example, as *Study 3* reported, some of the schools did not have separate toilet facilities for boys and girls and teachers faced challenges when conducting group work because of small classrooms.

4.2 Role of leadership for IE reform

Study 3 revealed that members of school communities, including both formal leaders (e.g., School Management Committee and head teacher) and informal leaders (e.g., teachers, parents and local leaders), had minimal participation in the teacher recruitment and curriculum development processes. They have the responsibility to inform the central system office about the need to employ teachers if teacher:student ratios become too high but the final recruitment decision is made by the Directorate of Primary Education (DPE). As the central decision-making body of primary education, the DPE designs and develops the teacher development curriculum without involving schools in the process: existing practices deny the collaborative participation of both teachers and other allied stakeholders in decision making about teachers' needs regarding further professional development in relation to IE.

Study 3 reported that, as school leaders could not implement changes in practice in their schools without the approval of the education office, they felt powerless. They did not feel they were considered *democratic professionals*, but rather *bureaucratic subordinates* who were there to merely follow decisions coming from the central management. This hierarchical management system made the school accountable to the government system rather than to the school community. *Study 3* described the management accountability approach in primary education in Bangladesh as per Fig. 1

Study 3 further identified that, according to school leaders, one of the strong challenges in implementing IE policy in primary education in Bangladesh is the centralised and top–down approach of the school management system. The empowerment of members of the school community (teachers, parents and students) is identified as a possible solution, giving school leaders the authority to make decisions in areas such as:

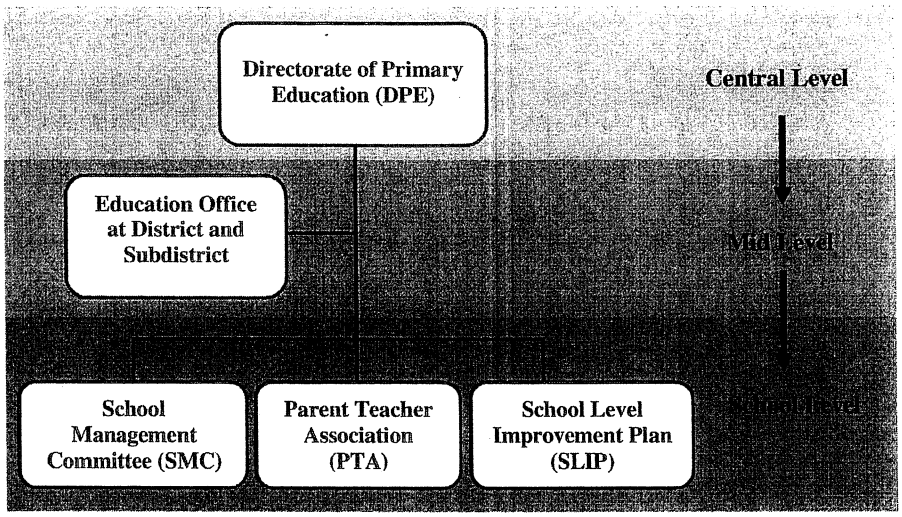

Fig. 1 Hierarchical control process (Mullick and Deppeler 2011, p. 283)

Table 4 Instances of advice-seeking interactions

Nominated leaders	Student participation in their schooling	Enhancing student's behaviour	Student learning in language	Student learning in mathematics	Student learning in science
Head teacher	69	67	58	48	40
Teacher	88	127	154	150	175
Members of SMC	101	53	12	6	6
Education officer	81	16	47	38	31
Parents	24	59	8	7	7
URC instructor	5	0	11	5	2
Others	20	10	5	8	2

- Employing teachers and caregivers;
- Devising and implementing initiatives;
- Identifying and/or mobilising resources;
- Enabling collaboration with other schools or local organisations;
- Developing and conducting professional development activities; and
- The involvement of members of the community in school activities.

Study 3 revealed which personnel carried the responsibilities and influenced interactions related to school operations and classroom instructions. Advice-givers in social-influence interactions were considered to be the school leaders because they inspired and influenced the practice of advice-seekers and their nomination by multiple individuals led to their consideration for the leadership position. Table 4 demonstrates that teachers, head teachers, members of school management committee, the education officer, the instructor of Upazila Resource Centre (URC), and others (former head teachers, teachers from

other schools) were recognised as leaders on the basis of frequency of advice-seeking interactions.

Most advice-seeking interactions with teachers were about student behaviour and student learning in relation to language, mathematics and science. Members of the School Management Committee had the highest number of instances of advice-seeking interactions on students' participation in their schooling. Parents were mostly consulted about enhancing students' behaviour.

5 Discussion and recommendations

The findings indicated that several variables, including teachers' contact with a person with a disability, adequate and effective teacher education, and experience in teaching students with disabilities, were associated with pre-service teachers' preparedness for implementing IE. The major variables which had significant influence on in-service teachers' attitudes and teaching efficacy were school support, contact with a person with a disability and past success in teaching students with disabilities. Contact with a person with a disability had a positive impact on both pre- and in-service teachers' teaching efficacy which demonstrates that familiarity with a person with a disability could be associated with a more positive attitude towards inclusion. A study conducted by Hadjikakou and Mnasonos (2012) supported this argument. The findings, which revealed that past success in teaching a student with a disability positively influences pre- and in-service teachers' efficacy and attitudes, are congruent with other studies (e.g., Campbell et al. 2003; Sharma and Chow 2008). In-service teachers' attitudes, teacher efficacy and intentions to include students with disabilities in regular classrooms had a positive association with teachers' perception of having school support and required resources. This support includes cooperation from the school community and the availability of both human and instructional resources (Ahmmed 2013). Similarly, it was found that support and resources for pre-service teachers were inadequate for preparing them for teaching in an inclusive classroom. These findings are consistent with international studies (e.g., Heiman 2001; Horne and Timmons 2009) which emphasised school support as a significant ingredient for inclusive teaching practices.

It was also revealed that the existing pre- and in-service teacher training programmes for primary education did not adequately address the principles of IE reform. In order to prepare teachers for implementing IE in primary schools in Bangladesh, it is necessary that the teacher education programme (for pre-service teachers) is updated to correspond with the requirements for implementing IE (e.g., context-based, teaching–learning approaches). For this, IE-related information and child-focused approaches need to be included in the teacher education curriculum for pre-service teachers (Ahsan et al. 2011, 2012b). Similarly, it is important to design needs-based professional development (PD) activities for in-service teachers (Ahmmed et al. 2012). In sum, the PEDP3 should ensure an effective, needs-based, sustainable teacher education and teacher development curriculum for both pre- and in-service teachers. Therefore, the existing teacher education curriculum needs to be revised to take account of the challenges and possibilities (e.g., use of the variables impacting on teacher attitudes and teaching efficacy in training programmes). Teachers' representation in PD curriculum improvement might assist in ascertaining the training's effectiveness. School-based PD for in-service teachers could be useful in Bangladesh because it could be cost effective and provide hands-on experience in a familiar environment.

Active involvement of the community may be another important strategy to implement IE reform effectively in primary schools. Although there are school management commit-

tees comprised of representatives from parents, teachers and the local community, in many cases they are not supportive of teachers implementing IE reform (Mullick et al. 2012). More participation of community members, including allied professionals (e.g., health professionals), parents, and community leaders in decision making for IE implementation in the schools is needed. Such involvement may increase the levels of enrolment of school children with disabilities without the adverse effects of the social stigma many of those children encounter (Ackerman et al. 2005).

School leaders have very limited authority to bring about changes to practices in primary schools in Bangladesh. It was found that the existing power structure follows a hierarchical management approach which, as mentioned above, excludes head teachers, members of the SMC, teachers and parents from the teacher recruitment process (Mullick et al. 2012a) as teachers are recruited by the DPE in conjunction with the local education office at a district and sub-district level. Therefore, it is clear that the current teacher recruitment policy does not fully address the individual school context or the needs of the classroom for IE practices. The participation of school personnel in teacher recruitment processes could encourage needs-based teacher recruitment. For example, schools may recruit a special needs expert for 1a cluster of schools to train classroom teachers in IE. International studies (e.g., Devecchi et al. 2012) support the effectiveness of such professionals for implementing IE in schools. However, there is currently no provision for these teachers in primary schools in Bangladesh. The study identified the need to sanction the school community as a possible means of addressing the existing power imbalance. Empowerment of school leaders can also be expected to provide better support for the school system through more effective resource mobilisation at the school level, as well as the effective implementation of IE. PEDP3 should consider permitting the local authority of the schools to make decisions and purchase instructional materials, as required. Although it would not seem necessary for each school to have a technology-supported classroom for implementing IE, for example, each school should be permitted to address this issue locally, appropriate to its requirements.

Teachers, head teachers, members of the SMC, education officers and instructors of Upazila Resource Centre were recognised as key leaders on the basis of their social influence (Mullick et al. 2012b). The reason was that, as leaders, they inspire the practice of advice seekers and influence interactions. However, parents and students do not have significant participation in the school leadership. Since students "are the recipients and participants of inclusive educational practices", their commitment is essential in implementing IE in classroom (Gordon 2010, p. 1). Lack of parental support and involvement also poses a challenging situation for teachers, since parents are considered "integral partners in developing a more inclusive system, where decision making and the responsibility for outcomes are shared" (Swart et al. 2004, p. 81). The supportive attitude of parents, students and members of the wider community is vital (Palmer et al. 1998). It can be argued that empowerment of the school community members (e.g., teachers, parents, SMC) and their engagement in school activities (e.g., inviting parents to work as teacher aides) would help all parties realise the importance of IE in regular schools. In addition, this engagement and empowerment might contribute to positive attitudes towards the inclusion of children with different abilities and backgrounds. Since the education of children and youths with disabilities in regular schools is a recent phenomenon in Bangladesh, creating awareness about IE at the local and national level has the potential to generate a positive impact. Without information and knowledge, many community members, including parents of children with disabilities from poor economic backgrounds, do not know about the educational opportunities for these children in neighbourhood schools. Awareness about the rights and possibilities of education may positively impact on enrolment of those children in regular schools.

It is, thus, apparent from this paper that implementing IE reform in primary schools in Bangladesh requires decentralisation of the hierarchical management structure to increase engagement and empowerment of the school community. If the decentralisation process merely encourages the school community to take responsibilities for IE reform through School Management Committee (SMC), School Level Improvement Plan (SLIP) and Parent Teacher Association (PTA), the expected goal might not be achieved. School communities should also have the authority to make decisions in relation to different development activities including teacher development, teacher recruitment and supporting teachers with required resources. The central agency (i.e., the DPE) should be ensuring effective on-going liaison and coordination between schools and other related services (e.g., teacher education providers and other allied professionals), providing support and creating opportunities for members of the school community, so that they can acquire the experiences necessary to implement IE reform successfully. In addition, the PEDP3 should not follow the footsteps of PEDPII (Second Primary Education Development Program), which introduced School Level Improvement Plan (SLIP) in 2007 and placed the education office (district and sub-district level) in the authoritative position (Mullick and Deppeler 2011). It might be useful if PEDP3 learns from the experiences of the previous project, PEDPII, when, due to the lack of institutional experience, capability and support, IE could not be implemented to the targeted level (DPE 2012). It is anticipated that this paper might inform the PEDP3 about some contextually useful strategies to implement IE reform in Bangladesh and other developing counties, where rigorous contextual validation would be required.

The authors of this paper acknowledge that comprehensive understanding of the existing challenges in implememnting IE in mainstream classrooms requires further studies. None of the three studies reported in this paper investigated the perceptions of students and their families. Future studies should involve all the members of the school community, including students and parents. Despite the limitations, it is anticipated that this paper may inform the stakeholders of education in Bangladesh and other developing countries (e.g., South Asian countries) with similar issues and challenges about useful strategies for implementing IE in mainstream education.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Human Ethics Certificate of Approval

MONASH University

Monash University Human Research Ethics Committee (MUHREC)
Research Office

Human Ethics Certificate of Approval

Date:	24 November 2009
Project Number:	CF09/2468 – 2009001432
Project Title:	Leadership practice and inclusive education reform: Primary schools in Bangladesh
Chief Investigator:	Assoc Prof Joanne Deppeler
Approved:	From: 24 November 2009 To: 24 November 2014

Terms of approval

1. The Chief Investigator is responsible for ensuring that permission letters are obtained, if relevant, and a copy forwarded to MUHREC before any data collection can occur at the specified organisation. Failure to provide permission letters to MUHREC before data collection commences is in breach of the National Statement on Ethical Conduct in Human Research and the Australian Code for the Responsible Conduct of Research.
2. Approval is only valid whilst you hold a position at Monash University.
3. It is the responsibility of the Chief Investigator to ensure that all investigators are aware of the terms of approval and to ensure the project is conducted as approved by MUHREC.
4. You should notify MUHREC immediately of any serious or unexpected adverse effects on participants or unforeseen events affecting the ethical acceptability of the project.
5. The Explanatory Statement must be on Monash University letterhead and the Monash University complaints clause must contain your project number.
6. Amendments to the approved project (including changes in personnel): Requires the submission of a Request for Amendment form to MUHREC and must not begin without written approval from MUHREC. Substantial variations may require a new application.
7. Future correspondence: Please quote the project number and project title above in any further correspondence.
8. Annual reports: Continued approval of this project is dependent on the submission of an Annual Report. This is determined by the date of your letter of approval.
9. Final report: A Final Report should be provided at the conclusion of the project. MUHREC should be notified if the project is discontinued before the expected date of completion.
10. Monitoring: Projects may be subject to an audit or any other form of monitoring by MUHREC at any time.
11. Retention and storage of data: The Chief Investigator is responsible for the storage and retention of original data pertaining to a project for a minimum period of five years.

[redacted]

Professor Ben Canny
Chair, MUHREC

cc: Dr Umesh Sharma; Mr Jahirul Islam Mullick

Postal – Monash University, Vic 3800, Australia
Building 3E, Room 111, Clayton Campus, Wellington Road, Clayton
Telephone [redacted]
Email [redacted] www.monash.edu/research/ethics/human/index.html
ABN 12 377 614 012 CRICOS Provider #00008C

Appendix B: Permission Letter from the DPE

মহাপরিচালক
প্রাথমিক শিক্ষা অধিদপ্তর
সেকশন ২, মিরপুর, ঢাকা-১২১৬
ফোন: ৮০৫৭৮৭৭ ফ্যাক্স: ৮০১৬৪৯৯
Web: www.dpe.gov.bd

Permission Letter

Re: Leadership Practice and Inclusive Education Reform: Primary Schools in Bangladesh

.....12..... November 2009

Associate Professor Joanne Deppeler, Dr. Umesh Sharma & Mr. Jahirul Mullick
Faculty of education
MONASH UNIVERSITY VIC 3800
AUSTRALIA

Dear Asso. Prof. Deppeler, Dr. Sharma & Mr. Mullick,

Thank you for your request to recruit participants from Government Primary Schools (GPS) & Registered Non-Government Primary Schools (RNGPS) of Bangladesh for the above-named research.

I have read and understood the Explanatory Statement regarding the research CF09/2468-2009001432 and hereby give permission for this research to be conducted.

Yo[redacted]

Di[redacted]
Directorate of Primary Education (DPE)
Ministry of Primary and Mass Education (MOPME)
Bangladesh.

Appendix C: Semi-structured Interview Protocol

1. What is your opinion about inclusion of diverse learners in your school?
2. What do you know about the government policy (PEDP II) regarding inclusion of diverse learners in school?
3. What changes have your school experienced as a result of the policy decision about including diverse learners in regular primary school?
4. How does your school respond to the policy decision of including diverse learners in your schools?
5. How does your school set direction of the school?

   Prompts to use if necessary

   (Building a shared vision, fostering the acceptance of group goals, and High performance expectations for all)
6. How does your school support professional development of the school?

   Prompts to use if necessary

   (Providing individualized support/consideration, intellectual stimulation, and providing an appropriate model)
7. How does your school design school organization?

   Prompts to use if necessary

   (Building collaborative cultures, restructuring, building productive relationships with families and communities, and connecting the school to its' wider environment)

8. How does your school supervise teaching learning of the school?

   Prompts to use if necessary

   (Staffing the programme, providing instructional (teaching and learning) support, monitoring school activity, and buffering staff from distractions to their work)

9. What do you currently do to enhance student learning in Language/Mathematics/Science learning?

   (*And/or*)

10. What do you currently do to enhance student behaviour?

    (And/or)

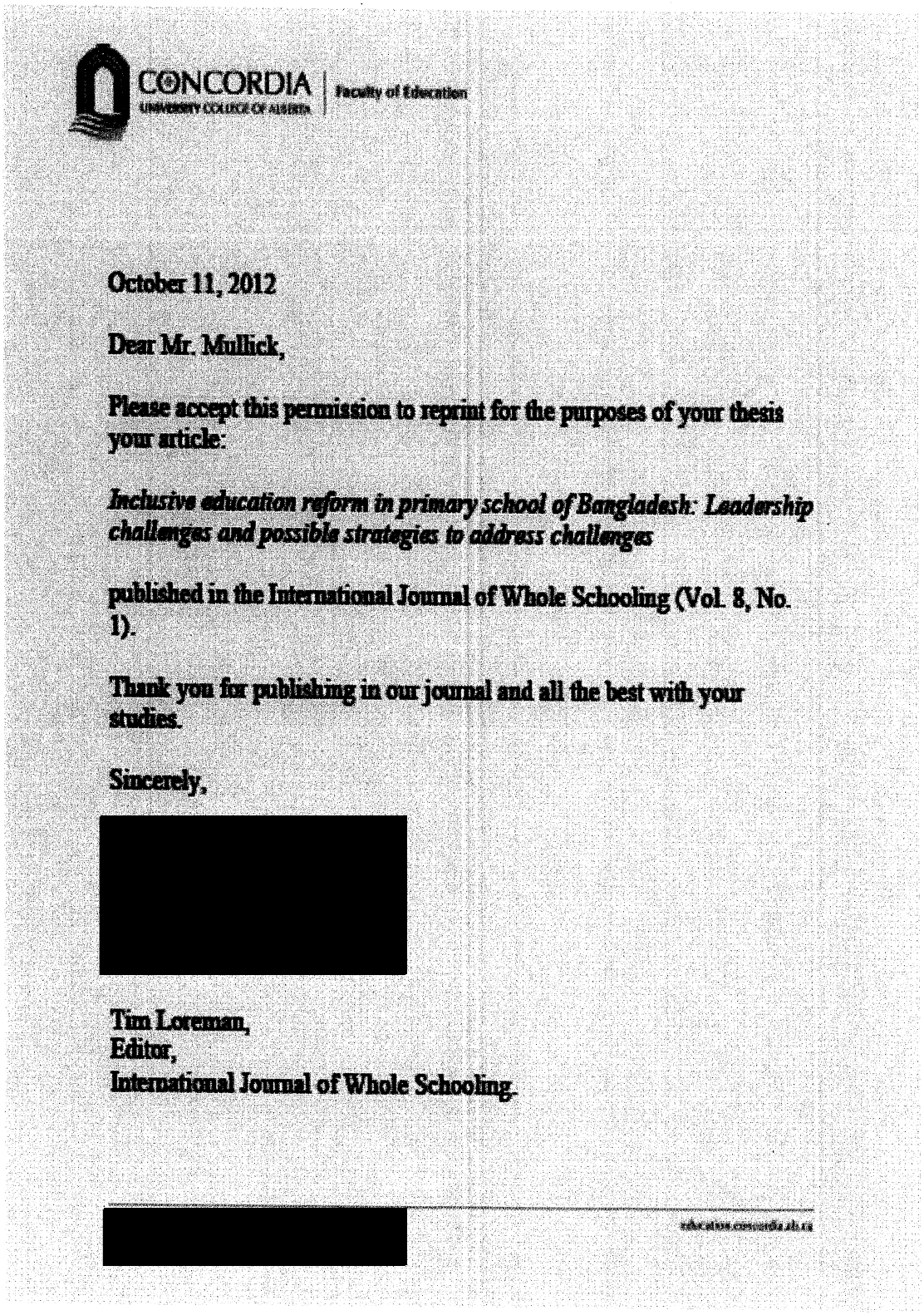
11. What do you currently do to enhance student participation in their schooling?
12. What does your school do to promote inclusive education in school?

    Prompts to use if necessary

    (Setting direction for inclusive education, supporting professional development in line with inclusive education, designing school organization in line with inclusive education, supervising teaching learning in line with inclusive education)

13. What do you perceive as necessary to lead an inclusive school?
14. Can you describe any specific experiences that have worked in implementing inclusive education in your school?
15. Can you describe any specific experiences that have not worked in implementing inclusive education in your school?

Appendix D: A Sample of Manuscript Reprint Permission Letter



CONCORDIA | Faculty of Education
UNIVERSITY COLLEGE OF ALBERTA

October 11, 2012

Dear Mr. Mullick,

Please accept this permission to reprint for the purposes of your thesis your article:

Inclusive education reform in primary school of Bangladesh: Leadership challenges and possible strategies to address challenges

published in the International Journal of Whole Schooling (Vol. 8, No. 1).

Thank you for publishing in our journal and all the best with your studies.

Sincerely,

[redacted]

Tim Loreman,
Editor,
International Journal of Whole Schooling

[redacted]

Appendix E: A Sample of Explanatory Statement

MONASH University

Explanatory Statement for nominated leaders

Date:

Title: Leadership Practices and Inclusive Education Reform: Primary Schools in Bangladesh

Note: This information sheet is for you to keep

This research is part of Jahirul Mullick's Doctor of Philosophy program at the Faculty of Education, Monash University in Australia. The aim of this research is to investigate leadership practices in primary schools of Bangladesh that are involved in the inclusive education reform initiative – the "Second Primary Education Development Program (PEDP-II) Innovation Grant". This research is under the supervision of Associate Professor Joanne Deppeler and Dr. Umesh Sharma of Monash University.

Giving consent to participate in this study means you will be interviewed for approximately one hour to explore your views regarding inclusive education, teaching challenges, leadership practices and what you perceive as necessary to lead inclusive education. The interview will be audio-taped and transcribed. You will be given a transcript of data for your approval before it is included in the write up of the research. You will also be given a questionnaire to fill up, which will take 20-30 minutes. You may also be asked to participate in further interview.

This research has the approval of the Monash University Human Research Ethics Committee (MUHREC) and confidentiality of all the records will be maintained. You will not be exposed in the data or in any published materials. Data and information will be stored in the locked filing cabinet. Electronic files will be accessible only by using the computer of the researcher which is password protected and after five years the information will be destroyed using the secure disposal mechanisms of Monash University. Participation in this study is voluntary. You can withdraw yourself at any time from the study and any data collected from you will be destroyed upon your withdrawal. If you have any complaint concerning the manner in which this research is being conducted, please contact:

Executive Officer
Monash University Human Research Ethics Committee (MUHREC)
Building 3E Room 111
Research Office, Monash University VIC 3800
Tel: +61 3 9905 2052 Fax: +61 3 9905 3831
Email: muhrec@adm.monash.edu.au

If you require any support regarding further information about the research, counselling or have any complaint concerning the manner in which the research is being conducted, you can also contact the following person in Bangladesh:

Professor Nazmul Haq
Chairman
Department of Educational Psychology and Guidance
Institute of Education and Research (IER)
University of Dhaka, Dhaka 1000, Bangladesh
Phone: [redacted]
E-mail: [redacted]

If you would like to be informed of the aggregated research findings, please contact me (*Jahirul Mullick; Phone: +8801712065658; e-mail: jahirul.mullick@monash.edu*). The findings are accessible for three months (Oct' to Dec' 2010). You can also contact my doctoral supervisors (*Associate Professor Joanne Deppeler, Monash University; Phone: +610399035689; e-mail: joanne.deppeler@monash.edu* and *Dr. Umesh Sharma, Monash University; Phone: +610399034388; e-mail: umesh.sharma@monash.edu*) for more information about the study.

Thank you.

Jahirul Mullick
PhD Candidate
Faculty of Education,
Monash University, Australia.