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

Master Dissertation in Special Education Specialization in Specific Learning Disabilities

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

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to investigate the perceptions of the elementary school teachers towards inclusion of students with disabilities into regular schools. A questionnaire was applied to ninety participants who are Lao elementary school teachers in Attapeu Province, southern part of Laos.

The perceptions of the participants in this study allow me to conclude that: 1) Most participants preferred students with disabilities to be included in special schools; 2) Most of elementary school teachers mentioned that inclusion into regular elementary schools can benefit the families of students with disabilities, Lao regular teachers, Lao community, and students without disabilities; 3) Most participants stated that inclusion into regular elementary school can have positive impact on the academic and social progress of student with disabilities; 4) Most participants had greater positive attitudes towards the inclusion of people with disabilities in Lao community; 5) Female regular elementary school teachers had more positive attitude towards the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular elementary schools than male teachers; 6) The regular elementary teachers who did not have background information about teaching students with disabilities had negative attitudes toward the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular elementary schools; 7) Most participants indicated that they would probably have opportunity to teach students with disabilities in regular elementary school settings in the future; and 8) Internal consistency reliability computed by means of Cronbach’s Alpha for the questionnaire was 0.68.

Key words: Inclusion, students with disabilities, teachers’ perceptions, elementary teachers
RESUMO

A finalidade deste estudo consistiu em investigar as perceções dos professores do 1º Ciclo do Ensino Básico relativamente à inclusão de alunos com necessidades educativas especiais (NEE) nas escolas públicas. Os dados foram recolhidos através da aplicação de um questionário a noventa professores do 1º Ciclo em Attapeu, zona sul do Laos. Os resultados obtidos neste estudo foram: 1) A maioria dos professores considerou que os alunos com NEE devem ser educados em escolas especiais; 2) A maioria dos professores considerou que a inclusão nas escolas regulares pode beneficiar as famílias dos alunos com NEE, os professores da escola regular do Laos, a comunidade do Laos, e os alunos sem NEE; 3) A maioria dos professores indicou que a inclusão pode ter um impacto positivo no progresso académico e social do aluno com NEE; 4) Os professores apresentaram atitudes positivas em relação à inclusão de pessoas com NEE na comunidade do Laos; 5) Os participantes do género feminino apresentaram atitudes mais positivas em relação aos benefícios da inclusão de alunos com NEE nas escolas regulares do que os participantes do género masculino; 6) Os professores que não tinham informações básicas sobre como ensinar os alunos com NEE tiveram atitudes mais negativas em relação à inclusão de alunos com NEE nas escolas regulares; 7) A maioria dos professores indicou que terão provavelmente oportunidade de ensinar alunos com NEE no futuro, e 8) A consistência interna do questionário obtida através do alfa de Cronbach foi de 0.68.

Palavras-chave: Inclusão, necessidades educativas especiais, perceções dos professores do 1º Ciclo
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American Association on Mental Retardation (AAMR)

Center of Studies of Inclusive Education (CSIE)

Children with Behavioral Disorders (CCBD)

Education for All (EFA)

Education of All Handicapped Children Act (EAHCA)

Individual Education Plan (IEP)

Intelligence quotient (IQ)

Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA)

Lao’s People Democratic Republic (Lao PDR)

Least Restrictive Environment (LRE)

National Joint Committee on Learning Disabilities (NJCLD)

National University of Laos (NUOL)

Ministry of Education (MOE)

Public Law (LP)

Special Educational Needs (SEN)

Specific Learning Disability (SLD)

Speech- Language – Hearing Association (ASHA)

Statistics Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS)

United States of America (USA)

United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO)
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INTRODUCTION

1. Rationale for the Research Study

Inclusion is aimed to provide to students with special educational needs (SEN) equal opportunities for an effective education in regular schools, to offer an appropriated education for all students, and to avoid the existence of barriers to learning. Generally, the inclusion of students with SENs in regular school settings has been proven to be successful for them. In fact, those students who are educated in regular classrooms with their normal peers have improved their academic learning (Smith, Polloway, Patton, & Dowdy, 1995). Therefore, inclusive education is one way of ensuring an appropriated education for all. This approach welcomes and caters for students from different backgrounds and different abilities regardless of their gender, ethnicity, religion, language, culture, social-economic situation, disability, or other conditions. This is also the case in Lao People’s Democratic Republic (Lao PDR) where providing a quality basic education to students with diverse background remaining a major challenge included in the National Plan of Action 2003-2015, for Education for All, which was developed by the Lao Government Cabinet Meeting on the 30th of December, 2004 and approved by the Ministry of Education (2005).

Inclusive education is one of the six components in Education for All goals (UNESCO, 2005) that are related to the learning needs of students with SEN. The promotion of quality in the education of students with SEN into regular classrooms is a major challenge that faces the education sector in Laos. The factors that influence the quality of education and that need improvement in Laos are related to the quality of teachers, the instructional methods, instructional materials, and the cost of inclusive education (Ministry of Education, 2005).
Consequently, in order to support the needs of students with SEN and regular students who attend regular classrooms, it is important to study teachers’ perceptions toward inclusion of students with SEN. For this reason, I was interested in study the thematic of inclusion of students with SEN in regular schools, and therefore I decided to conduct this study to analyze teachers’ perceptions about inclusive education in Laos.

2. Purpose and Research Questions

The purpose of this study is to describe elementary regular teachers’ perceptions toward inclusion of students with SEN in regular schools, in Appatue province, the southern of Laos. Therefore, the research questions for this study are the following:

1. To describe the perceptions of regular teachers regarding the least restrictive environment, the benefit and the impact of inclusion of students with SEN in regular schools and in the community;

2. To identify statistically significance among the independent variables;

3. To analyze the dimensions of the questionnaire;

4. To analyze reliability’s coefficient for the questionnaire.

3. Relevance of the Study

This research may contribute and add knowledge to the educational strategy of the Ministry of Education and government of Laos that are working to achieve the educational objectives of international initiative for including Education for All (EFA). To implement and achieve the goals of EFA, the government focused on expanding education into rural, ethnic and remote areas, in order to give opportunity to all ethnic groups, both genders, as well as all ages, to have equal access to education, and on aligning with human rights in education. The
Lao government expanded the education program to remote and ethnic areas in order to promote an equal access to education by all schools-aged students, and to reduce adult illiteracy in the whole country. Therefore, this research may be a contribution to the promotion of an appropriated education for students with SEN, by gaining knowledge of teachers perceptions, and this way contributing for attaining the National Plan of Action 2003-2015 for Education for all, and obtaining equal access to education, and this way contributing to the socio-economic development in the country.

4. Organization of the Dissertation

To conclude this introductory chapter, it would be useful to provide a brief overview of the next chapters which are contained herein.

In the first and second chapters, an extensive review of the literature is presented, in which all relevant themes regarding students with special needs, special education, the definition of inclusive philosophy, advantages and disadvantages of inclusion, and a summary of the related research with regard to teachers’ perceptions toward inclusion of students with SEN are gathered and examined in order to garner the research question.

The third chapter describes a critical account of the quantitative research as well as characteristics of a survey research. Thus, it outlines crucial components of the research design, participants of the study, and the procedures of data collection, and analysis.

The fourth chapter presents the results regarding elementary regular teachers’ perceptions toward inclusion. Descriptive and inferential statistics, as well as internal consistency are also presented. The chapter five presents the conclusions, and recommendations for future research.
CHAPTER I

STUDENTS WITH SPECIAL NEEDS

Many students in our schools have special needs, which mean they do not fit the mold of the typical student. According to Correia (1997) as well as Smith, Polloway, Patton, and Dowdy (1995), these include those with identified disabilities or special educational needs, those who are classified as gifted and talented, and those who are at risk for developing problems (see Figure 1).

![Special Needs Diagram]

Figure 1.
Special Needs groups (Correia, 1997; Smith, et al., 1995)
In all cases, the educational needs of these students must be met by schools, by providing support and/or accommodations as necessary. For this reason, it is important for teachers to understand the types of students that they educated, which I will present in the next three sections of this work.

1. Students with Special Educational Needs: Educational Definitions and Prevalence

The term special educational needs (SEN) was introduced in England in the Warnock report in 1877, in order to substitute the term disabilities because “the desire at that time was to move away from older terminology such as handicapped children and to find a generic description that would more suitably embrace the increasingly diverse group of students with problems in learning” (Westwood, 2011, p.1). Prior to this time, there had been a preoccupation with categorizing students according to their disability or impairment, particularly for school placement purposes (Petterson & Hittie, 2010, cited in Westwood, 2010). Using a categorical approach had never worked very effectively for two main reasons. First, a small but significant number of children had more than one disability requiring a combination of intensive services and defying any simple solution such as placement in a particular type of school. Second, very many children who experience difficulties in learning or adjustment in school have no identifiable disability, so could not be neatly categorized (Westwood, 2011). Following the Warnock report, in the UK the Education Act 1981 replaced “the previous categories of handicap with a broader definition of special educational needs” (Farrell, 2005, p.11). Therefore, it was more productive to focus on the nature and degree of child’s actual need for additional support, resources and special services.

Students with special educational needs are those who need extra or different help from other students because of a range of needs such as in thinking and understanding, physical or sensory difficulties, emotional and behavioral difficulties, academic difficulties, or
difficulties with speech and language. Students who have been diagnosed as having developmental delay or who has been evaluated as having one of limited list of disabilities specified in the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) are considered as having special needs when they require special education and related services to fully benefit from education. Hallahan & Kauffman (2005) define students with special educational needs 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 students in one or more of the following ways: They may have mental retardation, learning or attention disabilities, emotional or behavioral disorders, physical disabilities, disorders of communication, autism, traumatic brain injury, impaired hearing, impaired sight or special gifts or talents. (p.7)

According to Heward (2000):

It is impossible to state precisely the number of students with special educational needs for many reasons such as (1) the criteria used by states and local school systems to identify students with special education needs; (2) the relative resources and abilities of different school systems to provide preventive services; (3) the imprecise nature of assessment and the large part that objective judgment plays in interpretation of assessment data; and (4) the fact that a child may be identified as eligible for special education at one time in his school career and not eligible at another time. (p. 11)

According to the information from the U.S. Department of Education’s annual report to the Congress on the education of the country’s children with special needs during the 2000-2001, the total number of students received special education services was over 6.3 million (U.S. Department of Education, 2002, cited by Heward, 2003) and more than 5 million students with special needs were served by special education (U.S. Department of Education, 1995, cited by Hallahan & Kauffman, 1997). Most of these children and youths are between the age 6 to 17 and approximately 8.8% of resident population (Heward, 2003). The prevalence of students with special educational needs is 10-12% of school population
(Correia, 2008). Although students who received special education under each of the disability categories as below:

There were 88% of all children and youths ages 6 to 21 receiving special education are reported under four disability categories: (1) specific learning disabilities 50%, (2) speech and language impairment 18.9%, (3) intellectual disability 10.6%, and (4) emotional disturbance 8.2%. The percentage of students receiving special education under the specific learning disabilities category has grown dramatically from 23.8% to 50%, whereas the percentage of students with intellectual disability has decreased by more than half from 24.9% to 10.6% since the federal government began collecting and reporting child account data in 1976-1977 (U.S. Department of Education, 2002, cited by Heward, 2003, p. 12).

However, special education for students who are gifted and talented is not mandated by federal law as it is for students with disabilities (Council of State Directors of Program for the Gifted, 2000, cited by Heward, 2003).

1.1. Types of Special Educational Needs

The most prevalent type of students with special educational needs is specific learning disabilities. In 1963, the term SLD was used for the first time in public during a presentation to a group of parents at the first conference of the Association for Children with Learning Disabilities by Samuel Kirk, professor of special education at the University of Illinois. (Hallahan, Lloyd, Kauffman, Weiss, & Martinez, 2005). That meeting was considered the beginning of the specific learning disabilities field in the Unite State of America. The field of specific learning disability is one of category in special education, that it has a relatively short history. The Three periods of this history are (1) the European foundation period, (2) the U.S. foundation period, and (3) the Emergent period. The European foundation period (1800-1920) occurred prior to the establishment of the field. This was a period of broad scientific research on the functions and disorder of brain. During the U.S. foundation period (1920-1960), scientific studies of the brain were applied to the clinical study of children and were
then translated in to ways of teaching. Psychologist and educators developed instruments for assessment and methods for teaching, and they analyzed specific types of learning disabilities. During the Emergent period (1960-1975), specific learning disabilities became an established discipline in schools throughout the United States. The field grew rapidly as programs were developed, teachers were trained, and children began to receive services (Hallahan & Mercer, 2001). In each period we find demonstrations of the interest theories and define the meaning of specific learning disabilities, and many researchers have continued to develop the field until now. In the field of special education the most used definitions are the one in the USA Legislation (IDEA) and the one developed by the National Joint Committee on Learning Disabilities (NJCLD). The NJCLD definition is the following:

The term “specific learning disabilities” means a disorder in one or more of the basic psychological processes involved in understanding or in using language, spoken or written, which may manifest itself in an imperfect abilities to listen, think, speak, read, write, spell, or to do mathematical calculations. The term includes such conditions as perceptual handicaps, brain injury, minimal brain dysfunction, dyslexia, and developmental aphasia. The term does not include children who have leaning problems which are primarily the result to visual, hearing, or motor handicaps, of mental retardation, of emotional disturbance, or of environmental, cultural, or economic disadvantage. (IDEA, 2004, cited by Hallahan & Kauffman, 2006, p. 171)

The students who identified as specific having learning disabilities may have difficulty leaning reading, writing, and mathematic, and then theses students can get special education to help them with their learning, social and emotional needs. For the reason, it is important for teachers who teach these students to know about the nature, causes, assessment, and support of specific learning disabilities so that students who have learning problem will have successful outcomes that is the goal of teaching students with learning disabilities. Other students who receive special education under each of the disability categories as below:
1) Intellectual disability

Intellectual disability was previously referred to as mental handicap or mental retardation. The U.S. is one of the last countries to replace the term mental retardation when, in 2006 the former American Association on Mental Retardation (AAMR) finally become the American Association on Intellectual and Developmental Disabilities. In Britain, “the term mental handicap gave way to the use of severe learning difficulty or severe learning disability” (Westwood, 2011, p. 15). Many definitions of intellectual disability have been proposed, adopted, and debated over the years. Since 1950, the AAMR has endorsed seven official definitions of intellectual disability (Hallahan & Kauffman, 2006; Heward, 2003). The AAMR, the leading professional organization concerned with the study, treatment, and prevention of intellectual disability, has played a leadership role in defining intellectual disability. In 1973, AAMR published a definition that was incorporate into IDEA and continues to serve today as the basis by which most states identify children for special education services under the disability category of intellectual disability. The current AAMR definition as follows:

Intellectual disability is a disability characterized by significant limitation both in intellectual functioning and in adaptive behavior as expressed in conceptual, social and practical adaptive skills. This disability originates before age 18. (AAMR Ad Hoc Committee on Terminology and Classification, 2002, p. 1, cited by Hallahan & Kauffman, 2006, p. 135)

Students with intellectual disability might have a hard time letting other know their want and needs, and take care themselves. Intellectual disability could cause a student to learn and develop slowly than other students of the same age that leading trouble learning in school. Intellectual disability can be caused by a problem that starts any time before a student turns 18 years old even before birth. It can be caused by injury, disease, or a problem in the brain. Some of the most common known causes of intellectual disability “like Down
syndrome, fetal alcohol syndrome, fragile X syndrome, genetic conditions, birth defect, and infection happen before birth” (Dykens, Hodapp, & Finucane, 2000, cited by Hallahan & Kauffman, 2006, p. 138). The percent of students with this disability is estimated that individuals with intellectual disability comprise some 3% percent of the general population (Parter, 2007, cited by Westwood, 2011). Students with intellectual disability “can learn if provided with an appropriate instructional program, teaching methods oriented to their individual needs, and adequate support (Howard, Williams, & Lepper, 2010, cited by Westwood, 2011, p. 15). In the past, for an individual to be identified as intellectual disability he or she obtained a measured intelligence quotient (IQ) below 70 and exhibited delays in acquiring normal adaptive behaviors and independent functioning. In recent years attention in many countries has moved away from the rigid use of IQ for the identification of intellectual disability, and now “the emphasis is on assessing how well the individual can function independently and the amount of additional support that is needed” (Batshaw, Shapiro & Farber, 2007, cited by Westwood, 2011, p. 17).

2) Emotional and behavioral disorders

Many different terms have been used to designate students who have extreme social-interpersonal or intrapersonal problems, including emotionally handicapped, emotionally impaired, behaviorally impaired, and so on. These terms do not designate distinctly different types of disorders of students (Hallahan & Kauffman, 2006). Until 1997, seriously emotionally disturbed was the term used in federal special education law and regulations. Seriously was dropped from the terminology in 1997. Emotionally disturbed is the term used in IDEA, but it has been criticized as inappropriate. Behaviorally disordered is consistent with the name of the Council for Children with Behavioral Disorders (CCBD). Since that time many authorities favor terminology indicating that students may have emotional or behavioral problem or both (Cullinan, 2002, 2004; Kauffman, 2005a; Kavale, Forness, &
Mostert, 2005, cited by Hallahan & Kauffman, 2006). In 1990, the National Mental Health and Special Education Coalition, representing over thirty professional and advocacy groups, proposed the new term emotional or behavioral disorder to replace emotional disturbance in federal laws and regulations (Forness & Knitzer, 1992, cited by Hallahan & Kauffman, 2006). Although many definitions of behavioral disorders have been proposed, the two that have had the most influence are the definition in IDEA and one proposed by a coalition of professional associations concerned with behavior problems. In the federal rules and regulation governing the implementation of IDEA, the term emotionally disturbed is defined as follow:

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 inability to learn that can not be explained by intellectual, sensory, or health factor; (b) inability to build or maintain satisfactory relationships with peers and teachers; (c) inappropriate types of behavior or feelings under normal circumstances; (d) general pervasive mood of unhappiness or depression; and (e) a tendency to develop physical symptoms or fear 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 (Hallahan & Kauffman, 2006, p. 250).

Students with this disability may have “difficulty with interpersonal relationships and may respond inappropriately in emotional situations” (Friend & Bursuck, 2012, p. 22). That is, they may have extraordinary trouble making and keeping friends; they may get extremely angry when peers tease or play jokes on them (Cartledge & Milburn, 1995; Gresham, Lane, MacMillan, & Bocian, 1999, cited by Heward, 2003). Estimates of prevalence of emotional or behavioral disorders in children and youths have varied tremendously because there has been no standard and reliable definition or screening instrument. According to the federal government estimated that 2% of school age population was emotionally disturbed. Credible studies in the United State and many other countries have consistently indicated that at least 6
% to 10 % of children and youths of school age exhibit serious and persistent emotional or behavioral problems (Kauffman, 2005, cited by Hallahan & Kauffman, 2006).

3) Communication disorders

Communication is the process of encoding, transmitting, and decoding language to exchange ideas (Owens, 2004). The American Speech-Language-Hearing Association (ASHA, 2010) defines a communication disorder as impairment in the ability to receive, send, process, and understand verbal, nonverbal and graphic symbols. A communication disorder may be evident in the processes of hearing, developing language and speech.

Students with this disability may have trouble with articulation, or the production of speech sounds. They may omit words or mispronounce common word when they speak. They also may experience difficulty in fluency, such as a significant stuttering problem. They may communicate through pictures or sign language. “Estimate of the prevalence of communication disorders is difficult because they are extremely varied, sometimes difficult to identify, and often occur as part of other disabilities” (Hallahan & Kauffman, 2006, p. 289). In the 2000-2001 school year, there were 1,092,105 children age 6 to 21 that received special education services under the IDEA category of speech or language impairments. “The number represents about 2.3% of the resident population and 21.6% of all students receiving special education services, which make speech or language impairments the second largest category after learning disabilities” (U.S. Department of Education, 2002 cited by Heward, 2003, p. 388).
4) Hearing impairments

There are many definitions and classification systems of hearing impairment. By far the most common division is between deaf and hard of hearing (Hallahan & Kauffman, 2006; Heward, 2003). Although it is common to think that being deaf means not to be able to hear anything and that being hard of hearing means being able to hear a little bit, this is generally not true. Most people who are deaf have some residual hearing. Complicating things is the fact that different professionals define the two categories differently (Hallahan & Kauffman, 2006). However, the definitions that are commonly accepted in the field special education as below:

A deaf person is one whose hearing disability precludes successful processing of linguistic information through audition, with or without a hearing aid. 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 cited by Hallahan & Kauffman, 2006, p. 322).

Students who have a significant hard hearing, they are able to use hearing aids and other amplifying systems. Students who are deaf have no residual hearing and therefore do not benefit from that aid hearing. Students with hearing impairments may use sign language, speech reading, or other ways to help them communicate. According to the U.S. Department of Education’s statistics indicate that the public schools identify about 0.13% of population from 6 to 17 years of age as deaf or hard of hearing (Hallahan & Kauffman, 2006). Although the Department of Education does not report separate figures for the categories of deaf and hard of hearing, there is strong evidence that students who are hard of hearing are far more prevalent than those who are deaf (Meadow-Orlans, Merten, & Sass-Lehrer, 2003 cited by Hallahan & Kauffman, 2006).
5) Visual impairments

According to the definition of visual disability including blindness in IDEA emphasized the relationship between vision and learning as “impairment in vision that, even with correction, adversely affect a child’s educational performance.” (IDEA, 2004, cited by Heward, 2003, p. 405)

The term visual impairment, it does not necessarily mean that he or she is blind; it means that the students have a serious defect of vision that can not be corrected by wearing spectacles. Students with impaired vision are those who are totally blind, and those with varying degrees of partial sight. However, students with visual impairments have deficits in one or more disabilities (Heward, 2003). Some students have partial sight, they can learn successfully using magnification devices and other adaptive materials for their learning in the classroom. Some students who are blind do not use vision as a means of learning and instead rely primarily on touch and hearing. It depends on their need, “students with visual impairments may use Braille, specialized computer, and other aid to assist in learning” (Hallahan & Kauffman, 2006, Friend & Bursick, 2012, p. 22). Although the federal government classified “only about 0.05% of the population ranging from 6 to 17 years of age as visual impairment that includes those who are blind or who have low vision. This makes visual impairment one of the least prevalent disabilities in children” (Hallahan & Kauffman, 2006, p. 362)

6) Physical disabilities

Students with physical disabilities have a disease or disorder so significant that it affects their ability to learn in school. They often have an intellectual disability as well as a physical disability (Heward, 2003). According to Hallahan and Kauffman (2006) students with
physical disabilities or other health problem “are those whose physical limitations or health problems interfere with school attendance or learning to such an extent that special service, training, equipment, materials, or facilities are required” (p. 466).

However, it is important for teachers to realize that a physical disability does not automatically impair a student’s ability to learn. It is true that some students with physical impairment do have learning problems, but assumption should never be made about an individual’s capacity to learn on the basis of a physical disability. “Even severe types of physical impairment sometimes have no impact on intellectual ability, and the intelligence levels for students with physical disabilities cover the full range from gifted to severely intellectually disabled” (Best, Heller, & Bigge, 2010, cited by Westwood, 2011). It is estimated that 300,000 students in U.S. public schools are being served with two special education categories related with 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 (Hallahan & Kauffman, 2006, 468).

7) Traumatic brain injury

The term traumatic brain injury is used to describe any acquired brain damage from events such as car accidents, serious falls, blow to the head, sport injury and so forth. “Students with traumatic brain injury have a wide range of characteristics and special needs, including limited strength or alertness, development delays, short-term memory problem, hearing or vision losses that may be temporary or permanent” (Friend & Bursuck, 2012, p. 24). However, the law was amended in 1990 (P.L. 101-476), traumatic brain injury was added as a new disability category under which children could be eligible for special education services. IDEA defines traumatic brain injury as:
An acquired injury to the brain caused by an external physical force, resulting in total or partial functional disability or psychosocial impairments, or both, that adversely affects a child’s education performance. The term applies to open or closed head injuries resulting in impairments in one or more area, such as cognition; language; memory; attention; reasoning; abstract thinking; judgment; problem-solving; sensory; perceptual, and motor abilities; psychosocial behavior; physical functions; information processing; and speech. The term does not apply to the brain injuries that are congenital or generative, or brain injuries induced by birth trauma. (Heward, 2003, p. 456)

Injuries to the head are common in children and adolescents. “Head injuries occur in the pediatric population (1 month to 15 years) at a rate of about 1 million per year” (Heller, Alberto, Forney, & Schwartzman, 1996, cited by Heward, 2003, p. 457). It is estimated that each year 1 in 500 school age children will be hospitalized with traumatic brain injuries, 1 in 30 children will sustain a significant head injury by the age of 15, and 1 in 10,000 children will die as the result to head trauma (Hill, 1999; Whaley & Wong, 1995, cited by Heward, 2003).

8) Autism spectrum disorders

Students with autism, referred to as autism spectrum disorders because of its variations, usually lack appropriate social responsiveness from a very early age. “Autism is a severe developmental disability marked by impairments of communication, social and emotional functioning” (Heward, 2003, p. 484). Although autism has been a separate category under the IDEA since 1990, most professional are now using the term autism spectrum disorders are “characterized by varying degrees of impairment in three areas: (1) communication skills, (2) social interactions and (3) repetitive and stereotype patterns of behavior” (Strock, 2004, cited by Hallahan & Kauffman, 2006, p. 398).

Although autism has been found in individuals at all levels of intelligence, a degree of intellectual disability ranging from mild to severe retardation is found in many cases. As many as “three-quarters of children with autistic disorders have IQ score below 70, and
ongoing intensive special education is usually required to address their learning needs” (Westwood, 2011, p. 24). Prevalence estimates for each of the autism spectrum disorders vary considerably. In the present statistics indicate that 0.15% (15 out of 10,000) of the school age population are receiving special education services under the category of autism. “In a review of several studies, it was found that the most reliable data indicate prevalence rates of 60 per 10,000 autism spectrum disorders and from 8 to 30 per 10,000 for autism” (Wing & Potter, 2002, as reported in Frith, 2003, cited in Hallahan & Kauffman, 2006, p. 400).

1.2. Students at Risk

At risk refers to “children who do not fit into a specific disability category or have an above average capacity to achieve also present problems for the educational system. These students manifest characteristics that could easily lead to learning and behavior problems” (Cosden, 1990; Greer, 1991; Heward & Orlansky, 1992; Johnson, Pugach & Devlin, 1990 cited in Smith, Polloway, Patton, & Dowdy, 1995, p. 12). When we talk about students who are at risk is often applied to infants and preschoolers who may be expected to experience developmental problems at a later time because of conditions surrounding their births or home environments. Students considered at risk include: Potential dropouts, drug and alcohol abusers, students from minority cultures, teenagers who become pregnant, and students who speak English as a second language (Friend & Bursuck 2009; Smith, Polloway, Patton, & Dowdy, 1995). However, there are other definitions of “at risk”. According to Dougherty (1989) defines educationally at risk students as “those who, for a variety of reasons, do not perform well in school and who are likely to drop out” (p. 6). The definition by Slavin, Karweit, and Madden (1989) states that at-risk students are those who are in danger of dropping out of school or leaving school without adequate skill levels. These students may
present unique problems for teachers who attempt to meet their educational needs in general education classrooms because students in the at risk group are not eligible for special education services. Therefore, it is the main factor that classroom teachers have to more skills to provide educational needs for students at risk success in school. In addition, parent involvement is also important for these types of students who are at risk of academic failure. Research indicates that many students who do not have parental involvement in the school setting are not academically successful. Since parental involvement and students deemed at risk of school failure are directly related, teachers need to realize that parents need to begin to become partners with teachers in their child’s education (Fredericks & Rasinski, 1990). The gap between parents and teachers has to be bridged in order to successfully correct the problems in a student’s failing education.

1.3. Gifted Students

Some students differ from their peers by having above-average intelligence and learning abilities. These students are classified as gifted and talented. Students who are gifted have special educational needs but giftedness is not a disability and it is not defined in IDEA. So no federal law requires special education for students who are gifted as it does for students with disabilities (Hallahan & Kauffman, 1997). However, federal legislation encourages states to develop programs for gifted students and support research. Gifted and talented students are defined in federal law as:

children and youths who (1) give evidence of high performance capability in such areas as intellectual, creative, artistic, or leadership capacity or in specific academic fields and (2) require services or activities not ordinarily provided by the school in order to develop such capabilities fully. (Gallagher & Gallagher, 1994 cited by Hallahan & Kauffman, 1997, p. 455)

Gifted and talented students are traditionally defined and identified using intelligence quotient test scores (IQ scores) “IQ scores of 120, 130, 140, or higher are used as the primary
criterion for identifying students as gifted and talented” (Smith, Polloway, Patton, & Dowdy, 1995, p. 11). Although measurement of giftedness is a complicated matter, some components cannot be assessed by traditional means and the definition of giftedness will determine how test scores are interpreted. But it is important to identify gifted students early so that they will achieve self-fulfillment and be aided in the development of their special potential to make a unique and valuable contribution to society. According to the United State Department of Education (1993) gifted students as:

Children and youth with outstanding talent perform or show the potential for performing at remarkably high levels of accomplishment when compared with others of their age, experience, or environment. These children and youth exhibit high performance capability in intellectual, creative, and artistic areas, possess an unusual leadership capacity, or excel in specific academic fields. (cited by Heward, 2003, p. 530)

Thus, the U.S. federal definition of giftedness includes students with exceptional talents beyond those measured by intelligence test. In the U.S., school districts most often utilize the IQ definition of giftedness, focusing on high intellectual performance capability. Although giftedness is believed to be a remarkable ability to do something valued by society, it is not an inherent, immutable trait that a person necessarily carries for life. Moreover, being gifted at one thing does not mean that a person is good at everything (Hallahan & Kauffman, 1997).

Current definitions are used to identify gifted and talented students are much broader, many of the arguments between educators and psychologists about the definition of gifted students have different concepts. Although no one definition is accepted in the educational field, experts in the field of gifted education have tried to identify what it means to be gifted. But the problem is that few people can agree on a single definition (Cohen, in press; Gagne, 2004; Coleman, 2004; Gallagher & Gallagher, 1994). Giftedness may be defined as the result of a high score on a standardized achievement test or outstanding ability in a creative
endeavor such as art, drama, or dance or in specific subject area such as science or mathematics. If a person possesses the former, then he is usually considered talented. However if this same person is an outstanding achiever in academic pursuits or has intellectual brilliance, he would be considered gifted in some circles (Piirto, 1999). Another point of confusion comes when the terms talented and gifted are used interchangeably. Gallagher and Gallagher (1994) define giftedness as one of two models, either involving a child’s potential or a child’s production of exceptional work, while Clark (1997) and Piirto (1999) included “environmental factors that contribute to a genetic predisposition for giftedness” (Heward, 2003, p. 532). Though experts in the field of gifted education have attempted to modify the definition of giftedness and talent more effective method in order to reaching solution that determines who is gifted.

2. The Education of Students with Special Educational Needs in Regular Schools

2.1. History and the Importance of the Legislation

Students with special educational needs need a type of education that is specialized in meeting the needs of them, which means that special education and related services are needed in regular schools in ordered for these students to have an appropriated inclusive education. However, internationally this was not always the case. In fact, it first came into the public consciousness in the United States as a result of the decree of Section 504 of the Rehabilitation Act of 1973. It was greeted with great hope and satisfaction by Americans who have had the distress of physical or mental handicaps, and it is a key to their entry as full participates in the public services such as education (Senator Hubert H. Humphrey, principle Senate author of Section 504, Congressional Record, April 26,1977). This act prevented discrimination and segregation on the basis of membership in a protected class in programs that receive federal financial assistance. This meant that students could not be rejected access
to the public education programs based on their disabilities. Section 504 was followed closely by Public Law (L.P) 94-142, the Education of All Handicapped Children Act (EAHCA) of 1975 that a landmark piece of legislation that has changed the face of education in this country. The goal of this law provided for the right to a free and appropriate public education for all students. It states that the federal government would support in protecting the right of, meeting individual needs of, and improving the result of infants, children, and youths, with disabilities and their families. P.L. 94-142 also mandated that students with disabilities be placed in the least restrictive environment (LRE). Students could only be removed from the general education setting if it could be shown that they would not benefit from instruction in the general education setting with appropriate support and resources (Alper, 2003; Heward, 2003; Smith, Polloway, Patton, & Dowdy, 1995).

The Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 (PL 94-142) made schooling for students with disabilities mandatory. However, the education programs were most of the time separated from children without disabilities. In the past, many children with disabilities were entirely excluded from any publicly supported program of education. Before “the 1970s, many states had laws permitting public schools to deny enrollment to children with disabilities” (Murdick, Garvin, & Crabtree, 2002, cited by Heward, 2003, p. 19). Local schools officials had no legal obligation to grant students with disabilities the same educational access that nondisabled enjoyed. One state law allowed schools to refuse to serve children physically and mentally incapacitated for school work; another state had a law stipulating that children with bodily or mental conditions were supported exclusion. During the mid 1980s and early 1990s, integration and inclusion were highlighted. Students were to attend their neighborhood schools and have membership status in general education classroom. These advances were legislation by the Individuals with Disabilities Education
Act (IDEA) and its reauthorizations (Browder & Spooner, 2006; Hallahan & Kauffman, 2006, Heward, 2003).

More recent legislation has built upon the Education for All Handicapped Children Act. The IDEA (2004) is the main federal program authorizing state and local aid for special education and related services for students with disabilities. It makes schools accountable for the learning and achievement of all students. Students with disabilities now have Individualized Education Programs (IEP) that aligns with the general curriculum. According to IDEA 1997, twenty years of research and experience demonstrated that the education of students with disabilities is more effective if access to the general education curriculum is ensured. Before 1997, students with disabilities were often excluded from the general education curriculum, were almost always expose to an alternate curriculum, and were not included in statewide assessments (MacQuarrie, 2009). Their education occurred in resource rooms or self-contained rooms. Without the access to the general education curriculum, students with disabilities missed the opportunities to reach their full academic potential and were unable to achieve postsecondary goal. These meant that the students were not held to a high level of accountability because they were not always included in statewide assessments.

Present efforts encouraging inclusion have resulted in more and more students receiving special education services in the general education classroom (Vostal, Hughes, Ruhl, Benedek-Wood, & Dexter, 2008). Current education principles, policies, and practices reinforce the idea that all students are general education students, that there is but one general education curriculum.

Therefore according to the legislation each school must have a plan to ensure the following provisions:
1. Identification: Extensive efforts to screen and identify all children and youths with disabilities.

2. Free, appropriate education (FAPE): Every student with a disability has an appropriate public education at no cost to the parents or guardian.

3. Due process: the student’s and parents’ rights to information and informed consent before the student is evaluated, labeled, or placed, and right to an impartial due process hearing if they disagree with the school’s decisions.

4. Parent or guardian surrogate consultation: the student’s parents or guardian are consulted about the student’s evaluation and placement and the educational plan; if the parents or guardian are unknown or unavailable a surrogate parent must be found to act for the student.

5. Least restrictive environment (LRE): the student is educated in the least restrictive environment consistent with his or her educational needs and, insofar as possible, with students without disabilities.

6. Individualized education program (IEP): A written individualized education program is prepared for each student with a disability, including levels of functioning, long-term goals, extent to which the student will not participate in the general education classroom and curriculum, services to be provided, plans for initiating and evaluating the services, and needed transition services (from school to work or continued education).

7. Nondiscriminatory evaluation: the student is evaluated in all areas of suspected disability and in a way that is not biased by his or her language or cultural characteristics or disabilities. Evaluation must be by a multidisciplinary team, and no single evaluation procedure may be used as the sole criterion for placement or planning.

8. Confidentiality: the results of evaluation and placement are kept confidential, though the student’s parents or guardian may have access to the records.

9. Training for teachers and other professional personnel, including in service training for regular teachers, in meeting the needs of students with disabilities.(IDEA, 2004, cited by Hallahan & Kauffman, 2006, p. 28)

Based on the current situation, the promotion of educational quality to students with special needs is the main important since education can improve the living standard of the people and provide a basis for grown of the economy.
2.2. What is Special Education

Special education is a broad term used in the field of education. It can be defined from many perspectives to meet the unique needs of a student who has disability (Heward, 2003).

One definition of special education is the following:

Special education means specially designed instruction that meets the unusual needs of an exceptional student. Special materials, teaching techniques, or equipment and facilities might be required. For example, students with visual impairments might require reading materials in large print or Braille; students with hearing impairments might require hearing aids or instruction in sign language; those with physical disabilities might need special equipment; those with emotional or behavioral disorders might need smaller and more highly structured classes; and students with special gifts or talents might require access to working professionals. (Hallahan & Kauffman, 2006, p. 13)

To provide the quality education to students with special needs, it is important for the development of human resources in order to contribute the socio-economic development of the country.
CHAPTER II

THE PHILOSOPHY OF INCLUSION: STUDENTS WITH SPECIAL NEEDS

1. The Concept of Inclusive Education

Education as a right for all children has been enshrined in international instruments since the 1949 Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UNESCO, 2003). The Education for All movement has pointed out the particular rights of groups such as women and people with special needs. The rights to be educated within the mainstream system and not to be discriminated against ensure the full and equal human rights. Since that time the UN Convention on the Rights of the Child in 1989 addresses the rights of all children but also makes specific reference to children with special needs. As an immediate follow up to the Convention on the Rights of the Child, the World Conference on Education for All in 1990 held in Jomtien, Thailand to ensure that right for all regardless of individual differences in access to quality education (Mittle, 2005).

However, the right to education does not automatically imply inclusion. The right to inclusive education was initially clearly started in the Salamanca Declaration and Framework for Action on Special Educational Needs in 1994, which emphasized that schools need to change and adapt in order to provide education for children, youth and adults with special educational needs within the regular education system (UNESCO, 2003). Therefore, inclusive education “is seen as a process of addressing and responding to the diversity of needs of all students through increasing participation in learning, culture and communities, and reducing exclusion within and from education” (Booth, 1996, cited by UNESCO, 2003, p.7)
Inclusive education as an approach seeks to address the learning needs of all children, youth and adults with special educational needs. The principle of inclusive education was adopted at the Salamanca World Conference on Special Educational Needs in 1994 to further the objective of Education for All by considering the fundamental policy shifts required to promote the approach of inclusive education to serve all children, particularly students with special educational needs (Armstrong, Armstrong, & Spandagou, 2010; UNESCO, 2003).

Inclusive education has provided students with special educational needs have equal opportunities for effective education in general education classroom. It means that students with special educational needs as full-time participants in schools and communities. Inclusive education relates not only to students with special education needs, but also to a welcome for all students in the general school program (Connor & Ferri, 2007; Downing & Eichinger, 2003; Valle & Conner, 2011 cited by Friend & Bursick, 2012). Inclusion offers quality education for students with the different needs and abilities, characteristic and eliminating all forms of discrimination. To meet this challenge, American legislation (IDEA) must build on its previous support for equality of access and continue to expand and strengthen its support for quality program and services. Improving educational results for children with special educational needs requires a continued focus on the full implementation of IDEA to ensure that each student’s educational placement and services are determined on an individual basis, according to the unique needs of each child, and are provided in the Least Restrictive Environment (LRE). “The focus must be on teaching and learning that use individualized approaches to accessing the general education curriculum and that support learning and high achievement for all” (Heward, 2003, p. 71).
1.1. Least Restrictive Environment (LRE)

The primary goal of the amendment of IDEA was to ensure education equity and eliminate the miss education and exclusion experienced by children with disabilities (Kavale, 2002). One key mandate of IDEA was that all students with disabilities are to be educated in the Least Restrictive Environment (LRE), meaning these students are to be educated alongside students who do not have disabilities to the maximum extent possible (Federal Register, August 23, 1977). The law further states that special classes, separate schooling, or other removal of students with disabilities from general educational settings should only happen when students with disabilities “cannot be successful in general classrooms, even with supplementary aids and services” (Smith, Polloway, Patton, & Dowdy, 1995, p. 17). The least restrictive environment obviously results in the inclusion of students with disabilities into general education schools.

1.2. Inclusive Education Defined

The term “inclusion” or “inclusive education” do not appear in United States federal law, and it has been confusion over the exact meaning of the terms (Power-deFur & Orelove, 1997; Hallahan & Kauffman, 2005b; Stainback & Stainback, 1992 cited by Hallahan & Kauffman, 2006). According to UNESCO (2003) inclusion education is defined as proving appropriate response 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 problem. Heward (2003) defines inclusion as educating students with disabilities in regular classroom. Another
definition is that inclusive education is not another name for special needs education. It involves different approaches to identify and attempt to resolve difficulties that arise in schools. Education for special needs can be a barrier to the development of inclusive practice in schools (Stubbs, 2002). Several different concepts refer inclusive education as educationally inclusive school in which the teaching and learning, achievement, attitudes and well being of every young person participated (Ofsted, 2001). However, there are many different terms have been used to describe the practice of teaching students with disabilities in the same classroom setting as their peer who are without disabilities. Historically, this practice was first called “mainstreaming,” followed by “integration,” and has recently been called “inclusion” (Adorn, 2000). In the field of special education, the term inclusion has widely used for supporting quality education for all diversity and different needs. Since the early 1990s, inclusion describes as the practice of combining students with and without disabilities in the same classroom setting, and focuses on providing services to all students in the regular classroom, rather than pulling students out of the regular classroom to receive special services (Grlis & Tanner, 1995).

Current use the term inclusion depends on the setting which it is being used, but the heart of it means educating students with disabilities in regular class room. Bricker (1995), an expert in the area of early intervention, documented the use of the different term of mainstreaming, integration and inclusion in the context of research in early childhood special education. She explained that mainstreaming initially referred to the reentry of students with disabilities into regular education programs. Mainstreaming refers to primarily to the practice of removing students from their special education classrooms for part of the day and placing them in general education classes (McLean & Hanline, 1990). In contrast, according to Winter (1999), inclusion refers to full participation students with disabilities in programs and activities designed for typically
developing students while proving students with disabilities the necessary services and supports within the context of the regular classroom. Inclusion has become a broad term incorporated into advocacy efforts for children with disabilities to participate in all community activities and routines used by their peers without disabilities (Odom, 2000). Inclusion describes much more than the acceptance of students with disabilities in the mainstream. Inclusive education programs do not focus on the accommodation of these students into a general education setting, but are focus on the restructuring of schools to accept and provide for the needs of all students. For the reason, the goal of inclusion is to provide all students with equitable opportunities for a successful education (Janko, Schwartz, Sandall, Anderson, & Cottam, 1997; Peck, Odom, & Bricker, 1993), with anticipation for their later success in life.

2. Inclusive implementation for Students with Special Needs in Elementary School

In according to the passage of the Education of All Handicapped Children Act (EHCA) in 1975 ensured children with disabilities the right to participate public schools. It granted all children have the right to a free appropriate public education. The passage of Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) in 1990 further granted children with disabilities not just the right to be educated in the public schools, but to have the right to an education in the least restrictive environment (LRE). When IDEA was amended in 1997, it was designed to merge special education with the whole of schools reform that made schools accountable for educational outcomes of every student. Whole-school reform is compatible with inclusive practices in order to promote the education for all students in mainstream schools. According to the Center of Studies of Inclusive Education (CSIE) the principles of inclusive practices means that all children have the equal right to learn in the school settings. “Children should not be devalued or discriminated against by excluded or sent away because of their disability
or learning difficulties, and there are no legitimate reasons to separate children for the duration of their schooling” (CSIE, 1996, cited by Florian, 2005, p. 10).

Along with inclusion, the concept of inclusive practices is founded on the belief that students with disabilities should be fully integrated into their school learning communities, usually in general education classrooms, and that their instruction should be based on their abilities, not on their disabilities (Friend & Bursick, 2012). Inclusive practices have three dimensions such as: First, physical integration, it means that placing students in the same classroom as peers who have no disabilities should be a strong priority, and removing them from that setting should be done only when absolutely necessary. Second, social integration, it means that relationships should be nurtured between students with disabilities and their classmates and peers as well as adults. Third, instructional integration, it means that most students should be taught in the same curriculum used for students without disabilities and helped to succeed by adjusting how to teaching and learning are designed and measured. These practices makes all learners are welcomed full members at their schools and their classrooms (Frattura & Capper, 2006; Skilton-Sylvester & Slesaransky-Poe, 2009, cited by Friend & Bursick, 2012). Although, inclusive practices means that conceptualized as a belief system that emphasizes welcoming all students in general education setting (Frattura & Capper, 2006, cited in Friend & Bursick, 2012). But the best way to educate students with disabilities should consider the key stakeholders such as parents and families of students, teachers and administrators should be

Many researchers state that inclusive practices must consider the effect on student achievement (Yell, Katisyannis, & Siner, 2006). That is, if students with disabilities in inclusive setting do not adequately progress in their learning, then inclusion is not their best interests. At the same time, inclusive practices should not help with the achievement of other students. In generally, academic outcomes in inclusive schools have been found to be positive
for students (Hang & Rabren, 2009; Idol, 2006). For instance, in a statewide of study, researchers found as follow:

Students with disabilities who spent more time in general education passed the eight-grade assessment at higher rate more than similar students with disabilities who were educated in special education settings. Students educated in general education setting also graduated at higher rate from high school with a standard diploma” (Luster & Durrett, 2003, cited in Friend & Bursick, 2012, p. 16).

In addition, parents of students generally are positive about inclusive education, and they often prefer that their children be educated with peers in general education classrooms (Leach & Duffy, 2009; Purcell, Turnbull, & Jackson, 2006). They believe that inclusive practices are beneficial for academic achievement, and they also strongly believe that their children learn critical social skills when they spend most or all of the school day with their typical peers (Salend, 2006; Williams & Reisberg, 2003). In some studies, general education teachers in elementary and secondary schools are found to believe strongly in inclusive practices based on high standards for students (King & Youngs, 2003; McLeskey et al., 2001). In addition to views of teachers, principals’ support of inclusive practices is important, because principals are responsible for keeping the vision focused, fostering among staff an understanding of inclusion, and nurturing the development of the skills and practices needed to implement these practices (Horrocks, White, & Roberts, 2008; Salisbury & McGregor, 2002). Although, many teachers express concern that general education teachers may not have the skills to effectively teach students with disabilities in their classrooms (Oluwole, 2009). For the reasons, it is uneasy about teaching students with disabilities and other special needs. However, making education lead to growth in student achievement for students with special needs has proven more difficult. Strategies, accommodations, interventions, and modifications are just a few of the terms that are used to imply that all children will learn in general education. Despite efforts toward inclusion, various problems exist with
implementing it, which include lack of training for teachers and lack of administrative support (Crockett & Kauffman, 1998).

2.1. Method to Enhance Inclusion of Students with Disabilities

The classroom teachers both general as well as special teachers are very essential to the responsibility of educating students with special needs in the classroom. Teachers must understand diversity characteristics of students in order to support necessary to all students that it is a core part of successfully implementing educational programs and practices based on inclusive education. Teachers must develop strategies to facilitate the successful inclusion of students with disabilities in general education classrooms since the successful of students does not normally happen without assistance from general and special teachers (Banks, 1992 cited by Smith, Polloway, Patton, & Dowdy, 1995). School personnel must work on effective methods to cooperate to provide appropriate program to all students, not just those who typically do well in general education classrooms and those who are successful in special education programs. There are generally two methods to facilitate the inclusion of students with disabilities into general classes as follow:

*Improving Acceptance of Students with Disabilities by their Peers*

The relationships between students with special needs and their peers are important to gain confidence and an enthusiasm for learning in general classroom environments. According to Mercer and Pullen (2009) state that many experts now believe that problems in achieving acceptance in a social group are just as debilitating as academic failure for these students. They feel socially isolated and unsupported in class and tend to disengage from learning (Pletka 2007). As a result, it is very important to enhance the social acceptance and social competence of students with special needs when they are placed in regular classrooms (Mannix 2009). This applies to many students with intellectual disability, physical or sensory
impairments, learning disabilities and emotional problems. Children with autism and those with ADHD are particularly at risk (Cotugno 2009; Leaf et al. 2009). Although, inclusive education settings create a potential opportunity for these students to engage in more positive social interaction with their peers, but social acceptance of students with special needs does not occur spontaneously (Friend & Bursuck 2009; Hooper and Umansky 2009). The results of most studies of inclusion give no support at all to the belief that merely placing a student with disability in the mainstream will automatically lead to his or her social integration into the peer group. For the reason, students and teachers relationships are also the main important to support students’ needs in inclusion. Hill and Hawk (2000) state that teachers who are able to develop productive relationships with their students make the effort to get to know them, develop a good understanding of their lives, understand and have empathy for their cultural worlds, and adapt their teaching appropriately.

**Collaboration and Consultation**

According to Dettmer, Dyck, and Thurston (1999) Collaboration and Consultation in schools is define as “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 behavioral needs of students” (p. 6). It requires the general education teachers, the special education teachers and families work together in order to plan instruction for students with special needs. Teachers want to focus on students with and without disabilities must interact and collaborate. The collaboration and consultation model can describe as “an interactive planning decision-making, or problem-solving, process, involving two or more team members” (Idol & west, 1991, p. 72 cited by Smith, Polloway, Patton, & Dowdy, 1995, p. 87). It is based on multidisciplinary actions that support classroom teachers as they provide instructional services to students with disabilities, and it is the main important and
necessary practice to solve learning and behavior problem in the classroom. Friend and Cook (2010) state that collaboration “is a style professional choose to accomplish a goal they share” (cited by Friend & Bursick, 2012, p. 67). Currently, collaboration and consultation are used together to describe the way interaction occur when providing services to students with disabilities in general education classes (Smith, et al., 1995). Therefore, many authors have note that when professionals share a problem-solving process, it is much more complex than when educators problem solve alone, because the needs, expectations, and ideas of all the participants must be blended into shared understandings and mutually agreed on solutions. “Successful shared problem solving requires skilled participants” (Friend & Cook, 2010 cited by Friend & Bursick, 2012, p. 73)

3. Interaction between Students with and without Disabilities

In the general, inclusion pays important roles in educating students with and without disabilities in general education. In the inclusion classroom, students with learning disabilities can experience social interaction with their non-disable peers. According to Ray (1986) state that the social position of students with disabilities included in general education classrooms. The social interaction of 60 students with mild disabilities was evaluated. Results indicated that students with disabilities were considered less socially acceptable by their teachers and non-disabled peers, their social interactions were the same as their nondisabled classmates. These results suggest that including students with disabilities in general education classrooms do not have a negative impact on their social interactions (Smith, et al., 1995). For the reason, the principal reasons for inclusion are to provide opportunities for interaction between students with disabilities and those without disabilities (Roberts, Pratt, & Leach, 1991, cited by Smith, et al., 1995).
3.1. Improved Academic Performance

When students with disabilities are included in general education classrooms it will enhance the academic performance of these students. They can learn along with their non-disabled peers. The efficacy studies previously indicated that segregating students did not result in improved academic performance (Smith, et al., 1995). Many students with disabilities actually performed no better in specialized setting than their peers in general education classes. Some studies have actually shown improved academic performances of included students with disabilities.

4. Benefits of inclusion to Students with Special Needs in Elementary Schools

Inclusion is one of the recommended practices for early childhood special education (McLean & Odom, 1993). The main important goal of inclusion is to prepare both students with and without disabilities to become contributing members of their community and society (Lipsky & Gartner, 1994). The purpose of including students with disabilities into the regular classroom is to promote social skills. Frostad and Pijl (2007) has found that the gap between the social skills of students with disabilities and their typically developing peers increases the longer students with disabilities are excluded from the general education classroom. Downing and Peckman-Harding (2007) also has found that students with disabilities learned empathy when included in the general education classroom. Bricker (1995) has argued that the inclusive classrooms is not only beneficial for students with disabilities, but also help the ones without disabilities to learn to accept human diversity. Inclusive education allows social interaction with peers to occur in the classroom settings and that helps all students to understand diversity and to accept differences. Social interaction allows students with disabilities to develop their interactive and attention skills. Peer interaction also presents
students with disabilities with opportunities to develop and practice communication (Nienhuys, Hhorborough, & Cross, 1985).

Another possible benefit of inclusion is that friendships will result from the classroom interactions and these friendships will became future natural supports for the students into adulthood. When students with disabilities are segregated classroom, the number of friendships they will be limited. However, just placing students within general education setting does not guarantee reciprocal social friendships. Research has found that without the suitable support the benefits of social interactions and friendships are not ensured in an inclusive classroom (Sapon-Shevin, Dobbelaere, Corrigan, Goodman, & Mastin, 1998; Taylor, Peterson, McMurray-Schwarz, & Guillou, 2002). According to Falvey (1995), friendships and relationships are very important to students with disabilities because they provide support skills that they will need to participate and work in their communities.

Research has also shown academic improvements for students with disabilities when included in the general education classroom. One explanation for this is the expectation and demands of a general education classroom are typically greater than those of a pull-out special education classroom (Zions, 2005). The curriculum delivered in pull-out service is sometimes diluted compared to the curriculum in general education classroom, and as research has stated, special educators providing instruction in resource rooms are often not highly qualified in the specific content area that they are assigned to teach (Bouck, 2009; Zonts, 2005). In another study that investigated the outcomes of including students with severe disabilities in general education classes in a middle school, nearly 90% of the students without disabilities thought that the inclusion should be continued in the future (York et al., 1992).
Although, inclusive education can bring benefits to students in regular classroom, and many parents of students with disabilities are accepting of inclusion, some parents are worried about suitable support for their children and the benefits of instructional for all students in the classroom. However, students with disabilities have also been shown to benefit academically from inclusive classrooms (Dugan, Kamps, Leonard, Watkins, Rheinberger, & Stackhaus, 1995; Shukla et al., 1998; Carter & Kennedy, 2006; Cushing & Kennedy, 1997; Carter, Cushing, Clark, & Kennedy, 2005). Inclusive education not only gives the students with disabilities can learn from his or her peers in regular classrooms, but it also has shown to bring about increases in academic achievement and enhance social-emotion skills for their peers without disabilities.

5. Teachers’ Perceptions of Inclusion

Research has examined the perception of general education teachers regarding inclusion. According to Antonak and Larrivee (1995) the most important factor for successful inclusion is the change in the perceptions of general education teachers toward students with disabilities. Researchers have found positive attitudes of teachers regarding inclusion; they believe that including students with disabilities into regular classroom is a positive experience for the typically developing students. General education teachers seem to be generally positive the philosophy of inclusion, but negative about its implementation (Taylor, Smiley, & Ramassamy, 2001).

A key element in a successful inclusion program is the positive attitudes of teachers (Clampit, Holifield, & Nichols, 2004). Special education teachers have been found to be more supportive of inclusion than general education teachers. However, since general education teachers themselves are the ones who implement inclusion, it is very important to examine teachers’ understandings and feelings regarding inclusion (Taylor, Smiley, &
Ramassamy, 2001). General education teachers’ positive or negative attitudes toward students with disabilities are the most important factor for success or failure of any attempt at inclusion (Smith & Leonard, 2005).

A landmark study by Larrivee and Cook (1979) identified three factors underlying teacher attitude toward inclusion. First, the general education teacher has academic concerns, including the possible negative educational consequences. Secondly, the general education teacher has administrative concerns over issues of support. Lastly, the general education teacher has pedagogical concerns about the training and experience necessary to teach students with disabilities. In addition, previous research has found several variables which influence individuals’ attitudes towards inclusion (Jones, Ouellette-Kuntz, Vilela, & Brown, 2008).
CHAPTER III

METHOD

The purpose of this dissertation is to analyze the perceptions of elementary school teachers in the southern urban area of Laos, Attapue province. This chapter describes participants of the study, instrument of data collection, procedures of data collection, and data analysis.

1. Participants

1.1. Description

Elementary teachers in the nine schools districts, Attapue province were chosen as the sample for this study. It is considered a convenience sample for the purposes of this research. The selection of schools does not aim at recruiting representative sample of schools in the region, but rather a sample of schools with teachers who will share their opinions with the researcher. The sample consisted of 90 regular teachers. Nine of the selected public elementary schools are located in the urban area, located in the southern of Laos.

There were a total of 20 males (22.2%) and 70 females (77.8%). The frequency distribution by gender of regular teachers is presented in Table 1.

Table 1
Frequency Distribution by Gender of Elementary School Teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>22.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>77.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In relation to age of participants, age distribution in the study was as follows: 8 participants of age 20-25 (8.9%), 22 participants of age 26-30 (24.4%), 44 participants of age 31-45 (48.9%) and 16 participants of age 46-55 (17.8%). The frequency distribution by age of regular teachers is presented in Table 2.

**Table 2**

*Frequency Distribution by Age of Elementary School Teachers*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age Range (years)</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20-25</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-30</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>24.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-45</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>48.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46-55</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>17.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>90</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In relation to educational qualifications of the elementary teachers results showed that 16 regular teachers (17.8%) have certificates, 41 regular education teachers (45.6%) have diplomas, 18 regular education teachers (20.0%) hold higher diplomas and 15 (16%) have bachelor degrees. The bachelor degree was the highest level of education for elementary teachers while no elementary teacher holds a doctoral degree. Consequently, the qualification of doctor degree is not presented in Table 3. The frequency distribution for educational qualifications of elementary regular teachers is presented in Table 3.
Table 3

*Frequency Distribution by Educational Qualifications of Elementary School Teachers*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Educational qualifications</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Certificate</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>17.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>45.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Higher diploma</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor degree</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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 next.

Regarding the number of years related to teaching experiences, analysis showed that 12 regular teachers (13.3%) had less than 5 years’ experience, 29 regular education teachers (32.2%) had between 5-10 years’ experience, 20 regular education teachers (22.2%) had between 10-15 years’ experience, 12 regular education teachers (13.3%) had between 15-20 years’ experience and 17 regular education teachers had more than 20 years’ experience. The frequency distribution for teaching experiences of regular education teachers is presented in Table 4.
Table 4

*Frequency Distribution for Teaching Experiences*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching experiences (years)</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-5</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-10</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>32.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-15</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>22.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-20</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>+20</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>18.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There were 61 regular teachers (67.8%) that have taught students with disabilities, whereas 26 of regular teachers (32.2%) have never taught students with disabilities in the regular classroom. The frequency distribution for regular teachers that have taught students with disabilities is presented in Table 5.

Table 5

*Frequency Distribution of Teaching Student with Disabilities*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Have you ever taught students with disabilities?</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>32.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>67.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There were 12 regular teachers (13.3%) that have already met a child or an adult with disability. However, 78 regular education teachers (86.7%) have never met a child or an adult with disabilities. The frequency distribution for regular teachers that have met a child or an adult with disability is presented in Table 6.
Table 6

*Frequency Distribution for Experiences of Meeting Students with Disabilities*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Have you ever met a child or an adult with disabilities?</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>86.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In terms of the possibility of teaching students with disabilities in the future, it is surprisingly that only 2 participants (2.2%) indicated that she/he would not have a chance to teach students with disabilities, whereas 43 of them (47.8%) indicated that they would be very much likely to teach students with disabilities in their professions. Concurrently, 28 of participants (31%) mentioned that they would be moderately likely to teach students with disabilities, while 17 of them (18.9%) stated that they would be a little bit likely to teach such category of students (see Table 7). The frequency distribution for regular teachers will be working with students with disabilities in the future is presented in table 7.
Table 7

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicate how likely it is that you will be working with students with disabilities in the future.</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Not at all</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A little bit</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>18.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moderately</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>31.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very much</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>47.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In relation to the participants’ background information about disabilities, results showed that 58 participants (64.4%) had information regarding disabilities prior to this study, while 32 of them (35.6%) did not have such information about disabilities before. Table 8 represents frequency distribution for being aware of information about disability before this study.

Table 8

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Have you ever heard any information about disability before this study?</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>35.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>64.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Regarding training, only 34 participants (37.8%) had attended training about teaching students with disabilities, whereas 56 of them (62.2%) had never been involved in such training. Table 9 represents frequency distribution on training involvement about teaching students with disabilities.

Table 9

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Have you ever been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities?</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>62.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>37.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With regard to the number of students in their classrooms (see Table 10), 6 participants (6.7%) stated that they teach a classroom with more than forty students, while only 13 of them (14.4%) stated that they taught a class with 15-20 students. Concurrently, 20 participants (22.2%) taught a class with 20-30 students, whereas 51 of them (56.7%) taught a class with 30-40 students. Table 10 represents frequency distribution of the number of students in regular classroom.
Table 10

*Frequency Distribution of the Number of Students in Regular Classroom*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>How many students are there in each classroom you are teaching?</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>15-20</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-30</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>56.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-40</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>22.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 40</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In terms of inclusion of students with disabilities in the classroom, 57 participants (63.4%) stated that students with disabilities were included in their classrooms, while 33 of them (36.7%) indicated that students with disabilities were not included in the classroom (see Table 11).

Table 11

*Frequency Distribution for Inclusion of Students with Disabilities in the Classroom*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Were students with disabilities included in your classroom?</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>36.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>63.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2. Participant Recruitment

In order to recruit participants for this study, the Letter of Proposal was written so as 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. Ten 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 of 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 a review of international studies related to the topic.

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 elementary 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 Attapue province, the southern of Laos.

4. Procedures of Data Collection

After the approval of the research proposal by the Institute of Education, University of Minho, the following procedures were conducted. The questionnaire (Lao version) and the Letter of Approval (see Appendix D), were sent to the colleague who was asked for collaboration in this study. The colleague who is a teacher at the National University of Laos
agreed to distribute the questionnaires to the regular teachers in the elementary schools, located in suburban of Attapue province. The colleague met with each director of nine elementary public 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 arriving on February 2012.

5. Reliability

In terms of inter-reliability, prior to the data processing, data inserted from nine questionnaires (10% of total questionnaires) were checked randomly by an external researcher. The following codes of the questionnaires were checked: 20, 37, 1, 6, 12, 39, 8, 29 and 14. Results of the data checking are a hundred percent correct.

6. Data Analysis

The data was analyzed using Statistic Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), statistical software that allows data management, analyses, and presentation options. Responses the research questions were compared among the two groups of the independent variables of teachers and a t-test was done in order to determine the statistical differences between the items in the questionnaires. This t-test was used to determine if the difference between the mean scores of two groups was likely to have occurred by chance, or if it represents a statistically significant difference in the scores of the populations (Glatthorn & Joyner, 2005). T-test was performed to identify relationships between the independent variable of teacher gender, regular teacher in teaching students with disabilities, regular teacher in meeting a child or an adult with disabilities, regular teacher in hearing information about disability before this study, regular teacher in involving in training about teacher students with disabilities and inclusion of students with disabilities in teachers’ classrooms.
The result of the t-test gave insight to the distinguishing characteristics of the general education teacher perceptions between two groups. The limitation of the t-test is that results are typically accepted with significance on each t-test of 95%. The researcher examined a statistical technique for comparing more than two independent groups on the dependent variable. The appropriate statistic, called One-way ANOVA in SPSS, compares the means of the groups in order to make inferences about the population means (Morgan, Leech, Gloeckner, & Barrett, 2007. P. 157). The researcher used the one-way ANOVA in order to identify relationships between the independent variable of teacher age, educational qualifications, teaching experiences, teacher attitude of working with students with disabilities in the future, and the amount of students in teachers’ classrooms. In addition, in order to analyze psychometrics characteristics of the instrument, reliability, and internal consistency were also analyzed in this study.

For the purpose of statistical computations regarding the perceptions of regular elementary teachers toward inclusion of students with disabilities, results will be presented in Chapter IV.
CHAPTER IV

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 Statistical Program 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 with no disabilities, and inclusion as a right. Such categories are presented in the form of percentage based on descriptive statistics. Results are presented by frequency and percentage distribution as well as central tendency and variability measures.

1.1. The Environment where Students with Disabilities should be educated

The teacher perceptions regarding the inclusion of students with disabilities in regular classrooms, separated classrooms within regular schools and special schools are presented as follows:

With regard to the environment where students with disabilities should be educated, 47 participants (52.2%) stated that students with disabilities should be educated in regular classroom with normal students, 43 participants (47.8%) did not want students with disabilities to be included in regular classroom. Concurrently, 52 participants (57.7%)
indicated that students with disabilities should be educated in separated classrooms within regular schools, while 38 participants (42%) stated that students with disabilities should not be educated in separated classroom within regular schools. However, 81 participants (90%) indicated that students with disabilities should be educated in special schools, there were only 9 respondents (10%) stated that students with disabilities should be educated within regular schools with normal students. Results are shown in Table 12.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students with disabilities should be</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>educated in regular classrooms</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>37.8</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students with disabilities should be</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>separated within regular schools</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>37.8</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students with disabilities should be</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>educated in special schools</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

An examination of descriptive data in Table 13 provided the results for the analyses conducted that related to research question 12, 13, 14, means (M), and standard deviation (SD). It is noticeable that the participants preferred students with disabilities to be included in special schools ($M = 3.29; SD = 0.707$) rather than in separated classroom within regular
schools ($M = 2.77; SD = 0.862$) and regular classrooms ($M = 2.53; SD = 0.824$). See Table 13.

Table 13

*Central tendency and variability measures for category “Environment where students with disabilities should be educated”*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students with disabilities should be educated in regular classrooms</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.824</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students with disabilities should be separated in regular schools</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.862</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students with disabilities should be educated in special schools</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.707</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.2. The Benefits of Inclusion

In relation to the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities, thirty participants (33.3%) indicated that the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes would not be beneficial to themselves, and 60 participants (66.6%) believed that students with disabilities would be beneficial to inclusive education. Twenty two participants (24.4%) indicated that the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes would not be beneficial to students with disabilities’ family whereas, 68 participants (75.6%) believed that the inclusive education would be beneficial to their families. Concurrently, 31 participants (34.4%) stated that the inclusive education of students with disabilities into regular classes would not be beneficial to Lao regular teachers while 59 participants (65.5%) indicated that
the inclusive education would be beneficial to Lao teachers. Twenty one participants (23%) indicated that the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes would not be beneficial to Lao community, and there were 69 participants (76.7%) believed that the inclusive education would be beneficial to Lao community. However, only 21 participants (28.9%) indicated that the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes would not be beneficial to students without disabilities while 64 participants (71%) believed that the inclusive education would be more beneficial to students without disabilities. Results are presented in Table 14.

Table 14
Distribution of frequency and percentage for category “The Benefits of the inclusion of students with disabilities”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beneficial inclusion for students with disabilities</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>53.3</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beneficial inclusion for family</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>57.8</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beneficial inclusion for Lao regular teachers</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>51.1</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beneficial inclusion for Lao community</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>60.0</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beneficial inclusion for students without disabilities</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>57.8</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
We can observe the mean, mode, and standard deviation for the questions related to category “the benefits of the inclusion of students with disabilities” that have been analyzed. Generally, it can be observed that inclusion into regular schools benefit all inclusive stakeholders, namely, students with disabilities, the families of students with disabilities, Lao regular teachers, Lao community, and students without disabilities. However, the most noticeable result is that inclusion into regular schools benefit Lao community most \((M = 2.92; SD = 0.657)\) (see Table 15).

Table 15

*Central tendency and variability measures for category “Benefits of inclusion”*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beneficial inclusion for students with disabilities</td>
<td>2.78</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beneficial inclusion for family</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.720</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beneficial inclusion for Lao regular teachers</td>
<td>2.79</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.695</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beneficial inclusion for Lao community</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.657</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beneficial inclusion for students without disabilities</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.658</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.3. The Inclusion based on the Severity of the Disability

In relation to inclusion of students with three categories of disabilities: mild, moderate, and severe into the regular classrooms, 3 participants (3.3%) indicated that the inclusion of students with mild disabilities into regular classes would not be beneficial to themselves, while 87 participants (96.6%) mentioned that the inclusive education would be beneficial to students with mild disabilities. Twenty-four participants (26.7%) stated that the inclusion of students with moderate disabilities into regular classes would not be beneficial to themselves, whereas 66 participants (73.3%) believed that the inclusive education would be more
beneficial to students with moderate disabilities. Nevertheless, 54 participants (60%) indicated that the inclusion of students with severe disabilities into regular classes would not be beneficial to themselves, and 36 participants (40%) believed that the inclusive education would be beneficial to students with severe disabilities. Results are presented in Table 16.

Table 16
Distribution of frequency and percentage for category “Inclusion according to the severity of the disability”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beneficial inclusion for students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>N %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with mild disabilities</td>
<td>3 3.3</td>
<td>74 82.2</td>
<td>13 14.4</td>
<td>90 100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with moderate disabilities</td>
<td>24 26.7</td>
<td>58 64.4</td>
<td>8 8.9</td>
<td>90 100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with severe disabilities</td>
<td>11 12.2</td>
<td>43 47.8</td>
<td>28 31.1</td>
<td>8 8.9</td>
<td>90 100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table 17, we can observe the mean, mode, and standard deviation for the questions related to category “Inclusion according to the severity of the disability” which has been analyzed individually. The inclusion into regular classes would be most beneficial to students with mild disabilities ($M = 3.11; SD = 0.409$). At the same time, inclusion into regular classes would be beneficial to students with moderate disabilities ($M = 2.82; SD = 0.572$)
Table 17

Central tendency and variability measures for category “Inclusion according to the severity of the disability”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beneficial inclusion for students with mild disabilities</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.409</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beneficial inclusion for students with moderate disabilities</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.572</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beneficial inclusion for students with severe disabilities</td>
<td>2.37</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.814</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.4. The Inclusion according to the Type of the Disability

Thirty-one participants (34.4%) indicated that the inclusion of students with hearing disabilities into regular classrooms would not be beneficial to themselves while 59 participants (65.6%) believed that the inclusive education would be more beneficial to students with hearing disabilities. Twenty-seven participants (30%) stated that the inclusion of students with physical disabilities into regular classrooms would not be beneficial to themselves. Nevertheless, 63 participants (70%) indicated that the inclusive education would be great beneficial to students with physical disabilities. Twenty-eight participants (31.1%) stated that the inclusion of students with behavioral problems into regular classrooms would not be beneficial to themselves while 62 participants (68.9%) indicated that the inclusive education would be more beneficial to students with behavioral problems. Fifteen participants (16.7%) indicated that the inclusion of students with dyslexia into regular classrooms would not be beneficial to themselves. Nevertheless, 75 participants (83.3%) believed that the inclusive education would be great beneficial to students with dyslexia. Thirty-five participants (38.9%) indicated that the inclusion of students with mental retardation into regular classrooms would not be beneficial to themselves while 55 participants (61.1%) indicated that the inclusive education would be more beneficial to
students with mental retardation. Thirty-seven participants (41.1%) indicated that the inclusion of students with visual disabilities into regular classrooms would not be beneficial to themselves. Whereas, 53 participants (58.9%) indicated that the inclusive education would be more beneficial to students with visual disabilities. Results are shown in Table 18.

Table 18  
*Distribution of frequency and percentage for category “Inclusion according to the type of the disability”*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beneficial inclusion for students with hearing disabilities</td>
<td>2 2.2</td>
<td>29 32.2</td>
<td>52 57.8</td>
<td>7 7.8</td>
<td>90 100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beneficial inclusion for students with physical disabilities</td>
<td>27 30.0</td>
<td>57 63.3</td>
<td>6 6.7</td>
<td>90 100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beneficial inclusion for students with behavioral problems</td>
<td>28 30.0</td>
<td>47 52.2</td>
<td>15 16.7</td>
<td>90 100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beneficial inclusion for students with dyslexia</td>
<td>15 16.7</td>
<td>67 74.4</td>
<td>8 8.9</td>
<td>90 100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beneficial inclusion for students with mental retardation</td>
<td>5 5.6</td>
<td>30 33.3</td>
<td>50 55.6</td>
<td>5 5.6</td>
<td>90 100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beneficial inclusion for students with visual disabilities</td>
<td>2 2.2</td>
<td>35 38.9</td>
<td>48 53.3</td>
<td>5 5.6</td>
<td>90 100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We can observe the mean, mode, and standard deviation from Table 19 for the questions related to category “Inclusion according to the type of the disability”. In terms of
inclusion according to the type of the disabilities, the analysis for the beneficial inclusion for students with hearing disabilities into regular classes was statistically significant (M = 2.71; SD = 0.640). The analysis for the beneficial inclusion for students with physical disabilities into regular classes was statistically significant (M = 2.77; SD = 0.562). Nevertheless, the analysis for the inclusion of students with behavioral problems into regular classes would be beneficial to themselves was statistically significant (M = 3.09; SD = 2.227). The analysis for the beneficial inclusion for students with dyslexia into regular classes was statistically significant (M = 2.92; SD = 0.502) while the analysis for the beneficial inclusion for students with mental retardation into regular classes was statistically significant (M = 2.61; SD = 0.682). Similarly, the analysis for the beneficial inclusion of students with visual disabilities into regular classes was statistically significant (M = 2.62; SD = 0.628). See Table 19.
Table 19

*Central tendency and variability measures for category “Inclusion according to the type of the disability”*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Beneficial inclusion for students with hearing disabilities</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.640</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beneficial inclusion for students with physical disabilities</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.562</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beneficial inclusion for students with behavioral problems</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.227</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beneficial inclusion for students with dyslexia</td>
<td>2.92</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.502</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beneficial inclusion for students with mental retardation</td>
<td>2.61</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.682</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beneficial inclusion for students with visual disabilities</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.628</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1.5. The Impact of Inclusion on Students with Disabilities

In relation to the impact on the academic and social progress of the students with a disability, 20 participants (22.2%) indicated that the inclusion in regular classroom would not be positive impact on the academic progress of the student with disability, whereas 70 participants (77.8%) believed that the inclusive education would be more positive impact to students with disabilities. Similarly, 14 participants (15.5%) stated that the inclusion in regular classroom would not be positive impact on the social progress of students with disability. Nonetheless, 76 participants (84.5%) indicated that the inclusive education would be more positive impact to students with disabilities. Results are presented in Table 20.
Table 20
Distribution of frequency and percentage for category “Impact of inclusion on students with disabilities”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The impact of inclusion on academic</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>55.6</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>progress</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The impact of inclusion on social</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>14.4</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>progress</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In Table 21 we can observe the results for the analyses conducted that related to research questions 29 and 30, means (M), and standard deviation (SD). In terms of inclusion according to the category of the impact of inclusion on students with disabilities, the analysis for the positive impact on the academic progress of students with disabilities was statistically significant (M = 3.00; SD = 0.670). Similarly, the analysis for the positive impact on the social progress of students with disabilities was statistically significant (M = 3.10; SD = 0.671). See Table 21.

Table 21
Central tendency and variability measures for category “Impact of inclusion on students with disabilities”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The impact of inclusion on academic</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.670</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>progress</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The impact of inclusion on social</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.671</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>progress</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1.6. The Impact of Inclusion on Students without Disabilities

In relation to the impact of inclusion on students without disabilities, 38 participants (42.2%) indicated that the inclusion into regular classrooms would have a negative impact on the students without disabilities, whereas 52 participants (57.8%) stated that the inclusion into regular classrooms would have more positive impact on students without disabilities (see Table 22).

Table 22
*Distribution of frequency and percentage for category “Impact of inclusion on students without disabilities”*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N %</td>
<td>N %</td>
<td>N %</td>
<td>N %</td>
<td>N %</td>
<td>N %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The impact of inclusion on students without disabilities</td>
<td>4 (4.4)</td>
<td>34 (37.8)</td>
<td>38 (42.2)</td>
<td>14 (15.6)</td>
<td>90 (100.0)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The result shows that the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classrooms was disruptive to students without disabilities ($M = 2.31; SD = 0.788$).

Table 23
*Central tendency and variability measures for category “Impact of inclusion on students without disabilities”*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inclusion disrupts students without disabilities</td>
<td>2.31</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.788</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1.7. Inclusion as a right

As we can observe from Table 24, 5 participants (5.5%) indicated that people with disabilities would not have the right to be included in Lao community. However, 85 participants (94.5%) believed that people with disabilities would have the right to be included in Lao community.

Table 24

*Distribution of frequency and percentage for category “Inclusion as a right”*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inclusion as a right in Lao community</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is noticeable that the participants supported the inclusion of people with disabilities in Lao community. They indicated that people with disabilities has the right to be included in Lao community was statistically significant (M= 3.43; SD= 0.637). See Table 25.

Table 25

*Central tendency and variability measures for category “Inclusion as a right”*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inclusion disrupts students without disabilities</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.637</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2. Inferential Results

The purpose of this study was to analyze if there is statistically significant differences in teachers’ perceptions of the inclusion of students with disabilities in general education classrooms. In this section, data will be analyzed by means of independent t-test in order to compare the two different groups of participants (Gray & Paul, 2012) with regards to the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular school. Analyses will be performed in order to test for statistical 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 teacher students with disabilities, the inclusion of students with disabilities in teachers’ classrooms. Furthermore, ANOVA, one factor analysis of variances, will be used to compare means in more complex experiments with three or more groups (Gray & Paul, 2012) regarding the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular school environments. Results with significance will be reported. 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 inclusion for students without disabilities.

Ha: There are differences between males and females in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion for students without disabilities.

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 not statistically different $F = 0.441, p = 0.508$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that females ($M = 2.91; SD = 0.654$) had statistically greater positive attitude concerning the
benefits of inclusion for students without disabilities into regular classes than males (M= 2.55; SD= 0.605), t (88) = -2.23, p = 0.28. So, we reject Ho. When female group served as the reference group, this means difference was 0.55 standard deviation in magnitude.

Ho: There are no differences between males and females in what concerns attitude concerning the inclusion according the severity of the disability.

Ha: There are differences between males and females in what concerns attitude concerning the inclusion according the severity of the disability.

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 not statistically different F = 1.370, p = 0.245. Results of the independent t-test indicated that females (M= 2.90; SD= 0.568) had statistically greater positive attitude concerning the benefits of the inclusion for students with moderate disabilities than males (M= 2.55; SD= 0.510), t (88) = -2.48, p = 0.15. So, we reject Ho. When female group served as the reference group, this means difference was 0.61 standard deviation in magnitude.

Ho: There are no differences between males and females in what concerns attitude concerning the inclusion according to the type of the disability.

Ha: There are differences between males and females in what concerns attitude concerning the inclusion according to the type of the disability.

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 not statistically different F = 1.096, p = 0.298. Results of the independent t-test indicated that females (M= 2.70; SD= 0.645) had statistically greater positive attitude concerning the benefits of the inclusion for students with mental retardation into regular classes than males.
(M= 2.30; SD= 0.733), t (88) = -2.37, p = 0.20. So, we reject Ho. When female group served as the reference group, this means difference was 0.62 standard deviation in magnitude.

2.2 Experiences of Teaching Students with Disabilities

Ho: There are no differences between teachers who had experiences of teaching students with disabilities and the ones who did not have experience of teaching in what concerns attitude concerning the education of students with disabilities in regular classrooms.

Ha: There are differences between teachers who had experiences of teaching students with disabilities and the ones who did not have experience of teaching 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 within teachers who have ever taught students with disabilities to those who have never taught. Levene’s test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were not statistically different F = 1.013, p = 0.317. Results of the independent t-test indicated that teachers who had experiences of teaching (M= 2.67; SD= 0.831) had statistically greater positive attitude concerning the students with disabilities should be educated in regular classrooms than teachers who did not have experiences of teaching (M= 2.24; SD= 0.739), t (88) = 2.378, p = 0.02. So, we reject Ho. When teachers who had experience of teaching students with disabilities served as the reference group, this means difference was 0.58 standard deviation in magnitude.
Ho: There are no differences between teachers who had experiences of teaching students with disabilities and the ones who did not have experience of teaching in what concerns attitude concerning the education of students with disabilities in separated classrooms within regular schools.

Ha: There are differences between teachers who had experiences of teaching students with disabilities and the ones who did not have experience of teaching 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 within teachers who have ever taught students with disabilities to those who have never taught. Levene’s test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were not statistically different $F = 0.367, p = 0.546$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that teachers who did not have experiences of teaching ($M = 3.10; SD = 0.939$) had statistically greater negative attitude concerning the students with disabilities should be educated in separated classrooms within regulars schools than teachers who had experiences of teaching ($M = 2.61; SD = 0.781$), $t (88) = -2.641, p = 0.01$. So, we reject Ho. When teachers who did not have experience of teaching students with disabilities as the reference group, this means difference was -1.38 standard deviation in magnitude.

Ho: There are no differences between teachers who had experiences of teaching students with disabilities and the ones who did not have experience of teaching in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes to Lao regular teachers.
Ha: There are differences between teachers who had experiences of teaching students with disabilities and the ones who did not have experience of teaching in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes to Lao regular teachers.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups within teachers who have ever taught students with disabilities to those who have never taught. Levene’s test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were not statistically different $F = 0.804$, $p = 0.372$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that teachers who had experiences of teaching ($M = 2.92; SD = 0.690$) had statistically greater positive attitude concerning the students with disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to Lao regular teachers than teachers who did not have experiences of teaching ($M = 2.52; SD = 0.634$), $t (88) = 2.641$, $p = 0.01$. So, we reject $H_0$. When teachers who had experience group taught students with disabilities as the reference group, this means difference was 0.63 standard deviation in magnitude.

$H_0$: There are no differences between teachers who had experiences of teaching students with disabilities and the ones who did not have experience of teaching in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes to Lao community.

$H_a$: There are differences between teachers who had experiences of teaching students with disabilities and the ones who did not have experience of teaching in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes to Lao community.
An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups within teachers who have ever taught students with disabilities to those who have never taught. Levene’s test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were not statistically different $F = 1.193, p = 0.278$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that teachers who had experiences of teaching ($M = 3.03; SD = 0.657$) had statistically greater positive attitude concerning the students with disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to Lao community than teachers who did not have experiences of teaching ($M = 2.69; SD = 0.604$), $t (88) = 2.374, p = 0.02$. So, we reject Ho. When teachers who had experience group taught students with disabilities as the reference group, this means difference was 0.56 standard deviation in magnitude.

Ho: There are no differences between teachers who had experiences of teaching students with disabilities and the ones who did not have experience of teaching in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes to students without disabilities.

Ha: There are no differences between teachers who had experiences of teaching students with disabilities and the ones who did not have experience of teaching in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes to students without disabilities.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups within teachers who have ever taught students with disabilities to those who have never taught. Levene’s test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were not statistically different $F = 12.346, p = 0.001$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that teachers who had experiences of teaching ($M = 2.95; SD = 0.561$) had statistically greater positive attitude concerning the students with disabilities into regular classes can be
beneficial to the students without disabilities than teachers who did not have experiences of teaching (\( M = 2.59; \ SD = 0.780 \)), \( t (2.256) = 24.249, \ p = 0.02 \). So, we reject Ho. When teachers who had experience group taught students with disabilities as the reference group, this means difference was 0.46 standard deviation in magnitude.

Ho: There are no differences between teachers who had experiences of teaching students with disabilities and the ones who did not have experience of teaching in what concerns attitude concerning the positive impact of inclusion into regular classrooms on the academic progress of students with disabilities.

Ha: There are no differences between teachers who had experiences of teaching students with disabilities and the ones who did not have experience of teaching in what concerns attitude concerning the positive impact of inclusion into regular classrooms on the academic progress of students with disabilities.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups within teachers who have ever taught students with disabilities to those who have never taught. Levene’s test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were not statistically different \( F = 0.597, \ p = 0.442 \). Results of the independent t-test indicated that teachers who had experiences of teaching (\( M = 3.10; \ SD = 0.651 \)) had statistically greater positive attitude concerning the inclusion in regular classroom will have a positive impact on the academic progress of the student with a disability than teachers who did not have experiences of teaching (\( M= 2.79; \ SD = 0.675 \)), \( t (88) = 2.055, \ p = 0.04 \). So, we reject Ho. When teachers who had experience group taught students with disabilities as the reference group, this means difference was 0.45 standard deviation in magnitude.
2.3. Experience of Meeting a Child or an Adult with Disabilities

Ho: There are no differences between teachers who have had experiences of meeting a child or an adult with disabilities and teachers who have not had experience of meeting in what concerns attitude concerning the inclusion according to the type of the disability.

Ha: There are differences between teachers who have had experiences of meeting a child or an adult with disabilities and teachers who have not had experience of meeting in what concerns attitude concerning the inclusion according to the type of the disability.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups within teachers who have ever met either a child or an adult with disability to those who have never met. Levene’s test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were not statistically different (F = 0.013, p = 0.909). Results of the independent t-test indicated that teachers who had experiences of meeting a child or an adult with disabilities (M = 2.78; SD = 0.617) had statistically greater positive attitude concerning the inclusion of students with hearing disabilities into regular classroom can be beneficial to themselves than teachers who did not have experience of meeting a child or an adult with disabilities (M = 2.25; SD = 0.622), t (14.538) = 2.763, p = 0.01. So, we reject Ho. When teachers who had experience of meeting a child or an adult with disabilities as the reference group, this means difference was 0.85 standard deviation in magnitude.

2.4. Being aware of information about disability before this study

Ho: There are no differences between teachers who had ever and who had never heard information about disability before this study in what concerns attitude in relation to the education of students with disabilities into regular classrooms.
Ha: There are differences between teachers who had ever and who had never heard information about disability before this study in what concerns attitude in relation to the education of students with disabilities into regular classrooms.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups within teachers who have ever heard information about disability to those who have never heard information. Levene’s test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were not statistically different $F = 2.646, p = 0.107$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that teachers who had experiences in hearing information ($M = 2.74; SD = 0.828$) had statistically greater positive attitude concerning the students with disabilities should be educated into regular classrooms than teachers who did not have experiences in hearing information ($M = 2.16; SD = 0.677$), $t (88) = 3.413, p = 0.00$. So, we reject Ho. When teachers who had experience group heard information about students with disabilities as the reference group, this means difference was 0.85 standard deviation in magnitude.

Ho: There are no differences between teachers who have heard information about disability and teachers who have not heard information in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion.

Ha: There are differences between teachers who have heard information about disability and teachers who have not heard information in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups within teachers who have ever heard information about disability to those who have never heard information. Levene’s test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were not statistically different $F = 2.805, p = 0.098$. Results of the independent t-test
indicated that teachers who had experiences in hearing information (M = 2.90; SD = 0.667) had statistically greater positive attitude concerning the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to themselves than teachers who did not have experiences in hearing information (M = 2.56; SD = 0.716), t (88) = 2.216, p = 0.02. So, we reject Ho. When teachers who had experience group heard information about students with disabilities as the reference group, this means difference was 0.47 standard deviation in magnitude.

Ho: There are no differences between teachers who have heard information about disability and teachers who have not heard information in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion.

Ha: There are differences between teachers who have heard information about disability and teachers who have not heard information in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups within teachers who have ever heard information about disability to those who have never heard information. Levene’s test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were not statistically different F = 1.700, p = 0.196. Results of the independent t-test indicated that teachers who had experiences in hearing information (M = 2.91; SD = 0.683) had statistically greater positive attitude concerning the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to Lao regular teachers than teachers who did not have experience in hearing information (M = 2.56; SD = 0.669), t (88) = 2.353, p = 0.02. So, we reject Ho. When teachers who had experience group heard information about students with
disabilities as the reference group, this means difference was 0.52 standard deviation in magnitude.

Ho: There are no differences between teachers who have heard information about disability and teachers who have not heard information in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion.

Ha: There are differences between teachers who have had experiences in hearing information about disability and teachers who have not had experiences in hearing information in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups within teachers who have ever heard information about disability to those who have never heard information. Levene’s test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were not statistically different $F = 9.182$, $p = 0.003$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that teachers who had experiences in hearing information ($M = 3.03; SD = 0.591$) had statistically greater positive attitude concerning the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to Lao community than teachers who did not have experiences in hearing information ($M = 2.72; SD = 0.729$), $t (53.748) = 2.099$, $p = 0.04$. So, we reject Ho. When teachers who had experience group heard information about students with disabilities as the reference group, this means difference was 0.42 standard deviation in magnitude.

Ho: There are no differences between teachers who have had experiences in hearing information about disability and teachers who have not had experiences in hearing information in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion.
Ha: There are differences between teachers who have had experiences in hearing information about disability and teachers who have not had experiences in hearing information in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups within teachers who have ever heard information about disability to those who have never heard information. Levene’s test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were not statistically different $F = 7.121$, $p = 0.009$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that teachers who had experiences in hearing information ($M = 3.00; SD = 0.592$) had statistically greater positive attitude concerning the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to the students without disabilities than teachers who did not have experiences in hearing information ($M = 2.53; SD = 0.671$), $t (57.578) = 3.304$, $p = 0.02$. So, we reject Ho. When teachers who had experience group heard information about students with disabilities as the reference group, this means difference was 0.70 standard deviation in magnitude.

Ho: There are no differences between teachers who have had experiences in hearing information about disability and teachers who have not had experiences in hearing information in what concerns attitude concerning the impact of inclusion in students with disabilities.

Ha: There are differences between teachers who have had experiences in hearing information about disability and teachers who have not had experiences in hearing information in what concerns attitude concerning the impact of inclusion in students with disabilities.
An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups within teachers who have ever heard information about disability to those who have never heard information. Levene’s test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were not statistically different $F = 1.003, p = 0.319$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that teachers who had experiences in hearing information ($M = 3.14; SD = 0.634$) had statistically greater positive attitude concerning the inclusion in the regular classroom will have a positive impact on the academic progress of the student with disability than teachers who did not have experiences in hearing information ($M = 2.75; SD = 0.672$), $t (88) = 2.721, p = 0.00$. So, we reject Ho. When teachers who had experience group heard information about students with disabilities as the reference group, this means difference was 0.58 standard deviation in magnitude.

Ho: There are no differences between teachers who have had experiences in hearing information about disability and teachers who have not had experiences in hearing information in what concerns attitude concerning the impact of inclusion in students with disabilities.

Ha: There are differences between teachers who have had experiences in hearing information about disability and teachers who have not had experiences in hearing information in what concerns attitude concerning the impact of inclusion in students with disabilities.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups within teachers who have ever heard information about disability to those who have never heard information. Levene’s test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were not statistically different $F = 2.000, p = 0.161$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that teachers who had experiences in hearing information ($M = 3.24; SD = 0.572$) had statistically greater positive attitude concerning the inclusion in the regular classroom
will have a positive impact on the social progress of the student with disability than teachers who did not have experiences in hearing information (M = 2.84; SD = 0.767), t (88) = 2.791, p = 0.00. So, we reject Ho. When teachers who had experience group heard information about students with disabilities as the reference group, this means difference was 0.67 standard deviation in magnitude.

Ho: There are no differences between teachers who have had experiences in hearing information about disability and teachers who have not had experiences in hearing information in what concerns attitude concerning the inclusion as a right.

Ha: There are differences between teachers who have had experiences in hearing information about disability and teachers who have not had experiences in hearing information in what concerns attitude concerning the inclusion as a right.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups within teachers who have ever heard information about disability to those who have never heard information. Levene’s test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were not statistically different F = 5.295, p = 0.024. Results of the independent t-test indicated that teachers who had experiences in hearing information (M = 3.55; SD = 0.502) had statistically greater positive attitude concerning the people with disabilities have the right to be included in Lao community than teachers who did not have experiences in hearing information (M = 3.22; SD = 0.792), t (45.026) = 2.151, p = 0.01. So, we reject Ho. When teachers who had experience group heard information about students with disabilities as the reference group, this means difference was 0.41 standard deviation in magnitude.
2.5. Experience of Training about Teaching Students with Disabilities

Ho: There are no differences between teachers who have had experiences of training about teaching students with disabilities and teachers who have not had experience of training in what concerns attitude concerning how the students with disabilities should be educated.

Ha: There are differences between teachers who have had experiences of training about teaching students with disabilities and teachers who have not had experience of training in what concerns attitude concerning how the students with disabilities should be educated.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups within teachers who have ever been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities to those who have never been involved in training. Levene’s test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were not statistically different \( F = 0.238, p = 0.627 \). Results of the independent t-test indicated that teachers who had experiences of being involved in training (M = 2.91; SD = 0.830) had statistically greater positive attitude concerning the students with disabilities should be educated in regular classrooms than teachers who did not have experiences of being involved in training (M = 2.30; SD = 0.737), \( t (88) = 3.619, p = 0.00 \). So, we reject Ho. When teachers who had experience of training about teaching students with disabilities group as the reference group, this means difference was 0.82 standard deviation in magnitude.

Ho: There are no differences between teachers who have had experiences of training about teaching students with disabilities and teachers who have not had experience of training in what concerns attitude concerning how the students with disabilities should be educated.
Ha: There are differences between teachers who have had experiences of training about teaching students with disabilities and teachers who have not had experience of training in what concerns attitude concerning how the students with disabilities should be educated.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups within teachers who have ever been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities to those who have never been involved in training. Levene’s test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were not statistically different $F = 0.188$, $p = 0.665$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that teachers who did not have experiences of being involved in training ($M = 3.04; \ SD = 0.806$) had statistically less negative attitude concerning the students with disabilities should be educated in separated classrooms within regular schools than teachers who had experiences of being involved in training ($M = 2.32; \ SD = 0.785$), $t \ (88) = -4.130, p = 0.00$. So, we reject Ho. When teachers who did not have experience of training about teaching students with disabilities as the reference group, this means difference was 0.91 standard deviation in magnitude.

Ho: There are no differences between teachers who have had experiences of training about teaching students with disabilities and teachers who have not had experience of training in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion.

Ha: There are differences between teachers who have had experiences of training about teaching students with disabilities and teachers who have not had experience of training in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups within teachers who have ever been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities to those who have never been involved in training. Levene’s test of homogeneity of variance
revealed that the variances of the two groups were not statistically different \( F = 4.107, p = 0.046 \). Results of the independent t-test indicated that teachers who had experiences of being involved in training (\( M = 3.06; \ SD = 0.600 \)) had statistically greater positive attitude concerning the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classrooms can be beneficial to the students without disabilities than teachers who did not have experiences of being involved in training (\( M = 2.70; \ SD = 0.658 \)), \( t (74.869) = 2.677, p = 0.00 \). So, we reject Ho. When teachers who had experience of training about teaching students with disabilities group as the reference group, this means difference was 0.54 standard deviation in magnitude.

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\text{Ho: There are no differences between teachers who have had experiences of training about teaching students with disabilities and teachers who have not had experience of training in what concerns attitude concerning the inclusion according to the type of disability.}
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\[
\text{Ha: There are differences between teachers who have had experiences of training about teaching students with disabilities and teachers who have not had experience of training in what concerns attitude concerning the inclusion according to the type of the disability.}
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An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups within teachers who have ever been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities to those who have never been involved in training. Levene’s test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were not statistically different \( F = 14.586, p = 0.00 \). Results of the independent t-test indicated that teachers who had experiences of being involved in training (\( M = 2.85; \ SD = 0.500 \)) had statistically greater positive attitude concerning the inclusion of students with mental retardation into regular classrooms can be beneficial to themselves than teachers who did not have experiences of being involved in
training \((M = 2.46; \ SD = 0.738)\), \(t (86.830) = 2.974, \ p = 0.00\). So, we reject Ho. When teachers who had experience of training about teaching students with disabilities group as the reference group, this means difference was 0.52 standard deviation in magnitude.

Ho: There are no differences between teachers who have had experiences of training about teaching students with disabilities and teachers who have not had experience of training in what concerns attitude concerning the inclusion according to the type of the disability.

Ha: There are differences between teachers who have had experiences of training about teaching students with disabilities and teachers who have not had experience of training in what concerns attitude concerning the inclusion according to the type of the disability.

An independent \(t\)-test was used to compare the means of the two groups within teachers who have ever been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities to those who have never been involved in training. Levene’s test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were not statistically different \(F = 16.101, \ p = 0.00\). Results of the independent \(t\)-test indicated that teachers who had experiences of being involved in training \((M = 2.94; \ SD = 0.489)\) had statistically greater positive attitude concerning the inclusion of students with visual disabilities into regular classrooms can be beneficial to themselves than teachers who did not have experiences of being involved in training \((M = 2.43; \ SD = 0.628)\), \(t (82.573) = 4.321, \ p = 0.00\). So, we reject Ho. When teachers who had experience of training about teaching students with disabilities group as the reference group, this means difference was 0.81 standard deviation in magnitude.
Ho: There are no differences between teachers who have had experiences of training about teaching students with disabilities and teachers who have not had experience of training in what concerns attitude concerning the impact of inclusion of students with disabilities.

Ha: There are differences between teachers who have had experiences of training about teaching students with disabilities and teachers who have not had experience of training in what concerns attitude concerning the impact of inclusion of students with disabilities.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups within teachers who have ever been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities to those who have never been involved in training. Levene’s test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were not statistically different \( F = 0.866, p = 0.355 \). Results of the independent t-test indicated that teachers who had experiences of being involved in training (\( M = 3.32; SD = 0.535 \)) had statistically greater positive attitude concerning the inclusion in the regular classroom will have a positive impact on the academic progress of the student with a disability than teachers who did not have experiences of being involved in training (\( M = 2.80; SD = 0.672 \)), \( t (88) = 3.832, p = 0.00 \). So, we reject Ho. When teachers who had experience of training about teaching students with disabilities group as the reference group, this means difference was 0.77 standard deviation in magnitude.

Ho: There are no differences between teachers who have had experiences of training about teaching students with disabilities and teachers who have not had experience of training in what concerns attitude concerning the impact of inclusion of students with disabilities.

Ha: There are differences between teachers who have had experiences of training about teaching students with disabilities and teachers who have not had experience of training in what concerns attitude concerning the impact of inclusion of students with disabilities.
An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups within teachers who have ever been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities to those who have never been involved in training. Levene’s test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were not statistically different \( F = 1.526, p = 0.220 \). Results of the independent t-test indicated that teachers who had experiences of being involved in training (\( M = 3.38; \ SD = 0.604 \)) had statistically greater positive attitude concerning the inclusion in the regular classroom will have a positive impact on the social progress of the student with a disability than teachers who did not have experiences of being involved in training (\( M = 2.93; \ SD = 0.657 \)), \( t(88) = 3.275, p = 0.00 \). So, we reject Ho. When teachers who had experience of training about teaching students with disabilities group as the reference group, this means difference was 0.68 standard deviation in magnitude.

Ho: There are no differences between teachers who have had experiences of training about teaching students with disabilities and teachers who have not had experience of training in what concerns attitude concerning the impact of inclusion of students without disabilities.

Ha: There are differences between teachers who have had experiences of training about teaching students with disabilities and teachers who have not had experience of training in what concerns attitude concerning the impact of inclusion of students without disabilities.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups within teachers who have ever been involved in training about teaching students with disabilities to those who have never been involved in training. Levene’s test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were not statistically different \( F = 1.463, p = 0.230 \). Results of the independent t-test indicated that teachers who had experiences of involving in training (\( M = 2.59; \ SD = 0.609 \)) had statistically greater positive attitude concerning the
placement of a student with a disability into a regular classroom is disruptive to students without disabilities than teachers who did not have experiences of being involved in training (M = 2.14; SD = 0.841), t (88) = 2.688, p = 0.00. So, we reject Ho. When teachers who had experience of training about teaching students with disabilities group as the reference group, this means difference was 0.53 standard deviation in magnitude.

2.6. Inclusion of Students with Disabilities in the Regular Classroom

Ho: There are no differences between teachers who have included students with disabilities and teachers who have not included in what concerns attitude concerning how students with disabilities should be educated.

Ha: There are differences between teachers who have included students with disabilities and teachers who have not included in what concerns attitude concerning how students with disabilities should be educated.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups within teachers whose classrooms included students with disabilities and the one whose classrooms did not include students with disabilities. Levene’s test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were not statistically different F = 1.582, p = 0.212. Results of the independent t-test indicated that teachers who had experiences in inclusion (M = 2.68; SD = 0.848) had statistically greater positive attitude concerning how students with disabilities should be educated in regular classrooms than teachers who did not have experiences in inclusion (M = 2.27; SD = 0.719), t (88) = 2.340, p = 0.02. So, we reject Ho. When teachers who had experience in inclusion students with disabilities group as the reference group, this means difference was 0.57 standard deviation in magnitude.
Ho: There are no differences between teachers who have included students with disabilities and teachers who have not included in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion.

Ha: There are differences between teachers who have included students with disabilities and teachers who have not included in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups within teachers whose classrooms included students with disabilities and the ones whose classrooms did not include students with disabilities. Levene’s test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were not statistically different \( F = 5.058, \ p = 0.027 \). Results of the independent t-test indicated that teachers who had experiences in inclusion (\( M = 2.89; \ SD = 0.646 \)) had statistically greater positive attitude concerning the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to themselves than teachers who did not have experiences in inclusion (\( M = 2.58; \ SD = 0.751 \)), \( t (59.074) = 2.041 \), \( p = 0.04 \). So, we reject Ho. When teachers who had experience in inclusion students with disabilities group as the reference group, this means difference was 0.41 standard deviation in magnitude.

Ho: There are no differences between teachers who have included students with disabilities and teachers who have not included in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion.

Ha: There are differences between teachers who have included students with disabilities and teachers who have not included in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion.
An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups within teachers whose classrooms included students with disabilities and the one whose classrooms did not include students with disabilities. Levene’s test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were not statistically different $F = 5.288$, $p = 0.024$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that teachers who had experiences in inclusion ($M = 3.04$; $SD = 0.654$) had statistically greater positive attitude concerning the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to their families than teachers who did not have experiences in inclusion ($M = 2.67$; $SD = 0.777$), $t (58.014) = 2.293$, $p = 0.02$. So, we reject $H_0$. When teachers who had experience in inclusion students with disabilities group as the reference group, this means difference was 0.47 standard deviation in magnitude.

$H_0$: There are no differences between teachers who have included students with disabilities and teachers who have not included in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion.

$H_a$: There are differences between teachers who have included students with disabilities and teachers who have not included in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups within teachers whose classrooms included students with disabilities and the ones whose classrooms did not include students with disabilities. Levene’s test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were not statistically different $F = 6.376$, $p = 0.013$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that teachers who had experiences in inclusion ($M = 2.93$; $SD = 0.623$) had statistically greater positive attitude concerning the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to Lao regular teacher than
teachers who did not have experiences in inclusion (M = 2.55; SD = 0.754), t (57.185) = 2.480, p = 0.01. So, we reject Ho. When teachers who had experience in inclusion students with disabilities group as the reference group, this means difference was 0.50 standard deviation in magnitude.

Ho: There are no differences between teachers who have included students with disabilities and teachers who have not included in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion.

Ha: There are differences between teachers who have included students with disabilities and teachers who have not included in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups within teachers whose classrooms included students with disabilities and the one whose classrooms did not include students with disabilities. Levene’s test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were not statistically different F = 8.903, p = 0.004. Results of the independent t-test indicated that teachers who had experiences in inclusion (M = 3.07; SD = 0.563) had statistically greater positive attitude concerning the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to Lao community than teachers who did not have experiences in inclusion (M = 2.67; SD = 0.736), t (53.789) = 2.723, p = 0.00. So, we reject Ho. When teachers who had experience in inclusion students with disabilities group as the reference group, this means difference was 0.54 standard deviation in magnitude.
Ho: There are no differences between teachers who have included students with disabilities and teachers who have not included in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion.

Ha: There are differences between teachers who have included students with disabilities and teachers who have not included in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups within teachers whose classrooms included students with disabilities and the ones whose classrooms did not include students with disabilities. Levene’s test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were not statistically different $F = 14.051, p = 0.000$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that teachers who had experiences in inclusion ($M = 2.98; SD = 0.551$) had statistically greater positive attitude concerning the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to the students without disabilities than teachers who did not have experiences in inclusion ($M = 2.58; SD = 0.751$), $t (52.123) = 2.716$, $p = 0.00$. So, we reject Ho. When teachers who had experience in inclusion students with disabilities group as the reference group, this means difference was 0.53 standard deviation in magnitude.

Ho: There are no differences between teachers who have included students with disabilities and teachers who have not included in what concerns attitude concerning the inclusion according to the type of the disability.

Ha: There are differences between teachers who have included students with disabilities and teachers who have not included in what concerns attitude concerning the inclusion according to the type of the disability.
An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups within teachers whose classrooms included students with disabilities and the ones whose classrooms did not include students with disabilities. Levene’s test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were not statistically different $F = 0.008, p = 0.929$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that teachers who had experiences in inclusion ($M = 2.79; \text{SD} = 0.619$) had statistically greater positive attitude concerning the inclusion of students with visual disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to themselves than teachers who did not have experiences in inclusion ($M = 2.33; \text{SD} = 0.540$), $t (88) = 3.524, p = 0.00$. So, we reject $H_0$. When teachers who had experience in inclusion students with disabilities group as the reference group, this means difference was 0.85 standard deviation in magnitude.

$H_0$: There are no differences between teachers who have included students with disabilities and teachers who have not included in what concerns attitude concerning the impact of inclusion in students with disabilities.

$H_a$: There are differences between teachers who have included students with disabilities and teachers who have not included in what concerns attitude concerning the impact of inclusion in students with disabilities.

An independent t-test was used to compare the means of the two groups within teachers whose classrooms included students with disabilities and the ones whose classrooms did not include students with disabilities. Levene’s test of homogeneity of variance revealed that the variances of the two groups were not statistically different $F = 0.127, p = 0.723$. Results of the independent t-test indicated that teachers who had experiences in inclusion ($M = 3.21; \text{SD} = 0.647$) had statistically greater positive attitude concerning the inclusion in the regular
classroom will have a positive impact on the academic progress of the student with disability than teachers who did not have experiences in inclusion (M = 2.64; SD = 0.549), t (88) = 4.279, p = 0.00. So, we reject Ho. When teachers who had experience in including students with disabilities group as the reference group, this means difference was 1.03 standard deviation in magnitude.

2.7. Educational Qualifications

Ho: There are no statistically differences among three groups of regular teachers who had different educational qualifications - certificate, higher diploma, and bachelor degrees – in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classroom to the students without disabilities.

Ha: There are statistically differences among three groups of regular teachers who had different educational qualifications - certificate, higher diploma, and bachelor degrees – in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classroom to the students without disabilities.

Normality was supported by the Shapiro-Wilk test for each of the six groups. In addition, Levene’s test of homogeneity of variance indicates that the variances of the six groups were significantly different; F (3, 86) = 1.681, p= 0.177.

Results of one way ANOVA indicated that there were statistically significant differences in teachers within educational qualifications for the inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes, and therefore can be beneficial to the students without disabilities, F (3, 86) = 2.783, p= 0.046. So, we reject Ho. Post Hoc Tests LSD indicated that there were statistically significant differences between teachers who had certificate, who had a higher diploma and the ones who had bachelor. Teachers with certificate (M = 3.13; SD = 0.719) had more positive ideas on the fact that inclusion of students with disabilities
into regular classroom can be beneficial to the students without disabilities than teachers who had a higher diploma (M = 2.67; SD = 0.767), and the ones who had bachelor degree (M = 2.53; SD = 0.516).

Six percent of the variance in answering that inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classroom can be beneficial to the students without disabilities was found to be attributed to the type of educational qualifications, $\omega^2 = 0.06$. This indicates that the independent variable (3 groups of teachers) accounts for approximately 11% of the variance in the dependent variable. The significant differences of each group were performed with the following results. In relation to the Certificate/ Higher diploma, the effect size = 0.72, and for the Certificate/ Bachelor, the effect size = 0.93.

2.8. Teaching Experience

Ho: There are no statistically differences among four groups of regular teachers who had different years of teaching experiences – 0-5, 10-15, 15-20, and more than 20 years – in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classroom to the students without disabilities.

Ha: There are statistically differences among four groups of regular teachers who had different years of teaching experiences – 0-5, 10-15, 15-20, and more than 20 years – in what concerns attitude concerning the benefits of inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classroom to the students without disabilities.

Normality was supported by the Shapiro-Wilk test for each of the five groups. In addition, Levene’s test of homogeneity of variance indicates that the variances of the five groups were significantly different; F (4, 85) = 1.865, p = 0.124.

Results of one way ANOVA indicated that there were statistically significant differences in teachers within teaching experiences for the inclusion of students with
disabilities into regular classes, and therefore can be beneficial to the students without disabilities, \( F(4, 85) = 3.771, p=0.007 \). So, we reject Ho. Post Hoc Test LSD indicated that there were statistically significant differences between teachers who had 0-5 years of teaching experiences, teachers who had 10-15 years of teaching experiences, teachers who had 15-20 years of teaching experiences and the one teachers who had more than 20 years of teaching experiences. Teachers who had 15-20 years of teaching experiences had more positive idea (M = 3.25; SD = 0.622) on the fact that inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classroom can be beneficial to the students without disabilities, than teachers who had 10-15 years of teaching experiences (M = 3.00; SD = 562), than teachers who had + 20 years of teaching experiences (M = 2.82; SD = 0.728), and than teachers who had 0-5 years of experiences (M = 2.33; SD = 0.778).

Eleven percent of the variances in answering that inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classroom can be beneficial to the students without disabilities was found to be attributed to the type of educational qualifications, \( \omega^2=0.11 \). Which indicates that the independent variable (4 groups of teachers) account for approximately 11% of the variance in the dependent variable. The significant differences of each group were performed with the following results: for 0-5 years/10-15 years, an effect size = 0.07 was found; for 0-5 years/15-20 years, the effect size = 1.48, and for 0-5 years/+20 years, the effect size = 0.78.

2.9. Probability that Teacher will be working with Students with Disabilities in the Future

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 inclusion as a right in 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 concerning the inclusion as a right in Lao community.

Normality was supported by the Shapiro-Wilk test for each of the four groups. In addition, Levene’s test of homogeneity of variance indicates that the variances of the four groups were significantly different; F (3, 86) = 2.124, p = 0.103.

Results of one way ANOVA indicated that there were statistically significant differences in the variable related to the intention that teachers have in working with students with disabilities in the future for the people with disabilities to have the right to be included in Lao community, F (3, 86) = 4.569, P= 0.005. So, we reject Ho. Post Hoc Test LSD showed 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 had more positive ideas (M = 3.65) about the item related to probability of people with disabilities having the right to be included in Laos community, than teachers who indicated that they would be moderate probability to be working with students with disabilities in the future (M = 3.36), and teachers who indicated that they would be a little bit probability to be working with students with disabilities in the future (M = 3.06), and the ones who indicated that they would be not at all probability to be working with students with disabilities in the future (M = 3.00).

2.10. Teachers who have Normal Students in their Classrooms

Ho: There are no statistically differences between the teachers who had normal students in their classrooms in what concerns attitude concerning the inclusion of students with dyslexia.
Ha: There are statistically differences between the teachers who had normal students in their classrooms in what concerns attitude concerning the inclusion of students with dyslexia.

Normality was supported by the Shapiro-Wilk test for each of the four groups. In addition, Levene’s test of homogeneity of variance indicates that the variances of the four groups were significantly different, $F(3.86) = 6.450, P= 0.001$.

Results of one way ANOVA indicated that there were statistically significant differences in teachers that will be working with students with disabilities in the future, $F(3.86) = 3.877, p= 0.012$. So, we reject Ho. Post Hoc Test LSD indicated that there were statistically significant differences between teachers who had 15-20 students in classroom, teachers who had 20-30 students in classroom and teachers who had 30-40 students in classroom and the ones that had more than 40 students in the classroom. Teachers with 20-30 students in classroom had more positive ideas ($M = 3.02; SD = 0.547$) on the fact that the beneficial inclusion for students with dyslexia into regular classroom than teachers who had 15-20 students in classroom ($M = 3.00; SD = 0.000$), teachers with + 40 students in classroom ($M = 3.00; SD = 0.000$), and the teachers with 30-40 students in classroom ($M = 2.60; SD = 0.503$).

Nine percent of the variances in the inclusion of students with dyslexia into regular classroom can be beneficial to themselves was found to be attributed to the type of educational qualifications, $\omega^2= 0.09$. Which indicates that the independent variable (3 groups of teachers) account for approximately 9% of the variance in the dependent variable. The significant differences of each group were performed as with the following results: for 15-20 students/20-30 students, the effect size = 0.04, for 15-20 students/30-40 students, the effect size =0.83, and for 15-20 students/+40 students, the effect size is = 0.00.
2.11. Internal Consistency Reliability

Evaluating the research design implies one important criterion: the internal of 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 .68, which indicates that the items on the task have good internal consistency reliability (Leech, Barrett, & Morgan, 2005).

Furthermore, Table 26 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 high, 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 26. 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>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Scale Mean if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Scale Variance if Item Deleted</th>
<th>Corrected Item Total Correlation</th>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha if Item Deleted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Q12</td>
<td>57.14</td>
<td>36.709</td>
<td>.358</td>
<td>.666</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q13</td>
<td>56.91</td>
<td>44.486</td>
<td>.371</td>
<td>.735</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q14</td>
<td>56.39</td>
<td>42.398</td>
<td>.210</td>
<td>.714</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q15</td>
<td>56.90</td>
<td>35.507</td>
<td>.596</td>
<td>.647</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q16</td>
<td>56.78</td>
<td>35.388</td>
<td>.590</td>
<td>.647</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q17</td>
<td>56.89</td>
<td>36.639</td>
<td>.456</td>
<td>.660</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q18</td>
<td>56.76</td>
<td>35.917</td>
<td>.586</td>
<td>.650</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q19</td>
<td>56.84</td>
<td>36.537</td>
<td>.502</td>
<td>.657</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q20</td>
<td>56.57</td>
<td>39.327</td>
<td>.286</td>
<td>.678</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q21</td>
<td>56.86</td>
<td>37.810</td>
<td>.401</td>
<td>.668</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q22</td>
<td>57.31</td>
<td>37.475</td>
<td>.284</td>
<td>.674</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q23</td>
<td>56.97</td>
<td>37.920</td>
<td>.334</td>
<td>.671</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q24</td>
<td>56.91</td>
<td>37.857</td>
<td>.403</td>
<td>.668</td>
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<tr>
<td>Q25</td>
<td>56.59</td>
<td>35.705</td>
<td>.011</td>
<td>.781</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q26</td>
<td>56.76</td>
<td>39.243</td>
<td>.233</td>
<td>.680</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q27</td>
<td>57.07</td>
<td>37.389</td>
<td>.373</td>
<td>.667</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q28</td>
<td>57.06</td>
<td>36.570</td>
<td>.526</td>
<td>.657</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q29</td>
<td>56.68</td>
<td>35.929</td>
<td>.570</td>
<td>.651</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q30</td>
<td>56.58</td>
<td>36.292</td>
<td>.522</td>
<td>.655</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q31</td>
<td>57.37</td>
<td>37.853</td>
<td>.257</td>
<td>.676</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Q32</td>
<td>56.24</td>
<td>39.490</td>
<td>.133</td>
<td>.686</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2.12. 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 20.60\% of the variance, the second factor accounted for 9.31\%, and third factor accounted for 7.57\%. Table 27 displays the items and factor loading for rotated factor, with loading less than .40 omitted to improve clarity.

Table 27

Factor Loadings for the Rotated Factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Factor Loading 1</th>
<th>Factor Loading 2</th>
<th>Factor Loading 3</th>
<th>Communality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to Lao community.</td>
<td>.71</td>
<td>.61</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inclusion in the regular classroom will have a positive impact on the academic progress of the student with a disability.</td>
<td>.70</td>
<td></td>
<td>.62</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to themselves.</td>
<td></td>
<td>.69</td>
<td></td>
<td>.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classrooms can be beneficial to the students without disabilities.</td>
<td>.69</td>
<td></td>
<td>.60</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to their families.</td>
<td>.68</td>
<td></td>
<td>.69</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The inclusion of students with visual disabilities into regular classrooms can be beneficial to themselves.</td>
<td></td>
<td>.64</td>
<td></td>
<td>.46</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The inclusion of students with disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to Lao regular teachers. Inclusion in the regular classroom will have a positive impact on the social progress of the student with a disability. The inclusion of students with mental retardation into regular classrooms can be beneficial to themselves. The students with disabilities should be educated in regular classrooms.

The students with disabilities should be educated in separated classrooms within regular schools. The inclusion of students with physical disabilities into regular classrooms can be beneficial to themselves. The students with disabilities should be educated in special schools. The inclusion of students with severe disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to themselves. The inclusion of students with moderate disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to themselves. The inclusion of students with mild disabilities into regular classes can be beneficial to themselves.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Eigenvalue</th>
<th>% of variance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>20.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.95</td>
<td>9.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.59</td>
<td>7.57</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Loading < .40 is omitted.

The first factor, which seems to index benefit, (other, to students with disabilities according to their severity, to and according to the type of their disabilities, loading most
strongly on the first twelve items in the first column. Twelve of the items index benefits. The second factor, which seems to index least restrictive environment, was composed of the two items would loading in column two of table, but only one index the dimension, namely Item 14. Students with disabilities should be educated in special schools. 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

Teachers have along realized that one of the most important influences on student’s educational progress is the classroom teacher (Antonak & Larrivee, 1995). Measuring teacher perceptions gives insight into the factors that support positive teacher involvement. The purpose of this study was to investigate the perceptions of elementary regular teachers toward inclusion in nine regular schools in Attapue province, the southern part of Laos. The previous chapter presented data analyses utilizing the independent \( t \)-test and One-way ANOVA to examine the differences that relate to the teachers’ perceptions toward inclusive education from nine elementary schools in Attapue. A summary of the research questions for this study were also presented. This chapter is organized into a conclusion, discussion of the research, and recommendations for future research.

CONCLUSIONS

In what concerns the first goal of this research, which is to describe the perceptions of elementary regular teachers toward the inclusion, we obtained the following conclusions:

1. The Least Restrictive Environment

    Twenty-two percent of regular teachers supported the inclusion of students with disabilities in regular classrooms. Fifty-seven seven percent of the participants indicated that the students with disabilities should be separated with regular schools, and 90% of them considered that these students should be educated in special schools.

    According to UNESCO (2003), inclusion in regular classes is seen as a process of addressing and responding to the diversity of needs of all students through increasing participation in learning and reducing exclusion within and from education. It is surprising
that 90% of the regular teachers supported a more restrictive environment as special schools to educate students with disabilities. It must be realized that these perceptions may be explained by the fact that as Oluwole (2009) pointed regular teachers may not have the skills to effectively teach students with disabilities in their classrooms.

2. The Benefits of Inclusion

Sixty-six percent of the regular teachers considered that inclusion can bring benefits for students with disabilities. Seventy-five percent of the participants mentioned that it can bring benefits to the family. At the same time, 65.5% of them believed that it can beneficial to Lao teachers. Additionally, 76.7% of the participants stated that it can be beneficial to Lao community, and 71% of them considered that inclusion in regular classes can benefit students without disabilities.

The findings in this study were consistent with what Carter, Cushing, Clark, and Kennedy (2005) have found about students with disabilities that have also been shown to benefit academically from inclusive classrooms.

The results also support the findings of Nienhuys, Hhorborough and Cross (1985) which stated that inclusive education allows social interaction with peers to occur in the classroom settings and that helps all students to understand diversity and to accept differences. Social interaction allows students with disabilities to develop their interactive and attention skills. Peer interaction also presents students with disabilities with opportunities to develop and practice communication (Pletka, 2007).

3. The Impact of Inclusion

With regard to the impact of inclusion on students with disabilities, the study demonstrated that 77.8% of the regular teachers believed that inclusion can have positive
impact on academic process of students with disabilities. Eighty-four percent of the participants mentioned that can bring positive impact on the social progress of students with disabilities.

Downing and Peckman-Harding (2007) also has found that students with disabilities learned empathy when included in the general education classroom.

The result supports what Lipsky and Gartner (1994) have found in their research that the main important goal of inclusion is to prepare both students with and without disabilities to become contributing members of their community and society.

Regarding the impact of inclusion on students without disabilities, 57.8% of regular teachers considered that inclusion can have positive impact on students with disabilities.

Smith, Polloway, Patton, and Dowdy (1995) indicated that inclusion provides opportunities for interaction between students with disabilities and those without disabilities.

4. Inclusion as a right

Ninety-four percent of the regular teachers considered that people with disabilities would have the right to be included in Lao community. It is very interesting that we got this result, because it means that teachers had highly positive attitudes towards the right of people with disabilities to be included in Lao community. I general, regular teachers had great positive perceptions towards people with disabilities, which means that people with disabilities had equal right in Lao society.

The results support what Mannix (2009) stated regarding that inclusive education is very important to enhance the social acceptance and social competence of students with special needs when they are placed in regular classrooms.

Considering the Second goal of this Research
To identify statistically significance among the independent variables, the conclusions were the following:

1) There were significant differences between male and female teachers in relation to their attitude regarding the benefits of inclusion for students without disabilities.

Female teachers believed that the inclusion of students with disabilities can be beneficial for students without disabilities (M = 2.91) and inclusion can bring benefits for students with moderate disabilities (M = 2.90). The female teachers (M = 2.70) also believed that the inclusion into regular classrooms can be beneficial for students with mental retardation. These seem to indicate that female teachers were highly supportive of inclusion.

2) There were significant differences in relation to the experiences of teaching students with disabilities.

Regular teachers (M = 2.67) who had experience of teaching students with disabilities considered that these students should be educated in regular classrooms. It is surprising that teachers (M = 3.10) who did not have experience of teaching believed that students with disabilities should be educated in separate classrooms with regular schools. Additionally, this study demonstrated that regular teachers (M = 3.03) who had experience of teaching students with disabilities considered that inclusion can be beneficial to Lao community, and also believed that it can be beneficial for Lao regular teachers (M = 2.69), and it can bring benefits to students without disabilities (M = 2.95). Similarly, they also believed that it can have positive impact on the academic progress of students with disabilities (M = 3.10).

3) There were statistical significant differences between teachers in relation to the experience of meeting a child or an adult with disabilities.
Regular teachers ($M = 2.78$) who had experience of meeting a child or an adult with disabilities considered that the inclusion into regular classrooms can be beneficial for students with hearing disabilities.

4) There were significant differences in relation to the experience of hearing information about disability.

Regular teachers ($M = 2.74$) who had experience in hearing information about disability believed that students with disabilities should be educated in regular classrooms. Concurrently, they stated that inclusion can be beneficial to students with disabilities ($M = 2.90$), Lao regular teachers ($M = 2.91$), Lao community ($M = 3.03$), and students without disabilities ($M = 3.00$). In addition, the regular teachers with background information regarding disabilities mentioned that inclusion can have positive impact on academic progress ($M = 3.14$) and the social progress ($M=3.24$); they also believed that people with disabilities have the right to be included in Lao community ($M = 3.55$).

5) There were significant differences in the experience of training about teaching students with disabilities.

The participants with experience of training about teaching students with disabilities believed that students with disabilities should be educated in regular classroom ($M = 2.91$) and separated classroom within regular schools ($M = 3.04$). They also indicated that inclusion can benefit students with disabilities ($M = 3.06$), students with mental retardation ($M = 2.85$), and students with visual disabilities.

Concurrently, the participants mentioned that inclusion can have positive impact on both academic ($M = 3.32$) and social progress ($M = 3.38$) of students with disabilities.
However, they pointed out that inclusion would be disruptive for students without disabilities ($M = 2.59$).

6) There were significant differences in relation to the inclusion of students with disabilities in the regular classrooms.

The participants believed that inclusion can benefit the families of students with disabilities ($M = 3.04$).

7) There were significant differences in the educational qualifications

Results showed that the participants with a certificate degree ($M = 3.13$) stated that inclusion into regular classes can be beneficial to students with disabilities.

8) There were significant differences in relation to the teaching experience

It is noticeable that the participants who had 15-20 years of teaching experience believed that inclusion can benefit students without disabilities ($M = 3.25$).

9) There were significant differences in the probability that teachers will be working with students with disabilities in the future

This study revealed that the participants ($M = 3.65$) strongly believed that they would be working with students with disabilities in the future. This means that they will probably teach students with disabilities in regular education settings.

10) There were significant differences in the amount of students in teachers’ classrooms

It is surprising that the participants who had 20-30 students in the classroom ($M = 3.02$) indicated that inclusion into regular classrooms can benefit students with dyslexia.

**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 20.60% of the variance; the second one – benefits accounted for 9.31%, and the third factor – impact accounted for 7.57%.

**Analyze reliability’s coefficient 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 0.68, which indicates that the items on the task have good internal consistency reliability (Leech, Barrett, & Morgan, 2005).

1. **Limitation of the Study**

The study was based on the perception of regular teachers in nine elementary schools in rural, Attapue province, of Laos. While it may not be appropriate to generalize the result to all participant schools and region of Laos. The data gives information that may be important to specific participants.

2. **Recommendations of Future Research**

This study was done primarily to investigate how the perceptions of regular teachers toward inclusion in nine regular schools in Attapue province, Laos. The researcher should not only want to know these teachers’ perceptions of inclusion, but how teacher training programs operated successfully in order to serve students with disabilities. The results revealed that regular teachers who did not have experience of teaching students with disabilities had more negative views about the students with disabilities; they would like students with disabilities to be educated in separate classrooms within regular schools. In
addition, the study found that regular teachers strongly supported the education of students with disabilities in special schools rather than in regular schools. Such regular teachers did not have more experience in teaching students with disabilities. For the reason, researcher should promote more positive perception of inclusive education in order to support students with disabilities being educated in regular classrooms.

Based on the findings of this study, the following recommendations for future research are made:

1. Research should investigate the quality of training from which regular teachers in rural areas have obtained in order to teach students with disabilities.

2. Research is needed to examine the demographic factors that affect teachers attitude toward inclusion.

3. Research is needed to test whether perceptions of inclusion differ with larger samples which represent urban, suburban, or rural communities.

4. Research should be done which utilized the perceptions of all inclusion stakeholders such as students, teachers, administrators, parents, and other related groups of people.

5. Research should be conducted in other provinces in Laos.
REFERENCES


MacQuarrie, P. (2009). Standards-based individualized education programs (IEPs) benefit students—IEPs must align with the general education curriculum. *Focus on Results, 7*(2), 1-6.


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APPENDICES

Appendix A:

Approval Letter of the University of Minho

Universidade do Minho
Instituto de Educação
Department of Educational Psychology and Special Education

DECLARATION

Ana Paula Loução Martins, Ph.D., 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. Ketsakda Khamsouvannong will use the survey “Perception of Elementary 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, Ph.D.
(Professor)
Appendix B:

Permission Letter of the National University of Laos
Appendix C:

Permission Letter of the Continuing and Distance Education Center, National University of Laos
Appendix D:

Permission letter of the Education Department of Attapue Province
Appendix E:

Perception of Teachers toward Inclusive Education Questionnaire

Universidade do Minho
Instituto de Educação
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\[ \varepsilon_{\text{10\%}} \]
1. \( \begin{align*}
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20.  ¡¾­»¼­»È¸´ ¡¾­£ö°»¾.  

21.  ¡¾­»¼­»È¸´ ¡¾­£ö°»¾.  

22.  ¡¾­»¼­»È¸´ ¡¾­£ö°»¾.  

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23. जन्मदिन का उपलक्ष्य, तेजप्रभात के रंग में फोटोग्राफ करें और इकाइयों के बारे में निम्नलिखित प्रकार से वर्णित करें:

24. जन्मदिन का उपलक्ष्य, तेजप्रभात के रंग में फोटोग्राफ करें और इकाइयों के बारे में निम्नलिखित प्रकार से वर्णित करें:

25. जन्मदिन का उपलक्ष्य, तेजप्रभात के रंग में फोटोग्राफ करें और इकाइयों के बारे में निम्नलिखित प्रकार से वर्णित करें:

26. जन्मदिन का उपलक्ष्य, तेजप्रभात के रंग में फोटोग्राफ करें और इकाइयों के बारे में निम्नलिखित प्रकार से वर्णित करें:

27. जन्मदिन का उपलक्ष्य, तेजप्रभात के रंग में फोटोग्राफ करें और इकाइयों के बारे में निम्नलिखित प्रकार से वर्णित करें:

28. जन्मदिन का उपलक्ष्य, तेजप्रभात के रंग में फोटोग्राफ करें और इकाइयों के बारे में निम्नलिखित प्रकार से वर्णित करें:
29. \( i^{7/4} \mapsto 1 \mapsto \bar{E}, \quad \theta^7 \otimes \bar{A}^{-1/4} \mapsto -\otimes \delta^3 \otimes \bar{O} \), \( i^{7/4} \mapsto 1 \mapsto \bar{E}^{7/4}, \bar{E}^{7/4} \otimes \bar{E}^{7/4} \mapsto 1/4 \mapsto \delta^7 \otimes \bar{O}^{-1/4} \mapsto \delta^7 \). 

30. \( i^{7/4} \mapsto 1 \mapsto \bar{E}, \quad \theta^7 \otimes \bar{A}^{-1/4} \mapsto -\otimes \delta^3 \otimes \bar{O} \), \( i^{7/4} \mapsto 1 \mapsto \bar{E}^{7/4}, \bar{E}^{7/4} \otimes \bar{E}^{7/4} \mapsto 1/4 \mapsto \delta^7 \otimes \bar{O}^{-1/4} \mapsto \delta^7 \).
University of Minho

Institute of Education

Department of Educational Psychology and Special Education

Survey Instrument

Perception of Elementary 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 elementary 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 20 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 Variables for 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)

   1. Certificate □
   2. Diploma □
   3. Higher Diploma □
   4. Bachelor Degree □
   5. Master Degree □
6. Doctoral Degree □

4. Teaching experiences

1. Less than 5 years □

2. 5 to 10 years □

3. 10 to 15 years □

4. 15 to 20 years □

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.


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? ……………………………………………………………………………………..

…………………………………………………………………………………………………………………

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

1. 15-20 students □
2. 20-30 students □
3. 30-40 students □
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.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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