

**Japanese in-service teachers' attitudes towards inclusive
education and self-efficacy for inclusive practices**

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Tiivistelmä – Abstract <p>Although inclusive education has become mainstream in global educational policy, its implementation in national educational policies and in actual practice is often problematic. In Japan, for example, inclusion is relatively new concept for teachers and the overall support system for children with disabilities is underdeveloped. Previous studies suggested that teachers needed to adopt positive attitudes towards inclusive education and to have high self-efficacy for inclusive practices if they want to become effective inclusion teachers. The purpose of this study is to examine Japanese teachers' attitudes towards the implementation of inclusive education and self-efficacy for inclusive practices. A sample of 359 Japanese primary and secondary education teachers filled in a questionnaire comprising the Sentiments, Attitudes, and Concerns about Inclusive Education Revised (SACIE-R) scale (Forlin, Earle, Loreman & Sharma, 2011) and the Teacher Efficacy for Inclusive Practices (TEIP) scale (Sharma, Loreman, and Forlin, 2012). The results indicated that although teachers' sentiments towards disabilities were generally positive, many of them had some concerns about implementing inclusive education in their own practice. Teachers' overall level of self-efficacy for inclusive practice was relatively low compared to other countries particularly related to managing problematic student behaviour. Self-efficacy regarding managing behaviour and collaboration was related to overall attitudes towards</p>	

inclusive education. The findings of this research can provide useful theoretical and practical insights for pre-service and in-service teacher education in Japan.

Asiasanat – Keywords

Inclusive education, Attitude, Self-efficacy, Teacher, Japan

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1. INTRODUCTION

“Inclusive education” has become the mainstream in global education policy since the Salamanca Statement on Principles (UNESCO, 1994), which reaffirmed the principle “Education for All” and recognized the necessity and urgency of providing education for children, youth and adults with special educational needs within the regular education system. As a consequence, including students with diverse educational needs in mainstream schools has become the centre of international attention when planning educational legislations or policies (Savolainen, Engelbrecht, Nel & Malinen, 2012; Sharma, Loreman, & Forlin, 2012).

However, the definition of inclusive education is ambiguous and has debated vastly around the globe. According to a definition provided by UNESCO (2005), inclusive education is “a process of addressing and responding to the diversity of needs of all learners through increasing participation in learning, cultures and communities, and reducing exclusion within and from education”. Even though the inclusive education is regarded as a broad equity agenda for all students, inclusion has been exclusively attended to students with disabilities and special needs education (Artiles & Kozleski, 2007; Malinen & Savolainen, 2008; Waitoller & Artiles, 2013). Graham and Jahnu-kainen (2011) simply described the difference between the traditional special education and inclusive education that the former locates the ‘problem’ in an individual with disability who must be supported to ‘fit in’ to social institutions pre-designed by able-bodied others (Oliver, 1996). On the other hand, the latter focuses on barriers that produce disablement and thereby construct ‘the disabled’.

Furthermore, though it has been universally agreed that inclusive education provides equal opportunities and access for all students, the educational policies and reform process are different from country to country due to cultural and historical reasons (Savolainen et al., 2012). To take Japan as an example, since the government has introduced a new scheme towards inclusive education in a short term, it is doubtful whether teachers are ready for this new movement (Forlin, 2013). In addition, there are great gap between

concepts of the policies and the reality (Miyoshi, 2009), and several challenges conducting inclusive education such as lack of physical and personal resources. The local research could benefit from comparative analyses conducted within a cultural-historical framework (Engelbrecht, Savolainen, Nel & Malinen, 2013). From this point of view, a number of studies have been conducted comparing several countries regarding inclusive education (e.g. Jahnukainen, 2011; Takala, Hausstatter, Ahl & Head, 2012). However, there are few international studies focusing on Japanese inclusive education. Thus, the present study intends to explore the Japanese context related to inclusive education, particularly from the teachers' point of view. More specifically, the study focuses on Japanese teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education and their self-efficacy for inclusive practices in order to provide empirical evidence that may be fed into the practice of inclusive education in the Japanese context.

The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. Chapter 2 discusses the recent situation of inclusive education in Japan. In addition, several studies on teachers' attitude towards inclusive education and self-efficacy for inclusive practices are reviewed and synthesized in Chapter 2. Chapter 3 describes the research design, the data collection instrument, and the methods of data analysis. In Chapter 4, the quantitative results are presented and Chapter 5 discusses about the findings based on them. The final chapter consists of the main conclusions, the limitations of the study, and possible lines of future research.

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Inclusive education in Japan

In recent years, there has been an increasing amount of attention on inclusive education in Japan. This course is affected by international campaign supporting inclusion, such as the United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989), the Education for all declarations of UNESCO (1990 and 2000) and the Salamanca statement (1994). The Japanese government called for partial revision of the School Education Law in April 2007 and promoted an educational reform from 特殊教育 *Tokushukyoiku* (Segregated special education) to 特別支援教育 *Tokubetsushienkyoiku* (Special support education) (Miyoshi, 2009). In the other words, the education system has been changed from Segregated special education in which the education is conducted according to the type of disabilities in special places separately to Special support education in which the appropriate supports are given for each child with diverse educational needs (Central Council for Education, 2005). Since then, a construction of new support system like as an establishment of a school committee and an arrangement of a special support education coordinator in regular schools for children with diverse educational needs has been developed (Fujii, 2014). In addition, the Japanese government signed the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) in September 2007 and *Shogaishakihonho* (the Basic Law for Persons with Disabilities) was amended accordingly in August 2011. In response to this, the Committee of Elementary and Lower Secondary Education in the Central Council for Education (2012) submitted the report about the development of special support education in order to construct inclusive education towards creating co-existent society. In this report, the way of deciding the study placement, the repletion of “reasonable accommodation” and “basic environmental improvement”, the cooperation between schools and relative organization, the development of exchange studies, and the enrichment of teachers’ expertise were indicated based on a new orientation (Fujii, 2014). Although there were the statements that suggested the segregated education in Article 5 of the Ordinance for Enforcement of the School Education until August 2013, it was changed according to the report above (Yamanaka, 2013).

Thus far, political changes towards inclusive education have proceeded rapidly in Japan. However, it seemed that actual practices are differ from concepts of the policies (Miyoshi, 2009), and several challenges conducting inclusive education. Japanese education has been struggling with a number of issues below.

First of all, even though the government has promoted special support education system towards inclusive education, Japanese special needs education is still conducted mainly in segregated way. There are 31507 special classes and 1049 special schools in the primary and secondary level and the number of special classes and special schools is increasing annually (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, 2012). This phenomenon, the growing rate of enrolment for special schools and special classes, is moving backward towards inclusive education (Miyoshi, 2009). Furthermore, Miyoshi (2009) held the view that the operation of special support education has increased the number of children who are certified as “children with disabilities” and has made a difference between disabled children and normal children.

Secondly, large class size is one of the notable challenges in Japan. The students’ average number in primary education was 28.0 per class and 30.0 at secondary level (OECD, 2011). Nevertheless, the national fixed standard of class size was 40 students in one class (Committee of Elementary and Lower Secondary Education in the Central Council for Education, 2012) and the average class size is even bigger in heavily populated area, for example in Tokyo, the average class size in primary level is 31.2 (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology in Japan, 2010). It is said that about 6.3% of students in regular classes have some kind of difficulties such as LD, ADHD or high-functioning autism (Committee of Elementary and Lower Secondary Education in the Central Council for Education, 2012). To date, several studies have reported that the support system for children with disabilities in regular classes is underdeveloped (e.g. Hamaya, 2006; Hirose & Tojo, 2002). One study by Ueno and Nakamura (2011) examined teachers’ awareness of inclusive education and concluded that teachers have feelings of difficulties to conduct inclusive education with a present inadequate support system and the augment of school personnel is imperative.

Although a number of studies have pointed out the necessity of improving basic physical and personal environment in school, it seems to be difficult because of financial situation. OECD (2014) compared the GDP percentage of expenditure on educational institutions. Though 2.9% of GDP is spent on primary and secondary education in Japan, it is considerably lower than OECD average, 3.9%. It has been suggested that government needed to change the large framework containing financial burden on education after reaching a national consensus (Committee of Elementary and Lower Secondary Education in the Central Council for Education, 2012).

Another problematic point of Japanese inclusive education is that the teachers' expertise is not enough to conduct inclusive education. According to Committee of Elementary and Lower Secondary Education in the Central Council for Education (2012), while every teacher is required to have basic knowledge and skills related to special support education in order to construct inclusive education, a course specialized in special support education is not compulsory in present teacher training programme. It was said that even though the teachers' interests of inclusive education are relatively high and they think it was necessary, the knowledge level is low and they have high anxiety about including children with disabilities in their classrooms (Ueno & Nakamura, 2011). Fujii (2014) carried out a survey in which the teachers' awareness of keywords related to special support education and inclusive education was explored. The findings showed that the awareness level of "inclusive education system" was lower and it suggested that enrichment of teacher training related to inclusive education inside and outside of the school was necessary. Furthermore, Hirose and Tojo (2002) analysed the data from 184 in-service teachers of children with autism in regular classes and concluded that teachers have need of more in-service training and a teaching manual on the education of these children.

In addition, it is urgently required to enrich the expertise of teachers in special support schools and in special classes. According to Committee of Elementary and Lower Secondary Education in the Central Council for Education (2012), the special support schools have a central function not only to teach children with disabilities but also to

support teachers in local regular schools, to offer the information and consultation related to special support education, and to coordinate with related organization. Even though teachers in special schools are key persons to perform these functions, only 70% of teachers in special support schools have special education teacher's license (Committee of Elementary and Lower Secondary Education in the Central Council for Education, 2012). It is considered that the ownership rate of special education teacher's license might be even lower among teachers in special classes.

The collaboration with other school staffs or parents is appeared to be an effective way to learn from the experience of one another and to improve teachers' expertise. However, actually teachers do not have enough time for collaboration. According to Kokuritsu Kyoiku Seisaku Kenkyujo (2014), Japanese teachers' working time, 53.9 hours per week, is the longest compared to other OECD countries in which the average is 38.3 hours. They spend more time in extracurricular activities and clerical work, and less time in collaboration with parents (Kokuritsu Kyoiku Seisaku Kenkyujo, 2014). Thus, some teachers have feeling that since the time is completely taken up with the regular duties, they do not want to include children with difficulties who need extra support in their classrooms (Han, Kohara, Yano & Aoki, 2013).

2.2 Teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education

Attitude studies have long-standing history, for instance Allport (1935, p.798) described that "the concept of attitude is probably the most distinctive and indispensable concept", and the importance of the concept are still continued in the area of social psychology. The term attitude is generally understood to mean an evaluation of attitude objects containing anything a person may hold in mind and it could be concrete or abstract (Bohner & Dickel, 2011). However, proper definitions have been debated actively from adapting different views whether attitudes are trait-like disposition stored in memory permanently or momentary judgments constructed from the information (Gawronski, 2007). Since it is not aimed to go deeper into the discussion of precise definition of attitude, this study will use the definition suggested by Eagly and Chaiken (1993, p.1) who saw it as

“a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favor or disfavor”.

In order to meet diverse educational needs of students, schools and teachers need to change and adapt their practices (Kinsella & Senior, 2008). It was argued that teachers are required to have positive attitudes towards inclusive education as well as the appropriate skills and knowledge if they conduct inclusive practice successfully (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Forlin, Cedillo, Romero-Contreras, Fletcher, & Hernandez, 2010; Ryan & Gottfried, 2012). Thus, a line of research has focused on teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education. Avramidis and Norwich (2002) pointed out that even though teachers have positive attitudes towards inclusive education, they do not agree on 'total-inclusion' and the attitudes are strongly influenced by child-related variables (e.g. nature of students' disabilities) and educational environment-related variables (e.g. availability of physical and human support).

In addition, some studies suggested that attitudes towards inclusive education differ by countries. Recent evidence indicated that teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education tend to be more negative in non-Western countries (Alghazo & Gaad 2004; Malinen & Savolainen, 2008). Unfortunately, there are hardly any studies related to teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education in Japan. Forlin (2013) examined pre-service teachers' understanding about and attitudes towards inclusive education in a Japanese university. She indicated that they have great concern about an increase in their workload if there are students with special educational needs in their future classrooms because of their lack of knowledge and skills required to teach these students. Thus, in order to develop their positive attitudes towards inclusive education, more work is required to ensure that newly graduating student can get better understanding and opportunities to explore their feelings about inclusive education (Forlin, 2013).

2.3 Teachers' self-efficacy for inclusive practices

The concept of self-efficacy was first introduced by Bandura (1977) and more lately he illustrated it as main concept of his social cognitive theory (Bandura, 2001). He defined

self-efficacy as one's belief that he can produce desired effects in specific situation and it influences his cognitive, motivational, affective and decisional process (Bandura, 2006). Self-efficacy beliefs consist of four main sources: (1) mastery experiences in which a person has previous experience being successful in the certain tasks, (2) vicarious experiences where a person observes similar people that the task is capable, (3) social persuasion given by others can strengthen ones belief completing the task successfully, and (4) somatic and emotional states are analysed when a person's efficacy beliefs are formed (Bandura, 1997, p.79; Klassen, 2004). Bandura (1997, p.80) indicated that mastery experience is the most powerful source of self-efficacy beliefs. Any or all of those four sources may be influenced by cultural context or dimension such as collectivism or individualism (Klassen, 2004).

Up to now, a number of studies have examined teachers' feeling of self-efficacy. The term teacher efficacy is generally understood to mean teachers' belief or conviction that they can influence their students' learning efficiently even though they have difficulties or lower motivation (Guskey & Passaro, 1994). Bandura (1997, p.241) suggested that teachers' beliefs in their efficacy affect not only students' academic development but also their general orientation toward educational processes. Gibson and Dembo (1984) found out that high-efficacy teachers are more persistent to students' incorrect answers and do not give feedbacks in the form of criticism to students at all. In addition, teachers with high self-efficacy can lead students to correct response more effectively (Gibson & Dembo, 1984).

More recent years, there has been an increasing amount of literature on teachers' self-efficacy for inclusive practices. According to Forlin (2013), it is crucial for teachers to have the confidence in their own knowledge, skills and abilities of practicing inclusive education in order to conduct the inclusive approach successfully. While some studies examined the teachers' self-efficacy for inclusive practices, they often utilized general teacher self-efficacy scales like as Teacher Efficacy Scales (Gibson & Dembo, 1984) and there are scarcely any measures focusing on it within the framework of inclusive education (Sharma et al., 2012). Therefore, in order to measure perceived teacher self-efficacy for teaching in inclusive classrooms, Sharma et al. (2012) developed a scale

called Teacher Efficacy for Inclusive Practices (TEIP) that contained three subscales: (1) efficacy to use inclusive instruction in which teacher can modify the instruction and assessment according to students' needs; (2) efficacy in managing behaviour in which teacher can prevent students' problematic behaviour; and (3) efficacy in collaboration in which teacher can collaborate with relative stake holders such as other school staffs and parents. Thus far, this scale has been used in not only their own papers but also in several studies (e.g. Forlin et al., 2010; Savolainen et al., 2012; Malinen, Savolainen, & Xu, 2012). Because of its context-dependent characteristic of self-efficacy, the level of teachers' self-efficacy for inclusive practices varies by country. For instance, Savolainen et al. (2012) found that while the South African teachers showed high self-efficacy in managing behavior, the Finnish teachers saw this as the weakest point.

Although there are plentiful researches on teachers' self-efficacy in Western countries, such researches in non-Western countries are limited (Sharma et al., 2012) and Japan is not an exception. Yoshitoshi (2014) investigated teachers' sense of self-efficacy for their inclusive practices from 59 high school teachers who assumes the leading role in inclusive education as special needs education coordinators. He concluded that Japanese high school teachers have low self-efficacy for inclusive practices because of lack of trainings in inclusive practice. There are few studies that focused on teachers' self-efficacy for inclusive practices from primary or lower secondary school teachers in Japan, nevertheless inclusive education should be started in early age of children. It is urgently necessary to investigate in every level of education.

2.4 Relationship between teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education and self-efficacy for inclusive practices

Attitudes and self-efficacy are the two main concepts of this study which are associated with implementing inclusive approach successfully. Previous studies have suggested that teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education and self-efficacy for inclusive practices had positive relationship (Meijer & Foster, 1988; Weisel & Dror, 2006; Malinen et al. 2012; Savolainen et al., 2012). According to Meijer and Foster (1988), Dutch teachers who have high self-efficacy are likely to see students with difficulties less problem-

atic and need of referral. Furthermore, it was conclusively shown that Israeli teachers' sense of efficacy is the only crucial factor that affects to teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education (Weisel & Dror, 2006). A recent study by Malinen et al. (2012) examined Chinese teachers' self-efficacy by using Teacher Efficacy for Inclusive Practices (TEIP) scale and reported that self-efficacy in collaboration is the single factor that predicted teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Research aims

The main aim of this empirical study is to investigate Japanese teachers' general attitudes towards inclusive education and self-efficacy for inclusive practices. Furthermore, whether Japanese teachers' self-efficacy relates to attitudes towards inclusive education is examined. An additional aim of this research is to identify which type of self-efficacy is the best predictor of attitudes if there is relationship between two of them. According to these aims, the research addresses following questions below:

- 1) What is the level of Japanese teachers' overall and specific attitudes towards inclusive education?
- 2) How are teachers' background factors related to Japanese teachers' overall attitudes towards inclusive education?
- 3) What is the level of Japanese teachers' overall and specific self-efficacy for inclusive practices?
- 4) How are teachers' background factors related to Japanese teachers' overall self-efficacy for inclusive practices?
- 5) Does Japanese teachers' self-efficacy for inclusive practices correlate with attitudes towards inclusive education?
- 6) Which type of self-efficacy for inclusive practices is the best predictor of attitudes towards inclusive education?

3.2 Participants

The purpose of this study is to examine how the development and implementation of inclusive education in the classroom are looked from teachers' perspectives in Japan. In this study, the data was obtained from 359 primary and secondary school in-service teachers working in Japanese private or public schools. 252 (72.2%) of participants were working in public or national schools and 96 (27.5%) in private schools.

Schools were located in several different prefectures. 186 (53.3%) of participants were working in Tokyo, 63 (18.1%) in Kanagawa prefecture, 38 (10.9%) in Yamaguchi prefecture, 28 (8.0%) in Kagoshima prefecture, 15 (4.3%) in Chiba prefecture, 9 (2.6%) in Saitama prefecture, 2 (0.6%) in Kochi prefecture and 1 (0.3%) in Miyazaki and Fukui prefecture.

339 of them indicated their gender. The result indicated that, 157 males and 192 females representing 43.7% and 53.5%, respectively, took part in the study. According to Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology in Japan (2014), the rate of female working in the primary and secondary level of schools was 49.6%. Thus, the proportion of female teachers in the current sample was slightly bigger than their share of the total teacher population in Japan.

The age distribution was also asked in the questionnaire. The 344 respondents who took part in this study willingly indicated their age. It showed that the in-service teachers in this study were between the age of 22 and 65, and the average age was 42.41 (SD = 11.82). In addition, they had an average of 18.42 (SD = 11.92) years teaching experience.

When asking in which grade level they were teaching, 189 (52.6%) participants were teaching in primary school (grade 1 to 6), 77 (21.4%) participants were in lower secondary school (grade 7 to 9), 55 (15.3%) were in upper secondary school (grade 10 to 12), one (0.3%) was in combined primary and lower secondary school (grade 1 to 9), and 8 (2.2%) reported being in combined lower and upper secondary school (grade 7 to 12).

The participants also indicated their position in their schools. Majority of the participants (287, 79.9%) were working as a regular teacher. 15 (4.2%) of participants were in position of principal, 17 (4.7%) were vice-principals, 19 (5.3%) were the chief teachers, and 10 (2.8%) of them were school nurses.

349 of participants mentioned their highest obtained degree and most (284, 79.1%) of them had bachelor level degrees. 17 (4.7%) of participants were graduated from junior collages, 46 (12.8%) participants had master's degrees, and 2 (0.6%) had doctoral degrees.

164 (45.7%) of participants reported that they had experience of significant interaction with persons with disabilities as for example friend, family member, neighbor, classmate or colleague. In contrast, 165 (46%) of them did not have any experience interacting with persons with disabilities.

It appears that 61 (17%) of participants had 'no training' when asking the level of training to teach learners with disabilities. 78 (21.7%) participants reported having 'little training', 116 (32.3%) had 'some training', 56 (15.6%) had 'a lot of training', and 18 (5.0%) of them had 'very high level of training'.

Around two thirds (212, 59.0%) of participants answered that they had 'none' or only 'poor' level of knowledge about local registration or policy. 89 (24.8%) knew 'average' level and 22 (6.1%) knew 'good' level about them. There was no one who saw himself or herself as person with 'very high level' of knowledge.

The level of confidence to teach learners with disabilities was also asked in the questionnaire. Over one third (145, 40.4%) of participants reported that they had 'very low' or 'low' confidence to teach students with disabilities. 153 (42.6%) of them had 'average' confidence and only 34 (9.5%) participants had 'high or very high' confidence.

Nearly half (161,45.1%) of participants indicated that they had 'very low' or 'low' level of experience in teaching learners with disabilities. 199 (33.1%) participants saw themselves as 'average' level of experience and 49 (13.6%) had 'high or very high' level of experience. A summary of participants' demographic background information is shown below in Table 1.

Table 1. Participants' demographic background information

Age (Mean)	42.41 (SD = 11.82)
Teaching experience (Mean)	18.42 (SD = 11.92)
Gender	53.5% female 43.7% male 2.8% missing
School type	72.2% public or national schools 27.5% private schools 0.3% missing
School location	53.3% Tokyo 18.1% Kanagawa prefecture 10.9% Yamaguchi prefecture 8.0% Kagoshima prefecture 4.3% Chiba prefecture 2.6% Saitama prefecture 0.6% Kochi prefecture 0.3% Miyazaki and Fukui prefecture 1.6% missing
Grade level	52.6% primary school 21.4% lower secondary school 15.3% upper secondary school 0.3% combined primary and lower secondary school 2.2% combined lower and upper secondary school 8.1% missing
Position	79.9% regular teacher 4.2% principal 4.7% vice-principal 5.3% chief teacher 2.8% school nurse 3.1% missing
Educational background	79.1% bachelor degree 4.7% associate degree 12.8% master's degree 0.6% doctoral degree 2.8% missing
Having experience of significant interaction with persons with disabilities	45.7% yes 46.0% no 8.4% missing
The level of training to teach learners with disabilities	17.0% none 21.7% little 32.3% some 15.6% a lot 5.0% very high level 8.4% missing
Knowledge about local registration or policy	19.2% none 39.8% poor 24.8% average 6.1% good 10.0% missing
The level of confidence to teach learners with disabilities	13.4% very low 27.0% low 42.6% average 9.5% high or very high 7.5% missing
The level of experience in teaching learners with disabilities	17.0% very low 28.1% low 33.1% average 13.6% high or very high 8.1% missing

3.3 Ethical issues

The purposes and nature of the study and confidentiality of the data were informed to participants by an information letter. The participants were able to choose freely whether or not to become involved based on the information and the person who agreed on them answered the questionnaire. The convenience sampling was used in this study and the participation was voluntary. In addition, confidentiality was assured to all participants. The gathered questionnaires were stored in a lockable cabinet at the author's home. Although some of participants were willing to indicate their names, e-mail addresses and phone numbers in order to be informed the result of this study, those identifying information was kept in a secured place.

3.4 Research instruments

The data were collected by using an instrument that had an information letter and other two sections. The information letter was outlining the study and the confidentiality arrangements.

After the information letter, the participants' demographic information such as age, gender, teaching experience and type of schools was asked in the first section.

The second section of the instrument was consisted of two scales. The first scale was the Sentiments, Attitudes, and Concerns about Inclusive Education Revised (SACIE-R) scale (Forlin, Earle, Loreman & Sharma, 2011), which was designed to measure pre-service teachers' perception in the three constructs of inclusive education. It contained 13 items (e.g. "I am concerned that it will be difficult to give appropriate attention to all students in an inclusive classroom" and "Students who are inattentive should be in regular class"), and four response anchors from Strongly Agree to Strongly Disagree. While the SACIE-R scale originally consisted of 15 items, the two items were removed in the current study because the previous study indicates that these two items ("I dread the thought that I could eventually end up with a disability" and "I would feel terrible if I had a disability") were problematic for the model (Savolainen et al., 2012). The several

SACIE-R items must use reverse scoring in analysis. Higher SACIE-R scale scores implied more positive attitudes towards inclusive education. The alpha coefficient for the overall scale was moderately reliable in the current study ($\alpha = 0.75$). For the three sub-scales, the alpha values were ranged from .71 to .78.

The second scale was the Teacher Efficacy for Inclusive Practices (TEIP) scale (Sharma et al., 2012), which was developed to assess teachers' self-efficacy for inclusive practices. This scale involved 18 items (e.g. "I am able to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy" and "I can assist families in helping their children do well in school") with six response anchors ranging from Strongly Disagree to Strongly Agree. The higher the score on the TEIP scale insisted the participant's higher efficacy to implement inclusive practices. In the current study, the TEIP scale had a high reliability and the alpha coefficient for the scale was .93. It was suggested in previous studies that this scale had also three sub-scales named "Efficacy to use inclusive instructions", "Efficacy in managing behavior" and "Efficacy in collaboration" (Savolainen et al, 2012; Sharma et al., 2012). The Cronbach's alpha of these sub-scales were ranged from .83 to .88.

3.5 Translation of the questionnaires

The whole sections of the instrument was originally written in English and it first translated into Japanese by the author whose native language is Japanese, fluent in English. The native Japanese Master's degree student in Education who was fluent in English checked the content and quality of translation. Finally, the translated version of instrument was proof-read by the licensed guide interpreter who had taught in Japanese high school as an English teacher and corrections were agreed with the author to ensure maximum similarity with the original instrument.

The SACIE-R and TEIP scales were initially written in English but they had been also translated in Japanese (Forlin, 2013; Yoshitoshi, 2014). However, the several items of the SACIE-R scale that was used in Forlin (2013) were revised so the original version of SACIE-R was adapted in the current study. For TEIP scales, the style of writing was

slightly changed in some items to make it more natural context for Japanese teachers. These changes were also discussed between the author and the interpreter.

3.6 Data analysis

Data analysis was conducted using SPSS software (IBM, 2012) version 20. The reliability of the overall scales and sub-scales were analysed by using means of Cronbach's alpha. In order to analyse the relationships between teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education, teachers' self-efficacy for inclusive practice and other variables related to inclusive education, the series of correlations were calculated. In addition, T-test, Analysis of variance (ANOVA) and mean scores with confidence intervals were used. Furthermore, the regression analysis was adapted to test the relative importance of the three different types of self-efficacy as predictors of overall attitudes towards inclusive education.

4. RESULTS

4.1 The level of Japanese teachers' overall and specific attitudes towards inclusive education

The Japanese teachers' overall attitudes towards inclusive education were on average slightly above the neutral mid-point 2.5 the scale ranging from 1 to 4. The SACIE-R scale mean score was 2.69 (SD = 0.40) and it indicates that teachers on average did not express extreme attitudes for or against inclusive education. Teachers' average level of SACIE-R score varied statistically significantly across the three sub-dimensions of attitudes, as indicated by the non-overlapping 99% confidence intervals. The most positive attitudes they had were on sentiments towards interacting person with disabilities ($M = 3.38$). Their attitudes towards including children with disabilities in mainstream classes ($M = 2.58$) and their concerns about what would happen if children with disabilities were included in their class ($M = 2.37$) were close to neutral mid-point.

Table.2 SACIE-R scale overall and sub-scale scores and 99% confidence interval (CI) of means

	Mean	Lower CI	Upper CI
SACIE-R	2.69	2.63	2.74
Sentiments	3.38	3.30	3.46
Attitudes	2.58	2.50	2.66
Concerns	2.37	2.29	2.44

4.2 Relation between teachers' background factors and overall attitudes towards inclusive education

4.2.1 Having experience of interaction with persons with disabilities

An independent-samples t-test was conducted to compare the overall attitudes towards inclusive education between those participants having and those not having experience of significant interaction with persons with disabilities. There was significant difference in scores for participants having experience ($M = 2.77$, $SD = 0.42$) and those not having experience ($M = 2.61$, $SD = 0.37$; $t(326) = 3.59$, $p < .001$, two-tailed).

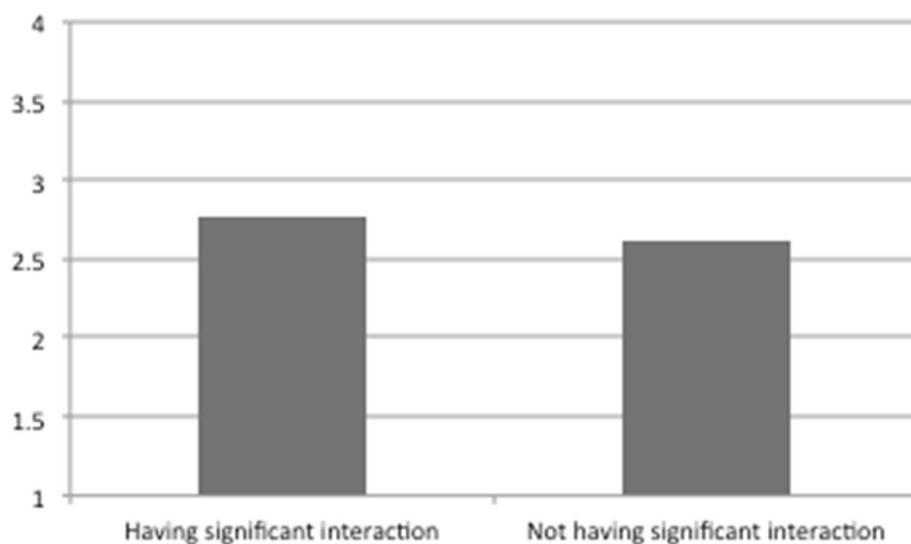


Figure 1. Attitude profiles of teachers who have or have not significant interaction with person with disabilities

4.2.2 The level of training to teach learners with disabilities

A one-way between-groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of the level of training to teach learners with disabilities on their attitudes towards inclusive education. Participants were divided into five groups according to their level of training (Group 1: None; Group 2: Little; Group 3: Some; Group 4: A lot; Group 5: Very high level). There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .01$ level in overall SACIE-R scores for the five groups ($F(4, 323) = 3.827$, $p = .005$). Despite reaching statistical significance, the actual difference in mean scores between the groups was

slightly small. The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was .05. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 1 ($M = 2.61$, $SD = 0.42$) and Group 2 ($M = 2.62$, $SD = 0.33$) was significantly different from Group 5 ($M = 2.91$, $SD = 0.43$). Group 3 ($M = 2.68$, $SD = 0.39$) and Group 4 ($M = 2.80$, $SD = 0.46$) did not differ significantly from other groups.

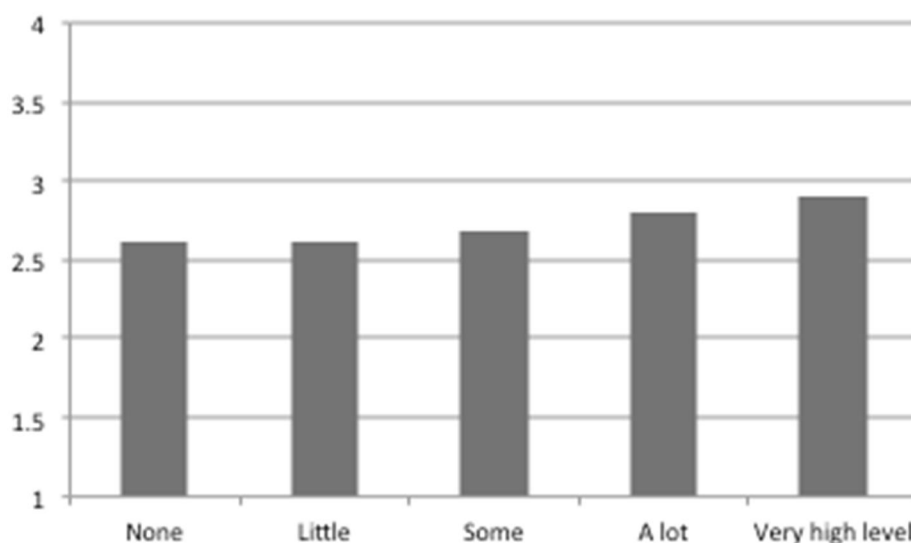


Figure 2. Attitude profile of teachers who were divided depend on the level of training to teach learners with disabilities

4.2.3 Having knowledge of local registration or policy related to inclusive education

A one-way between-groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of having knowledge of local registration or policy on their attitudes towards inclusive education. Participants were divided into four groups according to their level of knowledge (Group 1: None; Group 2: Poor; Group 3: Average; Group 4: Good). There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .01$ level in overall SACIE-R scores for the four groups ($F(3, 318) = 7.995$, $p = .000$). The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was moderate, .07. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 1 ($M = 2.52$, $SD = 0.45$) was significantly different from Group 2 ($M = 2.67$, $SD = 0.37$), Group 3 ($M = 2.82$, $SD = 0.37$) and Group 4 ($M = 2.78$, $SD = 0.40$). The mean score of Group 2 was also significantly different from Group 3. Group 3 and Group 4 did not differ significantly.

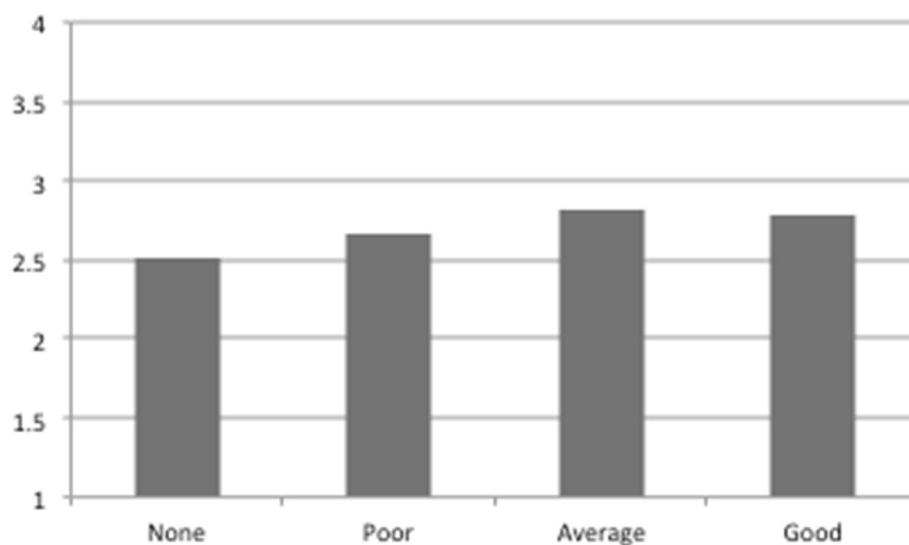


Figure 3. Attitude profile of teachers who were divided depend on the level of knowledge of local registration or policy related to inclusive education

4.2.4 The level of confidence to teach learners with disabilities

A one-way between-groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of the level of confidence to teach learners with disabilities on their attitudes towards inclusive education. Participants were divided into four groups according to their level of confidence (Group 1: Very low; Group 2: Low; Group 3: Average; Group 4: High or very high). There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .01$ level in overall SACIE-R scores for the four groups ($F(3, 326) = 15.763, p = .000$). The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was large, .12. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 1 ($M = 2.42, SD = 0.45$) was significantly different from Group 2 ($M = 2.61, SD = 0.35$), Group 3 ($M = 2.80, SD = 0.36$) and Group 4 ($M = 2.84, SD = 0.42$). The mean score of Group 2 was also significantly different from Group 3 and Group 4. Group 3 and Group 4 did not differ significantly.

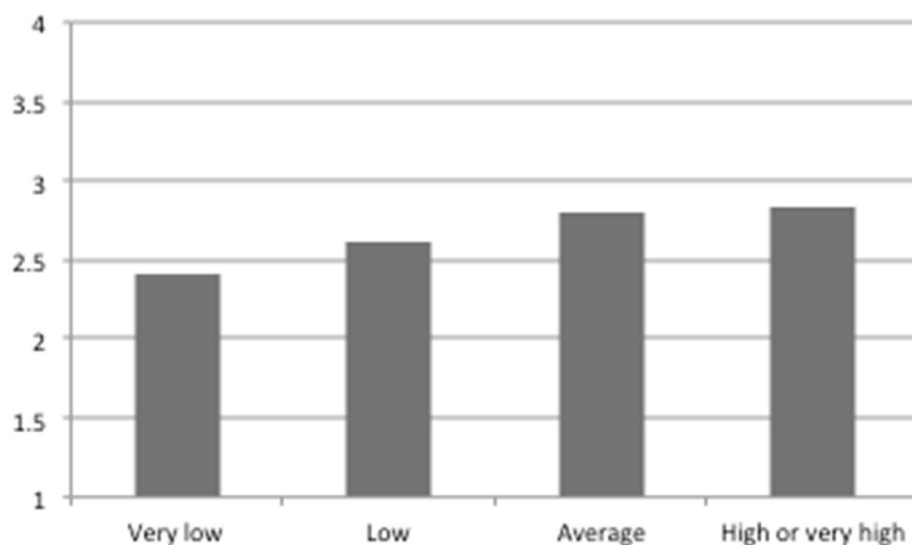


Figure 4. Attitude profile of teachers who were divided depend on the level of confidence to teach learners with disabilities

4.2.5 The level of experience in teaching learners with disabilities

A one-way between-groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of the level of experience in teaching learners with disabilities on their attitudes towards inclusive education. Participants were divided into four groups according to their level of experience (Group 1: Very low; Group 2: Low; Group 3: Average; Group 4: High or very high). There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .01$ level in overall SACIE-R scores for the four groups ($F(3, 324) = 10.405, p = .000$). The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was moderate, .08. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score of Group 1 ($M = 2.50, SD = 0.43$) was significantly different from Group 3 ($M = 2.77, SD = 0.36$) and Group 4 ($M = 2.87, SD = 0.41$). The mean score of Group 2 ($M = 2.64, SD = 0.38$) was also different from Group 4. Group 3 and Group 4 did not differ significantly.

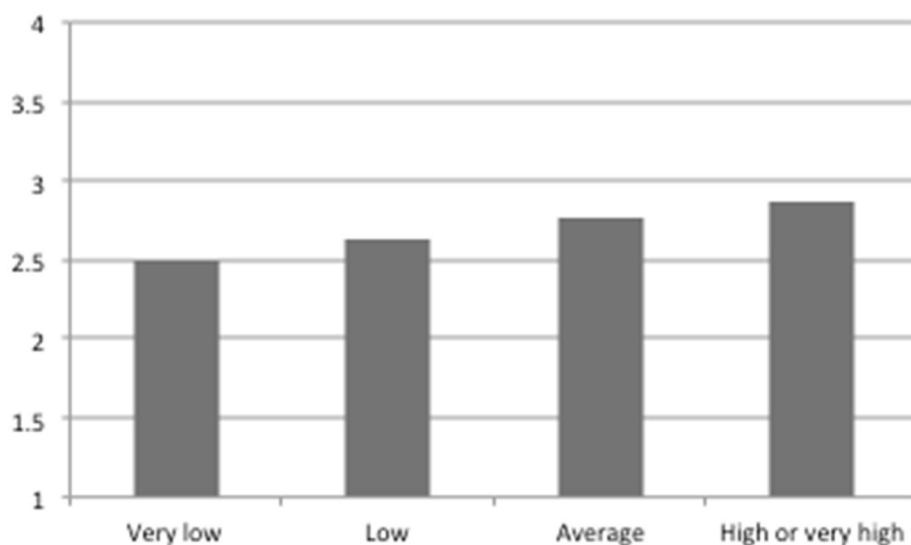


Figure 5. Attitude profile of teachers who were divided depend on the level of experience in teaching learners with disabilities

4.3 The level of Japanese teachers' overall and specific self-efficacy for inclusive practices

Japanese teachers' overall self-efficacy for inclusive practice was low level ($M = 3.74$ on the TEIP scale ranging from 1 to 6) compared to previous studies which were conducted in other countries (E.g. in Finland the mean score was 4.53 and in South Africa the mean score was 4.63). Teachers' average level of TEIP score varied statistically significantly across the three sub-dimensions of self-efficacy, as indicated by the non-overlapping 99% confidence intervals. The Japanese teachers' level of self-efficacy in using inclusive instruction was the highest ($M = 3.84$), although there were least confident in managing students' problematic behaviour in their classroom ($M = 3.55$).

Table.3 TEIP scale overall and sub-scale scores and 99% confidence interval (CI) of means

	Mean	Lower CI	Upper CI
TEIP	3.74	3.65	3.83
Inclusive instruction	3.84	3.75	3.94
Collaboration	3.79	3.68	3.89
Managing behavior	3.55	3.44	3.66

4.4 Relation between teachers' background factors and overall self-efficacy for inclusive practices

4.4.1 Having experience of interaction with persons with disabilities

A t-test was used to evaluate the difference in overall self-efficacy between the participants having and those not having experience of significant interaction with persons with disabilities. The t-test showed that the overall TEIP mean score of those who had previous experience ($M = 3.92$, $SD = 0.61$) was significantly higher than those who did not have such experience ($M = 3.57$, $SD = 0.67$; $t(326) = 4.86$, $p < .001$, two-tailed).

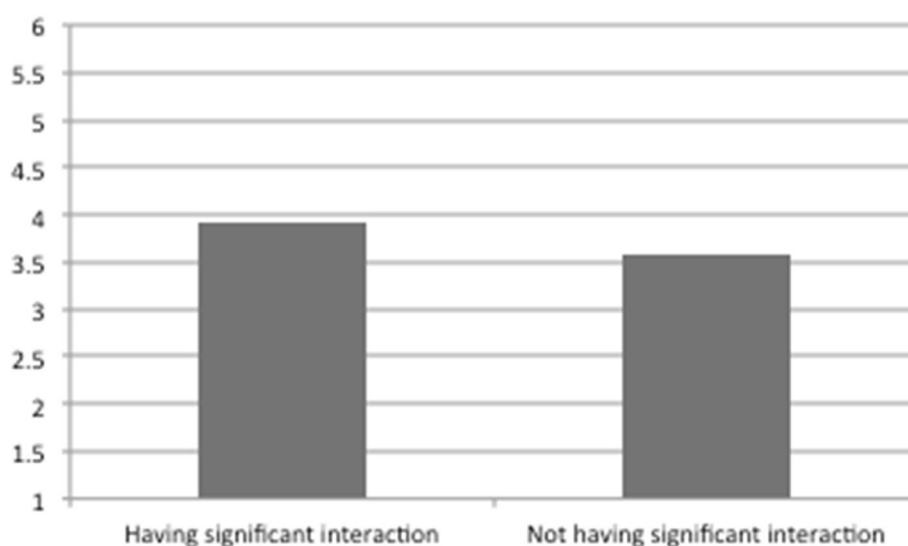


Figure 6. Efficacy profiles of teachers who have or have not significant interaction with person with disabilities

4.4.2 The level of training to teach learners with disabilities

A one-way between-groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of the level of training to teach learners with disabilities on their self-efficacy for inclusive practice. Participants were divided into five groups according to their level of training (Group 1: None; Group 2: Little; Group 3: Some; Group 4: A lot; Group 5: Very high level). There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .001$ level in overall TEIP scores for the five groups ($F(4, 323) = 6.388$, $p = .000$). The effect size is medium, calculated using eta squared, .07. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test

indicated that the mean score for Group 1 ($M = 3.65$, $SD = 0.60$), Group 2 ($M = 3.58$, $SD = 0.65$), Group 3 ($M = 3.75$, $SD = 0.64$) and Group 4 ($M = 3.88$, $SD = 0.74$) was significantly different from Group 5 ($M = 4.37$, $SD = 0.50$).

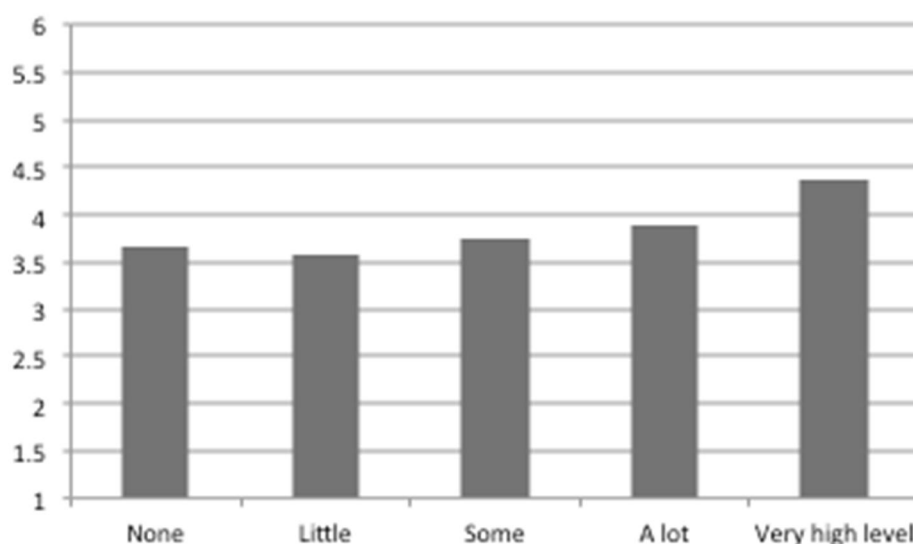


Figure 7. Efficacy profile of teachers who were divided depend on the level of training to teach learners with disabilities

4.4.3 Having knowledge of local registration or policy related to inclusive education

A one-way between-groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of having knowledge of local registration or policy on their self-efficacy for inclusive practice. Participants were divided into four groups according to their level of knowledge (Group 1: None; Group 2: Poor; Group 3: Average; Group 4: Good). There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .01$ level in overall TEIP scores for the four groups ($F(3, 318) = 17.381$, $p = .000$). The effect size that calculated using eta squared was large, .14. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score for Group 1 ($M = 3.40$, $SD = 0.70$) was significantly different from Group 2 ($M = 3.68$, $SD = 0.57$), Group 3 ($M = 4.06$, $SD = 0.60$) and Group 4 ($M = 4.06$, $SD = 0.66$). The mean score of Group 2 was also significantly different from Group 3 and Group 4. Group 3 and Group 4 did not differ significantly.

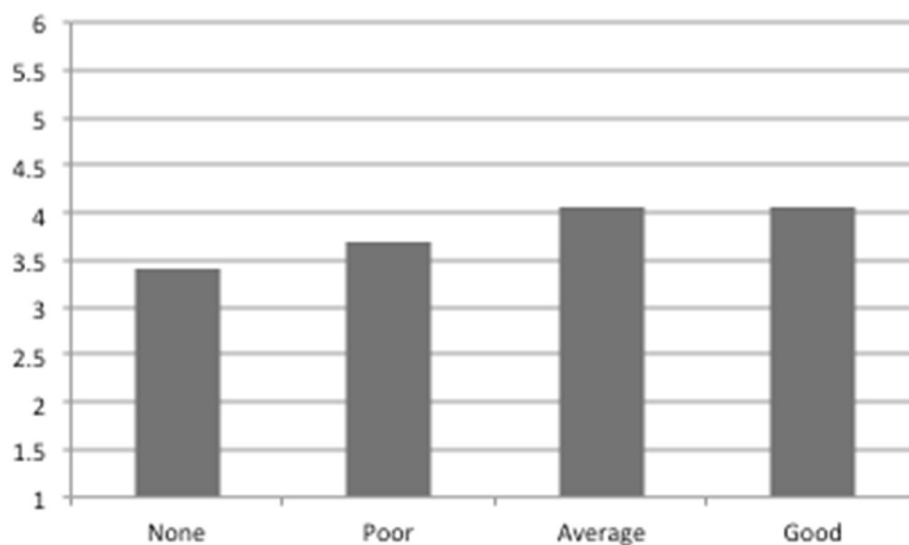


Figure 8. Efficacy profile of teachers who were divided depend on the level of knowledge of local registration or policy related to inclusive education

4.4.4 The level of confidence to teach learners with disabilities

A one-way between-groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of the level of confidence to teach learners with disabilities on their self-efficacy for inclusive practice. Participants were divided into four groups according to their level of confidence (Group 1: Very low; Group 2: Low; Group 3: Average; Group 4: High or very high). Because the Tukey HSD test indicated that the homogenous of variances is not equal, the Tamhane's T2 test was adopted in here. There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .01$ level in overall TEIP scores for the four groups ($F(3, 326) = 45.888, p = .000$). The mean score for Group 1 ($M = 3.19, SD = 0.81$) was significantly different from Group 2 ($M = 3.51, SD = 0.51$), Group 3 ($M = 3.90, SD = 0.50$) and Group 4 ($M = 4.52, SD = 0.56$). The mean score of Group 2 was also significantly different from Group 3 and Group 4 and the mean score of Group 3 was significantly different from Group 4.

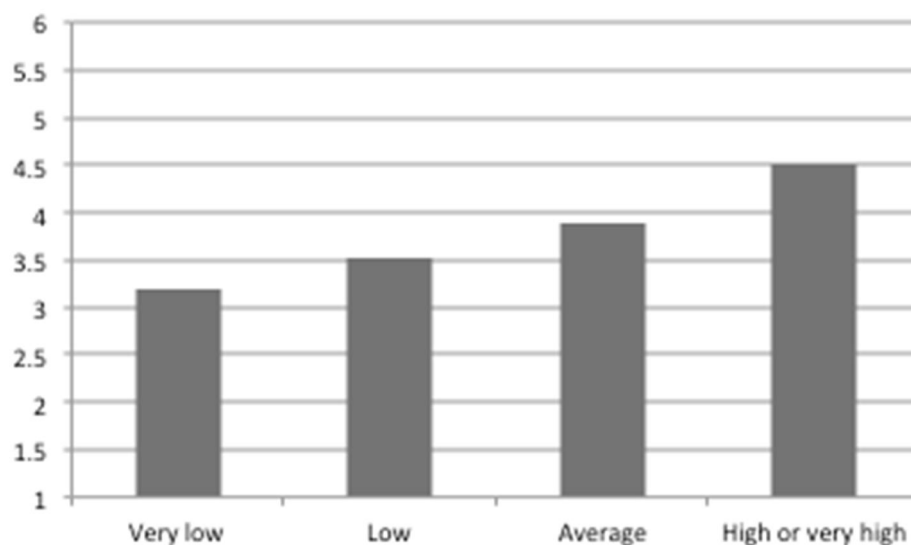


Figure 9. Efficacy profile of teachers who were divided depend on the level of confidence to teach learners with disabilities

4.4.5 The level of experience in teaching learners with disabilities

A one-way between-groups analysis of variance was conducted to explore the impact of the level of experience in teaching learners with disabilities on their self-efficacy for inclusive practice. Participants were divided into four groups according to their level of experience (Group 1: Very low; Group 2: Low; Group 3: Average; Group 4: High or very high). There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .01$ level in overall TEIP scores for the four groups ($F(3, 324) = 23.212, p = .000$). The effect size, calculated using eta squared, was high, .17. Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicated that the mean score of Group 1 ($M = 3.28, SD = 0.76$) was significantly different from Group 2 ($M = 3.66, SD = 0.55$), Group 3 ($M = 3.86, SD = 0.60$) and Group 4 ($M = 4.21, SD = 0.54$). The mean score of Group 2 and Group 3 was also different from Group 4.

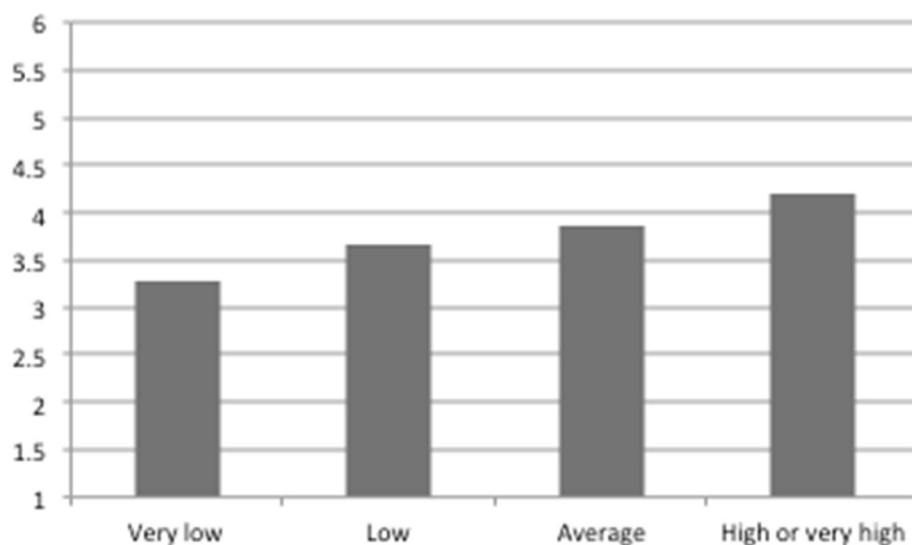


Figure 10. Efficacy profile of teachers who were divided depend on the level of experience in teaching learners with disabilities

4.5 Correlation between Japanese teachers' self-efficacy for inclusive practices and attitudes towards inclusive education

Japanese teachers' overall self-efficacy for inclusive practice correlated with both overall attitudes and its three sub-scales statistically significantly ($p < .01$). The highest correlation was found between the two full scales ($r = 0.40$), but moreover the overall self-efficacy for inclusive practice had a strong correlation with concerns ($r = 0.34$). Of the three sub-scales of self-efficacy for inclusive practice, the self-efficacy in managing behaviour had the strongest correlation with the overall attitudes ($r = 0.36$) and it especially correlated with concerns ($r = 0.36$). In addition, the self-efficacy in collaboration had also strong correlation with the overall attitudes ($r = 0.36$).

Table.4 Pearson correlations between SACIE-R and TEIP scale overall scores and sub-scale scores

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. SACIE-R all	-						
2. Sentiments	.629 ^{***}	-					
3. Attitudes	.626 ^{***}	.056	-				
4. Concerns	.776 ^{***}	.482 ^{***}	.096	-			
5. TEIP all	.396 ^{***}	.286 ^{***}	.189 ^{***}	.342 ^{***}	-		
6. Inclusive instruction	.344 ^{***}	.265 ^{***}	.166 ^{**}	.287 ^{***}	.939 ^{***}	-	
7. Managing behavior	.357 ^{***}	.248 ^{***}	.131 [*]	.359 ^{***}	.855 ^{***}	.742 ^{***}	-
8. Collaboration	.355 ^{***}	.248 ^{***}	.203 ^{***}	.270 ^{***}	.869 ^{***}	.744 ^{***}	.560 ^{***}

Notes: * $p < .05.$, ** $p < .01.$, *** $p < .001.$

4.6 Self-efficacy as predictors of attitudes towards inclusive education

The three different types of self-efficacy (efficacy in using inclusive instructions, efficacy in managing behaviour and efficacy in collaboration) were tested as predictors of general attitudes towards inclusive education by using multiple regression analysis. Furthermore, two demographic variables (age and sex) were tested as independent variable to see how they effect to overall attitudes towards inclusive education. The result shows that the efficacy in collaboration is the strongest predictor of general attitudes towards inclusive education (std Beta = 0.254, $p < .01$). In addition, the Beta value for the efficacy in managing behaviour is slightly lower (std Beta = 0.232, $p < .01$), but it is also the powerful predictor of general attitudes towards inclusive education. In teachers' demographic information, their age (std Beta = -0.110, $p < .05$) have effect on general attitudes.

Table.5 Regression models predicting overall attitudes towards inclusive education

	Std Beta	t-value
Efficacy in inclusive instruction	0,008	0,085
Efficacy in managing behaviour	0,235	3.01 **
Efficacy in collaboration	0,250	3.196 **
Age	-0,110	-2.062 *
Sex	0,025	0,478
Model statistics	$F_{5,325} = 13.680^{***}$	
R^2	0,174	

Notes: * $p < .05$., ** $p < .01$., *** $p < .001$.

5. DISCUSSION

An initial objective of this study was to explore the profiles of Japanese teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education and self-efficacy for inclusive practices. It was revealed that the two measures used in current study (the SACIE-R scale and the TEIP scale) were also reliable instruments in Japanese samples and the profiles of them were similar to the previous studies (Malinen et al. 2012; Savolainen et al., 2012).

The overall attitudes towards inclusive education were somewhat neutral in Japan. This result was replicated similarly in other countries like as Finland, China and South Africa (Malinen et al. 2012; Savolainen et al., 2012). Even though the teachers did not express extreme attitudes for or against inclusive education, the attitude profiles varied by countries. The attitude profiles of Japan resembled those of Finland in which the sentiments towards interacting with persons with disabilities were greatly positive but the concerns about including children with disabilities were relatively low (Savolainen et al., 2012). This result further supported the idea that teachers were being more critical to include children with disabilities in their own classrooms (Savolainen et al., 2012). Furthermore, this result is in agreement with Ueno and Nakamura's (2011) findings which showed that Japanese teachers had high anxiety about including children with disabilities in their classrooms even though many of them think the inclusive education is necessary.

Teachers' attitudes became more positive if they have experience of interaction with persons with disabilities. In addition, the teachers who have had very high level of training to teach learners with disabilities had more positive attitudes towards inclusive education than teachers who have had no or little training. Another important finding was that the teachers' attitudes became more positive if they have at least average knowledge of local registration or policy related to inclusive education although even poor knowledge helped to make teachers' attitude more positive. The attitudes also can be affected by teachers' level of confidence to teach learners with disabilities. It was indicated that if teachers have very low confidence to teach learners with disabilities, their attitudes tended to be more negative. Besides, the more confidence the teachers

had, the more positive their attitudes became. Furthermore, the teachers' attitudes became more positive if they have had average or more experience in teaching learners with disabilities. Thus far, it can be suggested that if there are chances to have training which contains studying about relative knowledge of local registration and policy, and teaching learners with disabilities, teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education might be more positive. Moreover, in-service training can be the chance to interact with person with disabilities. Teachers' confidence might also increase through these trainings. These findings seemed to be consistent with other researches which suggested that the Japanese teachers needed to increase knowledge and understanding about inclusive education (Ueno & Nakamura, 2011) and to have more in-service training (Hirose & Tojo, 2002).

The overall self-efficacy for inclusive practice was considerably low in Japanese sample compared to other countries such as Finland and South Africa (Savolainen et al., 2012). This result further supported the data obtained in Yoshitoshi's (2014) study which showed that the Japanese high school teachers had low self-efficacy for inclusive practices. As Yoshitoshi (2014) suggested, inadequate training in inclusive practice might be one possible explanation of this result. However, the research center called Kokuritsu Kyoiku Seisaku Kenkyujo (2014) indicated that generally Japanese teachers have low self-efficacy for their practice and it might be because Japanese teachers have higher expectations or Japanese people have disposition to be humble. Thus, these data must be interpreted with caution considering cultural and historical background. The self-efficacy profile of current study was similar to those of Finnish sample in which the level of self-efficacy was highest in implementing inclusive instruction, although they had least confidence in managing behavior (Savolainen et al., 2012). This finding was in line with previous Japanese study which suggested that Japanese teachers were concerned about students' problematic behavior in classrooms regardless of academic achievement (Hirose & Tojo, 2002).

Teachers' self-efficacy became higher if they have had experience of interaction with persons with disabilities. Furthermore, teachers who have had very high level of training to teach learners with disabilities had high self-efficacy for inclusive practice. Be-

sides, the level of knowledge about local registration or policy related to inclusive education can also affect to teachers' self-efficacy. Self-efficacy became lower if teachers did not have any knowledge about local registration or policy. Teachers' self-efficacy became higher if they have had average or more knowledge, even though poor knowledge helped to increase their self-efficacy. In addition, the higher the teachers' level of confidence to teach learners with disabilities, the higher the self-efficacy. Since these concepts, confidence and self-efficacy, had similar meanings, this result can be considered as a matter of course. Another crucial finding was that the teachers' self-efficacy became higher if they have had at least low or average level of experience in teaching learners with disabilities. These findings supported the idea which mentioned in this study above that having pre-service and in-service teacher training which contains studying about relative knowledge of local registration and policy, and teaching learners with disabilities has possibilities to increase teachers' self-efficacy for inclusive practices.

The second question in this study sought to determine whether there are the relationship between Japanese teachers' self-efficacy for inclusive practice and attitudes towards inclusive education. There were relatively strong correlation between self-efficacy and attitudes, as suggested by some previous studies (Meijer & Foster, 1988; Weisel & Dror, 2006; Malinen et al. 2012; Savolainen et al., 2012). In addition, the self-efficacy especially correlated with teachers' concerns. This result indicated that teachers who feel themselves more capable in implementing inclusive practices had less concern about including learners with disabilities in their own classrooms. Moreover, the self-efficacy in managing behaviour had the strongest correlation with attitudes in the current study. Thus, teachers with stronger belief in their abilities to manage students' problematic behaviour had more positive attitudes towards inclusive education.

The third question in this research was to identify relative importance of different types of self-efficacy as predictors of Japanese teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education. The most interesting finding was that efficacy in collaboration with other school staffs and parents were the strongest predictor of general attitudes towards inclusive education. As Savolainen et al. (2012) suggested, not only pedagogy and behavior manage-

ment but also collaboration skill should be emphasized in the future pre- and in-service teacher training. Furthermore, Fujii (2014) found that principals and vice-principals had deeper understanding about inclusive education in Japan. Therefore, the collaboration between teachers and leadership groups can be one possibility to develop the inclusive system of schools. In addition, collaboration with parents is also the crucial element to improve inclusive environment. However, as it mentioned above, Japanese teachers had less time in collaboration with parents compared to other OECD countries even though they had the longest working time (Kokuritsu Kyoiku Seisaku Kenkyujo, 2014). The government or policy makers should construct the system in which the teachers' workloads are reduced so that teachers can make enough time for collaboration with other schools staffs and parents.

6. CONCLUSION

The present study has shown that although the Japanese government promotes inclusive education, teachers have great concerns about including children with disabilities in their own classrooms. Since it is assumed that effective inclusion teachers need to have positive attitudes towards inclusive education (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Forlin et al., 2010), it is important to take measures in order to change the teachers' attitudes especially regarding concerns towards inclusive education. One way of changing teachers' attitude is to improve their self-efficacy for inclusive practices. The second major finding was that the teachers' self-efficacy for inclusive practices was quite low in Japan compared to other countries, particularly regarding managing problematic student behaviour. The results of this study indicate that more attention should be paid to teachers' lack of confidence regarding inclusive practice. As Hirose and Tojo (2002) have suggested, having more in-service training and a teaching manual could be one way to develop teachers' self-efficacy for inclusive practice.

As discussed in the introduction, the global changes in educational policy towards inclusive education have proceeded rapidly in Japan. However, there are great gaps between the theoretical level of these policies and the educational practices, which are reflected in teachers struggling with applying inclusive education strategies in their own practice. This is the first study to investigate Japanese teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education and self-efficacy for inclusive practices. The current findings contribute to understanding teachers' situation more comprehensively and give the insight of how to improve the teacher training for inclusive education. It is suggested that the government should organize the teacher training in which teachers can study knowledge of local registration and policy related to inclusive education, and develop collaboration skills as well as pedagogy through pre- and in-service training. In addition, the government should consider changing the system in order to reduce teachers' workloads so that teachers can make enough time for collaboration which is crucial for inclusive education. These can help to close the gap between policies and practice.

There are a few noticeable limitations of the current study. First of all, even though an effort was made to include a wide variety of schools from several regions in Japan, the data was collected using convenience sampling. Thus, the findings cannot be generalized to the total population of Japanese in-service teachers. Second, the questionnaire that was used in this study was translated from English to Japanese. While the equivalence between the two versions was carefully checked in the translation and reviewing process, there are possibilities that some of the items in the Japanese version do not describe the same essence as in the original version. Third, since a cross-sectional analysis was applied in the current study, the correlation between teachers' self-efficacy for inclusive practices and attitudes towards inclusive education should be elucidated prudently. There are possibilities that the situation may provide differing results if another time-frame had been chosen. Hence, a longitudinal analysis would give us more accurate insights about what kind of contextual factors affect teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education and self-efficacy for inclusive practices, and how attitudes and self-efficacy beliefs change over time. Finally, even though the questionnaire yielded the psychometrically useful data, it cannot elucidate the whole situation about teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education and self-efficacy for inclusive practices. Further research in this direction using qualitative method such as interviews or observations would offer more in-depth insights into the teachers' perception towards inclusive education.

7. REFERENCES

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8. APPENDIX

Appendix 1. Japanese version of the SACIE-R scale

以下の項目はインクルーシブ教育に関する質問です。あなたの考えに当てはまるものに○をしてください。インクルーシブ教育とは、様々な異なる背景や障害のある児童生徒が、同級生とともに通常学級で学び、全ての児童生徒のニーズに応じた支援を行うものです。

	1 当てはまらない	2 どちらかといえば 当てはまらない	3 どちらかといえば 当てはまる	4 当てはまる	
1.	私は特別な教育的ニーズのある児童生徒がクラスの児童生徒から受け入れられないのではないかと心配だ。	1	2	3	4
2.	考えを声に出して表現することに困難がある子どもも通常学級に在籍すべきである。	1	2	3	4
3.	私はインクルーシブな学級の中で、児童生徒全員にきちんと注意を向けることがむ難しいのではないかと心配だ。	1	2	3	4
4.	私は、障害のある人々との関わりを短くし、できるだけ早く終わらせようとする。	1	2	3	4
5.	注意力のない児童生徒も、通常学級に在籍すべきである。	1	2	3	4
6.	もし私のクラスに特別な教育的ニーズのある児童生徒がいたら、私の仕事量が増すのではないかと心配だ。	1	2	3	4
7.	コミュニケーションの支援技術（点字や手話など）が必要な児童生徒も通常学級に在籍すべきである。	1	2	3	4
8.	もし私のクラスに特別な教育的ニーズのある児童生徒がいたら、私のストレスが増すのではないかと心配だ。	1	2	3	4
9.	私は障害のある人の顔をまっすぐ見ることが怖い。	1	2	3	4
10.	試験で頻繁に赤点を取る（不合格になる）児童生徒も、通常学級に在籍するべきである。	1	2	3	4
11.	私は、重度の身体障害のある人々に会った時、最初の動揺を抑えることに難しさを感じる。	1	2	3	4
12.	私は特別な教育的ニーズのある児童生徒を指導するために必要な知識や技術を持っていないのではないかと心配だ。	1	2	3	4
13.	個別の指導計画が必要な児童生徒も、通常学級に在籍すべきである。	1	2	3	4

Appendix 2. English version of the SACIE-R scale

The following statements relate to inclusive education which involves students from a wide range of diverse backgrounds and abilities learning with their peers in regular schools that adapt and change the way they work in order to meet the needs of all.

	1 Strongly Disagree	2 Disagree	3 Agree	4 Strongly Agree		
1.	I am concerned that students with disabilities will not be accepted by the rest of the class.		1	2	3	4
2.	Students who have difficulty expressing their thoughts verbally should be in regular classes.		1	2	3	4
3.	I am concerned that it will be difficult to give appropriate attention to all students in an inclusive classroom.		1	2	3	4
4.	I tend to make contacts with people with disabilities brief and I finish them as quickly as possible.		1	2	3	4
5.	Students who are inattentive should be in regular classes.		1	2	3	4
6.	I am concerned that my workload will increase if I have students with disabilities in my class.		1	2	3	4
7.	Students who require communicative technologies (e.g. Braille/sign language) should be in regular classes.		1	2	3	4
8.	I am concerned that I will be more stressed if I have students with disabilities in my class.		1	2	3	4
9.	I am afraid to look a person with a disability straight in the face.		1	2	3	4
10.	Students who frequently fail exams should be in regular classes.		1	2	3	4
11.	I find it difficult to overcome my initial shock when meeting people with severe physical disabilities.		1	2	3	4
12.	I am concerned that I do not have the knowledge and skills required to teach students with disabilities.		1	2	3	4
13.	Students who need an individualised academic programme should be in regular classes.		1	2	3	4

Appendix 3. Japanese version of the TEIP scale

以下の項目は、インクルーシブな教育環境を作る際に必要な教師の行動に関する質問です。あなたに当てはまると思うものに○をしてください。

	1	2	3	4	5	6				
	全く当てはまらない	当てはまらない	どちらかといえば当てはまらない	どちらかといえば当てはまる	当てはまる	とても当てはまる				
1.	児童生徒に期待する行動を明確に伝えることができる。				1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	多動性や衝動性のある、または問題行動や妨害行動を起こす児童生徒を落ち着かせることができる。				1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	親が気楽に学校に来られるようにすることができる。				1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	子どもが学校で自分の力を最大限に発揮することができるように家族を支援することができる。				1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	教えた内容に関する児童生徒の理解度を適切に評価することができる。				1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	学力の高い児童生徒に対して彼らの能力に応じた適切な課題を与えることができる。				1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	児童生徒が学級内で起こす問題行動や妨害行動を未然に防ぐ自信がある。				1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	学級内で起こる問題行動や妨害行動をうまくコントロールすることができる。				1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	特別な教育的ニーズのある児童生徒をもつ保護者に、学校行事に積極的に参加してもらう自信がある。				1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	特別な教育的ニーズのある児童生徒の個々の教育的ニーズが考慮された学習活動を計画する自信がある。				1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	子どもたちに学級のルールを守らせることができる。				1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	特別な教育的ニーズのある児童生徒の指導計画を立案するために、他の専門家（たとえば、養護教諭やスクールカウンセラー）と協力することができる。				1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	様々な専門家やスタッフ（たとえば、支援員や他の教員）とともに、教室で特別な教育的ニーズのある児童生徒を教えることができる。				1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	児童生徒を二人一組または小グループで一緒に学習させる自信がある。				1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	児童生徒を様々な方法やストラテジー（たとえば、ポートフォリオ評価、児童生徒の実態に応じて適宜変更を加えたテスト、指導成果の個別評価）で評価することができる。				1	2	3	4	5	6
16.	特別な教育的ニーズのある児童生徒のインクルージョンに関する法律や施策について他の人に情報提供をする自信がある。				1	2	3	4	5	6
17.	暴力的な児童生徒に対応する際、適切に指導する自信がある。				1	2	3	4	5	6
18.	児童生徒が理解できずに困っているとき、別の方法で説明したり、例を与えたりすることができる。				1	2	3	4	5	6

Appendix 4. English version of the TEIP scale

This survey is designed to help understand the nature of factors influencing the success of routine classroom activities in creating an inclusive environment.										
	1 Strongly disagree	2 Disagree	3 Disagree somewhat	4 Agree somewhat	5 Agree	6 Strongly agree				
1.	I can make my expectations clear about student behavior.				1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	I am able to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy.				1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	I can make parents feel comfortable coming to school.				1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	I can assist families in helping their children do well in school.				1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	I can accurately gauge student comprehension of what I have taught.				1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	I can provide appropriate challenges for very capable students.				1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	I am confident in my ability to prevent disruptive behavior in the classroom before it occurs.				1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	I can control disruptive behavior in the classroom.				1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	I am confident in my ability to get parents involved in school activities of their children with disabilities.				1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	I am confident in designing learning tasks so that the individual needs of students with disabilities are accommodated.				1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	I am able to get children to follow classroom rules.				1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	I can collaborate with other professionals (e.g. school nurse or school counsellor) in designing educational plans for students with disabilities.				1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	I am able to work jointly with other professionals and staff (e.g. aids and other teachers) to teach students with disabilities in the classroom.				1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	I am confident in my ability to get students to work together in pairs or in small groups.				1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	I can use a variety of assessment strategies (e.g. portfolio assessment, modified tests, performance-based assessment, etc.).				1	2	3	4	5	6
16.	I am confident in informing others who know little about laws and policies relating to the inclusion of students with disabilities.				1	2	3	4	5	6
17.	I am confident when dealing with students who are physically aggressive.				1	2	3	4	5	6
18.	I am able to provide an alternate explanation or example when students are confused.				1	2	3	4	5	6