

**Inclusive education from teachers' perspective: Exploring  
Chilean teachers' attitudes and self-efficacy**

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## ABSTRACT

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Chile has been moving towards inclusive education. However, there are still many challenges regarding the implementation of inclusion policies. Teachers' attitudes and self-efficacy are crucial for implementation to be successful. Thus, the purpose of this study was to explore Chilean teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education and self-efficacy in implementing inclusive practices.

The data were collected in 2015. A sample of 108 Chilean in-service teachers completed a questionnaire containing a Sentiments, Attitudes and Concerns about Inclusive Education (SACIE) scale, a Teacher Self-Efficacy for Inclusive Practices (TEIP) scale, and ratings for the best educational environment for students with different special educational needs.

The results indicate that teachers' sentiments towards interacting with people with disabilities were positive, but that they had great concerns for including students with special educational needs in their own classrooms. Teachers' overall self-efficacy in implementing inclusive practices was high, and teachers with higher self-efficacy also had more positive attitudes. The quality of teachers' previous experience (from very negative to very positive) on teaching students with special educational needs was the strongest predictor of their attitudes towards inclusive education. The most inclusive educational environments were recommended for students with mild special educational needs.

The findings of this study suggest that positive experience of teaching students with special educational needs can have positive impact on teachers' attitudes toward inclusion. The findings provide to understand teachers' attitudes toward inclusive education more comprehensively, and give ideas on how to improve pre-service and in-service teacher education.

Keywords: inclusive education, teacher, attitude, self-efficacy, Chile

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# 1 INTRODUCTION

Inclusive education is currently seen as a fundamental aspect of education policies worldwide (Kozleski, Artiles, Fletcher, & Engelbrecht, 2009; Malinen et al., 2013; Savolainen, Engelbrecht, Nel, & Malinen, 2012). However, despite the internationality, there are differences both in the definitions and national policies and practices of inclusion (Boyle, Topping, Jindal-Snape, & Norwich, 2012; Kozleski et al., 2009; Messiou, 2017). Furthermore, the international discussion does not fully consider those differences or the way culture and context influence the concept of inclusive education and the implementation of inclusive practices (Kozleski et al., 2009; Malinen et al., 2013; Savolainen et al., 2012). Hence, to promote and improve inclusive education, it is important to understand more thoroughly the cultural resources of educational contexts, and the wider relations and structures of the whole society (Ainscow & César, 2006).

Regardless of the different definitions and practices, teachers are in a key role when it comes to successful implementation of inclusive policies (Avramidis & Norwich 2002; Boyle, Topping, & Jindal-Snape, 2013; Burke & Sutherland 2004; Savolainen et al., 2012). Teachers' attitudes are crucial in ensuring the success of inclusive practices, as their acceptance of the inclusion policies is likely to affect their commitment and enthusiasm to implement them (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Burke & Sutherland, 2004; Boyle et al., 2013; Norwich, 1994). Therefore, teachers' attitudes may facilitate or restrain the implementation of the policies (Avramidis, Bayliss, & Burden, 2000; Boyle et al., 2012; Boyle et al., 2013; Burke & Sutherland, 2004).

In addition to positive attitudes, also self-efficacy in implementing inclusive practices is essential when it comes to successful implementation of inclusive education (Sharma & Nuttal, 2016). Teacher self-efficacy defines how much effort and time the teacher is ready to invest and how she or he copes with obstacles, challenges and failures (Almog & Shechtman, 2007; Tschannen-Moran &



Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). Teachers with strong self-efficacy set higher goals both for themselves and their students and try harder to achieve these goals. In addition, they persist through obstacles more than teachers with low self-efficacy. (Ross & Bruce, 2007; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001.)

Through a comparative cross-cultural view, it is possible to find ways to improve inclusive education. Teachers' attitudes towards inclusion and self-efficacy for implementing inclusive practices in different countries have been studied for example by Savolainen et al. (2012), Malinen, Savolainen and Xu (2012), Malinen et al. (2013) and Yada and Savolainen (2017). The studies are part of a larger comparative research project that aims "to produce a knowledge base that sheds light on how the development of inclusive education looks from a teacher's perspective in different countries" (Savolainen et al., 2012). However, the studies have not yet included any Latin American countries. Still, inclusive education is currently one of the principal objectives also in Latin America (Amadio, 2009; Rico, 2010) and countries such as Chile have been moving towards inclusion (Tarmayo, Rebolledo, & Besoain-Saldaña, 2017). Therefore, the present study takes a focus in Latin America, more specifically in Chile. The objective of this study is to take part in the current discussion of inclusive education, presenting a new insight by investigating Chilean teachers.

In Chile, there are many inequalities in the education system, considering different variables such as socioeconomic status, gender, sexual identity and ethnicity of students (Pastrana, Fernández, Salinas, Gutierrez, & Nuñez, 2015). However, inclusive education is principally seen from the perspective of educating students with disabilities (López, Julio, Morales, Rojas, & Pérez, 2014; López Vélez, 2008). The equal rights of people with disabilities are legislated in laws (Ministry of Planning, 2010). In addition, Chile ratified the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities in 2008, which states that people with disabilities should study in inclusive schools (Abadie, 2013). However, even though inclusion and the rights of people with disabilities in Chile are protected by legislation, in practice these rights do not fully exist (Estay, Henríquez, & Cáceres, 2015). The Chilean school system has failed to ensure an effective inclusion of all

students with disabilities, lacking for example the required accommodations and support (Tamayo et al., 2017). Therefore, the system continues to be excluding and because of that, improvements still need to be done (Tamayo et al., 2017; López Vélez, 2008). Through a successful implementation of inclusive education, the amount of the people with disabilities receiving educational services could increase (Eleweke & Rodda, 2002). Furthermore, educational inclusion can be seen as a key element for later inclusion in work and community (Tamayo et al., 2017).

Hence, to improve the implementation of inclusive practices, and for inclusive education to be successful, teachers' positive attitudes and strong self-efficacy are needed. Therefore, it is important to gain insight to what kind of attitudes teachers have towards inclusive education, what are the elements that influence the attitudes and how the attitudes can possibly be improved. Consequently, the present study approaches the inclusion issue from teachers' point of view, and lets their voice be heard.

The aim is to study Chilean teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education and self-efficacy in implementing inclusive practices, the principal focus being on attitudes. Cross-cultural studies are needed to be able to understand culture specific barriers and facilitators of inclusive education (Vaz et al., 2015). Therefore, this study also implements a cross-cultural study view by investigating Chilean teachers and then comparing the results to similar research done in Finland and other countries. The objective of this study is to provide new knowledge to understand teachers' attitudes and self-efficacy towards inclusive education more comprehensively, and give ideas on how the teacher training for inclusive education could be improved, for teachers to be able to attend a large diversity of students, including the ones with severe special educational needs.

## 2 REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

### 2.1 Inclusive education

#### 2.1.1 Definitions

There are multiple views and definitions of inclusive education (Boyle et al., 2012; Messiou, 2017). Inclusion is an international concept which, due to cultural and legal issues, has different meanings in different countries (Ainscow, 2005; Boyle et al., 2012) and the definition may change also within a country or school (Ainscow, Farrell, & Tweddle, 2000 in Ainscow & César, 2006; Savolainen et al., 2012). Despite the universality of agreeing that inclusive education is a principal way of realizing quality education for all, there are visible differences in national educational policies (Kozleski et al., 2009; Malinen et al., 2013).

Inclusion can be seen as accommodation of the local learning environment to meet the individual needs of every student and with that to ensure that all students belong to the community (Boyle et al., 2012; Bradshaw & Mundia, 2006). Inclusive education aims to eliminate social exclusion, basing on the belief that education is a basic human right and the basis for a fairer society (Ainscow & César, 2006; UNESCO, 1994). Thus, inclusion is about equity of access to quality education and lack of it can be linked to oppression, educational and social disadvantage and discrimination (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Boyle et al., 2012). Briefly, one could say that inclusion is increasing participation and decreasing exclusion by eliminating barriers to learning and participation (Guijarro, 2000, p. 41; UNESCO, 2009; Vaillant, 2011).

United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, UNESCO, (2009) sees inclusion as a process that addresses and responds to the diversity of needs of all persons, stating that inclusion should be the basis of all education policies and practices. The United Nations Salamanca Statement in 1994, signed by 92 member countries, can be seen as the most important international indicator of commitment to inclusive education (Ainscow & César, 2006; Kraska & Boyle, 2014; Messiou, 2017). According to the Statement, regular

schools with an inclusive orientation are the most effective way to decrease discriminatory attitudes, to create welcoming communities, to build inclusive societies, to achieve education for all and to improve the cost-effectiveness of the whole education system (Ainscow & César, 2006; Messiou, 2017; UNESCO, 1994).

In addition, inclusion is said to have positive academic and social outcomes to all students as when teachers use various learning and teaching strategies, it can improve the learning of all, and increase students' tolerance and understanding of individual differences and respect for other persons (Boyle, Scriven, Durning, & Downes, 2011; Bradshaw & Mundia, 2006). Defur (2002) suggests that students with disabilities studying in inclusive schools would lead to higher expectations, better teaching and improved academic outcomes for these students. Also teachers can benefit professionally as they can improve and challenge their teaching skills by teaching a diverse student group (Boyle et al., 2011; McCormack, Gore, & Thomas, 2006). However, for some inclusion may mean special arrangements in special schools for children to be socially included with the peers who share same special educational needs (Boyle et al., 2012).

Ainscow and César (2006) present five ways to think of inclusive education:

- 1) "Inclusion as concerned with disability and special educational needs" which may not be an adequate way to improve the participation of all students.
- 2) "Inclusion as a response to disciplinary exclusions" in which inclusion is connected with students with bad behaviour which may make some schools fearful thinking that they are required to take a large amount of students with behavioural challenges.
- 3) "Inclusion as about all groups vulnerable to exclusion" in which inclusion refers to all children who are in danger of being or who are excluded from schooling.
- 4) "Inclusion as the promotion of a school for all" that includes the development of a common school for all.
- 5) "Inclusion as Education for All" which regards the education for all movement and international debates and policies that have to do with increasing access and participation to all kind of education across the world. (Ainscow & César, 2006.)

Furthermore, Ainscow (2005) presents four key aspects that should be considered regarding inclusion:

- 1) Inclusion is a process which means that it is a never-ending search to find ways to respond to diversity and learning how to live with differences and learn from them.
- 2) Inclusion involves identification and removal of barriers which involves collecting and evaluating information from different sources to plan for improvements in policy and practice.
- 3) Inclusion includes the presence (where and when children are educated), participation (the quality of the students' experience) and achievement (the outcomes of learning).
- 4) Inclusion has a specific emphasis on those groups of students who may be at a risk of underachievement, marginalisation or exclusion and must ensure those students' presence, participation and achievement in the education system.

Concluding, there is no single view or definition on inclusive education, instead, the concept of inclusion is context specific (Boyle et al., 2012; Messiou, 2017). Considering the Chilean context, the term inclusive education is usually understood to mean education of students with disabilities or special educational needs (López et al., 2014; López Vélez, 2008). Therefore, in the present study, the best definition for inclusive education probably is "including students with special educational needs into regular schools and classrooms" (Yada & Savolainen, 2017). The term inclusive practices is used to refer for example to modifying the instruction and assessment according to students' needs, controlling disruptive student behavior and collaborating with students' parents and involving them in the school activities (Engelbrecht, Savolainen, Nel, & Malinen, 2013).

### **2.1.2 Challenges**

Inclusive education is currently a challenge all over the world (Ainscow, 2005; Malinen et al., 2012). However, the greatest challenges regarding inclusive education depend on the context (Ainscow, 2005). In wealthier countries, students may drop out from school, leave school with worthless qualifications or be placed in special schools or classes away from regular education (Ainscow, 2005). Then

again, in economically poorer countries, millions of children do not attend any formal education (UNESCO, 2015).

The barriers to inclusive education may be caused by several different factors, such as cultural and environmental (e.g. inaccessible environment, inflexible curricula, inadequate support service, evaluation, language differences), socio-economic (e.g. poverty), gender and individual factors (e.g. disabilities) (Guijarro, 2000, p. 41). Amadio (2009) finds that there exist deeply-rooted negative social attitudes and discriminatory social practices, monetary limitations, lack of resources and a gap between principles and curriculum and classroom practices. According to UNESCO (2015), in 2012 still nearly 58 million children were out of school, due to for example demographic pressures, conflict situations, marginalization of various socioeconomic groups, and a lack of adequate commitment in some countries.

Thus, UNESCO (2015) states that improvements are needed, to reach for example the poorest populations, ethnic and linguistic minorities, rural girls, working children and children with disabilities. However, attending school does not necessarily mean learning, as recent statistics (UNESCO, 2017) reveal that millions of children who attend school are not achieving the minimum proficiency levels in reading and mathematics. Hence, the barriers and obstacles behind these results should be identified and removed in order to provide an access to quality education for all.

Ainscow and César (2006) find that because of the existing confusion and uncertainties regarding different views of inclusive education, moving towards the implementation of inclusive education is challenging. Ainscow (2005) states that in some countries, inclusive education can be understood as an approach to educating children with disabilities within regular education settings. Also Amadio (2009) acknowledges that there is a well-established traditional view that inclusive education is a synonym for special education which makes it more difficult to accept that is for all. Messiou (2017) argues that inclusion should aim to involve all learners instead of focusing only on some students. Furthermore, Messiou (2017) states that focusing only on some students seems to contradict with

the idea of inclusion being about all students. Also, Guijarro (2000, p. 49) reminds that not all the students with special educational needs are students with disabilities and learning difficulties, but there are also students in vulnerable situations, indigenous children, working children and so on.

To conclude, there are multiple challenges concerning inclusive education. Inclusive education involves modifications and changes not only in content but also in approaches, strategies and structures (UNESCO, 2009). Thus, inclusion requires careful thought and preparation, monitoring and reviewing of the process (Avramidis and Norwich, 2002; Kavale & Forness, 2000). Furthermore, inclusion is a never-ending process, searching for adequate forms to respond to the diversity (Ainscow, 2005; Rico, 2010).

### **2.1.3 Teachers and inclusive education**

Teachers are in a key role regarding the implementation of inclusive education (Boyle & Topping, 2012; Boyle et al., 2011; Boyle et al., 2012; Forlin, Cedillo, Romero-Contreras, Fletcher, & Hernández, 2010; Savolainen et al., 2012; Shade & Stewart, 2001; Vaillant, 2011). Teachers' attitudes are likely to affect their commitment of implementing inclusive policies (Boyle & al., 2011; Boyle et al., 2012; Bradshaw & Mundia, 2006). Teachers' feelings of frustration and negative attitudes can be barriers to the success of inclusive education (Bradshaw & Mundia, 2006).

However, Zigmond, Kloof and Volonino (2009) question whether full inclusion is even possible or beneficial as it might be challenging for a general education teacher to be expected to give appropriate teaching to a large heterogenic group, where the students' abilities are very different. Hence, teachers should be provided with sufficient skills to face the challenges of inclusive education (Amadio, 2009; Vaillant, 2011). Ainscow, Booth and Dyson (2006) argue that teachers should be supported to take more control over their own development. Boyle and Topping (2012) state that teachers should be included in the planning process of the school's inclusion policies. Guijarro (2000, p. 50) emphasizes that all the

teachers should have basic theoretical-practical knowledge regarding attending the needs of diversity of students.

Inclusive teaching requires co-working (Boyle et al., 2011; Guijarro, 2000, p. 47). Peer support, or “teachers supporting teachers”, is seen to have a very important role both in teachers’ positive attitudes towards inclusion and motivation to implement inclusive practices (Boyle & Topping, 2012; Boyle et al., 2012) and some researchers (e.g. Boyle et al., 2011; Boyle et al., 2012) see the support of colleagues as the most significant element considering the successful implementation of inclusive practices. In addition, self-efficacy in collaborating with other teachers and professionals has been found to predict teachers’ attitudes toward inclusion (Savolainen et al., 2012). Guijarro (2000, p. 47) reminds that inclusion should be considered as a project of the entire school community and therefore requires participation and co-work of the teachers, specialists, parents, students and other school staff. Also, Valeo (2008) reminds that all stakeholders such as the parents, principal, classroom teacher, support staff and the student him or herself should be involved in the process of implementing inclusion. Boyle et al. (2011) argue that it is important that teachers feel supported by the school management in order to implement inclusive practices. Avramidis and Norwich (2002) state that when teachers receive assistance in the skills to implement inclusive education, they also become more committed and effective to the change.

In summary, teachers are in important role when it comes to inclusive education to be successful. Cross-cultural studies are needed to understand culture specific barriers and facilitators in order to be able to improve teachers’ inclusive practices (Vaz et al., 2015). The present study approaches the inclusion issue from teachers’ point of view, by studying their attitudes and self-efficacy, also implementing a cross-cultural study view by investigating Chilean teachers and then comparing the results to similar research done in Finland and other countries.

#### **2.1.4 Inclusive schools**

An inclusive school asks how it needs to change in order to offer full membership to its students, instead of asking how the students need to change in order to be



able to study in the school (Burke & Sutherland, 2004; Guijarro, 2000, p. 41). Burke and Sutherland (2004) define inclusive schools as school communities where all students in the school, regardless of their weaknesses or strengths make part of it and where the school's students, teachers and other staff feel a sense of belonging. Inclusive education requires to consider that every student has capabilities, motivations, interests and experiences that are personal and unique (Guijarro, 2000, p. 41). Furthermore, inclusive schools respect and value differences and see them as an opportunity to learners' personal development, not as a barrier to teaching and learning (Guijarro, 2000, p. 41). In inclusive schools, teachers should take into consideration the concrete needs of each student, and plan together with other teachers and professionals. (Guijarro, 2000, p. 48; Tamayo et al., 2017.) Furthermore, participation, development of clear rules and openness to cultural, social and personal diversity are aspects that should be incorporated into the educational project of every school (Muñoz Quezada, Lucero Moncada, Cornejo Araya, Muñoz Molina, & Araya Sarabia, 2014).

### **2.1.5 Inclusive education in Latin America**

Latin American countries have been characterised by a high level of inequity and exclusion (Guijarro, 2000, p. 42). However, over the last two decades, there have been significant changes in the educational systems (Vaillant, 2011) and currently, one of fundamental objectives in Latin America is to ensure universal access to education and include social groups such as people with disabilities (Amadio, 2009). Though the educational coverage is nowadays broad, there is still much to be improved in quality and access to education, especially considering the vulnerable populations (Vaillant, 2011). For example, children in poverty, working and street children, children of nomadic families, indigenous children, pregnant adolescents and children with disabilities have experienced barriers for learning (Guijarro, 2000, p. 42; Vegas & Petrow, 2008).

Guijarro (2000, p. 43) finds that factors such as the absence of support services, inadequate personnel training programmes and lack of funding structure are barriers to effective implementation of inclusive education in Latin American

countries. Amadio (2009) emphasizes that the main challenge considering inclusive education does not lie at the level of principles or policies, but rather in the gap between the policies and actual practices. Guijarro (2000, p. 42) adds that negative stereotypes, beliefs, prejudices and values towards any type of difference are great barriers as children may be discriminated for example due to their capabilities and social or ethnic background (Guijarro, 2000, p. 42).

In addition, curriculum and learning materials may be very homogenous, not recognizing the individual and cultural differences of the students. Also, competitiveness and selection of students can be seen as a practice of exclusion, and the highly established culture of repetition causes problems of school drop-out and overage. (Guijarro, 2000, p. 43.) Furthermore, societies are highly divided and there is a remarkable diversity between rural and urban areas and between public and private education that introduces multiple and constant tensions (Guijarro, 2000, p. 42, Vaillant, 2011). Amadio (2009) states that the principal source of educational inequality lies in the students' families' economic and socio-cultural disparity.

Another existing problem is with the understanding of the concept of inclusive education, as the concept of inclusion has frequently been used as a synonym for the integration or care of students with special educational needs or children with disabilities (Amadio, 2009; Guijarro, 2000, p. 41). Also, the quality of the teachers may be a problem (Vaillant, 2011). Teachers may have low expectations for children with disabilities and children from disadvantaged backgrounds (Guijarro, 2000, p. 42). Furthermore, teachers may have limited participation to effect on issues that are related to the conditions they work in (Biscarra, Giaconi and Assaél, 2015). In Chile for example, the legislation conceptualizes teachers as employees with limited professionalism and autonomy (Biscarra et al., 2015).

To conclude, despite recent changes in the education systems in Latin America, there are still deep inequalities (Vaillant, 2011). The inclusion policies and strategies should turn into concrete actions to change the institutional practices and pedagogical approaches both in school and classroom level (Amadio, 2009). In order to improve the quality of education, also teachers of good quality

are needed (Vaillant, 2011). Thus, training of teachers for an education system that is more inclusive is important (Vaillant, 2011).

## **2.2 Attitudes**

### **2.2.1 Definitions**

Attitudes are seen as an important and useful concept for both understanding and predicting human social behaviour. The term attitude can be defined as an evaluation of an object of thought (Bohner & Dickel, 2011, p. 392) and as a tendency to respond with some level of favourableness or unfavourableness to a certain psychological object (including things, people and ideas, etc.). (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005; Ajzen & Cote, 2008; Bohner & Dickel, 2011, p. 392; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975.) According to Bohner and Dickel (2011, p. 392), most researchers agree on these core definitions but there are many different models and views of attitude.

Despite the multiple views, it is generally agreed that most of the social attitudes are acquired (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005; Ajzen & Cote, 2008). Attitude beliefs may be formed through direct observation, self-generated by inference processes or indirectly by accepting information from different outside sources such as media, family and friends (Ajzen & Cote, 2008). The beliefs can be accurate or inaccurate. However, despite of their accuracy, attitude beliefs represent the information people have about the world and play the cognitive basis to their behaviour (Ajzen & Cote, 2008). Beliefs may persist over time or weaken or disappear, and new beliefs are also formed (Ajzen & Cote, 2008).

Attitudes affect how people process information and behave (Ajzen & Cote, 2008; Bohner & Dickel, 2011). For example, people may tend to look for stimuli and materials that confirm their attitudes and avoid information that contradict those (Hitlin & Pinkston, 2013). There are differences how individuals rely on affect or cognition as determinants of attitude. Also, affect and cognition take on different levels of importance for different attitude objects. (Ajzen, 2001; Ajzen, 2011.) Furthermore, attitudes can be seen as stable entities stored in memory (see:

Bohner & Dickel, 2011; Hitlin & Pinkston, 2013) or context dependent constructions made in each situation from accessible information (Schwarz, 2007; see also: Bohner & Dickel, 2011; Bradshaw & Mundia, 2006; Gawronski & Bodenhausen, 2007; Hitlin & Pinkston, 2013).

The dual model of attitudes (Wilson, Lindsey, & Schooler, 2000; Hitlin & Pinkston, 2013) states that people can simultaneously hold two different attitudes towards a certain object, one of the attitudes being implicit and the other one explicit. Whereas the explicit attitude is assumed to require cognitive effort to be activated, the implicit attitude is said to be activated automatically (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005). Many discriminative attitudes may be implicit (Ajzen & Cote, 2008). The implicit attitudes may influence a person's behaviour without the person noticing it (Bohner & Dickel, 2011; Greenwald & Banaji, 1995; Hitlin & Pinkston, 2013). Attitudes are also linked to bodily sensations like motor or temperature perceptions, and through these sensations evaluative information of attitude objects may be more accessible and the sensations may also affect the overall judgement (Bohner & Dickel, 2011).

Attitudes can be measured by using either explicit self-report instruments or implicit response-time-based measures (Bohner & Dickel, 2011). However, correlations and change between explicit and implicit measures of a certain attitude may be different. Implicit attitude measures predict behavior that is spontaneous and less controllable, whereas explicit measures predict behavior that is deliberative and more controlled. (Bohner & Dickel, 2011.) In the present study, explicit attitudes were measured.

Ajzen and Fishbein (2005) state that to understand the influences attitudes have on behaviour, distinction must be made between two types of attitude: (1) general or global attitudes toward physical objects, ethnic or other groups (e.g. students with special educational needs), policies, events and other general targets, and (2) attitudes toward performing specific behaviours regarding an object or target (e.g. teaching students with special educational needs), briefly, attitudes toward behaviour. Though global attitudes may help to understand general patterns of behaviour, there is very little support in empirical research for the idea

of predicting performance specific behaviours from global attitudes. Also, having the same general attitude does not mean that people behave in the same way. (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005; Ajzen & Cote, 2008.) In the present investigation, both general attitudes (attitudes towards inclusive education and disabilities), and attitudes towards performing specific behaviours (e.g. attitudes towards including students with special educational needs into regular classes) were studied.

In addition to the previous, there are many other theories on attitudes. For example, the *expectancy-value model* argues that attitude beliefs are formed by associating the performance of the behaviour with certain outcomes (Ajzen, 2015; Ajzen & Cote, 2008). Ajzen (2015) describes that people learn to form positive attitudes towards behaviours that are believed to produce desirable outcomes and negative attitudes towards behaviours that are associated with undesirable outcomes. According the *theory of planned behaviour*, human social behaviour is planned in the sense that people consider behaviour's likely consequences (Ajzen, 1985; Ajzen & Cote, 2008). It argues that people's actions are influenced by three major factors which are: attitude toward the behaviour (a favourable or unfavourable evaluation of the behaviour), perceived social pressure to perform or not to perform the behaviour (social norms), and self-efficacy (perceived capability to perform the behaviour) (Ajzen & Cote, 2008; Ajzen, 2015; Dias & Cadime, 2016). Then again, according to the *MODE model* (motivation and opportunity as determinants of the attitude-behavior relationship) (Fazio, 1990), only strong attitudes that are readily accessible in memory are the ones likely to guide the performance of specific behaviours. However, Ajzen and Cote (2008) question this theory by noting that despite of holding strong attitudes, global attitudes may still often fail to predict specific behaviours. Fabrigar et al. (2005) present that more contemporary views hold attitude as an entity distinguishable from classes of cognition, behaviour and affect which means that attitudes are general evaluative summaries of the information derived from these three bases (see: Fabrigar et al., 2005).

To conclude, there are multiple views and definitions on attitudes (Bohner & Dickel, 2011). Since the object of the present study is not to take part in the

discussion of the exact definition of the term attitude (Yada & Savolainen, 2017), this study does not go further on these views and definitions. In the present study, attitude is defined as a tendency to respond with some level of favourableness or unfavourableness to a certain psychological object (Bohner & Dickel, 2011).

### **2.2.2 Teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education**

Teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education are in a key role as teachers have the primary responsibility when it comes to implementing inclusive policies (Boyle et al., 2011; Boyle, Topping, & Jindal-Snape, 2013; Burke & Sutherland, 2004; Kraska & Boyle, 2014; Sharma & Nuttal, 2016). Therefore, teachers' attitudes may facilitate or restrain the implementation of the policies (Avramidis, Bayliss, & Burden, 2000; Burke & Sutherland, 2004). If teachers have negative views towards the process of inclusive education, probably the implementation of inclusion will be problematic, and thus money and resources will not automatically be a key to successful implementation of inclusive practices. (Boyle et al., 2012; Boyle et al., 2013.)

Teachers' attitudes toward inclusive education are often based on practical concerns of implementing inclusive practices, rather than being grounded in a particular ideology (Burke & Sutherland, 2004; Vaz et al., 2015). Teachers might not hold openly negative attitudes, however, some of the teachers may find that there are problems that are beyond their circle of control and that solutions to these problems may be difficult to find (Vaz et al., 2015). There are three types of variables that have been found to influence teachers' attitudes: child-related, teacher-related and educational environment variables (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002). Avramidis and Norwich (2002) concluded in their literature review that child-related variables have more influence than teacher-related variables on teachers' attitudes but also educational environment-related variables (e.g. human support) are associated with teachers' attitudes toward inclusion. Attitudes at the beginning of teachers' careers may possibly predict their future attitudes

(Kraska & Boyle, 2014). Thus, it is important to support the early years of teachers' careers.

In recent years, several studies on teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education have been made, including also a variety of cross-cultural studies. In many of these recent studies, teachers have been found to hold either positive (Boyle et al., 2013; Dias & Cadime, 2016; Hsieh & Hsieh, 2012; Kraska & Boyle, 2014; Shaukat, Sharma, & Furlonger 2013; Tsakiridou & Polyzopoulou, 2014) or neutral (Galović, Brojčin, & Glumbić, 2014; Savolainen et al., 2012; Yada & Savolainen, 2017) attitudes towards inclusive education.

Dias and Cadime (2016) studied attitudes of pre-school teachers working in mainstream schools and found out that the teachers had overall positive attitudes towards inclusion. Also in Kraska's and Boyle's (2014) investigation the pre-service teachers' attitudes towards inclusion were in general positive. In Savolainen et al.'s (2012) study on South African and Finnish teachers and Yada and Savolainen's (2017) study on Japanese teachers, the teachers had in general neutral attitudes towards inclusive education. However, the teachers had concerns about including students with special educational needs in their own classrooms (Savolainen et al., 2012; Yada & Savolainen, 2017). In Malinen and Savolainen's (2008) study, the Chinese university students' attitudes towards inclusive education were slightly negative. In Donohue and Bornman's (2015) study on South African teachers', the teachers found that inclusion would benefit students' social development more than their intellectual development. Cross-country studies on teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education have been made also for example by Shaukat et al. (2013) who studied Pakistani and Australian pre-service teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education. They found out that both the Pakistani and the Australian teachers had relatively positive attitudes.

Teacher self-efficacy (see chapter 2.3) has been argued (e.g. Savolainen et al., 2012) to have connection with teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education. Tsakiridou and Polyzopoulou (2014) studied teachers' attitudes towards including students with special educational needs and how the attitudes were influ-

enced by teachers' self-efficacy perceptions. They found that in general the teachers had positive attitudes towards inclusive education and that higher self-efficacy was related to teachers' capacity to confront negative experiences at school, rather than to their attitudes towards the inclusion of students with special educational needs (Tsakiridou & Polyzopoulou, 2014). However, in Vaz et al.'s (2015) study on primary school teachers' attitudes toward inclusion of students with disabilities in regular schools, the teachers with low self-efficacy in their teaching skills were also more negative towards inclusive education. Boyle et al. (2013) argue that many studies have shown that confidence in teaching students with special educational needs is often related to their attitudes towards inclusion.

Furthermore, the relations between teachers' attitudes and their age or teaching experience have also been discussed. Vaz et al. (2015) found out that teachers who were over 55 years old were more negative than teachers between the ages of 35 and 55 years. However, Boyle et al. (2013) and Forlin, Sharma and Loreman (2007) found no significant difference between teachers' age and attitudes towards inclusive education. In addition, Boyle et al. (2013) found that teaching experience (in years) had no significant difference on attitudes but there was a significant drop in the attitudes towards inclusive education after the first year of teaching (Boyle, et al., 2013). However, Yada and Savolainen (2017) found in their investigation on Japanese teachers that teachers with longer teaching experience had slightly less positive attitudes towards inclusive education. Then again, Galović, Brojčin and Glumbić (2014) found no relation between teaching experience and attitudes towards inclusive education.

Also, the influence of the gender on attitudes has been discussed. Boyle et al. (2013) and Vaz et al. (2015) found female teachers significantly more inclusive than male teachers. However, Galović et al. (2014) and Yada and Savolainen (2017) found no relation between teachers' gender and attitudes.

In addition, there are different findings on whether a previous contact with a person with a disability has a positive effect on attitudes towards inclusive education. In Hodge and Jansma's (1999) study, a previous positive, direct contact with a person with a disability made the teacher more likely to include a student



with a disability in her or his class. In Dias and Cadime's (2016) study, pre-school teachers working in regular schools who had had previous contact with a person with special educational needs had more positive affective attitudes toward inclusion. However, in Sharma and Nuttal's (2016) study, pre-service teachers' attitudes were not related to whether they knew or did not know a person with a disability. Similar findings were reported also by Malinen and Savolainen (2008) and Burke and Sutherland (2004), as university students' and teachers' prior experience and knowledge of students with disabilities were not related to their attitudes towards inclusion.

Furthermore, also the effect of positive experiences of inclusive education and attitudes towards inclusion has been studied. Dias and Cadime (2016) argue that teachers' previous experience of teaching students with special educational needs seems to influence their attitudes, especially if the experiences were successful. Galović et al. (2014) found out in their research on Serbian teachers that the teachers who had positive experiences of inclusion had significantly better attitudes toward inclusive education than those with negative experiences. Therefore, Galović et al. (2014) argue that positive experiences are followed by more positive attitudes towards inclusive education, and because of that, it would be important to give teachers possibilities to have positive interactions with students with special educational needs. Also, in Donohue and Bornman's (2015) study, teachers who had previous experience of teaching children with disabilities had significantly more positive academic expectations for such students. In addition, Hsieh and Hsieh (2012) found out that having a positive previous experience of teaching children with disabilities was positively related to teachers' attitudes toward inclusive education.

Also, the type and severity of the disability or special educational need can have a strong influence on the teachers' willingness to include such students (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002). Avramidis and Norwich (2002) found in their literature review of teachers' attitudes towards inclusion that the more severe the student's disability, the less positive was the teacher's attitude toward inclusion. Also Avramidis and Kalyva (2007) found out that teachers viewed students with

mild and moderate special educational needs as unproblematic and students with severe special educational needs such as intellectual disabilities, autism spectrum disorder and sensory impairments were viewed as the most challenging to include in regular classes.

Furthermore, in Malinen and Savolainen's (2008) study, the type and severity of the students' disability was significantly related to the best educational environment rated for different student groups. The participants were the most willing to include students with visual impairment and the least willing to include students with mental disability into regular classrooms (Malinen & Savolainen, 2008). Avramidis and Norwich (2002) found that the teachers were more positive for including students with physical and sensory disabilities compared to students with behavioural, intellectual and learning disabilities. In Hastings' and Oakford's (2003) study, pre-service teachers held more negative attitudes towards the inclusion of students with emotional and behavioural problems than the students with intellectual disabilities.

Additionally, the amount of training is argued to have influence on teachers' attitudes toward inclusive education. Boyle et al. (2013) and Kraska and Boyle (2014) present that already a single course about inclusive education can significantly improve teaching staff's attitudes. In Jobe, Rust and Brissie's (1996) investigation of teachers' attitudes towards including students with disabilities in regular classrooms, the most significant relations with attitudes towards inclusion were with inclusion in-service training and special education teaching experience. In addition, Vaz et al. (2015) found in their study that teachers who had training in teaching students with disabilities had positive attitudes toward inclusion. Furthermore, Sharma and Nuttal (2016) point out education and training as essential factors to influence positively teachers' attitudes towards inclusion. Also, Burke and Sutherland (2004) state that negative attitudes towards inclusion and students with disabilities might be because of the teachers feel they have insufficient knowledge about the area, and therefore teachers should be provided with sufficient training. Dias and Cadime (2016) argue that continuous training

and promotion of positive attitudes are needed in order to successfully implement inclusive education. Donohue and Bornman (2015) suggest that if teachers are provided with sufficient training and resources, their attitudes towards inclusive education could become more positive. The positive effect on teachers' attitudes towards including students with disabilities can make the teachers more willing to participate in the inclusive education (Burke, & Sutherland, 2004).

In addition, the connection between attitudes and collaboration has been studied (e.g. Savolainen et al., 2012). Boyle et al. (2011) and Boyle et al. (2012) remind of the importance of peer support within staff groups in order to inclusive education work effectively. Savolainen et al. (2012) found strong relation between teachers' attitudes towards inclusion and their self-efficacy in collaboration with other teachers, professionals and parents. Malinen et al. (2012) found efficacy in collaboration to be the strongest predictor of teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education. Tsakiridou and Polyzopoulou (2014) conclude that there is a need to establish networks of collaborative support in school districts and to develop teacher education programs, as a goal for teachers to have broad knowledge and skills to confront diverse needs adequately.

To conclude, teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education have been found either neutral or positive in many recent studies (e.g. Boyle, Topping, & Jindal-Snape, 2013; Dias & Cadime, 2016; Kraska & Boyle, 2014; Savolainen et al., 2012; Yada & Savolainen, 2017). In addition, the attitudes have been found to be influenced by several different factors, such as teachers' collaboration skills, inclusion training and previous positive experience on teaching students with special educational needs, and the type of student's special educational need. The present study aims to explore Chilean teachers' attitudes toward inclusive education and to provide new knowledge to understand teachers' attitudes more comprehensively.

## 2.3 Self-efficacy

### 2.3.1 Definitions

Perceived self-efficacy can be defined as a person's own judgement of her or his capability to execute a certain activity or performance (Bandura, 1997, 2006a, 2006b, 2012). The concept was established by Bandura in the 1970's (Bandura, 1977). In this Master's thesis, the word self-efficacy is used to refer to perceived self-efficacy. Self-efficacy is a part of social cognitive theory, which argues that people are able to exercise some control over their life circumstances and self-development (Bandura, 2006a).

Efficacy expectations are the convictions that people can successfully execute the required behaviour to produce the desired outcomes (Bandura, 1977, 2006b) and they affect how people feel, think, motivate themselves and behave (Bandura, 1993, 2005, 2006a, 2012; Bandura & Locke, 2003). People's beliefs in their capabilities vary in different activities and situations (Bandura, 2012, 2006b). Bandura (1977, 1993, 2006a, 2012) claims that efficacy expectations affect both initiation and persistence of coping behaviour and determine the amount of effort people expend and how long they persist to face obstacles and sustain effort in stressful situations. According to Bandura (1977), people tend to get involved in activities they judge they can handle.

Stronger self-efficacy means more active and perseverant efforts. Through the efforts people will gain corrective experiences that reinforce their sense of efficacy and eliminate their defensive behaviour. (Bandura, 1977, 1988b, 2006.) In addition, the way environmental opportunities and impediments are viewed is also determined by efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 2005). However, Bandura (1977, 1993, 2012) reminds that efficacy expectations alone are not enough to produce desired performance if there is a lack of the required skills.

Self-efficacy expectations are based on four major sources of information: performance accomplishments or mastery experiences; vicarious experience or social modeling; verbal or social persuasion; and physiological or physical and emotional states (Bandura, 1977, 2012). Mastery experiences mean people's own

accomplishments. Building a resilient self-efficacy through mastery experiences requires overcoming different obstacles through persistent effort, as easy success can lead to getting discouraged easily by failures and setbacks. (Bandura, 2012.) Vicarious experience (social modeling) includes observing others similar to one-self perform threatening activities, and that observation can increase beliefs in the observer's own capabilities (Bandura, 1977, 2012). Social (verbal) persuasion means that people are persuaded to believe in themselves, which can make them more persistent when they face difficulties (Bandura, 2012). Bandura (1977) reminds that efficacy expectations arising from one's own accomplishments are stronger than those arising from modeling and verbal persuasion. Physical and emotional states as sources of self-efficacy can strengthen efficacy beliefs by building physical strength and stamina and reducing anxiety and depression (Bandura, 2012).

On the other hand, there has also been critique towards Bandura's model. Klassen, Tze, Betts, and Gordon (2011) argue that Bandura's hypothesis of four major self-efficacy sources has been handled uncritically, and that therefore there is a need for further research to build an understanding of how efficacy beliefs are formed.

### **2.3.2 Teacher self-efficacy**

Teacher self-efficacy means a teacher's belief in her or his own ability to organize and execute required actions to successfully perform a specific educational task (de Oliveira Fernandez, Holanda Ramos, e Silva, Furtado Nina, & Ramos Pontes, 2016; Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, & Woolfolk Hoy, 1998). Teacher self-efficacy defines how much effort and time the teacher is ready to invest, and how she or he copes with obstacles, challenges and failures (Almog & Shechtman, 2007; Klassen, & al., 2009; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). Teacher self-efficacy also includes teachers' beliefs in her or his abilities to positively influence students' learning (Guskey & Passaro, 1994; Bandura, 1997; Klassen, et al., 2009), as well as teacher's beliefs in the controllability and modifiability of the environment (Almog & Shechtman, 2007). Teacher self-efficacy has effect on teacher's

instructional practices, behaviour, commitment, persistence and enthusiasm (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001; Wolters & Daugherty, 2007). Woolfolk Hoy and Spero (2005) argue that teacher efficacy is formed early in preservice experience and the first years of teaching, and thereafter remains stable.

There are many benefits of strong teacher self-efficacy (Ross & Bruce, 2007; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). Teachers with strong self-efficacy set higher goals both for themselves and their students and try harder to achieve these goals. In addition, they persist through obstacles more than teachers with low self-efficacy. (Ross & Bruce, 2007; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001.) Teacher's persistence may increase student achievement, motivation and self-efficacy (Bandura, 1997; Ross & Bruce, 2007; Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2007; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001; Wolters & Daugherty, 2007). Teachers with high self-efficacy create mastery experiences for their students (Bandura, 2005) and attend better the needs of low ability learners (Ross & Bruce, 2007).

On the other hand, low level of teacher self-efficacy can be related to a pessimistic view of student learning and teachers with low self-efficacy may experience more difficulties with student misbehaviour as well as experience lower levels of job satisfaction and higher levels of job-related stress (Bandura, 1997; Caprara, Barbaranelli, Borgogni, & Steca, 2003; Caprara, Barbaranelli, Steca, & Malone, 2006; Lee, Dedrick, & Smith, 1991; Klassen et al., 2009). Teachers who believe that they will fail, avoid spending effort as failure after trying hard is a threat for self-esteem (Ross & Bruce, 2007; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001).

However, teacher self-efficacy is context-specific (Ross, & Bruce, 2007; Tschannen-Moran, & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001; Tschannen-Moran, & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007; Garberoglio, Gobble, & Cawthon, 2012). Therefore, teachers may feel very competent in a certain subject or working with certain kind of students and feel less competent in other subject or with other students (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001).

Regarding the four principle sources of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977), the importance of each source may be different in different times of career and in different cultures (See: Klassen et al., 2011). Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy (2007) argue that the mastery experiences are the most powerful ones among the four sources of teachers' self-efficacy. However, there are differences between novice teachers and experienced teachers as for example for novice teachers, when fewer mastery experiences are available, positive modelling and social encouragement from other people in teaching context can be especially essential in building self-efficacy (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). In Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy's (2007) study, contextual factors such as interpersonal support and teaching resources played a much more important role in novice teachers' self-efficacy beliefs than in experienced teachers' self-efficacy beliefs. When teachers have gained an abundance of mastery experience, the other three self-efficacy sources have less importance (Tschannen-Moran, & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2007).

Klassen et al. (2009) suggest that to build teachers' self-efficacy, teachers should be provided with opportunities for successful experience, positive modelling from successful peers and verbal encouragement. Leyser, Zeiger and Romi (2011) suggest that for student teachers, the student teaching experience together with constructive feedback, advice and support from the cooperative teachers, university supervisors and peers is the most important foundation for the development of self-efficacy. However, cognitive processing and reflective thinking are required in order for any experience to affect one's self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977). Tsakiridou and Polyzopoulou (2014) argue that teachers should be involved in decision making processes regarding the educational policy of the school to improve the teachers' efficiency.

Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2007) suggest that also the school climate might be related to teacher self-efficacy. In addition, Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2010) found out in their research that there was a strong connection between teacher self-efficacy and teachers' relations to parents. Positive relations showed stronger self-efficacy beliefs. Also the leadership of the school principal has been

related to teacher self-efficacy as in schools where the principal was able to inspire the teachers and also where there was little student disorder, were the schools where the teacher self-efficacy was greater. In addition, being able to participate in the decisions that affect teachers' work conditions is related to their self-efficacy beliefs. (Tschannen-Moran, & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007.)

de Oliveira Fernandez et al. (2016) present that self-efficacy is influenced for example by such factors as job satisfaction, emotional exhaustion, relationship with parents, use of violence, time pressure, academic performance, class management and collective efficacy. Other factors that might diminish or weaken teacher self-efficacy beliefs are for example excessive role demands, lack of recognition, professional isolation, inadequate salaries and low status (Web, & Ashton, 1987 in Tschannen-Moran, & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). Then on the other hand, Klassen et al. (2011) argue that reliable measures of the teacher self-efficacy belief sources have not yet been created and that Bandura's hypothesis of four major self-efficacy sources has been handled uncritically, therefore there is a need for further research to build an understanding on how efficacy beliefs are formed. Skaalvik and Skaalvik (2010) comment that is unfortunate that there are only few studies that explore relations between individual teacher self-efficacy and collective efficacy.

In conclusion, strong teacher self-efficacy has many benefits (Ross & Bruce, 2007; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001). The way the four different self-efficacy sources interact with teacher self-efficacy depend on the context (See: Klassen et al., 2011). In addition, as mentioned previously, research has found different variables that affect the teacher self-efficacy, such as relations with parents and school climate. Woolfolk Hoy and Spero (2005) argue that teacher efficacy is formed early in preservice experience and the first years of teaching, and thereafter remains stable. Thus, it is extremely important that pre-service teachers and novice teachers are supported in order for them to build strong self-efficacy.



### 2.3.3 Teacher self-efficacy and inclusive education

There are many recent studies on teacher self-efficacy for implementing inclusive practices. Many of these have been cross-country studies. Yada and Savolainen (2017) found Japanese teachers' self-efficacy for implementing inclusive practices relatively low, especially in relation to managing student behaviour. Then again, Savolainen et al. (2012) found in their study with South African and Finnish teachers, that the teachers from both countries had relatively high overall self-efficacy in inclusive practices. However, their self-efficacy profiles differed, as the South African teachers saw managing behaviour as their strongest aspect in self-efficacy, while the Finnish teachers found that to be their weakest ability (Savolainen et al., 2012). The Finnish teachers were the most confident in inclusive instructions. The South African teachers were the least confident in collaboration. Shaukat, Sharma and Furlonger (2013) found in their study on Pakistani and Australian teachers' attitudes and self-efficacy towards inclusive education that the Pakistani teachers had high sense of efficacy in collaboration with children with disabilities. The Pakistani pre-service teachers also had higher self-efficacy to teach students with disabilities than did the Australian pre-service teachers (Shaukat et al, 2013). Shaukat et al. (2013) propose several possible reasons such as cultural and context differences and the Pakistani teachers' lack of real experience to explain the different results between Pakistani and Australian teachers.

There are many findings on the predictors of self-efficacy in inclusive teaching. Malinen et al. (2013) studied teachers' self-efficacy for inclusive teaching in China, Finland and South-Africa. In all the three countries, the strongest predictor of self-efficacy was experience in teaching students with disabilities (Malinen et al., 2013). Also in Peebles' and Mendaglio's (2014) study, teachers with previous experience of students with special educational needs had higher self-efficacy than those without. Also in Shaukat et al.'s (2013) study, experience of teaching students with disabilities, together with gender and level of training predicted the Pakistani teachers' sense of efficacy towards inclusion. However, the same variables did not have significant relations with Australian teachers' self-

efficacy beliefs (Shaukat et al., 2013). Furthermore, in Chao, Forling and Ho's (2016) study on Hong Kong teachers, previous teaching experience of teaching students with special educational needs was negatively connected with teachers' self-efficacy for inclusive practices. Instead, the best predictors of the participants' self-efficacy were confidence in teaching students with special educational needs and knowledge of legislation and policies of inclusive practices (Chao et al., 2016).

There are different suggestions for how to improve teachers' self-efficacy for inclusive practices. In Chao et al.'s (2016) investigation, a one-week inclusive education course increased the participants' self-efficacy in collaboration, knowledge of legislation and policies and confidence in teaching students with special educational needs. Also in Peebles and Mendaglio's (2014) study, the pre-service teachers' self-efficacy for teaching in inclusive classrooms was increased after an inclusion course and field experience. In the field experience, especially direct, individual instruction with students with special educational needs resulted in growth in the participants' self-efficacy (Peebles & Mendaglio, 2014). Therefore, Peebles and Mendaglio (2014) argue that the type and amount of experience with students with special educational needs has an important role on teachers' self-efficacy and that is why pre-service teachers should be provided with small-group or one by one experience with students with special educational needs. (Peebles & Mendaglio, 2014.)

Concluding, in recent studies on inclusive education, teacher self-efficacy for implementing inclusive practices has been found either high (e.g. Savolainen et al., 2012; Shaukat et al., 2013) or low (e.g. Yada & Savolainen, 2017). Furthermore, teacher self-efficacy for inclusive practices has been found to be affected by variables such as experience (Chao et al., 2016; Malinen et al., 2013; Peebles & Mendaglio, 2014; Shaukat et al., 2013) or confidence (Chao et al., 2016) in teaching students with special educational needs and knowledge of legislation and policies of inclusive practices (Chao et al., 2016).

## 2.4 Chile

### 2.4.1 Educational system

Chile is a South American country of 17.8 million inhabitants (OECD, 2014), of which approximately 20.6 per cent belong to the young population under the age of 15. According to the law of education (Ministry of Education, 2009), education is a right of every person. The formal education is divided into four levels: pre-school, primary, secondary and higher education, and to educational methods designed to attend specific populations. There are 12 years of compulsory education: 6 years of primary education and 4 years of secondary education. Pre-school is optional; however, the state must ensure free access and public financing for the first and second grades. (Ministry of Education, 2009; García-Cedillo, Romero-Contreras, & Ramos-Abadie, 2015.)

The education system is mixed, having operators both from state and private origins, as there is a liberty to open, organize and keep educational institutions. Parents have the freedom to choose their child's school. (Ministry of Education, 2009.) There are three types of school systems: public, subsidized and private (Ministry of Education, 2009; García-Cedillo et al., 2015.). The public schools are funded by the state and are free of charge for their students. Subsidized schools receive state funds but also charge school payments from their students. (Ministry of Education, 2009; García-Cedillo et al., 2015.) Private schools do not receive funding from the state, instead they are financed by charging payments from their students. These payments can be several hundred of euros (more than 100.000 Chilean pesos) per month. (García-Cedillo et al., 2015; Ministry of Education, 2009, 2013.)

In 2013, there were in total 12.114 schools of elementary and secondary education, 5425 (44.8 %) of them were public schools, 6017 (49.7 %) of them were subsidized schools and 602 (5 %) of them were private schools (Ministry of Education, 2013). The subsidized system has grown and now serves approximately 50 percent of the students while the public system has downsized. The private system serves 8 percent of the students. In total, the Chilean educational system

serves around 3.537.100 preschool, elementary and secondary school students. (García-Cedillo et al., 2015; Ministry of Education, 2013.)

Concerning learning achievements, the results of the 2015 PISA test place Chile in the third last place of the OECD countries in the areas of reading, mathematics and science, with a mean score of 447, scoring below the OECD average score of 493 (OECD, 2016). Furthermore, a high proportion of Chilean students (around 20%) belongs to the group that presents the most disadvantages internationally, revealing the high inequality of Chilean society (Abadie, 2013).

The Chilean educational system is characterised by its standardised test, System of Measurement of the Quality of Teaching (SIMCE). SIMCE is applied at the national level to all students who attend classes *básico 4* or *básico 8* of elementary education or *2ndo medio* of secondary education. The test is applied once a year. The scores obtained in the SIMCE allow to know the students' performance in different sectors of learning, such as reading, mathematics, social and natural sciences. (Ministry of Education, 2013). However, standardized tests can be seen as barriers for inclusive education since schools may refuse to take students with special educational needs as these students might be seen as a threat to decrease the schools' reputation as not succeeding in SIMCE (López et al., 2014). Petour (2015) concludes that SIMCE fails in its mission to measure the quality of education as it lacks an adjustment to its purposes of promoting equity in the educational system, creates negative consequences especially for the students with special educational needs in socioeconomically vulnerable contexts, and is inadequate to meet the diversity of students.

#### **2.4.2 Disabilities**

The National Disability Service (*El Servicio Nacional de la Discapacidad*) was created by mandate of law No. 20.422 of 2010 that establishes standards on equal opportunities and social inclusion of persons with disabilities. It is a public service which through government actions and executing policies and programs, aims to promote the rights of people with disabilities to have equal opportunities.

The service defines disability as a symbolic construction that includes health conditions and deficits, limitations in activities and restrictions in participation. (Ministry of Social Development, 2015.) It bases the concept of disability on World Health Organization's (WHO) International Classification of Functioning, Disability and Health of 2001, considering both contextual factors of the environment and personal factors. A person with a disability is defined as a person who in relation to her or his physical, mental, intellectual, sensory or other health conditions in interaction with different contextual, attitude and environmental barriers presents restrictions on his or her full and active participation in the society. (Ministry of Social Development, 2015.)

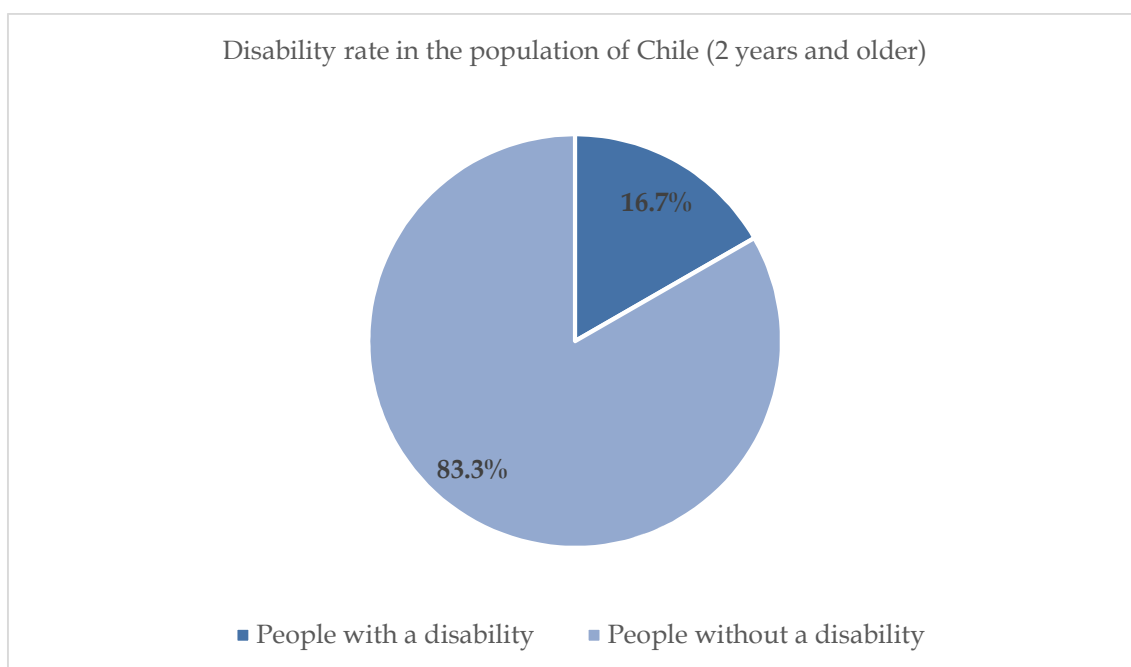


FIGURE 1. The amount of people with a disability in the population of Chile (Ministry of Social Development, 2015)

The first national study of disabilities was conducted in 2004, and according to its results, 12.9 percent of people (approximately 2.1 million persons) of the population had a disability (Estay et al., 2015). The second study (Ministry of Social Development, 2015) stated that approximately 16.7 percent (2.8 million persons) of the population (2 years or older) have a disability (figure 1). Of the people aged 2 to 17 years, the disability rate is 5.8 percent (230.000 persons) (Ministry of Social Development, 2015). For primary school aged children without a disability, the

school attendance rate is 95.8 percent, and for children with a disability 88.7 percent. There is a significant difference between the secondary school aged children, as only 49.9 percent of the youngsters (from 14 to 17 years old) with a disability attend school. For youngsters without a disability, the rate is 82.0 percent. (Ministry of Social Development, 2015.)

### **2.4.3 Special education**

The beginning of special education in Chile can be seen to have occurred in 1852, when Chile formed the first special school in Latin America, a school for deaf and dumb children. Later, in 1928, the first school for children with mental disability was formed. (Godoy, Meza, & Salazar, 2004).

Nowadays, as mentioned previously, according to Chile's general law of education, education is a right of every person. The educational system should ensure that all students have the same opportunities to have a quality education, especially those who need special assistance. (Ministry of Education, 2009.) Special education is a mean of the educational system that operates in a transverse way in different levels, both in schools of regular education and special education, providing a set of services, human resources, technicians, specialized knowledge and aid to attend temporary or permanent special educational needs that some students may present because of a disability or a learning difficulty (Ministry of Education, 2009).

In Chile, special educational needs are divided into two groups: special educational needs of temporary character and special educational needs of permanent character (Ministry of Education, 2010). Special educational needs of temporary character are non-permanent needs that students require at some point of their education because of a disorder or disability. Temporary needs mean that students need extraordinary help and support to access or progress in the curriculum for a certain period of schooling. Special educational needs of permanent character are defined as those barriers to learning and participation that certain students experience throughout their schooling as a consequence of a disability

and which require the educational system to provide support and extraordinary resources to ensure learning and education. (Ministry of Education, 2010.)

Special education can operate through means of special education and integration projects. Special education includes the following options: special education schools to serve students with sensory, intellectual, motor, communication and language impairments; regular schools with school integration programs for students with special educational needs or disabilities (PIE) and special groups for students with learning disabilities; and in-hospital schools and classrooms for students undergoing medical treatment (Ministry of Education, 2005).

The PIE, adopted in the 1990s, aims to improve the quality of education, favouring the presence, participation and achievement of the learning of all the students, especially of those with special educational needs (SEN), whether permanent or transitional (Ministry of Education, 2005; Tamayo et al., 2017). PIE consists of a differentiated educational service within a school for students with different special educational needs. There are four types of PIE (Ministry of Education, 1998; López et al., 2014.):

1. The student participates in all activities of the regular class and gets special teaching in a resource class by a special education teacher.
2. The student participates in all activities of the regular class but in those areas or subjects in which the student needs the most significant adaptations he or she gets specialized help in a resource class.
3. The student studies some areas with the regular class but also studies areas or subjects in a resource class with a curriculum adapted to his or her special educational needs.
4. The student has an adapted curriculum and studies all the subjects in a resource class. He or she shares with the regular class students only the recreations, school ceremonies, events and extracurricular activities.

The PIE is financed by special grants that the government pays for every student with PIE. The special grant is three times the amount that is paid for a regular student. To enrol a student in PIE, the student should have a clinical diagnosis given by a professional who is certified by the Ministry of Education. (Ministry of Education, 1998; López et al., 2014.) In 2016, around 300.00 students

with special educational needs received a special education grant (Ministry of Social Development, 2015). The amount of the students with special educational needs has increased. According to Abadie (2013), in 2009 there were 68.100 enrolments of students in school integration programs and in 2013 the number was already 210.300 children (Ministry of Education, 2013). These were children with special educational needs of temporary character. However, schools can choose to have or not to have a PIE, it is not obligatory for them. At the same time, with the growth of the number of students with special educational needs attending school, according to the statistics (Ministry of Education, 2013), there are hardly any special educational needs students in the country's private schools.

#### **2.4.4 Inclusive education**

In Chile, the equal rights of people with disabilities are legislated in laws (Abadie, 2013). Equity has been on the agenda of educational changes and reforms since the end of the civil-military dictatorship of Augusto Pinochet (1973-1990) (Pastrana et al., 2015; López Vélez, 2008). The Chilean government has ratified international agreements and declarations, such as UNESCO's Education for all (López Vélez, 2008). In addition, in 2008 Chile ratified the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, which states that people with disabilities should study in inclusive schools (Abadie, 2013).

The Law No. 20.422 (which replaced the law No. 19.284 from 1994) became valid in 2010 and ensures equal opportunities for people with disabilities, with the objective of full inclusion and the elimination of all forms of discrimination based on disability. For example, the schools which receive subsidies from the state must ensure an access to people with disabilities. (Ministry of Planning, 2010.) Decree No. 170, that became effective in 2009, is a regulation of Law No. 20.201 and provides rules for determining students with special educational needs that are beneficiaries of the special education grant (Ministry of Education, 2010). The law No. 83 of the year 2015 established curriculum and evaluation criteria for schools to use in order to develop their preschool and elementary school programs, and also mandated that students with disabilities should be



able to access, participate and progress in similar conditions than their peers (Ministry of Education, 2015).

As a part of Chile's education system reform, a school inclusion law was presented in 2015 and renewed in 2016. The goal of the new law is an objective, just and transparent education system. (Ministry of Education, 2015.) The principal change is that the schools which receive state funds will no longer be able to charge payments from their students. Therefore, their students will have elementary and secondary schooling free of cost. (Ministry of Education, 2015.) Students' parents and guardians may though continue voluntary contributions toward schools' extracurricular activities. However, the funds received from the state can be used to educational purposes only. (Ministry of Education, 2015.) Furthermore, the parents will have the right to select the most convenient school for their children though they must adhere to the school's educational mission statement and plan. (Ministry of Education, 2015.) Thus, the schools will no longer be able to choose their students and the students will not have to provide their economic, social or academic information, and there will be no selection test. (Ministry of Education, 2015.) Schools that have educational mission statements or plans related to artistic expression, sports and rigorous academics, may implement a select up to 30 percent of their students by special admission process. (Ministry of Education, 2015.) The renovation will be implemented gradually: in 2017 in one region, in 2018 in four regions and in 2019 in the whole country. However, the subsidized schools may decide to become private schools and then they do not have to follow the inclusion law. The inclusion law affects only the schools which receive state funding. (Ministry of Education, 2015.)

However, Estay et al. (2015) state that even though in Chile the rights of people with disabilities are protected by laws, in practice these rights are not fully realized. Also, Pastrana et al. (2015) bring out a discussion about inequality in Chilean educational system, considering different variables such as socioeconomic status, gender, sexual identity and ethnicity of students. López Vélez (2016) argues that in Latin America, there is still a tendency to perceive the edu-

cation of students with disabilities as remedial or rehabilitative and that this perspective remains rooted in many attitudes and practices of professionals and teachers. Also, Muñoz, López, and Assaél (2015) claim that the individual perspective to respond to diversity is the most entrenched among many teachers, transforming into a barrier to inclusive education. López et al. (2014) state that teachers believe that students' learning possibilities depend on the level of their disability and support of family.

These current beliefs, practices and policies create barriers to inclusion since they place the possibilities of educational change outside the regular classroom which makes it more difficult to construct an educational system with equity (López et al., 2014). In addition, Tamayo et al. (2017) argue that Chilean public policies have been unable to ensure equal education for children with disabilities who live in rural areas, as rural education systems have more barriers to inclusion than urban ones. Furthermore, López et al. (2014) argue that Chilean education policy justifies inclusion with human rights but prescribes an integration model with a strong psycho-medical emphasis that operates through individual diagnosis. Also, López Vélez (2016) states that medical rehabilitation paradigm is still being used, and argues that improvements still need to be done in Chilean education system as it continues to be excluding. Abadie (2013) finds that Chile's educational system that is based on a market model encourages competition between schools, measured by the learning outcomes obtained by students. Therefore, having integration projects or inclusive approaches is not considered as a factor of success (Abadie, 2013). Estay et al. (2015) criticise that Chile has been imitating educational practices of some wealthier countries without considering the crucial differences between Chile and these countries, such as their economical systems.

Abadie (2013) sees that Chilean legislation continues to promote the existence of special schools as for example the Law No. 20.422 (Ministry of Planning, 2010) defines special education as a modality of the educational system that develops its action both in regular and special schools. The Law states that when integration into regular education classes is not possible, given the nature and

type of the student's disability, the teaching should be given in special classes within the same educational establishment or in special schools (López et al., 2014; Ministry of Planning, 2010). Estay et al. (2015) remind that special schools are still needed but only for those who really need them, and the schools should contribute to the full integration and inclusion of children and young people in Chilean society and have the necessary resources and infrastructure.

There are also many opinions on the school integration projects (PIE). López et al. (2014) argue that through the form of PIE, integration is presented as an optional and complementary service to regular education and that the integration policy is carried out from a medical model with clinical emphasis, in which the learning possibilities for students with SEN are dependent on their disability, family support and the culture of origin (López et al., 2014). In addition, Lopez et al. (2014) criticize that students who participate in the projects are labelled and segregated. On the other hand, Tamayo et al. (2017) argue that the school integration program, together with the law No. 20.422 and Chilean ratification of the CRPD in 2008, has helped Chilean schools to advance toward inclusion. According to Tamayo et al. (2017), PIE is the most significant inclusion policy of students with disabilities that the Chilean government has ratified till now. However, Tamayo et al. (2017) remind that there is a significant gap in PIE between rural and urban schools when it comes to mobility accommodations, resource rooms, special educational materials, sign language interpretation and strategies to facilitate inclusion.

In conclusion, despite the progress, there is still much to be done in order for Chile to have education system that considers inclusive education as for all (not as a synonym of educating student with special educational needs) and provides equal opportunities for all children. Vásquez-Orjuela (2015) remind that instead of just subscribing to international declarations, norms and conventions and approving different laws that enact the equality of rights, access and equity of the whole population, Chile needs to execute those laws.

### 3 RESEARCH PROBLEMS AND OBJECTIVES

Savolainen et al. (2012), Malinen et al. (2012), Malinen et al. (2013) and Yada and Savolainen (2017) have studied teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education and self-efficacy for implementing inclusive practices in several countries, including Finland, South Africa, China and Japan. The studies are part of a larger comparative research project that aims "to produce a knowledge base that sheds light on how the development of inclusive education looks from a teacher's perspective in different countries" (Savolainen et al., 2012). However, there has been a need to conduct similar research in Latin American countries, such as Chile. Therefore, to bring new insight to the international discussion and to develop a deeper understanding of similarities and variations of inclusive education (Savolainen et al., 2013), the objective of this Master's thesis is to examine inclusion from Chilean teachers' perspective. The present study is practically a replication of the investigation done by Savolainen et al. in 2012. The aim is to investigate inclusion from Chilean teachers' perspective, focusing on two main concepts: (1) attitudes towards inclusive education and (2) self-efficacy for implementing inclusive practices. The research questions are the following:

1. What is the participants' general attitude towards inclusive education?
2. What is the participants' overall self-efficacy for inclusive practices?
3. How are participants' background factors related to their attitudes towards inclusive education?
4. What is the relationship between attitudes towards inclusive education and teacher self-efficacy for inclusive practices?
5. How does overall self-efficacy for inclusive practices along with respondents' background factors predict their attitudes towards inclusive education?
6. What do teachers think of including students with different kind of special educational needs into regular education full time or most of the time?

## 4 IMPLEMENTATION OF THE STUDY

### 4.1 Participants of the research

The participants of the present research were Chilean in-service teachers. Due to the fact of using an e-questionnaire, it was possible for teachers from all over the country to participate in the research. Though the amount of the targeted sample was 200 respondents, finally, 108 teachers took part in the research by answering the questionnaire. It was not possible to count the response rate as the questionnaire was on-line and free to anyone with an appropriate link to respond.

Table 1. The most important demographic information of the sample.

Respondents' Demographic Information	
Gender (% female)	74.10
Years of Teaching Experience (mean +/- sd)	10.35 +/- 10.77
Teaching Regular Class (%)	72.20
Teaching Special Class (%)	23.10
Level of Professional Degree (%)	
Master's Degree	17.60
Bachelor or Equivalent ( <i>licenciatura</i> )	53.70
Professional Institute ( <i>profesional</i> )	22.20
Other	6.50

The participants of this study were volunteers and they were informed about the purpose of the study, and explained that the data would be treated confidentially

and used only for research purposes. They were also given the contact information of the researcher and advised to contact the researcher in case of any doubt or question. All the participants reported to have students with special educational needs in their classes. The most important demographic information of the sample is presented in the table 1.

## **4.2 Research Methods**

### **4.2.1 Data collection**

Due to both financial and time limitations, I was not able to travel to Chile to conduct the data collection face to face with Chilean teachers. For this reason, the most workable solution was to collect the data electronically. The data (n=108) was collected using an electric questionnaire (powered by Google Sheets) and e-mail. The data was collected with the help of my Chilean contacts and social media (Facebook), and most of the answers came by the e-questionnaire and a few by e-mail. The online link to the questionnaire was shared in Chilean Teacher groups on Facebook which made it possible for any participant of the groups to respond.

### **4.2.2 Translation process**

The original questionnaire used in the present research was in English. In addition, there was a Finnish version. However, the questionnaire had to be translated into Spanish and adapted to the Chilean context. The first translation was done by the author who is fluent both in English and Spanish together with a native Chilean 4th year university student from the University of Santiago (*Universidad de Santiago*), who studied Spanish major and during the translation process was an exchange student in the University of Jyväskylä. The student's native language is Spanish and he also has a good command in English. The translation process was done face-to-face and the themes and different alternatives were carefully discussed.

The translation began using two versions of the questionnaire: the English and the Finnish ones (Savolainen et al., 2012). However, in order to make sure that the translation would be as similar as possible to the original, the English version of the questionnaire was treated as the original source material and the Finnish version was used to give some extra help in unclear situations. The parts considering the ratings for the best educational environments for students with different kinds of special educational needs and the teachers' current workload were translated from the Finnish version as these parts were not included in the original English version.

After the first translation with the native Chilean pedagogy student, the questionnaire together with its original English version was sent to a Spanish translator. After that, the modifications suggested were discussed together with the Chilean student and decisions were made. Then the updated version was sent again to the Spanish translator who gave his approval. The next step in the translation process was that the questionnaire was sent to a group of Chilean 5th year special education university students from the Southern University of Chile (*Universidad Austral de Chile*) in order for them to comment the contents and language, especially the key concepts and terminology of the questionnaire. After some modifications, the questionnaire was sent to the principal of the School of Special Education of the Southern University of Chile to get the approval of the quality and validity of the questionnaire in the context of Chile. Lastly, as a final modification the response option "6 = *Tiempo completo en una escuela especial con un internado*" ("Full time in a special boarding school") was removed from the question 26 (please see Appendix 1) in order to shorten the question and also because in Chile it was not a valid option as this kind of teaching has not been commonly used.

### **4.2.3 Measures**

**The questionnaire** (see: appendix 1) that was used to gather the data contained the following:

**The attitudes towards disabilities and inclusive education** were assessed using the Sentiments, Attitudes and Concerns about Inclusive Education (from now on: SACIE) scale (Loreman, Earle, Sharma, & Forlin, 2007; Forlin, Earle, Loreman, & Sharma, 2011; Savolainen et al., 2012). In this research the scale contained 13 items on a four-point Likert scale (“strongly disagree”, “disagree”, “agree” and “strongly agree”). The scale was shortened from the 15-item version used in Savolainen et al.’s (2012) study into 13 items as the 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 eliminated because in the original study these two items did not fit well in the factor structure of the sentiments scale. The items referred to the respondent’s feelings toward having a disability him or herself, not towards interacting with a person with a disability (see: Savolainen et al., 2012). Each item was scored from 1 to 4, the highest score referring to the most positive attitude towards inclusive education (Malinen & Savolainen, 2008). Some items were recoded so that the higher the punctuation, the more positive the attitudes. In this research, the SACIE scale’s sum score was used to measure general attitude towards disabilities and inclusive education (Forlin et al., 2010). The scale’s three subscales: Sentiments, Attitudes and Concerns were used to measure attitudes towards inclusive education from different perspectives. The Sentiments subscale included three items that measured attitudes towards interacting with persons with disabilities (e.g. “I tend to make contact with people with disabilities briefly and I finish them as quickly as possible.”), the Attitudes subscale consisted of five items that were related to attitudes towards inclusion or students with special educational needs in regular classes (e.g. “Students who need an individualized academic program should be in mainstream classes.”) and the Concerns subscale consisted of five items that were related to the respondents’ personal concerns of including students with special educational needs in their own classes (e.g. “I am concerned that my workload will increase if I have students with special educational needs in my class.”). (Savolainen et al., 2012.) The reliability of the scales was analysed by means of Cronbach’s alpha.



Both the SACIE scale ( $\alpha=.72$ ) and its three subscales (Sentiments  $\alpha=.70$ ; Attitudes  $\alpha=.79$ ; Concerns  $\alpha=.64$ ) had adequate reliabilities.

**Teacher self-efficacy** was measured using the Teacher Self-Efficacy for Inclusive Practices (from now on: TEIP) scale (Forlin, et al., 2010; Malinen et al., 2012; Sharma et al., 2012). The scale consisted of 20 items that were rated on a 6-point Likert-type scale (“strongly disagree”, “disagree”, “disagree somewhat”, “agree somewhat”, “agree”, “strongly agree”), higher TEIP-scale scores showing greater teacher self-efficacy (Savolainen et al., 2012; Malinen et al., 2013). Like SACIE scale, the TEIP scale also contained three subscales: Efficacy to use Inclusive Instructions (seven items, e.g. “I am able to provide an alternate explanation or example when students are confused.”), Efficacy in Collaboration (six items, e.g. “I can collaborate with other professionals (e.g. speech therapist) in designing educational plans for students with disabilities.”) and Efficacy in Managing Behaviour (seven items, e.g. “I can control disruptive behaviour in the classroom.”). The TEIP scale ( $\alpha=.96$ ) and its subscales (Inclusive Instructions  $\alpha=.90$ ; Collaboration  $\alpha=.91$ ; Managing Behavior  $\alpha=.94$ ) had excellent reliabilities.

**Ratings for the best educational environments**, the questionnaire contained in addition to SACIE and TEIP scales ratings for the best educational environments for students with different kind of special educational needs. The participants were asked to choose the best educational environment for students with different kinds of special educational needs out of the five following options: 1 = “full time in a regular class in a regular school”, 2 = “most of the time (more than 75 %) in a regular class in a regular school”, 3 = “most of the time (more than 75 %) in a special class in a regular school”, 4 = “full time in a special class in a regular school”, 5 = “full time in a special school”. The options were scored so that the most inclusive option had the smallest score (1) and the less inclusive option the highest score (5): the closer the mean score was to 1, the more inclusive the score was.

**Background questions** (e.g. teaching experience in years, the highest level of education completed, amount of training received for teaching students with

special educational needs and the knowledge of different concepts regarding inclusive education), questions of the school context and learner diversity (e.g. the amount of students in the school and in the classroom, school resources, availability of support services in the classroom, special educational needs of the students in the classroom) and open questions regarding the terms “inclusive education”, “disability” and “students with special educational needs were also included in the questionnaire. The questionnaire also had two scales that measured job satisfaction and exhaustion. However, these measures were not used in the present thesis (as the principal focus of the thesis is on attitudes and self-efficacy towards inclusive education).

### **4.3 Data Analysis**

The data was analysed using the SPSS statistics 22. Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations, and 95 % confidence intervals) were calculated. Independent samples t-tests were used to investigate the connections between the general attitude towards inclusion and four other variables: gender, significant experience with a person with a disability, type of class taught, and school’s integration program. To examine connections between the overall attitudes and the type of class taught and the overall attitudes and the level of professional degree, a series of one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used. Because some variables were skewed, the results of independent variables t-tests and one-way analyses of variance were confirmed with non-parametric tests. Pearson and Spearman correlations were used to investigate the overall attitudes towards inclusive education and the sentiments, the attitudes and the concerns towards inclusive education in relation to the following factors: overall teacher self-efficacy, self-efficacy in implementing inclusive practices, self-efficacy in managing behaviour and self-efficacy in collaboration, age, teaching experience, familiarity of the concepts of inclusive education and students with special needs, amount of training received regarding teaching students with special educational needs in regular classes, knowledge of local legislation and policy regarding students with special

educational needs, confidence of teaching students with special educational needs and quality of experience of teaching students with special educational needs. Because some of the variables were skewed, the results based on Pearson correlations were confirmed by computing also Spearman correlations. Hierarchical linear regression analysis was used to explore whether overall self-efficacy, familiarity of the concept of students with special educational needs and quality of experience of teaching students with special educational needs predicted the respondents' general attitude towards inclusive education. The independent variables were entered into the model one by one.

#### **4.4 Validity**

As both the SACIE and TEIP scales have been proven to be structurally valid and reliable in previous studies (See: Engelbrecht et al., 2013; Savolainen et al., 2012), in this study explorative factor analyses were not conducted. The local cultural context has been taken into account as the questionnaire was adapted to the local context during the translation process.

## 5 RESULTS

In this section, the research problems will be investigated one by one. The results will be discussed more profoundly in the discussion chapter.

### 5.1 General attitude towards inclusive education and overall self-efficacy for inclusive practices

The participants' general attitude towards disabilities and inclusion was slightly positive (above the neutral midpoint 2.5 of the scale, table 2).

Table 2. Means, standard deviations and 95 % confidence intervals (CI) of means of SACIE and TEIP scales (n=108).

	<b>M</b>	<b>SD</b>	<b>95 % CI</b>
<b>SACIE scale</b>	2.84	0.41	2.76 ; 2.92
<b>Sentiments</b>	3.53	0.55	3.43 ; 3.64
<b>Attitudes</b>	3.12	0.62	3.00 ; 3.24
<b>Concerns</b>	2.14	0.61	2.02 ; 2.25
<b>TEIP scale</b>	4.85	0.93	4.67 ; 5.03
<b>Inclusive Instructions</b>	4.77	0.97	4.58 ; 4.95
<b>Collaboration</b>	4.94	1.03	4.74 ; 5.14
<b>Managing Behaviour</b>	4.86	0.99	4.67 ; 5.04

The participants felt the most positive about interacting with persons with disabilities (Sentiments subscale). Their attitudes towards including children with special educational needs in regular classes (Attitudes subscale) were also positive but when it came to integrating students with special educational needs in

their own classes (Concerns subscale) the participants felt slightly negative (the mean score was below the neutral midpoint). The non-overlapping confidence intervals suggest that there is a statistically significant difference between all the three different sub-scales of attitudes.

The participants' overall self-efficacy for inclusive practices was relatively high (table 2). Their self-efficacy beliefs were the highest in collaboration, and the lowest in the use of inclusive instructions, but these differences were not statistically significant as suggested by the overlapping confidence intervals.

## **5.2 Relations between participants' background factors and attitudes towards inclusive education**

A series of independent samples t-tests was calculated to compare the overall attitudes towards inclusive education between female and male teachers, between regular class teachers and special class teachers, between teachers who had a significant previous interaction with a person with a disability and those who did not have such an experience, and between teachers whose school had an integration program for integrating students with special education needs and whose school did not have the program. In addition, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was carried out to compare the overall attitudes between teachers with different levels of professional degree.

### **5.2.1 Significant previous interaction with a person with a disability**

There was no difference ( $t(83)=0.77, p=.445, d=0.20$ ) in overall attitudes toward inclusive education between participants who had a significant previous interaction with a person with a disability ( $N=68, M=2.89, SD=0.41$ ) and those who did not have such an interaction ( $N=17, M=2.81, SD=0.38$ ).

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<sup>1</sup> All the results shown in this chapter have been analyzed also with non-parametric tests. However, there were no significant differences in the results, so in this chapter the parametric test results are reported.

### 5.2.2 School integration program

There were no differences ( $t(106)=0.50$ ,  $p=.615$ ,  $d=0.12$ ) between general attitude of teachers from schools that had integration program for integrating students with special educational needs ( $N=81$ ,  $M=2.85$ ,  $SD=0.41$ ) and from those schools that did not have the program ( $M=2.80$ ,  $SD=0.43$ ).

### 5.2.3 Gender

There were no differences ( $t(83)=-1.37$ ,  $p=.175$ ;  $d=-0.30$ ) between overall attitudes towards inclusive education of female teachers ( $M=2.87$ ,  $SD=0.41$ ) and male teachers ( $M=2.75$ ,  $SD=0.40$ ).

### 5.2.4 Type of class taught

There was a significant difference ( $t(101)=-2.10$ ,  $p=.039$ ,  $d=0.501$ ) in the overall attitudes between teachers who taught regular classes ( $N=78$ ,  $M=2.79$ ,  $SD=0.40$ ) and teachers who taught special classes ( $N=25$ ,  $M=2.98$ ,  $SD=0.38$ ), the special class teachers showing significantly more positive attitudes towards inclusive education.

### 5.2.5 Level of professional degree

A one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to compare overall attitudes towards inclusive education between teachers with different levels of professional degree. There were no differences ( $F(2,98)=0.53$ ,  $p=0.591$ ,  $\eta^2p=.011$ ) between attitudes of teachers with a master's degree ( $N=19$ ,  $M=2.93$ ,  $SD=0.43$ ), teachers with a Bachelor's degree or equivalent (*licenciatura*) ( $N=58$ ,  $M=2.83$ ,  $SD=0.43$ ) or the teachers with a degree from a professional institute ( $N=24$ ,  $M=2.81$ ,  $SD=0.35$ ).

### **5.3 Relations between participants' attitudes and self-efficacy and between participants' attitudes and background factors**

The participants' overall self-efficacy beliefs correlated positively with both the overall attitudes and its three subscales: the higher the overall self-efficacy, the more positive were the attitudes (table 3). The overall self-efficacy and its three subscales had the strongest correlations with the attitudes subscale. Of the three subscales of self-efficacy, self-efficacy in collaboration had the strongest correlation with the overall attitudes towards inclusive education, and with the sentiments and attitudes subscales.

Familiarity of the concepts of inclusive education (IE) and students of special educational needs (SEN) correlated significantly with the overall attitudes, and the sentiments and attitudes subscales: teachers who were more familiar with the concepts were also more positive towards inclusive education, interacting with persons with disabilities and including students with special educational needs in regular classes. Amount of training received regarding teaching students with special educational needs in regular classes had significant correlations with all the SACIE scales: the more the teachers had received training the more positive their attitudes towards inclusive education were.

Knowledge of local legislation and policy regarding students with special educational needs had its strongest connection with the attitudes subscale, though it correlated significantly with all the SACIE scales: more knowledge of local legislation and policy showed better attitudes.

Also, both the confidence of teaching students with SEN and the quality of experience of teaching students SEN had significant correlations with all SACIE scales, especially with the overall attitudes, showing that the more confident the teachers felt or the more positive was the experience of teaching students with special educational needs, the more positive were their attitudes towards inclusive education. The highest correlation with the overall attitudes was with the confidence of teaching students with SEN.

Table 3. Pearson correlations between SACIE and TEIP scales, and between SACIE scales and other study variables.

	SACIE	Sentiments	Attitudes	Concerns
TEIP	.393***	.319**a	.528***	.211*a
Inclusive Instructions	.399***	.282**a	.502***	.211*a
Collaboration	.424***	.385***a	.515***	.204*a
Managing Behaviour	.277**	.194*a	.454***	-.016
Age	-.048	-.125	.046	-.062
Teaching Experience	-.004	-.081	.078	-.042
Familiarity of the Concept of IE	.285**	.346***a	.267**	.079
Familiarity of the Concept of Students with SEN	.411***	.414***	.355***	.129
Amount of Training Received Regarding Teaching Students with SEN in Regular Classes	.402***	.408***a	.224*	.368***a
Knowledge of Local Legislation and Policy Regarding Students with SEN	.392***	.244*a	.421***	.196*
Confidence of Teaching Students with SEN	.517***	.463***a	.368***	.354***
Quality of Experience (from very negative to very positive) of Teaching Students with SEN	.482***	.343***a	.360***	.354***

\*\*\*p < 0.001 \*\*p < 0.01 \*p ≤ 0.05 a = Spearman's correlation was used due to a significant difference in the result.



## 5.4 Teacher self-efficacy for inclusive practices along with other variables as predictors of attitudes towards inclusive education

As presented in table 4, overall self-efficacy alone was statistically significantly linked to the overall attitudes. When the second variable, “familiarity of the concept of students with special educational needs” was added, the significance of the overall self-efficacy decreased and the familiarity of the concept was a slightly stronger predictor.

Table 4. Regression models predicting overall attitudes toward inclusive education.

Model	Beta	R <sup>2</sup>	ΔR <sup>2</sup>	F-value	df1 , df2
1 TEIP	.393***	.154	.154***	19.36***	1, 106
2 TEIP	.250*	.216	.061**	14.43***	2, 105
Familiarity of the Concept of Students with SEN	.286**				
3 TEIP	.102	.310	.095***	15.59***	3, 104
Familiarity of the Concept of Students with SEN	.243*				
Quality of the Experience of Teaching Students with SEN	.353***				

\*\*\*p< .001 \*\*p< .01 \*p≤ .05

In the last step, “quality of the experience of teaching students with special educational needs” was added and it ended up being the strongest predictor of overall attitudes towards disabilities and inclusive education, as the value of the standardized regression coefficients of the both other independent variables decreased. Consequently, the overall self-efficacy was not anymore statistically significantly associated with overall attitudes towards inclusive education. The variables were tested for multicollinearity, the result being negative.

## 5.5 Ratings for the best educational environments for students with different kind of special educational needs

The most inclusive environment was recommended for students with mild behaviour disorder and for students with mild speech impairment, when again the least inclusive environment was recommended for students with severe intellectual disability (figure 2). Figure 2 shows the percentages of the teachers who rated that students with the different special educational needs could study full time or most of time (at least 75 %) in regular classroom (for more detailed information, see appendix 2). In general, the more severe the disability or special educational need was, the more restrictive environment was recommended.

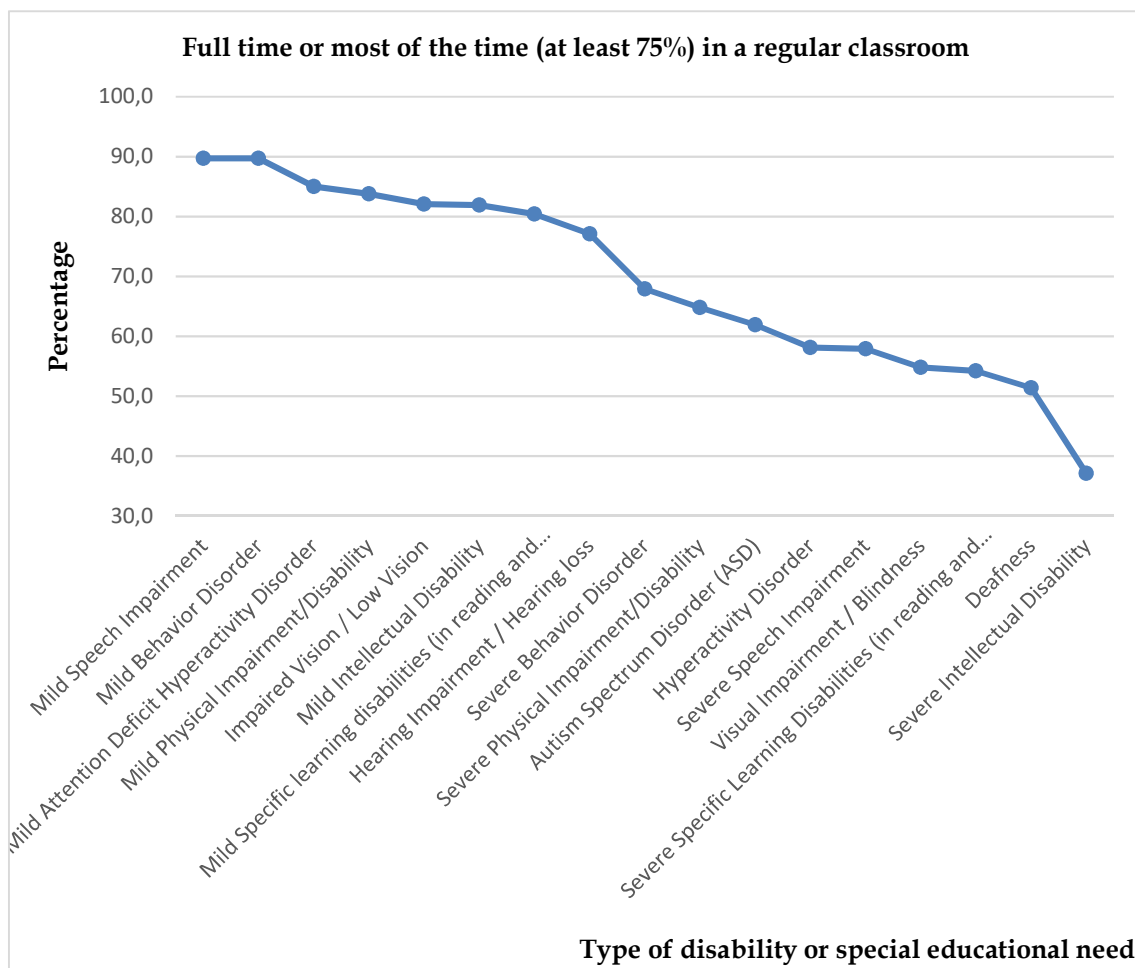


Figure 2 The percentages of the ratings of different student groups when full time or most of time (at least 75 %) in an ordinary classroom

The ratings for all student groups are presented in table 5. The closer the mean is to 1, the more inclusive the environment is.

Table 5 Ratings for the best educational environments for students with different kind of special educational needs: means, standard deviations and 95 % confidence intervals.

	N	M	SD	95 % CI
<b>Type and level of disability / special educational need</b>				
<b>Mild Speech Impairment</b> <i>(Leves dificultades del habla)</i>	107	1.63	0.78	1.48;1.78
<b>Severe Speech Impairment</b> <i>(Severo trastorno específico del lenguaje)</i>	107	2.46	1.28	2.21;2.70
<b>Mild Specific learning disabilities (in reading and writing)</b> <i>(Leves dificultades específicas del aprendizaje en leer e escribir)</i>	107	1.79	0.88	1.62;1.95
<b>Severe Specific Learning Disabilities (in reading and writing)</b> <i>(Severas dificultades específicas del aprendizaje en leer e escribir)</i>	107	2.56	1.23	2.33;2.80
<b>Mild Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder</b> <i>(Leve déficit atencional (AD/HD))</i>	107	1.77	0.85	1.60;1.93
<b>Severe Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder</b> <i>(Severo déficit atencional (AD/HD))</i>	105	2.44	1.22	2.20;2.67
<b>Mild Intellectual Disability</b> <i>(Leve discapacidad intelectual)</i>	105	1.90	0.85	1.74;2.07
<b>Severe Intellectual Disability</b> <i>(Severa discapacidad intelectual)</i>	105	3.00	1.31	2.75;3.25
<b>Impaired Vision / Low Vision</b> <i>(Baja vision)</i>	106	1.82	1.06	1.62;2.02
<b>Visual Impairment / Blindness</b> <i>(Discapacidad visual/ ceguera)</i>	104	2.63	1.46	2.35;2.92
<b>Hearing Impairment / Hearing loss</b> <i>(Hipoacusia/ baja audición)</i>	105	1.99	1.11	1.78;2.21
<b>Deafness</b> <i>(Sordera)</i>	105	2.70	1.44	2.43;2.98
<b>Mild Behavior Disorder</b> <i>(Leve déficit conductual)</i>	107	1.59	0.82	1.43;1.75
<b>Severe Behavior Disorder</b> <i>(Severo déficit conductual)</i>	106	2.19	1.08	1.98;2.40
<b>Mild Physical Disability</b> <i>(Leve discapacidad física/motora)</i>	105	1.78	1.01	1.59;1.98
<b>Severe Physical Disability</b> <i>(Severa discapacidad física/motora)</i>	105	2.37	1.35	2.11;2.63
<b>Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD)</b> <i>(Trastorno del Espectro Autista)</i>	105	2.52	1.37	2.26;2.79

## 6 DISCUSSION

The purpose of this study was to explore Chilean teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education and self-efficacy in implementing inclusive practices. Another object of the study was to investigate what teachers think of including students with different kind of special educational needs into regular education full time or most of the time. The results show that the teachers' general attitude towards inclusive education was neutral and their self-efficacy in implementing inclusive practices was high. However, the teachers had great concerns for including students with special educational needs in their own classes. There was a significant connection between teachers' attitudes and self-efficacy: the higher the self-efficacy, the more positive attitude towards inclusive education. Of the three self-efficacy subscales, self-efficacy in collaboration was the strongest correlate with general attitude. The quality of teachers' previous experience (from very negative to very positive) of teaching students with special educational needs was the most significant predictor of their attitudes. The most inclusive environments were rated for students with mild speech impairment or mild behaviour disorder and the least inclusive for students with severe intellectual disability. In this chapter, the results are discussed more widely, and compared to results of previous studies on inclusive education. Secondly, the reliability of the study is discussed. Thirdly, conclusions are given. Finally, some possible topics for future research are presented.

### 6.1 Examination of results

The teachers had in general relatively neutral attitudes towards inclusive education. Their sentiments toward interacting with persons with disabilities were positive. However, they showed concerns for including students with special educational needs in their own classes. The results coincide with Savolainen et al.'s (2012) study on South-African and Finnish teachers and with Yada's and Savolainen's (2017) study on Japanese teachers. The results support the idea that

teachers feel more negative to include students with special educational needs in their own classes (Savolainen et al., 2012; Yada & Savolainen, 2017), also in Chile.

The teachers' overall self-efficacy in implementing inclusive practices was high. Similar results have been found by Savolainen et al. (2012) with Finnish and South-African teachers. The higher the teachers' self-efficacy was, the better their attitudes towards inclusive education were. However, the Chilean teachers' self-efficacy profile differs from those of Finnish teachers (Savolainen et al., 2012), South African teachers (Savolainen et al., 2012) and Japanese teachers (Yada & Savolainen, 2017). In the present research, the teachers felt the most confident about collaboration, though their self-efficacy was high also in the areas of behaviour management and inclusive instructions, inclusive instructions being their lowest point. Then again, both the Finnish (Savolainen et al., 2012) and Japanese (Yada & Savolainen, 2017) teachers felt the most confident in implementing inclusive instruction and the least confident in managing behaviour. The South-African teachers had their highest self-efficacy scores in managing behaviour and the lowest in collaboration (Savolainen et al., 2012; Yada & Savolainen, 2017). Considering the results, Chilean teachers could benefit of wider pre- and in-service training of inclusive teaching skills. Some research suggest that teacher self-efficacy is formed early on and after that remains quite stable. Therefore, pre-service and novice teachers should be provided with support that would lead to a development of strong self-efficacy. (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007.)

All the three TEIP sub-scales had the strongest connections with the attitudes sub-scale. These results indicated that teachers who felt more confident in collaboration with other teachers, professionals and parents, managing problematic behaviour or implementing inclusive instruction, also had more positive attitude towards including students with special educational needs into regular classes. Teachers who were more confident in collaboration also showed more positive sentiments towards interacting with persons with disabilities. Furthermore, higher self-efficacy in inclusive instructions and collaboration decreased concerns about inclusive education.

Teachers who were more confident in teaching students with special educational needs were also more positive towards inclusive education. Especially their sentiments toward interacting with persons with disabilities were more positive. In addition, they showed more positive attitudes toward including students with special educational needs into regular classes and had less concerns about including such students in their own classes. Boyle et al. (2013) argue that many studies have shown that teachers' confidence in teaching students with special educational needs is related to their attitudes towards inclusion.

In the present study, teaching experience in years was not related to teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education. Similar results have been reported also by Jobe et al. (1996), Hastings and Oakford (2003), Ross-Hill (2009) and Vaz et al. (2015). Then again, for example Forlin (1995) found that as teachers gained experience in teaching, their acceptance towards integration decreased. Boyle et al. (2013) and de Boer, Pijl, and Minnaert (2011) found teachers who had just left university to hold significantly more positive attitudes than teachers with more teaching experience.

In this study, there was also no connection between attitudes and the level of teachers' professional degree. The result coincides with Vaz et al.'s (2015) result as they did not find any significant influence on attitudes towards inclusion and type and level of education degree. However, in Tsakiridou and Polyzopoulou's (2014) study teachers who had a master's degree and those who were highly educated were less concerned about the inclusion of students with disabilities. In addition, in the present research there was no significant relation with teachers' attitudes and whether their school had integration program for integrating students with special educational needs or not. Furthermore, there was also no relation between the teachers' gender and attitudes towards inclusive education. Similar result has been obtained also by Galović et al. (2014), Kraska and Boyle (2014) and Yada and Savolainen (2017). However, some studies (Boyle et al., 2013; Vaz et al., 2015) have found female teachers significantly more positive toward inclusive education than males.

Forlin, Loreman, Sharma and Earle (2009) found teachers with higher levels of training in teaching students with special educational needs to have more positive attitudes towards inclusion. In Jobe et al.'s (1996) investigation of teachers' attitudes towards including students with disabilities in regular classrooms, there were significant relations with the attitudes towards inclusion and in-service training. In addition, Vaz et al. (2015) found in their study that teachers who had training in teaching students with disabilities had positive attitudes toward inclusion. Also in the present study, teachers who had more training in teaching students with special educational needs in regular classes, had also more positive attitudes and less concerns about including students with special educational needs in their own classes. Also, the knowledge of laws and policies of inclusive education was positively related to teachers' attitudes; teachers who knew more about local legislations and policies regarding students with special educational needs had also more positive attitudes towards inclusive education. Furthermore, teachers who were more familiar with the concept of inclusive education or students with special educational needs had also more positive attitudes, especially their sentiments toward interacting with students with disabilities were more positive. However, there was no such connection with their concerns, suggesting that more familiarity with the concepts did not mean less concerns of including students with special educational needs in teachers' own classes. Of the two concepts, familiarity of students with special educational needs had stronger correlations with attitudes towards inclusive education.

In addition, teachers who were teaching special classes in regular or special schools had significantly more positive attitudes towards inclusive education than teachers who were teaching regular classes in regular schools. Though all the teachers reported to have students with special educational needs in their own classes. However, it could be assumed that a special class teacher probably has more experience in teaching students with special educational needs as well as more knowledge of inclusive education and students with special educational needs. Thus, the negative attitudes towards inclusion and students with special educational needs might be because of the teachers feel they have insufficient



knowledge and skills (Burke & Sutherland, 2004). Sánchez et al. (2008) present that in Chile, regular education teachers have not been adequately prepared to attend to the diversity of students, meaning that the teachers formed years before the new laws, do not have the practical and theoretical knowledge of the management of inclusive education (Díaz Barrera, 2010). Hence, sufficient pre-service and in-service training are essential factors to improve teachers' attitudes towards and decrease concerns about inclusive education (Boyle et al., 2013; Burke & Sutherland; Kraska & Boyle, 2014; Sharma & Nuttal, 2016). In Sharma's and Nuttal's (2016) study, an inclusion course decreased the participants' concerns about inclusive education, especially about how inclusion would affect their relationship with colleagues, teaching experience and their students' learning experience (Sharma, & Nuttal, 2016). Therefore, universities should provide appropriate courses for all pre-service teachers and schools should provide in-service training for their teachers and staff (Kraska & Boyle, 2014). Still, training and education should be a continuous part of teachers' careers (Donohue & Bornman, 2015).

Some studies (see: Avramidis & Norwich, 2002) suggest that a carefully planned and supported contact with students with disabilities results in positive changes in teachers' attitudes. Dias and Cadime (2016) argue that having a personal contact with a person with special educational needs (family member, relative or friend) is a good predictor of more positive attitudes towards inclusive education. Also Sharma and Nuttal (2016) recognize the importance of getting opportunities to interact with people with disabilities. However, Avramidis and Norwich (2002) and Sharma and Nuttal (2016) remind that social contact per se does not lead to positive attitudes and lower concerns towards inclusive education. Kraska and Boyle (2014) found no significant connection between the people who have regular contact with people with disabilities (friends or family) and more positive attitudes toward inclusion and in Sharma's and Nuttal's (2016) study, pre-service teachers' attitudes were not related to whether they knew or did not know a person with a disability. In this study, there was no significant

difference in the teachers' attitudes whether they had a significant previous experience with a person with a disability or not. Though it must be noted that 23 participants out of the 108 did not answer the question. Perhaps they interpreted giving no answer as "no" which might mean that the results of the question might have been different if the 23 missing participants had also responded.

However, in the present research, the quality of the experience (from very negative to very positive) of teaching students with special educational needs was significantly related to the teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education, more positive experience showing more positive attitudes. In fact, the quality of experience was the most powerful predictor of the attitudes toward inclusive education in the Chilean sample. This result differs from other countries, where self-efficacy in collaboration (Malinen et al., 2012; Savolainen et al., 2012) or self-efficacy in managing behavior (Yada & Savolainen, 2017) were the only or most powerful predictors of teachers' attitudes. If we interpret quality of experience of teaching students with special educational needs from the point of view of the self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1977), having a positive experience of teaching students with SEN can act as a mastery experience and with that improve the teacher's self-efficacy. After all, mastery experiences are assumed to be the most powerful source of efficacy evaluations, especially for the experienced teachers (Malinen et al., 2013). Also in Hsieh's and Hsieh's (2012) study, positive previous experience of teaching children with disabilities was positively related to teachers' attitudes toward inclusive education. Avramidis et al. (2000) argue that teachers need to have early and continuous exposure to students with special educational needs and inclusive education. However, Sharma and Nuttal (2016) conclude that previous experience of teaching students with disabilities without the necessary skills and knowledge may lead to a decrease in attitudes towards inclusive education. In the present study, all the participants reported to have students with special educational needs in their classes. Dias and Cadime (2016) and Galović et al. (2014) argue that positive experiences of teaching students with special educational needs are followed by more positive attitudes towards inclu-

sive education, and because of that, it would be important to give teachers possibilities to have positive interactions with students with special educational needs. The present study supports this idea. Thus, it could be suggested that in order to improve the attitudes teachers have towards inclusive education, positive experiences of teaching students with special educational needs are needed. These positive experiences are more likely to happen when teachers have sufficient skills and knowledge about including students with special educational needs (Sharma & Nuttal, 2016).

Consequently, Avramidis et al. (2000) argue that teachers are often not prepared to meet the needs of students with significant disabilities (Avramidis et al., 2000). Avramidis et al. (2000) and Avramidis and Kalyva (2007) find that teachers are usually more willing to include students with mild and moderate special educational needs than students with more severe or complex needs (Avramidis and Norwich, 2002). The present study supports these findings, as the respondents were more willing to include students with mild special educational needs. In Avramidis et al.'s (2000) study the student teachers found students with emotional and behavioural needs to cause more concern and stress than students with other types of special educational needs. In Clough and Lindsay's (1991, in Avramidis & Norwich, 2002) study teachers identified children with emotional and with behavioural difficulties, followed by children with learning difficulties as the most challenging needs to meet and in Jobe et al.'s (1996) investigation, teachers seemed much more willing to include children with physical disabilities than children with cognitive, emotional or behavioural problems. Clough and Lindsay (1991, in Avramidis & Norwich, 2002) reasoned the low ranking of students with physical and sensory impairments to the infrequent existence of these kind of students at mainstream classes at that time. In Donohue and Bornman's (2015) study the teachers were less positive about the benefits of including children with autism or with spastic quadriplegia. In this study, teachers were the most willing to include students with mild speech impairment and students with mild behavioural disorders. The group of students the teachers were the least willing to in-

clude was students with severe intellectual disability, followed by deafness, severe specific learning disabilities, visual impairment or blindness and severe speech impairment. Also in Avramidis' and Kalyva's (2007) study, students with severe special educational needs such as intellectual disabilities and sensory impairments were viewed as the most challenging to include in regular classes. Furthermore, in Malinen's and Savolainen's (2008) study, the participants were the least willing to include students with mental disability. However, students with visual impairment was the group that the teachers were the most willing to include (Malinen & Savolainen, 2008).

In Chile, there are long traditions for teaching students with disabilities in special schools. Historically, Chile was the first Latin American country to have a special school. In the end of 19<sup>th</sup> century, schools for deaf, dumb and blind children were formed. Later, in 1928, the first school for children with mental disability was established. (Godoy, Meza, & Salazar, 2004). Also, the Chilean way to divide students with special educational needs into groups of temporary and permanent needs can have impact on the results. To give an example, students with severe intellectual disability are seen as students with permanent special educational needs and because of that it is more difficult for these students to take part in the school integration projects, as it is allowed to include into one regular class max 2 students with permanent special educational needs (in a case of deaf students 2 more extra students can be included) or 5 students with temporary special educational needs (Ministry of Education, 2010). In addition, the Ministry of Education (2005) states that special education includes the following options: special education schools to serve students with sensory, intellectual, motor, communication and language impairments; regular schools with school integration programs for students with special educational needs or disabilities (PIE) and special groups for students with learning disabilities; and in-hospital schools and classrooms for students undergoing medical treatment. The law states that when integration into regular education classes is not possible, given the nature and type of the student's disability, the teaching should be given in special classes within the same educational establishment or in special schools

(López et al., 2014; Ministry of Planning, 2010). Furthermore, in Chile there is a tendency that special education university students specialize in some specific area, such as students with intellectual disabilities, students with speech and communication disorders or students with learning disabilities. However, Sharma and Nuttal (2016) remind that successful teaching of students with disabilities requires not just learning about the disabling conditions but to understand the students really well.

## 6.2 Limitations

There are several limitations that should be considered when interpreting the results of the present study.

Firstly, in terms of validity, the sample collected cannot be seen as representative of the population of Chilean teachers because the sample size was small and not randomly selected (Klassen et al., 2009). This was due to financial limitations and time restraints. Therefore, the results of this study cannot be confidently generalised. Also, the online link of the questionnaire was shared in Chilean teacher groups in Facebook which made it possible for any participant of the groups to respond, and this may have included people who are not actually teachers (Wright, 2005). However, also other type of questionnaires that are not filled under supervision, for example questionnaires that are sent to respondents' home, would have posed a similar risk (Wright, 2005).

In the present study, the teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education were neutral and their self-efficacy for inclusive practices was high. As previously mentioned, it should be taken into account that the sample used in this research was not randomly selected. The participants probably had some interest or strong views towards the theme as their participation was voluntary and the activeness of their participation depended on themselves. For example, all the teachers reported to have students with special educational needs in their classes.

Thus, it can be questioned, whether the results would have been different if random sampling had been used. Also, the fact that the investigator came from an educationally highly appreciated country could have had influence on the participants' answers. Currently, Finland is known for its good PISA results also in Chile. It is possible that the teachers may have answered in a socially desirable way, as people may consciously conform to socially desirable responses when reporting their attitudes (Avramidis, & Norwich, 2002; Wright, 2005; also see Hitlin & Pinkston, 2013). To avoid this, Avramidis and Norwich (2002) recommend for example observations in classrooms. However, in the present study such procedure was not possible or desirable as the objective was to give teachers a possibility to let their voice be heard.

In this study, teacher attitudes were measured by using a questionnaire which poses several limitations. First, a questionnaire leaves a possibility for misunderstandings (Valli, 2001, p. 102). However, the original questionnaire was proved to be good in previous studies (e.g. Savolainen et al., 2012). The questionnaire used in the present study was commented and pre-tested by Chilean special education university students and staff. The version that was distributed to the participants contained the researcher's contact information and the participants were told not to hesitate to contact the researcher in a case of any doubt. Secondly, the questionnaire was developed in other language and cultural context and its translation and adaptation into the Chilean context proved to be a challenging exercise. For example, instead of using the phrase 'children with disabilities', 'students with special educational needs' was used. Similar challenges in translation from English to other languages have been reported before (Savolainen et al., 2012). However, as mentioned earlier, the questionnaire was pre-tested and commented by Chilean special education university students and staff in order to improve its understandability and applicability for the local context (Valli, 2001, p. 102). Lastly, Bohner and Dickel (2011) remind that people may try to hide their real attitudes to present themselves positively. However, the object of the present study was to give the teachers a chance to let their voice to be heard and for that purpose, a questionnaire was a recommendable tool.

Another limitation of the present study is the cultural background of the researcher. I recognize that coming from a different culture and not being a native Chilean, has had an impact on this study. Therefore, there may have been some cultural and contextual concerns or factors that I have possibly not been able to consider and that may have affected the study results. For example, I could have asked more demographic background questions such as whether the participants teach in private school, subsidized school or public school. In Chile there are big differences between different schools, especially between private and public ones. However, in order to minimise this limitation, during the thesis process I have consulted Chilean students and university staff in the area of education and special education. Also my own background, having spent an academic year studying special education in a Chilean university and done practical trainings in local schools, has helped me with this research.

In this study, teachers were asked to rate the best educational environment for different types of student groups. However, it must be noted that the respondents may have had multiple interpretations for the same group of students (e.g. a student with autism spectrum disorder), according to their knowledge and experience or lack of them (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002). Avramidis and Norwich (2002) suggest that the problem of multiple interpretations could be improved by providing specific descriptions of the different characteristics and behaviours of students with special educational needs instead of referring to a group of students by a disabling condition. However, in Chile, referring to a group of students by disabling condition is still used, for example by the Ministry of Education in its documents, though they are referred to as "type of special educational need" (*tipo de necesidad educativa especial*). Also, regarding the best educational environment, the sixth response option "in a boarding school" was eliminated in order to shorten the questionnaire and also because in Chile boarding schools are not a common option to organize schooling. However, having only five response options instead of six may have affected the results as usually there is a tendency to not to select the extremities.

Concerning the ethics of the study, one of the most essential ethical features of a study is that it should not cause any harm to its participants (Pietarinen, 2002, p. 62). In this study, I have assured that the participants have been treated in a respectful manner, assuring that participating to this study has been voluntary and all the participants' anonymity has been guaranteed. The invitations to participate the present study included contact information of the researcher, information of the purpose of the study and the requirements for participation (Wright, 2005). The participants were informed in the questionnaire that in a case of any doubt they could contact the researcher (e-mail was provided) and that all the collected information would be processed in a confidential way, conserving the participants' identities. The participants were informed, that their responses would be used in a master's thesis study. Participating to the study has been voluntary. (Pietarinen, 2002, p. 62.)

The limitations presented should be considered when interpreting the results of the present study. However, recognizing the limitations, the research does offer many important practical implications for policy makers and pre- and in-service teacher training.

### **6.3 Conclusions**

As discussed in the introduction, the way inclusive education is understood and implemented, depends on the culture and context (Kozleski et al., 2009; Malinen et al., 2013; Savolainen et al. 2012). However, regarding the implementation of inclusive practices, teachers are the ones in the key role (Boyle, 2012; Boyle et al., 2011; Boyle et al., 2012; Forling et al., 2010; Savolainen et al., 2012; Shade & Stewart, 2000; Vaillant, 2011) and their negative attitudes may act as barriers to the success of inclusion (Bradshaw & Mundia, 2006). Inclusion is a current issue all over the world, and like many other Latin American countries, also Chile has been moving towards inclusive education (Amadio, 2009; Rico, 2010; Tamayo et al., 2017). In Chile, the rights of people with disabilities and students with special



educational needs are protected by legislation (Ministry of Planning, 2010). However, there is a great gap between the theory and the practice (Estay et al., 2015). The present study has shown that despite of the Chilean government promoting inclusive education, teachers have big concerns about including students with special educational needs in their own classes. Therefore, it is important to improve teachers' attitudes, especially concerning their concerns towards inclusion.

The findings of the current study provide new knowledge to understand teachers' attitudes and self-efficacy towards inclusive education more comprehensively and give ideas on how the teacher training for inclusive education could be improved. Chilean universities and professional institutes that present teacher training programs have initiated a change to include within their curricula courses about inclusive education and teaching students with special educational needs (Díaz Barrera, 2010). The findings of this study suggest that teacher training (both pre- and in-service) should include possibilities to gain positive experiences of teaching students with special educational needs, develop collaboration skills and provide basic knowledge and information of local inclusion policies and legislation, and of the different concepts regarding inclusive education. As presented in this study, gaining positive experience is crucial. The positive experiences can act like mastery experiences that improve teachers' self-efficacy and attitudes. All the teachers should have basic theoretical-practical knowledge regarding attending the needs of diversity (Guijarro, 2000, p. 50). Thus, teachers should be provided with sufficient skills to cope with a large diversity of students, including the ones with severe special educational needs (Amadio, 2009; López Vélez, 2008; Vaillant, 2011).

Consequently, the Chilean government and local authorities should better consider the role of teachers as the key persons in the successful implementation of inclusive practices, as there is still a tendency to conceptualize teachers as employees with limited professionalism and autonomy (Biscarra et al., 2015). López Vélez (2016) state that the possibility of transformation in conceptions of practice can occur when teachers have inclusive values that make them feel responsible for the learning process of their students. Thus, the teachers should be part of the

process of implementing inclusive education, at school, local authority and governmental level (Boyle et al., 2013). In addition, the Chilean government should consider the legislations so that all the students could have equal opportunities, regardless of their different qualities, such as social or economic background.

#### **6.4 Challenges for further research**

Given the limitations of the present study, a clear challenge for future research is to collect a more representative sample for a similar research. Thus, with those results more confident generalisations could be made. The more presentative sample should be taken with some random sampling technique from all over Chile and include teachers from public schools, subsidised schools and private schools. Also, the questionnaire could have more details and contain for example more demographic questions as it would be interesting to study for example whether there is a connection between teachers' attitudes and self-efficacy and the type of school (whether private, subsidized or public school) the teacher is teaching in. Especially when considering, that there are rarely any students with special educational needs studying in the private schools (Ministry of Education, 2013).

Furthermore, the relations between attitudes and other background factors such as school resources should be studied. The present study focuses on connections between attitudes and teacher related (e.g. teaching experience) and child related (e.g. type of special educational need) factors. Thus, future research should also consider the connections between attitudes and different contextual factors (e.g. financial, time and human resources). Additionally, the teacher self-efficacy in implementing inclusive practices should be studied more comprehensively to produce more knowledge on the phenomenon, as the present study takes a principal focus on attitudes.

In addition, collecting qualitative data (e.g. by personal or group interviews, autobiographies and narratives) on teachers' attitudes and self-efficacy re-

garding inclusive education would give a possibility for wider and deeper understanding of the study phenomenon (e.g. on teachers' positive or negative experiences on teaching students with special educational needs) (see: Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Klassen et al., 2011) and could give a better opportunity to let the teachers' voices be heard. To give an example, this study did not clarify how do the Chilean teachers define the concept of inclusive education. The Chilean education system tends to see inclusive education mainly as educating students with disabilities. However, it would be interesting to see whether the teachers' definitions coincide with this idea. Also, it could be fruitful to hear teachers' own opinions on what are the main challenges they have faced when implementing inclusive education.

Furthermore, longitudinal research could give insight into the development and change of teachers' attitudes towards inclusion and self-efficacy for implementing inclusive practices which the present research cannot indicate (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Klassen et al., 2011). However, longitudinal research poses many challenges such as time, expense and problems with participant retention (Klassen et al., 2011).

Also, in this study, only teachers' explicit attitudes were studied. However, people can simultaneously hold two different attitudes towards a certain object, an implicit and explicit one (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005; Wilson, Lindsey, & Schooler, 2000). Many discriminative attitudes may be implicit (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005; Ajzen & Cote, 2008) and they can influence a person's behaviour without the person noticing it (Ajzen & Fishbein, 2005; Greenwald & Banaji, 1995; Hitlin & Pinkston, 2013). Ajzen and Fishbein (2005) suggest that as people may not be aware of their true attitudes, it may be impossible for them to report how they truly think even though they wanted to. In future research, it could be interesting to study both teachers' implicit and explicit attitudes to compare whether there are differences between them (Ajzen & Cote, 2008). Furthermore, implicit and explicit measures can together improve the overall prediction of teachers' inclusive behaviour (Bohner & Dickel, 2011).

Finally, instead of focusing only on teachers' personal self-efficacy, it could be fruitful also to study teachers' collective beliefs in their school staff's capabilities to implement inclusive practices or the relationship between individual teacher self-efficacy and collective efficacy. After all, successful teaching and implementing inclusive practices requires co-working. Teachers' collective self-efficacy influence how teachers cope with different challenges in the school (Klassen et al., 2011). In order to solve many problems, teachers need to work together (Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Though the challenges and failures teachers experience may lower their individual motivation, these drawbacks may be cured by beliefs in their co-workers' collective capacity to achieve changes (Klassen et al., 2011). Together we can achieve more.

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## APPENDICES

### Appendix 1: The questionnaire

Por favor complete el cuestionario de la forma más honesta posible. Ante cualquier duda diríjase al encuestador (elina.k.kuittinen@student.jyu.fi).

Toda la información recolectada será procesada de manera confidencial resguardando la identidad de los participantes.

**Establecimiento:** \_\_\_\_\_

<p><b>1. ¿En qué nivel(es) enseña?</b> (Marque con una X)</p>	<p>1 Educación preescolar</p> <p>2 Primer ciclo (De 1° a 4° básico)</p> <p>3 Segundo ciclo (De 5° a 8° básico)</p> <p>4 Tercer ciclo (De 1° a 4° medio)</p>
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<p><b>2. ¿Qué tipo de clase imparte?</b> Si imparte diferentes tipos de clases, elige la que más imparte. (Marque con una X y <u>sólo una</u> alternativa)</p>	<p>1 Clase regular en un establecimiento regular</p> <p>2 Clase especial en un establecimiento regular</p> <p>3 Clase especial en un establecimiento especial</p> <p>4 Otra (Por favor especificar) _____</p>
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<p><b>3. Indique su género</b></p>	<p>1 Masculino</p>
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	2	Femenino
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4. Edad: \_\_\_\_\_ años

5. Años de experiencia en el aula: \_\_\_\_\_

6. ¿Cuál es su mayor nivel de estudios (completos)?

1. Básica	
<b>MEDIA:</b>	
2. Científico – Humanista	
3. Técnico – Profesional	
4. Artística	
<b>EDUCACIÓN SUPERIOR:</b>	
5. Técnica	
6. Profesional	
7. Normalista	
<b>UNIVERSITARIA:</b>	
8. Bachillerato	
9. Licenciatura	
10. Magíster	
11. Doctorado	
12. Otra (Por favor especifique): _____	

7. Por favor indique su formación adicional más significativa (cursos, diplomas, títulos de posgrado, otros)

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8. ¿En qué tipo de institución recibió su formación pedagógica?

1. Universidad	
2. Centro de Formación Técnica	
3. Instituto Profesional	
4. Escuela Normalista	
4. Otro (por favor especifique): _____ _____	
5. No he recibido formación profesional	

9. Indique su mención y/o especialización (si aplica)

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**10. ¿Ha tenido alguna experiencia significativa con alguna persona con discapacidad (como amigos, familiares, vecinos, compañeros de clases, colegas, entre otros)?**

1. Sí	2. No
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Si su respuesta es afirmativa, por favor indique qué tipo de relación (relate la experiencia brevemente).

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**11. ¿Cuán familiares le son los siguientes conceptos? (Marque con una X)**

Concepto	Nada	Poco	Moderadamente	Bastante	Totalmente
Educación Inclusiva					
Estudiantes con Necesidades Educativas Especiales					

#### CONTEXTO ESCOLAR

**12. ¿Cuántos estudiantes tiene su establecimiento? \_\_\_\_\_**

**13. ¿Su establecimiento cuenta con PIE (Programa de Integración Escolar)?**

Sí \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_

**14. ¿Cómo evaluaría a su establecimiento en comparación con otros de la misma localidad (prestigio, estándares académicos, entre otros)?**

1. Muy bajo en relación al promedio	2. Bajo en relación con el promedio	3. En el promedio	4. Sobre el promedio	5. Sobresaliente en relación con el promedio
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**15. ¿Cómo describiría la cantidad de recursos en comparación con otros establecimientos de la misma localidad?**

1. Muy bajos en relación al promedio	2. Bajos en relación al promedio	3. En el promedio	4. Sobre el promedio	5. Muy altos en relación al promedio
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**16. ¿Dispone de la ayuda de un asistente en sus clases? Si su respuesta es afirmativa, ¿cuántas horas a la semana?**

1. Sí _____ horas	2. NO
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**17. ¿Existe algún apoyo adicional para su trabajo en el aula? (Orientador, psicopedagogo, psicólogo, fonoaudiólogo, profesor diferencial, entre otros)**

1. Sí Describa su cargo y su función _____	2. NO
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Tenga en cuenta que en este cuestionario el término **el estudiante con necesidades educativas especiales** refiera a un estudiante que requiere de ayudas y recursos adicionales para conducir su proceso de desarrollo y aprendizaje, durante toda o un determinado período de su trayectoria escolar. Dentro de esta categoría se encuentran las deficiencias visuales, deficiencias auditivas, deficiencias motoras, la discapacidad intelectual y múltiple, el trastorno del espectro autista, las dificultades específicas del aprendizaje, los trastornos específicos del lenguaje, el déficit atencional, las dificultades conductuales y emocionales, entre otros.

## **18. ESCALA DE SENTIMIENTOS, APTITUDES Y PREOCUPACIONES SOBRE LA EDUCACIÓN INCLUSIVA**

Los siguientes enunciados están relacionados con la Educación Inclusiva, la que supone que los estudiantes provenientes de variados orígenes y con habilidades diversas, pueden aprender con sus compañeros en establecimientos regulares; los que se adaptan con el fin de satisfacer las necesidades de todos sus estudiantes.

Por favor conteste a todas las preguntas. Marque solo UNA alternativa, la que MEJOR se aplique a usted.

	1 Totalmente en desacuerdo	2 En desacuerdo	3 De acuerdo	4 Totalmente de acuerdo
1.	Me preocupa que los estudiantes con alguna necesidad educativa especial no sean aceptados por el resto de la clase.			1 2 3 4
2.	Los estudiantes quienes presentan dificultades para expresar sus pensamientos oralmente deberían estar en clases regulares.			1 2 3 4
3.	Me preocupa que sea difícil dar la atención apropiada a todos los estudiantes en un aula inclusiva.			1 2 3 4
4.	Acostumbro a interactuar brevemente y terminar lo antes posible ante personas con discapacidad.			1 2 3 4

5.	Los estudiantes con déficit atencional deberían estar en clases regulares.	1	2	3	4
6.	Me preocupa que mi carga de trabajo aumente si tengo estudiantes con necesidades educativas especiales en mi clase.	1	2	3	4
7.	Los estudiantes quienes necesiten formas alternativas de comunicación (Braille, lengua de señas, entre otros) deberían estar en clases regulares.	1	2	3	4
8.	Me preocupa estar más estresado si tuviera estudiantes con necesidades educativas especiales en mi clase.	1	2	3	4
9.	Temo mirar a los ojos a una persona con discapacidad.	1	2	3	4
10.	Los estudiantes que frecuentemente reprueban las evaluaciones deberían estar en clases regulares.	1	2	3	4
11.	Encuentro difícil superar el impacto de un primer encuentro con personas con severas discapacidades físicas.	1	2	3	4
12.	Me preocupa no tener el conocimiento y las habilidades necesarias para enseñar a estudiantes con necesidades educativas especiales.	1	2	3	4
13.	Los estudiantes que necesitan un plan de estudios personalizado deberían estar en una clase regular.	1	2	3	4

## 19. ESCALA DE EFICACIA EN EL USO DE PRÁCTICAS INCLUSIVAS

Los siguientes enunciados están diseñados para ayudarnos a entender la naturaleza de los factores que afectan en el éxito de las actividades rutinarias para establecer un contexto inclusivo en el aula.

Por favor conteste a todas las preguntas. Marque solo UNA alternativa, la que MEJOR se aplique a usted.

	1 Totalmente en desacuerdo	2 En desacuerdo	3 Parcialmente en desacuerdo	4 Parcialmente de acuerdo	5 De acuerdo	6 Totalmente de acuerdo				
1.	Dispongo de una variedad de formas de evaluación (portafolio, pruebas adaptadas, evaluación en base a evidencia, entre otras).				1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	Tengo la capacidad para dar un ejemplo o una explicación alternativa cuando los estudiantes no entienden.				1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	Siento la confianza para elaborar tareas personalizadas adaptadas a los estudiantes con necesidades educativas especiales.				1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	Puedo determinar con precisión cómo mis estudiantes han entendido lo que les he enseñado.				1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	Puedo entregar desafíos estimulantes a los estudiantes con capacidades sobresalientes.				1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	Confío en mi habilidad para hacer que los estudiantes trabajen en parejas o en grupos pequeños.				1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	Confío en mi habilidad para prevenir conductas disruptivas en el aula antes de que éstas ocurran.				1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	Puedo controlar conductas disruptivas en el aula.				1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	Puedo calmar a un estudiante disruptivo o ruidoso.				1	2	3	4	5	6

10.	Puedo hacer que los alumnos sigan las reglas de clase.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	Siento seguridad cuando trato con estudiantes agresivos físicamente.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	Puedo manifestar claramente mis expectativas sobre el comportamiento de los estudiantes.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	Puedo orientar a las familias para que ayuden a sus hijos a tener un buen desempeño escolar.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	Puedo mejorar el aprendizaje de un estudiante con bajo rendimiento.	1	2	3	4	5	6

15.	Tengo la capacidad para trabajar conjuntamente con otros profesionales y miembros del equipo escolar (psicólogos, asistentes, psicopedagogos, otros profesores, etcétera) para enseñar a estudiantes con necesidades educativas especiales en el aula.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16.	Confío en mi habilidad para que los padres de los estudiantes con necesidades educativas especiales participen en las actividades escolares.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17.	Puedo hacer que los padres se sientan cómodos al venir al establecimiento.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18.	Puedo colaborar con otros profesionales (fonoaudiólogos, por ejemplo) en la elaboración de planes educativos para estudiantes con necesidades educativas especiales.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19.	Tengo la confianza para informar a quienes saben poco acerca de los hábitos y las leyes relacionadas con la inclusión de estudiantes con necesidades educativas especiales.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20.	Tengo la confianza para adaptar las mediciones escolares para que todos los estudiantes con necesidades educativas especiales puedan ser evaluados.	1	2	3	4	5	6

<b>20. ¿Cuánta formación ha recibido en relación con la educación con estudiantes con necesidades educativas especiales en un contexto normal de clases?</b>	1	Nada
	2	Poco
	3	Moderado
	4	Bastante
	5	Nivel certificado

<b>21. ¿Cómo calificaría su conocimiento acerca de las políticas públicas en relación con los estudiantes con necesidades educativas especiales?</b>	1	Nulo
	2	Pobre
	3	Regular
	4	Bueno
	5	Excelente

<b>22. ¿Cómo calificaría su nivel de seguridad para enseñar a los estudiantes con necesidades educativas especiales?</b>	1	Nulo
	2	Pobre
	3	Regular
	4	Bueno
	5	Excelente

<b>23. ¿Cómo calificaría su(s) experiencia(s) con respecto a enseñar a los estudiantes con necesidades educativas especiales?</b>	1	Muy negativa
	2	Negativa
	3	Neutral
	4	Positiva
	5	Muy positiva

**24. Las siguientes preguntas están referidas a las clases que actualmente imparte. Si enseña en diferentes cursos y/o niveles, dé cuenta de la situación en general.**

1. La cantidad de estudiantes por clase: \_\_\_\_\_
2. El número de niños y de niñas por clase: \_\_\_\_\_ niños \_\_\_\_\_ niñas
3. El rango de edad de los estudiantes de su clase: \_\_\_\_\_ a \_\_\_\_\_ años
4. ¿Cuántos credos distintos manifiestan los alumnos de su clase? \_\_\_\_\_
5. ¿En cuántos grupos étnicos se dividen los alumnos de su clase? \_\_\_\_\_
6. ¿Cuántas lenguas maternas diferentes hablan los alumnos de su clase? \_\_\_\_\_
7. ¿Cuántos estudiantes en su clase son inmigrantes? \_\_\_\_\_

**25. ¿Tiene estudiantes en su clase con alguna de las siguientes necesidades educativas especiales? (Marque la cantidad)**

- a) Ceguera / Baja visión / Discapacidad visual: \_\_\_\_\_
- b) Sordera / Sordera parcial / Discapacidad auditiva: \_\_\_\_\_
- c) Discapacidad motora / física: \_\_\_\_\_
- d) Dificultades específicas del aprendizaje: \_\_\_\_\_
- e) Trastorno específico del lenguaje: \_\_\_\_\_
- f) Discapacidad intelectual: \_\_\_\_\_
- g) Déficit atencional: \_\_\_\_\_
- h) Déficit conductual y/o emocional: \_\_\_\_\_
- i) Trastorno del Espectro Autista: \_\_\_\_\_
- j) Otra (especifique): \_\_\_\_\_



**26. Abajo se exponen cinco (5) modos diferentes de organizar la enseñanza para estudiantes con necesidades educativas especiales.**

1 = Tiempo completo en una clase regular en un establecimiento regular

2 = La mayoría del tiempo (más del 75 %) en una clase regular en un establecimiento regular

3 = La mayoría del tiempo (más del 75 %) en una clase especial en un establecimiento regular

4 = Tiempo completo en una clase especial en un establecimiento regular

5 = Tiempo completo en una escuela especial

**Marque la alternativa, que mejor se ajuste para cada uno de los siguientes grupos de estudiantes**

Tipo de estudiante		Realización de la enseñanza				
1.	Leves dificultades del habla	1	2	3	4	5
2.	Severo trastorno específico del lenguaje	1	2	3	4	5
3.	Leves dificultades específicas del aprendizaje (en leer y escribir)	1	2	3	4	5
4.	Severas dificultades específicas del aprendizaje (en leer y escribir)	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Leve déficit atencional (AD/HD)	1	2	3	4	5
6.	Severo déficit atencional (AD/HD)	1	2	3	4	5
7.	Leve discapacidad intelectual	1	2	3	4	5
8.	Severa discapacidad intelectual	1	2	3	4	5
9.	Baja visión	1	2	3	4	5
10.	Discapacidad visual / ceguera	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Hipoacusia / baja audición	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Sordera	1	2	3	4	5
13.	Leve déficit conductual	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Severo déficit conductual	1	2	3	4	5
15.	Leve discapacidad física/motora	1	2	3	4	5
16.	Severa discapacidad física/motora	1	2	3	4	5
17.	Trastorno del Espectro Autista	1	2	3	4	5

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**27. Marque la alternativa que más se ajuste a su situación laboral actual.**


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	1 Totalmente en desacuerdo	2 En desacuerdo	3 Parcialmente en desacuerdo	4 Parcialmente de acuerdo	5 De acuerdo	6 Totalmente de acuerdo
1	Siento constantemente que mi carga laboral es excesiva en relación al tiempo que dispongo para realizarla.				1	2 3 4 5 6
2	Mi trabajo tiene muchas responsabilidades.				1	2 3 4 5 6
3	Durante los últimos años las responsabilidades en mi trabajo han ido en aumento.				1	2 3 4 5 6
4	Me siento inseguro en mi trabajo.				1	2 3 4 5 6
5	Usualmente me siento obligado a continuar mi trabajo fuera del horario establecido (mi jornada laboral no es suficiente para terminar todas mis tareas).				1	2 3 4 5 6

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**28. Marque la alternativa que más se ajuste a su situación laboral actual.**

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	1 Totalmente en desacuerdo	2 En desacuerdo	3 Parcialmente en desacuerdo	4 Parcialmente de acuerdo	5 De acuerdo	6 Totalmente de acuerdo
1	Me siento agobiado con mi carga laboral.				1	2 3 4 5 6
2	Duermo mal por mis obligaciones laborales.				1	2 3 4 5 6
3	Constantemente me siento mal porque mi trabajo me hace descuidar a mis cercanos.				1	2 3 4 5 6
4	Pienso en el trabajo también en mi tiempo libre.				1	2 3 4 5 6
5	Mi carga laboral me trae problemas en mis relaciones con mis cercanos.				1	2 3 4 5 6

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**29. Defina los siguientes conceptos con sus propias palabras:**

**a. Educación inclusiva**

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**b. Estudiantes con necesidades educativas especiales**

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**c. Discapacidad**

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**30. ¿Qué tipo de capacitación (considerando a estudiantes con necesidades educativas especiales en un contexto normal de clases) le gustaría cursar en el futuro?**

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**¡MUCHAS GRACIAS POR SU TIEMPO Y POR SU PARTICIPACIÓN!**

## Appendix 2

Table 6. The percentages of the ratings of different student groups when full time or most of time (at least 75 %) in an ordinary classroom

Type and level of disability / special educational need	Full time or most of the time in an ordinary classroom
Mild Speech Impairment <i>Leves dificultades del habla</i>	89.7%
Mild Behavior Disorder <i>Leve déficit conductual</i>	89.7%
Mild Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder <i>Leve déficit atencional (AD/HD)</i>	85.0%
Mild Physical Impairment/Disability <i>Leve discapacidad física/motora</i>	83.8%
Impaired Vision / Low Vision <i>Baja vision</i>	82.1%
Mild Intellectual Disability <i>Leve discapacidad intelectual</i>	81.9%
Mild Specific learning disabilities (in reading and writing) <i>Leves dificultades específicas del aprendizaje (en leer y escribir)</i>	80.4%
Hearing Impairment / Hearing loss <i>Hipoacusia / baja audición</i>	77.1%
Severe Behavior Disorder <i>Severo déficit conductual</i>	67.9%
Severe Physical Impairment/Disability <i>Severa discapacidad física/motora</i>	64.8%
Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD) <i>Trastorno del Espectro Autista</i>	61.9%
Severe Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder <i>Severo déficit atencional (AD/HD)</i>	58.1%
Severe Speech Impairment <i>Severo trastorno específico del lenguaje</i>	57.9%
Visual Impairment / Blindness <i>Discapacidad visual / ceguera</i>	54.8%

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Severe Specific Learning Disabilities (in reading and writing) <i>Severas dificultades específicas del aprendizaje (en leer y escribir)</i>	54.2%
Deafness <i>Sordera</i>	51.4%
Severe Intellectual Disability <i>Severa discapacidad intelectual</i>	37.1%

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