



Universidade do Minho
Instituto de Educação

Sisamout Saenbouttaraj

**Inclusion of Students with Special
Education Needs: A Quantitative Study
Regarding Lao Secondary Regular
Teachers' Perceptions**



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Master Dissertation in Special Education
Specialization in Specific Learning Disabilities

Under the Supervision of
Assistant Professor Dr. Ana Paula Loução Martins
Assistant Professor Dr. Anabela Cruz Santos

June 2012

É AUTORIZADA A REPRODUÇÃO INTEGRAL DESTA DISSERTAÇÃO APENAS PARA EFEITOS DE INVESTIGAÇÃO, MEDIANTE DECLARAÇÃO ESCRITA DO INTERESSADO, QUE A TAL SE COMPROMETE;

Universidade do Minho, ___/___/_____

Assinatura: _____

OUTLINE OF THE DISSERTATION

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ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

I am indebted to the people whom I will mention below. Without these resourceful and helpful people, my dissertation may not have been accomplished fruitfully. I will never forget their kindness in supporting me to pursue the academic improvement as well as accomplish my research.

I would like to express my deepest gratitude and sincere thanks to my supervisors, Assistant Professor Dr. Ana Paula Loução Martins and Assistant Professor Dr. Anabela Cruz Santos, for their kind assistance in terms of statistical lessons, patient support, valuable suggestions, and expert guidance throughout all stages of this project. Without their greatest kindness, care, and great patience throughout the period of dissertation writing, I would not have accomplished writing my fruitful dissertation.

I owe a debt of gratitude to EUROPEAN COMMISSION for the grant of my scholarship through Erasmus Mundus External Cooperation Window (EM EuroAsia). Without their financial support, I would not have an opportunity to upgrade my academic expertise to the higher level like this time.

I should also like to express my gratitude and special thanks to the Head of International Relation Office, the staff in International Relation Office, Dean of Institute of Education, and administrative staff in Institute of Education, the University of Minho, for providing me accommodation when I first arrived in Braga and educational facilities during my study in the University of Minho, Braga, Portugal.

I would also like to extend my sincere thanks to the President of the National University of Laos (NUOL), Head of Academic Affairs of NUOL, Dean of Faculty of Letters, and Head of English Department in DongDok Campus for their permission and good

co-operation in this study. Without their helpful co-operation, this research would not have had a fruitful ending.

I would also like to extend my sincere gratitude and appreciation to principals and teachers of Tanmixay, Sathid, Donenoun, Vientiane, Phiawat, and Xaysetha secondary schools in Vientiane Capital, Laos for their permission, co-operation, and willing participation in this study. Without their helpful co-operation, this research would not have had a fruitful result.

My sincere gratitude and special thanks also go to my colleague, Mr. Bounmy Phiphachhavong, for his kindness in collecting data from teachers in six secondary schools in Vientiane Capital, Laos. Without his assistance, I would have had difficulties in doing the research.

Finally, I wish to extend my heartfelt gratitude to my beloved parents, lovely wife, offspring, younger brother and sisters for their support, understanding and care during my study and research in Portugal.

ABSTRACT

The aim of this study was to describe the perceptions of the secondary school teachers regarding the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular schools. Therefore, I have followed quantitative methodology, with data being collected by applying a questionnaire to 90 participants who are Lao secondary school teachers in Vientiane Capital, Laos. The results obtained in this study were presented based on descriptive and inferential statistics, as well as in the form of conclusion and recommendations.

The perceptions of the participants in this study led me to conclude that: 1) Most participants would like students with disabilities to be educated in special schools; 2) Most of the teachers considered that the placement of a student with disability into a regular classroom would be disruptive to students without disabilities; 3) Most of the participants indicated that inclusion in the regular classrooms would have a positive impact on both the academic progress and social progress of the students with disabilities; 4) The participants who lacked background information regarding teaching students with disabilities had negative attitudes toward the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular schools; 5) Female participants had greater positive attitudes to the benefits of the inclusion of students with severe disabilities into regular classes than male participants; 6) The participants teaching in urban schools had positive attitudes toward the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes and to the families of students with disabilities; 7) Teachers with training about teaching students with disabilities had more positive attitudes in relation to the education of students with disabilities into regular classrooms; and 8) Internal consistency reliability computed by means of Cronbach's Alpha for the questionnaire was 0.84.

Key words: Inclusion, students with disabilities, teachers' perceptions.

RESUMO

A finalidade deste estudo consiste em descrever as percepções dos professores do ensino secundário da cidade de Vientiane no Laos sobre a inclusão de alunos com necessidades educativas especiais (NEE) nas escolas regulares. Utilizando uma metodologia quantitativa, os dados foram recolhidos através da aplicação de um questionário, junto de 90 participantes. Os resultados obtidos neste estudo foram apresentados com base na estatística descritiva e inferencial, bem como sob a forma de conclusões e recomendações.

As percepções dos participantes deste estudo permite-me concluir que: 1) A maioria dos participantes considerou que os alunos com NEE devem ser educados em escolas especiais; 2) Para a maioria dos professores a colocação de um aluno com NEE na sala de aula regular é prejudicial para os restantes colegas; 3) A maioria dos participantes indicou que a inclusão na classe regular tem um impacto positivo no progresso académico e social dos alunos com NEE; 4) Os participantes que não tinham informação sobre as NEE tiveram atitudes mais negativas em relação à inclusão de alunos com NEE nas escolas regulares, e 5) Os participantes do género feminino apresentaram atitudes mais positivas do que os do género masculino em relação aos benefícios da inclusão de alunos com NEE severas em classes regulares; 6) Os participantes que ensinavam em escolas urbanas tiveram atitudes mais positivas do que os que ensinam em escolas suburbanas em relação aos benefícios da inclusão para os alunos com NEE e suas famílias; 7) Os professores com formação tiveram uma atitude mais positiva em relação à educação de alunos com NEE na classe regular; e 8) A consistência interna do questionário obtida através do alfa de Cronbach foi de 0.84.

Palavras chave: Inclusão, necessidades educativas especiais, percepções dos professores.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AAC	Argumentative or Alternative Communication
ASL	American Sign Language
cLD	complex Learning Disabilities
ECCD	Early Childhood Care and Development
EFA	Education for All
HIV/AIDS	Human Immunodeficiency Virus/Acquired Immunodeficiency Syndrome
IEP	Individualized Education Programme or Individual Education Plan
IDEA	Individuals with Disabilities Education Act
IQ	Intelligence Quotient
LRE	Least Restrictive Environment
NUOL	National University of Laos
RTI	Response to Intervention
SEN	Special Educational Needs
SLD	Specific Learning Disabilities
SPSS	Statistics Package for Social Sciences
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
US	the United States

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INTRODUCTION

1. Rationale for the Research Study

Inclusion is seen as a philosophy of addressing and responding to the diversity of needs of all learners through increasing participation in learning, cultures and communities, and reducing exclusion within and from education (Booth, 1996). It involves changes and modifications in content, approaches, structures and strategies, with a common vision which covers all children of the appropriate age range and a conviction that it is the responsibility of the regular system to educate all children (UNESCO, 1994). Concurrently, UNESCO (2003) defines inclusive education as follows:

Inclusive education is concerned with providing appropriate responses to the broad spectrum of learning needs in formal and non-formal educational settings. Rather than being a marginal theme on how some learners can be integrated in the mainstream education, inclusive education is an approach that looks into how to transform education systems in order to respond to the diversity of learners. It aims to enable both teachers and learners to feel comfortable with diversity and to see it as a challenge and enrichment in the learning environment, rather than a problem. (p. 7)

The main purpose of inclusive education is to accommodate all school-aged children regardless of their physical, intellectual, social, emotional, linguistic or other conditions. This should include children with disabilities, giftedness, street and working children, children from remote or nomadic populations, children from linguistic, ethnic or cultural minorities and children from disadvantaged or marginalized area or groups. Concurrently, the implementation of inclusive education is intended to eliminate discrimination among school-aged children in regular education environments in order to ensure that all of them deserve equality in terms of educational, social and recreational activities (UNESCO, 1994). Such purpose was pertinent to the definition of education, which the participants in the *World Conference on Education for All* elaborated in Thailand, from 5 to 9 March 1990. According to this definition, “education is the fundamental right for all people, women and men, of all

ages, throughout our world” (UNESCO, 1990, p. 6). In order to respond to such fundamental right for all people, the second of the six goals of the “Darka Frame Work of Action, Education for All”, ensures that “by 2015 all children, particularly girls, children in difficult circumstances and those belonging to ethnic minorities, have access to and complete free and compulsory primary education of good quality” (UNESCO, 2000, p. 15).

Along with aforementioned universal educational consensus, Lao Ministry of Education is implementing its “National Education for All Action Plan 2003-2015” which was approved by the Government’s Cabinet Meeting on 30 December 2004 and enforced from 24 March 2005 onwards in order to meet the six goals of Darka Frame Work of Action, Education for All. The “National EFA Action Plan” contains the Government’s policy and strategic framework for action for basic education which covers development targets and programmes for six basic education sub-sectors, including Early Childhood Care and Development (ECCD), Primary Education, Lower Secondary Education, Youth and Adult Literacy, Skills Development Programme for Disadvantaged Groups, as well as cross-cutting themes such as gender, inclusive education and special programmes for children with special needs and socio-economically difficulties children, school health and HIV/AIDS prevention (Lao Ministry of Education, 2005). The National EFA Action Plan integrates the goals and targets of the “National Growth and Poverty Eradication Strategy” in order to achieve the “Millennium Development Goals of the United Nations Organization” up to 2015.

Of six basic education sub-sectors, inclusive education and special programmes for children with special needs are the essential components of Education for All Action Plan of the Lao government. Consequently, children’s or students’ education with disabilities should be developed along with average children in regular education settings. In addition, teachers of students with disabilities have to be trained and equipped with specific expertise in order to meet such needs of students. Therefore, it is relevant and important to explore the regular

teachers' perceptions in the field of inclusive education in order to achieve Education for All Action Plan of the Lao government by 2015.

Consequently, the context of the inclusion of students with disabilities in regular classrooms with their normal peers has raised my interest to conduct a study regarding Lao secondary regular teachers' perceptions in terms of inclusion of students with disabilities in order to investigate the teachers' perceptions in such field. Furthermore, my interest to conduct such study responds to the National Plan of Action for Education for All 2003-2015 of Lao government, which is being implemented.

2. Research Purpose and Goals

The purpose of this study is to explore teachers' perceptions in terms of inclusion of students with disabilities in regular classrooms in Secondary schools in Vientiane Capital, Laos, in order to provide the necessary baseline information for the implementation and development of inclusive education in regular education settings in the future. In order to achieve such goal, the following goals were investigated:

1. To describe the perceptions and beliefs of regular teachers regarding the least restrictive environment, the benefits and the impact of inclusion of students in regular schools and in the community;
2. To identify statistically significance among the independent variables regarding each question, and each cluster of questions;
3. To analyze the dimensions of the questionnaire;
4. To find Reliability coefficient for the questionnaire.

3. Relevance of the Study

This study intends to make contributions towards the development of the teacher training for students with disabilities in inclusive schools, which is one of the development targets in basic education in order to support “National Education for All Action Plan 2003-2015” of the Lao government. In addition, this study can contribute for the implementation of inclusive education in the regular schools by means of raising regular teachers’ awareness, as well as parents, and school directors for inclusive education. The teachers’ perception in terms of the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular education classrooms will be an important driving force for the implementation of inclusive education in order to respond to the “National Education for All Action Plan 2003-2015” of the Lao government.

The teachers’ proper awareness of the philosophy of inclusion of students with disabilities in regular education settings may lead to the development of an education system that meets all needs of diverse students. Moreover, if the secondary teachers are well aware of the importance of the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular education classrooms, there will be the need for professional trainings in terms of the inclusive education in order to meet the needs of Education for All as well as compulsory education in Laos as a whole. This may be a useful step in order for an appropriate inclusive education. It is believed that this study has an important role to play in supporting the inclusive education in Laos in order to support the “National Education for All Action Plan 2003-2015” of the government.

4. Organization of the Dissertation

This dissertation is organized in five chapters. After the introduction, in the first chapter, an extensive review of the literature is presented in which all relevant themes regarding the foundation for the education of students with special educational needs,

students with special needs, the teachers' roles in education of students with special educational needs, and multidisciplinary team collaboration. The second chapter reviews inclusive secondary schools, definition of inclusive education, the reasons why to include students with special educational needs in regular schools or general education, components of successful inclusion, advantages of inclusion, disadvantages of inclusion, and summary of the related research with regard to teachers' perception towards inclusion of students with disabilities are gathered and explored in order to garner the research questions.

The third chapter describes a critical account of the quantitative research as well as characteristics of a survey research, outlines a crucial component of the research design, along with the description of participants, and the instrument of data collection. In addition, procedures of data collection, and procedures of data analysis are explained in this chapter.

The fourth chapter presents the results regarding the perceptions of the secondary teachers in the urban and sub-urban areas of Vientiane Capital. Ultimately, chapter five concludes results of the research and suggests avenues for related future research.

CHAPTER I

**THE FOUNDATION FOR THE EDUCATION OF STUDENTS WITH SPECIAL
EDUCATIONAL NEEDS**

Education is related to social and personal development as well as intellectual progress (Farrell, 2010) that every citizen of individual countries of the globe has to obtain. According to UNESCO (1990), “education is a fundamental right for all people, women and men, of all ages, throughout the world” (p. 2). Since education is a fundamental right, students or children should not be excluded from general education systems regardless of their personal characteristics, socio-economic status, or special needs. Consequently, individuals with disabilities should be included in general education settings along with their normal peers, and not be segregated from the general education environment to study in special schools. In addition, they should not be discriminated due to their disabilities. Hence, both individuals with and without disabilities should be educated in the same environment, that is, inclusive education classrooms (UNESCO, 1994).

1. Students with Special Needs

Exceptional learners who are also regarded as students with special educational needs (SEN) are children who experience difficulties in learning as well as those children whose performance is so superior that modifications in curriculum and instruction are necessary in helping them fulfill their potential. Consequently, the term “exceptional children” is an inclusive one, which refers to children with learning, communication, and/or behaviour problems, children with physical disabilities or sensory impairments, and children who are intellectually gifted or have a special talent (Heward, 2003). See Figure 1 for a better understanding of these concepts.

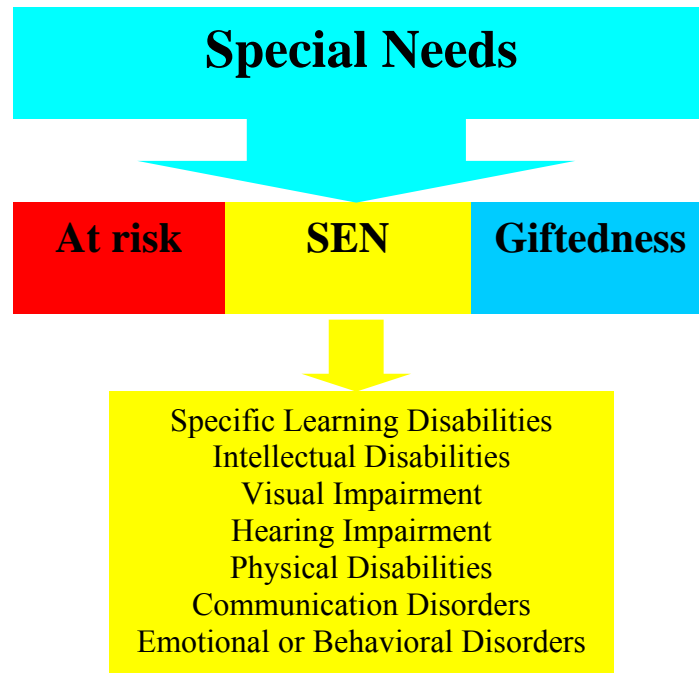


Figure 1. Special Needs (Exceptional Children).

The term “students with disabilities” is more restrictive than exceptional children since it does not include gifted and talented children. In addition, Hallahan and Kauffman (2003) define exceptional children and youths as

those who require special education and related services if they are to realize their full human potential. They require special education because they are markedly different from most children in one or more of the following ways: These students may have intellectual disability, specific learning disabilities, emotional or behavioural disorders, physical disabilities, disorders of communication, autism, traumatic brain injury, impaired hearing, impaired sight, or special gifts or talents. (p. 8)

Vaidya (2005) states that special needs are thought to occur as a result of a learning disability, emotional, or social needs, often associated with a learning disability. Students with special needs may also be those who are gifted learners as well as gifted learners with learning difficulties. Concurrently, students are said to have special needs when they have difficulties which prevent them from making normal progress in school. Many different types

of difficulties can do so, including learning problems, emotional and behavioural difficulties, and physical problems of various types. The education of students with special needs often involves resources and expertise which would not be part of the range of normal (Long, 2000).

In addition, with regard to students with special educational needs (SEN), the concept “special educational needs” or SEN which has been introduced in Section 312 of Chapter ONE entitled “CHILDREN WITH SPECIAL EDUCATIONAL NEEDS” of England’s Education Act (1996) has been stipulated as follows:

- (1) A child has “special educational needs” if he or she has a learning difficulty which calls for special educational provision to be made for him or her.
- (2) A child has a “learning difficulty” if (a) he or she has a significantly greater difficulty in learning than the majority of children of his or her age, (b) he or she has a disability which either prevents or hinders him or her from making use of educational facilities of a kind generally provided for children of his or her age in schools within the area of the local education authority, or (c) he or she is under compulsory school age and fall within the definition at paragraph (a) and (b) above, or would do so if special educational provision were not made for him or her.

With regard to SEN categories, Garner (2009) states that “current practice, enshrined in the 2001Code, refers to just four categories or groupings of SEN. These relate to (i) communication and interaction, (ii) cognition and learning, (iii) behaviour, emotional and social development and (iv) sensory and/or physical needs” (p. 41).

In order to understand more clearly regarding students with disabilities, each category of disabilities is defined individually: (1) specific learning disabilities (SLD), (2) visual impairment, (3) hearing impairment, (4) intellectual disabilities, (5) physical disabilities, (6) communication disorders, and (7) emotional or behavioural disorders.

(1) In terms of specific learning disability (SLD), the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act or IDEA (2004) defines the term “specific learning disability” as follows:

- A. IN GENERAL—The term “specific learning disability” means a disorder in one or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or in using language, spoken or written, which disorder may

manifest itself in imperfect ability to listen, think, speak, read, write, spell, or do mathematical calculations.

B. DISORDERS INCLUDED—Such term includes such conditions as perceptual disabilities, brain injury, minimal brain dysfunction, dyslexia, and developmental aphasia.

C. DISORDERS NOT INCLUDED—Such term does not include a learning problem that is primarily the result of visual, hearing, or motor disabilities, of mental retardation, of emotional disturbance, or of environmental, cultural, or economic disadvantage. (IDEA, § 602 (30)(A), 2004)

(2) With regard to visual impairment, Hallahan and Kauffman (1997) define individuals with visual impairment as “those who can read print, even if they need magnifying devices or large-print books, as having low vision”(p. 356). Concurrently, Corn and Koenig (1996, as cited in Hallahan & Kauffman, 2006, p. 361) define an individual with a low vision as “someone who has difficulty accomplishing visual tasks, even with prescribed corrective lenses, but who can enhance his or her ability to accomplish these tasks with the use of compensatory visual strategies, low vision or other devices, and environmental modifications.”

(3) In the field of hearing impairment, Brill, MacNeil, and Newman (1986, as cited in Hallahan & Kauffman, 1997, p. 312) define hearing impairment as “generic term indicating a hearing disability that may range in severity from mild to profound; it indicates the subsets of *deaf* and *hard of hearing*.” Concurrently,

A deaf person is one whose hearing disability precludes successful processing of linguistic information through audition, with or without a hearing aid. And a person who is hard of hearing generally, with the use of a hearing aid, has residual hearing sufficient to enable successful processing of linguistic information through audition”(Brill, MacNeil, & Newman, 1986, p. 67, as cited in Hallahan & Kauffman, 1997, p. 312).

(4) The American Association on Intellectual and Developmental Disabilities (AAIDD) defines intellectual disability/mental retardation as follows:

Intellectual disability is a disability characterized by significant limitations both in intellectual functioning and in adaptive behaviour, which covers many everyday social and practical skills. This disability originates before the age of eighteen.

Intellectual functioning – also called intelligence – refers to general mental capacity, such as learning, reasoning, problem solving, and so on. One criterion to measure intellectual functioning is an IQ test. Generally, an IQ test score of around 70 or as high as 75 indicates a limitation in intellectual functioning.

Standardized tests can also determine limitations in adaptive behaviour, which comprises three skill types:

- Conceptual skills – language and literacy; money, time, and number concepts; and self-direction.
- Social skills – interpersonal skills, social responsibility, self-esteem, gullibility, naivete (i.e., wariness), social problem solving, and the ability to follow rules/obey laws and to avoid being victimized.
- Practical skills – activities of daily living (personal care), occupational skills, healthcare, travel/transportation, schedules/routines, safety, use of money, use of the telephone. (2010, ¶ 2)

(5) According to Smith, Polloway, Patton, and Dowdy (1995), “physical disability refers to a condition that affects the structure or functioning of an individual’s body; health impairment refers to a condition in which the body’s physical well-being is affected, requiring some form of ongoing medical attention” (p. 218). Concurrently, children who have physical disabilities or other health impairments might also have other disabilities of any type or special gifts or talents. Hence, the characteristics of children with physical disabilities are extremely varied. The child’s physical condition is the proper concern of the medical profession; however, when physical problems have obvious implications for education, teaching specialists are needed (Hallahan & Kauffman, 2006). The following are types of physical disabilities: Cerebral palsy, muscular dystrophy, spinal cord injuries, diabetes, asthma, and cystic fibrosis (Heward, 2003).

(6) We can not live with one another on the earth without communication which is a natural part of our everyday lives. Social conversation with families, friends, and casual acquaintances is normally so effortless and pleasant that it is hard to imagine having difficulty with it (Hallahan & Kauffman, 1997). During social conversations, understanding and meaningful interactions are highly important. However, there might be misunderstanding

and confusion between people with and without disabilities during their interactions because of communication disorders.

In the field of communications disorders, a communication disorder is described when problems that may involve language or speech or both occur (Paul, 2001).

Speech and language are tools utilized for communication. Without speech and language, human communication could be very difficult. In terms of communication, Hallahan, Lloyd, Kauffman, Weiss and Martinez (2005) define communication as “the process of encoding, transmitting, and decoding language, which participants use to exchange information, ideas, needs, and desires. Communication requires language.” (p. 328)

In terms of language, Owens (2001, as cited in Hallahan, et al., 2005) defines language as “a socially shared code or conventional system for representing concepts through the use of arbitrary symbols and rule-governed combinations of those symbols” (p. 328). Concurrently, speech plays an important role in human communication. Hallahan, et al. (2005) defines speech as “the physical production of sounds for communication” (p. 328). Some languages, however, are not based on speech. According to Hallahan and Kauffman (2006), “for example, American Sign Language (ASL) does not involve speech sounds; it is a manual language used by many people who can not hear speech. Argumentative or alternative communication (AAC) for people with disabilities involving the physical movements of speech may consist of alternatives to the speech sounds of oral language” (p. 288).

Hallahan and Kauffman (2003) define speech and language disorders as follows:

Speech disorders are impairments in the production and use of oral language. They include disabilities in making speech sounds (articulation), producing speech with a normal flow (fluency), and producing voice. Language disorders include problems in comprehending and using language for communication, regardless of the symbol system used (spoken, written, or other). The *form*, *content*, and/or *function* of language may be involved:

- The form of language includes sound combinations (phonology), construction of word forms such as plurals and verb tenses (morphology), and construction of sentences (syntax).
- The content of language refers to the intentions and meanings people attach to words and sentences (semantics).
- Language function is the use to which language is put in communication, and it includes nonverbal behaviour as well as vocalizations that form the pattern of language use (pragmatics). (p. 266)

(7) With regard to emotional or behavioral disorders, in the federal rules and regulations governing the implementation of IDEA as cited in Hallahan and Kauffman (2003), the term *emotionally disturbed* has been defined as follows:

- (i) The term means a condition exhibiting one or more of the following characteristics over a long period of time and to a marked extent, which adversely affects educational performance:
 - (A) An ability to learn that can not be explained by intellectual, sensory, or health factors;
 - (B) An inability to build or maintain satisfactory relationships with peers and teachers;
 - (C) Inappropriate types of behaviour or feelings under normal circumstances;
 - (D) A general pervasive mood of unhappiness or depression; or
 - (E) A tendency to develop physical symptoms or fears associated with personal or school problems.
- (ii) The term includes children who are schizophrenic. The term does not include children who are socially maladjusted unless it is determined that they are emotionally disturbed. (p. 226)

The literature which has been viewed above is related to students with special needs. Such students should be included into the same classrooms with their normal peers under the regular education curriculum.

2. Prevalence of Special Needs

Estimates of the number of students with special needs vary considerably. Such factors as differences in definition, populations studied, and accuracy of testing contribute to the varying figures. It is sometimes difficult to identify the prevalence of disabilities as well – learning disabilities, visual impairment, hearing impairment, mental retardation, physical

disabilities, communication disorders, and emotional/behavioural disorders (Hallahan & Kauffman, 1997).

With regard to the prevalence of learning disabilities, Hallahan and Kauffman (2003) indicate that, according to figures kept by the U.S. government, the public schools have identified between 5 and 6 percent of students from 6 to 17 years of age. Learning disabilities is by far the largest category of special education. More than half of all students identified by the public schools as needing special education are learning disabled. The size of the learning disabilities category has more than doubled since 1976-1977, when prevalence figures first started being kept by the federal government.

Concurrently, the US federal government classify about 0.05 percent of the population ranging from 6 to 17 years of age as “visually impaired,” (those who are blind or who have low vision.) This visual impairment is one of the least prevalent disabilities in children (Hallahan & Kauffman, 2006).

Like the prevalence of other disabilities, “estimates of the number of children with hearing impairment vary considerably. Such factors as differences in definition, populations studied, and accuracy of testing contribute to the varying figures. The U.S. Department of Education’s statistics indicate that the public schools identify about 0.13 percent of the population from 6 to 17 years of age as deaf or hard of hearing” (Hallahan & Kauffman, 2006, p. 323).

In terms of intellectual disabilities, Hallahan and Kauffman (2003) indicate that the actual prevalence figures for students identified with this disability are much lower. In recent years they have been somewhere around 1 to 1.5 percent. Authorities surmise that this lower prevalence figure is due to school personnel considering adaptive behaviour or a broader definition of intelligence in addition to an IQ score to diagnose intellectual disabilities.

However, with regard to physical disabilities, roughly 300,000 students in U.S. public schools are being served under two special education categories related to physical disabilities. About 75,000 of these have orthopedic disabilities, and about 225,000 have other health problems. This does not include students with traumatic brain injury or multiple disabilities or young children who are said to have a developmental delay (Hallahan & Kauffman, 2006, p. 468).

In addition, the prevalence of communication disorders is difficult to identify. Hallahan and Kauffman (2006) articulate such prevalence as follows:

Establishing the prevalence of communication disorders is difficult because they are extremely varied, sometimes difficult to identify, and often occur as part of other disabilities (e.g., mental retardation, brain injury, learning disability, or autism). However, it is probably reasonable to estimate that about 10 to 15 percent of preschool children and about 6 percent of students in elementary and secondary grades have speech disorders; about 2 to 3 percent of preschoolers and about 1 percent of the school-age population have language disorders. Communication disorders of all kinds are predicted to increase during the coming decades, as medical advances preserve the lives of more children and youths with severe disabilities that affect communication. Therefore, there is a need for more speech-language pathologists in the schools as well as for greater knowledge of communication disorders by special and general education teachers and greater involvement of teachers in helping students learn to communicate effectively. (p. 289)

In terms of the prevalence of emotional/behavioural disorders, Hallahan and Kauffman (2006) maintain that estimate of the prevalence of emotional or behavioural disorders in children and youths have varied tremendously because there has been no standard and reliable definition or screening instrument. For decades, the federal government estimated that 2 percent of the school-age population was emotionally disabled. However, the government's estimate was extremely conservative. Credible studies in the United States and many other countries have considerably indicated that at least 6 to 10 percent of children and youths of school-age exhibit serious and persistent emotional/behavioural problems.

However, only about 1 percent of school children in the United States are identified emotionally disturbed for special education purpose.

3. Concepts of Special Education and Related Services

Special education was established to help educate students with special educational needs along with related services. Without related services, special education can not be implemented. In terms of special education, IDEA defines it as “specially designed instruction, at no cost to the parents, to meet the unique needs of a child with a disability” (IDEA, § 602 (29), 2004). Special education involves “special instruction designed to address special problems in teaching and learning. The special problems may have to do with a wide variety of disabilities, including physical, sensory, cognitive, speech and language, emotional/behavioral, or academic problems or combinations of all of these” (Hallahan et al. ,2005, p. 66). Concurrently, Hallahan and Kauffman (1997) define special education as

specially designed instruction that meets the unusual needs of an exceptional student. Special materials, teaching techniques, or equipment and/or facilities may be required. For example, students with visual impairments may require reading materials in large print or Braille; students with hearing impairments may require hearing aids and/or instruction in sign language; those with physical disabilities may need special equipment; those with emotional or behavioural disorders may need smaller and more highly structured classes; and students with special gifts or talents may require access to working professionals. (p.14)

In addition, Heward (2003) defines special education as “individually planned, specialized, intensive, good-directed instruction” (p. 38).

In line with the implementation of special education, related services play vital roles in supporting students with special educational needs. Related services are concerned with special transportation, psychological assessment, physical and occupational therapy, medical treatment, and counseling. Such services may be necessary if special education is to be effective. The single most important goal of special education is to find and capitalize on

exceptional students' abilities (Hallahan & Kauffman, 2003). Other educators define related services as

those services necessary to allow a student to benefit from special education. These must be provided as needed for all students who receive special education. For example, transportation to and from the location at which special education is offered is a related service that can not be withheld. Physical and occupational therapies, recreation, speech and language therapy, psychological services, counseling, and medical diagnostic services may also be related services. Special education must be delivered in such a way that related services are made available at no cost to the students' parents. (Hallahan et al., 2005, p. 69).

Concurrently, IDEA provides a general description of related services:

The term "related services" means transportation, and such developmental, corrective, and other supportive services (including speech-language pathology and audiology services, psychological services, physical and occupational therapy, recreation, including therapeutic recreation, social work services, counseling services, including rehabilitation counseling, orientation and mobility services, and medical services, except that such medical services shall be for diagnostic and evaluation purposes only) as may be required to assist a child with a disability to benefit from special education, and includes the early identification and assessment of disabling conditions in children. (IDEA, U.S.C. § 602 (26)(A), 2004)

In addition, in terms of related services, Friend and Bursick (2012) articulate that:

Related services refer to all the supports students may need in order to benefit from special education. Examples of related services are speech therapy, transportation, physical and occupational therapy, adapted physical education, counseling, psychological services, and social work. A student's need to ride a special bus equipped with a wheelchair lift is a related service, as is a student's need for assistance with personal care such as toileting (p.57).

Along with the development of special education, it is imperative that educators, teaching staff, and other educational stakeholders should be well aware regarding such related services which are implemented in educational settings in order to help students with special needs. In order to be well aware of what related services are, each type of the related services is defined individually: (1) audiology, (2) counseling services, (3) early

identification and assessment, (4) medical services, (5) occupational therapy, (6) orientation and mobility services, (7) parenting counseling and training, (8) physical therapy, (9) psychological services, (10) recreation, (11) rehabilitative counseling services, (12) school health services, (13) social work services in the schools, (14) speech pathology, (15) transportation, and (16) assistive technology devices and services.

(1) The first related service is audiology. IDEA defines audiology as a service which includes

(i) Identifying children with hearing loss; (ii) Determining the range, nature, and degree of hearing loss; (iii) Providing habilitative activities, such as auditory training, speech reading, hearing evaluation, and speech conservation; (iv) Creating and administering programmes for prevention of hearing loss; (v) Counseling and guidance of pupils, parents, and teachers, regarding hearing loss; and (vi) Determining the child's need for group and individual amplification, selecting and fitting an appropriate hearing aid, and evaluating the effectiveness of amplification. (IDEA, § 300.34 (C) (1), 2004)

(2) IDEA defines counseling services as “the services provided by qualified social workers, psychologists, guidance counselors, or other qualified personnel” (IDEA, § 300.34 (C) (2), 2004).

(3) Early identification and assessment is considered an integral part of the related services in education settings. IDEA defines the early identification and assessment as “the implementation of a formal plan for identifying a disability as early as possible in a child's life” (IDEA, § 300.34 (C) (3), 2004).

(4) Medical services are also important where special education is implemented from which students with disabilities may need to benefit. In terms of medical services, IDEA defines medical services as “the services provided by a licensed physician to determine a child's medically related disability that results in the child's need for special education and related services” (IDEA, § 300.34 (C) (5), 2004).

(5) Occupational therapy plays an important role along with other related services from which students with disabilities may need to benefit. IDEA defines occupational therapy as a service which includes “(i) Improving, developing, or restoring functions impaired or lost through illness, injury, or deprivation; (ii) Improving ability to perform tasks for independent functioning when functions are impaired or lost; and (iii) Preventing, through early intervention, initial or further impairment or loss of function” (IDEA, § 300.34 (C) (6), 2004).

(6) Orientation and mobility services are essential for students with disabilities in special education settings. IDEA defines orientation and mobility services as “the services provided to blind or visually impaired children by qualified personnel to enable those students to attain systematic orientation to and safe movement within their environments in school, home, and community” (IDEA, § 300.34 (C) (7), 2004).

(7) Parent counseling and training play key roles in enabling parents of students with disabilities to be aware of their child’s special needs and motivating them to involve actively in their child’s education. In terms of parent counseling and training, IDEA (as cited in Heward, 2000) defines parent counseling and training as “the services for the purpose of assisting parents in understanding the special needs of their child and providing parents with information about child development” (p. 20).

(8) IDEA defines physical therapy as “services provided by a qualified physical therapist” (IDEA, § 300.34 (C) (6), 2004).

(9) Psychological services are very crucial to implement along with other types of services in special education settings from which students with disabilities may benefit. IDEA defines psychological services which include

- (i) Administering psychological and educational tests, and other assessment procedures;
- (ii) Interpreting assessment results;
- (iii) Obtaining, integrating, and interpreting information about child behaviour and conditions relating to learning;
- (iv) Consulting with other staff members in

planning school programmes to meet the special needs of children as indicated by psychological tests, interviews, and behavioural evaluations; (v) Planning and managing a programme of psychological services, including psychological counseling for children and parents; and (vi) Assisting in developing positive behavioral intervention strategies. (IDEA, § 300.34 (C) (10), 2004)

(10) IDEA defines recreation as a service which includes “(i) Assessment of leisure function; (ii) Therapeutic recreation services; (iii) Recreation programmes in schools and community agencies; and (iv) Leisure education” (IDEA, § 300.34 (C) (10), 2004).

(11) Rehabilitative counseling services are critical as other types of related services form which students with disabilities may need to benefit. IDEA (as cited in Heward, 2000) defines rehabilitative services as “ the services provided by qualified personnel in individual or group sessions that focus specifically on career development, employment preparation, achieving independence, and integration in the work place and community” (p. 21).

(12) IDEA defines school health services as “the services provided by a qualified school nurse or other qualified person” (IDEA, § 300.34 (C) (13), 2004).

(13) School work services in the schools are as very important for students with disabilities as other related services in special education settings. IDEA defines school work services in the schools as the services including

(i) Preparing a social or developmental history on a child with a disability; (ii) Group and individual counseling with the child and family; (iii) Working with those problems in a child’s living situation (home, school, and community) that affect the child’s adjustment in school; (iv) Mobilizing school and community resources to enable the child to team as effectively as possible; and (v) Assisting in developing positive behavioral intervention strategies. (IDEA, § 300.34 (C) (14), 2004)

(14) IDEA defines speech pathology as a service which includes

(i) Identification of children with speech or language impairments; (ii) Diagnosis and appraisal; (iii) Referral for medical or other professional attention; (iv) Provision of speech and language services for the habilitation and prevention of communicative problems; and (v) Counseling and guidance of parents, children, and teachers regarding speech and language impairments. (IDEA, § 300.34 (C) (15), 2004)

(15) IDEA defines transportation as a service consisting of “(i) Travel to and from school and between schools; (ii) Travel in and around school buildings; and (3) Specialized equipment (such as special or adapted buses, lifts, and ramps), if required to provide special transportation for a child with a disability” (IDEA, § 300.34 (C) (16), 2004).

(16) In relation to assistive technology devices and services, according to IDEA, “the term ‘assistive technology device’ means any item, piece of equipment, or product system, whether acquired commercially off the shelf, modified, or customized, that is used to increase, maintain, or improve functional capabilities of a child with a disability. The term ‘assistive technology service’ means any service that directly assists a child with a disability in the selection, acquisition, or use of an assistive technology device” (IDEA, § 602 (1) (A) & (2), 2004).

4. Teachers’ Roles in the Education of Students with Special Educational Needs

Regular and special education teachers play important roles in the implementation of inclusive education. They work collaboratively in inclusive education settings in order to help students with special educational needs. It has been noted that most students in public schools who have been identified as exceptional are placed in regular classrooms for at least part of the school day. Moreover, there is good reason to believe that a large number of public school students not identified as disabled or gifted share many of the characteristics of those who are exceptional. Hence, both regular and special education teachers must apparently be prepared to deal with exceptional students (Hallahan & Kauffman, 1997).

In relation to the collaboration with other professionals in identifying making maximum use of exceptional students’ abilities, Hallahan and Kauffman (2006) state that

General and special education teachers are expected to share responsibility for educating students with special needs. In addition, teachers might need to collaborate with other professionals, depending on the given students’ exceptionality. Psychologists, counselors, physicians, physical therapists,

and a variety of other specialists might need teachers' perspectives on students' abilities and disabilities, and they often rely on teachers to implement critical aspects of evaluation or treatment (p. 22).

The collaborative model of cooperative teaching (co-teaching) is the symbol of instructional cooperation among educators in the inclusive education settings. Hallahan and Kauffman (1997) state that apart from individual roles of both regular and special education teachers, they have to work collaboratively in terms of collaborative consultation and cooperative teaching. In terms of cooperative teaching, general educators and special educators jointly teach in the same general education classroom which is composed of students with and without disabilities. However, according to Hallahan and Kauffman (1997),

Cooperative teaching can vary with regard to who has the primary instructional responsibility in the classroom: the general educator, the special educator, or both. In some arrangements, the general educator assumes primary responsibility for instruction of academic content, while the special educator teaches academic survival skills, such as note taking and organizing homework assignments. This form of cooperative teaching is popular at the secondary level because it is difficult for special educators to have expertise in all content areas (e.g., history, biology, chemistry, Spanish, French, and so forth) (p. 68).

Concurrently, both general education classroom teachers and special educators who have completed specialized training programmes in presentation for their work with students with special needs provide the instruction that is the heart of each child's individualized programme of education. In the reality, not only special educators but also many other professionals (e.g., school psychologists, speech language pathologists, physical therapists, counselors) who help provide the educational and related services that exceptional children need work with regular classroom teachers. This interdisciplinary team of professionals who work together with parents and families bears the primary responsibility for assisting exceptional children learn despite their differences and special needs (Heward, 2003).

Whenever a student with a significant disability is integrated into the class, the services of a special education teacher will be provided for at least a few hours each week.

Initially, it is expected that the special education teacher might work directly with the student, but gradually move toward providing more support to the regular education teacher by assisting with modifications to curriculum content, developing alternative resources and setting up student-support networks in the class. Special education teachers play a key role in helping regular teachers to differentiate programme content and teaching approach (Westwood, 2003). In addition, in the field of collaboration, Hallahan and Kauffman (1997) indicate as follows:

Beginning with the most integrated intervention, the regular classroom teacher who is aware of the individual needs of students and skilled at meeting them may be able to acquire appropriate materials, equipment, and/or instructional methods. At this level, the direct services of specialists may not be required – the expertise of the regular teacher may meet the students’ needs. At the next level, the regular classroom teacher may need consultation with a special educator or other professional (e.g., school psychologist) in addition to acquiring the special materials, equipment, or methods. The special educator may instruct the regular teacher, refer the teacher to other resources, or demonstrate the use of materials, equipment, or methods. Going a step further, a special educator may provide itinerant services to the exceptional student and/or the regular classroom teacher. The itinerant teacher establishes a consistent schedule, moving from school to school and visiting classrooms to instruct students individually or in small groups. This teacher provides materials and teaching suggestions for the regular teacher to carry out and consults with the regular teacher about special problems. (p. 14)

Special education teachers play the most important roles in helping students with special educational needs in the inclusive education environments along with regular classroom teachers. In fact, special education teachers may act as the support teachers in the inclusive education settings. In recent years, the role of the support teacher has changed from the direct teaching of students with special needs to supporting regular class teachers as they attempt to include students with disabilities within their classroom programmes. In particular, the support teacher engages much more in collaborative consultation with teachers and assists them with curriculum differentiation (Westwood, 2003). Nonetheless, Owens-Johnson and Hamil (2002) articulate

Special educators also teach in many environments not usually thought of as “school.” An early childhood special educator many spend much of his time teaching parents how to work with their infant or toddler at home. Special education teachers, particularly those who work with students with severe disabilities, are increasingly conducting community-based instruction, helping their students learn and practice functional daily living and job skills in the actual settings where they must be used (as cited in Heward, 2003, p. 36)

Special educators have the responsibility to offer not just good instruction, but also the instruction which is highly individualized, intensive, relentless, urgent, and goal directed (Hallahan & Kauffman, 2006). In addition, according to Hallahan and Kauffman (2006), “special educators are expected to provide for or be expert in:

- (1) Academic instruction of students with learning problems;
- (2) Management of serious behaviour problems;
- (3) Use of technological advances; and
- (4) Special education law” (pp. 22-23).

Both regular and special education teachers have to work collaboratively in order to help students with special needs in inclusive classrooms. “General education teachers and special education teachers must share in the responsibility for education. This shared responsibility requires close communication among all teachers involved with specific students” (Smith, Polloway, Patlon, & Dowdy, 1995, p. 18). According to Hallahan and Kauffman (2006), “all educators are expected to do the following:

- Make maximum effort to accommodate individual students’ needs;
- Evaluate academic abilities and disabilities;
- Refer to for evaluation;
- Participate in eligibility conferences;
- Participate in writing individualized education programmes;
- Communicate with parents or guardians;
- Participate in due process hearings and negotiations;

- Collaborate with other professionals in identifying and making maximum use of exceptional students' abilities" (pp. 19-22).

Along with the significant roles of both regular classroom teachers and special educators, Hallahan and Kauffman (1997) maintain that

The roles of general and special education teachers are not always clear in a give case. Sometimes uncertainty about the division of responsibility can be extremely stressful; for example, teachers may feel uneasy because it is not clear whose job it is to make special educations for a pupil or just what they are expected to do in cooperating with other teachers (p. 18).

Regular educators, whether in core academic areas or related arts, are most likely to work with special educators to ensure that students with disabilities receive the specialized services to which they are entitled. General education teachers are the people who have the most detailed knowledge of the day-to-day needs of students with disabilities in general education classrooms. Their responsibilities span several areas. Friend and Bursick (2012) summarize that general education teachers have responsibilities to:

1. Identify students with learning, behavior, or other needs serious enough to seek input from colleagues;
2. Contribute to discussions of students as a member of an intervention assistance team;
3. Implement strategies and gather data as part of a response to intervention (RTI) procedure;
4. Provide evidence-based day-to-day instruction;
5. Collaborate with colleagues regarding students with disabilities;
6. Participate in writing IEPs as a member of the multidisciplinary team; and
7. Communicate with parents regarding their child's strengths and needs. (p. 33)

Special education teachers are the professionals with whom regular education teachers are most likely to have ongoing contact in teaching students with disabilities, and these professionals have increasingly complex. They are responsible for managing and coordinating the services a student receives, including writing and implementing the individualized education programme (IEP). They typically also provide direct and indirect instruction to students who are assigned to them. In addition, they may consult with general education teachers regarding a student suspected of having a disability and work with general

education teachers in order to determine whether a referral for assessment for possible special education is warranted (Friend & Bursick, 2012).

5. Multidisciplinary Team Collaboration

Multidisciplinary team collaboration plays a key role in the implementation of special education. Without such collaboration, special education might not meet the individual needs of students with disabilities. Therefore, special and general education teachers have to work collaboratively with related services and support personnel in order to meet the unique individual needs of students with disabilities in special education settings since special education is a team game (Heward, 2003).

In order to meet the common goals of special education, special and general education teachers have to work together in team with the support of other related service personnel. This means that collaboration is required. Collaboration has become a common and necessary practice in special education. Teachers who work with students with disabilities and other students who are difficult to teach have discovered they are better able to diagnose and solve learning and behaviour problems in the classroom when they work together. Three ways in which team member can work collaboratively are through coordination, consultation, and teaming (Heward, 2003).

In terms of coordination, Heward (2003) defines coordination as “the simplest form of collaboration, requiring only ongoing communication and cooperation to ensure that services are provided in a timely and systematic fashion” (p. 57). Concurrently, Heward (2003) maintains that, in consultation, team members provide information and expertise to one another. Consultation is traditionally considered unidirectional, with the expert providing assistance and advice to the novice. However, team members can, and often do, switch roles from consultant to consultee and back again.

In addition, in terms of teaming, Heward (2003) states that each step of the special education process involves a group of people – intervention assistance team, child study team, and IEP team – that must work together for the benefit of a child with special needs. These groups must become functioning and effective teams in order for special education to be most effective. Concurrently, teaming is the most difficult level of collaboration to achieve; it also pays the most dividends. Teaming “bridges the two previous modes of working together and builds on their strength while adding the components of reciprocity and sharing of information among all team members through a more equal exchange” (Bigge et al., 1999, p. 13, as cited in Heward, 2003, p. 58).

In practice, there are three team models – multidisciplinary, interdisciplinary, and transdisciplinary teams. In terms of multidisciplinary teams, “multidisciplinary teams are composed of professionals from different disciplines who work independently of one another. Each team member conducts assessments, plans interventions, and delivers services” (Heward, 2003, p. 58). “Interdisciplinary teams are characterized by formal channels of communication between members. Although each professional usually conducts discipline specific assessments, the interdisciplinary team meets to share information and develop intervention plans. Each team member is generally responsible for implementing a portion of the service plan related to his discipline” (Heward, 2003, p. 59). Concurrently, in the field of transdisciplinary teams, Heward (2003) maintains that the highest level of team involvement is the transdisciplinary team, but it is also the most difficult to accomplish. Members of transdisciplinary teams seek to provide services in a uniform and integrated fashion by conducting joint assessments, sharing information and expertise across discipline boundaries, and selecting goals and interventions that are discipline-free. Members of transdisciplinary teams also share roles (often referred to as role release); in contrast, members of multidisciplinary and interdisciplinary teams generally operate in isolation and may not

coordinate their services to achieve the integrated delivery of related services. Regardless of the team model, team members must learn to put aside professional rivalries and work collaboratively for the benefit of the student.

Additionally, consultation, collaboration, and co-teaching involve sharing expertise and concerns, labouring together, and planning and working together as a team to identify students' special needs and implement programmes to facilitate learning and achievement. All three processes – consultation, collaboration, and co-teaching – as they occur in the school context involve interaction among school personnel, families, and students working together to achieve common goals (Dettmer, Dyck, & Thurston, 1999).

Dettmer, et al., (1999) indicate that consultation involves sharing of expertise. In school consultation, the consultant contributes specialized expertise toward an educational problem, and the consultee delivers direct service utilizing that expertise. Consultants and consultee collaborate by assuming equal ownership of the problem and solutions. Collaboration is a way of working in which both power struggles and ineffectual politeness are regarded as detrimental to team goals. Communication, cooperation, and coordination are crucial aspects of effective collaboration. Concurrently, co-teaching is a teamwork which typically creates leaders and followers roles. An individual working with a team feels less alone and vulnerable. This is particularly helpful in circumstances involving change or innovation. Teamwork fuels group spirit, develops process skills that help teachers interact in more productive ways, and fosters a more intellectual atmosphere.

In terms of consultation, Dettmer, et al. (1999) defines collaborative school consultation as “the interaction in which school personnel and families confer, consult, and collaborate as a team to identify learning and behavioural needs, and to plan, implement, evaluate, and revise as needed the educational programmes for serving those needs” (p. 6). Concurrently, “a collaborative school consultant is a facilitator of effective communication,

cooperation, and coordination who confers, consults, and collaborates with other school personnel and families as one of a team for addressing special learning and behavioural needs of students” (p. 6).

Dettmer, et al. (1999) maintains that the role of the consultant in collaborative school consultant is to contribute specialized information toward an educational need. The consultee uses the information and expertise of consultants and other collaborators to provide direct service to the client. All who are involved – consultant(s), consultee, and client – are collaborators working together in a combined effort to address a particular need. Some direct service might be provided by the learning-disabilities consultant to the student, but for the most part the direct service will be given by the classroom teacher.

In addition, with regard to collaborative consultation, Hehallan and Kauffman (2006) define collaborative consultation as “an approach in which a special educator and a general educator collaborate to come up with teaching strategies for a student with disabilities. The relationship between the two professionals is based on the premises of shared responsibility and equal authority” (p. 55). Concurrently, “co-teaching is a special educator working side-by-side with a general educator in a classroom, both teachers providing instruction to the group” (Hallahan & Kauffman, 2006, p. 55).

Overall, all of the aforementioned elements are the most imperative components of trans-disciplinary team collaboration in order to meet the unique individual educational needs of students with disabilities.

CHAPTER II

INCLUSION IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

It is understandable that inclusive schools have been slow to develop at the secondary level. And the lack of existing programmes has led to some controversy regarding just what inclusive programmes at this level should entail. Most educators seem to agree that secondary programme should differ from elementary programmes and that students should not necessarily spend the entire school day in general education classrooms. For example, some students should spend time in community/work settings, while other students should be placed in settings outside the general education classroom where more intensive supports can be provided. Moreover, given the high rate at which students with disabilities are unsuccessful (or fail) in general education classrooms and drop out of school, it seems apparent that general education classrooms must be transferred so that the organization, curriculum, and instruction provided are designed to meet the needs of a diverse group of students (McLeskey & Waldron, 2000).

Inclusive education which is rooted in the concept of human rights and equality has been developed globally. The evidentiary grounds of which, are based on a belief that the inclusion of children and youngsters with special needs in mainstream schools is beneficial for their studies and growth (Nai-Kwai Lo, 2007). In order to meet such rights, students with and without special needs deserve to be educated in the same educational environments, that are, general education classrooms.

In terms of education of students with special needs, Bogdan and Taytor (1998), Rioux and Bach (1994), Luckasson (2002), Gabel and Peters (2004), and Van Loon (2006) articulate the education of students with disabilities in regular schools as below:

Educating students with disabilities in regular schools poses a new challenge to the education field as a whole. One of the challenges has to do with the kind of

supports that are needed to work with a diverse group of children, including children with disabilities, in a regular education environment. A shift from segregated services and schools for children with different categories of impairment, to a social interpretation of disability, implies a shift in professional focus from ‘treatment’, ‘care’ and ‘training’ to ‘support’ for people in their natural environments based on individual needs and choices. (as cited in Mortier, Hove, & Schauwer, 2010, p. 543)

Therefore, this chapter will present subjects related to inclusion in secondary schools, namely, definition of inclusive education, the reasons why to include students with special education needs in regular schools or general education, components of successful inclusion, advantages of inclusion, disadvantages of inclusion, and summary of the research regarding teachers’ perception towards inclusion of students with disabilities.

1. Definition of Inclusive Education

In terms of inclusive education, there are different definitions. Although the definitions of inclusion may be slightly different, the main purpose of inclusion is to serve the benefits of both students with and without special educational needs as a whole.

“Inclusion means integrating students with disabilities in regular classes of schools” (Heward, 2003, p.71). Giangreco (2002) defines inclusive education as “a set of values, principles, and practices that seeks more effective and meaningful education for all students, regardless of whether they have exceptionally labels or not” (cited in Heward, 2003).

Another definition is that inclusion refers to the instruction of students with disabilities in the general education classroom, which ideally should be accomplished with appropriate supports to meet each student’s individual needs. However, according to Heward (2003), “there is no clear consensus in the field regarding the meaning of inclusion. To some, inclusion means full-time placement of all students with disabilities into regular classrooms; to others, the terms refers to any degree of integration into the mainstream” (p. 73). Under the inclusion model, students with special educational needs spend most or all of their time with

students without disabilities. Implementation of these practices varies. Schools most frequently use them for selected students with mild to severe special needs.

An underlying aim for some proponents of inclusion is to restructure the schools to eliminate special education schools, which is viewed as an unnecessary “second system” (Association for Persons With Severe Handicaps, 1995; Villa, Thousand, Meyers, & Nevin, 1996, as cited in Lerner & Johns, 2009, p. 127).

One of the six major principles of IDEA, Least Restrictive Environment (LRE), requires that students with disabilities be educated in settings as close to the regular class as possible in which an appropriate program can be provided and the child can make satisfactory educational progress (Heward, 2003).

The purpose of inclusion is to avoid the segregation between students with and without disabilities and provide students from all walks of life with equal education opportunities. Along with such purpose, “inclusion relates to the principles and processes that are involved in increasing a school’s capacity to respond to pupil diversity and promote greater participation for all pupils” (Booth & Ainscow, 1998; Booth et al., 2000; Swain et al., 2003, cited in Zelaieta, 2004, p. 37). In addition, inclusion means “all students with disabilities – no matter the types or severities of disabilities – attend all classes in general education. In other words, there are no separate special education classes” (Laski, 1991; Sailor; 1991; Stainback & Stainback, 1992, as cited in Hallahan and Kauffman, 1997, p. 50). However, there are a number of difficulties in defining inclusive education. McLaughlin and Jordan (2005) explains that there are a number of difficulties inherent in constructing a cross country analysis of inclusive education as it pertains to students with disabilities, one of which is lack of a commonly accepted definition of what constitutes ‘inclusion’. Along with such difficulties, the USA does not have an official definition of what constitutes ‘inclusion’ (McLaughlin & Jordon, 2005).

Along with the above-mentioned definitions of inclusion, there is another definition of inclusive education defined by UNESCO (2003) which has been cited in Fletcher and Artiles (2005). The definition is defined as:

Inclusive education is concerned with providing appropriate response to the broad spectrum of learning needs in formal and non-formal education settings. Rather than being a marginal theme on how some learners can be integrated in the mainstream education, inclusive education is an approach that looks into how to transform education systems in order to feel comfortable with diversity and to see it as a challenge and enrichment in the learning environment, rather than a problem. (p. 217)

In addition to afore-mentioned definitions, there are some educators defining the inclusive education slightly similar. Barton (1995) and Thomas (1997) define inclusion or inclusive education as “the alteration of the educational environment so that all children can participate and reach full potential; accordingly, all children are valued equally and provided with equal opportunities at school” (as cited in Coutsocostas & Alborz, 2010, p. 149). According to Ruijs, Peetsmab, and Veen (2010), “inclusive education can be defined as educating children with special educational needs (SEN) in regular schools instead of in special schools” (p. 1). Concurrently, inclusive education is concerned with all learners, with a focus on those who have traditionally been excluded from educational opportunities – such as learners with special needs and disabilities, children from ethnic and linguistic minorities, and so forth (UNESCO, 2001, as cited in Thomazet, 2009, p. 556).

The concept and practice of educational inclusion has been driven by a laudable commitment to the rights of all learners to secure the opportunities to enable them to function as equal participants in twenty-first century society. In what concerns the education of students with disabilities, the growth of interest in inclusion has been landmarked by a number of key events in the past ten or so years. Not least amongst these was the Salamanca Statement (1994), which stated that “every child has a fundamental right to education and must be given the opportunity to achieve and maintain acceptable levels of learning”

(UNESCO, 1994, p. viii). So, at the outset, inclusive practice has been predicated by a moral position based on the recognition of individual rights. In the last few years increasing importance has been placed on this principle by national and local governments. A significant number of academics, administrators, politicians, parents and practitioners have come to regard the approach as the single most effective means of “combating discriminatory attitudes, creating welcoming communities, building an inclusive society and achieving education for all” (UNESCO, 1994, p. ix). Furthermore, Smith, et al. (1995) articulates that:

The process of including students with special needs into general education classrooms has been called mainstreaming or inclusion. Inclusion can be defined as the physical, sociological, and instructional inclusion of students with special needs into general education classrooms for the majority of the school day. Inclusion is more than merely physically locating students with special needs in classrooms with their chronological age peers: it requires that they be included with all aspects of the classroom and their educational needs met through services provided within the general education classroom. (p. 13)

With regard to full inclusion, according to Hallahan and Kauffman (2006), “full inclusion means all students with disabilities are placed in their neighbourhood schools in general education classrooms for the entire day; general education teachers have the primary responsibility for students with disabilities” (p. 44). Along with the implementation of full inclusion, some advocates of full inclusion propose the total elimination of special education settings. Others maintain that professionals such as special teachers are still needed but that their main duties should be carried out in general education classrooms (Hallahan & Kauffman, 2006).

Many writers have different ideas about exactly what full inclusion means (Hallahan & Kauffman, 2006). However, in the field of full inclusion, Hallan and Kauffman (2006) define key elements of the most definitions as follows:

- All students with disabilities – regardless of the types or severities of disabilities – attend only classes in general education. In other words, there are no separate special education classes.

- All students with disabilities attend their neighbourhood schools (i.e., the ones they would go to if they had no disabilities).

- General education, not special education, assumes primary responsibility for students with disabilities.

In addition, in terms of full inclusion, Giorcelli (1995, as cited in Knight, 1999, p. 3) outlines the following principles of full inclusion:

- Placement in the neighbourhood school;
- Zero rejection philosophy;
- Age and grade-appropriate placement;
- No special classes or schools;
- Co-operative learning practiced; and
- Special education support given to regular education

In terms of inclusive school, the Center for Studies on Inclusive Education (CSIE, 1996) suggests that an inclusive school contains the following elements:

- It is *community based*: an inclusive school reflects the community as a whole. Membership of the school community is open, positive and diverse. It is not selective, exclusive or rejecting;
- It is *barrier-free*: an inclusive school is accessible to all who become member – physically in terms of the buildings and grounds and educationally in terms;
- It promotes *collaboration*: an inclusive school works with, rather than competitively against, other schools;
- It promotes *equality*: an inclusive school is a democracy where all members have rights and responsibilities, with the same opportunity to benefit from and take part in the education provided by the school both within and beyond its premises. (as cited in Thomas, Walker, & Webb, 1998, pp. 15-16)

Concurrently, according to Idol (1997), “in the inclusive school, all students are educated in general education programs. Inclusion is when a student with special learning and/or behavioral needs is educated full time in the general education program. Essentially,

inclusion means that the student with special education needs is attending the general school program, enrolled in age-appropriate classes 100% of the school day” (as cited in Idol, 2006, p. 77). In addition, several different types of collaborative teaching programmes – consulting teacher services, cooperative teaching in the classroom, supportive resource programmes, and instructional assistants – are utilized in order to support general education teachers who teach special education students. The aim of each of these services is for staff to work collaboratively in the inclusive education setting. Each service is viewed as a significant means of supporting classroom teachers as well. Most importantly, collaboration leads to a re-conceptualization of how special support programmes can best be offered by both general and special education (Idol, 2006).

Concurrently, in terms of inclusive school, according to the broadened definition regarding inclusion which has been adapted from UNESCO (1997; 2000), an inclusive school means:

1. All children attend the same schools and receive instruction in the same classes they would attend if not disabled or educationally disadvantaged.
2. Remedial, special education, and related services are provided within general education settings. Specialists work closely with classroom teachers to support all students and provide adaptations and specialized interventions to ensure successful participation and learning in the general education environment and curriculum.
3. When needed, accommodations are made in the general education curriculum so that all students attain skills appropriate to their chronological age and developmental needs.
4. The curriculum is conceived as promoting social-emotional and developmental growth, as well as providing instruction designed to help students meet age appropriate and grade-level learning standards in all academic areas.
5. All students are held to high expectations, while recognizing the need for individualization.
6. Classrooms are learning communities, in which all students are valued members who support one another.
7. Diversity in culture, language, ability, and student interests are all celebrated and are seen as enriching the educational experiences of all children.
8. Families are active and integral members of the school community. (as cited in Kugelmass, 2004, p. 4)

According to Kugelmass (2004) “in the United Kingdom, inclusive schools are defined as educational institutions designed to promote active participation among all students in the culture and curricula of the school and in their local communities” (p. 3).

Although there are numerous definitions of inclusive education, the main purpose of inclusive education is to educate students with and without special education needs in the same regular classrooms, as it can be understood in this section of this research.

2. The Reasons Why to Include Students with Special Education Needs in Regular Schools or General Education

According to many educators, there are three reasons which would be utilized to include students with significant special educational needs in regular schools as well as in regular classes of those schools:

- (1) To avoid discrimination between students with special education needs and normal Students;
- (2) To help students with special education needs receive equal education opportunities; and
- (3) To narrow the gap between students with special educational needs and those students who do not have these needs.

(1) The first reason is that we need to avoid discrimination between students with special education needs and normal students. Students with significant special education needs should have opportunities to study with students without disabilities in regular classes of general education. They deserve a free, appropriate education in mainstream education as other normal students in individual communities (Heward, 2003). According to the statement by Heads of State, United Nations (2002):

Each girl and boy is born free and equal in dignity and rights; therefore, all forms of discrimination affecting children must end. We will take measures to ensure the full and equal enjoyment of human rights and fundamental freedoms, including equal access to health, education and recreational services, by children with disabilities and children with special needs to ensure the recognition of their dignity; to promote their self-reliance and to facilitate their active participation in the community. (as cited in Mittler, 2005, p. 22)

In terms of discrimination, according to the first principle (**Zero Reject**) of the six major principles of IDEA (1997), “schools must educate all children with disabilities. This principle regardless of the nature or severity of the disability; no child with disabilities may be excluded from a public education” (as cited in Heward, 2003, p. 22). Hence, students with special education needs should not be separated from their normal peers in regular schools.

(2) The second reason is that students with special education needs should have equal education opportunities as their normal peers in regular classrooms of general education. In terms of equal education opportunities, the Salamanca Statement on Special Needs Education (UNESCO, 1994) is considered the universal document which has gone on to exert a powerful influence on education policies across the world. Delegates from 92 and 25 international organizations, meeting under the aegis of UNESCO, adopted the Salamanca Statement on Special Needs Education (UNESCO, 1994) (Artiles & Dyson, 2005). The statement sets out a commitment to inclusive education in ringing tones:

We believe and proclaim that:

- Every child has a fundamental right to education, and must be given the opportunity to achieve and maintain an acceptable level of learning;
- Every child has unique characteristics, interests, abilities and learning needs;
- Education systems should be designed and educational programmes; implemented to take into account the wide diversity of these characteristics and needs;
- Those with special educational needs must have access to regular schools which should accommodate them within a child-centred pedagogy capable of meeting these needs;
- Regular schools with this inclusive orientation are the most effective means of combating discriminatory attitudes, creating welcoming communities, building an inclusive society and achieving education for all; moreover,

they provide an effective education to the majority of children and improve the efficiency and ultimately the cost-effectiveness of the entire education system. (UNESCO, 1994, pp. viii-ix)

Children with special education needs should have a free, appropriate public education. The third principle (**Free, Appropriate Public Education**) of IDEA specifies that “all children with disabilities, regardless of the type or severity of their disability, shall receive a free, appropriate public education. This education must be provided at public expense – that is, without cost to the child’s parents” (as cited in Heward, 2003, p. 22). Consequently, it is the time to reform national education systems, particularly general education, of individual countries in order to serve all children regardless of type or severity of their disabilities, races, religions, cultures and other characteristics.

(3) The ultimate reason is to narrow the gap of academic performance between children or students with and without disabilities in local communities. The fourth principle (**Least Restrictive Environment**) of IDEA mandates that “students with disabilities be educated with children without disabilities to the maximum extent appropriate and that students with disabilities be removed to separate classes or schools only when the nature or severity of their disabilities is such that they can not receive an appropriate education in a general education classroom with supplementary aides and services” (as cited in Heward, 2003, p. 22). Thus, the Least Restrictive Environment (LRE) is the setting that is closest to a regular school and also meets the child’s special needs (Heward, 2003). In the reality, even though some students with disabilities are unlikely to be fully included in regular classrooms of general education, at least they deserve the educational services along with their normal peers appropriately in order to help them accomplish academic tasks in educational settings.

Additionally, we can argue that inclusion of students with special educational needs in general educational settings will bring opportunities for social interaction for all. Students have a tendency to imitate the behaviours of other students in their environments. Being able

to model the behaviours of students without disabilities in general education classrooms is considered a major advantage of inclusion (Smith et al., 1995).

3. Components of Successful Inclusion

Many educators have different principles and viewpoints in terms of successful inclusion. In terms of components of successful inclusion, Hunter (1999) states that there are eight key components for successful inclusive school practices: (1) *establishing vision and commitment*, (2) *valuing and providing professional development*, (3) *making a sustained commitment to planning*, (4) *implementing collaborative practices among school staff, service providers, and families*, (5) *embracing differentiated, flexible instructional approaches*, (6) *providing adequate and responsible support*, (7) *evaluating progress and outcomes frequently and systematically*, and (8) *recognizing change as a process*. Such components will be viewed as follows:

(1) *Establishing vision and commitment*: vision must be articulated to define what is to be achieved through the change process. According to Hunter (1999),

Vision statements provide the values and beliefs that serve as the foundation for making decisions and implementing changes. Vision statements for inclusive schooling models typically include statements affirming a sense of community, full membership for all students, and respect and valuing of diversity and individual differences” (p. 140).

Concurrently, “the term inclusive schooling should be defined clearly and be widely disseminated to avoid misunderstanding among those who will participate in the change process” (Hunter, 1999, p. 140). In addition, the vision statement should have to be supported by the entire school community, such as teachers, administrators, secretaries, custodians, bus drivers, families, and students (Hunter, 1999).

(2) *Valuing and providing professional development*: According to Hunter (1999),

The transition to an inclusive model will require many people to develop new skills. Therefore, another critical component for successful inclusive

schooling is that “cutting-edge” *professional development* is valued and provided. Onetime, isolated in-service sessions will not prepare staff for new roles and responsibilities needed. Consequently, ongoing and sustained training will be needed. Selection of the specific professional development activities should be guided by the vision statement and definition. (p. 141)

(3) *Making a sustained commitment to planning*: Hunter (1999) maintains that a commitment must be made to the planning process over time at several levels since inclusive schooling efforts require systematic planning. Therefore, the type of planning at various stages should be

influenced by several factors including (a) the scope of the vision; (b) how far the system has progressed in the change process; (c) the resources available for planning; (d) the skills, styles, and experience of leaders in the system; and (e) the history of the system when seeking to make changes that alter the system’s deep structure and culture” (Hunter, 1999, p. 142).

(4) *The implementation of collaborative practices among school staff, service providers, and families*: Hunter (1999) mentions that it is very necessary to teach critical collaborative skills to school staff, service providers, and families in order to ensure a collaborative process. Such critical collaborative skills include (a) how to collaborate effectively, (b) how to work as a team, (c) how to solve problems creatively and effectively, (d) how to work effectively with families from diverse backgrounds, and (e) how to negotiate and resolve conflicts. It is said to be needed to develop collaborative relationships with a variety of community service providers such as mental health services, rehabilitation services, public health nursing services, community-based physical or occupational therapists in order to support families and school staff adequately.

(5) *Embracing differentiated, flexible instructional approaches*: Hunter (1999) indicates that the quality of instruction is one of the fears of inclusive schooling which will diminish for other students – students without disabilities. Hence, teachers and administrators

have to ensure that meaningful, dynamic, quality, and flexible instruction is being provided to all students served through inclusive schools.

(6) *Providing adequate and responsible support*: according to Hunter (1999), “another component that is consistently identified with successful inclusive schooling efforts is the planning and presence of adequate and responsible supports. Commitment to responsible support necessitates an active process of determining and offering the supports both students and teachers need to be successful” (p.144).

(7) *Evaluating progress and outcomes frequently and systematically*: Hunter (1999) states:

The evaluation strategy will vary depending on the vision of the system and the types of outcomes the system is interested in measuring, but both formative and summative elements are needed. Examples of questions to be addressed in an evaluation include these:

1. Are goals in the student’s Individual Education Plan (IEP) achieved at the desired rate and level?
2. Are students benefiting from inclusive schooling as measured by achievement levels in core subject areas?
3. What feedback is offered by parents, students, and teachers regarding support for inclusive practices?
4. What is the rate of turnover among teachers?
5. Has the student absenteeism rate changed?
6. Have incidents of handicapism, sexism, and racism in the system decreased or increased?. (p. 145)

(8) *Recognizing change as a process*: Hunter (1999) maintains that multidimensional and dynamic approaches are extremely necessary since significant and lasting improvements and changes are difficult to implement nowadays. According to Hunter (1999) recognition that change is an ongoing process and not a onetime event helps those involved address the inevitable ebb and flow progress and the many day-to-day issues that occur” (p. 146).

According to York and Wycoff (1999), there is another component of a successful inclusion programme as follows:

Another necessary component of a successful inclusion program – specifically, assessing progress – is using measures that are relevant to the curriculum. Without this type of information, decisions can not be made

reliably about the support and adaptations necessary to include students with disabilities. The types of measures described in the study reported here (curriculum-based) as well as other authentic (classroom-based) assessments provide specific information that can lead to information and positive change for student programming. Repeated measures (such as curriculum-based measurement) provide a means of obtaining reliable information on student progress within the curriculum. (p. 328)

Concurrently, Giangreco (1997, as cited in Rose, 2001) has identified what he sees as common features of successful inclusive schools. He describes such common features as:

- Collaborative teamwork;
- A shared framework;
- Family involvement;
- General educator ownership;
- Clear role relationships amongst professionals;
- Effective use of support staff;
- Meaningful Individual Education Plans (IEPs);
- Procedures for evaluating effectiveness.

In terms of successful inclusive components, Westwood (2003) indicates that there are some ingredients if students with significant learning or adjustment problems are to be successfully included in the regular classroom with appropriate access to the general curriculum. These ingredients are the following:

- Strong leadership on the part of the school principal;
- Development of a whole-school policy supportive of inclusion;
- Positive attitudes in staff, parents, and children towards students with disabilities;
- Commitment on the part of all staff to work collaboratively and to share expertise;
- Development of mutual support networks among staff;
- Regular assistance from paraprofessionals (classroom aides);
- Effective links with outside agencies and services;
- Adequate resourcing in terms of materials and personnel;
- Regular training and professional development for staff;
- Close liaison with parents;
- Where possible, parental involvement in a child's educational programme;
- Adaptation of curriculum and teaching methods (differentiation). (pp. 4-5)

Additionally, supportive classroom teachers and administrators are considered to be critical to the successful inclusion of students with disabilities in regular classrooms. Teachers' behaviour, attitudes, and skills, together with peer acceptance of individual

differences are important factors in the successful inclusion of students with disabilities (Knight, 1999).

Apart from the aforementioned components of successful inclusion, Rose and Fishbaugh (1999) state that there is no formula for successful inclusion. Just as there are many models of teaching and many styles of learning, there are many strategies for successfully implementing inclusion. What constitutes effective inclusive practice will vary over students, time, and setting. What is important are a school vision and faculty commitment.

4. Advantages of Inclusion

Generally speaking, inclusion plays important roles in educating children or students with disabilities in regular classrooms of general education. In the inclusive classrooms, students with disabilities can experience social interactions with their normal peers. Inclusion benefits not only students, but also teachers.

The following are the benefits of inclusive education for both students with and without disabilities and teachers.

(1) Benefits for Both Students with and without Disabilities

Inclusive education benefits both students with and without disabilities in terms of learning, such as cooperative learning. It has been found that cooperative learning - involving students with disabilities and normal peers in situations in which they must cooperate with one another – leads to better attitudes on the part of the students without disabilities towards their peers with disabilities as well as to better attitudes of students with abilities toward themselves. In addition, peer tutoring – one student tutoring another – is believed to be beneficial for both categories of students (Hallahan & Kauffman, 1997).

For students with disabilities, it is known that inclusion can lead to social benefits and skill improvements. These benefits mean not being separated from typical peers but sharing class membership; having increased social interactions; gaining positive social relationships; expanding one's peer network and making friends; and having peers who can be models for communication, social skills, dress, style, increased alertness, and improved academic learning and motivation for learning (Heward, 2003).

Regarding academic effects, Cole, Waldron, and Majd (2004) as well as Myklebust (2007) have argued that "inclusion has a positive effect on students with special educational needs (SEN): they might achieve better academic results because they can learn from more their colleagues, and they could become more motivated to achieve, because there might be more focus on academic progress in regular education. However, teachers in regular schools might have less knowledge about teaching children with SEN, which could have an adverse effect on the quality of their education" (as cited in Ruijs, Peetsma, & Veen, 2010, p. 2). Concurrently, students without disabilities demonstrate improvements in attitudes toward people different from themselves, increased social responsibility, and self-confidence. They have an opportunity to expand peer networks and form meaningful relationships with students in the mainstream (Heward, 2003). In addition, Smith, et al. (1995) state that serving students with disabilities in general education classrooms reduces the chances of stigma associated with students who have to leave the classroom for special services. Smith, et al. (1995) maintains that specific advantages of inclusion appear to be increased interactions between students with disabilities and their age-appropriate peers and teachers. Concurrently, Smith, et al. (1995) articulates other advantages of inclusion as follows:

- Less stigma than being pulled out of the classroom to receive instruction in the special education classroom;
- Increased levels of self-esteem;
- Avoidance of the problems often associated with identification and eligibility determination of students for special education;
- Closer interactions among all school personnel in working with all students;

- The dismantling of the artificial dual system of education currently provided in schools. (pp. 82-83)

(2) Benefits for Both Regular Classroom and Special Education Teachers

Inclusion profits both regular classroom and specialist teachers. Specifically, in co-teaching within the same classroom in an inclusive school, the regular classroom teacher learns from the specialist teacher various cognitive and meta-cognitive strategies in promoting student learning. The specialist teacher learns about content instruction and management of the whole class. Thus, inclusion should bring about mutual professional growth in the two teachers (Wong, 1996).

Both regular classroom and special education teachers can work together to provide individualized instruction within a general education classroom setting. It is found that these teachers naturally used problem-solving strategies with their teammates to address problems that arose with the children who had high support needs. Teachers' concerns clustered into several areas: disagreement about students' goals and problems, challenges with coordination and communication, and difficulties putting solutions into place and evaluating them (Heward, 2003; Lerner & Johns, 2009). This way, inclusion encourages regular classroom teachers and special education teachers to work together, which reduces the mystique of "special education" and facilitates collaboration among professionals in terms of academic instruction and consultation (Smith, et al., 1995).

5. Disadvantages of Inclusion

In terms of disadvantages of inclusion, there are professionals and parents who decry the movement. Smith et al. (1995) has raised the reasons the professionals and parents use to oppose inclusion as follows:

1. General educators have not been involved sufficiently and are therefore not likely to support the model.

2. General educators as well as special educators do not have the collaboration skills necessary to make inclusion successful.
3. There is limited empirical data to support the model. Therefore, full implementation should be put on hold until sound research supports the effort.
4. Full inclusion of students with disabilities into general education classrooms will take away from students without disabilities and lessen their quality of education.
5. Current funding, teacher training, and teacher certification is based on separate educational systems.
6. Some students with disabilities do better when served in special education classes by special education teachers. (p. 83)

However, based on educators' viewpoints, there are the following four disadvantageous issues which are likely to occur within the inclusive education settings:

(1) Harm to Students with Disabilities' Academic

Many parents and professionals worry that under the inclusion movement, many of the needs of students with disabilities and will not be met. In addition, these students need individualized instruction and intensive teaching, which is difficult to provide in a general education classroom setting (Lerner & Johns, 2009).

Some educators contend that many students with disabilities need intensive, systematic, and explicit instruction from teachers who are trained and highly skilled in delivering such services. Moreover, they believe instruction for these students is most effective in small instructional groups, which is difficult to provide in general education class. Hence, students with disabilities' academic performance might not satisfactorily meet their unique individual needs in inclusive regular classrooms (Lerner & John, 2009).

(2) Trade off with Academic Education of the Students without Disabilities

One potentially serious disadvantage inclusion is that a student with disabilities may require much more attention from the teacher than students without disabilities in a general class. Time and attention may thus be taken away from the rest of the class to meet the needs

of a single student with disabilities. In addition, meaningful inclusion of students with disabilities into the academic and social life of the regular classroom presents a difficult challenge. The regular classroom teacher is not only accountable to deliver individualized instruction to these and other students whose learning is at risk but also expected to ensure all other learners' academic success and integrate the whole class socially (Heward, 2003).

(3) Social Issues

Although students were unhappy with having been identified as with learning disabilities because of the stigma it brought, the majority did not regret that they had not been educated in general education classes for the entire school day. As one student summed up:

[Full-inclusion] would make it worse. Basically it would be embarrassing for that person (a student with learning disabilities). It (an inclusive classroom) would be egging it more. People would be getting into a lot more fights because somebody is always going to joke around and say something like, "He's a retard." (Guterman, 1995, as cited in Hallahan & Kauffman, 2003, p. 50)

It is known that simply placing a child with disabilities in a regular classroom does not mean that she/he will learn and behave appropriately or be socially accepted by children without disabilities (Cook & Semmel, 1999; Division for Learning Disabilities, 2001; Freeman & Alkin, 2000, cited in Heward, 2003). In addition, some people fear that a "special education" label can cause a child to feel unworthy or to be viewed by the rest of society as a deviant and hence grow to feel unworthy. At the same time, students with disabilities are seen as members of a minority group, rather than as individuals who have difficulties as an inherent result of their disabilities. In other words, the problems that students with disabilities face are seen as the result of society's discrimination and prejudice (Hallahan & Kauffman, 1997).

(4) Costs

The implementation of the inclusion of students with special education needs into regular schools requires a large amount of budget. These students are to be provided with financial support for books, stationary, school uniforms, transport, special equipment, aids, and services. However, the implementation meets with little success (Mitchell & Desai, 2005). Concurrently, additional support might include greater flexibility in the establishment of class sizes and their composition, support provided to regular classroom teachers by specialists and their assistants, the reduction of teacher/student ratios, increased skills in ability to differentiate curriculum, more flexible pedagogies, and the development of curriculum materials to meet the needs of students (Fletcher & Artiles, 2005). This means that a large number of financial resources are needed to support such additional services for regular classrooms.

It is noticeable that although inclusion has been advocated universally for decades, there still remains disadvantages for both students with and without disabilities within inclusive education settings and opponents against the implementation of inclusive education.

6. Summary of the Research regarding Teachers' Perception towards Inclusion of Students with Disabilities

In regards to teachers' perception towards inclusion of students with disabilities, some researchers have found different results. In terms of secondary school teachers' perceptions of inclusive education and of having pupils with complex learning disabilities in the classrooms, Coutsocostas and Alborz (2010) conclude as below:

Greek mainstream secondary school teachers tended to exhibit negative attitudes towards the inclusion of all pupils with SEN on both theoretical and practical levels. Most teachers' conceptualisations of the term reflected 'integration' rather than 'inclusion', an outlook that could be construed as a barrier to the successful implementation of inclusive education. One third of the total number of participants was not in favour

of the inclusion of pupils with complex learning disabilities (cLD), while the vast majority indicated pupils with cLD and profound intellectual impairments should attend special schools; both the type and severity of the disability influenced teachers' attitudes towards the inclusion of *all* pupils. Younger teachers' ages, fewer years of teaching experience and receipt of SEN training were found to be associated with positive attitudes towards the inclusion of pupils with cLD. Training was most frequently found to influence perceptions regarding pupils with cLD. SEN and/or cLD training was related to participants feeling: more confident about describing cLD, partial towards the inclusion of pupils with cLD, comfortable having pupils with cLD in the classroom/school, capable of teaching pupils with cLD and adequately supported. Thus, overall it could be suggested that training, as well as perceived competence and a sense of support, substantially influenced teachers' attitudes about including pupils with cLD. (p. 160)

Concurrently, the study conducted by Ocloo and Subbey (2008) in the Hoboe District of Ghana has concluded that:

There were hampering factors to the policy implementation consisting of inadequate facilities available for the teachers to implement the philosophy of inclusion and a lack of adequate training for teachers to prepare them with how to educate students with disabilities in their classrooms. In addition, it was found that the Ghana Education Services and other stakeholders did not provide support services for the effective implementation of inclusion. Concurrently, it was suggested that the Ghana Education Service must provide regular in-service training to the teachers in order to help them be aware how to meet the learning needs of the students with disabilities. Nevertheless, suggestions have been raised for the Government and other stakeholders to provide equipment and other facilities for easy implementation of inclusive education. (p. 648)

In terms of perceptions toward inclusion of Special Education students in general education, Idol (2006) has summarized teachers' perceptions in the programme evaluation of eight schools:

Overall, there was a trend among the participating educators of moving more and more toward the inclusion of students with disabilities in general education classes. Few teachers chose self-contained, special education classes as the preferred choice for service delivery. All of the administrators thought that inclusion would be best implemented if extra available adults were provided and if these adults could work with any student needing assistance, not just with students with disabilities.

Educators also had generally favourable impressions of the impact of students with disabilities on other students in their classes. A striking exception to this was the many times they mentioned that everything

changed when a student had serious behaviour problems and was disruptive to the class. They had this reaction whether the student had disabilities or not. Proponents of inclusion should determine if teacher concerns about disruptive students might not be overshadowing those teachers' attitudes toward inclusion. Teachers should be encouraged to explore practical means of coping with disruptive student behaviours. For example, in classes where mainstreaming of students with emotional disturbances was occurring, the special education teachers, instructional assistants, and classroom teachers wore electronic beepers so that the classroom teacher could call for assistance if student behaviour became disruptive before it escalated.

Another point to consider is whether to reassign all students with disabilities to their neighbourhood schools. This would reduce the number of highly disruptive students in a single school. It would also make it considerably easier to include a smaller number of students with mild retardation in various classes. The students with disabilities could become more a part of their schools, and students with mild disabilities might be noticed less for their differences. (pp. 91-92)

Overall, the above-mentioned elements are related to inclusive education which is imperative to be well aware prior to the actual implementation of inclusion in regular school settings.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

The purpose of this dissertation is to investigate perceptions of the secondary school teachers in Vientiane Capital, Laos, towards inclusion of students with disabilities. This chapter describes the research design, participants of the study, instrument, procedures of data collection, reliability, and data analysis.

1. Research Design

Research is a systematic process of collecting and analyzing information (data) for some purpose (Wiersma, 1995). Quantitative research is the systematic process which the researchers study samples that represent populations, use statistical methods to analyze data, use statistical inference procedures to generalize findings from a sample to a defined population, and prepare impersonal, objective reports of research findings. Concurrently, quantitative research emphasizes objectivity in measuring and describing phenomena and consists of experimental and non-experimental research. With regard to non-experimental research, non-experimental research describes phenomena and examines relationships between different phenomena without any direct manipulation of conditions that are experienced. There are five types of non-experimental designs: descriptive, comparative, correlational, survey, and secondary data analysis (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007).

Survey research is one of the non-experimental research designs in which the investigator selects a sample of respondents from a target population and administers a questionnaire or conducts interviews to collect information on variables of interest. Surveys are used to learn about people's attitudes, beliefs, values, demographics, behavior, opinions, habits, desires, ideas, and other types of information. They are used frequently in business, politics, government, sociology, public health, psychology, and education because accurate

information can be obtained for large numbers of people with a small sample (McMillan & Schumacher, 2010). This type of research has yielded much valuable knowledge about opinions, attitudes, and practices. This knowledge has helped shape educational policy and initiatives to improve existing conditions (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007).

The research participants are the most necessary source of information for an empirical research project. Without them, the research can not be conducted. “Sampling is the process of a drawing a sample from a population. When we sample, we study the characteristics of a subset (called the sample) selected from a larger group (called the population) in order to understand the characteristics of the larger group (the population)” (Johnson & Christensen, 2000, p. 156). In addition, in quantitative research, sampling refers to the process of selecting a sample from a defined population with the intent that the sample accurately represents that population (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007, p. 166).

In terms of convenience sampling, Gall, Gall, and Borg (2007) indicate that the researcher selects a sample that suits the purposes of the study and that is convenient. The sample can be convenient for a variety of reasons: the sample is located at or near where the researcher works; the administrator who will need to approve data collection is a close colleague of the researcher; the researcher is familiar with the site and might even work in it.

This study was conducted in the form of a survey research. The study had been conducted based on five steps of a general, systematic approach to research: (1) identifying the problem, (2) reviewing information, (3) collecting data, (4) analyzing data, and (5) drawing conclusions (Wiersma, 1995) which are the imperative elements of the research. Please see Figure 2 regarding the steps of the systematic nature of the research process.

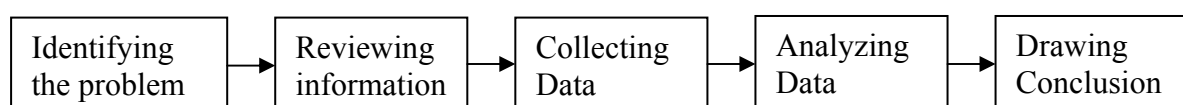


Figure 2. The Steps of the Systematic Nature of the Research Process.

Questionnaires and interviews are utilized extensively as instruments of data collection in educational research to collect information or data from the target population (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2007).

The participants will be described in the following section according to the independent variables of the study: age, gender, and school context.

2. Participants of the Study

2.1 Description

The sample consisted of 90 regular teachers from six secondary schools in both urban and sub-urban areas in Vientiane Capital, Laos. Twenty-eight male (31.1%) and 62 female teachers (68.9%) participated in this study. The frequency distribution by gender of secondary school teachers is presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Frequency Distribution by Gender of Secondary School Teachers

Gender	N	Percent
Male	28	31.1
Female	62	68.9
Total	90	100.0

In relation to age of participants, age distribution in the study was as follows: 11 participants of age 25-30 (12.2%), 22 participants of age 31-45 (24.4%), 54 participants of age 46-55 (60.0%) and 3 participants of age 56-65 (3.3%). The frequency distribution by age of secondary school teachers is presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Frequency Distribution by Age of Secondary School Teachers

Age	N	Percent
25-30	11	12.2
31-45	22	24.4
46-55	54	60.0
56-65	3	3.3
Total	90	100.0

Regarding school context, all participants were selected from six secondary schools located on both the urban and sub-urban areas in Vientiane Capital, Laos. Xaysetha, Phiawat, and Vientiane are urban schools, while the sub-urban ones are Sathid, Tanmixay, and Donenoun. Fifteen teachers were selected from each school. Therefore, participants from urban schools were 45 (50%) and sub-urban ones were 45 (50%). Table 3 represents the frequency distribution for school context of secondary school teachers who participated in the research.

Table 3

Frequency Distribution for School Context

School Context	Number of Schools	Number of Teachers	Percent
Urban	3	45	50
Sub-urban	3	45	50
Total	6	90	100

In relation to teachers' educational qualifications, three participants (3.3%) hold degrees of diploma. Seventy-five of them (83.3%) hold bachelor degrees, while only one participant (1.1%) holds master degree. Concurrently, eleven participants (12.2%) hold degrees of higher diploma. In addition, it is noticeable that, in this study, the secondary school teachers did not hold certificates and doctoral degrees. Therefore, the qualification "certificate" and "doctoral degree" are not included in Table 4. Frequency distribution for educational qualifications of secondary school teachers is presented in Table 4.

Table 4

Frequency Distribution for Educational Qualifications of Secondary School Teachers

Educational Qualification	N	Percent
Diploma	3	3.3
Higher Diploma	11	12.2
Bachelor	75	83.3
Master	1	1.1
Total	90	100.0

In addition to gender, age, school context, and educational qualifications of the participants, the researcher asked the participants about their teaching experiences and background information regarding inclusion of students with disabilities in regular classrooms. Such teaching experiences and background information are described as follows:

Regarding the number of years related to teaching experiences, 57 participants (63%) had more than 20 years of teaching experiences, while eleven of them (12.2%) had 10-15 years of teaching experiences. Concurrently, eight participants (8.9%) had 5-10 years of

teaching experiences, whereas seven of them (7.8%) had 15-20 years of teaching experiences. Only seven participants (7.8%) had five years of teaching experiences. Table 5 represents frequency distribution for teaching experiences of secondary school teachers.

Table 5

Frequency Distribution for Teaching Experiences

Years of Experiences	N	Percent
0-5	7	7.8
5-10	8	8.9
10-15	11	12.2
15-20	7	7.8
+20	57	63.3
Total	90	100.0

Of ninety participants, thirty-four participants (37.8%) have never taught students with disabilities, whereas 56 of them (62.2%) have taught students with disabilities. Table 6 represents frequency distribution for experiences of teaching students with disabilities.

Table 6

Frequency Distribution of Teaching Students with Disabilities

Have you ever taught students with disabilities?	N	Percent
No	34	37.8
Yes	56	62.2
Total	90	100.0

Concurrently, seventy-one participants (78.9%) have already met a child or an adult with disabilities, while nineteen of them have not ever met a child or an adult with disabilities (see Table 7).

Table 7

Frequency Distribution for Experiences of Meeting Students with Disabilities

Have you ever met a child or an adult with disabilities?	N	Percent
No	19	21.1
Yes	71	78.9
Total	90	100.0

In terms of the possibility of teaching students with disabilities in the future, it is surprisingly that only one participant (1.1%) indicated that she/he would not have a chance to teach students with disabilities, whereas thirty-five of them (38.9%) indicated that they would be very much likely to teach students with disabilities in their professions. Concurrently, 31 of participants (34.4%) mentioned that they would be moderately likely to teach students with disabilities, while twenty-three of them (25.6%) stated that they would be a little bit likely to teach such category of students (see Table 8).

Table 8

Frequency Distribution for Probability of Teaching Students with Disabilities in the Future

Indicate how likely it is that you will be working with students with disabilities in the future.	N	Percent
Not at all	1	1.1
A little bit	23	25.6
Moderately	31	34.4
Very much	35	38.9
Total	90	100.0

In relation to the participants' background information about disabilities, results showed that forty-six participants (51.1%) had information regarding disabilities prior to this study, while forty-four of them (48.9%) did not have such information about disabilities before. Table 9 represents frequency distribution for being aware of information about disability before this study.

Table 9

Frequency Distribution for Being Aware of Information about Disability before This Study

Have you ever heard any information about disability before this study?	N	Percent
No	44	48.9
Yes	46	51.1
Total	90	100.0

Regarding training, only 24 participants (26.7%) had attended training about teaching students with disabilities, whereas sixty-six of them (73.3%) had never been involved in such training. Table 10 represents frequency distribution on training involvement about teaching students with disabilities.

Table 10

Frequency Distribution for Being Involved in Training about Teaching Students with Disabilities

Have you ever been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities?	N	Percent
No	66	73.3
Yes	24	26.7
Total	90	100.0

With regard to the number of students in their classrooms (see Table 11), sixty-eight participants (75.6%) stated that they taught a classroom with more than forty students, while only four of them (4.4%) stated that they taught a class with 15-20 students. Concurrently, only one participant (1.1%) taught a class with 20-30 students, whereas 17 of them (18.9%) taught a class with 30-40 students. Table 11 represents frequency distribution of the number of students in regular classroom.

Table 11

Frequency Distribution of the Number of Students in Regular Classroom

How many students are there in each classroom you are teaching?	Frequency	Percent
15-20	4	4.4
20-30	1	1.1
30-40	17	18.9
More than 40 students	68	75.6
Total	90	100.0

In terms of inclusion of students with disabilities in the classroom, forty-eight participants (53.3%) stated that students with disabilities were included in their classrooms, while forty-two of them (46.7%) indicated that students with disabilities were not included in the classrooms (see Table 12).

Table 12

Frequency Distribution for Inclusion of Students with Disabilities in the Classroom

Were students with disabilities included in your classroom?	Frequency	Percent
No	42	46.7
Yes	48	53.3
Total	90	100.0

The above-mentioned data are related to information of the participants in this study including gender, age, school context, educational qualifications, teaching experiences, and background information regarding inclusion of students with disabilities in regular classrooms.

2.2 Participant Recruitment

In order to recruit participants for this study, the Letter of Proposal was written to obtain the official Letter of Approval from the Faculty of Letters, the National University of Laos (NUOL) for the purpose of data collection. Letter of Proposal (see Appendix A) was sent to the Faculty of Letters, NUOL in order to request the Letter of Approval from the Faculty of Letters.

When the Letter of Approval (see Appendix B) from the Faculty of Letters was obtained, the collaborator in Laos then met with the director in each school in order to describe the study and recruit participants from the school. Fifteen teachers of each school were recruited for this study. Therefore, a total number of recruited participants were ninety. They were asked to complete the questionnaires according to their availability. This study is anonymous, confidential, and voluntary. This means that the participants could participate in or withdraw from the study whenever they were uncomfortable and unavailable.

3. Instrument for Data Collection

In this study, a questionnaire was developed to collect data from participants. The questionnaire consists of two parts with a total of 32 items: Part I for Demographic Information and questions related to experience/teaching students with disabilities in regular schools and Part II for Perception of Teachers towards Inclusion of Students with Disabilities. Part I of the questionnaire comprises eleven items – 1 to 11, while Part II consists of twenty-

one items – 12 to 32 (See Appendix C). Twenty-one items in the second part of the questionnaire were rated according to a four-point Likert scale (The scale ranged from 1 “strongly disagree” to 4 “strongly agree.”).

The procedures of the development of the questionnaire were the following:

First, the questionnaire was developed in English according to international studies and a broadly review of literature.

Second, after the approval from the supervisors, the questionnaire was translated into Lao prior to the actual application since the questionnaire would be used to collect data from the secondary school teachers in Laos.

Third, in terms of *validity*, the questionnaire was initially reviewed by a panel of experts to establish face and content validity. Recommendations from the panel were consistent in suggesting the changing of wording on specific items, the rationale for specific items, the ordering of items, and the length of the questionnaire.

Fourth, in relation to *reliability*, reliability was determined by the following procedures: First, Lao version of the questionnaire was modified in terms of the context before disseminating it to seven Lao colleagues of the researcher who are studying in Portugal, Poland, Spain, and Romania for piloting. Second, after the pilot, one Lao student studying in University of Minho was asked to conduct a back-translation into Lao and Lao into English so as to assure that the questionnaire was valid.

Ultimately, the Lao version of the questionnaire had been forwarded to the colleague in Vientiane Capital, Laos.

4. Procedures of Data Collection

The questionnaire (Lao version) (see Appendix D) and the Letter of Approval (see Appendix E) from the Institute of Education, University of Minho in Portugal, were sent to the colleague who was asked for collaboration in this study. The colleague who is a teacher

agreed to distribute the questionnaires to the regular teachers in public secondary schools in Vientiane Capital.

The colleague met with each director of six secondary schools in order to tell them about the purpose of the data collection as well as gave them questionnaires for distributing to the participants. After collecting all questionnaires, they were sent back in a package to University of Minho, Portugal by registered mail.

5. Reliability

In terms of inter-reliability, prior to the data analysis, data inserted from nine questionnaires (10% of total questionnaires) were checked randomly by an external researcher. The following codes of the questionnaires were checked: 30, 16, 05, 13, 04, 76, 90, 17, and 26. Results of the data checking are a hundred percent correct.

6. Data Analysis

Descriptive and inferential statistics were performed in this study. “Descriptive statistics are mathematical techniques for organizing and summarizing a set of numerical data” (Borg, Gall, & Gall, 2003, p. 131). Concurrently, “inferential statistics are used to make inferences or predictions about the similarity of a sample to the population from which the sample is drawn” (McMillan & Schumacher, 2006, p. 150). In addition, in order to analyze psychometrics characteristics of the instrument, such as, reliability, and internal consistency analysis were also performed in this study. Statistics Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used for the data analysis.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter consists of two sections. The first part is concerned with descriptive results, while the second section is related to the inferential results. The results are presented next according to descriptive and inferential statistics, internal consistency reliability analysis, and exploratory factor analysis. All analyses were performed by Statistics Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), version 19.

1. Descriptive Results

This section will look at the results of the research undertaken. It will begin by presenting the results obtained from the analysis of the questionnaires with each category: the environment where students with disabilities should be educated, the benefits of inclusion, the inclusion based on the severity of the disability, the inclusion according to the type of the disability, the impact of inclusion on students with disabilities, the impact of inclusion on students without disabilities, and inclusion as a right. Such categories are presented in the form of percentage based on descriptive statistics. The researcher will use frequency and percentage distribution as well as central tendency and variability measures.

1.1. The Environment where Students with Disabilities should be educated

With regard to the environment where students with disabilities should be educated, 49 participants (54.5%) stated that students with disabilities should be educated in regular classrooms with their normal peers, whereas forty-one of them (45.6%) did not want students with disabilities to be included in regular classrooms. Concurrently, fifty-five respondents

(61.1%) indicated that students with disabilities should be educated in separated classrooms within regular schools, while thirty-five participants (38.9%) stated that students with disabilities should not be educated in separated classrooms within regular schools.

However, in terms of special school, seventy participants (77.8%) indicated that students with disabilities should be educated in special schools, whereas only 20 respondents (22.2%) stated that students with disabilities should be educated regular schools with their normal peers (see Table 13).

Table 13

Distribution of Frequency and Percentage for Category: “the Environment where Students with Disabilities should be educated”

Environment	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly agree		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Regular classrooms	8	8.9	33	36.7	43	47.8	6	6.7	90	100.0
Separated classrooms	10	11.1	25	27.8	40	44.4	15	16.7	90	100.0
Special schools	1	1.1	19	21.1	44	48.9	26	28.9	90	100.0

In addition, in Table 14, we can observe the mean, the mode and the standard deviation for the questions related to category “environment where students with disabilities should be educated” which have been analyzed. Totally, as for this category, most of the respondents prefer students with disabilities to be educated in special schools ($M = 3.06$; $SD = 0.740$) rather than in regular classes and in separated classes ($M = 2.67$; $SD = 0.887$) within regular schools.

Table 14

Central Tendency and Variability Measures for Category: “Environment where Students with Disabilities should be educated”

Environment	Mean	Mode	SD
Regular classrooms	2.52	3	0.753
Separated classrooms	2.67	3	0.887
Special schools	3.06	3	0.740

1.2. The Benefits of Inclusion

In terms of the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities (see Table 15), fifty-four participants (60%) stated that the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to themselves, while 36 respondents (40%) indicated that the inclusion into regular classes can not be beneficial for students with disabilities. Concurrently, sixty respondents (66.6%) mentioned that the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to their families, whereas 30 participants (33.3%) indicated that such inclusion can not be beneficial to the families of students with disabilities. In addition, fifty-five participants (61.1%) stated that the inclusion can be beneficial to Lao regular teachers, while 35 respondents (38.8%) indicated that the inclusion can not be beneficial to Lao regular teachers.

Table 15

Distribution of frequency and percentage for category: “the benefits of the inclusion of students with disabilities”

Benefits of Inclusion	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly agree		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Students with disabilities	2	2.2	34	37.8	42	46.7	12	13.3	90	100.0
Their families	3	3.3	27	30.0	49	54.4	11	12.2	90	100.0
Lao regular teachers	4	4.4	31	34.4	43	47.8	12	13.3	90	100.0
Lao community	3	3.3	23	25.6	50	55.6	14	15.6	90	100.0
Students without disabilities	3	3.3	34	37.8	43	47.8	10	11.1	90	100.0

With regard to the benefits of inclusion to community and students without disabilities, sixty-four participants (71.2%) indicated that the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to Lao community, while only 26 respondents (38.9%) mentioned that the inclusion can not be beneficial to Lao community. Nonetheless, sixty-one participants (61.1%) indicated that the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to the students without disabilities, whereas 35 respondents (38.8%) stated that the inclusion can not be beneficial to the students without disabilities (see Table 15).

Concurrently, in Table 16, we can observe the mean, the mode and the standard deviation for the questions related to category “the benefits of inclusion” which have been analyzed individually. It is noticeable that the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes can be the most beneficial to Lao community ($M = 2.83$; $SD = 0.723$).

Table 16

Central Tendency and Variability Measures for Category: “Benefits of Inclusion”

Benefits of Inclusion	Mean	Mode	SD
Students with disabilities	2.71	3	0.723
Their families	2.76	3	0.708
Lao regular teachers	2.70	3	0.756
Lao community	2.83	3	0.723
Students without disabilities	2.67	3	0.719

1.3. The Inclusion based on the Severity of the Disability

In terms of the inclusion of students with three categories of disabilities: mild, moderate, and severe into the regular classes, seventy-nine participants (87.7%) indicated that the inclusion can be beneficial to the students with mild disabilities, whereas 11 respondents (12.2%) stated that the inclusion can not be beneficial for the students with mild disabilities. Concurrently, seventy-two respondents (80%) mentioned that the inclusion can be beneficial for the students with moderate disabilities, while 18 participants (20%) stated that the inclusion can not be beneficial for such students. In addition, thirty-six participants (40%) indicated that the inclusion can be beneficial to the students with severe disabilities, whereas fifty-four respondents (60%) stated that the inclusion can not be beneficial to such students (see Table 17).

Table 17

Distribution of Frequency and Percentage for Category: “Inclusion according to the Severity of the Disability”

Inclusion based on Severity of the Disability	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly agree		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Mild disabilities	1	1.1	10	11.1	57	63.3	22	24.4	90	100.0
Moderate disabilities	1	1.1	17	18.9	55	61.1	17	18.9	90	100.0
Severe disabilities	5	5.6	49	54.4	23	25.6	13	14.4	90	100.0

In addition, we can observe the mean, the mode and the standard deviation for the questions related to category “inclusion according to the severity of the disability” which have been analyzed individually. It is noticeable that the inclusion into regular classes can be the most beneficial to the students with mild disabilities ($M = 2.98$; $SD = 0.653$) (see Table 18).

Table 18

Central Tendency and Variability Measures for Category: “Inclusion according the Severity of the Disability”

Inclusion based on Severity of the Disability	Mean	Mode	SD
Mild disabilities	3.11	3	0.626
Moderate disabilities	2.98	3	0.653
Severe disabilities	2.49	2	0.811

1.4. The Inclusion according to the Type of the Disability

As can be seen from Table 19, the inclusion of students with hearing and physical disabilities, and behavioral problems into regular classes, fifty-seven participants (63.3%) indicated that the inclusion can be beneficial to the students with hearing disabilities, while 33 respondents (36.6%) stated that the inclusion can not be beneficial for such students. Concurrently, sixty-one respondents (67.8%) mentioned that the inclusion can be beneficial to the students with physical disabilities, whereas the only 29 participants (32.2%) indicated that the inclusion can not be beneficial for such students. Nonetheless, sixty participants (66.6%) indicated that the inclusion can be beneficial to the students with behavioral problems, while 30 respondents (33.3%) stated that the inclusion can not be beneficial for such students.

With regard to the inclusion of students with dyslexia, mental retardation, and visual disabilities into regular classes, fifty-seven participants (63.3%) indicated that the inclusion can be beneficial to the students with dyslexia, while 33 respondents (36.6%) mentioned that the inclusion can not be beneficial for such students. At the same time, forty-six respondents (51.2%) mentioned that the inclusion can be beneficial to the students with mental retardation, whereas 44 participants (48.9%) can not be beneficial to such students. Nevertheless, half of the total respondents (50%) indicated that the inclusion can be beneficial to the students with visual disabilities. The rest of participants (50%) mentioned that the inclusion could not be beneficial for such students (see Table 19).

Table 19

Distribution of Frequency and Percentage for Category: “Inclusion according to the Type of the Disability”

Inclusion according to the Type of the Disability	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly agree		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Hearing disabilities	4	4.4	29	32.2	46	51.1	11	12.2	90	100.0
Physical disabilities	0	0	29	32.2	45	50.0	16	17.8	90	100.0
Behavioral problems	3	3.3	27	30.0	48	53.3	12	13.3	90	100.0
Dyslexia	2	2.2	31	34.4	44	48.9	13	14.4	90	100.0
Mental retardation	7	7.8	37	41.1	32	35.6	14	15.6	90	100.0
Visual disabilities	4	4.4	41	45.6	30	33.3	15	16.7	90	100.0

Additionally, in Table 20, we can observe the mean, the mode and the standard deviation for the questions related to category “inclusion according to the severity of the disability” analyzed individually. The most interesting is that many respondents indicated that the inclusion can be beneficial to the students with physical disabilities ($M = 2.86$; $SD = 0.696$).

Table 20

Central Tendency and Variability Measures for Category: “Inclusion according to the Type of the Disability”

Inclusion according to the type of the disability	Mean	Mode	SD
Hearing disabilities	2.71	3	0.738
Physical disabilities	2.86	3	0.696
Behavioral problems	2.77	3	0.720
Dyslexia	2.76	3	0.724
Mental retardation	2.59	2	0.847
Visual disabilities	2.62	2	0.815

1.5. The Impact of Inclusion on Students with Disabilities

In terms of the impact on the academic and social progress of the students with a disability, seventy-one respondents (78.9%) indicated that inclusion in the regular classroom would have a positive impact on the academic progress of the students with a disability, while 19 participants (21.1%) stated that the inclusion would have a negative impact on the academic progress of such students. Concurrently, seventy-three respondents (81.9%) indicated that inclusion in the regular classroom would have a positive impact on the social progress of the students with a disability, whereas 17 participants (18.9%) stated that the inclusion would have a negative impact on the social progress of such students (see Table 21). It is noticeable that the inclusion in regular classrooms would have more positive than negative impact on both academic and social progress.

Table 21

Distribution of Frequency and Percentage for Category: “Impact of Inclusion on Students with Disabilities”

Impact of Inclusion	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly agree		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Academic progress	1	1.1	18	20.0	50	55.6	21	23.3	90	100.0
Social progress	0	0	17	18.9	56	62.2	17	18.9	90	100.0

In Table 22, we can observe the mean, the mode and the standard deviation for the questions related to category “impact of inclusion on students with disabilities”. It is noticeable that the inclusion in regular classrooms would have a positive impact on both academic and social progress of students with disabilities in a similar degree.

Table 22

Central Tendency and Variability Measures for Category: “Impact of Inclusion on Students with Disabilities”

Impact of Inclusion	Mean	Mode	SD
Academic progress	3.01	3	0.695
Social progress	3.00	3	0.618

1.6. The Impact of Inclusion on Students without Disabilities

With regard to the impact of inclusion on students without disabilities (see Table 23), forty-eight participants (53.3%) stated that the placement of a student with disability into a regular classroom was disruptive to students without disabilities, whereas 42 respondents

(46.7%) mentioned that the placement was not disruptive to students without disabilities. This means that most research participants did not support the placement of a student with disability into a regular classroom.

Table 23

Distribution of Frequency and Percentage for Category: “Impact of Inclusion on Students without Disabilities”

Impact of Inclusion	Strongly agree		Agree		Disagree		Strongly disagree		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
Students without disabilities	9	10.0	39	43.3	36	40.0	6	6.7	90	100.0

In relation to the mean, mode and standard deviation for the questions related to category “impact of inclusion on students without disabilities” results are presented in Table 24.

Table 24

Central Tendency and Variability Measures for Category: “Impact of Inclusion on Students without Disabilities”

Impact of Inclusion	Mean	Mode	SD
Students without disabilities	2.43	2	0.765

1.7. Inclusion as a Right

As can be observed from Table 25, seventy-nine respondents (87.8%) stated that people with disabilities have the right to be included in Lao community, whereas eleven participants (12.2%) indicated that such people don't have the right to be included in Lao community. It can be mentioned that almost all research participants treat people with disabilities equally as normal citizen that they have the right to be fully included in community.

Table 25

Distribution of Frequency and Percentage for Category: "Inclusion as a Right"

Inclusion as a right	Strongly disagree		Disagree		Agree		Strongly agree		Total	
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%
In Lao community	1	1.1	10	11.1	46	51.1	33	36.7	90	100.0

In addition, in Table 26, we can observe the mean, the mode and the standard deviation for the question concerning category "inclusion as a right".

Table 26

Central Tendency and Variability Measures for Category: "Inclusion as a Right"

Inclusion as a right	Mean	Mode	SD
In Lao community	3.23	3	0.688

2. Inferential Results

In this section, data will be analyzed by means of independent t-test in order to compare the two groups of participants (Hopkins, Hopkins, & Glass, 1996) with regards to the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular school environments. Thus, the researcher will test for statistic significance among the following independent variables: gender, experience of teaching students with disabilities, experiences of meeting children or adults with disabilities, being aware of any information regarding disability prior to this study, being involved in training about teaching students with disabilities, the inclusion of students with disabilities in teachers' classrooms, and urban and sub-urban schools.

Furthermore, ANOVA, one factor analysis of variances, will be used to test the differences among several sample means (Hopkins, Hopkins, & Glass, 1996) regarding the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular school environments. Consequently, the researcher will test for statistic significance among the following independent variables: probability that the teachers will be working with students with disabilities in the future and the teachers who have normal students in their classes.

The researcher will report results with significance. The level of significance used to reject the null hypothesis was 0.05.

2.1 Gender

Ho: There are no differences between males and females in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of the inclusion for students with severe disabilities into regular classes.

Ha: There are differences between males and females in what concerns attitude related to the benefits of the inclusion for students with severe disabilities into regular classes.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups within gender. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were statistically different $F = 9.536, p = 0.003$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that females ($M= 2.65; SD = 0.832$) had statistically greater positive attitude concerning the benefits of the inclusion for students with severe disabilities into regular classes than males ($M= 2.14; SD = 0.651$), $t (65.715) = -3.1, p = 0.003$. So, we reject H_0 . When female group served as the reference group, this means difference was 0,6 standard deviation in magnitude.

2.2 Experiences of Teaching Students with Disabilities

H_0 : There are no differences between the teachers who had experiences of teaching students with disabilities and the ones who did not have any experiences of teaching students with disabilities in what concerns attitude relating to the education of students with disabilities in separated classrooms within regular schools

H_a : There are differences between the teachers who had experiences of teaching students with disabilities and the ones who did not have any experiences of teaching students with disabilities related to the education of students with disabilities in separated classrooms within regular schools.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups of teachers who had experiences of teaching students with disabilities and the ones who did not have any experiences of teaching students with disabilities. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were statistically different $F = 10.243, p = 0.002$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that the teachers who did not have any experiences of teaching students with disabilities ($M= 2.97; SD = 0.717$) had statistically greater negative attitude concerning the education of students with disabilities in separated

classrooms within regular schools than the ones who had experiences of teaching students with disabilities ($M= 2.48$; $SD = 0.934$), $t(83.1) = 2.788$, $p = 0.007$. So, we reject H_0 . When the teachers with experiences of teaching students with disabilities served as the reference group, this means difference was 0.52 standard deviation in magnitude.

H_0 : There are no differences between the teachers who had experiences of teaching students with disabilities and the ones who did not have any experiences of teaching students with disabilities in what concerns attitude concerning the education of students with disabilities in special schools.

H_a : There are differences between the teachers who had experiences of teaching students with disabilities and the ones who did not have any experiences of teaching students with disabilities in what concerns attitude related to the education of students with disabilities in special schools.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups of teachers who had experiences of teaching students with disabilities and the ones who did not have any experiences of teaching students with disabilities. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were statistically different $F = 0.002$, $p = 0.967$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that the teachers who did not have any experiences of teaching students with disabilities ($M= 3.26$; $SD = 0.666$) had statistically greater negative attitude in relation to the education of students with disabilities in special schools than the ones who had experiences of teaching students with disabilities ($M= 2.93$; $SD = 0.759$), $t(88) = 2.131$, $p = 0.036$. So, we reject H_0 . When the teachers with experiences of teaching students with disabilities served as the reference group, this means difference was 0.43 standard deviation in magnitude.

Ho: There are no differences between the teachers who had experiences of teaching students with disabilities and the ones who did not have any experiences of teaching students with disabilities in what concerns attitude related to the benefits of inclusion for students with behavioral problems into regular classrooms.

Ha: There are differences between the teachers who had experiences of teaching students with disabilities and the ones who did not have any experiences of teaching students with disabilities in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion for students with behavioral problems into regular classrooms

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups of teachers who had experiences of teaching students with disabilities and the ones who did not have any experiences of teaching students with disabilities. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were statistically different $F = 0.881, p = 0.35$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that the teachers who did not have any experiences of teaching students with disabilities ($M = 2.5; SD = 0.663$) had statistically less positive attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion for students with behavioral problems into regular classrooms than the ones who had experiences of teaching students with disabilities ($M = 2.93; SD = 0.710$), $t(88) = -2.846, p = 0.006$. So, we reject Ho. When the teachers with experiences of teaching students with disabilities served as the reference group, this means difference was -0,6 standard deviation in magnitude.

Ho: There are no differences between the teachers who had experiences of teaching students with disabilities and the ones who did not have any experiences of teaching students with disabilities in what concerns attitude relating to the benefits of inclusion for students with mental retardation into regular classrooms.

Ha: There are differences between the teachers who had experiences of teaching students with disabilities and the ones who did not have any experiences of teaching students with disabilities in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion for students with mental retardation into regular classrooms.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups of teachers who had experiences of teaching students with disabilities and the ones who did not have any experiences of teaching students with disabilities. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were statistically different $F = 0.184, p = 0.669$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that the teachers who did not have any experiences of teaching students with disabilities ($M = 2.32; SD = 0.806$) had statistically less positive attitude relating to the benefits of inclusion for students with mental retardation into regular classrooms than the ones who had experiences of teaching students with disabilities ($M = 2.75; SD = 0.837$), $t(88) = -2.377, p = 0.02$. So, we reject H_0 . When the teachers with experiences of teaching students with disabilities served as the reference group, this means difference was -0,51 standard deviation in magnitude.

2.3 Being aware of any Information regarding Disability prior to this Study

H_0 : There are no differences between the teachers who had ever and who had never heard any information regarding disability prior to this study in what concerns attitude related to the education of students with disabilities in regular classrooms.

Ha: There are differences between the teachers who had ever and who had never heard any information regarding disability prior to this study in what concerns attitude in relation to the education of students with disabilities in regular classrooms.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups of the teachers who had ever and who had never heard any information regarding disability prior to

this study. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were statistically different $F = 1.316$, $p = 0.254$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that the teachers who had never heard any information about disability prior to this study ($M = 2.27$; $SD = 0.758$) had statistically less positive attitude concerning the education of students with disabilities in regular classrooms than the teachers who had ever heard any information regarding disability before this study ($M = 2.76$; $SD = 0.673$), $t(88) = -3.234$, $p = 0.002$. So, we reject H_0 . When the teachers who had ever heard any information regarding disability before this study served as the reference group, this means difference was -0,72 standard deviation in magnitude.

H_0 : There are no differences between the teachers who had ever and who had never heard any information regarding disability prior to this study in what concerns attitude with relation to the education of students with disabilities in separated classrooms within regular schools.

H_a : There are differences between the teachers who had ever and who had never heard any information regarding disability prior to this study in what concerns attitude concerning the education of students with disabilities in separated classrooms within regular schools.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups of the teachers who had ever and who had never heard any information regarding disability prior to this study. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were statistically different $F = 3.078$, $p = 0.083$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that the teachers who had never heard any information about disability prior to this study ($M = 2.93$; $SD = 0.818$) had statistically greater negative attitude related to the education of students with disabilities in separated classrooms within regular schools than the

teachers who had ever heard some information regarding disability before this study ($M = 2.41$; $SD = 0.884$), $t(88) = 2.886$, $p = 0.005$. So, we reject H_0 . When the teachers who had ever heard some information regarding disability before this study served as the reference group, this means that the difference was 0,58 standard deviation in magnitude.

H_0 : There are no differences between the teachers who had ever and who had never heard any information regarding disability prior to this study in what concerns attitude related to the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classrooms for Lao regular teachers.

H_a : There are differences between the teachers who had ever and who had never heard any information regarding disability prior to this study in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classrooms for Lao regular teachers.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups of the teachers who had ever and who had never heard any information regarding disability prior to this study. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were statistically different $F = 0.446$, $p = 0.506$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that the teachers who had never heard any information about disability prior to this study ($M = 2.50$; $SD = 0.699$) had statistically less positive attitude in relation to the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classrooms for Lao regular teachers than the teachers who had ever heard some information regarding disability before this study ($M = 2.89$; $SD = 0.767$), $t(88) = -2.527$, $p = 0.013$. So, we reject H_0 . When the teachers who had ever heard some information regarding disability before this study served as the reference group, this means that the difference was -0,5 standard deviation in magnitude.

Ho: There are no differences between the teachers who had ever and who had never heard any information regarding disability prior to this study in what concerns attitude related to the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes for Lao community.

Ha: There are differences between the teachers who had ever and who had never heard any information regarding disability prior to this study in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes for Lao community.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups of the teachers who had ever and who had never heard any information regarding disability prior to this study. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were statistically different $F = 2.800, p = 0.098$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that the teachers who had never heard any information about disability prior to this study ($M = 2.66; SD = 0.713$) had statistically less positive attitude with relation to the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes for Lao community than the teachers who had ever heard some information regarding disability before this study ($M = 3.00; SD = 0.699$), $t(88) = -2.289, p = 0.024$. So, we reject Ho. When the teachers who had ever heard some information regarding disability before this study served as the reference group, this means that the difference was -0,48 standard deviation in magnitude.

Ho: There are no differences between the teachers who had ever and who had never heard any information regarding disability prior to this study in what concerns attitude related to benefits of the inclusion for students with severe disabilities into regular classes.

Ha: There are differences between the teachers who had ever and who had never heard any information regarding disability prior to this study in what concerns attitude concerning benefits of the inclusion for students with severe disabilities into regular classes.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups of the teachers who had ever and who had never heard any information regarding disability prior to this study. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were statistically different $F = 5.977, p = 0.016$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that the teachers who had never heard any information about disability prior to this study ($M = 2.27; SD = 0.694$) had statistically less positive attitude concerning benefits of the inclusion for students with severe disabilities into regular classes than the teachers who had ever heard some information regarding disability before this study ($M = 2.70; SD = 0.866$), $t(85.432) = -2.562, p = 0.012$. So, we reject H_0 . When the teachers who had ever heard some information regarding disability before this study served as the reference group, this means that the difference was -0,49 standard deviation in magnitude.

H_0 : There are no differences between the teachers who had ever and who had never heard any information regarding disability prior to this study in what concerns attitude relating to benefits of the inclusion for students with hearing disabilities into regular classes.

Ha: There are differences between the teachers who had ever and who had never heard any information regarding disability prior to this study in what concerns attitude in relation to benefits of the inclusion for students with hearing disabilities into regular classes.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups of the teachers who had ever and who had never heard any information regarding disability prior to this study. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were statistically different $F = 8.870, p = 0.004$. Results of the independent t-test

indicated that the teachers who had never heard any information about disability prior to this study ($M = 2.43$; $SD = 0.759$) had statistically less positive attitude concerning benefits of the inclusion for students with hearing disabilities into regular classes than the teachers who had ever heard some information regarding disability before this study ($M = 2.98$; $SD = 0.614$), $t(82.709) = -3.744$, $p = 0.000$. So, we reject H_0 . When the teachers who had ever heard some information regarding disability before this study served as the reference group, this means that the difference was -0,89 standard deviation in magnitude.

H_0 : There are no differences between the teachers who had ever and who had never heard any information regarding disability prior to this study in what concerns attitude related to benefits of the inclusion for students with behavioral problems into regular classrooms.

H_a : There are differences between the teachers who had ever and who had never heard any information regarding disability prior to this study in what concerns attitude with relation to benefits of the inclusion for students with behavioral problems into regular classrooms.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups of the teachers who had ever and who had never heard any information regarding disability prior to this study. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were statistically different $F = 2.215$, $p = 0.140$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that the teachers who had never heard any information about disability prior to this study ($M = 2.59$; $SD = 0.726$) had statistically less positive attitude concerning benefits of the inclusion for students with behavioral problems into regular classrooms than the teachers who had ever heard some information regarding disability before this study ($M = 2.93$; $SD = 0.680$), $t(88) = -2.321$, $p = 0.023$. So, we reject H_0 . When the teachers who had ever heard

some information regarding disability before this study served as the reference group, this means that the difference was -0,5 standard deviation in magnitude.

Ho: There are no differences between the teachers who had ever and who had never heard any information regarding disability prior to this study in what concerns attitude related to the positive impact of inclusion in the regular classroom on the academic progress of the student with a disability.

Ha: There are differences between the teachers who had ever and who had never heard any information regarding disability prior to this study in what concerns attitude concerning the positive impact of inclusion in the regular classroom on the academic progress of the student with a disability.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups of the teachers who had ever and who had never heard any information regarding disability prior to this study. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were statistically different $F = 0.684, p = 0.410$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that the teachers who had never heard any information about disability prior to this study ($M = 2.86; SD = 0.734$) had statistically less positive attitude in relation to the positive impact of inclusion in the regular classroom on the academic progress of the student with a disability than the teachers who had ever heard some information regarding disability before this study ($M = 3.15; SD = 0.631$), $t(88) = -2.002, p = 0.048$. So, we reject Ho. When the teachers who had ever heard some information regarding disability before this study served as the reference group, this means that the difference was -0,45 standard deviation in magnitude.

2.4 Being involved in Training about Teaching Students with Disabilities

Ho: There are no differences between the teachers who had ever and who had never been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities in what concerns attitude related to the education of students with disabilities in regular classrooms.

Ha: There are differences between the teachers who had ever and who had never been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities in what concerns attitude concerning the education of students with disabilities in regular classrooms.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups of the teachers who had ever and who had never been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were statistically different $F = 6.361, p = 0.013$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that the teachers who had never been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities ($M = 2.38; SD = 0.739$) had statistically less positive attitude with relation to the education of students with disabilities in regular classrooms than the teachers who had ever been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities ($M = 2.92; SD = 0.654$), $t(45.851) = -3.330, p = 0.002$. So, we reject Ho. When the teachers who had ever been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities served as the reference group, this means that the difference was -0,82 standard deviation in magnitude.

Ho: There are no differences between the teachers who had ever and who had never been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities in what concerns attitude related to the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes for their families.

Ha: There are differences between the teachers who had ever and who had never been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities in what concerns attitude

concerning the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes for their families.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups of the teachers who had ever and who had never been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were statistically different $F = 27.798, p = 0.000$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that the teachers who had never been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities ($M = 2.62; SD = 0.760$) had statistically less positive attitude in relation to the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes for their families than the teachers who had ever been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities ($M = 3.13; SD = 0.338$), $t(84.396) = -4.335, p = 0.000$. So, we reject H_0 . When the teachers who had ever been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities served as the reference group, this means that the difference was -1,5 standard deviation in magnitude.

H_0 : There are no differences between the teachers who had ever and who had never been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities in what concerns attitude related to the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classrooms for Lao regular teachers.

H_a : There are differences between the teachers who had ever and who had never been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities in what concerns attitude relating to the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classrooms for Lao regular teachers.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups of the teachers who had ever and who had never been involved in training about teaching students

with disabilities. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were statistically different $F = 12.207, p = 0.001$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that the teachers who had never been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities ($M = 2.58; SD = 0.766$) had statistically less positive attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classrooms for Lao regular teachers than the teachers who had ever been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities ($M = 3.04; SD = 0.624$), $t(49.800) = -2.940, p = 0.005$. So, we reject H_0 . When the teachers who had ever been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities served as the reference group, this means that the difference was -0.737 standard deviation in magnitude.

H_0 : There are no differences between the teachers who had ever and who had never been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities in what concerns attitude related to the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes for Lao community.

H_a : There are differences between the teachers who had ever and who had never been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes for Lao community.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups of the teachers who had ever and who had never been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were statistically different $F = 5.964, p = 0.017$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that the teachers who had never been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities ($M = 2.73; SD = 0.735$) had statistically less positive attitude with relation to

the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes for Lao community than the teachers who had ever been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities ($M = 3.13$; $SD = 0.612$), $t(48.665) = -2.578$, $p = 0.013$. So, we reject H_0 . When the teachers who had ever been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities served as the reference group, this means that the difference was -0,653 standard deviation in magnitude.

H_0 : There are no differences between the teachers who had ever and who had never been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities in what concerns attitude related to the benefits of inclusion for students with mental retardation into regular classrooms.

H_a : There are differences between the teachers who had ever and who had never been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities in what concerns attitude with relation to the benefits of inclusion for students with mental retardation into regular classrooms.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups of the teachers who had ever and who had never been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were statistically different $F = 0.704$, $p = 0.404$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that the teachers who had never been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities ($M = 2.47$; $SD = 0.827$) had statistically less positive attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion for students with mental retardation into regular classrooms than the teachers who had ever been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities ($M = 2.92$; $SD = 0.830$), $t(88) = -2.266$, $p = 0.026$. So, we reject H_0 . When the teachers who had

ever been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities served as the reference group, this means that the difference was -0,542 standard deviation in magnitude.

Ho: There are no differences between the teachers who had ever and who had never been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities in what concerns attitude related to the benefits of inclusion for students with visual disabilities into regular classrooms.

Ha: There are differences between the teachers who had ever and who had never been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion for students with visual disabilities into regular classrooms.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups of the teachers who had ever and who had never been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were statistically different $F = 0.068, p = 0.794$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that the teachers who had never been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities ($M = 2.52; SD = 0.769$) had statistically less positive attitude in relation to the benefits of inclusion for students with visual disabilities into regular classrooms than the teachers who had ever been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities ($M = 2.92; SD = 0.881$), $t(88) = -2.106, p = 0.038$. So, we reject Ho. When the teachers who had ever been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities served as the reference group, this means that the difference was -0,454 standard deviation in magnitude.

Ho: There are no differences between the teachers who had ever and who had never been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities in what concerns attitude

related to the positive impact of inclusion in the regular classroom on the academic progress of the student with a disability.

Ha: There are differences between the teachers who had ever and who had never been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities in what concerns attitude with relation to the positive impact of inclusion in the regular classroom on the academic progress of the student with a disability.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups of the teachers who had ever and who had never been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were statistically different $F = 0.268, p = 0.606$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that the teachers who had never been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities ($M = 2.91; SD = 0.717$) had statistically less positive attitude concerning the positive impact of inclusion in the regular classroom on the academic progress of the student with a disability than the teachers who had ever been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities ($M = 3.29; SD = 0.550$), $t(88) = -2.368, p = 0.020$. So, we reject H_0 . When the teachers who had ever been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities served as the reference group, this means that the difference was -4,327 standard deviation in magnitude.

2.5 The Inclusion of Students with Disabilities in Teachers' Classrooms

H_0 : There are no differences between the teachers whose classrooms did not include and the ones whose classrooms included students with disabilities in what concerns attitude related to the education of students with disabilities in special schools.

Ha: There are differences between the teachers whose classrooms did not include and the ones whose classrooms included students with disabilities in what concerns attitude relating to the education of students with disabilities in special schools.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of two groups of the teachers whose classrooms did not include and the ones whose classrooms included students with disabilities. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were statistically different $F = 0.087, p = 0.768$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that the teachers whose classrooms did not include students with disabilities ($M = 3.26; SD = 0.665$) had statistically less positive attitude concerning the education of students with disabilities in special schools than the ones whose classrooms included students with disabilities ($M = 2.88; SD = 0.761$), $t(88) = -2.550, p = 0.012$. So, we reject H_0 . When the teachers whose classrooms included students with disabilities served as the reference group, this means that the difference was 0,499 standard deviation in magnitude.

H_0 : There are no differences between the teachers whose classrooms did not include and the ones whose classrooms included students with disabilities in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of the inclusion for students with severe disabilities into regular classes.

Ha: There are differences between the teachers whose classrooms did not include and the ones whose classrooms included students with disabilities in what concerns attitude related to the benefits of the inclusion for students with severe disabilities into regular classes.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups of the teachers whose classrooms did not include and the ones whose classrooms included students with disabilities. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were statistically different $F = 0.550, p = 0.114$. Results of the independent t-test

indicated that the teachers whose classrooms did not include students with disabilities ($M = 2.31$; $SD = 0.749$) had statistically less positive attitude in relation to the benefits of the inclusion for students with severe disabilities into regular classes than the ones whose classrooms included students with disabilities ($M = 2.65$; $SD = 0.838$), $t(88) = -1.996$, $p = 0.049$. So, we reject H_0 . When the teachers whose classrooms included students with disabilities served as the reference group, this means that the difference was -0,405 standard deviation in magnitude.

H_0 : There are no differences between the teachers whose classrooms did not include and the ones whose classrooms included students with disabilities in what concerns attitude related to the benefits of the inclusion for students with behavioral problems into regular classrooms.

H_a : There are differences between the teachers whose classrooms did not include and the ones whose classrooms included students with disabilities in what concerns attitude in relation to the benefits of the inclusion for students with behavioral problems into regular classrooms.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups of the teachers whose classrooms did not include and the ones whose classrooms included students with disabilities. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were statistically different $F = 3.582$, $p = 0.062$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that the teachers whose classrooms did not include students with disabilities ($M = 2.55$; $SD = 0.705$) had statistically less positive attitude concerning the benefits of the inclusion for students with behavioral problems into regular classes than the ones whose classrooms included students with disabilities ($M = 2.96$; $SD = 0.683$), $t(88) = -2.803$, $p = 0.006$. So, we reject H_0 . When the teachers whose classrooms included students with

disabilities served as the reference group, this means that the difference was -0,60 standard deviation in magnitude.

Ho: There are no differences between the teachers whose classrooms did not include and the ones whose classrooms included students with disabilities in what concerns attitude related to the benefits of the inclusion for students with dyslexia into regular classrooms.

Ha: There are differences between the teachers whose classrooms did not include and the ones whose classrooms included students with disabilities in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of the inclusion for students with dyslexia into regular classrooms.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups of the teachers whose classrooms did not include and the ones whose classrooms included students with disabilities. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were statistically different $F = 2.943, p = 0.090$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that the teachers whose classrooms did not include students with disabilities ($M = 2.60; SD = 0.734$) had statistically less positive attitude with relation to the benefits of the inclusion for students with dyslexia into regular classes than the ones whose classrooms included students with disabilities ($M = 2.90; SD = 0.692$), $t(88) = -1.998, p = 0.049$. So, we reject Ho. When the teachers whose classrooms included students with disabilities served as the reference group, this means that the difference was -0,433 standard deviation in magnitude.

2.6 Urban and Sub-urban Schools

Ho: There are no differences between the teachers who teach in the urban schools and the ones who teach in the sub-urban schools in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes for their families.

Ha: There are differences between the teachers who teach in the urban schools and the ones who teach in the sub-urban schools in what concerns attitude related to the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes for their families.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups of the teachers who teach in the urban schools and the ones who teach in the sub-urban schools. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were statistically different $F = 7.016, p = 0.010$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that the teachers who teach in the urban schools ($M = 2.93; SD = 0.618$) had statistically greater positive attitude in relation to benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes for their families than the ones who teach in the sub-urban schools ($M = 2.58; SD = 0.753$), $t(84.753) = 2.448, p = 0.016$. So, we reject H_0 . When the teachers who teach in the sub-urban schools served as the reference group, this means that the difference was -0,464 standard deviation in magnitude.

H_0 : There are no differences between the teachers who teach in the urban schools and the ones who teach in the sub-urban schools in what concerns attitude related to the benefits of the inclusion for students with severe disabilities into regular classes.

Ha: There are differences between the teachers who teach in the urban schools and the ones who teach in the sub-urban schools in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of the inclusion for students with severe disabilities into regular classes.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups of the teachers who teach in the urban schools and the ones who teach in the sub-urban schools. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were statistically different $F = 10.245, p = 0.002$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that the teachers who teach in the urban schools ($M = 2.73; SD = 0.889$) had statistically greater

positive attitude relating to the benefits of the inclusion for students with severe disabilities into regular classes than the ones who teach in the sub-urban schools ($M = 2.24$; $SD = 0.645$), $t(80.264) = 2.985$, $p = 0.004$. So, we reject H_0 . When the teachers who teach in the sub-urban schools served as the reference group, this means that the difference was 0,759 standard deviation in magnitude.

H_0 : There are no differences between the teachers who teach in the urban schools and the ones who teach in the sub-urban schools in what concerns attitude concerning benefits of the inclusion for students with behavioral problems into regular classrooms.

H_a : There are differences between the teachers who teach in the urban schools and the ones who teach in the sub-urban schools in what concerns attitude with relation to benefits of the inclusion for students with behavioral problems into regular classrooms.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups of the teachers who teach in the urban schools and the ones who teach in the sub-urban schools. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were statistically different $F = 4.622$, $p = 0.034$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that the teachers who teach in the urban schools ($M = 2.98$; $SD = 0.657$) had statistically greater positive attitude related to benefits of the inclusion for students with behavioral problems into regular classrooms than the ones who teach in the sub-urban schools ($M = 2.56$; $SD = 0.725$), $t(87.159) = 2.896$, $p = 0.005$. So, we reject H_0 . When the teachers who teach in the sub-urban schools served as the reference group, this means that the difference was 0,579 standard deviation in magnitude.

2.7 Probability that the Teachers will be working with Students with Disabilities in the Future

The hypotheses in relation to attitude towards the education of students with disabilities in regular classrooms were the following:

Ho: There are no statistically differences among three groups of teachers who indicated that they would have very much, moderate, and a little bit probability to be working with students with disabilities in the future in what concerns attitude concerning the education of students with disabilities in regular classrooms.

Ha: There are statistically differences among three groups of teachers who indicated that they would have very much, moderate, and a little bit probability to be working with students with disabilities in the future in what concerns attitude in relation to the education of students with disabilities in regular classrooms.

Normality was supported by the Shapiro-Wilk test for each of the three groups. In addition, Levene's test of homogeneity of variance indicates that the variances of the three groups were significantly different; $F(2, 86) = 2.201, p = 0.117$.

Results of one-way ANOVA indicated that there were statistically significant differences in teachers on education of students with disabilities in regular classrooms $F(2, 86) = 4.719, p = 0.011$. So, we reject Ho. Post Hoc test LSD indicated that there were statistically significant differences between the teachers who indicated that they would have very much probability to be working with students with disabilities in the future ($M = 2.77; SD = 0.877$) had statistically greater positive attitude in relation to the education of students with disabilities in regular classrooms than the ones who indicated that they would have moderate probability to be working with students with disabilities in the future ($M = 2.52; SD = 0.626$) and the ones who indicated that they would have a little bit probability to be working with students with disabilities in the future ($M = 2.17; SD = 0.576$).

Eight percent of the variances in answering that students with disabilities should be educated in regular classrooms were found to be attributed to the probability on working with students with disabilities in the future, $\omega^2 = 0.08$. At the same time, the significant differences of each group have been performed, in relation to the very much probability/moderate probability, an effect size = 0.34 was found, and for very much probability/a little bit probability, the effect size= 0.82.

The hypotheses in relation to attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes for their families were the following:

Ho: There are no statistically differences among three groups of teachers who indicated that they would have very much, moderate, and a little bit probability to be working with students with disabilities in the future in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes for their families.

Ha: There are statistically differences among three groups of teachers who indicated that they would have very much, moderate, and a little bit probability to be working with students with disabilities in the future in what concerns attitude in relation to the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes for their families.

Normality was supported by the Shapiro-Wilk test for each of the three groups. In addition, Levene's test of homogeneity of variance indicates that the variances of the three groups were significantly different; $F(2, 86) = 0.286, p = 0.752$.

Results of one-way ANOVA indicated that there were statistically significant differences in teachers on education of students with disabilities in regular classrooms $F(2, 86) = 3.558, p = 0.033$. So, we reject Ho. Post Hoc test LSD indicated that there were statistically significant differences between the teachers who indicated that they would have

very much probability to be working with students with disabilities in the future ($M = 2.89$; $SD = 0.796$) had statistically greater positive attitude in relation to the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes for their families than the ones who indicated that they would have moderate probability to be working with students with disabilities in the future ($M = 2.87$; $SD = 0.619$) and the ones who indicated that they would have a little bit probability to be working with students with disabilities in the future ($M = 2.43$; $SD = 0.590$).

Six percent of the variances in answering that the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to their families were found to be attributed to the probability on working with students with disabilities in the future, $\omega^2 = 0.06$. Concurrently, the significant differences of each group have been performed as the following, for very much probability/moderate probability, results show the effect size = 0.02, as for very much probability/a little bit probability, the effect size is 0.66.

The hypotheses in relation to attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classrooms for Lao regular teachers were the following:

Ho: There are no statistically differences among three groups of teachers who indicated that they would have very much, moderate, and a little bit probability to be working with students with disabilities in the future in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classrooms for Lao regular teachers.

Ha: There are statistically differences among three groups of teachers who indicated that they would have very much, moderate, and a little bit probability to be working with students with disabilities in the future in what concerns attitude with relation to benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classrooms for Lao regular teachers.

Normality was supported by the Shapiro-Wilk test for each of the three groups. In addition, Levene's test of homogeneity of variance indicates that the variances of the three groups were significantly different; $F(2, 86) = 0.195, p = 0.823$.

Results of one-way ANOVA indicated that there were statistically significant differences in teachers on education of students with disabilities in regular classrooms $F(2, 86) = 3.976, p = 0.022$. So, we reject H_0 . Post Hoc test LSD indicated that there were statistically significant differences between the teachers who indicated that they would have very much probability to be working with students with disabilities in the future ($M = 2.94; SD = 0.765$) had statistically greater positive attitude in relation to benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classrooms for Lao regular teachers than the ones who indicated that they would have moderate probability to be working with students with disabilities in the future ($M = 2.68; SD = 0.748$) and the ones who indicated that they would have a little bit probability to be working with students with disabilities in the future ($M = 2.39; SD = 0.656$).

Seven percent of the variances in answering that the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to Lao regular teachers were found to be attributed to the probability on working with students with disabilities in the future, $\omega^2 = 0.07$. Concurrently, the significant differences of each group have been performed as following, for very much probability/moderate probability, the effect size = 0.35, as for very much probability/a little bit probability, the effect size = 0.75.

The hypotheses in relation to attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classrooms for Lao community were the following:

Ho: There are no statistically differences among three groups of teachers who indicated that they would have very much, moderate, and a little bit probability to be working with students with disabilities in the future in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes for Lao community.

Ha: There are statistically differences among three groups of teachers who indicated that they would have very much, moderate, and a little bit probability to be working with students with disabilities in the future in what concerns attitude with relation to the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes for Lao community.

Normality was supported by the Shapiro-Wilk test for each of the three groups. In addition, Levene's test of homogeneity of variance indicates that the variances of the three groups were significantly different; $F(2, 86) = 0.417, p = 0.661$.

Results of one-way ANOVA indicated that there were statistically significant differences in teachers on education of students with disabilities in regular classrooms $F(2, 86) = 6.084, p = 0.003$. So, we reject HO. Post Hoc test LSD indicated that there were statistically significant differences between the teachers who indicated that they would have very much probability to be working with students with disabilities in the future ($M = 3.11; SD = 0.676$) had statistically greater positive attitude in relation to the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes for Lao community than the ones who indicated that they would have moderate probability to be working with students with disabilities in the future ($M = 2.81; SD = 0.749$) and the ones who indicated that they would have a little bit probability to be working with students with disabilities in the future ($M = 2.48; SD = 0.593$).

Eleven percent of the variances in answering that the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to Lao community were found to be attributed to the probability on working with students with disabilities in the future, $\omega^2 = 0.11$. Concurrently, the significant differences of each group have been performed as the

following, as for very much probability/moderate probability, the effect size = 0.43, as for very much probability/a little bit probability, the effect size = 0.92.

The hypotheses in relation to attitude concerning the positive impact of inclusion in the regular classroom on the academic progress of the student with a disability were the following:

Ho: There are no statistically differences among three groups of teachers who indicated that they would have very much, moderate, and a little bit probability to be working with students with disabilities in the future in what concerns attitude concerning the positive impact of inclusion in the regular classroom on the academic progress of the student with a disability.

Ha: There are statistically differences among three groups of teachers who indicated that they would have very much, moderate, and a little bit probability to be working with students with disabilities in the future in what concerns attitude with relation to the positive impact of inclusion in the regular classroom on the academic progress of the student with a disability.

Normality was supported by the Shapiro-Wilk test for each of the three groups. In addition, Levene's test of homogeneity of variance indicates that the variances of the three groups were significantly different; $F(2, 86) = 0.423, p = 0.656$.

Results of one-way ANOVA indicated that there were statistically significant differences in teachers on education of students with disabilities in regular classrooms $F(2, 86) = 6.722, p = 0.002$. So, we reject H0. Post Hoc test LSD indicated that there were statistically significant differences between the teachers who indicated that they would have very much probability to be working with students with disabilities in the future ($M = 3.31; SD = 0.530$) had statistically greater positive attitude in relation to the positive impact of

inclusion in the regular classroom on the academic progress of the student with a disability than the ones who indicated that they would have moderate probability to be working with students with disabilities in the future ($M = 2.94$; $SD = 0.772$) and the ones who indicated that they would have a little bit probability to be working with students with disabilities in the future ($M = 2.70$; $SD = 0.635$).

Twelve percent of the variances in answering that the inclusion in the regular classroom will have a positive impact on the academic progress of the student with a disability were found to be attributed to the probability on working with students with disabilities in the future, $\omega^2 = 0.12$. Concurrently, the significant differences of each group have been performed as the following, for very much probability/moderate probability, the effect size = 0.56, as for very much probability/a little bit probability, the effect size = 0.93.

2.8 The Teachers Who have Normal Students in Their Classes

An independent t-test was utilized in order to compare the two groups of research participants because there were fewer than three groups.

Ho: There are no differences between the teachers who have 30-40 students and the ones who have more than forty students in the classrooms in what concerns attitude concerning the education of students with disabilities in regular classrooms.

Ha: There are differences between the teachers who have 30-40 students and the ones who have more than forty students in the classrooms in what concerns attitude concerning the education of students with disabilities in regular classrooms.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups of the teachers who have 30-40 students and the ones who have more than forty students in the

classrooms. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were statistically different $F = 0.056, p = 0.814$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that the teachers who have 30-40 students in the classrooms ($M = 2.82; SD = 0.809$) had statistically greater positive attitude in relation to the education of students with disabilities in regular classrooms than the ones who have more than forty students in the classrooms ($M = 2.40; SD = 0.715$), $t(83) = 2.142, p = 0.035$. Thus, we reject H_0 . When the teachers who have more than forty students in the classrooms served as the reference group, this means that the difference was 0,587 standard deviation in magnitude.

H_0 : There are no differences between the teachers who have 30-40 students and the ones who have more than forty students in the classrooms in what concerns attitude concerning the education of students with disabilities in special schools.

H_a : There are differences between the teachers who have 30-40 students and the ones who have more than forty students in the classrooms in what concerns attitude concerning the education of students with disabilities in special schools.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups of the teachers who have 30-40 students and the ones who have more than forty students in the classrooms. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were statistically different $F = 1.432, p = 0.235$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that the teachers who have 30-40 students in the classrooms ($M = 2.59; SD = 0.795$) had statistically less positive attitude in relation to the education of students with disabilities in special schools than the ones who have more than forty students in the classrooms ($M = 3.22; SD = 0.666$), $t(83) = -3.367, p = 0.001$. So, we reject H_0 . When the teachers who have more than forty students in the classrooms served as the reference group, this means that the difference was -0,945 standard deviation in magnitude.

Ho: There are no differences between the teachers who have 30-40 students and the ones who have more than forty students in the classrooms in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes for Lao community.

Ha: There are differences between the teachers who have 30-40 students and the ones who have more than forty students in the classrooms in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes for Lao community.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups of the teachers who have 30-40 students and the ones who have more than forty students in the classrooms. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were statistically different $F = 0.001$, $p = 0.970$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that the teachers who have 30-40 students in the classrooms ($M = 3.18$; $SD = 0.728$) had statistically greater positive attitude in relation to the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes for Lao community than the ones who have more than forty students in the classrooms ($M = 2.74$; $SD = 0.725$), $t(83) = 2.242$, $p = 0.028$. Consequently, we reject Ho. When the teachers who have more than forty students in the classrooms served as the reference group, this means that the difference was 0.606 standard deviation in magnitude.

Ho: There are no differences between the teachers who have 30-40 students and the ones who have more than forty students in the classrooms in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of the inclusion for students with moderate disabilities into regular classes.

Ha: There are differences between the teachers who have 30-40 students and the ones who have more than forty students in the classrooms in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of the inclusion for students with moderate disabilities into regular classes.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups of the teachers who have 30-40 students and the ones who have more than forty students in the classrooms. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were statistically different $F = 0.108, p = 0.743$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that the teachers who have 30-40 students in the classrooms ($M = 3.29; SD = 0.588$) had statistically greater positive attitude in relation to the benefits of the inclusion for students with moderate disabilities into regular classes than the ones who have more than forty students in the classrooms ($M = 2.91; SD = 0.663$), $t(83) = 2.171, p = 0.033$. Therefore, we reject H_0 . When the teachers who have more than forty students in the classrooms served as the reference group, this means that the difference was 0.573 standard deviation in magnitude.

H_0 : There are no differences between the teachers who have 30-40 students and the ones who have more than forty students in the classrooms in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of the inclusion of students with severe disabilities into regular classes.

Ha: There are differences between the teachers who have 30-40 students and the ones who have more than forty students in the classrooms in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of the inclusion of students with severe disabilities into regular classes.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups of the teachers who have 30-40 students and the ones who have more than forty students in the classrooms. Levene's test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were statistically different $F = 6.536, p = 0.012$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that the teachers who have 30-40 students in the classrooms ($M = 2.94; SD =$

1.029.) had statistically greater positive attitude in relation to the benefits of the inclusion of students with severe disabilities into regular classes than the ones who have more than forty students in the classrooms ($M= 2.37$; $SD = 0.731$), $t(20.216) = 2.166$, $p = 0.042$. Hence, we reject H_0 . When the teachers who have more than forty students in the classrooms served as the reference group, this means that the difference was 0.779 standard deviation in magnitude.

2.9 Internal Consistency Reliability

Evaluating the research design implies one important criterion: the internal consistency reliability of the study. The internal consistency of the research design concerns the degree to which the design meets the purposes of the study, shown to be measuring the same attribute in the overall survey. To assess whether the 21 items formed a reliable scale, Cronbach's alpha was computed. The alpha for the 21 items was .84, which indicates that the items on the task have very good internal consistency reliability (Leech, Barrett, & Morgan, 2005).

Furthermore, Table 27 provides two important types of information: corrected item-total correlation and Cronbach's Alpha if item deleted. The item-total correlation is obtained by the specific correlation of each item with the total of the other items of the task. If the correlation is moderately high or higher, i.e., above .40, we can assume that the item is probably correlated with most of the items and can be considered a good component of this task.

Items with lower item-total correlations do not fit into this scale as well in terms of the psychometric proprieties. When item-total correlation is negative or too low, e.g. below .30, we could consider modifying or deleting according to Leech, Barrett, and Morgan (2005). However, deleting a poor item in the case of the questionnaires would make a very

small change in the alpha, as we can see in Table 27. This is because the alpha is based on the number of items and their inter-correlations and this task is considered to have enough items to provide the task with an excellent reliability (Leech, Barrett, & Morgan, 2005; Field, 2005). Since the overall consistency of the scale is good, according to some authors, there is no need to remove some items which display weak correlations.

Table 27

Item-total Statistics for the Questionnaire

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted
Q 12	55.94	51.491	.507	.831
Q 13	55.80	65.173	-.589	.881
Q 14	55.41	59.840	-.249	.862
Q 15	55.76	51.041	.578	.829
Q 16	55.71	50.095	.692	.824
Q 17	55.77	50.293	.622	.826
Q 18	55.63	49.291	.761	.821
Q 19	55.80	51.600	.524	.831
Q 20	55.36	53.940	.348	.838
Q 21	55.49	53.197	.410	.836
Q 22	55.98	51.617	.451	.834
Q 23	55.76	51.962	.472	.833
Q 24	55.61	51.611	.544	.830
Q 25	55.70	51.583	.525	.831
Q 26	55.71	50.770	.605	.827
Q 27	55.88	49.637	.602	.826
Q 28	55.84	49.638	.629	.825
Q 29	55.46	49.689	.751	.822
Q 30	55.47	52.027	.575	.830
Q 31	56.03	57.089	-.012	.853
Q 32	55.23	52.922	.413	.836

2.10 Exploratory Factor Analysis

This section will present results from an exploratory factor analysis performed in order to identify groups or clusters of variables. This type of technique is used when a questionnaire is developed and intends to measure an underlying variable (Field, 2005).

Factor Analysis with varimax rotation was conducted to assess the underlying structure for the twenty-one items of the questionnaire. Three factors were requested, based on the fact that the items were designed to index three constructs: least restrictive environment, benefits, and impact. After rotation, the first factor accounted for 20.56% of the variance, the second factor accounted for 18.23%, and third factor accounted for 9.41%. Table 28 displays the items and factor loadings for the rotated factors, with loadings less than .40 omitted to improve clarity.

Table 28

Factor Loadings for the Rotated Factors

Items	Factor Loading			Communality
	1	2	3	
The inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to Lao community.	.84	-.40	-.54	.78
Inclusion in the regular classroom will have a positive impact on the academic progress of the students with a disability.	.76	.44	-.54	.65
The inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to their families.	.75			.67
The inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to Lao regular teachers.	.72			.70
The inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to themselves.	.68			.63
Students with disabilities should be educated in regular classrooms.	.67			.67
Students with disabilities should be educated in separated classrooms within regular schools.	-.67			.62
The inclusion of students with visual disabilities into regular classrooms can be beneficial to themselves.	.66			.65
Inclusion in the regular classrooms will have a positive impact on the social progress of the students with a disability.	.64			.59
The inclusion of students with dyslexia into regular classrooms can be beneficial to themselves.	.62			.65
The inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classrooms can be beneficial to the students without disabilities.	.61			.59

The inclusion of students with mental retardation into regular classrooms can be beneficial to themselves.	.60		.53
The inclusion of students with physical disabilities into regular classrooms can be beneficial to themselves.	.55		.53
The inclusion of students with behavioral problems into regular classrooms can be beneficial to themselves.	.53		.44
The inclusion of students with severe disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to themselves.	.47		.62
The inclusion of students with hearing disabilities into regular classrooms can be beneficial to themselves.	.46		.51
People with disabilities have the right to be included in Lao community.	.43		.46
The inclusion of students with visual disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to themselves.	.44		.59
Eigenvalues	4.31	3.83	1.97
% of variance	20.56	18.23	9.41

Note: Loading < .40 is omitted.

The first factor, which seems to index benefits (to others, to students with disabilities according to their severity, and according to the type of their disabilities), loads most strongly on the first seventeen items, with loadings in the first column. Fourteen of the items index benefits dimension. The second factor, which seems to index least restrictive environment, was composed of the two items would loading in column two of the table, but only one index the dimension, namely, Question 12. Students with disabilities should be educated in regular

classrooms. The third factor was composed of the two items in column two of the table would not index any dimension.

Therefore, in general the heavily dimension loaded is benefits, as these items might be measuring some common underlying dimension.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The aim of this study was to describe the perceptions of the secondary school teachers regarding the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular schools. In order to conduct this study, I have followed quantitative methodology, with data being collected by applying a questionnaire to 90 participants who are Lao secondary school teachers in Vientiane Capital. The results of this study are presented in chapter IV of this dissertation. This final chapter presents the conclusion to the study. It begins with an overview of this study and compares the findings of the current study with previous results of other similar studies and literatures. The major findings of the study are then summarized in an attempt to provide answers to the research goals in the methodology chapter. In addition, the chapter concludes with recommendations for further research in this field.

1. Conclusions

Based on the results of this study, the researcher would like to summarize the research findings in order to respond four research goals as follows:

1.1 Regarding the goal: the perceptions and beliefs of regular teachers regarding the least restrictive environment, the benefits and the impact of inclusion of students with disabilities in regular schools and in the community, the conclusions are the following:

a) In relation to the least restrictive environment – regular classrooms, separated classrooms within regular schools, and special schools, the research revealed that most participants preferred students with disabilities to be educated in special schools ($M = 3.06$)

rather in regular classrooms ($M = 2.52$) and in separated classrooms within regular schools ($M = 2.67$). This means that exclusion of students with disabilities still remains in teachers' perceptions when regarding regular educational environments, which may not be positive for the development and implementation of inclusive education in Laos. Such result is not consistent with the following commitment to inclusive education of UNESCO (1994):

Regular schools with this inclusive orientation are the most effective means of combating discriminatory attitudes, creating welcoming communities, building an inclusive society and achieving education for all; moreover, they provide an effective education to the majority of children and improve the efficiency and ultimately the cost-effectiveness of the entire education system (pp. viii-ix).

In addition, the most noticeable finding is that seventy participants (77.8%), which is the largest number of ninety participants, indicated that students with disabilities should be educated in special schools. This indicates that the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular school is not acceptable among regular secondary teachers in Laos. This is contradictory to the Salamanca Statement on Special Needs Education (UNESCO, 1994) "students with special educational needs must have access to regular schools which should accommodate them within a child-centered pedagogy capable of meeting these needs" (pp. viii-ix). Furthermore, these results are consistent with what Coutsocostas and Albors (2010) found in their study "one third of the total number of participants was not in favour of the inclusion of pupils with cLD, while vast majority indicated pupils with cLD and profound intellectual impairments should attend special schools; both the type and severity of the disability influenced teachers' attitudes towards the inclusion of all pupils" (p.160).

b) In terms of the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities in regular schools and community, the research found that the inclusion into regular schools could be slightly beneficial to students with disabilities ($M = 2.71$), their families ($M = 2.76$), Lao regular teachers ($M = 2.70$), and students without disabilities least ($M = 2.67$). Concurrently, the most noticeable result is that the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular schools could be beneficial to Lao community ($M = 2.83$). Based on the mean scores of the inclusion for four stakeholders of inclusive education – students with disabilities, their families, Lao regular teachers, and students without disabilities – it can be concluded that the participants are not in favour of the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular schools although the mean score for benefit of inclusion to Lao community is high. There would still remain obstacles on the implementation as well as development of inclusive education in Lao regular schools. This also means that the participants have less positive attitudes towards the inclusion of students with disabilities in regular secondary schools. These findings regarding the impact of inclusion on students without disabilities are contradictory to what Idol (2006) had found; in her study “educators had generally favourable impressions of the impact of students with disabilities on other students in their classes” (p. 91).

In relation to the inclusion based on the severity of the disability, the research revealed that the participants indicated that the inclusion into regular classes could be beneficial to students with mild disabilities ($M = 3.11$), while the mean scores for the benefits of inclusion of students with moderate and severe disabilities were 2.98 and 2.49. It is apparently that the participants supported the inclusion of students with mild disabilities more than the inclusion of students with moderate disabilities and the inclusion of students with severe disabilities into regular schools. The participants accepted only the inclusion of students with mild disabilities into their classes, which is consistent with the study conducted by Idol (2006) that reported that “the students with disabilities could become more a part of

their schools, and students with mild disabilities might be noticed less for their differences” (p. 92).

With regard to inclusion according to six types of the disability that were mentioned in the questionnaire – behavioral problems, dyslexia, mental retardation/intellectual disabilities, hearing, physical, and visual disabilities – the study results show that the inclusion into regular classrooms of the students with physical disabilities ($M = 2.86$) was the highest mean score among six types of the disability. The participants supported least the inclusion of students with mental retardation/intellectual disabilities ($M = 2.59$). I do not know the reason for these results due to the type of research that was used; however, I may hypothesize that the participants may worry that such inclusion might increase not only the responsibilities for them, but also affect the education of students without disabilities. Thus, the results show that teachers’ perceptions were not positive regarding inclusion being beneficial to students with behavioral problems, dyslexia, mental retardation/intellectual disabilities, hearing, and visual disabilities. This is consistent with what Smith et al. (1995) indicates for full inclusion of students with disabilities into general education classrooms, which was reported as taking away from students without disabilities and lessen their quality of education.

c) Regarding the impact of inclusion of students with disabilities in regular schools, the study found that most participants indicated that inclusion in the regular classrooms would have a positive impact on both the academic progress ($M = 3.01$) and social progress ($M = 3.00$) of the students with disabilities. This means that the inclusion into regular classrooms could help improve the academic learning and motivation for learning and gain positive social relationship of the students with disabilities as a whole, which are consistent with what Cole, Waldron, and Majd (2004) and Myklebust (2007) have argued: “inclusion has a

positive effect on students with special educational needs (SEN): they might achieve better academic results because they can learn from more able students, and they could become more motivated to achieve, because there might be more focus on academic progress in regular education” (as cited in Ruijs, Peetsma & Veen, 2012, p. 2). Such results are also consistent with what Heward (2003) has indicated, that is, inclusion can lead to social benefits and skill improvements. These benefits mean not being separated from typical peers but sharing class membership; having increased social interactions; gaining positive social relationships; expanding one’s peer network and making friends; and having peers who can be models for communication, social skills, dress, style, and increased alertness.

However, this research also revealed that teachers considered that the placement of a student with disability into a regular classroom was disruptive to students without disabilities ($M = 2.43$). This means that for the teachers who participated in the study inclusion of students with disabilities affects students without disabilities academically, which is consistent with what Heward (2003) has argued, that is, one potentially serious disadvantage to inclusion is that an inclusive student may require much more attention from the teacher than students without disabilities in a general class. Time and attention may thus be taken away from the rest of the class to meet the needs of a single student with special needs. Moreover, meaningful inclusion of students with disabilities into the academic and social life of the regular classroom presents a difficult challenge.

d) In relation to inclusion as a right, the research found that 79 participants (87.8%) indicated that people with disabilities have the right to be included in Lao community. This means that participants considered such people equally as normal citizen in the society, which is good for all students with disabilities. I can suggest that we should use a zero reject in Lao society, which is consistent with the principle Zero Reject of IDEA (1997, as cited in Heward, 2003, p. 22) used in schools, which stipulates that “schools must educate all children

with disabilities. This principle regardless of the nature or severity of the disability; no child with disabilities may be excluded from a public education”.

1.2 In relation to the goal: statistically significance among the independent variables regarding each question, and each cluster of question, conclusions are as follows:

a) Gender had impact on teacher’s perceptions: the research found that female participants ($M = 2.65$) had statistically greater positive attitudes related to the benefits of the inclusion of students with severe disabilities into regular classes than males ($M = 2.14$). This means that female teachers support the inclusion of students with severe disabilities more than male ones since female teachers.

b) Teaching experience had impact on teacher’s perceptions: In relation to experiences of teaching students with disabilities, based on the results of this study, the teachers who did not have any experiences of teaching students with disabilities had greater negative attitudes concerning: a) the education of students with disabilities in separated classrooms within regular schools; b) the education of students with disabilities in special schools; c) the benefits of inclusion to students with behavioral problems; and d) the benefits of inclusion to students with mental retardation ($M = 2.32$) than the ones who had experiences of teaching students with disabilities. This means that the teachers with no experiences of teaching students with disabilities did not support or had negative attitudes on the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular schools. This is consistent with what Coutsocostas and Alborz (2010) found in their study: “Greek mainstream secondary school teachers tended to exhibit negative attitudes towards the inclusion of all pupils with special educational needs on both theoretical and practical levels. Most teachers’ conceptualizations of the term reflected

‘integration’ rather than ‘inclusion’, an outlook that could be construed as a barrier to the successful implementation of inclusive education” (p. 160).

c) Access to information had impact on teacher’s perceptions: Concurrently, the research found that the teachers who had never heard any information regarding disability prior to this study had less positive attitude relating: a) the education of students with disabilities in regular classrooms; b) the education of students with disabilities in separated classrooms within regular schools; c) the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classrooms for Lao regular teachers; d) the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes to Lao community; e) the benefits of inclusion to students with severe disabilities into regular classrooms; f) the benefits of inclusion to students with hearing disabilities into regular classrooms; g) the benefits of inclusion to students with behavioral problems; and h) the positive impact of inclusion in the regular classroom on the academic progress of the student with a disability, than the ones who had ever heard some information about disability. This means that the teachers who did not have any background information had negative viewpoints on the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular schools, which affects the education of students with disabilities. Such perception would hinder the exclusion of students with disabilities. This result raises the importance of awareness about disabilities within school and community contexts.

d) Teacher training had impact on teacher’s perceptions: Teachers who had never been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities had less positive attitude in relation to: a) the education of students with disabilities into regular classrooms; b) the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes for their families; c) the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classrooms to Lao regular teachers; d) the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classrooms to

Lao community; e) the benefits of inclusion to students with mental retardation; f) the benefits of inclusion of students with visual disabilities; and g) the positive impact of inclusion in the regular classroom on the academic progress of the student with a disability, than the ones who had ever been involved in training about such teaching. This indicates that the teachers who had never been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities had negative attitudes towards the inclusion of students with disabilities, which hinders the implementation of inclusive education. This is consistent with what Ocloo and Subbey (2008) concluded “there were hampering factors to the policy implementation consisting of inadequate facilities available for the teachers to implement the philosophy of inclusion and a lack of adequate training for teachers to prepare them with how to educate students with disabilities in their classrooms. Teacher training is considered one important aspect in the implementation of an inclusive education” (p.648).

e) Experience of teaching students with disabilities had impact on teacher’s perceptions: In terms of the inclusion of students with disabilities in teachers’ classrooms, the research found that the teachers whose classrooms did not include students with disabilities had less positive attitude concerning: a) the benefits of inclusion to students with severe disabilities; b) the benefits of inclusion to students with behavioral problems; c) the benefits of inclusion to students with dyslexia into regular classes; d) and the education of students with disabilities in special schools, than the ones whose classrooms included students with disabilities. This is in contradiction to the fourth principle (Least Restrictive Environment) of IDEA which mandates that “students with disabilities be educated with children without disabilities to the maximum extent appropriate and that students with disabilities be removed to separate classes or schools only when the nature or severity of their disabilities is such that

they can not receive an appropriate education in a general education classroom with supplementary aides and services” (Heward, 2003, p. 22).

f) Teaching environment had impact on teacher’s perceptions: The research revealed that the teachers who teach in the urban schools had greater positive attitudes in relation to: a) benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes to their families; b) the benefits of the inclusion to the students with severe disabilities; and c) the benefits of the inclusion to the students with behavioral problems into regular classrooms, than the ones who teach in the sub-urban schools. This is consistent with what Coutsocostas and Alborz (2010) who state “fewer years of teaching experience and receipt of SEN training were found to be associated with positive attitudes towards the inclusion of pupils with cLD” (p. 160).

g) The probability of working with students with disabilities had impact on teacher’s perceptions: The research found that the teachers who indicated they would have very much probability to be working with students with disabilities in the future had great positive attitude concerning: a) the education of students with disabilities in regular classrooms; b) the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes to their families; c) the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes to Lao regular teachers; d) the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes to Lao community; and e) the positive impact of inclusion in the regular classroom on the academic progress of the student with a disability, than the ones who indicated they would have moderate probability and the ones who stated they would have a little bit probability to be working with students with disabilities in the future. This is consistent with what Idol (2006) has found “there was a trend among the participating educators of moving more and more toward the inclusion of students with disabilities in general education classes” (p. 91).

h) The number of students in the classroom had impact on teacher's perceptions: This study revealed that the teachers who had 30-40 students in the classrooms had greater positive attitude in relation to: a) the education of students with disabilities in regular classrooms; b) the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes to Lao community ($M = 3.18$), the benefits of inclusion to the students with moderate disabilities into regular classes; and c) the benefits of inclusion of students with severe disabilities into regular classes, than the ones who had more than forty students in classrooms. This indicates that the teachers who had more than 40 students in the classrooms did not support the inclusion of students with disabilities in their classrooms since they had a lot of responsibilities to manage their current students. If the students with disabilities were included in their classes, they would have more responsibilities.

However, the teachers who had 30-40 students in the classrooms ($M = 2.59$) had less positive attitude related to the education of students with disabilities in special schools than the ones who had more than 40 students in the classrooms ($M = 3.22$). This means there still remains the exclusion of students with disabilities in regular schools in Laos. They were in favour of the education of students with disabilities in special schools, not in regular schools. This is in contraction to the third principle of (Free, Appropriate Public Education) of IDEA which specifies that "all children with disabilities, regardless of the type or severity of their disability, shall receive a free, appropriate public education. This education must be provided at public expense – that is, without cost to the child's parents" (Heward, 2003, p. 22).

1.3 Analysis of the Dimensions of the Questionnaire

In order to validate the dimensions of the questionnaire, factor analysis with varimax rotation was conducted to assess the underlying structure for the twenty-one items of the questionnaire. The results were that the first factor – least restrictive environment accounted

for 20.56% of the variance; the second one – benefits accounted for 18.23%, and the third factor – impact accounted for 9.41%.

1.4 Reliability Coefficients for the Questionnaire

In this study, Cronbach's alpha was computed to assess whether the 21 items formed a reliable scale. The result was that the alpha for the 21 items was 0.84, which indicates that the items on the task have very good internal consistency reliability (Leech, Barrett, & Morgan, 2005).

2. Recommendations for Future Research

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations are offered for consideration for future research.

1. This study is limited to urban and sub-urban schools in Vientiane Capital. It may be helpful to determine whether the perception and beliefs of the respondents to this study are similar to those responding to the same issues at primary, secondary, and tertiary levels in other provinces.
2. This study focuses on teachers perceptions of inclusion in regular secondary schools. It may be beneficial to investigate other data collection instruments regarding the process of implementing inclusive education in Lao regular schools in the future.
3. This study is limited to secondary school teachers. It may be helpful to determine whether the attitudes and beliefs of the respondents to this study are similar to principals, educational authorities at district, provincial and national levels responding to the same issues.

3. Limitation of the Study

The proposed study focuses solely on secondary regular teachers' perceptions on the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classrooms in Lao context. The research does not intend to generalize the implementation of inclusive education in other schools, regions of Laos and educational levels. Only secondary teachers from six selected public secondary schools in Vientiane Capital, Laos had participated in this study as a convenience sample.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Letter of Proposal written by the Researcher

ສາທາລະນະລັດ ປະຊາທິປະໄຕ ປະຊາຊົນລາວ
ສັນຕິພາບ ເອກະລາດ ປະຊາທິປະໄຕ ເອກະພາບ ວັດທະນະຖາວອນ
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ມະຫາວິທະຍາໄລແຫ່ງຊາດ
ຄະນະອັກສອນສາດ
ພາກວິຊາພາສາອັງກິດ

ໜັງສືສະເໜີ

ຮຽນ: ທ່ານ ຄະນະບໍດີ ຄະນະອັກສອນສາດ ມະຫາວິທະຍາໄລແຫ່ງຊາດ
(ໂດຍຜ່ານການຈັດຕັ້ງຕາມລຳດັບ)

ເລື່ອງ: ຂໍໜັງສືຢັ້ງຢືນ ເພື່ອເກັບກຳຂໍ້ມູນ ໃນການຂຽນບົດວິທະຍານິພົນ ລະດັບປະລິນຍາໂທ
ສາຂາວິຊາ ການສຶກສາພິເສດ

- ອີງຕາມ: ຂໍ້ຕົກລົງຂອງລັດຖະມົນຕີ ກະຊວງສຶກສາ ແລະ ກິລາ ເລກທີ 1569 / ສສ.ຈຕ. 10
ລົງວັນທີ 06 ເດືອນ ກໍລະກົດ ປີ 2010 ວ່າດ້ວຍ ການອະນຸມັດໃຫ້ພະນັກງານໄປຍົກລະ
ດັບຊັ້ນ ປະລິນຍາໂທ ຢູ່ ປະເທດ ປອກຕູຍການ
- ອີງຕາມ: ໜັງສືຢັ້ງຢືນ ໃນການເກັບກຳຂໍ້ມູນຈາກ ມະຫາວິທະຍາໄລ ມິນໂຍ ປະເທດ ປອກຕູຍການ
- ອີງຕາມ: ຄວາມຈຳເປັນໃນການເກັບກຳຂໍ້ມູນ ເພື່ອປະກອບການຂຽນບົດວິທະຍານິພົນດັ່ງກ່າວ
ຕາມເງື່ອນໄຂ ທີ່ທາງຄະນະສຶກສາສາດ ມະຫາວິທະຍາໄລມິນໂຍ ປະເທດ ປອກຕູຍ
ການ ໄດ້ກຳນົດໄວ້

ຂ້າພະເຈົ້າ ອາຈານ ສີສະໝຸດ ແສນບຸດຕະລາດ ສັງກັດຢູ່ ພາກວິຊາ ພາສາອັງກິດ ຄະນະອັກ
ສອນສາດ, ມະຫາວິທະຍາໄລແຫ່ງຊາດ ປະຈຸບັນ ກຳລັງສຶກສາຕໍ່ປະລິນຍາໂທ ທີ່ມະຫາວິທະຍາໄລ
ມິນໂຍ, ປະເທດ ປອກຕູຍການ ສົກຮຽນ 2010-2012, ໃນສາຂາວິຊາ ການສຶກສາພິເສດໂດຍເໝັນ
ໜັກໃສ່ ນັກຮຽນທີ່ພິການດ້ານການຮຽນ. ສະເພາະຫົວຂໍ້ຂອງການຄົ້ນຄ້ວາແມ່ນ ຄວາມຮັບຮູ້ຂອງບັນດາ
ອາຈານມັດທະຍົມຕໍ່ກັບການຮຽນຮ່ວມຂອງນັກຮຽນທີ່ມີຄວາມຕ້ອງການງານສຶກສາພິເສດ ພາຍໃຕ້ທິນ
ຂອງໂຄງການ EM EuroAsia Programme ເຊິ່ງຊ່ວຍເຫຼືອ ແລະ ສະໜັບສະໜູນໂດຍ ຄະນະກຳມາ
ທິການຢູໂຮບ, ຂໍຖືເປັນກຽດ ຮຽນສະເໜີມາຍັງທ່ານ ເພື່ອຂໍ ໜັງສືຢັ້ງຢືນ ການລົງເກັບກຳຂໍ້ມູນຢູ່ໂຮງ
ຮຽນມັດທະຍົມເປົ້າໝາຍ 6 ແຫ່ງ ໃນນະຄອນຫຼວງວຽງຈັນ: (1) ມັດທະຍົມສົມບູນ ຕານມີໄຊ,

(2) ມັດທະຍົມສົມບູນ ສາທິດ, (3) ມັດທະຍົມສົມບູນ ດອນໝູນ, (4) ມັດທະຍົມສົມບູນ ວຽງຈັນ, (5) ມັດທະຍົມສົມບູນ ສີໂດດ ແລະ (6) ມັດທະຍົມສົມບູນ ເພຍວັດ. ການເກັບກຳຂໍ້ມູນໃນຄັ້ງນີ້ ຈະໄດ້ດຳເນີນໄປດ້ວຍການນຳໃຊ້ແບບສອບຖາມເປັນພາສາລາວເທົ່ານັ້ນ.

ການເກັບກຳຂໍ້ມູນໃນຄັ້ງນີ້ ແມ່ນປັດໃຈສຳຄັນຕໍ່ກັບ ບົດວິທະຍານິພົນ ຂອງຂ້າພະເຈົ້າ ທາກປາສະຈາກການຊ່ວຍເຫຼືອ ຂອງຂັ້ນນຳ ມະຫາວິທະຍາໄລແຫ່ງຊາດ, ຄະນະອັກສອນສາດ, ພາກວິຊາພາສາອັງກິດ ແລະ ອາຈານຢູ່ໃນໂຮງຮຽນມັດທະຍົມເປົ້າໝາຍທີ່ກ່າວມານັ້ນແລ້ວ ຈະເຮັດໃຫ້ການຄົ້ນຄວ້າໃນຄັ້ງນີ້ ມີຄວາມຫຍຸ້ງຍາກ ແລະ ອາດບໍ່ໄດ້ຮັບຜົນສຳເລັດ.

ດັ່ງນັ້ນ, ຂ້າພະເຈົ້າ ຂໍຖືເປັນກຽດ ຮຽນສະເໜີມາຍັງທ່ານ ເພື່ອພິຈາລະນາ ອະນຸມັດ ຕາມທາງຄວນດ້ວຍ.

ຮຽນມາດ້ວຍຄວາມນັບຖື ຢ່າງສູງ.

ມະຫາວິທະຍາໄລມິນໂຍ, ປະເທດ ປອກຕູຍການ, ວັນທີ 10 ມັງກອນ 2012

ຄຳເຫັນຂອງ ຫົວໜ້າພາກວິຊາ ພາສາອັງກິດ

ພາກວິຊາ ພາສາອັງກິດ ມີສະໜັບສະໜູນ
ແມ່ນ ອາຈານ ສາທິດ ຢູ່ພາກວິຊາ ແລະ
ກຳລັງ ສຶກ ສາ ລະ ດົວ ປະ ສົມ ບູນ ໂທ
ຢູ່ປະເທດ ປອກຕູຍ ການ. ສ່ວນ ຜູ້ ກ່ຽວ
ຂ້າງ ຢູ່ ປະ ເທດ ໂປ ເລັດ ບີ ມິ ມິ ສະ
ປາ ການ ຂຽນ ບົດ ນິພົນ. ສະ ຕິ ລາ ດີ ວິ
ເຄິ່ງ ພິ ຈາ ລະ ພາ

11/12

ເກດແກ້ວ ພັນທະນິວິງ

ຜູ້ສະເໜີ

ສີສະໝຸດ ແສນບຸດຕະລາດ

ນັກສຶກສາປະລິຍາໂທ

ມະຫາວິທະຍາໄລມິນໂຍ

ຄະນະສຶກສາສາດ

ພາກວິຊາ ຈິດຕະສຶກສາ ແລະ ການສຶກສາພິເສດ

ປະເທດປອກຕູການ

APPENDIX B: Letter of Approval from Faculty of Letters

ສາທາລະນະລັດ ປະຊາທິປະໄຕ ປະຊາຊົນລາວ
ສັນຕິພາບ ເອກະລາດ ປະຊາທິປະໄຕ ເອກະພາບ ວັດທະນາຖາວອນ



ກະຊວງສຶກສາທິການ ແລະ ກິລາ
ມະຫາວິທະຍາໄລແຫ່ງຊາດ
ຄະນະອັກສອນສາດ

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ເລກທີ...../ຄອສ/2012
ວັນທີ 20 JAN 2012

ໃບສະເໜີ


ຮຽນ: ທ່ານ ອຸໂມວຍກາມ ມັດທ: ຢົມສິມບຸນ ສາທິດ
ເລື່ອງ: ຂໍອະນຸຍາດລົງເກັບກຳຂໍ້ມູນເພື່ອເປັນຂໍ້ມູນໃນການຂຽນບົດວິທະຍານິພົນ

- ອີງຕາມ: ຂໍ້ຕົກລົງຂອງລັດຖະມົນຕີກະຊວງສຶກສາທິການ ແລະ ກິລາ ວ່າດ້ວຍການອະນຸມັດໃຫ້ພະນັກງານໄປຍົກລະດັບຂຶ້ນປະລິນຍາໂທ ຢູ່ປະເທດ ປອກຕູຍການ, ສະບັບເລກທີ 1569/ສສ.ຈຕ/10, ລົງວັນທີ 06/ ກໍລະກົດ/ 2010
- ອີງຕາມ : ໜັງສືຢັ້ງຢືນໃນການເກັບກຳຂໍ້ມູນຈາກມະຫາວິທະຍາໄລ ມິນໂຍ ປະເທດປອກຕູຍການ
- ອີງຕາມ: ການສະເໜີຂອງພາກວິຊາພາສາອັງກິດ
- ອີງຕາມ: ຄຳຮ້ອງຂອງຜູ້ກ່ຽວ

ຄະນະບໍດີ ຄະນະອັກສອນສາດ ຂໍຖືເປັນກຽດຮຽນສະເໜີມາຍັງທ່ານ ເພື່ອຂໍອະນຸຍາດໃຫ້ ທ້າວ ສີສະໝຸດ ແສນບຸດຕະລາດ, ອາຈານສອນ ຢູ່ພາກວິຊາ ພາສາອັງກິດ, ຄະນະອັກສອນສາດ, ມະຫາວິທະຍາໄລແຫ່ງຊາດ ລົງໄປເກັບກຳຂໍ້ມູນຢູ່ພາຍໃນພາກສ່ວນຂອງທ່ານ. ປະຈຸບັນນີ້ ຜູ້ກ່ຽວເປັນນັກສຶກສາປະລິນຍາໂທ ຢູ່ມະຫາວິທະຍາໄລມິນໂຍ ປະເທດປອກຕູຍການ ທີ່ວໍຂໍຄົ້ນຄວ້າຂອງຜູ້ກ່ຽວແມ່ນ ຄວາມຮັບຮູ້ຂອງບັນດາອາຈານມັດທະຍົມຕໍ່ກັບການຮຽນຮ່ວມຂອງນັກຮຽນທີ່ມີການ ການສຶກສາພິເສດ ໄລຍະເກັບກຳຂໍ້ມູນແມ່ນ ເລີ່ມແຕ່ ວັນທີ 01 ເດືອນ 02..... ຫາ ວັນທີ 17..... ເດືອນ 02..... 2012.

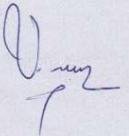
ດັ່ງນັ້ນ, ຈຶ່ງຮຽນສະເໜີມາຍັງທ່ານເພື່ອພິຈາລະນາຕາມຄວາມເໝາະສົມດ້ວຍ
ຮຽນມາດ້ວຍຄວາມນັບຖືຢ່າງສູງ

ຮ ຄະນະບໍດີ



ຮສ.ດຣ. ກິ່ນສຸດອນ ສີປະເສີດ

ສ: ບໍດີ ທີ່ ວິຊາ. ມ ຮຽ ສຽ
ວັນທີ 20/1/2012 ວິ. ມ ທີ່ ວິ. ມ ຮຽ ສຽ



ສາທາລະນະລັດ ປະຊາທິປະໄຕ ປະຊາຊົນລາວ
ສັນຕິພາບ ເອກະລາດ ປະຊາທິປະໄຕ ເອກະພາບ ວັດທະນາຖາວອນ



ກະຊວງສຶກສາທິການ ແລະ ກິລາ
ມະຫາວິທະຍາໄລແຫ່ງຊາດ
ຄະນະອັກສອນສາດ

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ເລກທີ...../ຄອສ/2012
ວັນທີ 20 JAN 2012

ໃບສະເໜີ

ຮຽນ: ທ່ານ ສົມບູນ ສິມບູນ ໄຊ ເອັງ
ເລື່ອງ: ຂໍອະນຸຍາດລົງເກັບກຳຂໍ້ມູນເພື່ອເປັນຂໍ້ມູນໃນການຂຽນບົດວິທະຍານິພົນ

- ອີງຕາມ: ຂໍ້ຕົກລົງຂອງລັດຖະມົນຕີກະຊວງສຶກສາທິການ ແລະ ກິລາ ວ່າດ້ວຍການອະນຸມັດໃຫ້ພະນັກງານໄປຍົກລະດັບ ຊັ້ນປະລິນຍາໂທ ຢູ່ປະເທດ ປອກຕຸຍການ, ສະບັບເລກທີ 1569/ສສ.ຈຕ/10, ລົງວັນທີ 06/ ກໍລະກົດ/ 2010
- ອີງຕາມ: ໜັງສືຢັ້ງຢືນໃນການເກັບກຳຂໍ້ມູນຈາກມະຫາວິທະຍາໄລ ມິນໂຍ ປະເທດປອກຕຸຍການ
- ອີງຕາມ: ການສະເໜີຂອງພາກວິຊາພາສາອັງກິດ
- ອີງຕາມ: ຄຳຮ້ອງຂອງຜູ້ກ່ຽວ

ຄະນະບໍດີ ຄະນະອັກສອນສາດ ຂໍຖືເປັນກຽດຮຽນສະເໜີມາຍັງທ່ານ ເພື່ອຂໍອະນຸຍາດໃຫ້ ທ້າວ ສີສະໝຸດ ແສນບຸດຕະລາດ, ອາຈານສອນ ຢູ່ພາກວິຊາ ພາສາອັງກິດ, ຄະນະອັກສອນສາດ, ມະຫາວິທະຍາໄລແຫ່ງຊາດ ລົງໄປເກັບກຳຂໍ້ມູນຢູ່ພາຍໃນ ພາກສ່ວນຂອງທ່ານ. ປະຈຸບັນນີ້ ຜູ້ກ່ຽວເປັນນັກສຶກສາປະລິນຍາໂທ ຢູ່ມະຫາວິທະຍາໄລມິນໂຍ ປະເທດປອກຕຸຍການ ທົ່ວຂໍ້ ຄົ້ນຄວ້າຂອງຜູ້ກ່ຽວແມ່ນ ຄວາມຮັບຮູ້ຂອງບັນດາອາຈານມິດທະຍົມຕໍ່ກັບການຮຽນຮ່ວມຂອງນັກຮຽນທີ່ມີການ ການສຶກສາພິເສດ. ໄລຍະເກັບກຳຂໍ້ມູນແມ່ນ ເລີ່ມແຕ່ ວັນທີ 01..... ເດືອນ ...02..... ຫາ ວັນທີ ...12..... ເດືອນ ...02..... 2012.

ດັ່ງນັ້ນ, ຈຶ່ງຮຽນສະເໜີມາຍັງທ່ານເພື່ອພິຈາລະນາຕາມຄວາມເໝາະສົມດ້ວຍ
ຮຽນມາດ້ວຍຄວາມນັບຖືຢ່າງສູງ

5 ຄະນະບໍດີ



ຮສ.ດຣ. ກິມສຸທອນ ສີປະເສີດ

APPENDIX C: English Version of the Questionnaire



Universidade do Minho
Instituto de Educação

University of Minho

Institute of Education

Department of Educational Psychology and Special Education

Survey Instrument

Perception of Secondary Teachers towards Inclusion of Students with Disabilities

This questionnaire is one part of the scopes on research for Master in Special Education – Specialization in Specific Learning Disabilities at the Institute of Education, University of Minho, Portugal.

This study aims to know the perception of secondary teachers towards inclusion of students with disabilities. The data collected will be used solely for this study. I would like you to answer the following questions. You need to spend approximately 25 minutes to answer such questions. This is not a test; therefore, there are no “right” or “wrong” answers. The honest answers will be highly appreciated and confidential.

I commit to respect the anonymity, confidentiality and privacy of respondents. No one will be allowed to have access to the information. In addition, it will not affect your position or day-to-day work. Thank you very much for your cooperation.

I. Demographic Information of the Survey Respondents

(Please put a tick (✓) in the appropriate box of the following which expresses your answer.)

1. Gender: Male Female

2. Age: years *(Please indicate how old you are in the space provided.)*

3. Educational qualifications *(Please choose only one answer)*

3.1 Certificate

3.2 Diploma

3.3 Higher Diploma

3.4 Bachelor Degree

3.5 Master Degree

3.6 Doctoral Degree

4. Teaching experiences

4.1 Less than 5 years

4.2 5 to 10 years

4.3 10 to 15 years

4.4 15 to 20 years

4.5 More than 20 years

5. Have you ever taught students with disabilities?

Yes No

6. Have you ever met a child or an adult with disability?

Yes No

7. Indicate how likely it is that you will be working with students with disabilities in the future.

4. Very much 3. Moderately 2. A little bit 1. Not at all

8. Have you ever heard any information about disability before this study?

Yes No

9. Have you ever been involved in training about teacher students with disabilities?

Yes No

If yes, what kind of training?

.....

10. How many students are there in each classroom you are teaching?

10.1 15-20 students

10.2 20-30 students

10.3 30-40 students

10.4 More than 40 students

11. Were students with disabilities included in your classroom?

Yes No

If yes, what kind of disabilities do they have?

.....

.....

II. Perception of teachers towards Inclusion of Students with Disabilities

(Please indicate your level of agreement for each of the following items by putting a tick

(✓) in the box provided in each number)

12. Students with disabilities should be educated in regular classrooms.

Strongly disagree Disagree Agree Strongly agree

13. Students with disabilities should be educated in separated classrooms within regular schools.

Strongly disagree Disagree Agree Strongly agree

14. Students with disabilities should be educated in special schools.

Strongly disagree Disagree Agree Strongly agree

15. The inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to themselves.

Strongly disagree Disagree Agree Strongly agree

16. The inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to their families.

Strongly disagree Disagree Agree Strongly agree

17. The inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to Lao regular teachers.

Strongly disagree Disagree Agree Strongly agree

18. The inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to Lao community.

Strongly disagree Disagree Agree Strongly agree

19. The inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classrooms can be beneficial to the students without disabilities.

Strongly disagree Disagree Agree Strongly agree

20. The inclusion of students with mild disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to themselves.

Strongly disagree Disagree Agree Strongly agree

21. The inclusion of students with moderate disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to themselves.

Strongly disagree Disagree Agree Strongly agree

22. The inclusion of students with severe disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to themselves.

Strongly disagree Disagree Agree Strongly agree

23. The inclusion of students with hearing disabilities into regular classrooms can be beneficial to themselves.

Strongly disagree Disagree Agree Strongly agree

24. The inclusion of students with physical disabilities into regular classrooms can be beneficial to themselves.

Strongly disagree Disagree Agree Strongly agree

25. The inclusion of students with behavioural problems into regular classrooms can be beneficial to themselves.

Strongly disagree Disagree Agree Strongly agree

26. The inclusion of students with dyslexia into regular classrooms can be beneficial to themselves.

Strongly disagree Disagree Agree Strongly agree

27. The inclusion of students with mental retardation into regular classrooms can be beneficial to themselves.

Strongly disagree Disagree Agree Strongly agree

28. The inclusion of students with visual disabilities into regular classrooms can be beneficial to themselves.

Strongly disagree Disagree Agree Strongly agree

29. Inclusion in the regular classroom will have a positive impact on the academic progress of the student with a disability.

Strongly disagree Disagree Agree Strongly agree

30. Inclusion in the regular classroom will have a positive impact on the social progress of the student with a disability.

Strongly disagree Disagree Agree Strongly agree

31. Placement of a student with a disability into a regular classroom is disruptive to students without disabilities.

Strongly disagree Disagree Agree Strongly agree

32. People with disabilities have the right to be included in Lao community

Strongly disagree Disagree Agree Strongly agree

Thank you very much for your cooperation

APPENDIX D: Lao Version of the Questionnaire



Universidade do Minho
Instituto de Educação

ມະຫາວິທະຍາໄລມິນໂຍ

ຄະນະສຶກສາສາດ

ພາກວິຊາຈິດຕະສຶກສາ ແລະ ການສຶກສາພິເສດ

ແບບສອບຖາມ

ຄວາມຮັບຮູ້ຂອງ ບັນດາອາຈານມັດທະຍົມຕໍ່ກັບການຮຽນຮ່ວມຂອງນັກຮຽນທີ່ມີຄວາມຕ້ອງການງຽບສາພິເສດ

ແບບສອບຖາມນີ້ແມ່ນພາກສ່ວນໜຶ່ງຂອງຂອບເຂດການຄົ້ນຄ້ວາລະດັບປະລິນຍາໂທສາຂາວິຊາການສຶກສາພິເສດໂດຍເນັ້ນໜັກໃສ່ ນັກຮຽນທີ່ພິການດ້ານການຮຽນ ຢູ່ຄະນະສຶກສາສາດ, ມະຫາວິທະຍາໄລມິນໂຍ, ປະເທດປອກຕຸຍການ.

ຈຸດປະສົງຂອງການຄົ້ນຄວ້າດັ່ງກ່າວນີ້ ແມ່ນເພື່ອຢາກຮູ້ເຖິງ **ຄວາມຮັບຮູ້ຂອງບັນດາອາຈານມັດທະຍົມຕໍ່ກັບການຮຽນຮ່ວມຂອງນັກຮຽນທີ່ມີຄວາມຕ້ອງການງຽບສາພິເສດ**. ຂໍ້ມູນທີ່ໄດ້ຈາກການສຳຫຼວດຄັ້ງນີ້ ຈະຖືກນຳໃຊ້ເຂົ້າໃນບົດຄົ້ນຄວ້າດັ່ງກ່າວເທົ່ານັ້ນ. ຂ້າພະເຈົ້າຂໍຄວາມຊ່ວຍເຫຼືອນຳທຸກໆທ່ານຕອບຄຳຖາມດັ່ງຕໍ່ໄປນີ້. ໃຊ້ເວລາປະມານ 25 ນາທີເທົ່ານັ້ນ. ການຕອບແບບສອບຖາມດັ່ງກ່າວນີ້ ບໍ່ແມ່ນການສອບເສັງແຕ່ຢ່າງໃດເລີຍ. ດັ່ງນັ້ນ, ຈະບໍ່ມີຄຳຕອບໃດທີ່ຖືກຕ້ອງ ຫຼື ຜິດພາດ. ການຕອບຄຳຖາມດ້ວຍຄວາມຈິງໃຈ ແລະ ຊື່ສັດນັ້ນ ຈະເປັນຜົນດີໃຫ້ແກ່ການຄົ້ນຄວ້າ ແລະ ຈະຮັກສາໄວ້ໃຫ້ເປັນຄວາມລັບທີ່ສຸດ.

ຂ້າພະເຈົ້າ ຂໍສະແດງຄວາມເຄົາລົບນັບຖື, ຈະຮັກສາຄວາມລັບ ແລະ ສະຫງວນຊື່ຂອງທ່ານຜູ້ທີ່ສະໜອງຂໍ້ມູນໃຫ້ແກ່ການສຳຫຼວດໃນຄັ້ງນີ້. ຈະບໍ່ອະນຸຍາດໃຫ້ບຸກຄົນໃດໜຶ່ງ ນຳໃຊ້ຂໍ້ມູນດັ່ງກ່າວນັ້ນ. ຂໍ້ມູນດັ່ງກ່າວນີ້ ຈະບໍ່ສົ່ງຜົນກະທົບຕໍ່ໜ້າທີ່ວຽກງານຂອງທ່ານແຕ່ປະການໃດ. ຂໍຂອບໃຈຫຼາຍໆນຳບັນດາທ່ານທີ່ໃຫ້ຄວາມຊ່ວຍເຫຼືອ ໃນການຕອບສະໜອງຂໍ້ມູນໃຫ້ແກ່ຂ້າພະເຈົ້າໃນຄັ້ງນີ້ດ້ວຍ.

ໝາຍເຫດ: ຂໍຄວາມກະລຸນາ ນຳບັນດາອາຈານ ຊ່ວຍອ່ານຄຳອະທິບາຍເພີ່ມເຕີມ ຢູ່ໜ້າທີ 2 ເພື່ອໃຫ້ເຂົ້າໃຈ ຄຳສັບ ທີ່ໃຊ້ໃນແບບສອບຖາມ ກ່ອນທີ່ທ່ານຈະຕອບ.

ຄຳອະທິບາຍເພີ່ມເຕີມ:

- **ການສຶກສາພິເສດ** ໝາຍເຖິງການສຶດສອນແບບພິເສດທີ່ຕອບສະໜອງບັນຫາພິເສດຕ່າງໆໃນການຮຽນ ການສອນ. ບັນຫາພິເສດເຫຼົ່ານັ້ນອາດປະກອບດ້ວຍ ການພິການດ້ານຕ່າງໆເຊິ່ງລວມມີ: ການພິການທາງ ຮ່າງກາຍ, ສາຍຕາ, ປະສາດຮັບຮູ້, ຄວາມນິກົດ, ການອ່ານ, ການຂຽນ, ການຟັງ, ການເວົ້າ, ບັນຫາອາລົມຈິດ ຫຼື ການປະພຶດ ແລະ ບັນຫາອື່ນໆ.
- **ການຮຽນຮ່ວມ** ໝາຍເຖິງ ການເອົານັກຮຽນທີ່ມີຄວາມຕ້ອງການສຶກສາພິເສດເຂົ້າຮຽນຮ່ວມກັນກັບນັກຮຽນປົກກະຕິ ຢູ່ໃນຫ້ອງຮຽນທົ່ວໄປ
- **ພິການ** ໝາຍເຖິງຂໍ້ຈຳກັດ ຫຼື ການຂາດຄວາມສາມາດ ໃນການເຄື່ອນໄຫວກິດຈະກຳໃດໜຶ່ງ ເນື່ອງຈາກການສູນເສຍ ຫຼື ຄວາມຜິດປົກກະຕິ ຂອງໂຄງສ້າງ ທາງຮ່າງກາຍ ແລະ ຈິດໃຈຂອງຄົນຜູ້ໜຶ່ງ

I. ຂໍ້ມູນພື້ນຖານທົ່ວໄປຂອງຜູ້ຕອບແບບສອບຖາມ

(ຂໍຄວາມກະລຸນາ ນຳບັນດາອາຈານ ຊ່ວຍຕອບທຸກໆຄຳຖາມທີ່ໄດ້ຈັດລຽງໄວ້ ແຕ່ ຂໍ້ 1 ຫາ 32)
(ກະລຸນາໃສ່ເຄື່ອງໝາຍ (✓) ໃນຮູບຈະຕຸລັດນ້ອຍ ເພື່ອສະແດງຄຳຕອບຂອງທ່ານ)

ຕົວຢ່າງ: ໂຮງຮຽນຂອງທ່ານ ເຄີຍໄດ້ຮັບນັກຮຽນພິການທາງຮ່າງກາຍ
ເຂົ້າຮຽນໃນຫ້ອງຮຽນທົ່ວໄປ
ຮ່ວມກັບນັກຮຽນປົກກະຕິບໍ່?
ເຄີຍ ບໍ່ເຄີຍ

1. ເພດ: ຊາຍ ຍິງ
2. ອາຍຸ: ປີ (ກະລຸນາຂຽນອາຍຸຂອງທ່ານໃສ່ໃນບ່ອນຫວ່າງ)
3. ວຸດທິການສຶກສາ (ໃຫ້ໝາຍເອົາໜຶ່ງຄຳຕອບທີ່ສະແດງເຖິງວຸດທິການສຶກສາຂອງທ່ານໃນປະຈຸບັນ)
 - 3.1 ຊັ້ນຕົ້ນ
 - 3.2 ຊັ້ນກາງ
 - 3.3 ຊັ້ນສູງ
 - 3.4 ປະລິນຍາຕີ
 - 3.5 ປະລິນຍາໂທ
 - 3.5 ປະລິນຍາເອກ

4. ປະສົບການດ້ານການສິດສອນ

- 4.1 ມີປະສົບການດ້ານການສິດສອນໜ້ອຍກ່ວາ 5 ປີ
- 4.2 ມີປະສົບການດ້ານການສິດສອນ 5 ຫາ 10 ປີ
- 4.3 ມີປະສົບການດ້ານການສິດສອນ 10 ຫາ 15 ປີ
- 4.4 ມີປະສົບການດ້ານການສິດສອນ 15 ຫາ 20 ປີ
- 4.5 ມີປະສົບການດ້ານການສິດສອນຫຼາຍກ່ວາ 20 ປີ

5. ທ່ານເຄີຍໄດ້ສອນນັກຮຽນທີ່ມີຄວາມຕ້ອງການໆສຶກສາພິເສດບໍ?

- ເຄີຍ ບໍ່ເຄີຍ

6. ທ່ານເຄີຍພົບເຫັນເດັກນ້ອຍ ຫຼື ຜູ້ໃຫຍ່ ທີ່ມີຄວາມຕ້ອງການໆສຶກສາພິເສດບໍ?

- ເຄີຍ ບໍ່ເຄີຍ

7. ໃນອະນາຄົດ, ທ່ານຄິດວ່າ ມີຄວາມເປັນໄປໄດ້ຫຼາຍເທົ່າໃດ ທີ່ທ່ານຈະໄດ້ສິດສອນນັກຮຽນທີ່ມີຄວາມຕ້ອງການໆສຶກສາພິເສດ.

- 4. ມີຄວາມເປັນໄປໄດ້ຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ 3. ມີຄວາມເປັນໄປໄດ້ປານກາງ
- 2. ມີຄວາມເປັນໄປໄດ້ໜ້ອຍ 1. ເປັນໄປບໍ່ໄດ້ເລີຍ

8. ທ່ານເຄີຍໄດ້ຮັບຮູ້ຂໍ້ມູນຂ່າວສານຫຍັງແນ່ ກ່ຽວກັບ ການສຶກສາພິເສດ ກ່ອນການຄົ້ນຄ້ວາຂອງຂ້າພະເຈົ້າຄັ້ງນີ້?

- ເຄີຍ ບໍ່ເຄີຍ

9. ທ່ານເຄີຍໄດ້ເຂົ້າຮ່ວມການຝຶກອົບຮົມເປັນອາຈານສອນນັກຮຽນທີ່ມີຄວາມຕ້ອງການໆສຶກສາພິເສດບໍ?

- ເຄີຍ ບໍ່ເຄີຍ

ຖ້າໄດ້ເຂົ້າຮ່ວມ, ແມ່ນການຝຶກອົບຮົມສະເພາະ ດ້ານໃດແດ່? (ກະລຸນາ ອະທິບາຍລະອຽດ)

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10. ມີນັກຮຽນຈັກຄົນໃນແຕ່ລະຫ້ອງຮຽນ ທີ່ທ່ານສອນຢູ່ໃນປະຈຸບັນນີ້?

- 10.1 15-20 ຄົນ
- 10.2 20-30 ຄົນ
- 10.3 30-40 ຄົນ
- 10.4 ຫຼາຍກ່ວາ 40 ຄົນ

11. ເຄີຍມີນັກຮຽນທີ່ມີຄວາມຕ້ອງການໆສຶກສາພິເສດ ເຂົ້າຮຽນໃນຫ້ອງຮຽນຂອງທ່ານບໍ່ ໃນໄລຍະ ຜ່ານມາ?

ເຄີຍ ບໍ່ເຄີຍ

ຖ້າມີ, ພວກເຂົາແມ່ນນັກຮຽນທີ່ມີຄວາມຕ້ອງການໆສຶກສາພິເສດດ້ານໃດແດ່?

(ກະລຸນາອະທິບາຍລະອຽດ)

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II. ຄວາມຮັບຮູ້ຂອງບັດດາອາຈານມັດທະຍົມຕໍ່ກັບການຮຽນຮ່ວມຂອງນັກຮຽນທີ່ມີຄວາມຕ້ອງການໆສຶກສາພິເສດ

(ກະລຸນາໝາຍເອົາໜຶ່ງໃນສີ່ຂອງຄຳຕອບໃນແຕ່ລະຄຳຖາມທີ່ທ່ານເຫັນວ່າເໝາະສົມ ດ້ວຍການໃສ່ເຄື່ອງໝາຍ (✓) ໃນຮູບຈະຕຸລັດນ້ອຍ)

12. ນັກຮຽນທີ່ມີຄວາມຕ້ອງການໆສຶກສາພິເສດ ຄວນໄດ້ຮັບການສຶກສາໃນຫ້ອງຮຽນດຽວກັນກັບນັກຮຽນປົກກະຕິ.

ບໍ່ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ ບໍ່ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ

13. ນັກຮຽນທີ່ມີຄວາມຕ້ອງການໆສຶກສາພິເສດ ຄວນແຍກໃຫ້ຮຽນຫ້ອງຕ່າງຫາກ ໃນໂຮງຮຽນທົ່ວໄປ.

ບໍ່ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ ບໍ່ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ

14. ນັກຮຽນທີ່ມີຄວາມຕ້ອງການໆສຶກສາພິເສດ ຄວນໄດ້ຮັບການສຶກສາ ຢູ່ໃນໂຮງຮຽນພິເສດ.

ບໍ່ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ ບໍ່ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ

15. ການຮຽນຮ່ວມ ອາດເປັນຜົນດີໃຫ້ແກ່ ນັກຮຽນທີ່ມີຄວາມຕ້ອງການໆສຶກສາພິເສດ.

ບໍ່ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ ບໍ່ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ

16. ການຮຽນຮ່ວມ ອາດເປັນຜົນດີໃຫ້ແກ່ ຄອບຄົວຂອງນັກຮຽນ ທີ່ມີຄວາມຕ້ອງການໆສຶກສາພິເສດ.

ບໍ່ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ ບໍ່ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ

17. ການຮຽນຮ່ວມ ອາດເປັນຜົນດີໃຫ້ແກ່ ອາຈານສອນຢູ່ໃນໂຮງຮຽນທົ່ວໄປ ໃນປະເທດລາວ.

ບໍ່ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ ບໍ່ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ

18. ການຮຽນຮ່ວມ ອາດເປັນຜົນດີໃຫ້ແກ່ ສັງຄົມລາວ.

ບໍ່ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ ບໍ່ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ

19. ການຮຽນຮ່ວມ ອາດເປັນຜົນດີໃຫ້ແກ່ ນັກຮຽນປົກກະຕິ.

ບໍ່ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ ບໍ່ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ

20. ການຮຽນຮ່ວມຂອງ ນັກຮຽນພິການ ຂັ້ນທຳມະດາ ອາດເປັນຜົນດີໃຫ້ແກ່ ນັກຮຽນພິການເອງ.
 ບໍ່ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ ບໍ່ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ
21. ການຮຽນຮ່ວມຂອງ ນັກຮຽນພິການ ຂັ້ນກາງ ອາດເປັນຜົນດີໃຫ້ແກ່ ນັກຮຽນພິການເອງ.
 ບໍ່ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ ບໍ່ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ
22. ການຮຽນຮ່ວມຂອງ ນັກຮຽນພິການ ຂັ້ນຮ້າຍແຮງ ອາດເປັນຜົນດີໃຫ້ແກ່ ນັກຮຽນພິການເອງ.
 ບໍ່ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ ບໍ່ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ
23. ການຮຽນຮ່ວມ ອາດເປັນຜົນດີ ໃຫ້ແກ່ ນັກຮຽນພິການ ດ້ານການຟັງ.
 ບໍ່ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ ບໍ່ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ
24. ການຮຽນຮ່ວມ ອາດເປັນຜົນດີໃຫ້ແກ່ ນັກຮຽນພິການ ທາງຮ່າງກາຍ.
 ບໍ່ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ ບໍ່ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ
25. ການຮຽນຮ່ວມ ອາດເປັນຜົນດີໃຫ້ແກ່ ນັກຮຽນ ທີ່ມີບັນຫາ ດ້ານການປະພຶດ.
 ບໍ່ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ ບໍ່ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ
26. ການຮຽນຮ່ວມ ອາດເປັນຜົນດີ ໃຫ້ແກ່ ນັກຮຽນທີ່ມີບັນຫາ ດ້ານການອ່ານ.
 ບໍ່ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ ບໍ່ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ
27. ການຮຽນຮ່ວມ ອາດເປັນຜົນດີໃຫ້ແກ່ ນັກຮຽນທີ່ມີບັນຫາ ທາງສະພາບຈິດ.
 ບໍ່ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ ບໍ່ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ
28. ການຮຽນຮ່ວມ ອາດເປັນຜົນດີ ໃຫ້ແກ່ ນັກຮຽນພິການ ທາງສາຍຕາ.
 ບໍ່ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ ບໍ່ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ
29. ການຮຽນຮ່ວມ ອາດເປັນຜົນດີຕໍ່ຄວາມກ້າວໜ້າດ້ານການຮຽນ ຂອງນັກຮຽນທີ່ມີ
 ຄວາມຕ້ອງການ ງສຶກສາພິເສດ.
 ບໍ່ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ ບໍ່ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ
30. ການຮຽນຮ່ວມ ອາດເປັນຜົນດີຕໍ່ ຄວາມກ້າວໜ້າ ໃນດ້ານການພົວພັນກັບສັງຄົມສຳລັບນັກຮຽນ
 ທີ່ມີຄວາມຕ້ອງການ ງສຶກສາພິເສດ.
 ບໍ່ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ ບໍ່ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ
31. ການຮຽນຮ່ວມ ຈະບໍ່ເປັນຜົນດີ ຕໍ່ນັກຮຽນປົກກະຕິ.
 ບໍ່ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ ບໍ່ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ
32. ບຸກຄົນຜູ້ທີ່ມີຄວາມຕ້ອງການ ງສຶກສາພິເສດ ມີສິດເທົ່າທຽມກັນກັບຄົນປົກກະຕິ ຢູ່ໃນສັງຄົມລາວ.
 ບໍ່ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ ບໍ່ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີ ເຫັນດີຫຼາຍທີ່ສຸດ

ຂໍສະແດງຄວາມຂອບໃຈຕໍ່ການຊ່ວຍເຫຼືອຂອງທ່ານເປັນຢ່າງສູງ

APPENDIX E: Letter of Declaration from the University of Minho



Universidade do Minho
Instituto de Educação

University of Minho
Institute of Education
Department of Educational Psychology and Special Education

DECLARATION

Ana Paula Loução Martins, PhD., the Director of the Master degree in Special Education, Specialization in Specific Learning Disabilities, at the Institute of Education, University of Minho, Portugal, declares that Mr. Sisamout Saenbouttaraj will use the survey "Perception of Secondary Teachers towards Inclusion of Students with Disabilities" for the purpose of data collection for his master degree dissertation. The data collected are intended solely for use in this work, and will be confidential.

Portugal, Braga, December 21st, 2011

Ana Paula Loução Martins
Ana Paula Loução Martins, PhD.
(Assistant Professor)
A circular stamp with the text "UNIVERSIDADE DO MINHO" at the top, "INSTITUTO DE EDUCAÇÃO" at the bottom, and a central emblem featuring three stylized figures.