English Language Teacher Preparedness to Teach Students with Disabilities: The Case of Postsecondary Japan

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Abstract

While general and special education teachers' sentiments, attitudes, and concerns about inclusive education have been extensively researched in recent years, little is known about English language teachers' (ELTs) views on inclusive education. This is a critical research gap, as students with disabilities (SWDs) can face many unique barriers to learning a foreign language compared to other subject areas, and many ELTs have reported feeling unprepared to teach such students. However, ELTs without training or experience in teaching SWDs may be prepared to teach inclusively due to the extent to which established approaches to language teaching, namely communicative language teaching (CLT) and reflective practice, complement inclusive practices. The present research used a mixed methods approach to investigate ELTs' preparedness to teach SWDs using postsecondary Japan as a case. The first stage of this research employed a modified version of the Sentiments, Attitudes, and Concerns about Inclusive Education Revised Scale (SACIE-R) (Forlin et al., 2011) among a group (*N* = 239) of ELTs working in this case context. The second stage consisted of classroom observations and post-observation interviews with a subset (*n* = 13) of survey respondents to further investigate ELTs' implementation and conceptualization of inclusive education in the classroom. Respondents had a generally positive view of including SWDs in their instruction. However, they overwhelmingly reported a low degree of training to teach SWDs, as well as expressed concern for their general lack of knowledge and skills to teach inclusively and (in)ability to give appropriate attention to all students in an inclusive classroom. Predictive factors included previous interactions with people with disabilities, inclusive practices self-efficacy, and participation in pre- and in-service training to teach SWDs. The qualitative findings identified several additional concerns, chief among them being issues related to diagnosis and/or disclosure of SWDs, curricular barriers, and insufficient institutional support. Participants exhibited a high degree of competency in inclusive practices related to the learning environment, but demonstrated fewer behaviors related to differentiation and specific consideration for SWDs. Application of a CLT approach helped create more inclusive learning environments, though participants were largely unaware of this effect. Reflective practice also appears to have a positive impact on inclusive practices for ELTs. The overall results have implications for how to best prepare and support ELTs to teach inclusively, particularly as pertains to pre- and in-service training and institutional support.

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Dedication

For Kayoko, to whom I owe so much more than this.

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Abbreviation Key

AEDPD	Act for Eliminating Discrimination against Persons with Disabilities
CFA	Confirmatory factor analysis
CLT	Communicative language teaching
CLTSE	Communicative language teaching self-efficacy
CRPD	Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities
EFL	English as a foreign language
ELL	English language learner
ELT	English language teacher
ESL	English as a second language
FLA	Foreign language anxiety
GC4	General comment no. 4
HEI	Higher education institution
IPELT	Inclusive Practices in English Language Teaching Scale
IPSE	Inclusive practices self-efficacy
JASSO	Japan Student Services Organization
L1	First language
L2	Second or additional language
MEXT	Japanese Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology
ODL	Online and distance learning
POC	Post-observation conference
RPSE	Reflective practices self-efficacy
SACIE-R	Sentiments, Attitudes, and Concerns about Inclusive Education Scale Revised
SDG4	Sustainable Development Goal 4
SEN	Special educational need(s)
SLD	Specific learning difficulty(ies)
SWD	Student(s) with disabilities
TEFL/TESL	Teaching English as a foreign/second language
TESOL	Teaching English to speakers of other languages
UDL	Universal Design for Learning

Chapter I: Introduction

Defining Disability

The way that we use language in and around discourse related to disability reflects and affects how society views disability, so it is imperative that researchers choose which terms and labels to use with both care and intention (Graham et al., 2020; Kormos, 2017a). In this document, certain key terms will be defined as the need arises, while others will be defined here at the outset to more clearly frame the current research inquiry and its aims.

The term *disability* will be used as it is defined by the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD) held in 2006. This definition holds that "persons with disabilities include those who have long-term physical, mental, intellectual or sensory impairments which in interaction with various barriers may hinder their full and effective participation in society on an equal basis with others" (United Nations, n.d., p. 4). The choice to use this particular definition was made with consideration of three main factors. The first is the term's clarity of meaning, and the second is its common use. The CRPD, for instance, has been ratified by 185 countries to date. Finally, this definition is applicable to the present research aims because it accords with the *interactionist model* of disability, which holds that "students' ability to function in an environment is an interaction of the environment, the person, and the person's impairment" (Evans et al., 2017, p. 77). This dynamic view allows researchers to "investigate the intricate interactions between individuals and their contexts" (Kormos, 2017b, p. 31), as well as empowers practitioners to design learning environments that are more accommodating to an array of individuals and impairments.

Concerningly, however, the term *disability* is often associated with the *medical model*, a deficit model which frames impairments as defects to be treated or cured (Evans et al., 2017). This view encourages labeling and confining impairments to specific diagnoses. In reality, many learning disabilities overlap and lack clear distinction from a cognitive perspective (Kormos, 2017a; 2017b; 2020; Kormos & Smith, 2024; Smith, 2018). Therefore, the present research will use the term *specific learning difficulty* (SLD) to more accurately reference the complex nature of language-related impairments as captured within the multiple-deficit model (Pennington & Bishop, 2009). SLDs include dyslexia, dyspraxia, dysgraphia, ASD, ADHD, and social, emotional, and behavioral difficulties. This term also accords with the interactionist model of disability.

Disability and Language Learning

DiFino and Lombardino (2004) attribute the "first published study making a connection between foreign language difficulties and learning disabilities" to the Harvard psychologist Kenneth Dinklage, who in 1971 "described three groups of students who were otherwise bright, gifted, and highly motivated, but who remained unsuccessful in the foreign language classroom" (p. 391). Since then, the number of studies investigating this intersection have been published intermittently, though the area is still underresearched and most studies that do exist focus on dyslexia (Kormos, 2020; Pokrivčáková, 2018). Regardless, language learning can present several unique barriers to students with SLDs such as dyslexia, ADHD, and ASD, as well as students with visual and hearing impairments.

Significant gaps in both academic achievement and language acquisition have been observed between ELLs with SLDs and their peers without SLDs (Estrada, 2013; Haft et al., 2022; Kormos, 2017a; Kormos & Smith, 2024; Rhinehart et al., 2022). Compared to their peers without SLDs, "language learners with SLDs show significant differences in their working memory and phonological short-term memory capacity," both of which are "important predictors of success in language learning" (Kormos, 2017a, p. 47). Depending on the exact nature of the SLD and other factors in the learner profile, students with SLDs may have difficulty processing input (written and/or spoken), automatizing lexical chunks, creating long-term memory, and producing output (Borodkin & Faust, 2014; Delaney, 2016; Kormos, 2017a). Students with dyslexia, for example, may experience greater difficulty understanding and internalizing syntactic and phonological rules when learning a foreign language (Sparks et al., 1991), while children with ADHD generally have lower working memory, difficulty self-regulating, and related difficulty with L1 acquisition (Barkley, 1997). It has also been found that ELLs with SLDs experience achievement gaps across all their academic work, not only language courses, and the effect size is largest for students with phonological processing deficits (Estrada, 2013).

The Linguistic Coding Differences Hypothesis (Sparks et al., 1989) contends that difficulties learning the phonological, orthographic, and syntactic rules of a first language (L1) transfer to second or additional language (L2) learning, a postulation which has been substantiated empirically for foreign language learners with both ADHD and learning disabilities in more general terms in both secondary and postsecondary environments (Sparks et al., 1992; 2005; 2008a; 2008b). According to this hypothesis, "skill in the native

language components—phonological, syntactic, and semantic—serves as the foundation for successful [foreign language] learning" (Sparks, 1995, p. 190).

In some cases, however, students may encounter barriers related to an SLD in their L2, but not in their L1. For example, ELLs with SLDs may have difficulty parsing and pronouncing certain English phonemes (Delaney, 2016). English's opaque orthography and irregular spelling conventions may also present barriers to students who have a phonological processing deficit, whereas more transparent orthographies such as those used in Japanese present fewer such barriers (Tanahashi, 2010). Furthermore, students with some SLDs, for instance dyslexia or ADHD, may develop coping strategies in their L1 that do not transfer to an L2 (Sparks & Ganschow, 1991). There is also ample evidence demonstrating that these cognitive factors interact with affective factors of language learning, particularly anxiety, for students with SLDs (Kormos, 2017a; Kormos & Smith, 2024; Liu & Huang, 2011; Piechurska-Kuciel, 2008; Sparks & Ganschow, 1991; Sparks et al., 2005; Sparks et al., 2008b).

Anxiety can influence learning and performance across cognitive domains, but can do so with particular acuity in L2 learning. The concept of foreign language anxiety (FLA) is often credited to Horwitz et al. (1986), who proposed that FLA is "a conceptually distinct variable in foreign language learning" (p. 125). This claim was supported by findings from the first administration of the Foreign Language Classroom Anxiety Scale, which further found that FLA is characterized by three more specific anxieties: communication apprehension, fear of being negatively evaluated, and test anxiety. MacIntyre (2017) and Horwitz (2017) both trace the genesis of FLA inquiries back to Scovel (1978), but note that Horwitz et al. (1986) were the first to convincingly delineate and measure FLA as a distinct phenomenon. Since then, MacIntyre (2017) writes, FLA "has been the most widely studied emotion in second language acquisition" (p. 11); furthermore, FLA has been found to correlate with poor attainment of speaking, writing, and grammatical understanding in a foreign language (Horwitz et al., 2009; Kormos, 2017a; Kormos & Smith, 2024; Sparks, 2008a).

The dynamic approach to FLA situates it in relation to a multitude of other factors, all of which interact with each other to affect language learning and development (MacIntyre, 2017), and this approach can help us to understand how various forms of disability can exacerbate or otherwise interact with FLA. Foreign language learners with dyslexia have also

been shown to have exceptionally high levels of anxiety learning a language (Ganschow et al., 1998), and their motivation to learn a foreign language is plastic, complicated by cognitive factors, and influenced by the social context within the instructional setting more so than their peers without dyslexia (Csizér et al., 2010). Csizér et al. (2010) further hypothesize that the social context may impact language learning motivation of learners with other SLDs. Indeed, language learners with SLDs "tend to demonstrate higher levels of FLA than their peers with no SLDs" (Kormos, 2017a, p. 77). Chen and Chang (2008), for instance, found that developmental learning difficulties were a major cause of FLA in a survey of 1,187 postsecondary English as a foreign language (EFL) students in Taiwan. In a survey of 60 university students with SLDs and 144 without, Javorsky et al. (1992) found that the students with SLDs believed themselves to be less capable and have lower foreign language proficiency compared with their peers without SLDs; in addition, the respondents with SLDs reported greater anxiety associated with learning and using a foreign language.

This gap has been found to be true at almost all stages of L2 learning, leading to a "vicious circle" for students who may "already face challenges due to their potentially lower working memory and phonological short-term memory capacity" (Kormos, 2017a, p. 79). This circle can spiral to negatively affect language learning motivation, acquisition, and achievement (Kormos, 2017a; Liu & Huang, 2011), all of which can be further exacerbated by stigmatization and stereotyping of ELLs with SLDs in academic settings (Haft et al., 2022). Furthermore, Horwitz's (2001) research review of FLA and achievement concluded that poor foreign language learning may be a cause of FLA rather a symptom of it, suggesting that the relationship between FLA and achievement in language learning can take the form of a feedback loop in which FLA and achievement negatively reinforce each other. Piechurska-Kuciel (2008), for example, found in a study of 393 secondary EFL students in Poland that the 105 learners with dyslexia experienced higher FLA resulting both directly from their self-concept as learners with dyslexia, as well as their cognitive differences processing input and producing output in English. Finally, students' self-worth or self-esteem may also be negatively impacted, and this can extend beyond the language learning classroom (Horwitz et al., 1986; Kormos, 2017a). These decreases in self-worth or self-esteem from poor learning may exacerbate already low self-concept in relation to the SLD itself, as such concerns have been noted at least among people with dyslexia (Piechurska-Kuciel, 2008).

SLDs are less visible than other forms of disability, and the overlap of characteristics of different SLDs indicates that they often co-occur, meaning a student with one SLD is very likely to have at least one other; additionally, among all students with disabilities (SWDs), those with SLDs are the most likely to appear in regular classes in primary and secondary contexts, as well as to go unnoticed in postsecondary ones (Kormos, 2017a; Kormos 2017b; Smith, 2018). Teachers who wish to include students with SLDs should therefore assume their presence and act accordingly.

Compared to students without sensory impairments, students with sensory impairments experience language learning differently and have different learning preferences. People with visual impairments, for instance, outperform their sighted peers in verbal recall tasks, and ELLs with visual impairments have a strong preference for gaining information through auditory input, which in turn supports reading and writing ability (Arslantas, 2017). A study by Wesołowska and Jedynak (2014) with three groups of ELLs—one without visual impairments, one with moderate visual impairments, and one of fully blind students—found that each group employed different strategies when learning vocabulary. There is even evidence to showing that blind ELLs have different motivation to learn English compared to peers without any form of visual impairment (Khodadady & Gholamian, 2014).

Blind students also experience physical learning environments differently than their sighted peers, which can result in exclusion from shared learning spaces and group activities and difficulty accessing on-campus resources such as support centers for SWDs (Carpenter, in press). EFL instruction commonly presents barriers to learning for students with visual impairments, though these can be minimized or removed through appropriate pedagogy and assistive technology (Arslantas, 2017; Carpenter, 2020; Jayakody et al., 2016; Khan & Mahmood, 2022; Sales Araujo et al., 2023; Susanto & Nanda, 2018; Tran & Pho, 2020; Tsukamoto, in press). Topor and Rosenblum (2019), however, found in a survey of 66 ELTs of students with visual impairments in Canada that 30% of these teachers did not feel qualified to teach English to such students, and also that the total group of respondents employed a variety of accommodative strategies. In a review of nearly 30 papers on teaching EFL to students with visual impairments, Boltenkova et al. (2020) found that individual and external factors such as country of origin and access to assistive technology played a significant role in these students' learning experience, further arguing that the lack

of a specific pedagogy for blind learners within the TESOL field may be a hindrance to their inclusion in English language learning environments. Additional understanding of how visually impaired learners acquire their first language(s) can also help prepare ELTs to best teach English to such learners later in life (Jedynak, 2018).

Compared to their peers without hearing impairments, ELLs with hearing impairments may have greater difficulty receiving instructional information (Iwai, in press), learning vocabulary (Domagała-Zyśk, 2019; Mpofu & Chimhenga, 2013; Murphy & Dodd, 2010), using correct grammatical forms (Murphy & Dodd, 2010), and speaking (Iwai, in press; Mpofu & Chimhenga, 2013). According to Swisher (1989),

> The hearing loss itself acts as a drastic filter on the linguistic data, and information obtained from aided residual hearing, as well as from visual sources such as lipreading and signed representations of spoken language, is typically fragmentary. In addition to the limitations of input, the very difficulty of the task of learning an auditory language with severely restricted information is likely to lead to loss of motivation. (p. 239)

Findings from Csizér and Kontra (2020) also suggest that deaf and severely hearing impaired ELLs have a greater reliance on the teacher and friends and family when learning English compared to their peers, and that barriers they face in the English language classroom can have a negative impact on their language learning motivation; from these findings, the authors concluded that the affective domain may play a more significant role in determining engagement in the language learning experience for students with hearing impairments. In a survey of 186 ELTs in Saudi Arabia, most respondents reported insufficient training to teach EFL to deaf students and felt that the educational environments in which they worked were not properly equipped to accommodate such learners (Khasawneh, 2021a). Some common barriers that deaf or hearing-impaired ELLs may experience are decreased social interaction with other students (Mpofu & Chimhenga, 2013; Murphy & Dodd, 2010), communicative breakdowns, and heightened anxiety (Iwai, in press). However, there is evidence that these barriers can, as with learners with visual impairments, be minimized or removed through modifications to classroom instruction and the use of assistive technology (Dewi et al., 2019; Iwai, in press; Mpofu & Chimhenga, 2013; Turner, 2019).

Any and all of the barriers to English language learning for SWDs catalogued above can be further complicated by exogenous factors that create problems for postsecondary

ELLs who enter the university classroom with different levels of proficiency and experience with a foreign language; these include teachers with insufficient training, unrealistic or inappropriate curricula, and classes that are too large or move at too fast a pace for some students (DiFino & Lombardino, 2004). There is a clear need, therefore, to gain deeper understandings of how these factors can affect SWDs' inclusion in language learning environments.

Defining Inclusive Education

Inclusive education is notoriously hard to define (Gordon-Gould & Hornby, 2023; Graham et al., 2020; Walton, 2016). In part, this is because inclusive education must be contextualized for each place it is implemented (Forlin, 2018; Gordon-Gould & Hornby, 2023; Graham, 2020; Hunt, 2019). Different countries and regions have different social, cultural, and historical factors that shape ideas about inclusion, exclusion, and group membership that affect how inclusion is manifested in various interrelated institutions, including education (Armstrong & Armstrong, 2019; Rapp & Corral-Granados, 2021). Inclusion is part of a complex ideology that is challenging to operationalize in any environment, and different conceptualizations of inclusion "affect not only inclusive policies and practices within the education system but rather illuminate the positioning and production of disability in society as a whole" (Krischler et al., 2019, p. 646).

Walton (2016) raises the possibilities that inclusive education can be viewed as an ideology, a field, and/or a discourse. Regarding inclusive education as an ideology positions and interrogates it as a political or social agenda that is advanced through "material processes and practices" including "research, publications and other texts, teaching and conferences. As such, the meanings created by its symbolic forms can be scrutinized in terms of the relations of domination that they create or maintain" (Walton, 2016, p. 33). Regarding inclusive education as a field "offers the possibility of examining inclusive education specifically as a knowledge field, with a focus on *what* the knowledge of inclusive education might be" (Walton, 2016, p. 37). In this sense, inclusive education can be viewed as a set of principles which are translated into practice with regard for contextual factors such as location and learner profiles; this view can be scrutinized by the extent to which these principles are successful or unsuccessful in achieving their vision of inclusion. However, translating any definition of inclusive education into practice is value-laden and

subjective (Rapp & Corral-Granados, 2021). Finally, understanding inclusive education as a discourse recognizes that its definition is not static, but evolves over time and is (de-/re-)constructed by its enactors (Walton, 2016). The present research will adopt all three views simultaneously by framing inclusive education within the relevant socio-political contexts surrounding the research inquiry, by proposing and characterizing an operational set of pedagogical principles within that inquiry, and finally by recognizing that the inquiry itself is involved in the ongoing (re)creation of the inclusive education as a discourse.

Taking this broad standpoint still necessitates a working definition of inclusive education as a point of embarkation. To this end, the present research will adopt the definition of *inclusive education* provided in the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities' General Comment No. 4, for which a fuller discussion occurs in Chapter II, due its extensive and concurrent use in both policy and practice. In this document, inclusive education is defined as:

> a) A fundamental human right of all learners. Notably, education Is the right of the individual learner, and not, in the case of children, the right of a parent or caregiver. Parental responsibilities in this regard are subordinate to the rights of the child.
> b) A principle that values the well-being of all students, respects their inherent dignity and autonomy, acknowledges individual requirements and ability to effectively be included in and contribute to society.
> c) A means of realizing other human rights. It is the primary means by which persons with disabilities can lift themselves out of poverty, obtain the means to participate fully in their communities, and be safeguarded from exploitation. It is also the primary means through which to achieve inclusive societies.
> d) the result of a process of continuing and pro-active commitment to eliminate barriers impeding the right to education, together with changes to culture, policy and practice of regular schools to accommodate and effectively include all students. (Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, 2016)

Regarding inclusive education a field, inclusive education is realized in classroom instruction through *inclusive practices*, which for the present purposes are defined as the adherence to principles that allow teachers to respond to individual difference between learners, but avoid possible marginalization that may result when students are treated differently (Florian

& Beaton, 2017). A fuller accounting of specific inclusive practices that are relevant to the current research context will be provided in Chapter II.

The Importance of Teachers' Views on Inclusive Education

Teacher education and involvement are vital components of the success of inclusive education in any given context (Forlin, 2018; Gordon-Gould & Hornby, 2023; Graham, 2020; Hunt, 2019; OECD, 2018). There is a wide body of research spanning decades that has shown how important teachers' views on inclusive education are to their perceived and actual ability to implement inclusive practices. Recent meta-analyses by Dignath et al. (2022) and Guillemot et al. (2022) show that teachers' views of inclusive education worldwide are generally positive, and have been trending that way for at least the past two decades. Common factors that can influence these beliefs include: the level of human development in the countries in which the teachers are working, age and amount of teaching experience, gender, level of education being taught, experience teaching SWDs, training in special or inclusive education, experience teaching SWDs, previous interactions with people with disabilities, and self-efficacy (Dignath et al., 2022; Guillemot et al., 2022; Ieridou, 2017). In addition, teachers who have a more developed understanding of inclusive education have more positive views and perceive themselves to be more prepared to implement inclusive practices (Dignath et al., 2022; Krischler et al., 2019). This understanding can be achieved in pre-service teacher training (Hunt, 2019; Ieridou, 2017), while in-service interventions can also have a significant and positive effect on teachers' views of and self-efficacy implementing inclusive practices (Dignath et al., 2022).

Self-efficacy refers to one's belief that they are acting in a certain way to achieve a specific goal or otherwise achieve a desired outcome (Bandura, 1977). Bandura (1977) further asserted that "[n]ot only can perceived self-efficacy have directive influence on choice of activities and settings, but, through expectations of eventual success, it can affect coping efforts once they are initiated" (p. 194). While it has been previously claimed that inclusive practices self-efficacy is difficult to define (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001), Dignath et al. (2022) define self-efficacy in the context of inclusive education as "teachers' resources for coping as well as their expectations of being able to support students in specific situations" (p. 2614), a definition which will be used for the current research inquiry as well. Self-efficacy in inclusive education is closely linked to teachers' wider beliefs about

inclusive education (Dignath et al., 2022; Miesera et al., 2018; Sharma et al., 2012; Sharma & Sokal, 2015; Song et al., 2019; Yada et al., 2022), as well as self-reported use of inclusive practices in one study (Schwab & Alnahdi, 2020). In a systematic review of 71 studies, Wray et al. (2022) found that teaching experience and teaching context influence self-efficacy to implement inclusive education, while knowledge of inclusive education policies also had an effect. Self-efficacy has also been shown to impact the actual classroom practices of language teachers (Wyatt, 2018), and inclusive practices self-efficacy has been associated with ELTs' readiness to teach SWDs (Damayanti et al., 2022; Yphantides, 2022), though wider scale research is needed in this area.

Chapter II: Literature Review

Inclusive Education as Policy Development

The term inclusive education gained prominence at the World Conference on Special Needs Education: Access and Quality held by the Spanish government and UNESCO in Salamanca, Spain in 1994. Three hundred attendees from 92 governments and 25 international organizations attended this conference "to further the objective of Education for All by considering the fundamental policy shifts required to promote the approach of inclusive education, namely enabling schools to serve all children, particularly those with special educational needs" (Salamanca Statement, p. iii). The conference ended with the adoption of the Salamanca Statement on Principles, Policy and Practice in Special Needs Education and Framework for Action. The creation of this document, more commonly referred to as the Salamanca Statement, was a watershed moment in creating a global understanding and discussion of inclusive education (Gordon-Gould & Hornby, 2023; Graham, 2020; Hunt, 2019). Since then, a glut of research on inclusive education has been published, though there remain significant questions about just how much and what sort of progress has been made, how this assumed progress can be measured, and whether or not truly inclusive education is even attainable (Loreman et al., 2014a; 2014b; Nilholm, 2021; Gordon-Gould & Hornby, 2023).

While revolutionary, the Salamanca Statement has been criticized for providing insufficient global policy guidance, leading to varying definitions of inclusive education and patchy implementation (Hunt, 2019). Gordon-Gould and Hornby (2023) have even gone so far as to question the trajectory that inclusive educators, scholars, and policy makers have taken since the Salamanca Statement was issued, concerned that this path has been misguided and not empirically-based. Regardless, there has never been a global, shared conception of inclusive education (Armstrong & Armstrong, 2019; Forlin, 2018), and the notions of what constitute "inclusion" and "inclusive education" have been demarcated, deployed, and developed in a variety of ways, and not always to good effect (Gordon-Gould & Hornby, 2023; Graham, 2020; Hodkinson & Vickerman, 2022; Hunt, 2019; Loreman et al., 2014a). In the years after the Salamanca Statement, it became obvious to both researchers and international policy makers that there was a need to clarify what inclusive education is and how it should be done (Gordon-Gould & Hornby, 2023; Graham, 2020; Hunt, 2019; Nilholm, 2021). To this end, the Ad Hoc Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities

convened eight times between 2002 and 2006 to draft the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD), which was adopted by the United Nations General Assembly on December 13, 2006 (United Nations, n.d.). There were 82 signatories at the convention on March 30 of 2007, since which time 185 countries have ratified the CRPD.

Article 24 of the CRPD in concerned with education and was intended to "fill the void left by the Salamanca Statement" (Hunt, 2019, p. 116). This Article is a little more than a page in length, but outlines the responsibilities that individual governments have in ensuring equitable access to quality inclusive education for people with disabilities, most notably to provide reasonable accommodations to SWDs. While an improvement upon the Salamanca Statement, however, the CRPD was criticized for failing to define inclusive education, as well as for not providing sufficient practical guidance on how to meet the responsibilities outlined in Article 24 (Davis et al., 2020; Hunt, 2019). It would be another decade before the UN corrected for these shortcomings. Prefacing that effort was the drafting of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development: Transforming Our World.

This agenda, drafted on September 25, 2015 by the United Nations General Assembly, outlines 17 Sustainable Development Goals such as ending poverty and protecting the planet, that signing countries are expected to realize by 2030. Sustainable Development Goal 4 (SDG4) is to "[e]nsure inclusive and quality education for all and promote lifelong learning opportunities for all" (UNESCO, 2016). In 2016, the UN's Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities drafted an addendum to the CRPD titled General comment no. 4 (GC4), "the most comprehensive and authoritative instrument explaining the human right to inclusive education" (Graham, 2020, p. 11), to elaborate on the CRPD's Article 24 in the interest of attaining SDG4. GC4 improves upon previous policies' shortcomings by providing a clear definition of inclusive education and specific guidance on how inclusive education can be implemented. It is little wonder, then, that GC4 has become "the de facto global development policy on inclusive education because it outlines the critical policy considerations and implementation guidelines for Inclusive Education for all UNCRPD signatory and ratifying countries" (Hunt, 2019, p. 116).

To elaborate on GC4's definition of inclusive education provided in Chapter I, the UN's Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2016) distinguishes inclusion from exclusion, segregation, and integration (Graham, 2020), and outlines nine core features of inclusive education:

a. Whole systems approach: education ministries must ensure that all resources are invested toward advancing inclusive education, and toward introducing and embedding the necessary changes in institutional culture, policies, and practices.
b. Whole educational environment: the committed leadership of educational institutions is essential to introduce and embed the culture, policies, and practices to achieve inclusive education at all levels: classroom teaching and relationships, board meetings, teacher supervision, counselling services and medical care, school trips, budgetary allocations and any interface with parents of learners with and without disability when applicable, the local community or wider public.
c. Whole person approach: recognition is given to the capacity of every person to learn, and high expectations are established for all learners, including learners with disabilities. Inclusive education offers flexible curricula, teaching and learning methods adapted to different strengths, requirements and learning styles. This approach implies the provision of support and reasonable accommodation and early intervention so that students are able to fulfil their potential. The focus is for teachers to consider learners' capacities and aspirations rather than content when planning teaching activities. It commits to ending segregation within educational settings by ensuring inclusive classroom teaching in accessible learning environments with appropriate supports. The education system must provide a personalized educational response, rather than expecting the student to fit the system.
d. Supported teachers: All teachers and other staff receive education and training giving them the core values and competencies to accommodate inclusive learning environments, which include teachers with disabilities. The inclusive culture provides an accessible and supportive environment which encourages working through collaboration, interaction and problem-solving.
e. Respect for and value of diversity: All members of the learning community are welcomed equally, with respect for diversity according to, inter alia, disability, race, colour, sex, language, linguistic culture, religion, political or other opinion, national, ethnic, indigenous or social origin, property, birth, age or other status. All students must feel valued, respected, included, and listened to. Effective

measures to prevent abuse and bullying are in place. Inclusion takes an individual approach to students.

f. Learning-friendly environment: Inclusive learning environments must create an accessible environment where everyone feels safe, supported, stimulated and able to express themselves, with a strong emphasis on involving students themselves in building a positive school community. Recognition is afforded to the peer group in learning, building positive relationships, friendships, and acceptance.
g. Effective transitions: Learners with disabilities receive the support to ensure the effective transition from learning at school to vocational and tertiary education, and finally to work. Learners' capacities and confidence are developed and learners receive reasonable accommodation and equality regarding assessment and examination procedures, and certification of their capacities and attainments on an equal basis with others.
h. Recognition of partnerships. Teacher associations, student associations and federations and OPDs, school boards, parent-teacher associations, and other functioning school support groups, both formal and informal, are all encouraged to increase their understanding and knowledge of disability. Involvement of parents/caregivers and the community must be viewed as assets with resources and strengths to contribute. The relationship between the learning environment and the wider community must be recognized as a route towards inclusive societies.
i. Monitoring: As a continuing process, inclusive education must be monitored and evaluated on a regular basis to ensure that segregation or integration is not happening either formally or informally. Monitoring, according to article 33, should involve persons with disabilities, including children and persons with intensive support requirements, through OPDs, as well as parents or caregivers of children with disabilities where appropriate. Disability-inclusive indicators must be developed and used consistent with the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development (Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, 2016, pp. 4-6).

Other important aspects of inclusive education contained and clarified within GC4 are accessibility, adaptability, and accommodations. Articles 22 through 24 of GC4 describe accessibility as one aspect of inclusive education. While the term is not explicitly defined, Article 22 borrows from General Comment No. 2 to offer that "the environment of students with disabilities must be designed to foster inclusion and guarantee their equality throughout their education" before further adding that *accessibility* "is a dynamic concept" (Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, 2016, p. 7). GC4's Articles 26 through 38 outline state parties' obligation of *adaptability* as another aspect of inclusive education. This term is also not explicitly defined in the document, though GC4 does separately call for the application of Universal Design for Learning (UDL) ensure that all educational environments are adaptable before adding that "[c]urricula must be conceived, designed and implemented in such a way as to meet and adjust to the requirements of every student, and provide appropriate educational responses" (Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, 2016, p. 8).

The term *reasonable accommodation* is defined by the CRPD as "necessary and appropriate modification and adjustments not imposing a disproportionate or undue burden, where needed in a particular case, to ensure to persons with disabilities the enjoyment or exercise on an equal basis with others of all human rights and fundamental freedoms" (United Nations, n.d., article 2). Additionally, Article 29 of GC4 recalls a distinction made in General Comment 2

> between the general accessibility duty and the obligation to provide reasonable accommodation. Accessibility benefits groups of the population and is based on a set of standards that are implemented gradually. Disproportionality or undue burden cannot be claimed to defend the failure to provide accessibility. Reasonable accommodation relates to an individual and is complementary to the accessibility duty. An individual can legitimately request reasonable accommodation measures even if the State party has fulfilled its accessibility duty. (p. 8)

By way of example, Article 30 further states that

> accommodations may include: changing the location of a class; providing different forms of in-class communication; enlarging print, materials and/or subjects in signs, or providing handouts in an alternative format; and providing students with a note taker or a language interpreter or allowing students to use assistive technology in

> learning and assessment situations. Provision of non-material accommodations, such as allowing a student more time, reducing levels of background noise (sensitivity to sensory overload), using alternative evaluation methods and replacing an element of the curriculum with an alternative must also be considered. (Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, 2016, p. 9)

There is evidence to suggest a number of benefits of inclusive education. These include greater academic gains for students with and without disabilities, the development of social-emotional skills for SWDs, increased knowledge and skills for teachers, and wider socio-political benefits like decreased poverty, cost of education, and social exclusion (Graham, 2020; Hunt, 2019). It has also been widely claimed that inclusive education is necessary for the creation of more inclusive societies, though somewhat paradoxically, inclusive education is harder to achieve in less inclusive societies (Graham, 2020; Hunt, 2019). It should come as little surprise, then, that several valid concerns about inclusive education remain. Many researchers have documented persistent inadequacies of inclusive education implementation in various countries since SDG4 and GC4 came into play, and are increasingly calling for greater scrutiny of its underlying assumptions (Armstrong & Armstrong, 2019; Forlin, 2018; Gordon-Gould & Hornby, 2023; Graham, 2020; Hodkinson & Vickerman, 2022). UNESCO's 2020 Global Education Monitoring Report, for instance, found that only 68% of countries' educational policy language provides a concrete definition of inclusive education, and only 57% of those definitions include multiple marginalized groups (UNESCO, 2020).

Postsecondary Inclusive Education Policy in Japan

Based on World Bank benchmarks for equity policies in higher education, Japan is considered to still be developing (Salmi, 2018). The rights of postsecondary SWDs in Japan are protected by the Act for Eliminating Discrimination against Persons with Disabilities (AEDPD), which has been in effect since April 1, 2016. The AEDPD primarily covers discrimination in business and government, though there are some provisions covering higher education institutions (HEIs). However, the original wording of the AEDPD is rather insufficient in its guidance, stating only that SWDs be provided with "reasonable accommodations," a term borrowed from the CRPD/GC4 but not clearly defined or linked to either of those policies (Boeltzig-Brown, 2017). Thankfully, a 2019 MEXT white paper

provided a much-needed addendum to the AEDPD. This white paper explicitly evokes the definition of reasonable accommodations from the CRPD's General comment no. 6, connects the term to the social model of disability, and offers concrete guidelines for and examples of providing such support (MEXT, 2019). Still, in its observations on Japan's initial report of compliance with the CRPD, the Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2022) expressed concern for the AEDPD's failure to include multiple and intersectional forms of discrimination, as well as the absence of mechanisms for complaint and redress among victims of discrimination under the protection of this act. As just one of its recommendations for Japan, the Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2022) recommended mainstreaming "the rights of persons with disabilities in its implementation and monitoring of the 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development at all levels, in close consultation with and with the active involvement of organizations of persons with disabilities" (p. 18).

Until the AEDPD, HEIs in Japan had no legal obligation to provide education or support to SWDs in any way (Kondo et al., 2015). In other words, HEIs and their employees could legally exclude, segregate, or otherwise deny services to SWDs at their own discretion. HEIs in Japan have a policy of *selective inclusion* wherein SWDs only receive support if they officially disclose their disability to the school and request accommodations (Young, 2021). While no research into self-disclosure at the postsecondary level in Japan could be located, Grimes et al. (2019) found a number of reasons why SWDs in one Australian university chose not to disclose: students had developed their own coping strategies, were not aware that accommodations could be offered, or did not think accommodations would be useful. The authors also found that compared to students with other forms of disability, students with SLDs who did not disclose were far more likely to have done so because they had developed their own coping strategies. Kondo et al. (2015) have proposed that postsecondary SWDs in Japan may not self-disclose due to social stigma surrounding disability, but further attributed the growing number of self-identified postsecondary SWDs in Japan in recent years to a gradual erosion of this stigma.

For the 2022 academic year, the Japan Student Services Organization (JASSO, 2023) reported the highest ever number of self-disclosed SWDs: 49,672, or 1.53% of the total postsecondary student population nationwide. Both the total number and percentage of postsecondary students who disclosed a disability to their HEI in Japan increased steadily

from 2006, when JASSO began tracking such data, through 2019, with the biggest notable increase occurring in 2015 due to the additional recognition of mental disorders that year. However, these numbers fell for the first time in 2020 when most Japanese HEIs turned to online and distance learning (ODL) as a result of the COVID-19 pandemic, and rose again in 2021 as most campuses gradually returned to in-person teaching; this trend continued in 2022 (JASSO, 2023). It seems likely, then, that many incoming first-year students did not feel the need to self-report their disability and receive accommodations in the ODL environment in the 2020-21 academic years, but did report upon returning to campus in 2021 or 2022.

COVID-19 does appear to have had some influence on the number and type of disability-related activities and initiatives implemented by Japan's 1,173 HEIs, however. There was an increase in many such activities and initiatives from 2019 to 2020, while many that would traditionally require in-person attendance and participation decreased (JASSO, 2022). The most notable increase was in the public disclosure of support information, while the largest reduction was in the dispatch of faculty and staff to off-campus training on support for SWDs. Encouragingly, the same growth trend continued in 2021 and 2022, including course correction for activities and initiatives that experienced a reduction during the first year of the pandemic. Still, certain seemingly simple provisions are much less common than they could be, for example distributing accommodation requests to teachers, which only 51.1% of HEIs reported doing in 2022 (JASSO, 2023). While COVID-19's impact on the disclosure of disabilities in Japanese HEIs is not the main focus of the present research, it is helpful to keep this broader context in mind since the data collection occurred during the 2021 and 2022 academic years.

In addition to these activities and initiatives, JASSO (2023) found that in 2022, 75.5% of HEIs had existing guidelines on how to respond to the AEDPD, 4.2% were in the process of creating guidelines, and a disappointing 20.4% had no current plans to create any such guidance. Still, this is an improvement from the previous year, when those figures were 73%, 3.8%, and 23.1% respectively (JASSO, 2023). It is also important to note that the AEDPD has so far only legally required public HEIs to provide reasonable accommodations; at the time of writing, private HEIs are merely encouraged to offer such provisions (Kondo et al., 2015). Fortunately, an amendment to the AEDPD making reasonable accommodations compulsory for all private businesses, and by extension private HEIs, unanimously passed the Diet on May 28 of 2021. The Diet gave itself a deadline of three years from the date of

passage (Sato, 2021), and as reported by the Cabinet Office (2023), all private HEIs in Japan will be legally obligated to provide reasonable accommodations to any SWDs who self-disclose from April of 2024. Still, concern for the term's lack of clarity in relation to inclusive policies at the institutional level has been raised (Boeltzig-Brown, 2017; Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, 2022), as similar ambiguity of language at the national policy level has been blamed for misapplications of inclusive education at the institutional level in other contexts (Gordon-Gould & Hornby, 2023; Graham, 2020).

General support for SWDs from HEIs also appears patchy. In 2022, for example, only 29.3% of Japanese HEIs offered consultation services and social gatherings for SWDs and support staff, 27.9% provided support for SWDs in post-entrance guidance, and 15.8% offered training for student helpers to support SWDs (JASSO, 2023). While 68% did report employment support and career education support for SWDs (JASSO, 2023)—the most widely reported support services among all HEIs in Japan—recent findings from Sueyoshi and Tsuge (2023) suggest that students are often dissatisfied with the quality of this specific support. Additionally, Fujiwara et al. (2023) found in a case study of a student with severe physical impairments that the student was dissatisfied with the institutional support they received. Indeed, the presence of a support mechanism is not a guarantee of its quality. Omodaka and Sato (2023) similarly found that postsecondary SWDs in Japan reported a lower subjective quality of life overall, and that more severe forms of disability and ability to access support correlated with this reported quality. The authors concluded that it is

> important to adjust the content and combination of support according to the level of disability and health status. To develop a multilayered support system and enable various support functions to work together organically, adopting a broad and inclusive approach is crucial. (Omodaka & Sato, 2023, p. 7)

There is also evidence to suggest that institutional policy is not always clearly communicated to ELTs (Ruddick et al., 2021; Yphantides, 2022) and/or converted into practical support mechanisms for this group of teachers. In 2022, only 36.5% of Japanese HEIs reported offering training to teachers of SWDs, while 38.2% reporting dispatching faculty and staff to off-campus training (JASSO, 2023). If such support is offered, it is likely to be only in Japanese, and this may present further barriers to non-Japanese teachers or even prevent them from attempting to accessing available support (Creaser & Yukimaru, in press; Ruddick et al., 2021; Young, 2019).

Finally, and critically, this review of pertinent policy and related literature creates a picture of inclusion in postsecondary education in Japan as something between integration and full inclusion. *Integration* is a misapplication of inclusive education in which SWDs are expected to adapt to the environment rather than the environment adapt to them (Graham, 2020). Historically, integration often occurs after a period of segregation or full exclusion—and indeed SWDs were once excluded from higher education in Japan (Heyer, 2015)—and before one of full inclusion (Graham, 2020). Integration also necessitates an equality versus an equity view of education; this means all students are provided with the same access and opportunities to achieve educational aims rather than receive differentiated resources based on individual need (Graham et al., 2020). According to the OECD (2018), "[e]quity is a fundamental value and guiding principle of education policy, but it is not necessarily actualised in education systems around the world" (p. 8). Japan does not appear to be an exception. However, because reasonable accommodations are a form of differentiation, effective conveyance of such accommodations to SWDs who self-disclose does constitute a form of equitable education in this context. In this way, there are possible exceptions to the broader characterization of Japanese postsecondary education as being generally inequitable. This wider view illuminates Salmi's (2018) assessment that equity in Japanese higher education is still developing, as well as the Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2022) level of concern for the present state of the protection of the human right to education under the AEDPD.

English Language Teachers' Views on Teaching Students with Disabilities

Estimates run as high as 1.5 billion English language learners (ELLs) worldwide (Noack & Gamio, 2015), while there is an estimated 1.3 billion people, roughly equivalent to 16% of the global population, living with some form of disability (World Health Organization, 2023). The number of SWDs receiving English language instruction around the world is unknown, but likely substantial. English language teachers (ELTs) have a heightened need to understand the barriers faced by SWDs due to the unique ways in which disability interacts with language learning, as well as the communicative and interactive nature of the typical language classroom (Smith, 2018; Ooiwa & Yap, in press; Yphantides, in press). However, many if not most ELTs lack training in special education or inclusive practices, and sizable

percentages of such teachers in a variety of teaching contexts have reported feeling unprepared to teach SWDs.

In a survey of 241 MA TESOL (Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages) programs worldwide, Stapleton & Shao (2018) categorized 3,877 courses within those programs into 15 knowledge fields. Among the 3,877 courses categorized, the knowledge field of specific learner groups, which included special education, had a .10 frequency rate among compulsory courses and a .19 frequency rate among elective courses. Because this category of specific learner groups contained other groups, for example adult learners or young learners, the number of courses on teaching SWDs specifically was certainly even lower. It is of course possible, however, that some training in inclusive practices was included in other coursework, though this is not supported by a number of other investigations of in-service ELTs' attitudes towards inclusive education.

ELTs working in a variety of contexts worldwide have reported a lack of readiness to teach SWDs. In a small-scale survey of 23 EFL teachers who received teacher training at one university in the United States, Sowell and Sugisaki (2020) noted that only three respondents reported receiving learning disability training in a semester long course; the remaining 20 reported receiving training in half-day to week-long courses, or else no training at all, and a majority of those that did receive training still reported a lack of confidence in their ability to teach students with learning disabilities. Similarly, Smith (2006) found that of 194 ELTs who worked and received training in the UK, 80.8% reported that they did not feel competent teaching students with a wide variety of needs after completing their teaching certificates; all 15 teacher trainers involved in the same body of research reported an insufficient amount of attention to preparing teachers to teach SWDs in their certification courses (Smith, 2008). In addition, the respondents to Smith's (2006) survey were roughly evenly split in terms of viewing past experiences teaching SWDs as being positive or negative; however, respondents were more likely to accommodate an SWD in the future if they had taught such a student in the past, though their willingness to make accommodations also depended on the form(s) of disability. There was also a significant difference between public and private sector teachers in their attitudes towards accommodations, as "[r]espondents from the state sector were more positive generally about inclusion, due to the greater amount of support that they could access from

established college systems, in contrast to private institutions where no support was usually available" (Smith, 2006, p. 236).

In her survey of 187 in-service elementary level ELTs and 56 pre-service ELTs in Slovakia, Cimermanová (2017) reported a low degree of confidence to teach SWDs and high degree of concern about increased workload when teaching such students. Cimermanová (2017) also noted that none of the MA level training courses for pre-service ELTs in Slovakia include mandatory training in special education. Ali (2018) surveyed 218 primary EFL teachers in Egypt and found high need among those teachers to know more about instructional strategies for teaching students with special educational needs (SEN), adaptations to instruction and the curriculum, individual education plans, mediated and cooperative learning, and multisensory presentation of information. In addition to their concern about lacking inclusive teaching skills, respondents to Ali's (2018) survey further reported concerns about increased workload when teaching SWDs, difficulty individualizing instruction in large classes, and "differentiating between learning disabilities and language and communication disorders" (p. 175). In a survey of 952 pre-service ELTs in Portugal (*n* = 40) and Spain (*n* = 912), Fernández-Portero (2022) found that these teachers felt dissatisfied with their training to teach SWDs, and also agreed that

> (a) having SEN students would increase their workload, (b) SEN students are usually accepted by their peers, (c) inclusion facilitates socially appropriate behavior among all students, (d) SEN students can develop their academic skills more rapidly in regular classrooms, I (e) having more opportunities to collaborate with other teachers in the classroom would enrich the teaching-learning processes. (p. 17)

Overall, however, the Portuguese respondents were generally more optimistic about including SWDs in English language education than their Spanish counterparts, though the differences in sample size are cause to doubt the generalizability of this finding.

Garton et al. (2011) found through cross-sectional case studies that many ELTs at the primary level in Colombia, Italy, South Korea, Tanzania, and the UAE were concerned about teaching children with disabilities, while Sah (2022) found that ELTs working at the primary level in Nepal were unprepared to meet the needs of a diverse student population, including SWDs. Razmjoo and Sabourianzadeh (2018) observed and interviewed four Iranian EFL teachers, all of whom reported a lack of training to teach SWDs; the researchers attributed opportunities and barriers to inclusion for such students to the teachers' attitudes towards

inclusion. Teachers in this study, furthermore, expressed that large classes, mandatory curricula, and institutional ethos were additional hindrances affecting these teachers' attitudes. Francisco et al. (2023) interviewed ten pre-service ELTs in the Philippines and found that these teachers had positive views about including SWDs, but also that they did not feel sufficiently prepared to do so. Finally, Ruddick et al. (2021) interviewed 15 postsecondary ELTs in Japan and found that these teachers all lacked training to teach SWDs and had low institutional policy awareness attributed to these teachers' inability to read and comprehend the Japanese-language policy guidance on supporting SWDs.

In terms of specific impairments or forms of disability, there have also been a number of small-scale investigations demonstrating the same lack of readiness. Ibrahim (2011), for example, found that 23 pre- and in-service EFL teachers in Egypt were unprepared to include blind students in their instruction. In a survey of 32 postsecondary ELTs in Japan with students with hearing impairments, Iwata et al. (2015) found that these teachers had generally positive views towards their students and were willing to make accommodations, but lacked confidence to do so; the authors further called on institutions to provide more robust institutional support to aid ELTs in making accommodations for students with hearing and other impairments. Nyikes (2019) found that three Hungarian primary EFL teachers had no training in teaching students with SLDs, but that "the participating teachers' behaviour was strongly linked with their positive attitudes towards students with learning differences" (p. 28). Hale and Ono (2019) surveyed a group of 49 Japanese junior and senior high school EFL teachers, 33 of whom reported feelings of uncertainty teaching students with SLDs, and 25 of whom reported a lack of relevant training. Similarly, Yphantides (2022) found through a narrative study that eight postsecondary ELTs in Japan had low inclusive practices self-efficacy and desired greater communication and collaboration with professionals within their institutions to better accommodate students with SLDs. Finally, there is a rather substantial body of research reporting that ELTs in a variety of EFL contexts are both undertrained and unprepared to teach students with dyslexia (Kałdonek-Crnjaković & Fišer, 2021; Lemperou et al., 2011; Nijakowska, 2014; Nijakowska et al., 2018; Nushi & Eshraghi, 2023).

While not related to English language teaching, a recent survey by Tăbăcaru et al. (2022) provides some insight into inclusive teaching preparedness and training needs for postsecondary teachers teaching L2 students. Respondents to this survey were 158 teachers

from a variety of disciplines working in HEIs and adult education organizations in Belgium, Finland, Greece, Romania, and the United Kingdom. The survey asked about these teachers' awareness of institutional support for students with SLDs, as well as their training needs for teaching local and foreign students with SLDs. They found that 66.5% of the respondents reported that their institutions had support mechanisms in place to accommodate students with SLDs, 21.5% reported that there were no such mechanisms at their institution, and 12% did not know if there were any such mechanisms. The authors also found that 77.87% of respondents were aware of students with SLDs in their institutions, and 50% reported low confidence in teaching such students. Importantly, respondents also reported different training needs to better teach domestic and foreign students with SLDs. The most reported training needs were for more knowledge about teaching and assessment methodology, knowledge about SLDs, and adequate support from their institution (Tăbăcaru et al., 2022).

Just as with general and special educators, there is evidence to suggest that ELTs' attitudes towards inclusion affect their ability to teach inclusively, though such research inquiries are few in number and represent a wide range of attitudes towards inclusion. This range suggests that ELTs' views towards inclusion may depend on external factors such as those noted in meta-analyses by Dignath et al. (2022) and Guillemot et al. (2022). In a review of 33 ELT diploma theses and rigorosa from 2010-2015 at two Slovakian and one Czech universities, Pokrivčáková (2018) found that these 33 teachers pre- and in-service teachers had positive views about including students with SLDs in their instruction, but were overwhelmingly unhappy with the state of affairs in the classroom:

> Teachers mostly expressed their frustration caused mainly by the lack of proper training in the field, the lack of sufficient information, the lack of adapted teaching materials and the omniscient time stress. What occurred in nearly all the theses is the conclusion that foreign language teachers were extremely disappointed by the contemporary situation in classrooms, where more than two students typically require special educational care. However, foreign language teachers have never been trained to deal with SEN learners. (Pokrivčáková, 2018, p. 59)

These teachers also expressed dissatisfaction with the nature of institutional support for SWDs, as well as exhibited exclusionary behaviors that Pokrivčáková (2018) speculated may be attributable in part to a lack of relevant training. Attitudes may also vary from country to country, as Nijakowska et al.'s (2018) survey of 832 teachers from Greece, Cyprus, and

Poland found that attitudes towards students with dyslexia had statistically significant variance across the three countries. Lu et al. (2022) found in that 328 primary and secondary EFL teachers in China generally did not have positive views about including SWDs in regular classes, and further that training did not appear to predict attitudes.

Through in-depth interviews of five primary EFL teachers in Indonesia, Firman et al. (2020) found that the interviewees all had generally positive views of inclusive education for SWDs, and that these attitudes may have a positive impact on the teachers' instructional strategies. Similarly, Rezai et al. (2018) found in a survey of 254 in-service ELTs in Iran that respondents had neutral-to-positive views towards students with physical disabilities, but expressed concern about classroom management with such students present. Finally, a number of the studies discussed in more detail above also noted that ELTs' attitudes towards inclusion impacted their willingness and/or ability to include SWDs (Iwata et al., 2015; Nijakowska et al., 2018; Nyikes, 2019; Razmjoo & Sabourianzadeh, 2018; Smith, 2006).

Viewed in total, the findings reviewed here suggest that a number of factors may influence ELTs' views on including SWDs, and these views can then influence inclusion in actual practice. These may include individual factors such as age and amount of teaching experience, gender, experience teaching SWDs, training in special or inclusive education, experience teaching SWDs, previous interactions with people with disabilities, and teaching self-efficacy. They may also include contextual factors such as the country in which the teacher is working, the level of education being taught, and institutional factors including available resources, (lack of an) inclusive ethos, and mandated curricula. As such, all of these factors should be considered when investigating ELTs' views on including or accommodating SWDs in any given context.

Inclusive Practices in English Language Teaching

Despite the general lack of training in inclusive practices, the need for novel approaches to teaching SWDs is not an altogether new concept within the TESOL field. David and Torres (2020), for instance, contend that the global shift towards greater inclusivity for people with disabilities that began in the late 20th century is also taking place in English language education. Indeed, a number of researcher-practitioners have documented their struggles, best practices, and general observations of teaching English as

a second (ESL) or foreign language to students with a variety of support needs at different educational levels, including some indicating a positive impact on ELTs' preparedness to teach SWDs. In some cases, these practices have been framed as inclusive; other times, they were presented as interventions to help a particular student or group of students learn. Regardless, an inventory of these studies helps paint a picture of what inclusive practices and interventions ELTs have used (un)successfully in the past and may or may not use again in the future.

When Nyikes (2019) observed and interviewed three primary EFL teachers in Hungary, she found that despite having no training in teaching students with SLDs, the teachers differentiated instruction, used multisensory teaching approaches, and created supportive learning environments. Furthermore, "participating teachers' behaviour was strongly linked with their positive attitudes towards students with learning difficulties" (Nyikes, 2019, p. 28). In a classroom observation of 17 secondary Israeli EFL students, 16 of whom had SLDs, Cohen (2011) attributed a high degree of participation to the teacher's ability to modify, scaffold, and present multisensory texts using assistive technology. In observations and interviews of four Iranian EFL teachers, all of whom reported a lack of training to teach SWDs, Razmjoo and Sabourianzadeh's (2018) observed supportive learning environments and a small degree of differentiated instruction. Wijaya et al. (2020) observed and interviewed a secondary-level ELT in Indonesia in order to investigate his classroom management of a class with a student with a physical disability; they found that the teacher created a comfortable learning environment, organized the classroom with the student's disability in mind, and routinized activities and instructions to include the student. Also in Indonesia, Lintangsari and Emaliana (2020) observed a university EFL teacher who was able to reduce barriers to learning for a blind student by changing the seating arrangement, using multimodal support, differentiating materials, and modifying how she gave instructions for tasks. Fišer and Kałdonek-Crnjaković (2022) interviewed 16 primary and secondary ELTs in Croatia about their teaching practices with regard for including students with dyslexia; they found that accommodations were more common than specific teaching approaches to include such students, with the most common being: asking thought-provoking questions about target language, emphasizing phoneme to grapheme correspondence, providing extra time for task completion, referring to previously taught target language at the beginning of each lesson, modifying texts to be dyslexia-friendly,

color-coding grammatical forms, scaffolding grammatical patterns, and arranging the seating plan based on students' capabilities.

Abdullateef (2022) used a response to intervention approach to better include seven learners with SLDs at the postsecondary level in Saudi Arabia, and found allowing extra time for activities and providing multisensory support to be successful interventions; however, the author also expressed regret that interventions were not made earlier, and emphasized the importance of early identification and inclusion. Multisensory instruction was also found to help ELLs with SLDs in Saudi Arabia learn vocabulary (Algrni, 2020). Eissa (2015) used metacognition strategies to improve the reading ability of 20 ninth grade EFL students with reading disabilities. Working in an elementary ESL setting in the United States, Stinson (2018) was able to meet the needs of ELLs with disabilities by collaborating with colleagues and using available resources in her school to differentiate and scaffold multimodal materials and tasks.

Kasparek and Turner (2020) conducted a duoethnography to reflect on their experience team-teaching a postsecondary ELL with a non-verbal but otherwise unspecified SEN in Japan; they noted the successful use of multi-modal material that incorporated the students' special interests, assessment accommodations, and the importance of collaboration and institutional support. Writing about teaching a Japanese EFL student with a visual impairment, Lowe (2015) mentioned that he was able to compensate for his own lack of training or knowledge about teaching English to a blind student by engaging in continuing professional development and reflecting on his practice. Tsukamoto (in press) was able to accommodate a blind EFL student at a Japanese HEI by keeping a learning journal to reflect on her practice, keeping in constant contact with the student about their needs, integrating assistive technology, and making accommodations to the classroom layout, routines, and learning materials. Ooiwa and Yap (in press) describe the implementation of a two-fold approach of providing requested accommodations and attempting to eliminate social barriers for ELLs with SLDs at a university in Japan. This was achieved in part by applying UDL, with particular consideration paid to respecting learner preferences, using multimodal materials and tasks, fostering a supporting learning environment, and promoting metacognition. Finally, Iwai (in press) reported on a battery of accommodations for an ELL with a hearing impairment at a private university in Tokyo. These included differentiating materials and tasks, routinizing instructions and tasks, using

assistive technology and multimodal materials and tasks, modifying directions, staying in contact with the student about her needs, arranging the classroom with the student's impairment in mind, allowing extra time to complete activities, making assessment accommodations, creating a supportive environment, and coordinating closely with the university's student support center.

From this brief review, it is possible to identify nineteen specific inclusive behaviors that have been explicitly performed by ELTs to include SWDs. For reading ease, these are listed in Table 2.1 below:

Table 2.1

Inclusive Behaviors Used by In-service ELTs to Accommodate SWDs from Selected Studies

No.	Inclusive behavior used by ELTs	Reported in
1.	Arranges the classroom with impairments in mind	Fišer & Kałdonek-Crnjaković (2022), Iwai (in press), Lintangsari & Emaliana (2020), Tsukamoto (in press), Wijaya et al. (2020)
2.	Creates a supportive learning environment	Iwai (in press), Nyikes (2019), Ooiwa & Yap (in press), Razmjoo & Sabourianzadeh (2018), Wijaya et al. (2020)
3.	Uses assistive technology when necessary	Cohen (2011), Iwai (in press), Tsukamoto (in press)
4.	Uses multimodal materials and teaching approaches	Abdullateef (2022), Algrni (2020), Cohen (2011), Fišer & Kałdonek-Crnjaković (2022), Iwai (in press), Kasparek & Turner (2020), Lintangsari & Emaliana (2020), Nyikes (2019), Ooiwa & Yap (in press), Stinson (2018)
5.	Routinizes instructions and tasks	Iwai (in press), Wijaya et al. (2020)
6.	Connects new learning to prior learning	Fišer & Kałdonek-Crnjaković (2022)
7.	Scaffolds activities and tasks	Cohen (2011), Fišer & Kałdonek-Crnjaković (2022), Stinson (2018)
8.	Allows more time to complete activities if necessary	Abdullateef (2022), Fišer & Kałdonek-Crnjaković (2022), Iwai (in press)
9.	Modifies directions to meet student needs	Iwai (in press), Lintangsari & Emaliana (2020)

10.	Asks effective questions that match instructional goals	Fišer & Kałdonek-Crnjaković (2022)
11.	Maintains contact with the student about needs	Iwai (in press), Tsukamoto (in press)
12.	Makes assessment accommodation when necessary	Iwai (in press), Kasparek & Turner (2020)
13.	Respects learner preferences	Ooiwa & Yap (in press)
14.	Helps learners develop metacognition	Eissa (2015), Ooiwa & Yap (in press)
15.	Differentiates materials and tasks	Fišer & Kałdonek-Crnjaković (2022), Iwai (in press), Lintangsari & Emaliana (2020), Nyikes (2019), Razmjoo & Sabourianzadeh (2018), Stinson (2018), Tsukamoto (in press)
16.	Incorporates students' special interests	Kasparek & Turner (2020)
17.	Collaborates with colleagues	Kasparek & Turner (2020), Lowe (2015), Stinson (2018)
18.	Reflects on teaching with regard for specific learning needs	Lowe (2015), Tsukamoto (in press)
19.	Utilizes institutional supports	Iwai (in press), Kasparek & Turner (2020), Stinson (2018)

Some of these behaviors appear to be more common than others: arranging the classroom with impairments in mind, creating a supportive learning environment, using multimodal materials and teaching approaches, and differentiating materials and tasks were all inclusive strategies noted in at least five studies.

In many cases, gaining experience teaching SWDs seems to have a positive impact on ELTs' preparedness to teach such students again. In general education, experience teaching SWDs has been found to be a strong predictor of inclusive practices self-efficacy (Emmers et al., 2020; Malinen et al., 2013) and fewer concerns about teaching inclusively (Emmers et al., 2020; Kunz et al., 2021). Through interviews with five postsecondary ELTs in Japan, Lowe et al. (2021) found that, prior to teaching SWDs, all five teachers had positive attitudes about including such students in their instruction, but were concerned about being able to properly accommodate them; after teaching an SWD, however, all five reported an increase in confidence and perceived ability to include such students again in the future. Similarly,

Nijakowska et al. (2018) found that previous experience teaching students with dyslexia has a positive impact in attitudes towards teaching such students again. Turner (2017; 2019) reflected on two separate instances of teaching an EFL student with a hearing impairment at a Japanese university, and the absence of feeling unprepared or reporting a lack of training in the latter paper is explicitly attributed to the author's experience of successfully accommodating the student as described in the earlier one.

Finally, there is also some research to indicate that in-service ELTs can be trained or otherwise supported by their institutions or colleagues to more effectively include SWDs in their instruction. Gallego and Busch (2015) found that 24 Spanish language teaching assistants working at the postsecondary level in America had an increased knowledge of both institutional procedures and local policy guidance on accommodating SWDs after completing an in-service professional development course that included a strong focus on accessibility issues. Similarly, Kormos and Nijakowska (2017) found that 752 language teachers had more positive attitudes, higher self-efficacy, and fewer concerns about using inclusive practices to teach students with dyslexia after completing a massive open online course. Damayanti et al. (2022) found in a survey of 99 pre-service ELTs in Indonesia that respondents, who had completed a course on inclusive education, had moderately high self-efficacy to implement inclusive practices, and this was tied to their self-efficacy for classroom management and collaboration. Rovai and Pfingsthorn (2022) found that 35 pre-service ELTs in Germany had a generally positive view of inclusion and several inclusive practices, especially as related to adaptability, differentiation, and acceptance of learner diversity.

Collaboration with other teachers and specialists also appears to be a factor in improving ELTs' ability to implement inclusive practices. Scott and Edwards (2012) found that a collaboration between teachers and program administration, coupled with faculty development focused on inclusive practices, correlated with an increase in mean grades and retention of students with disclosed disabilities in two tertiary ESL contexts in the United States. Similarly, Young et al. (2019) found that an eight-stage framework that leveraged multidisciplinary teams to support teachers of SWDs in a mandatory EFL course for first-year university students at a private university in Japan likely contributed to an increase in that student population's mean grades and decrease in its rate of absenteeism when compared with the rest of the student population. In both of these studies, teachers' ability to

collaboratively reflect on what aspects of their teaching were or were not effective for promoting SWDs' learning was critical in responding to and meeting their students' needs. A number of individual case studies have also found that collaboration and clear communication between teachers, campus support offices, and students themselves were crucial in providing reasonable accommodations for SWDs enrolled in postsecondary English language coursework in Japan (Iwai, in press; Kasparek & Turner, 2020; Lowe, 2015; Ooiwa & Yap, in press; Stinson, 2018; Tsukamoto, in press).

This brief review suggests that ELTs, like general educators, can experience improved self-efficacy and a reduction in concerns about implementing inclusive education after training interventions, which was shown to be the case in a recent meta-analysis (Dignath et al., 2022). It also supports the notion that ELTs may be more inclusively-minded than other field-specific teachers due to their sensitivity to linguistic diversity (Pfingsthorn & Giesler, 2022). In either case, ELTs appear capable of intervening or otherwise making accommodations to reduce or remove both cognitive and affective barriers to language learning for SWDs, and some accommodations appear easier or more common than others due to field-specific factors. Additionally, and despite a frequently reported lack of self-efficacy to teach SWDs, many ELTs appear to have a basic inclusive skill set. Finally, and as will be subsequently discussed in more detail, there is evidence to suggest that certain common practices in the field of English language teaching prepare ELTs to teach inclusively, at least to some degree.

Previous Accommodations for ELLs with Disabilities in Japanese HEIs

In addition to the previously discussed studies demonstrating concern by postsecondary ELTs in Japan for SWDs enrolled in their courses (Iwai, in press; Iwata et al., 2015; Kasparek & Turner, 2020; Kennedy, in press; Lowe, 2015; Lowe et al., 2021; Ooiwa & Yap, in press; Tsukamoto, in press; Turner, 2017; 2019; Young et al., 2019; Yphantides, 2022), there has also been a small number of normative studies in which postsecondary practitioner-researchers in Japan have shared best inclusive practices for other ELTs. Moriya (2015), for instance, wrote about the "ARTS framework—assessing, redesigning, teaching, and supporting—in the context of language classes in order to raise awareness of learners with special needs through examining the example of learners with color vision disabilities" (p. 161). Hartley (2019) wrote about how to modify a specific course at a private university

in Tokyo to accommodate students with ASD. Gallagher (2017) reported on accommodating a student with dyslexia in an English discussion course at a private university in Tokyo. Burke (2020) provided a set of considerations and guidelines for language teachers to better accommodate neurodiverse students in their classrooms. From such articles we can see that at least some postsecondary EFL teachers in Japan care about the learning outcomes of SWDs, as well as feel that there is a need for other practitioners to be better prepared to teach students with these specific impairments. Tonooka (2015, as cited in Moriya, in press), however, estimated that a mere 28% of postsecondary language courses in Japan included support for SWDs. Support for ELLs may also be provided outside of class by other offices or centers within an HEI, but as was seen in the above discussion on postsecondary inclusive education policy in Japan, the nature of this support is irregular and often insufficient.

There is also a small number of learner-focused inquiries that can cast further light on the nature of inclusivity for SWDs in the current research context. Doyle (2020), for instance, interviewed a Japanese university student with ADHD about his experiences of learning, and found that while the student felt supported by a number of accommodations made for him in his EFL classes, the student still experienced FLA. Moriya et al. (2020) found that four students with SLDs enrolled in EFL courses at two different universities in Japan all encountered different barriers to language learning, and that each student used different coping strategies due in part to their teachers' inability to fully remove those barriers. Ooiwa and Yap (2020) described applying UDL to eight oral communication courses for first- and second-year students at a private university in central Japan. While noting that their ethnography was incomplete at the time of publication, the authors' preliminary analysis found that students with SLDs became more aware of the need to communicate their needs to teachers rather than stay silent and deal with the stress and discomfort presented in certain language learning environments. Carpenter (2020) interviewed two recent graduates of a Japanese university for the visually impaired, and found that "both emphasized that an appropriate amount of support is still necessary for visually impaired students to complete the same work as their sighted peers," including in EFL coursework (p. 72). A university student in Carpenter's (in press) later ethnography of six blind learners expressed the perception that many teachers rely too much on the support center and do not want to learn anything themselves in order to accommodate the needs of blind students. These findings are important because they indicate that SWDs in Japanese HEIs regularly

experience language learning environments that are not inclusive or accommodating of their needs, which in turn raises concerns about language teachers' knowledge of and ability to implement inclusive practices. However, these five learner-focused inquiries also reveal both the range of support offered to SWDs in postsecondary EFL classrooms in Japan, as well as the diversity of needs represented within those classrooms, which further establishes the need for a broader investigation into EFL teachers' implementation of inclusive education and practices.

Communicative Language Teaching

Communicative language teaching (CLT) has long served as the dominant pedagogical paradigm in the field of English language teaching (Littlewood, 2014; Richards & Rogers, 2014) and is likely universally taught in MA TESOL programs. In Stapleton & Shao's (2018) survey of TESOL courses worldwide, the knowledge field of teaching methods/issues, which includes CLT, had a 1.68 and 1.06 frequency rate among compulsory and elective courses respectively. Cambridge's popular CELTA certification program for ELTs also maintains a communicative focus for its pre-service ELTs (Cambridge English, 2022). The dominance of CLT as an approach within the field of language teaching has even been ensconced at the policy level, a fact which Littlewood (2014) attributed to the decades of educators' confidence in CLT, especially in East Asia and the Asia-Pacific Region.

In Japan, for instance, an emphasis on communication skills has characterized policy discourse of *kokusaika* (internationalization) in education since the 1980s, when the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT) began calling for the improvement of English communicative ability at the secondary level in 1989 (Galloway & Rose, 2015; Kavanaugh, 2012). MEXT proposed a five-year initiative in 2003 to, among other goals, determine the efficacy of promoting English communication abilities at the secondary level; similarly, MEXT outlined specific measures to develop English ability for international use in 2011, and these foregrounded communicative targets for learning at the secondary and for postsecondary enrollment; since then, MEXT's policies to develop English-language education have continually called for performance-based instruction and assessment (Honna & Saruhashi, 2019; Kavanaugh, 2012). MEXT has even sponsored overseas CLT training for Japanese secondary school ELTs in the past (Kavanaugh, 2012). Such political primacy of CLT, however, has been criticized for reflecting a Western view of

communication that may not meet the diversity of students' expectations and needs in every context (Kumaravadivelu, 2012).

To understand how CLT has achieved this degree of global dominance within the field of language education, it is important to first trace its history and development. CLT emerged in the 1970s as a reaction to earlier, more rigid, teaching approaches, in particular to the longstanding audio-lingual method, and was based on the idea that language is meaning-based as opposed to rule-based; central to this tenet was the idea that communicative competence is ultimately more important than grammatical competence, though the latter is certainly necessary up to a point (Curtis, 2017; Duff, 2014; Kramsch, 2006; Pfingsthorn, 2022; Richards, 2006). The approach is based on Hymes' (1972) theory of language as communication, which contends that the goal of language teaching is to develop communicative competence. Communicative competence is composed of knowledge *and* ability with regard to four domains that Jones et al. (2018) have paraphrased as linguistic competence (the ability to use linguistic forms), strategic competence (the ability to repair communicative errors), discourse competence (the ability to use language across conversational turns), and pragmatic competence (the ability to use appropriate language for the sociolinguistic context).

Over time, other scholars made influential advancements to this theory of language as communication. One important development was made by Canale and Swain (1980), who interpreted Hymes' four domains as four dimensions of communicative competence, namely grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence. This interpretation has been lauded by historians of CLT for its pedagogical implications, as Canale and Swain's description of each domain in relation to previous theories of language learning facilitated a more concrete understanding of how Hymes' original theory could be translated into actual practice (Curtis, 2017; Duff, 2014; Richards & Rogers, 2014). Similarly significant advancements were then made by providing possible classroom activities that promote some aspect of communicative competence. Savignon (1987), for example, proposed borrowing roleplay and simulation activities from theater arts curricula, while Skehan (1998) encouraged using and then removing scaffolding for learning tasks to develop fluency and awareness of linguistic forms. In addition, "[d]iscussions of the nature of the syllabus have been central in CLT, and various versions have been proposed" (Richards & Rogers, 2014, p. 92), though Wilkins (1976) notional

syllabus, one which categorizes and describes target language based on specific semantic-grammatical forms and communicative functions, has been the most influential (Curtis, 2017; Richards & Rogers, 2014).

Despite CLT's dominance in the TESOL field, there has never been a consensus on what precisely a communicative approach entails, and the exact definition of CLT seems to depend on who is giving it (Harmer, 2003; Littlewood, 2014; Richards & Rogers, 2014; Spada, 2007). It has also been proposed that there are two versions of CLT, weak and strong (Howatt, 1984), creating something of a spectrum upon which any given communicative approach can be situated. This conceptualization further allows for different interpretations of CLT itself (Kavanaugh, 2012; Littlewood, 2014). Applications of CLT can also be highly context-dependent, and the approach itself is compatible with other approaches to language teaching, especially task-based language teaching and content-based instruction (Curtis, 2017; Duff, 2014; Richards & Rogers, 2014). It is therefore best to think of CLT as an assortment of various principles that can support an array of practices within the classroom (Celce-Murcia, 2014; Curtis, 2017; Richards & Rodgers, 2014). In other words, "CLT is best considered an approach rather than a method. It refers to a diverse set of principles that reflect a communicative view of language and language learning that can be used to support a wide variety of classroom procedures" (Richards & Rodgers, 2014, p. 105). However, some scholars have argued that the lack of agreement on CLT's definition and its broad remit as an instructional approach leaves room for techniques that are not truly communicative being labeled as such (Curtis, 2017; Savignon, 2007). Three frequently cited lists of communicative principles are provided in Table 2.2 to exemplify this diversity, as well as provide some unifying points of similarity in an attempt to preclude non-communicative practices from the present research framework.

Table 2.2

Selected Principles of CLT

Richards' (2006) Communicative Principles	**Dörnyei's (2009) "Principled Communicative Approach"**	**Brandl's (2008) Principles of CLT & Task-Based Instruction**

1. Focus on real communication 2. Opportunities for learners to experiment 3. Tolerance for learner errors 4. Opportunities to develop accuracy and fluency 5. Link different skills 6. Inductive grammar learning	1. Personal significance & focus on meaning 2. Controlled practice to promote automatization 3. Declarative input 4. Focus-on-form (formal/structural aspects) 5. Formulaic language 6. Extensive exposure to L2 input 7. Genuine, focused L2 interaction	1. Use tasks as an organization principle 2. Promote learning by doing 3. Input needs to be rich 4. Input needs to be meaningful, comprehensible, and elaborated 5. Promote cooperative and collaborative learning 6. Focus on form 7. Provide error corrective feedback 8. Recognize and respect affective factors of learning

CLT's focus on developing communicative competence supports a wide variety of classroom principles and practices that can, to varying degrees, correspond with inclusive practices and behaviors. In fact, some authors have previously advocated for the application of a CLT approach as an alternative to inclusive practices for ELTs who lack the relevant training but still wish to teach inclusively (Smith, 2018). In this sense, CLT can be compatible with inclusive education as a field just as it is compatible with other approaches to teaching. Some of the more obvious parallel principles, practices, or behaviors between CLT and inclusive practices include: creating a safe learning environment where students feel encouraged to take risks, scaffolding activities to help students meet learning objectives, relating learning activities to students' personal experiences (e.g., by providing rich, meaningful input), linking different skills in and across activities, allowing collaborative pair- and group-work, tolerating learner error, recognizing and respecting affective factors of learning, and giving frequent and appropriate feedback during class activities. ELTs taking a

communicative approach are therefore likely to demonstrate some degree of one or more of these inclusive behaviors in their instruction, at least incidentally.

This assumption is supported by the fact that three of the inclusive practices applied by ELTs that were catalogued in Table 2.1 above include behaviors that align with CLT principles. These are creating a safe learning environment where students feel encouraged to take risks, scaffolding activities to help students meet learning objectives, and recognizing and respecting affective factors of learning (e.g., by respecting learner preferences and incorporating students' interests). It may also be the case that some or all of the other five overlapping principles mentioned above were in fact present in the list of studies summarized in Table 2.1, but were not reported for the simple fact that they were not accommodations. For instance, tolerating learner error and allowing collaborative pair- and group-work are common features of the communicative language learning classroom due to the cooperative and error-prone nature of language learning and use. If ELTs already have an increased sensitivity to linguistic diversity as a common professional trait (Pfingsthorn & Giesler, 2022), then it may be the case that some ELTs would not think to report these baseline inclusive behaviors in an account of accommodations or inclusive interventions. Because such behaviors are often taken for granted as normal classroom procedure in a communicative paradigm is one reason why a more formalized investigation into the inclusive practices in an EFL context should assess their presence and potential effectiveness of including SWDs.

There is also evidence that CLT principles have been purposefully used to include SWDs. Dini Anggraheni et al. (2020), for example, found that taking a CLT approach in an online and distance learning (ODL) environment in Indonesia helped promote English vocabulary acquisition for six children with learning disabilities. While not concerned with SWDs specifically, Dykes (2017) found through pre- and post-course surveys of 397 postsecondary EFL students that taking a communicative approach helped create a sense of community and decrease FLA. Because of the overlapping principles of practice noted above, CLT appears to be compatible with inclusive education as a field. This is not surprising when one considers that the application of CLT principles is largely context-dependent, and can therefore be followed even when other approaches to teaching are simultaneously taken (Curtis, 2017; Duff, 2014). However, Rovai and Pfingsthorn (2022) note that CLT's focus on collaboration and downplaying of formal grammatical rules can prevent

ELTs from using inclusive practices related to differentiation and promoting metacognitive learning strategies, meaning that a communicative approach may be something of a double-edged sword when it comes to inclusivity.

There are, in fact, differing views on CLT's compatibility with inclusive education as an ideology. Pfingsthorn (2022) argues that "the traditional approach of communicative language teaching, which implicitly favors particular abilities, strategies, learner profiles and behavioural patterns over others in the language classroom, stands in opposition to the idea(l)s that underlie inclusive educational settings" (p. 174). Han (2022) takes a different view, arguing that CLT's focus on respect for learners, learner participation, collaborative learning, and authentic input demonstrate CLT's humanistic and democratic character. Where these two authors seem to agree is that CLT can and should be adapted to be more inclusive. Han (2022) states that its "pedagogic flexibilities give CLT the potential to be reconciled with pedagogic principles founded in different cultures" (Han, 2022, p. 3), echoing arguments made by several others that CLT can and should be adapted and applied to work in any context, regardless of the level of education, students' proficiency level, target language, or cultural landscape (Curtis, 2017; Duff, 2014; Littlewood, 2014; Richards & Rogers, 2014). Rovai and Pfingsthorn (2022) similarly call for the adaptation of CLT to be more inclusive, especially as pertains to differentiation and metacognition. Importantly, however, CLT and inclusive education do not appear to be mutually exclusive.

Reflective Practice

Reflective practice for teacher training and development can be traced back to John Dewey, who in 1933 championed the idea that teachers should consciously consider their beliefs, experience, and actions as teachers in order to break their own routines in service of helping learners progress (Fat'hi & Behzadpour, 2011; Farrell, 2015; 2018; Mann & Walsh, 2017; Murphy, 2014). According to Dewey (1933), reflective teaching is characterized by open-mindedness (being attentive and receptive to other viewpoints), responsibility (being aware of and responsive to actions and their consequences), and wholeheartedness (being sincere). A Deweyan approach to reflection can be viewed as both a highly complex process and product, "an ends-based model where reflection is initiated by some problem in practice and this problem must be solved in a systematic and rational manner" (Farrell, 2018, p. 29). Reflective practice can have a number of mutually inclusive foci: on the

learner, the teacher, practical aspects of teaching, teachers' cognitive development, critical/contextual aspects of teaching, and/or moral/ethical parameters of instruction (Fat'hi & Behzadpour, 2011). Running parallel to similar concerns surrounding the definitions of inclusion and CLT, however, there is a great deal of ambiguity around what exactly is meant by the term *reflective practice* in any given teaching or research context (Farrell, 2018; Mann & Walsh, 2017), though several different models of reflective practice have been proposed.

Schön (1983) imagined three cognitive dimensions of reflective teaching—reflection-on-action, reflection-in-action, and reflection-for-action—that describe a temporal continuum to characterize when, how, and why teachers engage in reflection. Reflection-on-action occurs when teachers think back on their teaching, reflection-in-action occurs when teachers are aware of some aspect of their teaching in the moment that it happens, and reflection-for-action occurs when they anticipate or plan ahead based on their reflection. Zeichner and Liston (1996) suggested that reflection occur in five phases: rapid reaction, repair, review, research, and retheorization and reformulation. Kolb (1984) proposed an iterative, four-stage process of reflection that begins with concrete experience, moves to reflective observation, and continues through abstract conceptualization and active experimentation that creates new experiences. This process is not dissimilar to the action research cycle (Burns, 2017). A common feature of these various models of reflective practice, however, is that they lead to positive changes to practice in the future based on past experiences. For the purposes of this research, *reflective practice* will be defined, in the spirit of the Deweyan approach, as a process of consciously considering beliefs about and experience in teaching to inform past practice with the aim of both understanding that practice and potentially making changes to it for the enhancement of students' future learning.

Reflective practice is so commonplace in both pre- and in-service teacher training in the TESOL field that it "has achieved a status of orthodoxy" (Mann & Walsh, 2017, p. 5), though the nature of this practice can vary depending on the type of training. For example, Mann & Walsh (2017) found that teachers who completed CELTA courses and MA programs learned different modes of reflective practice. Various forms of in-service reflective practice among ELTs have also been proposed or reported. Examples include various modes of gathering formative feedback from students and other teachers, as well as creating self-

generating sources of information such as keeping teaching journals or portfolios, performing stimulus recall, taking part in focus groups, recording lessons, or participating in peer observation (Mann & Walsh, 2015; Murphy, 2014). Farrell (2018) also noted a significant uptick in published research related to reflective practice in TESOL after 2009 that remained steady at least through 2015, reflecting a surge in data-driven reflective practice and interest across the field.

Indeed, reflective practice has also been frequently held up as a central aspect of ongoing professional development for in-service ELTs (Burns, 2017; Fat'hi & Behzadpour, 2011; Murphy, 2014; Richards & Farrell, 2005; Wallace, 2001). While reflective practice as an approach in language teaching has been criticized for not being sufficiently data-driven (Mann & Walsh, 2017), there is an increasing amount of evidence indicating its positive effects. Moritani (2019), for example, found that for non-Japanese postsecondary ELTs in Japan, three forms of ongoing professional development (learning from other teachers, involvement with a teacher organization, and self-study) all affect self-concept, a psychological factor defined in that study as how teachers view themselves, which in turn helps clarify their understanding of their professional roles within the prevailing CLT paradigm. Glasgow and Hale (2018) found that an ongoing professional development scheme for Japanese ELTs improved their capacity for reflection, including criticality of MEXT-appointed textbooks. In a survey of 150 EFL teachers in Iran, Rahimi and Weisi (2018) found that cognitive and practical reflection strongly predicted respondents' self-efficacy. There is also some evidence to suggest that the impact of reflective practice on self-efficacy is unique to the field of language education. Kurosh et al. (2020) surveyed 70 postsecondary teachers from different disciplines across Iran and found reflectivity and self-efficacy only correlated for the ELTs. While the size of the study is too small to be generalizable, it does gesture towards the previously-noted orthodoxy of reflection within the TESOL field (Fat'hi & Behzadpour, 2011; Farrell, 2018; Mann & Walsh, 2017). Reflective practice may also affect ELTs' motivation: in a qualitative investigation of 23 EFL teachers at a secondary school in Spain, Gadella Kamstra (2021) found that lack of training in inclusive practices and reflective practice had a demotivating influence on their profession roles. It has also been found that in-service ELTs can reflect on their educational practices outside of the classroom to be more critical of the broader education context, including the curriculum and their own

pedagogical knowledge (Farrell, 2018), which has favorable implications for the acquisition of inclusive skills for in-service teachers.

In fact, reflective practice has been shown to promote inclusive practices among ELTs. Reporting accommodations made for neurodiverse students at a small university in Japan, for instance, Kennedy (in press) wrote that

> Reflective practice underlies both my teaching of classes and the ways that I guide the team of EFL instructors. There are, therefore, three levels of accommodation in place: the adaptive and integrative intake process on the administrative level, the cohesion and mutual counseling of the student peer support system, and reflective practice on the teacher level.

Tsukamoto (in press) similarly used a teaching journal to respond to the needs of a visually impaired learner in her EFL course at a Japanese university, including a number of accommodations catalogued in Table 2.1 above. Turner (2019) noted that reflecting on teaching an EFL student with hearing impairment allowed him to better accommodate a similar student at a later date. While not overtly reflective, several of the other studies summarized in Table 2.1 demonstrate the use of reflective practice as a way to better accommodate specific student needs, for example those that reported collaborating with colleagues to better include SWDs (Kasparek & Turner, 2020; Lowe, 2015; Stinson, 2018), as such collaboration is one form of reflective practice (Murphy, 2014; Farrell, 2017). Reflection is also an integral part Torres and Rao's (2019) Universal Design for Learning Design Cycle, an iterative approach to including ELLs with disabilities. Young (2023) described a case study in which the UDL Design Cycle was implemented in an online English course at a private university in Japan. This case included reflecting on student feedback and inclusive design choices based on UDL checkpoints to make the class more accessible and inclusive over a two-year span.

Finally, reflective practice as a means of gaining insight into and improving the efficacy of inclusive practices for both pre- and in-service teachers in general education has also been advocated before (Dignath, 2022; Graham et al., 2020; Higbee, 2009; Hogan & Sathy, 2022; Kuruvilla, 2017; Sharma, 2010) and is included in a number of practical guidelines from an international policy perspective. "Reflecting on your teaching practice," for instance, tops UNESCO's (2013) checklist for inclusive practices for teachers in HEIs. UNESCO (2017) further calls for reflecting on practice as a key aspect of continuing

professional development for teachers in its guide for ensuring inclusion and equity in education.

Problem Statement, Research Questions, and Case Context

As has hopefully been established above, language learning presents unique barriers to SWDs. In addition, inclusive education is a human right. There is, therefore, a clear need for ELTs to teach inclusively and with specific consideration for the barriers faced by SWDs. However, as has also hopefully been established above, many if not most ELTs lack sufficient knowledge and skills to teach inclusively. Furthermore, teachers' views on inclusive education affect their ability to teach inclusively. These views can vary depending on a number of factors including, but not limited to, level being taught, inclusive education policy guidance, and teacher training. There has been exceedingly little research conducted into ELTs' views of inclusive education, and those studies that do exist are predominantly small-scale and qualitative. In addition, this research gap is largest among postsecondary EFL contexts. For several reasons (language learning poses particularly salient barriers to students with SLDs, struggle to overcome these barriers can resemble common difficulty with language learning, and SLDs are less visible than other forms of disability), this inquiry will pay particular attention to ELTs' views of and ability to accommodate ELLs with SLDs.

As a separate point of concern, there is some evidence to suggest that CLT and reflective practice, both of which have achieved a position of orthodoxy within the TESOL field, can help ELTs better include SWDs in their instruction. Therefore, the current research will also investigate the degree to which CLT and reflective practice may help ELTs create more accessible and inclusive learning environments and experiences for SWDs.

Research Questions

1. What are English language teachers' sentiments, attitudes, and concerns about SWDs and inclusive education, and what factors may influence them?
2. How does experience and/or training in communicative language teaching influence the nature of inclusive practices in these teachers' instruction?
3. How does experience and/or training in reflective practice influence the nature of inclusive practices in these teachers' instruction?

Case Context

As different countries and cultures have differing notions of belonging and non-belonging, the implementation of inclusive education must be adapted to its target context (Armstrong & Armstrong, 2019; Rapp & Corral-Granados, 2021). In this way, inclusive education must interact with other social institutions and society at large (Krischler et al., 2019). As noted in Chapter I, common factors that can influence these notions and the implementation of inclusive education include: the level of human development in the countries in which the teachers are working, age and amount of teaching experience, gender, level of education being taught, experience teaching SWDs, training in special or inclusive education, experience teaching SWDs, previous interactions with people with disabilities, and self-efficacy (Dignath et al., 2022; Guillemot et al., 2022; Ieridou, 2017). Additionally, SACIE-R results can vary from country to country based on local factors such as teacher training and personal beliefs (Vogiatzi, 2021; Yada et al., 2018), and so focusing on one country allows for a more controlled investigation while also investigating local policy as a determining factor, as local policy has been shown to correlate or predict with SACIE-R results in several previous administrations (AlMahdi & Bukamal, 2019; Main et al., 2016; Opoku et al., 2021; Özokçu, 2018a; Poon et al., 2016; Tahsein & Ahsan, 2016; Tuncay & Kizilaslan, 2021).

Postsecondary education in Japan was selected for the current investigation for reasons both personal and practical: it is the country and context in which I live and work. I am more personally invested in learning about how inclusive education plays out in this context, and it was assumed to be easier for me to collect data, especially observational data, in country. This turned out to be especially important as I conducted my research under the specter of a global pandemic, the effect of which will be touched upon throughout the discussion of the research findings. Finally, as the AEDPD will apply to all private HEIs for the first time from April of 2024, and as the number of disclosed SWDs in postsecondary education in Japan continues to grow, there is a heightened urgency to answer these research questions for the current case context.

Chapter III: Design and Methodology

In an attempt to answer the research questions listed above, a mixed methods approach was selected to maximize strengths and minimize the weaknesses of a strictly quantitative or qualitative approach (Boeije, 2010; Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Specifically, a concurrent triangulation method (Boeije, 2010) was adopted so that the qualitative stage could confirm and cross-validate the findings from the quantitative stage regarding the first research question, as well as account for the second and third research questions, which the quantitative instrument could not sufficiently address. A fuller accounting of each research stage's design and methodology, including instruments, participants, and data treatment, is provided below.

Quantitative Data Collection: Sentiments, Attitudes, and Concerns about Inclusive English Language Education

The scale selected for the present research is a modified version of the Sentiments, Attitudes, and Concerns about Inclusive Education Revised Scale (SACIE-R; Forlin et al., 2011), a widely used instrument for measuring the three psychometric constructs listed in its name. The original Sentiments, Attitudes, and Concerns about Inclusive Education Scale (SACIE) was developed in an attempt to improve upon three pre-existing scales: the Interactions with People with Disabilities scale (IPD) developed by Gething (1991; 1994 as cited in Loreman et al., 2007), the Concerns about Inclusive Education Scale (CIES) developed by Sharma and Desai (2002, as cited in Loreman et al., 2007), and the Attitudes Toward Inclusive Education Scale (ATIES) developed by Wilczenski (1992; 1995, as cited in Loreman et al., 2007).

> The goal was to construct a single brief, reliable, and valid instrument which can be easily used and interpreted to help identify progress in three areas identified in the literature as being core values underlying the philosophy of inclusion. These are: *(a) positive attitudes towards increased inclusion of students with disabilities, (b) high sense of teaching efficacy, (c) willingness and ability to adapt one's teaching to meet the individual educational needs of students with disabilities*. (Loreman et al., 2007, p. 151)

In creating the SACIE, Loreman et al. (2007) administered the IPD, CIES, and ATIES to 996 pre-service teachers enrolled in general education teacher training programs in Australia,

Canada, Singapore, and Hong Kong. Principal component analysis and a varimax rotation were then conducted to reduce the number of items on the scale, as well as identify new items that could be added to the new, resultant scale. This statistical analysis was followed by the drafting of a new 19-tem scale, the SACIE, by an expert group of academics and researchers in the fields of inclusive education and measurement (Loreman et al., 2007).

Following a four-stage process, this scale was reviewed and reduced to 15 items to create the SACIE-R (Forlin et al., 2011). Stage 1 was completed by administering the SACIE to 297 pre-service teachers in the same four countries used in the that scale's creation. Exploratory factor analysis of this data set, following by a varimax orthogonal rotation of the original SACIE data set, provided a simplified factor structure from which a varimax rotation with Kaiser normalization identified three factors with eigenvalues above 1.0. Analysis of the scree plot supported a three-factor structure, which was then supported by a parallel analysis in the form of exploratory factor analysis with an oblique Promax rotation, allowed the researchers to identify four items to eliminate from the SACIE. Inter-item reliability of the remaining 15 items using Cronbach's alpha on the 297 responses validated the reduced scale and its three subscales.

Stage 2 sought to confirm this validity with a set of 227 pre-service teachers from Australia, Singapore, and Hong Kong. Principal component analysis confirmed the three-factor structure identified in Stage 1, and the three factors again had eigenvalues above 1.0. "Furthermore, inter-correlations between factors were less than 0.3, suggesting that the three components of the construct now represented reasonably independent issues related to inclusive education" (Forlin et al., 2011, p. 56). However, the three factors were disproportionately represented by the items on the scale: sentiments had seven items with substantial coefficient values (i.e., above 0.4), attitudes had two, and concerns had six. Stage 3 aimed to rectify this disproportionate representation by adding eight items from the ATIES scale, as this scale was created specifically to measure teachers' attitudes about inclusive education. "The resulting 23-item survey was administered to a new population of 186 Canadian and Hong Kong pre-service teachers to evaluate whether these could provide an equal weighting to all three components of the nomological network" (Forlin et al., 2011, p. 57). Exploratory factor analysis and principal component analysis of these 186 responses identified 15 items from the 23-item survey with the consistent inter-item reliabilities and proportionate factor representation with five items per factor.

The final stage validated this new scale, the SACIE-R, with a sample of 542 pre-service teachers from Canada, Hong Kong, the United States, and India. Principal component analysis and a varimax orthogonal rotation confirmed the three-factor structure, and internal reliability was deemed acceptable for the total scale ($\alpha = 0.74$), as well as the three subscales (sentiments $\alpha = 0.75$, attitudes $\alpha = 0.67$, and concerns $\alpha = 0.65$). The factors represented by these subscales are "central to the rationale underlying a teacher's beliefs and support for and engagement with inclusive practices" (Forlin et al., 2011, p. 59). The first factor, sentiments, is defined by as "sentiments about engaging with people with disabilities" (Forlin et al., 2011, p. 59). Attitudes are defined as "acceptance of learners with different support needs" (Forlin et al., 2011, p. 59). Concerns are defined as "concerns about inclusive education" (Forlin et al., 2011, p. 59). The present research will use the same three definitions.

The SACIE-R was selected over a number of similar instruments for the present research for several reasons. Firstly, this scale's careful and systematic creation established its initial reliability (Forlin et al., 2011). Secondly, Ewing et al. (2017) found in a review of nine questionnaires designed to capture primary teachers' attitudes towards inclusion that the SACIE-R was one of only two such instruments that adequately addressed the cognitive, affective, and behavioral aspects of teachers' attitudes. Since its initial selection for the present research, Guillemot et al. (2022) further found in a meta-analysis of 131 studies representing nine different surveys used to ascertain teachers' views on inclusive education used from 2000 to 2020 that the SACIE-R was one of only two scales that accounted for cognitive, affective, and behavioral aspects of these views. Thirdly, Navarro-Mateu et al. (2020) asserted that the SACIE-R has the highest degree of academic support among the various instruments used around the world for assessing teachers' views of inclusive education. This was deemed especially important given the anticipated cultural diversity represented by the present study's pool of respondents. In addition to this established reliability across national and linguistic borders, the SACIE-R was the most ideal candidate for modification for the present research purposes because the creators of the scale themselves encourage modification of the independent variables section "to accommodate the needs of local contexts" (Forlin et al., 2011, p. 59). There is also at least one precedent for the rephrasing of particular items on the main part of the survey, the items that represent the three dependent factors, to make more sense to respondents in local

contexts while maintaining an acceptable degree of inter-item reliability. This was essential for the present research purposes, as revisions to all items from the original attitudes subscale were required in order for them to make sense to ELTs in postsecondary contexts. Finally, the large number of previous studies using the SACIE-R would allow paradigmatic corroboration of further findings, as well as serve as useful points of comparison given the variety of contexts in which the SACIE-R has been administered. Summaries and key findings of previous studies using the SACIE-R are provided in Table 3.1 below.

Table 3.1

Summary of Studies Using the SACIE-R

Citation	Countries	Participants	Cronbach's alphas	Summary of findings	Additional notes
Agavelyan et al. (2020)	Kazakhstan	416 in-service secondary teachers	Total scale = 0.75 Sentiments = 0.67 Attitudes = 0.68 Concerns = 0.60	Sentiments *M* = 2.76; attitudes *M* = 2.45; concerns *M* = 2.65. Spearman's correlation analysis and multiple regression analysis found that gender, school location, and confidence teaching SWDs were significant predictors of respondents' views on inclusive education. Male teachers, rural teachers, and those with high confidence all had more positive views. The factors that did not predict were age, level of education, interaction with persons with a disability, experience teaching, and knowledge of local policy.	Kazakh (*n* = 333) and Russian (*n* = 83) versions of the scale were used. However, the two versions to not appear to have been validated independently.
Aiello et al. (2017)	Italy	437 in-service teachers	Total scale = n/a Discomfort = 0.854 Fear = 0.871 Attitudes = 0.874 Concerns = 0.805	Discomfort *M* = 1.78; fear *M* = 3.16; attitudes *M* = 5.36; concerns *M* = 2.55. Respondents had a generally positive view (low discomfort, fear, and concerns; high attitudes). Furthermore, none of the four background variables (sex, type of teaching position, covering a school role related to disability, and years of service) had any significant correlation with any of the four subscales.	Modified to six-point scale. Initial CFA led to splitting sentiments into two subscales: discomfort interacting with disabled people (3 items) and fear of having a disability (2 items).
AlMahdi & Bukamal (2019)	Bahrain	138 pre-service teachers	Total scale = 0.71 on the pilot (*N* = 25). Sentiments = n/a Attitudes = n/a Concerns = n/a	Sentiments and attitudes were generally positive, though respondents had lower concerns, including a lack of skills and training, as well as a lack of confidence, which correlated negatively with sentiments and positively with concerns. This suggests that training to teach SWDs may increase	Cronbach's alpha for the total scale was only reported for a pilot of 25 respondents, and no subscale alphas were reported. Undergraduate

				positive sentiments and remove concerns about teaching inclusively. A significant negative correlation between sentiments and knowledge of local policy was also found.	students in a teacher training degree program at a single university. Small sample size.
Aubakirova & Mukatayeva (2017)	Kazakhstan	108 pre-service teachers	Total scale = 0.753 Sentiments = 0.733 Attitudes = 0.702 Concerns = 0.706	Overall views towards inclusion were neutral. Respondents' biggest concern was the lack of knowledge and skills related to inclusive teaching.	Respondents appear to be undergraduate students, though this is not explicitly stated.
Ayub et al. (2019)	Pakistan	180 in-service teachers in higher education	Total scale = 0.84 Sentiments = n/a Attitudes = n/a Concerns = n/a	Mean scores for the SACIE-R and its subscales were all above the midpoint: Total scale *M* = 2.69; sentiments *M* = 2.64; attitudes *M* = 2.79; concerns *M* = 2.64. There was a strong correlation between attitudes and self-efficacy as measured by the Teacher Efficacy for Inclusive Practices scale (TEIP).	Cronbach's alpha not reported for subscales. Used in combination with TEIP and TITIC. Relatively small sample size.
Cansiz & Cansiz (2018)	Turkey	304; 368; 345 pre-service teachers (three separate samples)	Total scale = 0.89; 0.93; 0.91 for each set respectively. Subscales = n/a	EFA, CFA, and PCA for each data set confirmed the validity and three-factor structure of the Turkish translation of the SACIE-R.	No analysis of predictive or correlating background factors conducted, as the study's aim was validating a Turkish version of the SACIE-R.
Emmers et al. (2020)	Belgium	79 higher education teachers	Total scale = 0.77 Sentiments = n/a Attitudes = n/a Concerns = n/a	Total SACIE-R scores were slightly above the midpoint of the scale. Sentiments was highest (*M* = 3.14), Attitudes next (*M* = 3.03), and Concerns was lowest (*M* = 2.63). There was a significant difference overall between teachers who have taught (*M* = 2.95) and have never taught (*M* = 2.41) an SWD. No significant difference on total SACIE-R or its subscales was found relating to gender, age, or teaching seniority.	Used in combination with TEIP. The small sample size should also be considered. Other limitations include convenience sampling and lack of causality owing to the cross-sectional path analysis.

Gallego-Ortega & Rodrígues-Fuentes (2021)	Spain	122 in-service teachers	Total scale = 0.80 Sentiments = 0.79 Attitudes = 0.70 Concerns = 0.81	Sentiments *M* = 2.95; attitudes *M* = 2.69; Concerns *M* = 2.72. ANOVA found teachers currently working exclusively with SWDs and female teachers had more positive views. School type, age, and educational stage did not predict.	Small sample size. Used in combination with the Attitude Survey Inclusive Education–Teachers.
Hannah & Nolan (2019)	Scotland	35 in-service teachers	Total scale = n/a Sentiments = n/a Attitudes = n/a Concerns = n/a	The training had a significant impact on SACIE-R scores, with medium effect size for all three subscales.	TEIP used in pre- and post-test format to determine the efficacy of a training module on teaching students with autism. Very small sample.
Kis (2016)	Turkey	567 2nd-4th year undergraduate education students (29 in preschool, 253 in primary, and 277 in special education)	Total scale = 0.78 Sentiments = 0.62 Attitudes = 0.72 Concerns = 0.67	Confirmatory factor analysis and goodness of fit confirmed the original three factor structure and reliability of the modified version, suggesting that the subscales can be independently applied.	No analysis of factors determining sentiments, attitudes, and concerns, as this study was concerned with validated the instrument in translation. Convenience sampling.
Kunz et al. (2021)	Switzerland	443 pre-service teachers	Total scale = n/a Sentiments = 0.68 and 0.71 Attitudes = 0.74 and 0.80 Concerns = 0.66 and 0.75	The SACIE-R was conducted before and after student teachers took a training module on inclusive education. Findings suggest the module improved participants' attitudes. Participants with higher contact with people with disabilities also had more positive sentiments and attitudes, as well as fewer concerns about implementing inclusive education.	Used in combination with the TEIP. Convenience sampling with 55.38% participation rate.
Li & Cheung (2021)	Hong Kong	94 pre-service teachers	Total scale = n/a Sentiments = 0.79	Three hierarchical linear regression models revealed that more training in inclusive education	Used in combination with the TEIP. Small sample size

			Attitudes = 0.62 Concerns = 0.76	correlated and more positive attitudes towards inclusive education correlated with high self-efficacy in giving instructions. More training in inclusive education, greater teaching experience, and fewer concerns about teaching SWDs were significantly correlated with self-efficacy in collaborating with colleagues and parents.	and no total alpha provided, though it would certainly be acceptable if all three subscales were.
Li et al. (2016)	China	424 pre-service teachers (416 primary, 8 special education)	Total scale = n/a Sentiments = n/a Attitudes = n/a Concerns = n/a	Pearson correlation analysis revealed that interaction with people with disabilities and confidence teaching SWDs strongly correlated with sentiments, interaction with people with disabilities strongly correlated with attitudes, and area teaching and previous training strongly correlated with concerns. Respondents reported a high degree of concern about a lack of skills and resources to teach and accommodate students with disabilities or differences.	This study used a Chinese version of the SACIE-R. No analysis for internal reliability was reported.
Main et al. (2016)	Seychelles	43 in-service teachers	Total scale = 0.84 and 0.80 Sentiments = 0.56 and 0.75 Attitudes = 0.69 and 0.71 Concerns = 0.75 and 0.58	The scale was administered twice: once before and once after respondents completed a teacher training unit on inclusive education. Fourteen of the SACIE-R's 15 items increased, though only the subscale of attitudes was significant enough for pre- and post-test comparison. Analysis of the total score pre- and post-text revealed a significant effect of policy knowledge, which also had a significant effect on sentiments. Level of training had a significant effect on attitudes, though only on the pre-unit score.	The small sample size and pre- and post-test should be remembered when considering these results.

Mouchritsa et al. (2022)	Greece	307 general and special educators in secondary education	Total scale = n/a Sentiments = 0.7 Attitudes = 0.83 Concerns = 0.7	Special educators were found to have more positive sentiments and attitudes, as well as fewer concerns, compared to general educators. Among both groups, age was found to be a factor (younger respondents were more positive overall), and those with less experience teaching were also more positive across all three subscales for general educators, but only for the subscales of sentiments and concerns for special educators.	The authors note that the sample size precluded stratified sampling and so may not be generalizable.
Murdaca et al. (2016)	Italy	400 in-service teachers from primary to tertiary levels.	Total scale = n/a Sentiments = 0.77 Attitudes = 0.90 Concerns = 0.76	Confirmatory factor analysis confirmed the original three factor structure, but items 4, 5, 14, and 15 of the original scale were removed for low factor loading.	No analysis of factors determining sentiments, attitudes, and concerns, as this study was concerned with validated the instrument in translation. Convenience sampling reduced generalizability.
Navarro-Mateu et al. (2019)	Spain	268 in-service teachers	Total scale = n/a Sentiments = 0.64 Attitudes = 0.84 Concerns = 0.61	HRMs revealed three main predictors of attitudes: opposition to equality and emotional empathy positively predicted attitudes scores; social dominance negatively predicted. The models also showed social dominance was the only positive predictor of sentiments and concerns, which was supported by the QCA analysis. QCA analysis showed women with more years of experience had lower social dominance and higher sentiments.	Used in combination with Basic Empathy Scale (BES), and the Social Dominance Orientation (SDO) scale.
Navarro-Mateu et al. (2020)	Spain	323 pre-service and 324 in-service teachers	Total scale = n/a Sentiments = 0.64 Attitudes = 0.83	Sentiments *M* = 2.81 (whole group), 2.69 (pre-service), 2.94 (in-service); attitudes *M* = 4.02 (whole group), 3.95 (pre-service), 4.09 (in-service);	Five items (concerns: items 8 and 10, sentiments:

			Concerns = 0.64	concerns *M* = 2.67 (whole group), 2.42 (pre-service), 2.92 (in-service). Attitudes scores were higher for women, but the gender dimension was not statistically significant for the other subscales. No statistical difference was found between respondents who had and had not had close contact with persons with a disability. Low significant Pearson correlations were identified between frequencies of in-service SEN training, diversity training, and teaching SWDs and all subscales of the SACIE-R, suggesting that "training, education, and experience positively affect attitudes toward educational inclusion" (p. 8).	items 4, 13, and 14) were removed from the original scale due to low factor loading identified through EFA.
Nwosu et al. (2023)	Nigeria	508 in-service teachers	Total scale = n/a Sentiments = 0.5 Attitudes = 0.72 Concerns = 0.60	Emotional intelligence was found to contribute to attitudes and concerns, but not sentiments. Hierarchical regression found that training in inclusive education and confidence teaching SWDs reduced concerns, though the level of training (i.e., pre- or in-service) was not specified.	The study was primarily concerned with determining emotional intelligence's effect on SACIE-R. Two sentiments items and two concerns items were removed after CFA, but which particular items were not identified.
Opoku et al. (2021)	Ghana	855 pre-service teachers	Total scale = 0.62 Sentiments = 0.70 Attitudes = 0.65 Concerns = 0.60	Total scale *M* = 2.48; sentiments *M* = 2.81; attitudes *M* = 2.51; concerns *M* = 2.40. T-tests revealed that male respondents had more positive views and concerns than female respondents. Those who had previous interactions with people with Down syndrome were less positive about inclusion. ANOVA analysis revealed that preservice	Study focused on views of including students with Down syndrome. One major limitation is that only one factor in the sentiments subscale

				teachers older than 31 had more positive sentiments and concerns. Knowledge of inclusive educational policy and confidence teaching SWDs correlated with higher scores on the attitudes subscale only.	loaded during factor analysis.
Özokçu (2018a)	Turkey	457 in-service teachers	Total scale = 0.89 Sentiments = 0.88 Attitudes = 0.90 Concerns = 0.86	Overall views were positive, though respondents scored lowest on the concerns subscale. Degree of interaction with persons with disabilities, training in special education, knowledge of local policy, self-confidence teaching SWDs, and experience working with SWDs were all significantly correlated with respondents' general views on inclusion.	This study used a Turkish version of the SACIE-R.
Özokçu (2018b)	Turkey	1163 in-service teachers	Total scale = 0.88 Sentiments = 0.86 Attitudes = 0.88 Concerns = 0.85	Teachers' self-efficacy as determined with the TEIP was a strong predictor of their attitudes towards inclusion. Results also indicate that teachers' ability to collaborate with others is a strong predictor of attitudes about inclusive education.	This study's main aim was the determine if self-efficacy as measured by the TEIP correlated with the SACIE-R scores.
Poon et al. (2016)	Singapore	131 in-service teachers and school professionals	Total scale = 0.77 Sentiments = 0.63 Attitudes = 0.65 Concerns = 0.71	Total scale *M* = 2.45; sentiments *M* = 2.23; attitudes *M* = 2.47; concerns *M* = 2.89. Spearman's correlation and multiple regression analysis found that knowledge of local policy, training in teaching SWDs, prior interactions with persons with disabilities, and confidence in teaching SWDs predicted all subscales, especially attitudes and concerns. Gender and training to teach SWDs were not strong determiners.	Modification to item wording (e.g., "regular classes" to "mainstream classrooms") were made to suit to local context. Small sample size.
Romero-Contreras et al. (2013)	Mexico	813 pre-service teachers	Total scale = 0.716 Sentiments = 0.625 Attitudes = 0.609	Due to the low reliability, only consideration was given for the individual items on the scale. Respondents with training in teaching SWDs had	Spanish translation of the SACIE-R based on an earlier translation of the

			Concerns = 0.366	the most positive sentiments regarding meeting people with disabilities.	original SACIE. Used along with the TEIP.
Siddik & Kawai (2018)	Bangladesh	311 in-service teachers	Total scale = 0.582 Sentiments = 0.543 Attitudes = 0.601 Concerns = 0.649	Overall mean was 2.30, with the subscale of sentiments, attitudes, and concerns scoring 2.33, 2.66, and 1.90 respectively. Most notably, there was no significant difference for overall SACIE-R scores between teachers who have and have not received training on inclusive education.	Differences between teachers who have and have not received training on inclusive education was not reported for subscale scores.
Stavroussi et al. (2021)	Greece	315 in-service primary teachers	Total scale = 0.76 Sentiments = 0.73 Attitudes = 0.67 Concerns = 0.75	Total scale *M* = 2.63; sentiments *M* = 3.23; attitudes *M* = 2.66; concerns *M* = 2.25. Mann–Whitney, Kruskal–Wallis, and Spearman rank correlation analysis used. High correlation between reported interaction with persons with a disability and confidence teaching SWDs and higher scores across the SACIE-R. Educational qualifications were significantly associated with the attitudes subscale. There was also significant association between reported knowledge of legislation and policies and SACIE-R total and the attitudes and concerns subscales. However, there were significant differences between sentiments and the four work experience categories, as well as between the three training in disabilities education categories and the attitudes, concerns, and total SACIE-R scores. There were also significant differences between the three levels of experience in teaching SWDs and the SACIE-R and all subscales. People who scored lower on the DTBS scale also had lower attitudes and sentiments and higher concerns.	Used in combination with the Democratic Teacher Belief Scale.

Tahsein & Ahsan (2016)	Bangladesh	225 4th year education undergraduates	Total scale = 0.589 Sentiments = 0.391 Attitudes = 0.706 Concerns = 0.428	Multiple regression analysis revealed knowledge about local policy and confidence teaching SWDs predicted attitudes.	The sentiments and concerns subscales were not used due to low alphas. Used a translated version of the SACIE-R simplified from a previously translated and validated version of the original SACIE.
Takahashi et al. (2016)	Japan	145 in-service teachers (77 special, 68 regular schools)	Total scale = n/a Sentiments = 0.75 Attitudes = 0.70 Concerns = 0.59	PCA confirmed validity of three-factor structure. Female teachers had more positive attitudes scores. Teachers from regular schools had higher sentiments scores than those from special schools, (meaning those from special schools had less fear and discomfort).	Used Japanese version from Forlin et al. (2016).
Tuncay & Kizilaslan (2021)	Turkey	406 pre-service teachers	Total scale = 0.88 Sentiments = 0.86 Attitudes = 0.88 Concerns = 0.85	Total scale *M* = 2.63; sentiments *M* = 2.78; attitudes *M* = 2.69; concerns *M* = 2.41. Independent groups t-test revealed that female respondents and those who had prior interaction with persons with a disability scored higher across the subscales and total SACIE-R. Similarly, confidence teaching SWDs and level of experience working with SWDs were significantly associated with higher scores on the SACIE-R and all subscales. Respondents with knowledge of local policy had more positive views about inclusive education for SWDs, as did those who received special education coursework.	Turkish version. Used in combination with a reduced combination of three other scales: The Attitudes Towards Inclusive Education Scale, the Interactions with Disabled Persons scale, and the Concerns about Inclusive Education Scale.

Vogiatzi et al. (2021)	Greece	465 in-service teachers	Total scale = 0.88 Sentiments = n/a Attitudes = n/a Concerns = n/a	The main aim of this study was to validate the Greek translations of the SACIE-R and the TEIP, which it did using CFA, though goodness of fit was better in the two-factor model.	Used with the TEIP and TRS (Individual Capacity to Maintain Motivation and Getting Social Support from Colleagues to Maintain Motivation) scales.
Yada & Savolainen (2017)	Japan	359 in-service teachers	Total scale = 0.75 Sentiments = n/a Attitudes = n/a Concerns = n/a	Respondents' sentiments, attitudes, and concerns averaged slightly above the midpoint of the scale (*M* = 2.69). Sentiments *M* = 3.38; attitudes *M* = 2.58; concerns *M* = 2.37.	Cronbach's alpha for the subscales reported as ranging from 0.71 to 0.78, but no further detail was provided. Convenience sampling employed.
Yada et al. (2018)	Japan & Finland	359 Japanese and 872 Finnish in-service teachers	Total scale = 0.75 (Japanese sample); 0.74 (Finnish sample) Sentiments = n/a Attitudes = n/a Concerns = n/a	Previous interactions with persons with disabilities had a positive effect on sentiments for both groups, and indirectly improved attitudes by first improving self-efficacy among Japanese respondents. Experience teaching SWDs lowered concerns and improved attitudes through self-efficacy for both groups. Higher self-efficacy correlated with longer teaching experience in Japan but not in Finland. Finnish teachers with more experience had more negative attitudes towards accepting SWDs in mainstream classes. Finally, the degree of inclusive education training positively correlated with higher self-efficacy and attitudes and lower concerns among Finnish teachers, but not among the Japanese.	This study also used the TEIP to measure self-efficacy. One major limitation is that this was the first study to test measurement invariance and cross-cultural validity of the SACIE-R and the TEIP using MGCFA. Two items were removed due to low factor loading in previous studies.

In addition to the studies summarized in Table 3.1, one study using the SACIE-R with ELTs in an EFL setting was located (Cimermanová, 2017). However, this study contained many flaws that prevented its inclusion in the table above. First of all, no confirmation of the three-factor structure nor any other form of validation was reported, nor was there any reported internal reliability for the total scale or any of its subscales. Additionally, no factor analysis of any kind was performed, and the author only reported a selection of background information and individual item results. Specifically, Cimermanová (2017) reported demographic information for respondents in that study (187 in-service and 56 pre-service ELTs in Slovakia) and also that they had low confidence teaching SWDs (a background variable) and were concerned about increased workload in classes with an SWD (an item from the concerns subscale). As such, this study will be precluded from later discussions of the current research inquiry's SACIE-R results, but these individual findings will be considered in the relevant sections of the discussion.

As stated above, the subscales of sentiments and concerns on the revised SACIE-R were unchanged from the original SACIE-R. However, the items to capture the construct of attitudes were all modified to varying degrees from the original SACIE-R owing to several differences between general L1 education and postsecondary language learning environments. These revisions are captured in Table 3.2 below.

Table 3.2

Comparison of Attitudes Factor Items in the Original and Modified SACIE-R Scales

	Original	Modified
1	Students who have difficulty expressing their thoughts verbally should be in regular classes.	Students who have excessive difficulty comprehending English-language input should receive accommodations in their English-language classes.
2	Students who frequently fail exams should be in regular classes.	Students who have excessive difficulty producing English-language output should receive accommodations in their English-language classes.

3	Students who are inattentive should be in regular classes.	Students who are inattentive should receive accommodations in their English-language classes.
4	Students who need an individualized academic program should be in regular classes.	Students who disclose a disability to their school should receive accommodations in their English language classes.
5	Students who require communicative technologies (for example Braille and sign language) should be in regular classes.	Students who require communicative technologies (e.g., Braille and sign language) should receive accommodations in their English-language classes.

First of all, the term “regular classes” in the SACIE-R is problematic for higher educational contexts because there are no segregated, special education classes in higher education as there are in many primary and secondary contexts. Rather, SWDs in any given course either receive accommodations or do not. Therefore, the term “should be in regular classes” from the original SACIE-R was replaced with “should receive accommodations in their English-language classes” for all five items pertaining to the attitudes factor in the modified SACIE-R. The term “accommodations” was selected because it evokes relevant local and international policy language and accords with various inclusive approaches to teaching.

As language learners universally experience difficulty expressing their thoughts verbally in the target language at one time or another, the phrasing of attitudes item 1 on the SACIE-R is unfit for use in the present research context. Regarding attitudes item 2, language teachers may interpret “exams” as placement tests, proficiency tests, or summative assessments, and this ambiguity would reduce the item’s validity if transferred to the modified SACIE-R, as respondents may answer differently depending on how they interpret this term. To justify the revisions to these items on the modified SACIE-R, as well as the lack of revision to attitudes item 3, it is important to consider two points. Firstly, the present research context is complicated by a policy of selective inclusion: as some students will disclose a disability and others will not, there is a possibility of hidden disabilities going unnoticed and negatively impacting students’ language learning. Secondly, there is an array of cognitive and affective factors that complicate language learning for students with SLDs,

though language teachers may attribute pertinent difficulties solely to low language proficiency. Conversely, teachers may suspect a student has an SLD when in fact they do not. While items 1 and 2 of the attitudes subscale in the modified SACIE-R do not distinguish between difficulties which are related to SLDs and others which are not, a truly inclusive approach does not require such a distinction: helpful though it may be, teachers do not need a formal diagnosis of a disability to include a student who is struggling to meet learning aims.

As noted in Chapter I, inclusive education is broadly defined as education for all, and inclusive practices are any teaching practices that respect difference and do not marginalize learners. This view renders the need to diagnose or formally identify SLDs moot: more inclusive language teachers will theoretically agree or strongly agree with the revised items 1 and 2 regardless of why a language learner experiences excessive difficulty. In other words, when it comes to inclusive language teaching, teachers' attitudes should be measured with regard for students' experience of learning, not the possibility of disability. This reasoning is also why the key phrasing for attitudes item 3 ("students who are inattentive") was not revised: whatever the reason may be for inattentiveness, more inclusively-minded teachers will attempt to include or otherwise accommodate them. The phrasing of the new attitudes items 1 and 2 was therefore crafted with language teachers in mind, as the consideration of input and output have well-established roles across a variety of theories of second language acquisition and approaches to foreign language teaching.

Finally, attitudes item 4 was revised because individual education plans are rare in the present research context, whereas "reasonable accommodations" for self-identified SWDs are currently required within public HEIs and encouraged within private HEIs by the relevant local policy. Furthermore, when they are used in HEIs in the current case context, individual education plans can be considered "reasonable accommodations" as framed by local policy (Young et al., 2019). Similarly, assistive technologies are clearly included under the umbrella of reasonable accommodations, and so attitudes item 5 required no modification from the original SACIE-R phrasing beyond the replacement of the term "regular classes." It should also be noted that all items on the revised attitudes subscale remained positively coded, as the subscales of sentiments and concerns are negatively coded and thus require reverse coding before any data treatment and analysis.

A pilot of the revised SACIE-R was administered as a Google Form in the fall of 2020 using convenience sampling (*N* = 16) by recruiting respondents from my personal professional network. No problems were identified with item phrasing, though one respondent caught a typo. Additional reflection on the responses led to the addition of an item asking about respondents' nationalities in the background section to capture the diversity of teachers' countries of origin in the case context, and in so doing support the idea that the findings have some generalizability to other contexts. This would also allow a comparison of different groups of ELTs, though the international profile of the group overall was expected to neutralize any differences between the local and foreign groups' scores on the modified SACIE-R. Additionally, consultation with my advisor and feedback from my advising committee prompted the addition of items on respondents' knowledge about national and global policy, as well as knowledge, confidence, and experience using inclusive practices to mirror similar items on CLT and reflective practice. The Word version of the final version of the modified SACIE-R used for the present research is included as Appendix A.

For the full study, respondents were recruited using a combination of convenience and snowball sampling by contacting local chapters and special interest groups of the Japan Association for Language Teaching and 61 postsecondary English language programs for which contact information could be located, as well as by posting to two relevant Facebook groups for ELTs in Japan. The survey, again administered as a Google Form, was open from September 23, 2021 to March 1, 2022, during which time 245 responses were submitted. All respondents consented to their participation, and survey data is stored in a secure, password-protected file that is further kept within a password-protected Drive account. This data will be destroyed upon the conference of my degree.

The final number of eligible respondents was 239, which exceeded the recommended range of 100-200 respondents for narrowly defined scales of 20 items or fewer (Clark & Watson, 1995; Haynes et al., 1999), but fell short of the target 300, which was originally set by following suggestions from DeVellis (2017) for such scales. According to Comrey (1988 as cited in DeVellis, 2017) a sample of 100 is poor, 200 is fair, 300 is good, 500 is very good, and 1,000 is excellent. However, both Clark and Watson (1995) and Tinsley and Tinsley (1987, as cited in DeVellis, 2017) recommend a response-to-item ratio of between five and ten to one, and so the number of respondents here surpassed this recommendation with a ratio of very nearly 16 to one. Compared to the 32 studies

identified that used some version of the SACIE-R (see Table 3.1), the present number of respondents is far from both the lowest and highest number of respondents represented in those studies: 12 of these studies had fewer respondents, with the lowest for a single data set being 35 (Hannah & Nolan, 2019), while 20 of these studies had more respondents, with the highest for a single data set being 1163 (Özokçu, 2018b). Considering these recommendations and precedents, the final number of respondents was deemed acceptable to provide insight into the current case context, as well as to contribute to the growing body of studies investigating teachers' sentiments, attitudes, and concerns about inclusive education.

Quantitative Data Treatment Plan

The following plan for quantitative data treatment was determined in advance of the actual data collection. All data was treated using the statistical software Stata. First, descriptive statistics of background items were to be compiled and reported. Second, Cronbach's alphas were to be calculated to check internal reliability of the SACIE-R. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was to then be performed to validate the instrument by confirming the three-factor structure and checking the factor loadings of the modified attitudes items. Depending on goodness of fit, some factors were to be removed from the model or have their error terms correlated. If model modification were to be required, Cronbach's alpha would be recalculated to check internal reliability. If any subscales did not have sufficient internal reliability after the CFA had been conducted, then the observable variables constituting that subscale would only be treated descriptively.

Additional descriptive statistical analysis to generate mean scores and standard deviations for the revised SACIE-R and its subscales would then be conducted. Next, the latent factors of inclusive practices self-efficacy, CLT self-efficacy, and reflective practice self-efficacy were to be extracted from the nine 5-point Likert scale items for respondents to report their knowledge of, confidence using, and experience using inclusive practices, CLT, and reflective practice.

Spearman's correlations were then to be calculated to gain a better overall view of the data and determine the strength and significance of relationships between all ordinal background variables, the latent factors for self-efficacies, and sentiments, attitudes, and concerns. Spearman's rho was selected over Pearson's in advance because the background

items on the 5-point Likert scale 4-point items on the SACIE-R should all be treated as ordinal and not continuous due to their small number and the possible disparity in respondents' variation in interpreting these values.

Depending on the strength of the Spearman's correlations between the three dependent variables, MANOVA or individual one-way ANOVAs between the categorical responses on gender, age by group, and nationality and the three subscales were to be calculated to determine if there was a significant difference on these subscales by the groups contained within these categories. If any statistically significant differences were detected, Tukey or Tukey-Kramer post hoc tests would be conducted based on the similarity or difference in group sizes. Independent one-way ANOVA tests were also to be conducted to determine if there were significant differences in mean scores on the SACIE-R subscales depending on how participants responded to four items about the presence of different kinds of institutional support at their HEI. Similarly, t-tests were to be used to determine if there were significant differences in mean scores for sentiments, attitudes, and concerns according to what qualifications, pre-service training, and in-service training respondents had received, as well as the nature of their current employment as reported in four items in which respondents could choose more than one response that applies to them (e.g., "What qualifications do you have? Check all that apply."). Based on the results of these t-tests and preceding Spearman's correlations, additional t-tests could then be conducted to determine if these categorical background variables had a meaningful association with other, ordinal background variables, for example reported confidence or experience teaching SWDs, as this could illuminate indirect paths through which background variables may predict respondents' sentiments, attitudes, or concerns about inclusive education.

Finally, and if its assumptions had not been violated, multiple linear regression analysis (MLR) was to be performed to determine if and to what extent the ordinal background variables and IPSE could predict sentiments, attitudes, and concerns. If any assumptions were violated, they would be handled individually based on the nature and degree of the violation, for example through variable transformation or deletion.

Qualitative Data Collection: Inclusive Practices in English Language Teaching

A subset of survey respondents was selected to be participants for the follow-up lesson observations and interviews on a volunteer basis. Of the 239 useable responses to

the SACIE-R, 51 respondents expressed willingness to participate in the qualitative data collection. Of those 51 respondents, 19 responded to the subsequent scheduling request, and 13 of those were ultimately able to participate. The remaining six either opted out of participation or were unable to participate due to scheduling conflicts or lack of administrative approval by their HEI to participate. These 13 lesson observations and interviews took place during the spring semester of the 2022 academic year in Japan (April-July, 2022). Importantly, there were no disclosed SWDs in any of the observed classes, as this stage of the research was concerned with determining which, if any, inclusive practices occurred as standard accessible practice as opposed to accommodations for identified SWDs.

Data was collected using the Inclusive Practices in English Language Teaching Observation Scale (IPELT, Appendix B), a new instrument modified from Sharma and Sokal's (2016) Inclusive Practices Classroom Observation Scale, the New Jersey Coalition for Inclusive Education's (2010) Quality Indicators for Effective Inclusive Education Guidebook, and inventoried inclusive practices from Smith (2018) and Grace and Gravestock (2009) to be contextually-sensitive to the TESOL field. It consists of 40 inclusive behaviors related to inclusive lesson design and delivery, 22 of which were determined to be directly observable. These 40 behaviors were also grouped into 10 pedagogical domains to help with subsequent analysis. These 40 behaviors and their domains are captured in Table 3.3 below, with the eight behaviors that overlap with principles of CLT indicated by an asterisk.

Table 3.3

IPELT Behaviors Grouped by Pedagogical Domain

Pedagogical Domain	**Inclusive Teaching Behaviors *overlaps with principle(s) of CLT**
Learning environment	- Arranges the classroom with physical and sensory impairments in mind (e.g. by providing enough space to move and by minimizing distraction)
	- Creates a safe learning environment where students feel encouraged to take risks*
	- Uses available technology in lessons to enhance student learning when appropriate
Classroom management	- Has established standards of conduct and they are clear to students
	- Uses a number of strategies to prevent behavioral disruption
Materials	- Uses appropriate fonts and formatting in materials
	- Uses multisensory and multimodal materials and tasks during activities (e.g. by using visual organizers and manipulatives)

Task organization	- Routinizes instructions and task structures
	- Designs learning experiences that connect new learning to prior learning
	- Scaffolds activities to help students meet learning objectives*
	- Relates learning activities to students' personal experiences (e.g., by providing rich, meaningful input)*
	- Links different skills in and across activities*
	- Provides reasonable time allocations to achieve the learning goals and adjusts if students need more or less time
	- Allows collaborative pair- and group-work*
	- Forms small groups of students who differ in ability and interests to work in joint learning activities
Communication	- Articulates high expectations for students
	- Presents clear criteria for activities
	- Modifies directions to meet the diverse learning needs of students (e.g., rephrasing, giving written and spoken directions, modeling or providing an example)
	- Provides alternate explanations or examples when students are confused
	- Asks effective questions that match instructional goals
	- Provides equal opportunities for students to ask questions
	- Responds appropriately to students' questions/comments
Assessment	- Uses assessment outcomes to inform instruction
	- Uses a variety of assessment strategies to measure student progress
	- Makes assessment accommodations when necessary
Student development	- Tolerates learner error*
	- Recognizes and respects affective factors of learning*
	- Provides frequent and appropriate feedback during class activities*
	- Encourages students to reflect on what they have learned
	- Helps learners develop learning strategies and metacognition
	- Uses strategies to motivate learners
Teacher development	- Collaborates with colleagues to share best practices
	- Reflects on teaching with regard for individual student needs
Differentiation	- Differentiates learning materials and tasks
	- Selects curricular materials and resources that align with student learning goals
	- Plans instruction to address students' individual strengths and weaknesses
	- Plans instruction to address interests of students
Specific consideration for SWDs	- Considers the possibility of SWDs in their classroom, and the barriers they face
	- Takes specific pedagogical approaches to accommodate SWDs
	- Considers institutional/national/global policy guidance on accommodating SWDs

Data on the presence of these behaviors was captured and rated using the IPELT during direct lesson observations, while the remaining 18 items were captured and rated through a set of structured questions during post-observation interviews. Eschewing the 5-point scale in Sharma and Sokal (2016), all 40 items on the IPELT were rated on a 4-point scale for subsequent magnitude coding after the New Jersey Quality Indicators (New Jersey

Coalition for Inclusive Education, 2010) for ease of use and to reduce rater drift over time, as there was concern that the rater's, which is to say my, understanding of the differences between "infrequently" and "sometimes" and between "sometimes" and "frequently" were more prone to drift over multiple observations compared to the difference between "partially" and "substantially".

In addition to rating the prevalence of these behaviors, detailed field notes were kept on each teacher's actions throughout the lesson. These notes took two concurrent forms. First of all, teaching actions or lesson components that directly related to one of the 40 inclusive behaviors alongside that behavior were noted, for example, how lesson materials were formatted for behavior number two. Secondly, a running notation of each teacher's actions throughout the lesson was kept in an open notes section so that these could later be coded and analyzed for possible emergent patterns or themes. In some cases, clarifying questions related to the 22 observable behaviors were asked during the post-observation conference before rating a behavior.

Additional, semi-structured interview questions during the post-observation interview were added to the IPELT scale to help answer the research questions, though responses to items 23-40 of the IPELT also helped inform the stated research questions. This arrangement of lesson observations and post-observation conferences (POCs) was designed to follow the critical incident technique (Flanagan, 1954), wherein each lesson would be regarded as the central *activity* composed of various *critical incidents*, with the 40 inclusive behaviors regarded as *critical behaviors* that were in alignment with the central *aim* of determining the inclusive character of each participants' instruction. This method of data collection was selected for two reasons. First was its ease and flexibility of implementation, especially with regard for extending beyond a behavioral focus to account for the cognitive and affective dimensions of activities, as well as its compatibility with grounded theory (Hughes, 2007). Secondly, the interviews were conducted as POCs because this was assumed to be a familiar form of reflection on teaching for most ELTs that also has a well-documented history of prior use for research inquiries into teaching practice within the TESOL field, including the use of critical incident technique (Farrell, 2018; Howard & Donaghue, 2015).

Informed consent was gained from all participants. Hard copies of consent forms and the IPELT field notes are stored in a locked file cabinet in my office, which is also locked

unless I am there. Transcripts of all field notes and interviews are stored in password-protected files within a password-protected Drive account. All data will be destroyed upon the conference of my degree.

Qualitative Data Treatment Plan

The following data treatment plan was determined in advance of the actual data collection. Field notes were to be collected during the direct lesson observations and then transcribed along with participants' responses to the POC questions. These field notes and POC transcripts would then be thematically coded and analyzed following Braun and Clarke (2006). First cycle coding would primarily be done deductively using a combination of structural and provisional coding; a start list (Saldaña 2021; Appendix C) of 71 preliminary codes was created to investigate the stated research questions. Codes related to the first research question were derived from a review of pertinent literature, including 40 codes corresponding with the critical/inclusive behaviors that comprise the IPELT. Magnitude coding (Saldaña, 2021) was used for these 40 codes to generate averages across the group of 13 teachers and identify which behaviors were more or less common. Following Saldaña's (2021) recommendation, all 71 codes were conceptually grouped into four categories, each with three subcategories, to aid with coding application and analysis.

All 71 preliminary codes were then applied to the lesson observation and POC pilot (N = 1) to determine their suitability for use. These field notes and corresponding POC transcript were then analyzed using the data analysis software Dedoose. As a result, six codes were added to the codebook using In Vivo coding (Saldaña, 2021) of the pilot. For example, when the pilot participant mentioned a specific teaching pedagogy (e.g., project-based learning), contextual factor (e.g., faculty needs), or instructional strategies to support learning for SWDs (e.g., L1 use) not captured in the original list, it was determined that such responses had a high enough likelihood of recurring in the full study that they should be added to the start list. This treatment also revealed that all the initial structured interview questions elicited codes related to all research questions, but that more detail could be gained about respondents' conceptions of inclusive practices, CLT, and reflective practice through additional semi-structured questioning. It was also determined through the pilot of the IPELT and POC interview questions that there was scope to inquire about respondents' perceived needs for training and support, and so a question was added to this effect. The

final version of the IPELT and structured post-observation interview questions appears as Appendix B.

Field notes for the 22 observable behaviors were to be thematically coded and analyzed using the constant comparative method (Glaser, 1965), meaning that each new code application could be compared to previous instances of the same code and follow recommendations from Braun and Clarke (2006) to determine if there were any commonalities in how these behaviors were or were not realized. All POC interviews were to be audio recorded and transcribed using the voice-to-text application Otter. The transcripts would then be manually revised to check for errors in the automatic transcription. Field notes and POC interviews for each participant would then be combined into text files for analysis in Dedoose, which was selected in favor of TAMS Analyzer following the pilot. Simultaneous coding (Saldaña, 2021) would also be employed, as responses to several questions were related to observable inclusive practices. In other words, simultaneous coding was expected to provide insight into participants' teaching choices, for example by analyzing code co-occurrence between the 40 behaviors on the IPELT and concerns identified by participants through their POCs. In Vivo coding was also expected to continue during first-cycle coding. This indeed turned out to be the case, resulting in the addition of another 38 codes. There were, therefore, 115 codes used in total.

Axial coding was to be employed for second cycle coding because it allows relational analysis of first cycle categories and subcategories, as well as their properties and contextual dimensions (Boeije, 2010; Charmaz, 2014; Saldaña, 2021). This was deemed especially important given that magnitude coding from the IPELT, field notes from the classroom observation, and POC interview data would all be synthesized for first cycle coding. It was hoped, then, that axial coding would allow for reorganization of the initial codes in order to define clearer parameters for these codes and their relationships with each other in service of answering the stated research questions during analysis.

Chapter IV: Findings

Quantitative Results

Of the 239 eligible respondents, 94 (39.3%) were female, 136 (56.9%) were male, three (1.3%) were nonbinary, and five (2.1%) preferred not to say; four (1.7%) were aged 20-29, 60 (25.1%) were aged 30-39, 70 (29.3%) were aged 40-49, 74 (30.1%) were aged 50-59, and 40 (16.7%) were 60 or older. The respondents also represented a wide diversity of nationalities, with the greatest representation coming from the United States (*n* = 102, 42.7%). There were also 49 respondents from the United Kingdom (20.5%), 26 from Japan (10.9%), 18 from Canada (7.5%), 15 from Australia (6.3%), eight from New Zealand (3.3%), six from Ireland (2.5%), and three or fewer from Sweden, Spain, South Africa, Russia, Myanmar, Italy, the Philippines, Mexico, Mauritius, Malaysia, Madagascar, Korea, Indonesia, India, France, Colombia, Greece, and Israel. Fifteen respondents reported dual- or multi-citizenship. Additional descriptive results of the background section of the SACIE-R are summarized in Tables 4.1 through 4.6.

Table 4.1

Qualifications Held by Respondents (Multiple Responses Possible)

Qualification	***n***	**Percentage**
TEFL/TESL Certification or Diploma (e.g., CELTA, DELTA, DipTESOL)	81	33.9%
MA in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar	129	54.0%
MA in Education or similar	35	14.6%
Other MA	48	20.1%
PhD/EdD in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar	35	14.6%
PhD/EdD in Education or similar	17	7.1%
Other PhD	18	7.5%
None of the above	9	3.8%

Table 4.2

Reported Pre-service Training to Teach SWDs (Multiple Responses Possible)

Type of training	***n***	**Percentage**
TEFL/TESL Certification or Diploma (e.g., CELTA, DELTA, DipTESOL)	6	2.5%

MA in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar	14	5.9%
MA in Education or similar	15	6.3%
Other MA	1	0.4%
PhD/EdD in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar	3	1.3%
PhD/EdD in Education or similar	4	1.7%
Other PhD	0	0%
Did not receive training to teach SWDs when receiving any of the listed qualifications	203	84.9%

Table 4.3

Reported Ongoing Professional Development to Teach SWDs (Multiple Responses Possible)

Type of professional development	***n***	**Percentage**
Conducted within the job/workplace	52	21.8%
Attending conference presentations, workshops, or talks	49	20.5%
Engaging in a community of practice, e.g., a special interest group dedicated to serving SWDs	17	7.1%
Doing independent reading or research	76	31.2%
Has not received any such training	108	45.2%

Table 4.4

Reported Type of Employment (Multiple Responses Possible)

	Public HEI	**Private HEI**
Full-time	*n* = 59 (24.7%)	*n* = 129 (54.0%)
Part-time	*n* = 30 (12.6%)	*n* = 52 (21.8%)

Table 4.5

Reported Awareness of Institutional Support

Type of support offered by employer(s)	**Yes**	**No**	**Don't know**
Training on how to teach SWDs	*n* = 36 (15.1%)	*n* = 115 (48.1%)	*n* = 88 (36.8%)
Office or center for supporting SWDs	*n* = 139 (58.2%)	*n* = 34 (14.2%)	*n* = 66 (27.6%)

Information or guidelines on how to teach SWDs enrolled in respondent's classes	*n* = 154 (64.4%)	*n* = 86 (36.0%)	*n* = 68 (28.5%)
Information or guidelines on how to teach SWDs in general	*n* = 185 (77.4%)	*n* = 88 (36.8%)	*n* = 97 (40.6%)

All of the items in Table 4.6 used 5-point Likert scales, and so the midway point on the scale is 3. The first item spanned from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree," while all of the remaining items spanned from "very low" to "very high".

Table 4.6

Mean Scores of 5-point Likert Scale Background Items on the SACIE-R (N = 239)

Item	***M***	***SD***
I have had considerable interactions with a person with a disability.	3.55	1.32
My knowledge of local legislation or policy (e.g., as required by the Japanese government) as it pertains to students with disabilities is:	1.74	1.05
My knowledge of global legislation or policy (e.g., as recommended by the United Nations) as it pertains to students with disabilities is:	1.94	1.07
My level of confidence in teaching students with disabilities is:	2.71	1.05
My level of experience teaching a student with a disability is:	2.69	1.11
My knowledge of inclusive practices is:	2.73	1.17
My level of confidence using inclusive practices is:	2.62	1.17
My level of experience using inclusive practices is:	2.48	1.17
My knowledge of communicative language teaching (CLT) is:	4.03	1.18
My level of confidence using a communicative approach is:	4.11	1.12
My level of experience using a communicative approach is:	4.14	1.12
My knowledge of reflective practice is:	3.71	1.19
My level of confidence doing reflective practice is:	3.61	1.20
My level of experience doing reflective practice is:	3.55	1.25

Three latent variables were extracted from background items. These were inclusive practices self-efficacy (IPSE), CLT self-efficacy (CLTSE), and reflective practice self-efficacy (RPSE), which were composed of responses to survey items gauging teachers' self-reported

knowledge of, confidence using, and experience using inclusive practices, CLT, and reflective practice (see Table 4.6) respectively. Cronbach's alpha values for these three factors were calculated to be .938 (IPSE), .966 (CLTSE), and .974 (RPSE). The construct of self-efficacy for these three teaching methodologies was therefore deemed valid and reliable for the present research purposes, though the items used to determine these factors appear to be redundant. Additionally, it was necessary to combine these items into latent factors to solve for multicollinearity in the MLR, as items related to each factor were all very strongly and significantly correlated (see Table 4.7). However, these combined factors were found to have poor goodness of fit, as the chi-squared value of the model was relatively high (χ^2 = 42.93) and statistically significant (p = .01). The mean values for each self-efficacy construct were 2.61 (SD = 1.04) for IPSE, 4.09 (SD = 1.06) for CLTSE, and 3.62 (SD = 1.12) for RPSE.

Table 4.7

Spearman's Correlations (r = 237) of Items Comprising the IPSE, CLTSE, and RPSE Latent Factors

	Inclusive practices knowledge (1)	**Inclusive practices confidence (2)**	**Inclusive practices experience (3)**	**CLT knowledge (4)**	**CLT confidence (5)**	**CLT experience (6)**	**Reflective practice knowledge (7)**	**Reflective practice confidence (8)**	**Reflective practice experience (9)**
1	1.000								
2	.842***	1.000							
	.000								
3	.83***	.835***	1.000						
	.000	.000							
4	.188**	.227***	.193**	1.000					
	.004	.000	.003						
5	.168**	.225**	.195**	.878***	1.000				
	.009	.001	.003	.000					
6	.18**	.227***	.21**	.832***	.904***	1.000			
	.005	.000	.001	.000	.000				
7	.224	.223**	.249***	.58***	.574***	.529***	1.000		
	.001**	.001	.000	.000	.000	.000			
8	.202	.237***	.249***	.577***	.599***	.54***	.931***	1.000	
	.002**	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000		
9	.221**	.267***	.297***	.533***	.544***	.516***	.883***	.963***	1.000
	.001	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000	

*p = .1 or below

**p = .05 or below

***p = .000

Additional descriptive statistical analysis was then conducted to generate mean scores and standard deviations for the total SACIE-R and its subscales. As reverse coding was performed on all observed variables for the constructs of sentiments and concerns, all subscales became positively geared. Therefore, any mean score above 2.5 for both individual items and subscale averages can be viewed as positive in terms of the sample's views on inclusive education for SWDs. The mean score of the total SACIE-R was 2.99 (*SD* = 0.98). Regarding the subscales, the mean was 3.23 (*SD* = 0.92) for sentiments, 3.24 (*SD* = 0.84) for attitudes, and 2.59 (*SD* = 0.92) for concerns. It can be said, then, that the respondents in the data set had exceptionally positive sentiments towards persons with disabilities, as well as exceptionally positive views about their inclusion in English language education. However, they were more neutral regarding their concerns about inclusive education.

As Table 4.8 shows, the only two items with mean values below the midpoint were concerns item 2 ("I am concerned that it will be difficult to give appropriate attention to all students in an inclusive classroom") and concerns item 5 ("I am concerned that I do not have knowledge and skills required to teach students with disabilities"), the latter of which was also the lowest scoring item overall. It should be noted again, however, that concerns items 4 and 5 were removed from the model due to their low factor loading and to improve goodness of fit. Bearing in mind that the concerns subscale was reverse coded, these scores reveal that survey respondents in the current data sample were most concerned about their own lack of knowledge and skills to teach inclusively, followed by their inability to give adequate attention to all students in an inclusive class. Respondents were somewhat neutral regarding their concerns about an increasing workload and SWDs being accepted by their peers, and less concerned about additional stress if they were to teach SWDs.

Table 4.8

Mean Scores of Individual Items on the SACIE-R

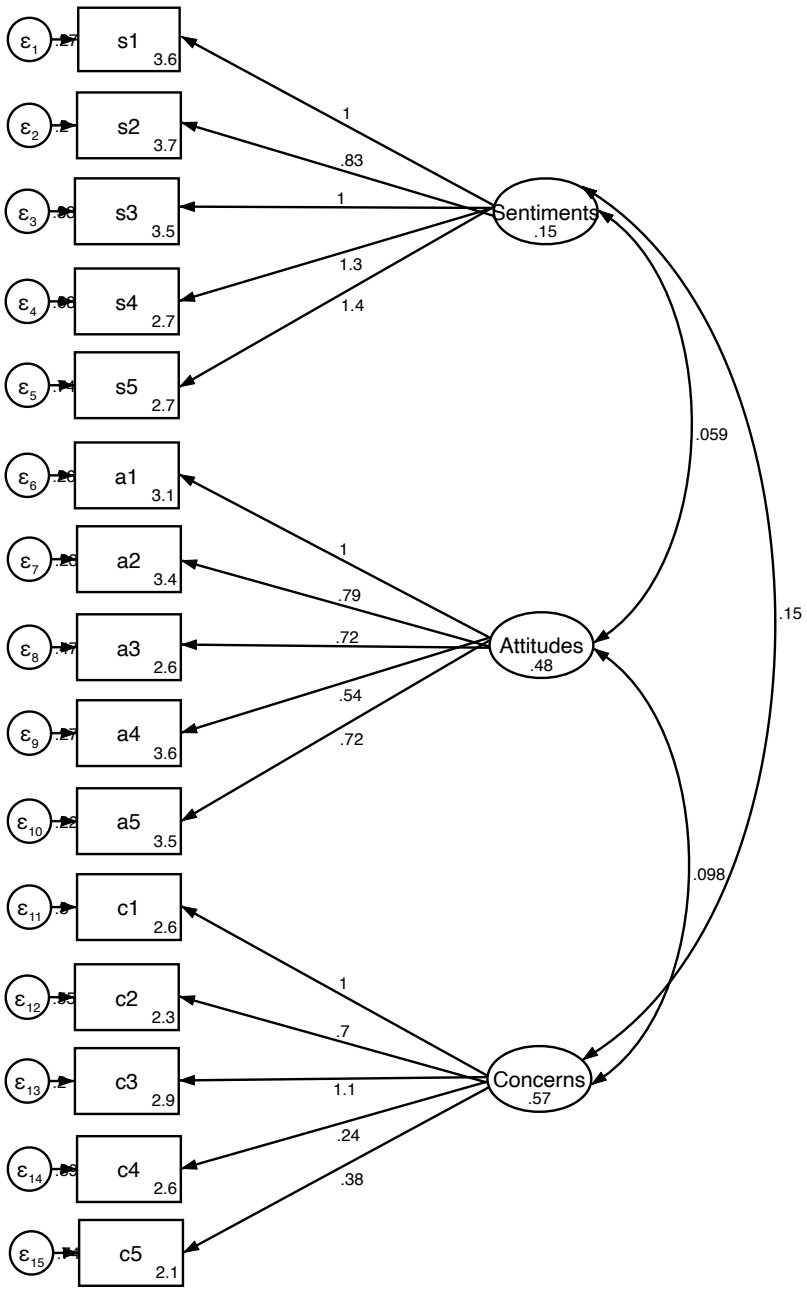
Factor and item number	**Item**	***M***	***SD***
Sentiments 1	I find it difficult to overcome my initial shock when meeting people with severe physical disabilities.	3.55	0.65

Sentiments 2	I am afraid to look a person with a disability straight in the face.	3.74	0.55
Sentiments 3	I tend to make contacts with people with disabilities brief and I finish them as quickly as possible.	3.46	0.7
Sentiments 4	I would feel terrible if I had a disability.	2.67	0.97
Sentiments 5	I dread the thought that I could eventually end up with a disability.	2.72	1.02
Attitudes 1	Students who have excessive difficulty comprehending English-language input should receive accommodations in their English-language classes.	3.13	0.86
Attitudes 2	Students who have excessive difficulty producing English-language output should receive accommodations in their English-language classes.	3.38	0.73
Attitudes 3	Students who are inattentive should receive accommodations in their English-language classes.	2.61	0.85
Attitudes 4	Students who require communicative technologies (e.g., Braille and sign language) should receive accommodations in their English-language classes.	3.63	0.64
Attitudes 5	Students who disclose a disability to their school should receive accommodations in their English language classes.	3.47	0.68
Concerns 1	I am concerned that my workload will increase if I have students with disabilities in my class.	2.57	0.94
Concerns 2	I am concerned that it will be difficult to give appropriate attention to all students in an inclusive classroom.	2.27	0.91
Concerns 3	I am concerned that I will be more stressed if I have students with disabilities in my class.	2.92	0.92
Concerns 4	I am concerned that students with disabilities will not be accepted by the rest of the class.	2.56	0.96
Concerns 5	I am concerned that I do not have knowledge and skills required to teach students with disabilities.	2.11	0.91

Cronbach's alpha for the total scale was calculated as .761, with the subscales of sentiments, attitudes, and concerns measuring as .675, .816, and .684 respectively. All of these values were deemed satisfactory, though CFA still needed to be performed to validate the instrument by confirming the three-factor structure. The results of the initial CFA appear in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1

Initial Confirmatory Factor Analysis of the Modified SACIE-R

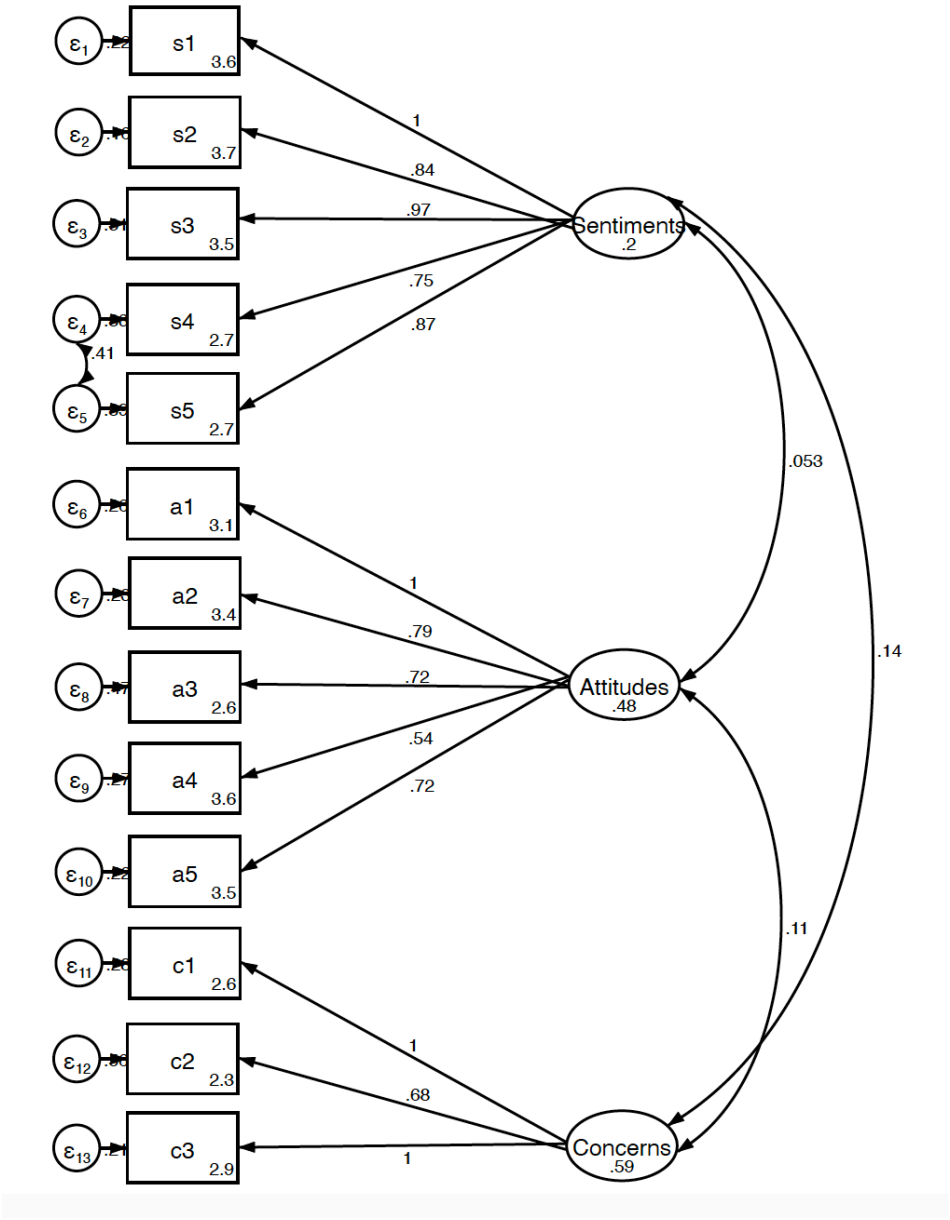


All fifteen factor loadings in the initial CFA were statistically significant ($p < .001$). However, there were some indicators of a poor fit of the initial model to the data. These were a high root mean squared error of approximation value (.085, $p < .001$), low comparative fit index (.853), low Tucker-Lewis index (.823), and high coefficient of determination (.992). Several measures were therefore taken to improve goodness of fit. Emulating Kis (2016), the error terms between sentiments items 4 and 5, which have a strong conceptual relation and were treated as separate estimators in a 4-factor model by Aiello et al. (2017), were correlated to improve goodness of fit ($r = .4$). This slightly improved goodness of fit, $\chi 2\ (87) = 186.786$ ($p < .001$), RMSEA = .070 ($p < .001$), CFI = .853, TLI = .823, SRMR = .084, CD = .992, which could now be said to be borderline acceptable (Kline, 2015; Whittaker & Schumacker, 2022).

Concerns item 4 ("I am concerned that students with disabilities will not be accepted by the rest of the class") accounted for the least amount of variance in the data set ($R^2 = .034$). This was the only R-squared value below 0.1, which was set as the acceptable threshold following Ozili (2022). Of the five items measuring the latent factor concerns, item 4 is also the only item on the SACIE-R that does not include any agency on the part of the teacher, and so is conceptually unrelated to the other observed variables. It also had the lowest factor loading (.24) on the entire scale, and so was removed following Hair et al. (2018), who recommend .4 as a factor loading threshold for retaining items. This removal resulted in another incremental improvement in goodness of fit, $\chi 2\ (87) = 159.491$ ($p < .001$), RMSEA = .071 ($p = .013$), CFI = .914, TLI = .893, SRMR = .082, CD = .992. Concerns item 5 was removed for its new factor loading of .37. This resulted in acceptable goodness of fit, $\chi 2\ (87) = 132.769$ ($p < .001$), RMSEA = .07 ($p = .022$), CFI = .926, TLI = .905, SRMR = .077, CD = .992 considering the sample size (Ainur et al., 2017; Hair et al., 2018). The final model is represented in Figure 4.2.

Figure 4.2

Final Confirmatory Factor Analysis of the Modified SACIE-R



Finally, Cronbach's alphas of the final version were recalculated. These values were .675 for sentiments, .816 for attitudes, .667 for concerns, and .785 for the total scale. Compared to other identified studies that used the SACIE-R (see Table 3.1), these values are at the midpoint of reported alphas for both the total scale and the subscales of sentiments and concerns. The alpha for the attitudes subscale is higher than average, but as has been noted previously, the items related to this factor were modified from the original SACIE-R to fit the present research purposes. Regardless, this administration of the SACIE-R was deemed to have sufficient inter-item reliability and goodness of fit for the present data set. Remaining statistical analysis, starting with a Spearman's correlation analysis between Likert-scale variables and the three subscales (Table 4.9), could then be conducted.

Table 4.9

Spearman's Correlations (r = 237) of All Likert-scale Variables and Latent Factors

	Interaction (1)	Knowledge of local laws (2)	Knowledge of global policy (3)	Confidence teaching SWDs (4)	Experience teaching SWDs (5)	IPSE (6)	CLTSE (7)	RPSE (8)	Sentiments (9)	Attitudes (10)	Concerns (11)
1	1.0000										
2	.27***	1.000									
	.000										
3	.272***	.563***	1.000								
	.000	.000									
4	.376***	.386***	.394***	1.000							
	.000	.000	.000								
5	.541***	.335***	.35***	.558***	1.000						
	.000	.000	.000	.000							
6	.444***	.407***	.532***	.566***	.527***	1.000					
	.000	.000	.000	.000	.000						
7	.078	.069	.044	.134**	.113**	.216**	1.000				
	.228	.288	.496	.038	.08	.001					
8	.15**	.071	.205**	.134**	.091	.263***	.582***	1.000			
	.021	.278	.002	.039	.159	.000	.000				
9	.285***	.11*	.221**	.178**	.228***	.294***	.156**	.132**	1.000		
	.000	.09	.001	.006	.000	.000	.016	.042			
10	.084	.089	.07	.14**	.125*	.144**	.084	.086	.242***	1.000	
	.195	.173	.283	.03	.054	.026	.195	.184	.000		
11	.137**	.217**	.225***	.225**	.179**	.258***	-.049	.01	.398***	.145**	1.000
	.035	.001	.000	.001	.006	.000	.454	.884	.000	.025	

*p = .1 or below

**p = .05 or below

***p = .000

In order to preclude multicollinearities introduced through the creation of dummy variables, independent one-way ANOVA tests were conducted for the categorical variables of gender, age by group, and nationality. Subsequent to running these tests, all responses of "prefer not to say" to gender were removed, L-R plots were used to screen the independent variables for outliers, and Levene's tests were run to check for homogeneity of variance. One significant outlier was identified in age group and nationality, though the Levene's tests for attitudes by nationality were all statistically significant (WO $p < .001$; W50 $p < .001$; W10 $p < .001$), and so no ANOVA was run between these two variables. Of the 16 independent ANOVA conducted, one was statistically significant: concerns by gender (Table 4.10).

Table 4.10

Independent One-way ANOVA Results of Respondents' Sentiments, Attitudes, and Concerns by Gender, Age group, and Nationality

Variable	**Df**	**F**	***p***
Sentiments with outlier present			
- Gender	(2, 231)	1.96	.143
- Age group with outlier present	(4, 234)	1.48	.211
- Age group with outlier removed	(4, 233)	1.63	.168
- Nationality with outlier present	(31, 206)	1.27	.164
- Nationality with outlier removed	(31, 205)	1.25	.156
Attitudes with outlier present			
- Gender	(3, 234)	1.81	.166
- Age group with outlier present	(4, 233)	1.03	.394
- Age group with outlier removed	(4, 234)	1.05	.384
Concerns with outlier present			
- Gender	(2, 231)	4.14	.017
- Age group with outlier present	(4, 233)	0.76	.549
- Age group with outlier removed	(4, 234)	0.76	.552
- Nationality with outlier present	(31, 205)	1.27	.166
- Nationality with outlier removed	(31, 206)	1.27	.167

Due to the difference in group sizes, a Tukey-Kramer post hoc test was then run. Based on a Tukey-Kramer's value of 3.37, there was no statistically significant difference between female and male respondents or between female and non-binary respondents.

However, non-binary respondents' mean score on the concerns subscale was found to be larger (*MD* = 0.94) and statistically significant (*HSD* = 4.0) compared to male respondents.

To investigate the role that the presence and teachers' awareness of various types of institutional support might play in relation to sentiments, attitudes, and concerns, independent ANOVA tests were also conducted for the four background items that asked about such support. In the background portion of the SACIE-R, respondents were asked if any of their institutions offered faculty training on how to teach SWDs, had a support office for SWDs, provided information or guidelines on how to teach SWDs enrolled in their classes, and provided information or guidelines on how to teach SWDs in general. Before running these tests, the independent variables were screened for outliers using L-R plots and Levene's test were run to check for homogeneity of variance. Sentiments by faculty training failed its Levene's test (WO p = .007; W50 p = .013; W10 p = .011), as did sentiments by the general guidance variable (WO p = .002; W50 p = .014; W10 p = .003). Results of the 10 ANOVA that could be conducted are summarized in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11

Independent One-way ANOVA Results of Respondents Sentiments, Attitudes, and Concerns by Presence and Awareness of Institutional Support Type

Variable	**Df**	**F**	***p***
Sentiments			
- HEI provides faculty training to teach SWDs	(2, 236)	0.5	.609
- HEI provides guidance for teaching enrolled SWDs	(2, 236)	0.85	.428
Attitudes			
- HEI provides faculty training to teach SWDs	(2, 236)	0.4	.67
- HEI has a support office for SWDs	(2, 236)	1.31	.272
- HEI provides guidance for teaching enrolled SWDs	(2, 236)	1.78	.171
- HEI provides general guidance for teaching SWDs	(2, 236)	0.27	.766
Concerns			
- HEI provides faculty training to teach SWDs	(2, 236)	0.08	.919
- HEI has a support office for SWDs	(2, 236)	0.08	.92
- HEI provides guidance for teaching enrolled SWDs	(2, 236)	0.48	.622
- HEI provides general guidance for teaching SWDs	(2, 236)	0.12	.886

Welch's independent samples t-tests were then conducted for each possible answer to the four categorical background questions that allowed for multiple responses. The four

pertinent background items asked respondents to report what qualifications they held (e.g., MA in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar), whether or not they received training to teach SWDs when receiving each qualification held, what forms of ongoing professional development to teach SWDs they had done (e.g., attending conference presentations or workshops), and the nature of their current employment (i.e., full- or part-time at a public of private HEI). For the second of these four items, an additional Welch's t-test was conducted to distinguish between those who never received pre-service training to teach SWDs and those who received it while receiving at least one qualification. This was done due to the small number of respondents who indicated they received such training for discrete qualifications. Welch's t-tests were selected over traditional t-tests due to the unequal sizes between each group and on the assumption that the standard deviations for each group could not be equal. The findings from these t-tests are summarized in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12

Welch's T-tests by Qualifications, Pre-service Training, Type of Ongoing Professional Development, and Type of Employment for Sentiments

Group	Df	Mean diff.	t-statistic	*p*
Qualification held: TEFL/TESL Certification or Diploma (*n* = 81)	153.55	.022	0.409	.683
Qualification held: MA in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar (*n* = 129)	216.622	-.122	-0.239	.811
Qualification held: MA in Education or similar (*n* = 35)	50.523	-.017	-0.262	.794
Qualification held: Other MA (*n* = 48)	64.832	-.027	-0.381	.705
Qualification held: PhD/EdD in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar (*n* = 35)	45.685	.073	0.998	.323
Qualification held: PhD/EdD in Education or similar (*n* = 17)	19.47	-.013	-0.143	.887
Qualification held: Other PhD (*n* = 18)	21.798	-.063	-0.784	.441
Received training to teach SWDs while receiving a TEFL/TESL Certification or Diploma (*n* = 5)	6.748	-.264	-2.336	.054
Received training to teach SWDs receiving an MA in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar (*n* = 13)	22.062	-.226	-3.308	.003
Received training to teach SWDs receiving an MA in Education or similar (*n* = 15)	34.899	-.183	-1.627	.113
Received training to teach SWDs receiving a PhD/EdD in TESOL, Applied Linguistics or similar (*n* = 10)	11.593	.024	0.12	.907
Received training to teach SWDs receiving a PhD/EdD in Education or similar (*n* = 2)	14.787	-.397	-3.686	.002
Received training to teach SWDs receiving any listed qualification (*n* = 36)	53.024	-.123	-1.923	.06

Received training to teach SWDs conducted within the job/workplace (*n* = 51)	91.011	-.075	-1.342	.183
Received training to teach SWDs by attending conference presentations, workshops, or talks (*n* = 77)	217.797	-.223	-4.993	.000
Received training to teach SWDs by engaging in a community of practice (*n* = 37)	88.608	-.199	-4.3	.000
Received training to teach SWDs by doing independent reading or research (*n* = 85)	216.403	-.166	-3.498	.001
Employed full-time at a public HEI (*n* = 59)	106.837	-.009	-0.167	.872
Employed full-time at a private HEI (*n* = 129)	226.017	-.011	-0.219	.827
Employed part-time at a public HEI (*n* = 30)	35.879	.034	0.396	.695
Employed part-time at a private HEI (*n* = 52)	73.81	.081	1.228	.224

Table 4.13

Welch's T-tests by Qualifications, Pre-service Training, Type of Ongoing Professional Development, and Type of Employment for Attitudes

Group	**Df**	**Mean diff.**	**t-statistic**	***p***
Qualification held: TEFL/TESL Certification or Diploma (*n* = 81)	138.636	.121	1.306	.194
Qualification held: MA in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar (*n* = 129)	193.675	-.169	-1.993	.048
Qualification held: MA in Education or similar (*n* = 35)	45.793	.093	0.76	.451
Qualification held: Other MA (*n* = 48)	61.546	.213	1.749	.085
Qualification held: PhD/EdD in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar (*n* = 35)	52.059	-.032	-0.31	.761
Qualification held: PhD/EdD in Education or similar (*n* = 17)	19.47	-.013	-0.143	.887
Qualification held: Other PhD (*n* = 18)	21.798	-.063	-0.784	.441
Received training to teach SWDs while receiving a TEFL/TESL Certification or Diploma (*n* = 5)	4.585	-.348	-0.908	.409
Received training to teach SWDs receiving an MA in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar (*n* = 13)	16.111	.026	0.485	.634
Received training to teach SWDs receiving an MA in Education or similar (*n* = 15)	34.984	-.629	-3.183	.003
Received training to teach SWDs receiving a PhD/EdD in TESOL, Applied Linguistics or similar (*n* = 10)	25.353	-.424	-2.414	.023
Received training to teach SWDs receiving a PhD/EdD in Education or similar (*n* = 2)	8.99	.747	-2.729	.023
Received training to teach SWDs receiving any listed qualification (*n* = 36)	56.256	-.174	-1.726	.09
Received training to teach SWDs conducted within the job/workplace (*n* = 51)	94.583	-.075	-0.823	.413
Received training to teach SWDs by attending conference presentations, workshops, or talks (*n* = 77)	178.857	-.213	-2.59	.01
Received training to teach SWDs by engaging in a community of practice (*n* = 37)	55.862	-.185	-1.776	.081

Received training to teach SWDs by doing independent reading or research (*n* = 85)	206.126	-.27	-3.366	.001
Employed full-time at a public HEI (*n* = 59)	105.587	-.119	-1.279	.204
Employed full-time at a private HEI (*n* = 129)	213.72	-.026	-0.313	.755
Employed part-time at a public HEI (*n* = 30)	37.215	.018	0.14	.889
Employed part-time at a private HEI (*n* = 52)	67.776	.252	2.14	.036

Table 4.14

Welch's T-tests by Qualifications, Pre-service Training, Type of Ongoing Professional Development, and Type of Employment for Concerns

Group	**Df**	**Mean diff.**	**t-statistic**	***p***
Qualification held: TEFL/TESL Certification or Diploma (*n* = 81)	146.162	.192	1.977	.056
Qualification held: MA in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar (*n* = 129)	226.39	.186	2.029	.044
Qualification held: MA in Education or similar (*n* = 35)	46.14	-.022	-0.162	.872
Qualification held: Other MA (*n* = 48)	68.881	-.11	-0.917	.362
Qualification held: PhD/EdD in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar (*n* = 35)	47.206	.07	0.545	.588
Qualification held: PhD/EdD in Education or similar (*n* = 17)	18.32	-.218	-1.126	.275
Qualification held: Other PhD (*n* = 18)	19.895	-.253	-1.407	.175
Received training to teach SWDs while receiving a TEFL/TESL Certification or Diploma (*n* = 5)	5.056	-.469	-1.505	.192
Received training to teach SWDs receiving an MA in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar (*n* = 13)	13.839	-.562	-2.341	.035
Received training to teach SWDs receiving an MA in Education or similar (*n* = 15)	30.384	-.257	-1.015	.318
Received training to teach SWDs receiving a PhD/EdD in TESOL, Applied Linguistics or similar (*n* = 10)	19.5	-.539	-2.214	.039
Received training to teach SWDs receiving a PhD/EdD in Education or similar (*n* = 2)	15.887	-.841	-4.084	.001
Received training to teach SWDs receiving any listed qualification (*n* = 36)	46.303	-.399	-2.968	.005
Received training to teach SWDs conducted within the job/workplace (*n* = 51)	77.738	-.03	-0.261	.795
Received training to teach SWDs by attending conference presentations, workshops, or talks (*n* = 77)	150.171	-.303	-3.15	.002
Received training to teach SWDs by engaging in a community of practice (*n* = 37)	52.367	-.25	-2.059	.045
Received training to teach SWDs by doing independent reading or research (*n* = 85)	176.475	-.265	-2.826	.005
Employed full-time at a public HEI (*n* = 59)	98.155	.066	0.614	.541
Employed full-time at a private HEI (*n* = 129)	228.728	-.011	-0.119	.906
Employed part-time at a public HEI (*n* = 30)	40.802	-.189	-1.492	.144
Employed part-time at a private HEI (*n* = 52)	82.817	.183	1.665	.1

Based on these results, additional Welch's t-tests were performed using other Likert-scale items collected in the background portion of the survey to determine if respondents who received certain types of training had meaningfully different responses to those items, as well as one discrete item from the SACIE-R (concerns item 5: "I am concerned that I do not have knowledge and skills required to teach students with disabilities."). Items were selected for analysis based on the Spearman's correlations summarized in Table 4.9, the results of Tables 4.12-4.14, and a review of relevant literature. These results are summarized in Tables 4.15-4.19.

Table 4.15

Welch's T-tests by Selected Training and Type of Professional Development on Knowledge of Local Legislation and Policy on Teaching SWDs

Group	Df	Mean diff.	t-statistic	*p*
Qualification held: MA in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar (*n* = 129)	224.858	.137	1.172	.242
Received training to teach SWDs while receiving an MA in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar (*n* = 13)	14.997	-.456	-1.51	0.152
Received training to teach SWDs while receiving any listed qualification (*n* = 36)	58.677	-.273	-1.496	.15
Received training to teach SWDs conducted within the job/workplace (*n* = 51)	69.47	-.529	-2.888	.005
Received training to teach SWDs by attending conference presentations, workshops, or talks (*n* = 77)	130.52	-.555	-3.709	.000
Received training to teach SWDs by engaging in a community of practice (*n* = 37)	44.712	-.723	-3.332	.002
Received training to teach SWDs by doing independent reading or research (*n* = 85)	162.064	-.494	-3.473	.001

Table 4.16

Welch's T-tests by Selected Training and Type of Professional Development on Knowledge of Global Policy on Teaching SWDs

Group	Df	Mean diff.	t-statistic	*p*
Qualification held: MA in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar (*n* = 129)	227.198	.285	2.062	.04
Received training to teach SWDs while receiving an MA in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar (*n* = 13)	15.695	-1.071	-3.928	.001
Received training to teach SWDs while receiving any listed qualification (*n* = 36)	50.371	-.891	-4.994	.000
Received training to teach SWDs conducted within the job/workplace (*n* = 51)	74.666	-.528	-3.025	.003

Received training to teach SWDs by attending conference presentations, workshops, or talks (*n* = 77)	145.589	-.495	-3.381	.001
Received training to teach SWDs by engaging in a community of practice (*n* = 37)	45.7524	-.97	-4.686	.000
Received training to teach SWDs by doing independent reading or research (*n* = 85)	160.191	-.67	-4.961	.000

Table 4.17

Welch's T-tests by Selected Training and Type of Ongoing Professional Development on Confidence Teaching SWDs

Group	Df	Mean diff.	t-statistic	*p*
Qualification held: MA in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar (*n* = 129)	211.873	.08	0.579	.563
Received training to teach SWDs while receiving an MA in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar (*n* = 13)	15.169	-.448	-1.607	.129
Received training to teach SWDs while receiving any listed qualification (*n* = 36)	50.47	-.438	-2.413	.02
Received training to teach SWDs conducted within the job/workplace (*n* = 51)	94.046	-.641	-4.424	.000
Received training to teach SWDs by attending conference presentations, workshops, or talks (*n* = 77)	159.46	-.464	-3.335	.001
Received training to teach SWDs by engaging in a community of practice (*n* = 37)	55.101	-.629	-3.728	.001
Received training to teach SWDs by doing independent reading or research (*n* = 85)	175.173	-.631	-4.645	.000

Table 4.18

Welch's T-tests by Selected Training and Type of Ongoing Professional Development on Inclusive Practices Self-efficacy

Group	Df	Mean diff.	t-statistic	*p*
Qualification held: MA in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar (*n* = 129)	234.301	.278	2.074	.039
Received training to teach SWDs while receiving an MA in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar (*n* = 13)	16.481	-.1.01	-0.372	.715
Received training to teach SWDs while receiving any listed qualification (*n* = 36)	51.988	-.529	-3.033	.004
Received training to teach SWDs conducted within the job/workplace (*n* = 51)	94.293	-.651	-4.52	.000
Received training to teach SWDs by attending conference presentations, workshops, or talks (*n* = 77)	168.546	-.763	-5.858	.000
Received training to teach SWDs by engaging in a community of practice (*n* = 37)	58.776	-.8	-5.112	.000
Received training to teach SWDs by doing independent reading or research (*n* = 85)	198.564	-.809	-6.451	.000

Table 4.19

Welch's T-tests by Selected Training and Type of Ongoing Professional Development on Perceived Lack of Skills and Knowledge to Teach SWDs

Group	Df	Mean diff.	t-statistic	*p*
Qualification held: MA in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar (*n* = 129)	206.48	.262	2.192	.03
Received training to teach SWDs while receiving an MA in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar (*n* = 13)	13.977	-.779	-2.866	.013
Received training to teach SWDs while receiving any listed qualification (*n* = 36)	45.783	-.423	-2.38	.022
Received training to teach SWDs conducted within the job/workplace (*n* = 51)	74.83	-.43	-2.872	.005
Received training to teach SWDs by attending conference presentations, workshops, or talks (*n* = 77)	144.871	-.217	-1.693	.093
Received training to teach SWDs by engaging in a community of practice (*n* = 37)	57.882	-.442	-3.113	.003
Received training to teach SWDs by doing independent reading or research (*n* = 85)	177.235	-.336	-2.775	.006

The final step in the data treatment plan was to run an MLR to determine if and to what degree selected background items could predict respondents' sentiments, attitudes, and concerns. Most of these items were included due to their correlational or predictive value as independent variables on teachers' sentiments, attitudes, and concerns in previous administrations of the SACIE-R. These included respondents' degree of interactions with people with disabilities, knowledge of relevant local legislation, confidence teaching SWDs, and experience teaching SWDs. Knowledge of global policy was included on the basis that such policy guides postsecondary policy in Japan, with consideration for the international representation among respondents, and considering that it had been found to correlate with or predict teachers' views on inclusive education in previous administrations of the SACIE-R (AlMahdi & Bukamal, 2019; Main et al., 2016; Opoku et al., 2021; Özokçu, 2018a; Poon et al., 2016; Stavroussi et al., 2021; Tahsein & Ahsan, 2016; Tuncay & Kizilaslan, 2021). Additionally, the latent factor of IPSE was included on the basis that, in several other studies using the SACIE-R, self-efficacy implementing inclusive practices was shown to correlate with or predict teachers' views on inclusive education (Ayub et al., 2019; Li & Cheung, 2021; Özokçu, 2018b; Yada et al., 2018). Categorical items (e.g., gender, type of in-service training) were excluded in favor of running individual Welch's t-tests. This way, all values from the included independent variables were captured through the use of 5-point Likert scale items.

It should be noted that this analysis treated these background items as continuous scale items rather than ordinal, which is how they were treated in the Spearman's correlation matrix represented in Table 4.9. However, the decision to conduct the MLR was made in order to compare the current results with similar treatments summarized in Table 3.1, specifically Agavelyan et al. (2020), Tahsein & Ahsan (2016), and Poon et al. (2016), and to a lesser extent Li and Cheung (2021) and Nwosu et al. (2023), as these studies used hierarchical linear regressions in their data treatments. Additionally, the derivation of the three factors of sentiments, attitudes, and concerns through principal component analysis abstracted responses from the original ordinal scale represented by the survey items on the SACIE-R (Forlin et al., 2011), thus precluding ordinal logistic regression.

Following suggestions from Kline (2015) and Whittaker and Schumacker (2022) the assumptions of an MLR were first checked by conducting scatterplot analysis to confirm the linear relationship between each independent variable with each of the dependent variables, which suggested good homoscedasticity overall. Additional testing for heteroskedasticity (see Table 4.20) after a regular MLR revealed high homoscedasticity for sentiments and questionable levels for attitudes and concerns, as is reflected in the statistical significance for each test (Cameron & Trivedi's tests should be statistically insignificant, while Breusch-Pagan tests should be significant for homoscedastic samples).

Table 4.20

Heteroskedasticity Test Results for the SACIE-R

Variable	Cameron & Trivedi's IM-test	Breusch-Pagan test for heteroskedasticity
Sentiments	$\chi^2 = 18.96$; $p = .892$	$\chi^2 = 12.43$; $p < .001$
Attitudes	$\chi^2 = 60.38$; $p < .001$	$\chi^2 = 9.29$; $p = .002$
Concerns	$\chi^2 = 38.88$; $p = .065$	$\chi^2 = 0.11$; $p = .745$

As the Spearman's correlation matrix between these variables (see Table 4.9) showed no correlation coefficients with a magnitude above 0.80, however, the sample had sufficiently low multicollinearity to justify the MLR.

An examination of box plots and histograms of the independent variables, however, indicated: high levels of nonnormality among knowledge of local laws and confidence teaching SWDs; negative skewness of knowledge of local laws and knowledge of global policy; and positive skewness of interaction with people with disabilities. An additional

examination of L-R plots after simple linear regressions made it possible to identify a number of outlying values with both high leverage points and high residuals in each of the independent variables included in the model, which may have accounted for the borderline goodness of fit (Ainur et al., 2017). Furthermore, histograms, P-P plots, and Q-Q plots of each of the three dependent variables indicated varying degrees of negative skewness and nonnormality of the distribution of residuals for all three factors. This is likely the result of the small sample size, lack of truly random sampling, and treatment of the 5-point items as continuous. The negative skewness was therefore determined to be unproblematic given the nature of the SACIE-R scale, as such skewness is merely representative of the sample's relation to a neutral view on the construct that each item and factor is meant to represent. However, robust MLRs were run to compensate for the presence of outliers and correct for nonnormality. The results of the three robust MLRs are reflected in Table 4.21.

Table 4.21

Robust MLR Results

Variable	**R^2 value**	***p***
Sentiments, F(2, 236) Fp = .000		
- Previous interaction with people with disabilities	.043	.034
- Knowledge of local legislation and policy on teaching SWDs	-.002	.935
- Knowledge of global policy on teaching SWDs	.026	.343
- Confidence teaching SWDs	-.012	.659
- Experience teaching SWDs	.002	.933
- Inclusive practices self-efficacy	.07	.018
Attitudes, F(6, 232) Fp = .562		
- Previous interaction with people with disabilities	-.003	.945
- Knowledge of local legislation and policy on teaching SWDs	.011	.812
- Knowledge of global policy on teaching SWDs	-.015	.764
- Confidence teaching SWDs	.023	.656
- Experience teaching SWDs	.034	.512
- Inclusive practices self-efficacy	-.095	.387
Concerns, F(6, 232) Fp = .001		
- Previous interaction with people with disabilities	-.013	.758
- Knowledge of local legislation and policy on teaching SWDs	.068	.22
- Knowledge of global policy on teaching SWDs	.048	.402
- Confidence teaching SWDs	.076	.199
- Experience teaching SWDs	.008	.896
- Inclusive practices self-efficacy	.09	.156

Finally, in order to check for overfitting, cross-wise validation was completed by leaving one independent variable out at a time for each robust MLR, checking the p-values of the remaining variables, and conducting stepwise reduction to reduce the insignificant factors (Kline, 2015; Whittaker & Schumacker, 2022). This process yielded no meaningful changes in the statistical significance of possible predictors for sentiments or attitudes. However, knowledge of local laws was found to positively predict concerns, R2 = .1, F(2, 236) = .000, p = .024, as was IPSE, R2 = .14, F(2, 236) = .000, p = .004, after stepwise reduction of the other four independent variables in the original model. As such, knowledge of local laws and IPSE may be false predictors, though their inclusion in the model is theoretically supported, as Özokçu (2018a) and Poon et al. (2016) also found knowledge of local laws to predict concerns. Furthermore, knowledge of local laws and IPSE correlate with concerns as reported in Table 4.9.

Qualitative Results

The 13 participants in the lesson observations and interviews represent a range of background factors captured in the SACIE-R, and came from a variety of public and private HEIs in the Kyushu, Chugoku, Chubu, Kanto, and Tohoku regions of Japan. The participants' relevant background information is reported below in Table 4.22. All participants also reported having taught an SWD at least once and, as is shown in the Sentiments, Attitudes, and Concerns subsections of Chapter V below, represented generally positive but complex views on inclusive education and teaching SWDs. To preserve anonymity, Participants have been lettered A through M. To better understand this subset's group profile in relation to the total set of survey respondents, a comparison of mean results from the SACIE-R between the entire group (N = 239) and the observed subset (n = 13) is provided in Table 4.23. A fuller discussion of this table and related findings occurs in and throughout Chapter V.

Table 4.22

Observation and Interview Participants' Selected Background Information

Participant	Gender	Age group	Nationality	Qualifications	Pre-service training to teach SWDs	In-service training to teach SWDs
A	Male	40-49	American	MA in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar; PhD/EdD in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar	Not received in listed qualifications	by attending conference presentations, workshops, or talks; by doing independent reading or research
B	Male	40-49	American	MA in Education or similar	MA in Education or similar	conducted within my job/workplace; by engaging in a community of practice, e.g., a special interest group dedicated to serving students with disabilities; by doing independent reading or research
C	Male	40-49	Japanese	PhD/EdD in Education or similar	Not received in listed qualifications	by attending conference presentations, workshops, or talks; by engaging in a community of practice, e.g., a special interest group dedicated to serving students with disabilities; by doing independent reading or research.
D	Male	40-49	American & British	TEFL/TESL Certification or Diploma (e.g., CELTA, DELTA, DipTESOL); MA in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar	Not received in listed qualifications	by attending conference presentations, workshops, or talks; by doing independent reading or research.
E	Male	50-59	American	MA in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar	Not received in listed qualifications	conducted within my job/workplace
F	Female	50-59	Japanese	MA in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar	Not received in listed qualifications	by doing independent reading or research

G	Female	40-49	Canadian	TEFL/TESL Certification or Diploma (e.g., CELTA, DELTA, DipTESOL); MA in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar; PhD/EdD in Education or similar	Not received in listed qualifications	by engaging in a community of practice, e.g., a special interest group dedicated to serving students with disabilities; by doing independent reading or research
H	Male	40-49	British	MA in Education or similar	Not received in listed qualifications	conducted within my job/workplace; by attending conference presentations, workshops, or talks
I	Female	30-39	American	MA in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar	Not received in listed qualifications	by engaging in a community of practice, e.g., a special interest group dedicated to serving students with disabilities
J	Male	60+	American	MA in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar; PhD/EdD in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar	Not received in listed qualifications	Not received
K	Male	50-59	American	MA in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar	Not received in listed qualifications	Not received
L	Male	60+	American	PhD/EdD in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar	Not received in listed qualifications	Conducted within my job/workplace; by attending conference presentations, workshops, or talks; by engaging in a community of practice, e.g., a special interest group dedicated to serving students with disabilities; by doing independent reading or research
M	Nonbinary	30-39	Japanese	MA in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar	MA in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar	conducted within my job/workplace; by attending conference presentations, workshops, or talks

Table 4.23

Mean SACIE-R Scores and Predictive Background Variables of All Survey Respondents and Observed Subset

	All respondents (*N* = 239)	**Observed subset (*n* = 13)**
Sentiments	*M* = 3.23, *SD* = 0.92	*M* = 3.49, *SD* = 0.39
Attitudes	*M* = 3.24, *SD* = 0.84	*M* = 3.58, *SD* = 0.36
Concerns	*M* = 2.59, *SD* = 0.92	*M* = 2.52, *SD* = 0.71
Previous interactions with people with disabilities	*M* = 3.55, *SD* = 1.32	*M* = 4.38, *SD* = 0.77
Inclusive practices self-efficacy	*M* = 2.61, *SD* = 1.04	*M* = 3.03, *SD* = 0.99

IPELT Results

Mean magnitude coding weights from the IPELT were calculated and sorted from high to low to provide insight into the character of participants' inclusive practices. These coding weights are provided in their original sequence in Table 4.24 and sorted from high to low mean weights in Table 4.25. A fuller discussion of these results occurs in Chapter V.

Table 4.24

Mean IPELT Magnitude Coding Weights

Pedagogical Domain	**Inclusive Teaching Behaviors *overlaps with principle(s) of CLT**	***M***	***SD***
Learning environment	- Arranges the classroom with physical and sensory impairments in mind (e.g. by providing enough space to move and by minimizing distraction)	2.46	0.52
	- Creates a safe learning environment where students feel encouraged to take risks*	2.85	0.38
	- Uses available technology in lessons to enhance student learning when appropriate	2.54	0.66
Classroom management	- Has established standards of conduct and they are clear to students	1.62	1.45
	- Uses a number of strategies to prevent behavioral disruption	1.54	0.78
Materials	- Uses appropriate fonts and formatting in materials	2.23	0.73
	- Uses multisensory and multimodal materials and tasks during activities (e.g. by using visual organizers and manipulatives)	2	0.91
Task organization	- Routinizes instructions and task structures	2.77	0.6
	- Designs learning experiences that connect new learning to prior learning	2.54	0.88

	-	Scaffolds activities to help students meet learning objectives*	2.31	0.85
	-	Relates learning activities to students' personal experiences (e.g., by providing rich, meaningful input)*	2.23	0.93
	-	Links different skills in and across activities*	2.31	0.48
	-	Provides reasonable time allocations to achieve the learning goals and adjusts if students need more or less time	2.69	0.48
	-	Allows collaborative pair- and group-work*	2.23	0.6
	-	Forms small groups of students who differ in ability and interests to work in joint learning activities	1.77	0.73
Communication	-	Articulates high expectations for students	2.23	1.01
	-	Presents clear criteria for activities	2.54	0.66
	-	Modifies directions to meet the diverse learning needs of students (e.g., rephrasing, giving written and spoken directions, modeling or providing an example)	2.23	0.83
	-	Provides alternate explanations or examples when students are confused	2.77	0.6
	-	Asks effective questions that match instructional goals	2.31	1.18
	-	Provides equal opportunities for students to ask questions	2.62	0.77
	-	Responds appropriately to students' questions/comments	2.92	0.28
Assessment	-	Uses assessment outcomes to inform instruction	1.77	1.01
	-	Uses a variety of assessment strategies to measure student progress	2.15	0.8
	-	Makes assessment accommodations when necessary	2.23	0.83
Student development	-	Tolerates learner error*	3	0
	-	Recognizes and respects affective factors of learning*	2.77	0.44
	-	Provides frequent and appropriate feedback during class activities*	2	1
	-	Encourages students to reflect on what they have learned	1.23	0.83
	-	Helps learners develop learning strategies and metacognition	1.31	1.03
	-	Uses strategies to motivate learners	2.15	0.38
Teacher development	-	Collaborates with colleagues to share best practices	2.15	0.8
	-	Reflects on teaching with regard for individual student needs	2.08	0.95
Differentiation	-	Differentiates learning materials and tasks	1.23	0.6
	-	Selects curricular materials and resources that align with student learning goals	1.15	0.9
	-	Plans instruction to address students' individual strengths and weaknesses	1.46	0.78
	-	Plans instruction to address interests of students	1.54	0.66
Specific consideration for SWDs	-	Considers the possibility of SWDs in their classroom and the barriers they face	2.31	1.03
	-	Takes specific pedagogical approaches to accommodate SWDs	0.77	1.09
	-	Considers institutional/national/global policy guidance on accommodating SWDs	0.77	0.73

Table 4.25

Individual IPELT Magnitude Codes Sorted by Mean Weights, High to Low

Pedagogical Domain	**Inclusive Teaching Behaviors** ***overlaps with principle(s) of CLT**	***M***	***SD***
Student development	Tolerates learner error*	3	0
Communication	Responds appropriately to students' questions/comments	2.92	0.28
Learning environment	Creates a safe learning environment where students feel encouraged to take risks*	2.85	0.38
Communication	Provides alternate explanations or examples when students are confused	2.77	0.6
Student development	Recognizes and respects affective factors of learning*	2.77	0.44
Task organization	Routinizes instructions and task structures	2.77	0.6
Task organization	Provides reasonable time allocations to achieve the learning goals and adjusts if students need more or less time	2.69	0.48
Communication	Provides equal opportunities for students to ask questions	2.62	0.77
Learning environment	Uses available technology in lessons to enhance student learning when appropriate	2.54	0.66
Communication	Presents clear criteria for activities	2.54	0.66
Task organization	Designs learning experiences that connect new learning to prior learning	2.54	0.88
Learning environment	Arranges the classroom with physical and sensory impairments in mind, e.g. by providing enough space to move and by minimizing distraction	2.46	0.52
Task organization	Scaffolds activities to help students meet learning objectives*	2.31	0.85
Communication	Asks effective questions that match instructional goals	2.31	1.18
Task organization	Links different skills in and across activities*	2.31	0.48
Specific consideration for SWDs	Considers the possibility of students with disabilities (SWDs) in their classroom, and the barriers they face	2.31	1.03
Materials	Uses appropriate fonts and formatting in materials	2.23	0.73
Communication	Articulates high expectations for students	2.23	1.01
Communication	Modifies directions to meet the diverse learning needs of students (e.g., rephrasing, giving written and spoken directions, modeling or providing an example)	2.23	0.83
Task organization	Allows collaborative pair- and group-work*	2.23	0.6
Task organization	Relates learning activities to students' personal experiences (e.g., by providing rich, meaningful input)*	2.23	0.93
Assessment	Makes assessment accommodations when necessary	2.23	0.83
Assessment	Uses a variety of assessment strategies to measure student progress	2.15	0.8
Student development	Uses strategies to motivate learners	2.15	0.38

Teacher development	Collaborates with colleagues to share best practices	2.15	0.8
Teacher development	Reflects on teaching with regard for individual student needs	2.08	0.95
Materials	Uses multisensory and multimodal materials and tasks during activities (e.g. by using visual organizers and manipulatives)	2	0.91
Student development	Provides frequent and appropriate feedback during class activities*	2	1
Task organization	Forms small groups of students who differ in ability and interests to work in joint learning activities	1.77	0.73
Assessment	Uses assessment outcomes to inform instruction	1.77	1.01
Classroom management	Has established standards of conduct and they are clear to students	1.62	1.45
Differentiation	Plans instruction to address interests of students	1.54	0.66
Classroom management	Uses a number of strategies to prevent behavioral disruption	1.54	0.78
Differentiation	Plans instruction to address students' individual strengths and weaknesses	1.46	0.78
Student development	Helps learners develop learning strategies and metacognition	1.31	1.03
Student development	Encourages students to reflect on what they have learned	1.23	0.83
Differentiation	Differentiates learning materials and tasks	1.23	0.6
Differentiation	Selects curricular materials and resources that align with student learning goals	1.15	0.9
Specific consideration for SWDs	Takes specific pedagogical approaches to accommodate SWDs	0.77	1.09
Specific consideration for SWDs	Considers institutional/national/global policy guidance on accommodating SWDs	0.77	0.73

Total IPELT magnitude code weights for each participant were also calculated to characterize the overall degree of inclusion of SWDs across the lesson observations. The maximum possible weight is 120. Allowing that the IPELT is able to capture actual inclusion, then, a score of 120 could be considered to reflect a "fully inclusive" class. It is necessary to reiterate, however, that there are different, context-dependent definitions of inclusion, and interpreting any definition of inclusive education in practice is value-laden and subjective (Rapp & Corral-Granados, 2021). As such, these "scores" should ultimately only be considered in regard to the specific inclusive practices listed on the IPELT and not viewed as wholly impartial. That being said, the teacher who displayed the greatest degree of overall inclusivity as reflected by the current administration of the IPELT was Participant H, while the teacher who displayed the smallest degree was Participant E. Total IPELT magnitude code weights also largely corresponded with mean SACIE-R scores (see Table 4.26).

Table 4.26

Total IPELT Magnitude Code Weights and Participants' Sentiments, Attitudes, and Concerns

Participant	Total IPELT Magnitude Code Weights	Mean Sentiments	Mean Attitudes	Mean Concerns
A	68	3.4	3.4	1.8
B	78	2.8	3.2	1.8
C	86	3.6	4.0	2.4
D	93	3.6	3.8	2.8
E	56	2.8	3.6	2.2
F	98	4.0	4.0	3.2
G	90	3.4	3.8	2.6
H	108	4	4	3.6
I	94	3.4	3.8	1.8
J	80	3.4	3.4	2.0
K	74	3.4	3.4	1.8
L	88	3.6	2.8	3.0
M	89	4	3.4	3.8

Sentiments, Attitudes, and Concerns

A number of themes related to sentiments, attitudes, and concerns about inclusive education were identified in the post-observation interviews. Some of these themes, for example themes captured in the wording of SACIE-R items or noted for their prevalence in relevant literature, were present in the codebook created before the first coding cycle. Several others, however, emerged phenomenologically through first and, to a lesser extent, second cycle coding. After second cycle coding, there were four, 11, and 12 thematic codes related to participants' sentiments, attitudes, and concerns respectively. Frequency counts were performed for paradigmatic corroboration (Saldaña, 2021) before comparison to previous literature and more detailed analysis. Instances of each code application by participant, as well as by code co-occurrence, across these three domains are summarized in Tables 4.27 and 4.28 respectively. A full discussion of these themes occurs in Chapter V.

Table 4.27

Code Occurrences for Themes Related to Sentiments, Attitudes, and Concerns by Participant

	Part. A	Part. B	Part. C	Part. D	Part. E	Part. F	Part. G	Part. H	Part. I	Part. J	Part. K	Part. L	Part. M	Total
Sentiments														
Comfort around disability			2		1	4	3		1		2	1		15
Imagined disabled self	1		1		1									3
Actual disabled self								1	2					3
Has a child with disabilities			3			4	4							11
Attitudes														
Learner experience	3		1	3	3	1	2	1	5	2		2		23
Learning environment	1	1	2		7		1	3	4	2				21
Desire to teach Ss w/ disabilities			3				1							4
Responsibility as a teacher			1	1	1						1			4
Equity view of education				2		2		1					1	6
Other forms of difference	1				1			1		1	1	7		12
Assistive technology			1		1				1	2		1		6
Accessibility				2	1	1		1	1	3	1	3		13
Accommodations	5	1	2	3	3	2	2	2	5	3	1	3	4	36
Adaptability	3	3	1	4			2	1	2	4	2	3	2	27
Differentiation	2	1	3	3	1	2	3	5	1	2	1	3		27
Concerns														
Attention due to class size	4	1			5			2						12
Lacks knowledge and skills				1	2	1		2	2	3	2			13
Acceptance by peers	2				3		2							7
Increased workload	1				1		1			2	2		1	8
Diagnosis and/or disclosure	1			1	6	2	6	2	3	1	3		4	29
Disab. or lang. learning difficulty	1			3			1	1					2	8
Student performance	1	1	2	2	1		1		4				3	15
Curricular constraints		3		3	3	4	5	4	2			1	2	27
Institutional barriers	3				1	2	3		1		1		3	14
Japanese cultural interference					3	1	1	4	2	1		3	3	18
Language gap			1			1			2	2			2	8
Disrupts trad. practice												3		3

Table 4.28

Code Co-occurrences between Thematic Code Applications for Sentiments, Attitudes, and Concerns

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27
Comfort around disability (1)																											
Imagined disabled self (2)																											
Actual disabled self (3)	1																										
Has a child with disabilities (4)	9																										
Learner experience (5)	2	1	1	2																							
Learning environment (6)	1				3																						
Desire to teach Ss with disabilities (7)	1			1		1																					
Responsibility as a teacher (8)																											
Equity view of education (9)	2			2				1																			
Other forms of difference (10)	1					2																					
Assistive technology (11)						1																					
Accessibility (12)	1				1	1					3																
Accommodations (13)	1				4	6	1	1	2	1	3	6															
Adaptability (14)	1			1	1	2				2	3	4	4														
Differentiation (15)						1				3	1		3	1													
Attention due to class size (16)		1			1	2				1		1	2		1												
Lacks knowledge and skills (17)	2	1			1			1		1	1		1		1												
Acceptance by peers (18)		1			1	2				1			3			3											
Increased workload (19)						1					1		1	1			2										
Diagnosis and/or disclosure (20)	2	1	1	2	5	2		2		1	1		7	1		2	3	4									
Disab. or language learning diff. (21)													2		1		1			1							
Student performance (22)	1	1			4	1						1	3	1	1		1			4	2						
Curricular constraints (23)					1								2		2	1	1		1			2					

Institutional barriers (24)				1									4								4	2	2	1				
Japanese cultural interference (25)	1		1		2	2				2		1		1	2	2	3	1			4		2		1			
Language gap (26)				1	1								2				3				1	1	1		1	2		
Disrupts trad. practice (27)										1		1																

Chapter V: Discussion

Sentiments, Attitudes, and Concerns about Inclusive Education

The first research question posed in Chapter II was "What are English language teachers' sentiments, attitudes, and concerns about SWDs and inclusive education, and what factors may influence them?" This question was addressed primarily through the administration of the modified SACIE-R (Appendix A) and further informed through lesson observations and post-observation interviews using a concurrent triangulation method (Boeije, 2010). In the sections that follow, respondents' sentiments, attitudes, and concerns are first be addressed descriptively and qualitatively, followed by a discussion of factors that influence them.

Sentiments

The descriptive analysis of the survey results reveals that the respondents to the modified SACIE-R had generally positive "sentiments about engaging with people with disabilities" (Forlin et al., 2011, p. 59). Responses to three items on the sentiments subscale had mean scores close to the absolute maximum of 4. These items were: "I find it difficult to overcome my initial shock when meeting people with severe physical disabilities" (sentiments item 1, M = 3.55, SD = 0.65); "I am afraid to look a person with a disability straight in the face" (sentiments item 2, M = 3.74, SD = 0.55); and "I tend to make contacts with people with disabilities brief and I finish them as quickly as possible" (sentiments item 3, M = 3.46, SD = 0.7). However, the mean responses to two items were only slightly above the midpoints. These were "I would feel terrible if I had a disability" (sentiments item 4, M = 2.67, SD = 0.97) and "I dread the thought that I could eventually end up with a disability" (sentiments item 5, M = 2.72, SD = 1.02). These two items are conceptually different from the other three. In one previous administration of the SACIE-R, an initial CFA led Aiello et al. (2017) to split the sentiments subscale into two latent variables along these same lines: the first three items became discomfort interacting with disabled people, while the latter two were operationalized as fear of having a disability. The factor loadings in the current administration did not necessitate such a split, though the error terms between sentiments items 4 and 5 were correlated to improve goodness of fit.

Compared to previous administrations of the SACIE-R, the current pool of respondents had more positive sentiments (M = 3.23, SD = 0.92) than all of those that

reported mean subscale scores (see Table 3.1) except for two, Stavroussi et al. (2021) and Yada and Savolainen (2017). This discrepancy suggests that ELTs may have more positive views of inclusion and diversity compared to other subject teachers, perhaps due to an increased sensitivity to linguistic diversity as has been previously suggested (Pfingsthorn & Giesler, 2022). In other words, ELTs' interaction with people from different linguistic backgrounds may relate, either causatively or corollary, to a heightened cultural competence when encountering other forms of difference, in this case people with disabilities. As Yada and Savolainen's (2017) study was also conducted in Japan, however, it may also be the case that teachers in Japan have more positive views of people with disabilities compared to other countries, though Yada and Savolainen's study was focused on Japanese teachers in general education while the current set of respondents represent several countries and teach English at the postsecondary level. It is also possible that the current sample's positive views are impacted by both their choice of field and local factors, though repeat administrations of the SACIE-R with other ELTs working in different contexts are needed before any conclusions can be drawn with confidence in this regard.

The mean sentiments for the subset of respondents who participated in the lesson observations and interviews (n = 13) was even higher and also more uniform (M = 3.49, SD = 0.39), which is suggestive of opt-in bias created by the voluntary nature of participant selection of this stage of the research. This likelihood should be kept in mind when interpreting the results of the thematic analysis. Finally, the differences in mean values when viewing these items as two groups (sentiments items 1, 2, and 3; 4 and 5) helps inform the findings of the thematic analysis of the post-observation interview data. Through this analysis, four themes were identified in relation to participants towards people with disabilities. These were comfort around disability, imagined disabled self, actual disabled self, and having a child with a disability.

Comfort Around Disability. Fifteen utterances by seven participants related to their comfort around disability. All seven participants expressed comfort (as opposed to discomfort) around people with disabilities. Nine of these expressions occurred when three participants discussed having a child with a disability. Four participants' comfort around disability was revealed when they mentioned having previously taught an SWD, while Participant I also attributed some of her comfort to having an SLD herself. In all cases, comfort around disability was connected to participants' prior interactions with people with

disabilities, and this was frequently connected to their perceived ability to accommodate SWDs in their instruction. Participant E, for instance, mentioned having spent time in deaf culture as a reason why he was willing and prepared to accommodate a deaf student without prior notification from the university regarding his enrollment or requested accommodations. Overall, participants' positive comfort around disability accords with the survey respondents' positive sentiments towards people with disabilities, especially when considering only sentiments items 1, 2, and 3, which were separated to measure discomfort interacting with disabled people in a previous study (Aiello et al., 2017). It should also be noted that the observed subset reported a higher degree of previous interactions with people with disabilities (M = 4.38, SD = 0.77) compared to all survey respondents (M = 3.55, SD = 1.32), which is a frequent predictor of sentiments (Kunz et al., 2021; Li et al., 2016; Özokçu, 2018a; Poon et al., 2016; Stavroussi et al., 2021; Yada et al., 2018), including in the current data set.

Unsurprisingly, code applications of comfort around disability also frequently co-occurred with themes related to participants' positive attitudes about including SWDs in their instruction. These included two code co-occurrences with learner experience and an equity view of education, and one each of learning environment, desire to teach SWDs, other forms of difference, accessibility, accommodations, and adaptability. There were also, albeit to a much lesser extent, some code-occurrences with themes related to participants' concerns about implementing inclusive education. These were lacking inclusive knowledge and skills (n = 2), issues related to diagnosis and/or disclosure (n = 2), student performance (n = 1), and Japanese cultural interference (n = 1).

Imagined Disabled Self. Three participants made one comment regarding their imagined disabled self. Participant A related that he had watched some informational videos on accessibility for wheelchair users:

> It was an interesting perspective shift, like, to have somebody who is wheelchair-bound to talk about the requirements of making society in general more accessible. It was quite interesting to hear about because as somebody who's not in that situation, it's really hard to relate to some of the issues they face.

Participant C made a similar statement, using his own recent difficulty hearing to imagine what the learning experience might have been like for a student with a more profound hearing impairment whom he had taught previously. Finally, Participant E spoke about a

student with an upper limb disability whom he often sees on campus, musing that it must be hard to be so physically different from others. One commonality between these three utterances is an attempt to understand a specific disabled point of view, which is to say from a single point of view of people with three different impairments.

Two points of difference are that Participants C and E made this attempt by considering the experience of specific students, whereas Participant A considered media created for the purpose of communicating issues and concerns related to accessibility for wheelchair users. Additionally, Participants A and C were arguably more focused on the challenges faced by such people, and for C this was directly related to the learning experience, whereas Participant E seemed to conceive of his own imagined disabled self as a general hardship, something close to what Aiello et al. (2017) might call a fear of being disabled. Finally, these results accord with the relatively low fear of having a disability reported through sentiments items 4 and 5 of the SACIE-R, which as noted above had lower means compared to the other three sentiments items.

Actual Disabled Self. Two of the 13 participants noted their own disability, specifically having been diagnosed with one or more SLDs. For Participant H, this diagnosis came during his time in secondary education. Throughout his postsecondary and graduate degree attainment, he only ever declared his diagnosis to one professor:

> I'm not sure why, but I do remember that I had one difficult situation. And I just thought I'm going to tell my professor about this. I said, I remember saying it's embarrassing. I don't know whether I was just saying it because I was late with a submission or something like that. I may have actually used it as an excuse. I wasn't happy about that later on. Because I didn't feel really legitimate in saying you know, actually, I'm dyslexic because I'm only borderline. And when I did my masters, sorry, when I did my postgraduate certificate of education, and my masters, I didn't say that I was dyslexic, partly because I didn't want to have that affecting my grade. In a way, I just wanted to get through it as best as I could and not have me think maybe I've got a better grade because my teacher was feeling sorry for me.

While Participant H did not explicitly connect his experience to having more positive sentiments, attitudes, or concerns, his instruction and views were among the most positive and informed among the 13 participants. They also offer some insight into why SWDs may choose not to disclose their disability to their HEI.

Participant I, by contrast, was only recently diagnosed as having two SLDs and did make a clear connection between her diagnosis and approach to teaching SWDs:

> Well, I guess speaking of inclusive education, I don't know if it's worth mentioning that I have recently learned that I am neurodivergent, which has been very interestingly learned last year. But I fall on the autism spectrum and ADHD as well just like, wonder if that's why I had a kind of more instinctive connection to students with similar disabilities because it's like I've experienced the world in a similar way that you [have]. So, I don't know how much that makes a difference or not, but I'm still reflecting on it. It's an odd thing to learn about yourself at middle age, but quite common in women actually. It tends to get diagnosed much later. So, I always knew I was different. Now I know how. It's quite cathartic.

Compared to other participants, Participant I was quite sympathetic when referring to previous instances of teaching SWDs both in Japan and the United States, as well as in general and language education. These anecdotes were frequently connected to a variety of concerns about lacking knowledge and skills to teach inclusively, issues related to diagnosis and/or disclosure, student performance, the Japanese-English language gap, and Japanese cultural interference in teaching inclusively. Regarding her own proficiency in Japanese, for instance, Participant I stated:

> Sometimes I think that can be a real barrier for reaching some of these students. I can do basic conversational Japanese at this point, but sometimes it's not enough for what I need to understand what a student is trying to tell me or to communicate to them what I really want to say. So, I've had a few that, you know, maybe borderline, some kind of learning disability, but I have not gotten an official diagnosis, and just trying to communicate to the student that I can accommodate up to a point but you have to tell me what you need. I can't guess. I mean, I've done a lot of personal research, I have experience with certain kinds of students at this point to make a reasonable guess of what might help a particular student but every student's unique, right, they have unique needs and some of that I can accommodate, some of it I can't, in the context of my classroom. So, it helps to know that a lot of students, I think especially in Japan, where mental health language, I feel like is in process here. It's hard to get students to approach me when they do need additional support.

For Participant I, her own experience of teaching SWDs combined with her own diagnosis appear to have had a significant impact on her approach to teaching inclusively, though she often feels restricted by linguistic and cultural barriers. While this experience may not be generalizable, it is likely the case that teachers with SLDs will be more inclusive and accommodating of SWDs generally.

Having a Child with a Disability. Three of the thirteen participants reported being a parent of a child with a disability. All three of these participants noted that, as a direct result of having a child with a disability, they had greater knowledge of local inclusive education policy for primary and secondary education, more familiarity with inclusive practices, and heightened sensitivity to barriers faced by potential or disclosed SWDs in their classrooms. Participant G, for instance, reported that

> because of my own child, I'm very sensitive to this issue. And I'm always kind of scoping out everybody, doesn't necessarily need to be with a diagnosis, to somebody that doesn't quite fit in or, you know, but I'm always thinking about what exactly they might find difficult in class. And I usually do communicate with them very closely to find out exactly what issues they're having, which of course shift over time, right? So, to always keep in close touch with them. But yeah, to try and adjust lessons as much as possible, so that their learning needs are met and so that they can be successful in class.

Participants C and F noted similar efforts, including out-of-class support.

Furthermore, all three of these participants had similar experiences advocating for their children to be included in public schooling. These experiences offer some useful insight into how these teachers conceptualize inclusive education in contrast to someone who has not had such an experience. More specifically, it is worth noting that all three parents expressed strong dissatisfaction with the general state of inclusive education at the compulsory level in Japan. In response to the question "to what extent do you consider policy guidance from any level?" Participant G had this to say:

> I would say that's all background noise to parents like me, where you know, you can policy all you want, it doesn't mean that it's in practice on the ground. And that's especially true in Japan. And that's been especially true in my own kid's situation. So, you know, some parents say policy is so important, law is so important to guarantee us access to that classroom. I don't poo-poo that at all. I think that's true. But what

> actually goes on in that classroom because you've had access to it doesn't follow through the policies. Maybe you just might be there but you're not included. Example: the open autistic student that I have right now in my freshman seminar class just told me that although she was mainstreamed in high school in Japan, she spent more than half of her time in what's called the punishment room. Okay. So, you can policy all you want that you're mainstreamed, but it doesn't look like that on the ground.

Participant G went on to connect this point of view to her current position as a university ELT and outlined related institutional barriers to inclusion. While Participants C and F did not express such dissatisfaction with their current institutions, their role as parents of children with disabilities did seem to influence other attitudes towards learners with different support needs. Participant F, for instance, noted in connection to her own son's SLD that "if students have some problem, then I try my very best to deal with it. […] I let them know every time before we start the course that I'm a teacher, but at the same time, I'm a supporter." It is clear from the evidence at hand, then, that being a parent of a child with disabilities appears to impact both overall views of SWDs, as well as awareness of inclusive education in policy and practice at various levels of education.

Attitudes

Respondents overall also had positive attitudes about SWDs' inclusion in English language education, here defined as "acceptance of learners with different support needs" (Forlin et al., 2011, p. 59). The mean score (M = 3.24, SD = 0.84) for the modified attitudes subscale was higher than all but one (Yada & Savolainen, 2017) previous administration of the SACIE-R which reported subscale means, though such comparisons are tempered by the fact that every item on the attitudes subscale for the present administration was revised to suit the current research context. Still, ELTs may be more accommodating of students with SLDs in particular because the struggles that those students may have resemble common difficulties learning a foreign language, and/or because of an increased sensitivity to linguistic diversity (Pfingsthorn & Giesler, 2022), two factors which might help account for the very positive attitudes towards including learners with different support needs reported here. It is interesting to note, however, that attitudes item 3 ("Students who are inattentive should receive accommodations in their English-language classes", M = 2.61, SD = 0.85) had

a mean score only slightly above the midpoint. This might be because teachers in the sample data set do not associate inattentiveness with a disability, because they generally believe that a student's attention in class is their own responsibility or results from low motivation, some unknown reason or reasons, or a combination therein. Regardless, the descriptive analysis shows that the current pool of respondents has a generally positive view of including SWDs in their English language instruction.

Importantly, however, the only previous administration of the SACIE-R that reported higher attitudes (Yada & Savolainen, 2017) was also conducted in Japan, albeit with in-service Japanese teachers in general education. This fact introduces the possibility that teachers in Japan have more positive views about accommodating different support needs compared to other countries where the SACIE-R has been administered, as local factors like policy and level of human development had been shown to affect teachers' views of inclusive education before (Guillemot et al., 2022). This interpretation is supported by the high sentiments means discussed above, as well as findings from Yada et al. (2018), who reported that 359 Japanese teachers had more positive attitudes about accommodating learners with different support needs compared to 872 teachers in Finland. Regardless, repeat administrations of this version of the modified SACIE-R with ELTs in other contexts are needed before more confident conclusions can be made in this regard.

Finally, 11 themes related to the acceptance of learners with different support needs were identified in the post-observation interview data, many of which were also reflected through inclusive behaviors captured by the IPELT during classroom observations. These were attitudes about: the learner experience, the learning environment, a desire to teach students with disabilities, responsibility as a teacher, an equity view of inclusion, other forms of difference, accessibility, adaptability, accommodations, assistive technology, and differentiation. These eleven themes have been conceptually sequenced for the subsequent discussion.

Learner Experience. Ten of the 13 lesson observation and interview participants made a total of 23 utterances during the post-observation interviews that demonstrated consideration for how SWDs experience learning. The relatively high frequency of statements showing consideration for the learner experience when compared to other attitudes themes is likely due to the student-centered nature of language teaching in general terms, as language learning requires much more frequent and active use and

demonstration of skills and knowledge compared to other areas of study. Such statements most often occurred within responses to a variety of post-observation interview questions related to the 22 inclusive behaviors from the IPELT that were not directly observable. These instances were linked to behaviors including: following routines for instructions and tasks (*n* = 1), using a variety of strategies to motivate learners (*n* = 2), using assessment outcomes to inform instruction (*n* = 1), and taking specific pedagogical approaches to teaching SWDs (*n* = 2), though the most commonly associated behavior was considering the possible presence of SWDs (*n* = 7). These responses also contained a number of other thematic codes related to a variety of participants' sentiments, attitudes, and concerns.

There was a relatively high number of co-occurrences with thematic codes related to participants' sentiments about people with disabilities. In fact, there was at least one code co-occurrence with each of the four sentiments themes: comfort around disability (*n* = 2), imagined disabled self (*n* = 1), actual disabled self (*n* = 1), and having a child with disabilities (*n* = 2). In all instances of code co-occurrences between consideration for the learner experience and a sentiment about people with disabilities, participants claimed that, or wondered if, their proximity to disability better prepared them to consider or understand the learning experience of SWDs in their classes. Other thematic codes related to attitudes that co-occurred with learner experience were learning environment (*n* = 3), accessibility (*n* = 1), accommodations (*n* = 4), and adaptability (*n* = 1). Co-occurrences with thematic codes related to participants' concerns about implementing inclusive education included giving appropriate attention to SWDs (*n* = 1), lacking inclusive knowledge and skills (*n* = 1), SWDs not being accepted by their peers (*n* = 1), issues related to diagnosis and/or disclosure (*n* = 5), student performance (*n* = 4), curricular constraints (*n* = 1), Japanese cultural interference (*n* = 2), and the Japanese-English language gap (*n* = 1).

Learning Environment. Closely tied to consideration for the learner experience is consideration for the learning environment. It is well-established that the learning environment plays an important role in motivation and willingness to communicate for language learners (MacIntyre et al., 1998; Yashima, 2002), including as these relate to foreign language anxiety (MacIntyre, 2017). Relatedly, creating a supportive learning environment has been previously observed as an inclusive behavior among other groups of ELTs (Iwai, in press; Nyikes, 2019; Ooiwa & Yap, in press; Razmjoo & Sabourianzadeh, 2018; Wijaya et al., 2020). The current findings from the 13 lesson observations show that

participants were largely successful in creating supportive learning environments, as all three inclusive behaviors in this pedagogical domain ranked among the highest of the 40 inclusive behaviors as measured by the IPELT after comparing the mean magnitude codes (see Table 4.25). These behaviors were arranging the classroom with physical and sensory impairments in mind (*M* = 2.46, *SD* = 0.52), creating a safe learning environment where students feel encouraged to take risks (*M* = 2.85; *SD* = 0.38), and using available technology in lessons to enhance students' learning when appropriate (*M* = 2.54, *SD* = 0.66). The universality of error-making in the language learning process likely accounts for the high ranking of these inclusive behaviors, as language teachers are generally accustomed to creating a classroom environment that is tolerant of errors and supportive of learners (Pfingsthorn, 2022), features which are likely to instigate the creation of a safe learning environment where students feel encouraged to take risks.

There is also evidence to suggest that participants' conception of the learning environment relates to other inclusive behaviors from other pedagogical domains, as attention to the learning environment was demonstrated when some participants responded to certain questions about some of these other behaviors. The strongest connection was with forming small groups of students who differ in ability and interests to work in joint learning activities (*M* = 1.77, *SD* = 0.73), which five participants linked to the learning environment in both physical and non-physical terms. According to Participant B, how he pairs and groups students

> has a lot to do with the actual physical classroom and the space you have. That classroom you saw today was pretty bad. It was not very navigable for people though to change tables. If I had a bigger room, I'd probably have them change partners more often. I like to maximize students talking with everybody else. […] I tell almost all of my classes this: 'When you come in next week, sit in a different chair, sit somewhere else, don't sit in the same chair every week. That way, when I pair you up with somebody, you're talking to someone else and by the end of the class, hopefully, ideally, you're talking with everybody,' and, you know, that kind of makes people relax.

These responses to being questioned about pairing and grouping students demonstrate some understanding of MacIntyre et al.'s (1998) heuristic model of variables influencing willingness to communicate, which posits that L2 use is determined by a variety

of other factors including desire to communicate with a specific person, intergroup motivation, social situation, and intergroup climate. Language teachers must have some understanding of these factors when asking students to communicate with each other in a classroom setting. This is because, at least in the minds of certain participants in the current data set, particular arrangements of students can impact the classroom environment to the benefit or detriment of their willingness to communicate in the target language and, by extension, their acquisition of and proficiency of that language. One might expect the frequency of this consideration to have had a positive influence on this inclusive behavior's mean magnitude code across the 13 participants, but its relatively low ranking in comparison to other inclusive behaviors results from these teachers' lack of consideration for differences in ability and interest when forming groups and pairs. Instead, participants seem to be primarily concerned with how students will get along, and to a much lesser extent whether or not they have differences in ability and interests. This may be due, at least in part, to language teachers' preference for extroverted learner traits that they associate with "good" language learning (Pfingsthorn, 2022) and/or the "epidemic levels of learner disengagement within Japan's L2 university classrooms," which has been connected to FLA and the social situation within these classrooms by previous researchers (King & Smith, 2017, p. 27). Regardless, however, it does appear that ELTs in the current data set by and large do attend to their students' affective domain, and that this need may or may not be heightened by their beliefs about what constitutes a "good' learner and/or context dependent concerns.

In addition to creating small groups that differ in ability and interest, there were a small number of instances when participants demonstrated consideration for the learning environment in connect to other inclusive behaviors. These were planning lessons to address individual students' strengths and weaknesses (*n* = 1), using a variety of strategies to motivate learners (*n* = 2), establishing standards of conduct and communicating them to students (*n* = 1), using strategies to prevent disruption in class (*n* = 1), considering the possible presence of SWDs in the classroom (*n* = 1), differentiating learning materials and tasks (*n* = 1), and taking specific pedagogical approaches to teach SWDs (*n* = 1).

Within the post-observation interview data, there were a total of 21 utterances by eight participants about the learning environment. Several of these utterances overlapped with other themes related to participants' attitudes about inclusive education: learner

experience (*n* = 3), desire to teach SWDs (*n* = 1), other forms of difference (*n* = 2), assistive technology (*n* = 1), accessibility (*n* = 1), accommodations (*n* = 6), adaptability (*n* = 2), and differentiation (*n* = 1). The number of code co-occurrences between learning environment and accommodations is among the highest in the current data set, likely owing to the fact that accommodations are often made to the learning environment itself. In the present data set, participants related such accommodations in five of these six instances of code co-occurrence; three of these related to accommodations to the learning environment that were for students with a hearing impairment. There were also code co-occurrences with six codes related to participants' concerns about inclusive education, though the total number of each co-occurrence was relatively low. These were concern for giving appropriate attention due to class size (*n* = 2), acceptance of SWDs by their peers (*n* = 2), increased workload (*n* = 1), issues related to diagnosis and/or disclosure (*n* = 2), student performance (*n* = 1), and Japanese cultural interference (*n* = 2).

Desire to Teach Students with Disabilities. Two participants made a total of four comments expressing a desire to teach students with disabilities, revealing a more proactive attitude towards engaging with inclusive education. Both of these participants were also parents of a child with a disability. When asked "In very general terms, how do you feel about teaching students with disabilities?", Participant G answered simply "I want to do it as much as possible." Participant C had more to say, qualified by the preface that his view is unrelated to his status as a parent of a child with a disability:

> I'm not saying this because I'm a parent of a daughter with special needs, but still, people should do this because it's nothing different compared to teaching other classes. And as long as you feel that, you are not afraid of teaching students with special needs. I have experienced, or I've heard that [at] the previous school, one teacher refused to teach the class with a special needs [student]. And that class came to my schedule. So, there was a last-minute change in my schedule and I asked why, and some teachers refused to take the teacher's class because of the students with the special needs, and it was so sad. You know, I know she can do it. And I know she is capable of treating the students very fairly. And, yeah, that was very shocking. So, you know, she lost the chance to teach the class. That class was excellent, actually. So, you know, all the teachers would have to know that it's nothing different from regular class.

This extended quote from Participant C represents an asset view of disability underpinning his positive attitude towards inclusive education, wherein SWDs should be embraced for what they can bring to the class. It also demonstrates the notion that teaching an SWD is beneficial to the teacher by expanding their teaching skillset and reducing apprehensions about teaching an SWD, two benefits of inclusive education that have been previously noted (Graham, 2020; Hunt, 2019). While anecdotal, Participant C also relates the inverse, deficit view held by his former colleague, wherein SWDs are viewed as burdensome in some way.

Responsibility as a Teacher. If not indicating an overt desire to teach SWDs, four participants made one utterance that expressed their opinion that it was their duty as a teacher to teach such students. This responsibility was often framed as a professional obligation, and to a less frequent extent an ethical or moral one. When asked "In very general terms, how do you feel about teaching students with disabilities?", Participant E had this to say:

> I feel like we're kind of responsible for these kids. And if you miss out, right, if you miss them like that, you run the chance of, sorry, I'm a weeper. […] I would feel bad. Yeah, that there are students that are struggling and I don't know it. And I can't help them and I'm not helping them and I would feel not like a failure, but I would feel like, I would feel bad. Yeah, like I'm failing my students.

There were only five code co-occurrences between responsibility as a teacher and four other thematic codes, the first two being related to attitudes and the latter two to concerns: an equity view of education (*n* = 1), accommodations (*n* = 1), lacking inclusive knowledge and skills (*n* = 1), and issues related to diagnosis and/or disclosure (*n* = 2).

Equity View of Education. When asked how he felt about teaching SWDs in general terms, Participant D linked his feeling of responsibility as a teacher to an equity view of education, one which acknowledges that educational systems should "provide equal learning opportunities to all students" (OECD, 2018, ch 1, para 1), including differentiation and/or accommodations based on individual student needs; this view is distinct from an equality view, which does not allow for such differentiation (Graham et al., 2020). Participant D asserted that:

> Just sort of going back to, like, the sort of a general approach to, you know, how we treat members of society […] I guess my basic approach is: all students have different learning needs. Some require more accommodation than others, but they all require

> accommodation to a certain extent, and it's very much part of our job to treat all students as, you know, equally deserving of trying to achieve whatever aims that we have for our students as a collective.

Three other participants shared this view in so many words, two of whom also had a child with a disability and noted a higher awareness of inclusive education in both policy and practice as a result of that role. Two of these four participants also factored inherent differences in language proficiency into this view, while three noted other forms of difference as requiring consideration to achieve equity in the classroom. Participant H, for instance, noted that

> The idea of inclusion is that students should be able to participate in all aspects of the lesson. I think that is very important. As I said, I don't seem to have many students who have some any sort of disability specifically in my classroom, so I don't really have to address that very much. However, there are the students who are possibly disorganized or seem to have certain social issues, and so I do try to help bring those students into the classroom and make them feel as though they are an equal within the classroom. […] Students obviously can identify who the stronger English speakers are, but […] everybody has their own position on the language progress scale.

This view represents a more progressive view of inclusive education. To be more precise, is indicates a view of inclusion that goes beyond integration of SWDs into learning environments to which they must adapt but that will not adapt to them.

Other Forms of Difference. While inclusive education originally developed as an alternative to special education, it has now broadened in scope to include all forms of difference (Boyle & Sharma, 2015; Graham, 2020). Such consideration is also inherent to an equity view of education. Consideration for different forms of difference is therefore also indicative of teachers' attitudes towards inclusive education. In the present data set, six participants made a total of 12 statements expressing some degree of consideration for forms of difference other than (dis)ability. Some other forms of difference mentioned during post-observation interviews with these six participants included differences by age, gender identity and expression, sexual orientation, race, and nationality, with the most frequently raised being nationality. Nationality was most often raised when participants recounted efforts to better include international students in classrooms when they were in

the minority, though there were additional instances when recounting issues related to nationality occurring in a professional development setting (*n* = 2) and in relation to textbook representation (*n* = 1), all of which exemplify the possibility that ELTs have a heightened sensitivity to linguistic diversity (Pfingsthorn & Giesler, 2022). It may also be worth noting that all of these mentions of difference by nationality were made by non-Japanese participants, and so these participants' own experience as non-Japanese teachers may make them more sensitive to the barriers faced by non-Japanese students in a classroom environment that is largely linguistically homogenous. The 12 mentions of other forms of difference were all made with a focus on inclusivity, and so they often co-occurred with other codes denoting attitudes themes. These included the learning environment (*n* = 2), accommodations (*n* = 1), adaptability (*n* = 2), and differentiation (*n* = 3).

Accessibility. Articles 22 through 24 of GC4 pertain to accessibility as one aspect of inclusive education as it is defined and guaranteed as a human right within that document. The term *accessibility* is not explicitly defined in those articles, though Article 22 borrows from General Comment no. 2 at the outset to state that "the environment of students with disabilities must be designed to foster inclusion and guarantee their equality throughout their education" (Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, 2016, p. 7). Accessibility is also contrasted with the use of assistive technology and adaptability within Article 22, which further adds that accessibility "is a dynamic concept" (Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, 2016, p. 7). Following this conception of accessibility, a total of 13 utterances by eight participants were thematically coded using this term. Code applications for accessibility co-occurred with codes for comfort around disability (*n* = 1) and several other attitudes themes, namely learner experience (n=1), learning environment (*n* = 1), adaptability, (*n* = 4) accommodations (*n* = 6), and assistive technology (*n* = 3). There were only four co-occurrences with codes related to concerns about implementing education: one instance each with concern for an inability to give proper attentions to SWDs due to class size, issues related to diagnosis and/or disclosure of SWDs, student performance, Japanese cultural interference, and disruption to traditional practice.

In five instances, participants described pre-existing accessible features of their classrooms or materials that they utilized. These included transcripts for textbook listening activities, read-aloud features of digital materials, and remote participation via Zoom. All four of the participants who mentioned the accessibility of Zoom also noted that the

ubiquity of this technology was a silver lining of the COVID-19 pandemic's impact on education. Similarly, three participants spoke about accessible aspects of the campuses or classrooms where they taught, for example for students with mobility or sensory impairments. In all three cases, these teachers also referred to experiences when they had taught such students and were grateful for the accessibility of the environments in which they taught, demonstrating that experience teaching SWDs can raise awareness of barriers to learning for those students.

Four participants spoke about making conscious accessible design decisions with SWDs in mind when selecting or creating materials or environment features. For example, Participant L mentioned incorporating Grammarly into assignments because it has an accessible voice-to-text feature for students with physical disabilities who have difficulty using a keyboard. Participant D noted that an accommodation he made for a student with a visual impairment, which was to always share a pdf version of his lesson slides with the student before the class, had now become a standard practice for him. Similarly, Participant I noted that, as a result of making accommodations for a color-blind student in a previous year, she now designs all of her materials to be accessible for such students. Asked if he considered the possible presence of SWDs in his classrooms and if he did anything specific as a result of that consideration, Participant H answered that

> Basically, I go for the low hanging fruit. So, you might have noticed the color of the chalk that I used on the board today. It's yellow and white. I think MEXT recommended that we use yellow and white because there are colorblind students and yellow and white on a green background will work better. […] You will have noticed that my writing is quite large. My writing is always like that because of students who might have visual impairments. I think that I have got into very bad habits with the way that I talk in the classroom. In recent years, possibly due to COVID, I usually structure the way that I talk in a way that is simple and hopefully clear for my students. […] As you will have seen I wrote a plan on the board. This is following, I think, so basically the UK when I was doing my teaching cert that my professors said that I did some research, they basically identified six things which are important for best practice teaching. One was providing learner outcomes on the board. Now I am not very good at this. And often because of the way our courses are structured in Japan, setting out learner outcomes can be difficult, so I actually cheat

> and I put down a lesson plan which I think is not as good. But it's a second best. And I do that and one of the reasons I do that is because I know there are students who get confused and so they have a clear plan of what's going to happen. They can think 'where am I?' and they look at the board.

Participant L spoke the most about accessibility compared to other participants, which is interesting given that he mentioned that his university has a relatively large number of students with physical disabilities due to its history of educating learners with Minamata disease. This connection demonstrates that the nature of inclusion can be dependent on very local factors, as well as the notion that previous proximity to and interactions with people with disabilities can positively influence educators' general views on and implementation of inclusive education. Related to this, Participant L also recounted a specific lesson plan he designed for students without disabilities to gain an understanding of the barriers that wheelchair users face in their daily life, and separately discussed selecting content and classroom activities to raise students' awareness of different forms of difference and how people with minoritized identities can face discrimination and oppression in society. Viewing these various responses in total, these discussions of accessibility suggest that pre-existing accessibility features, previous interaction with people with disabilities and/or requests for accommodations, as well as knowledge of inclusive practices from policy recommendations and/or teacher training all appear able to influence whether and to what degree ELTs create accessible learning environments and materials for their students. Furthermore, these views seem connected to one's regard for accessibility and disability in broader social terms, as well as for other forms of difference. Once again, these positive views and resultant actions likely stem, at least in part, from ELTs' propensity for tolerating and accommodating cultural and linguistic diversity.

Adaptability. Articles 26 through 38 of GC4 outline state parties' obligation to ensure adaptability as a feature of inclusive education. This term is not explicitly defined, though GC4 does call for the application of UDL to meet the requirements that all educational environments be adaptable, going on to add that "[c]urricula must be conceived, designed and implemented in such a way as to meet and adjust to the requirements of every student, and provide appropriate educational responses" (Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, 2016, p. 8). The thematic code *adaptability*, then, was applied to utterances when participants described or spoke about the ability, or lack thereof, of their curricula,

pedagogy, and/or learning environments to meet and adjust to the needs of each student. Following this conception, 26 statements by 11 participants were identified.

All 11 of these participants spoke about adaptability as a means of meeting student needs. Five of these 11 discussed student needs and adaptability in relation to disability, while four mentioned giving students the option to use assistive technology when completing assignments as part of their adaptable course design. Five participants spoke about adaptability with explicit regard for differences in English language proficiency level. This makes sense given that language classes are typically skills-based with a focus on procedural knowledge as opposed to content-based courses with a focus on declarative knowledge. By necessity, language teachers make regular formal or informal assessments of students' proficiency with the target language. Responding to those assessments often means adapting materials and coursework to better help students improve and meet learning aims.

Participants also demonstrated some degree of adaptability in response to questions about the 22 inclusive behaviors on the IPELT that were not directly observable. These instances are summarized in Table 5.1 and discussed in more detail below.

Table 5.1

Comparison of Inclusive Behaviors Linked to Adaptability

Pedagogical Domain	**Behavior**	**No. of participants who mentioned adaptability in connection with this behavior**	***M***	***SD***
Task organization	Routinizes instructions and task structures to meet student needs	2	2.77	0.6
Assessment	Uses assessment outcomes to inform instruction	1	1.77	1.01
	Uses a variety of assessment strategies to measure student progress	2	2.15	0.8
	Makes assessment accommodations when necessary	3	2.23	0.83
Teacher development	Reflects on teaching with regard for individual student needs	3	2.08	0.95

Differentiation	Selects curricular resources and materials that align with student goals	2	1.15	0.9
	Plans instruction to address students' individual strengths and weaknesses	3	1.46	0.78
Specific consideration for SWDs	Considers the possibility of SWDs in their classroom and the barriers they face	2	2.31	1.03

Looking at Table 5.1, it becomes apparent that the reported instances of adaptability in participants' teaching were most prevalent in connection with behaviors in the pedagogical domains of assessment and differentiation. It is also possible if not likely that some participants made explicit adaptable instructional choices in relation to the 18 inclusive behaviors that were directly observable and therefore not sufficiently treated as critical incidents for participants to reflect upon during the post-observation interviews. Some apparent instances of teachers' adaptability were captured through field notes, however. Nine of the 13 participants, for example, were observed adjusting time allocations if students needed more or less time to complete an activity, which is an inclusive behavior that demonstrates adaptability.

Accommodations. The term *reasonable accommodation* is defined by the CRPD as "necessary and appropriate modification and adjustments not imposing a disproportionate or undue burden, where needed in a particular case, to ensure to persons with disabilities the enjoyment or exercise on an equal basis with others of all human rights and fundamental freedoms" (United Nations, n.d., article 2). Furthermore, Article 29 of GC4 reiterates the distinction made in General Comment 2

> between the general accessibility duty and the obligation to provide reasonable accommodation. Accessibility benefits groups of the population and is based on a set of standards that are implemented gradually. Disproportionality or undue burden cannot be claimed to defend the failure to provide accessibility. Reasonable accommodation relates to an individual and is complementary to the accessibility duty. An individual can legitimately request reasonable accommodation measures even if the State party has fulfilled its accessibility duty. (p. 8)

In Japanese tertiary education, the AEDPD affords students the right to disclose their disability and make requests for reasonable accommodations. In the present data set, the code *accommodations* was applied to utterances in which participants referred to reasonable accommodations as a result of such a request in either real or hypothetical terms. Thirty-six utterances by all 13 participants were identified in this way.

In the majority of cases (*n* = 25), mentions of accommodations occurred as participants recalled their own or a colleagues' experience teaching an SWD when responding to an interview question about one of the 22 inclusive behaviors that were not directly observable. Participant A, for example, related a request from his university's support office to seat a student with a hearing impairment in a particular area of the classroom, and that he changed how he paired and grouped students in order to make this accommodation. The inclusive behaviors linked to accommodations, and the number of participants who made the connection, were: routinizing instructions and task structures (*n* = 1), forming small groups of students who differ in ability and interests to work in joint learning activities (*n* = 3), making assessment accommodations when necessary (*n* = 7), planning lessons to address individual strengths and weaknesses (*n* = 1), differentiating learning materials and tasks (*n* = 2), considering the possibility of SWDs and the barriers they face (*n* = 3), taking specific pedagogical approaches to accommodate SWDs (*n* = 5), and considering policy guidance on accommodating SWDs (*n* = 3). These connections may suggest that teachers associate accommodations with these specific behaviors more so than others, and/or that accommodations are either easier or more commonly made in relation to these specific inclusive behaviors. Either conclusion is supported by the fact that some of these accommodations have also been made for SWDs by ELTs on other occasions. These include routinizing instructions and task structures (Iwai, in press; Wijaya et al., 2020), making assessment accommodations when necessary (Iwai, in press; Kasparek & Turner, 2020), and differentiating learning materials and tasks (Fišer & Kałdonek-Crnjaković, 2022; Iwai, in press; Lintangsari & Emaliana, 2020; Nyikes, 2019; Razmjoo & Sabourianzadeh, 2018; Stinson, 2018; Tsukamoto, in press). There may also be similar connections between accommodations and directly observable behaviors that participants did not discuss in the post-observation interviews. The last three behaviors listed here comprise the IPELT's pedagogical domain of specific consideration for SWDs, illustrating the conceptual link between this domain and accommodations. This link is clearly evident in those five

participants' responses to being asked if they take any specific pedagogical approaches to accommodate SWDs: for these teachers, making accommodations is the approach. Others take a more laissez-faire approach: in the words of Participant L, his approach is "more dealing with the problems as they arise."

After being asked if he actively considers the possible presence of SWDs in his classes, Participant K shared that the first time he learned he would be teaching a student with autism, he reached out to a friend outside of Japan who teaches such students as a special educator. Based on what he learned, Participant K not only made short-term accommodations, but long-term changes to his regular practice to make his instruction more accessible:

> So, I always, like I did today, wrote up the calendar and said, 'remember, this class has been cancelled,' so that even though it's way in advance, and even though I told them last week, as well, just so again, it's not just for the autistic kids. It's for everybody, but I stopped doing more of that kind of stuff. If anything changes, I tell them way in advance and I remind them a couple of times. What else did he tell me? Oh, giving very explicit instructions, so I don't really, because the level at this university is so good. They're pretty smart. I don't have to give such explicit instructions, but I do anyway. Just because I know there could be somebody with ADHD or autism or something out there.

This is another telling illustration of how prior experience teaching an SWD, along with positive attitudes about their access to education, can lead to better and regular inclusive practices in classes without a disclosed SWD. Critically, Participant K recognized that inclusive practices can help benefit all students, and that SWDs may be present even if they have not disclosed their disability. In fact, this is one of three cases reported in the current data set when a participant made their instruction more accessible as a result of an accommodation, suggesting that with a certain attitude, accommodations can lead to greater accessibility.

Seven participants also discussed accommodations in connection with institutional policy on supporting SWDs. For example, when asked if she ever makes assessment accommodations, Participant I responded:

> we only make accommodations for students that have registered a disability with our disabilities resource office, just very small. So, I've had visually impaired students

> in the past that needed time and a half. So, during test time, in class, they would actually do their own studying and then they would take the assessment at my office on a different date, so that they could get that time and a half, you know, because I can't give every kid 30 minutes, I can only give it to the one for the hearing-impaired students. In that case, whenever there was a listening based portion to an assessment, they could skip that entirely and it didn't count towards their grade. It was just, you know, if it was a 15-point test, but five of those points were based on listening questions, then they were only judged for the 10 points that were not and we get their percentage that way.

As discussed above, the AEDPD requires all public HEIs in Japan to provide reasonable accommodations, with compliance by private HEIs strongly encouraged and legally mandated from April of 2024. This policy language explicitly borrows the term *reasonable accommodations* from the CRPD. Given that these participants discussed accommodations in connection to institutional policy, it becomes possible to trace a clear line from the United Nations policy language directly through the AEDPD and institutional policy guidance to postsecondary ELTs' actual practice, suggesting that institutions play a pivotal role in ensuring that inclusive education policy is understood and enacted by faculty.

As the accommodations theme was by far the most ubiquitous in the current data set, it co-occurred with codes for nearly every other sentiment, attitude, or concern theme at least once. A complete inventory of these code co-occurrences can be seen in Table 4.28. Some more frequent co-occurrences, however, merit discussion. For example, there were five and six co-occurrences respectively with the codes for learner experience and learning environment, which reflects the fact that accommodations are often made to the environment and/or with the learner experience in mind. Additionally, the code co-occurrences between accommodations and accessibility (n = 6) and adaptability (n = 4) demonstrate how closely these three concepts are entwined conceptually and practically. The highest number of code co-occurrences between accommodations and any other theme related to sentiments, attitudes, or concerns was seven, with a concern for issues related to diagnosis and/or disclosure. This is unsurprising considering that accommodations cannot typically be provided unless a student has disclosed their disability and requested them. Teachers' concern about a student's diagnosis, then, is intrinsically linked to the (in)feasibility of accommodations. Participant I's response to the question "Do you actively

consider the possibility that students with disabilities may be present in your class?" captures many of the connections discussed in this section, including a concern for issues related to diagnosis and/or disclosure:

> Yes, I do think about it, especially at a university like ours. It's clear that some students have learning disabilities, you know, definitely autism for sure, ADHD. I'm not going to sit and armchair diagnose students when they have not asked me for accommodations, but I have had students that I suspect are autistic, and with those students I really tried to keep routines. They always had the same desk, you know, if that's what made that particular student comfortable or, or I keep those students paired with the few classmates that they're comfortable working with. That kind of thing. I don't know if I'm—I don't want to impose what I think a learning diagnosis that may or may not be there, but when I do see signs of what seems to be a student who needs a little extra help, I try to give it within the confines of the class without putting them on the spot too much. But trying to give them a little extra support.

One final point to note here is that, through analyzing the applications of the accommodations code to the data, it became evident that every one of the 13 participants had taught at least one identified SWD at some point in their experience teaching at the postsecondary level in Japan. While the current data set may certainly not be an accurate representation of all postsecondary ELTs in Japan, this fact should help underscore the prevalence of identified SWDs enrolled in postsecondary education and, more relevant to the present research inquiry, the extent to which experience teaching SWDs influences future approaches to inclusion for postsecondary ELTs. This view is supported by the strong correlations between experience teaching SWDs and confidence teaching SWDs, $r(237) = .558$, $p < .001$, and inclusive practices self-efficacy, $r(237) = .527$, $p < .001$ noted in the quantitative data analysis.

Assistive Technology. As noted in the preceding subsection, assistive technology is one form of accommodation. As such, mentions of assistive technology in the post-observation interview data could have been thematically coded simply as *accommodations*, though the decision to create a separate theme during coding was made largely on the assumption that COVID-19 had changed the landscape of education enough that it led to more assistive technology than would otherwise have been utilized during the data collection period. Assistive technology is also hugely impactful in reducing barriers to

learning for SWDs worldwide (UNESCO, 2023), and there is ample evidence demonstrating the efficacy of using assistive technology to remove or reduce barriers for ELLs with visual impairments (Arslantas, 2017; Carpenter, 2020; Jayakody et al., 2016; Khan & Mahmood, 2022; Sales Araujo et al., 2023; Susanto & Nanda, 2018; Tran & Pho, 2020; Tsukamoto, in press), hearing impairments (Dewi et al., 2019; Iwai, in press; Mpofu & Chimhenga, 2013; Turner, 2019), and SLDs (Cohen, 2011). Additional calls to use assistive technology to support ELLs with SLDs have also been made before (Abdullateef, 2022; Ali, 2018). By creating a separate code for assistive technology, then, the assumption that a relatively high number of instances of using assistive technology was able to be tested. Ultimately, however, there were only six utterances related to assistive technology made by five participants in the current data set.

An examination of these utterances shows that three participants reported using the automatic captioning feature of Zoom during remote teaching. Two of these did so only as an accommodation for a student with a hearing impairment, while one mentioned doing it as a matter of course when asked if he took any specific pedagogical approaches to teaching SWDs. The other two participants who mentioned using assistive technology also did so in connection to an inclusive behavior. Participant E recalled using assistive technology to differentiate materials and tasks for a pre-COVID student with a hearing impairment. Participant L spoke about using voice-to-text software to reduce barriers for students with physical impairments in connection to using a variety of assessment strategies to measure student progress.

While there is no specific inclusive behavior on the IPELT related to assistive technology, there is one related to technology in more general terms. This is using available technology in lessons to enhance students learning when appropriate (M = 2.54, SD = 0.66), This relatively high mean magnitude code weight among the 13 participants is because the participants in the current data set were regularly observed using available classroom technology such as PC ports and screens. The discrepancy with this frequency of use between available technology and assistive technology suggests that more postsecondary ELTs in the current case context may be inclined to use assistive technology as an accessible feature rather than as an accommodation if it were more available and apparent in their teaching environments. Finally, the data suggests that the COVID-19 global pandemic played a small role in raising awareness of assistive technology for at least some teachers.

Differentiation. Differentiated instruction is a common pedagogical approach that recognizes there is a range of academic ability represented in every class, and that teachers should plan their instruction to best meet students' individual needs (Tomlinson, 2014; 2017). Differentiated instruction has been found to be effective at including SWDs in English language learning (Fišer & Kałdonek-Crnjaković, 2022; Iwai, in press; Kasparek & Turner, 2020; Lintangsari & Emaliana, 2020; Nyikes, 2019; Razmjoo & Sabourianzadeh, 2018; Stinson, 2018; Tsukamoto, in press) and constitutes its own pedagogical domain with four inclusive behaviors on the IPELT. These are differentiating learning materials and tasks (M = 1.23, SD = 0.6), selecting curricular materials and resources that align with student learning goals (M = 1.15, SD = 0.9), planning instruction to address students' individual strengths and weaknesses (M = 1.46, SD = 0.78), and planning instruction to address interests of students (M = 1.54, SD = 0.66). All four of these behaviors were weighted around or below the magnitude coding midpoint of 1.5, and all were in the bottom 20% of the sorted weighting in Table 4.25. Compared to the other pedagogical domains in the IPELT, differentiation was among the lowest with the exception of the conceptually similar domain of specific considerations for SWDs, suggesting that ELTs would benefit from more training in these domains. Findings from a study of 35 pre-service ELTs in German prompted Rovai and Pfingsthorn (2022) to reach the same conclusion, and some previous studies have reported that ELTs can have difficulty differentiating instruction without training and support (Ali, 2018; Pokrivčáková, 2018; Sowell & Sugisaki, 2020; Smith, 2006). In other words, ELTs could likely improve their ability to teach SWDs if they were better trained and supported in differentiation.

Phenomenological utterances related to differentiation occurred 27 times and were made by 12 of the 13 participants in the post-observation interviews. Five participants reported only differentiating for students who were far above the average proficiency level in their class, for example by providing extra tasks. Five other participants spoke about differentiation for underperforming students or students with disabilities, though Participant A noted that determining which students needed extra help was hindered by large class sizes. Two participants reported differentiating assessment based on students' needs, and one participant, Participant I, noted that she differentiates for students who are absent or unable to attend class in-person because of COVID-19. Two others stated that curricular constraints prevented them from differentiating instruction to a desirable degree.

One of these, Participant H, connected differentiation to cultural differences in the Japanese education system, stating that

> we don't have a culture of differentiation and inclusivity within Japan. And whereas if you go to the UK, and you look at the secondary system, it's everywhere, as far as I know. Everybody's thinking about these issues. And so having an FD [faculty development session], just feels like a little bit of disconnected fluff whereas really, this should be a strata in everybody's teaching.

Participant D thoughtfully observed that

> one obvious difference in language education is, you know, students have different levels of proficiency of the language. That might vary depending on the skill that you're practicing or that, if it's grammar or vocabulary or phonology, etc. And so, I guess one way of trying to be aware of those differences and be inclusive so that students who are higher proficiency or lower proficiency in certain areas, is to familiarize yourself as much with those differences, and then provide extra support for the students who need it. And so, one way to do that is to monitor and see how students are engaging with the activities. Just going around and seeing that students are actually doing the task that they've been asked to do if they've understood what it is they're supposed to be doing. And that's just walking around and checking and then if they're struggling or if they're, if it's not clear then, you know, talking to them and provide extra support, so they get to the point where they can do it.

This quote is informative in part because it connects the issue of differentiation to the ability to monitor and provide feedback, which may be more difficult for larger classes, but also because it indicates that an inherent aspect of language teaching—that learners in a single class will have different levels of knowledge and skill in the target language—necessitates differentiation. This can help us to understand that despite the low degree of differentiation reported or observed in participants' instruction, their attitude towards the idea of differentiation was overwhelmingly positive.

Importantly, differentiation can be viewed as an accommodation and may require adaptability on the part of the teacher. It also accords with an equity view of education. Viewed in combination with the above analysis of these themes, and done so while remembering current general concerns about the state of inclusive education in Japanese HEIs from Salmi (2018) and the Committee on the Rights of Persons with disabilities (2022),

these findings suggest that some ELTs working in this context likely have more positive attitudes about the acceptance of learners with different support needs compared to teachers in other fields, as well as have a more advanced understanding of inclusive education than the wider institutions in which they work.

Concerns

Compared to their sentiments and attitudes as measured by the SACIE-R, the current data set was more neutral regarding their concerns about inclusive education. The only two survey items with a mean score below the midpoint were concerns item 2 ("I am concerned that it will be difficult to give appropriate attention to all students in an inclusive classroom", *M* = 2.27, *SD* = 0.91) and concerns item 5 ("I am concerned that I do not have knowledge and skills required to teach students with disabilities", *M* = 2.11, *SD* = 0.91), and so bearing in mind that the concerns subscale was reverse coded, these are obvious concerns among the data set regarding including SWDs in their instruction. Compared to previous administrations of the SACIE-R in which subscale means were reported (see Table 3.1), the current data set's mean for concerns (*M* = 2.59, *SD* = 0.92) was around the midpoint overall and slightly higher than in-service Japanese general educators (Yada & Savolainen, 2017). Fortunately, the post-observation interview data sheds much more light on concerns related to teaching English to SWDs in postsecondary environments, as well as reveals a number of additional concerns about implementing inclusive education for ELTs in these environments.

Thematic analysis of this data revealed a total of 12 concerns, four of which were also captured through the concerns subscale of the SACIE-R. Table 4.27 shows the total number of times each concern was raised by each participant, while Table 4.28 shows how often code applications representing these concerns co-occurred with each other and with codes related to participants' sentiments and attitudes. Cursory analysis of these tables reveals that participants were, by a wide margin, most concerned with issues related to diagnosis and/or disclosure of SWDs, followed closely by curricular constraints. The former was frequently linked to accommodations, while the latter had no strong connections to any single other sentiment-, attitude-, or concern-related theme. Closer analysis reveals much more about the nature of participants' concerns about implementing inclusive education. Each of these concerns is discussed in fuller detail below, beginning with those that were

also captured by the SACIE-R and then proceeding in a logical sequence. These concerns are inability to give appropriate attention due to class size, lacking inclusive knowledge and skills, SWDs not being accepted by peers, increased workload, issues related to diagnosis and/or disclosure of disabilities, distinguishing between disability and general difficulties with language learning, student performance, curricular constraint, institutional barriers, Japanese cultural interference, the Japanese-English language gap, and disruption to traditional practice.

Inability to Give Appropriate Attention Due to Class Size. Survey results for concerns item 2 ("I am concerned that it will be difficult to give appropriate attention to all students in an inclusive classroom") indicate this is a major concern among the current data set (M = 2.27, SD = 0.91). Among the observed subset (n = 13), concerns about the inability to give appropriate attention were raised by four participants a total of 11 times in post-observation interviews, and in all of these instances this concern was linked to class size. This specific concern is not unfounded, as foreign language teachers have been previously found to be more effectively inclusive as classes are reduced in size (Wight, 2015) and many ELTs working in other contexts have also expressed difficulty including SWDs as class sizes increase (Ali, 2018; Smith, 2006; Razmjoo & Sabourianzadeh, 2018). Participant E raised this concern a total of five times. One instance was in response to the question "for you, what problems or difficulties in teaching English to SWDs are the most significant?", while the other four occurred in relation to addressing students' individual strengths and weaknesses, using assessment outcomes to inform instruction, tracking student progress, and considering the possible presence of SWDs. Participant A raised this concern three times: once each in connection with determining how to pair and group students, enforcing standards of conduct in the classroom (specifically not speaking Japanese), and determining if students have individual support needs. Participant H raised this concern once each in relation to using assessment outcomes to inform instruction and to addressing individual needs of SWDs. Finally, Participant B raised this concern just once, which was in relation to giving individual feedback to students. Class size's impact on specific inclusive behaviors is discussed in more detail in a separate subsection towards the end of this chapter.

Lacking Inclusive Knowledge and Skills. As noted above, the SACIE-R results reveal the concern about lacking inclusive knowledge and skills is the single biggest concern among survey respondents (M = 2.11, SD = 0.91). This concern parallels several previous studies in

which ELTs reported feeling unprepared to teach SWDs (Ali, 2018; Fernández-Portero; 2021; Hale & Ono, 2019; Lowe et al., 2021; Pokrivčáková, 2018; Razmjoo & Sabourianzadeh, 2018; Ruddick et al., 2021; Smith, 2006, 2008; Sowell & Sugisaki, 2020; Yphantides, 2022), and accords with at least two other studies using the SACIE-R in general education that showed lack of inclusive teaching skills to be respondents' biggest concern (Aubakirova & Mukatayeva, 2017; Li et al., 2016). Post-observation interview data shows that this concern was raised by seven of the 13 participants a total of 13 times. Two of these responses, by Participants I and J, were in response to the questions "for you, what problems or challenges are the most significant in teaching English to students with disabilities?". Two other respondents raised this concern when asked how they felt in general terms about teaching SWDs. Participant H, for instance, stated that

> I'm happy to do it. I think that they should be included. I think we should receive the appropriate training to deal with those students and we should... I would say that I'm not sure whether we have the skills, I think for our department, I'm not sure whether we have the skills within the department to be able to make materials for students. However, I also think there's a limitation with a lot of teachers in making materials in general.

For Participant H, the concern about lacking knowledge and skills is generalized to the field of language teaching and specific to ELTs' ability to develop inclusive materials. When asked how he felt about teaching SWDs in general terms, Participant K noted that he likes the challenge of learning something new when helping SWDs learn English, but it depends on the disability: when teaching students with mental or emotional disorders, Participant K feels too unprepared in terms of his training. Four participants—Participants D, F, K, and J—raised concern about lacking knowledge and skills when asked to identify their current training needs. Other instances when this concern was raised were in connection to: differentiating materials and tasks; the Japanese-English language gap, expressing that it would be difficult to advocate for a student because she lacks the vocabulary and cultural context to talk about disability with other professionals in Japanese; and establishing and communicating standards of conduct, specifically with regard to a lack of knowledge about inclusive language.

Students with Disabilities Being Accepted by Their Peers. Concern for SWDs being accepted by the rest of the class was moderate among the current survey respondents (*M* =

2.56, *SD* = 0.96). While ELTs in previous studies have reported a similar concern (Ali, 2018; Smith, 2006). Fernández-Portero (2022) found it was not a concern among 952 pre-service ELTs in Portugal and Spain, while the four Iranian ELTs in Razmjoo and Sabourianzadeh's (2018) study successfully used peer teaching strategies to help include SWDs in their classes. Among the class observation and interview participants in the current study, only three participants raised this concern, but each did so more than once. Participant A expressed this concern when asked how he paired and grouped students, as well as whether or not he considered SWDs' experience of learning in his classes. Participant G raised this concern once in connection with significant problems or difficulties in teaching SWDs, and once in connection to a perceived lack of institutional support for SWDs. Finally, Participant E raised this concern three times in total: when asked how he determines how to pair and group students, whether or not he actively considers the possibility that SWDs may be present in his classes, and what problems or difficulties in teaching SWDs he considered to be the most significant. As two of these three participants expressed concern that students would not be accepted by their peers when asked about significant problems or difficulties teaching SWDs, we can see that while this concern is not very common among the 13 total participants, it figures rather prominently for those who do consider it. In addition, it makes sense that two of three respondents here would connect this concern with determining how to pair and group students given the interactive nature of most language learning classroom.

Increased Workload and Stress. While two other common concerns about inclusive education are that implementing inclusive practices increases both workload and stress for the teacher (Boyle et al., 2020; Forlin & Chambers, 2011; Loreman et al., 2007; Saloviita & Schaffus, 2016), respondents in the survey in the present study were somewhat neutral regarding workload (*M* = 2.57, *SD* = .94), and more positive regarding stress (*M* = 2.92, *SD* = 0.92). In post-observation interviews, increased workload was raised seven times by six of the 13 participants, echoing concerns made by a number of ELTs working in other contexts (Ali, 2018; Cimermanová, 2017; Fernández-Portero, 2022; Fišer & Kałdonek-Crnjaković, 2022; Pokrivčáková, 2018; Tsukamoto, in press). Participant J voiced this concern twice, once each in response to the questions "what problems or difficulties in teaching English to students with disabilities are the most significant?" and "how do you feel about teaching students with disabilities?", stating both times that he'd expect the workload to be lesser or

greater depending on the nature of the disability and adding that “professors have a terrible work life balance.” Similarly, Smith (2006) found that perceived degree of need was a major factor in ELTs’ determination of whether or not an SWD could receive accommodations, as well as their willingness to make those accommodations. The other instances of the workload concern in the present data set occurred in relation to establishing standards of conduct, differentiating materials and task, using assessment outcomes to inform instruction, and reflecting on one’s teaching with specific regard for individual student needs. Intriguingly, none of the 13 participants voiced concern about having more stress, which accords with the corresponding SACIE-R result.

Diagnosis and/or Disclosure of Students with Disabilities. Ten of the 13 observation and interview participants expressed concern about the diagnosis or disclosure of SWDs enrolled in their classes. This concern was raised a total of 29 times by these participants. Both in terms of number of participants who raised it and total number of instances, this was the single greatest concern raised within the current data set. This concern was also noted in three previous investigations of ELTs’ views on inclusive education identified in a review of the literature, including two in postsecondary Japanese contexts (Sowell & Sugisaki, 2020; Ruddick et al., 2021; Yphantides, 2022).

Five of the instances in which this concern was raised in the current data set were in direct response to questions about participants’ general concerns about teaching inclusively. For instance, in response to the question “For you, what problems or issues when teaching students with disabilities are the most significant?”, Participant K said “I think I’m most worried about mental issues and not being aware of them. Although, you know, sometimes you can’t be aware of it.” This concern was also frequently raised in connection to a perceived lack of institutional guidance on supporting students with disabilities. The above quote from Participant K continues:

> So, I’m just thinking about some of the most disturbing moments in my career have been with students with mental issues. And I needed support. I needed warning, first of all, which maybe wasn’t possible, but when I approached the school about these particular students, I got absolutely no support. And that was almost as frightening as having to deal with a mental issue, you know, and in one case, I had to take the situation in my own hands and find professional counseling for this student. I mean, it was ugly. And it’s, you know, it. I mean, I felt like this is my job, because I’m sort of

> taking care of my students. But to get some support, for crying out loud. The university's response to that was it's not your responsibility. You're only responsible for teaching them English. And I'm like, the student is in my class causing problems, you know, it's interfering with everybody, so that, you know, anyway, they weren't listening to it. So, I just thought, 'Okay, I'm on my own.' So that's what scares me. I think not getting support when I need it. Like the fact that I'm dealing with students with issues is not the problem, I think, it's that I don't get support.

In response to the same initial question, Participant E connected this concern to social stigma attached to disability, suggesting that this may be why some students do not disclose their disability to the institution:

> I think it's the not knowing. Because then you just- if you don't know, you can't try to help. And but then there's, you know, there's stigma attached. You know, whether they're actually going to say anything to the university or not, yeah, whether they want the university to say anything to you.

Participant I also wondered if some SWDs did not disclose due to stigma, a concern that has been proposed previously in postsecondary contexts in Japan (Kondo et al., 2015; Young, 2021; Yphantides, 2022). Participant E, referring to undiagnosed students, also stated that:

> Undocumented means that, you know, there's a good possibility that it exists in your classroom, and if there is some sort of behavior going on, it might be something more than just bad behavior type of thing. And, I mean, I would like more, I guess, I would like more support from the university, and more information, when there are things going on.

Participant F, when asked about her institution's guidance on supporting SWDs, noted that she was notified when an identified student was present in one of her classes, but expressed concern for students who might have an SLD but not know it themselves. Similarly, Participant G felt that her institution was apathetic towards undiagnosed SWDs. When asked to what extent she felt supported by her institution to teach SWDs, Participant G added:

> I have told people many times that we need to support student A, B, and C. Like I said that many times, then it's literally, one person told me 'you're not a doctor.' And I said, 'Well, I don't have to be.' We meet once a week like this when we're teaching online, and [in] 2020. We meet once a week and all we talk about is our

> students that are having difficulties and they're having difficulties not because we're online, they're having difficulties because they're neurologically different. They have trouble communicating, trouble understanding instructions. They don't—they need to be, you know, I'm supported in different ways. Like, 'oh, you're not a doctor, so you're not qualified to talk about that.' I know. And medical doctors have that, they come from that medical model, even psychologists come from that medical model. So, I just feel it's just like always closing the door on sort of the new person. It isn't convenient. I know that like, I mean, I've sat in meetings before my own kid was diagnosed or teachers are just saying 'this isn't my problem, they shouldn't be here', stuff like this. That's really the attitude. And it shows up in practice.

In sum, Participant G felt that her input was minimized by institutional leadership because of her qualifications, despite a high awareness of inclusive education in policy and practice largely connected to her role as a parent of a child with a disability.

Concern for diagnosis and/or disclosure of SWDs was most frequently raised when participants were asked whether they did anything in particular as a result of considering how SWDs' learning experience might differ that of from their peers (*n* = 6). This was typically asked as a follow-up to the question "Do you actively consider the possibility that a student with disabilities may be present in your class?", to which nine participants said yes, two said yes depending on the circumstances, and two said no. In all of these instances, participants expressed that not having a disclosed diagnosis had previously led to some uncertainty about what specific accommodations they should make when they suspected a student may have an undiagnosed or undisclosed SLD; interestingly, however, these six participants also all stated that they were still able to make some simple accommodations at such times, for example flexibility in pairing or grouping students and in time allotment to complete class activities.

This concern was also raised in connection to a number of other concerns about teaching students with disabilities. These were concerns about student behavior (*n* = 2), students not being accepted by peers (*n* = 2), Japanese cultural interference (*n* = 2), and student performance and/or needs (*n* = 3). Participant F, in response to being asked about which issues or problems teaching English to SWDs were most significant to her, stated that such students often had trouble paying attention in class, adding that:

> It's really hard for me to differentiate a normal student and an ASD or ADHD student, because they're not trying to be lazy, or, you know, they're not trying to make fun of me or just disrespect me or something. So that's a really difficult part for me. When I have somebody whose disability is not really obvious outright.

Participant E recalled being concerned that a student with diagnosed gender dysmorphia would not be accepted by her peers, and so in this case these concerns were related to other students' behavior, as well as a regard for other forms of difference. Participant E also expressed concern that students with less visible, unidentified disabilities might feel pressure to communicate in icebreaker activities, and connected this to a perceived importance of group membership in Japanese society. Participant I noted that her own lower proficiency in Japanese language caused her concern that she could not always advocate for suspected students with disabilities, or help them advocate for themselves to get an official diagnosis and accommodations. Participant M wished that both institutional and national policy had been better equipped to offer support for a non-verbal student she suspected had an SLD, noting that there seemed to be unjust burden on students to self-advocate, all of which was foregrounded by a concern for that particular student's performance and needs.

Four participants raised their concern for diagnosis and/or disclosure of SWDs in relation to an explicit training need. In response to the question "what are your current training needs when it comes to teaching students with disabilities?", Participant E answered "the ability to tell the difference between, like, what's bad behavior and what's something to do with a disability, like more knowledge about that so that you can better determine." Participant J said "we need kind of a sensitive framework for like, discerning like, potential disabilities in the classroom."

One participant linked her concern for diagnosis/disclosure to the impact of COVID-19. According to Participant G:

> It's harder to identify students, like when we're teaching online, harder to make connections with them online. And I know that there's been a lot of like, I've read a lot of articles about COVID and mental health issues, and I think it's very, very hard to tease apart what comes from COVID and what comes from say, other things that could be going on in that person's life. So, I don't know how to tease those things apart and say that it's maybe because of COVID. But I would say that teaching online

> it was much more difficult to establish relationships with the students and to support them, you know, after having discussions with them, but what they might need. That was definitely more challenging.

As can be seen in some of the comments shared above, this concern was also frequently connected to positive sentiments and attitudes and disability and inclusive education. Instances of code co-occurrence with concern for diagnosis and/or disclosure of SWDs included all four sentiments themes: having a child with a disability (*n* = 2), comfort around disability (*n* = 2), participants' own disability (*n* = 1), and imagined disabled self (*n* = 1). This concern also had several code co-occurrences with respondents' attitudes about inclusive education. These included previous experience teaching an SWD (*n* = 8), accommodations (*n* = 7), the learner experience (*n* = 5), the learning environment (*n* = 2), responsibility as a teacher (*n* = 2), adaptability (*n* = 1), and other forms of difference (*n* = 1). As such, participants often expressed a concern about diagnosis or disclosure but grounded it positively in some prior or concurrent experience or knowledge about addressing this concern. One illustrative example is when asked if he thinks about how SWDs' experience in the class compares to their peers without disabilities, Participant D responded, with reference to a particular student:

> Just being aware that he does seem to have that slight discomfort in interaction with other people is something that I'll, you know, remember about him. And also, I think I need to pay more attention to him in terms of making sure that he's following what's going on. And so, whether or not he's a, you know, officially diagnosed as a special education student, it's almost irrelevant, noticing that about him.

Ruddick et al. (2021) similarly found that the 15 postsecondary ELTs working in Japan in their study also relied on previous experience teaching SWDs to armchair diagnose potential SWDs that they encountered later, leading the researchers to wonder if any of them had ever misidentified a student as having a disability due to a lack of relevant training. The inclination, however, among these ELTs to identify students in this way likely stems from a combination of Japan's postsecondary policy of selective inclusion, a lack of clear institutional policy guidance and support on accommodating SWDs, and the similarity between the presentation of SLDs, language learning difficulty, and more general learner variables.

In sum, concern about diagnosis and/or disclosure of SWDs was the most prevalent and frequent concern raised in the current data set. The increasing percentage of self-reporting SWDs year-on-year as reported by JASSO indicates that this stigma may be slowly eroding, an observation first made by Kondo et al. (2015), though this may also play a part in some SWDs' decision not to disclose. At the very least, it is important to consider that many ELTs likely have this perception. The current data set also suggests that, as has been suggested before (Ruddick et al., 2021; Yphantides, 2022), more inclusive institutional policy, better institutional support, and more targeted teacher training regarding diagnosis and identification of SWDs could help address concerns among ELTs related to an assumed lack of disclosure in Japanese postsecondary education. If the current data set is at all representative of postsecondary ELTs in Japan in broader terms, then many if not most of these teachers would likely welcome such changes in policy and practice.

Differentiating Disability and Difficulty with Language Learning. Closely tied to the concern for diagnosis and/or disclosure of disabilities is differentiating disability and difficulty with language learning. This is because language learning can present unique cognitive and affective barriers to students with certain forms of disability, in particular SLDs and sensory impairments, that may present to teachers as more generalized difficulty with language learning as an academic subject (Kormos, 2017a). In their study of 23 EFL teachers working around the world, for instance, Sowell and Sugisaki (2020) found that some participants had "fear that they might misdiagnose a student with a learning disability when their struggles were the result of a cause other than a learning disability" (p. 126). Similarly, Ali (2018) found that 84.4% of 218 ELTs in Egypt "had high level need for differentiating between learning disabilities and language and communication disorders" (p. 175). However, only five participants in the present data set expressed concern about the ability to differentiate between a disability and general difficulty with language learning. The lack of explicit concern among the other eight participants may indicate their general lack of awareness that disability may present as generalized difficulty with language learning, which would further highlight the need for relevant training among ELTs.

Two of the five participants who did raise this concern did so directly in response to the question "what problems or difficulties in teaching English to students with disabilities are the most significant for you?". Additionally, all five indirectly mentioned this concern in connection to other concerns or aspects of language teaching raised at other times during

the post-observation interview. For instance, three participants (Participants D, G, and H) noted that students' poor performance on traditional or standardized assessments may result from their disability and not accurately reflect their actual English language proficiency. Three participants (A, D, and M) also noted a lack of certainty about whether or not students' difficulty communicating with their peers in English was related to a disability or not, and this uncertainty often overlapped with a concern about institutional policy on identifying students with disabilities, echoing similar conclusions from Ruddick et al. (2021). Participants A, G, and M all noted their concern about differentiating disability from general language learning difficulty in connection to institutional policy. One comment from Participant A neatly captures how these various concerns intersected in the current data set. In response to the question "what problems or difficulties in teaching English to students with disabilities are the most significant for you?", he stated that

> in my experience, the most significant or possibly, I mean, it depends on how you define disability, but students who are not interested or not willing to communicate with their partners. It's really difficult. Like, I've had students that just obviously turned off, that just weren't going to communicate. But was that a language issue? Was that kind of a socialization issue or was that a disability issue? It's really hard for me to determine. The university, in those students' cases, the university had not sent me information saying this student is disabled and needs special concessions. But that said, I realized that, you know, waiting for the university to tell me is also problematic.

Concern for distinguishing disability from general language learning difficulty never co-occurred with any codes related to sentiments towards people with disabilities or attitudes about inclusive education, all of which were positively framed. This suggests that the five participants who did express this concern did not know how to best address it, though two participants related specific instances when they tried communicating with a student with a suspected SLD to ask about their low level of interaction in the class. In each case, however, these participants stopped short of asking the student if they had a diagnosis for fear of offending the student or breaking with institutional guidelines and so ultimately felt unsure of how to address their students' needs. Finally, only one participant raised concern about differentiating disability from general language learning difficulty in connection to knowledge and training. Regarding the complexity of how language learning

and disability interact in the cognitive domain, Participant D commented that “I think there’s no end to the training or the information you can get about it.”

Student Performance. Eight participants expressed concern for how SWDs performed in their classrooms, a concern previously found among pre-service ELTs in Portugal and Spain (Fernández-Portero, 2022). Four of these did so directly in response the question “what problems or difficulties in teaching English to students with disabilities are the most significant for you?”. Participant D, for instance, answered that “I guess the cases where the course aims and the, sort of, the key tasks that students are being assessed on, you know, inherently poses a big challenge for the students.” Participant B’s concern differed from the others, however, as his primary concern was how SWDs could negatively impact other students in the class by requiring more time to communicate their ideas during class discussion, and thereby take time away from others to practice speaking during discussion activities.

Seven participants raised their concern for student performance indirectly. Three of these participants did so with consideration for how SWDs experience learning, particularly with regard to how they interact with their peers and the teacher. In all three cases, these participants illustrated their concern with reference to previous teaching experiences; one of these referenced teaching shy students in general terms, while the other two mentioned specific students with suspected or disclosed disabilities. Other code-occurrences with themes related to sentiments towards people with disabilities included one co-occurrence each with comfort around disability and imagined disabled-self. Similarly, three participants’ responses yielded a total of four co-occurrences with codes related to attitudes about inclusive education (accommodations, *n* = 2; adaptability, *n* = 1; differentiation, *n* = 1), all of which occurred when these participants related their concern for student performance when adapting, differentiating, or making some other form of accommodation when teaching an identified student with a disability.

Six participants expressed their concern about student performance in connection to one or more inclusive teaching behaviors. These were establishing standards of conduct (*n* = 1), using a variety of strategies to manage student behavior (*n* = 1), following routines (*n* = 2), considering the possible presence of SWDs (*n* = 1), taking a specific pedagogical approach when teaching SWDs (*n* = 1), making assessment accommodations (*n* = 1), and considering policy guidance on teaching SWDs (*n* = 1). These code co-occurrences suggest that these

specific behaviors may have a more explicit relationship with student performance, at least as it is perceived by teachers. The concern for student performance were also occasionally connected to some of the concerns already discussed above, specifically diagnosis and/or disclosure of SWDs (*n* = 4) and differentiating between disability and general language learning difficulty (*n* = 2), as well as others yet to be discussed, namely curricular constraints (*n* = 2), institutional barriers (*n* = 2), Japanese cultural interference (*n* = 2), the Japanese-English language divide (*n* = 1), and a lack of knowledge and skills (*n* = 1).

Curricular Constraints. Nine participants said that they had experienced or were currently experiencing curricular constraints or barriers to inclusion, a concern which has previously been raised as limiting the adaptation of teaching materials for ELLs with dyslexia (Fišer & Kałdonek-Crnjaković, 2022) and visual impairments (Lintangsari & Emaliana, 2020). Additionally, one participant in Razmjoo and Sabourianzadeh's (2018) observations and interviews with four Iranian ELTs expressed difficulty including SWDs because of the school's mandated curriculum. In total, there were 27 separate instances of this concern being raised by these nine participants in the current data set, making it the second most prevalent concern following issues related to diagnosis and/or disclosure. Two of these instances were raised directly in response to the question "What problems or difficulties in teaching English to students with disabilities are the most significant?". Participant D's greatest concern was cases in which course aims, key tasks, and assessments present barriers to certain students, for example teaching and assessing speaking with students who have disabilities that impact their ability to speak freely with others. This specific concern relates to a core tension in taking certain inclusive approaches to teaching language to students with disabilities. Universal Design for Learning, for instance, calls for allowing multiple means of expression, but this is difficult in language courses focused on developing a particular mode of expressions, i.e., speaking or writing (Young, 2023).

The concern for curricular constraints or barriers to inclusion was also raised indirectly a total of 20 times when participants were asked about specific inclusive behaviors, indicating that curricular constraints were perceived to be responsible for limiting those behaviors. These behaviors were primarily related to the pedagogical domains of differentiation and, to a lesser extent, assessment. A common feature of these instances was that participants felt that they lacked the freedom or authority to make changes to the curriculum set by their department, center, or program. Conversely, those participants with

a higher degree of control over their course content and curriculum expressed smaller concern tempered by a variety of mitigation strategies to perform certain inclusive behaviors.

Eight participants raised their concern for curricular constraints when asked to what extent they select materials and resources that align with student goals, though some of these participants were able to mitigate the curriculum's impact on this inclusive behavior. Participant E, for instance, used supplementary materials, while Participant D was able to adapt the prescribed textbook to meet his students' needs. In addition, Participant G was able to overcome this concern through reflective practice, and Participant F surveyed students about both their learning goals and topic interest to inform the creation of a program-specific textbook being piloted at the time of the observation. Four participants expressed concern about curricular barriers to inclusion when asked to what degree they planned lessons to include student interests. Participants G and F were able to alleviate their concern as it related to incorporating student interests in the same manner as they did for selecting materials and resources that aligned with students' learning goals. Two participants noted this concern when asked to what extent they planned lessons to address individual students' strengths and weaknesses, and one raised it in connection to differentiating learning materials and tasks. Similarly, there was one instance each of this concern being raised in connection to the following inclusive behaviors: making assessment accommodations when needed, using assessment outcomes to inform instruction, using a variety of forms of assessment to chart students' progress, and considering policy guidance. Compared to other concerns raised by participants, concern for curricular barriers seems to have the most direct and negative impact on inclusion in actual practice, at least as perceived by those participants.

Critically, the vast majority of the nine inclusive behaviors connected to the concern for curricular constraints had low mean magnitude codes and relative rankings in the IPELT, as is shown in Table 5.2 below.

Table 5.2

Comparison of Inclusive Behaviors Linked to a Concern for Curricular Constraints

Pedagogical Domain	Behavior	No. of participants who link curricular constraints to this behavior	*M*	*SD*
Differentiation	Selects curricular materials and resources that align with student learning goals	8	1.15	0.9
	Plans instruction to address interests of students	4	1.54	0.66
	Plans instruction to address students' individual strengths and weaknesses	2	1.46	0.78
	Differentiates learning materials and tasks	1	1.23	0.6
Assessment	Makes assessment accommodations when necessary	1	2.23	0.83
	Uses assessment outcomes to inform instruction	1	1.77	1.01
	Uses a variety of assessment strategies to measure student progress	1	2.15	0.8
Task organization	Designs learning experiences that connect new learning to prior learning	1	2.54	0.88
Specific consideration for SWDs	Considers institutional/national/global policy guidance on accommodating SWDs	1	0.77	0.73

It should be reiterated here that 22 of the 40 behaviors captured by the IPELT were unobservable, including all of those listed in Table 5.2 above, and so the magnitude coding for these behaviors was determined through the post-observation interview data. This collection method allowed participants the space to connect their (in)ability to perform any given behavior to specific external factors such as curricular constraints, a freedom that was less probable for the 18 behaviors that were directly observable during the classroom observations. It is therefore entirely possible that participants felt constrained by their curricula with regard to some of the 18 behaviors that were directly observable and that the current data collection method limited participants' ability to voice their concern in connection to these behaviors. However, Participant D did note that curricular constraints made it difficult for him to take as communicative approach to teaching as he would have liked, which may have also limited his ability to exhibit inclusive behaviors that overlap with communicative approaches to teaching. Similarly, Participants B, E, and I all mentioned

using a lot of scaffolding, which is one of the inclusive behaviors captured by the IPELT that overlaps with principles of communicative language teaching, as a way to help students overcome barriers presented by their curricula, an inclusive behavior notably used by ELTs in other contexts (Cohen, 2011; Fišer & Kałdonek-Crnjaković, 2022; Stinson, 2018).

This high number of code co-occurrences with inclusive behaviors listed on the IPELT suggests that curricular constraints and/or barriers may have a particularly strong impact on postsecondary ELTs' ability to provide differentiated instruction, especially with regard to materials and resource selection. This interpretation is supported by available case studies in similar contexts, that is, postsecondary EFL teaching/learning environments in Japan. Kasparek and Turner (2020), for instance, were able to accommodate a special educational needs student by adapting materials and tasks to include her special interests, noting that the course being modified was originally designed without such students in mind. Reminiscent of Participant F's pilot course, Creaser and Yukimaru (in press) reported that students in a UDL-based course were invited to create designs for their course-specific workbook, which provides space for them to incorporate their learning goals and interests. Both Iwai (in press) and Yphantides (in press) described case studies, for a hearing impaired and neurodiverse student respectively, in which differentiated materials and tasks were effectively used to address their students' strengths and weaknesses in relation to the other students enrolled in the course. Such adaptation and accommodation do, however, require open communication with students regarding their needs, as well as some degree of training and knowledge by the teacher or a collaborator, and so would be difficult if not impossible in cases where the student had not disclosed their disability or institutional supports were scarce.

Finally, attitudes themes with code co-occurrences with concern for curricular constraints were learner experience (*n* = 1), accommodations (*n* = 2), and differentiation (*n* = 2); co-occurrences with other concerns included institutional barriers (*n* = 1), student performance (*n* = 2), increased workload (*n* = 1), ability to give appropriate attention (*n* = 1), and lacking inclusive knowledge and skills (*n* = 1). There were no co-occurrences with any of the four codes related to sentiments about engaging with people with disabilities. This minimal degree of code co-occurrence suggests that the concern for curricular constraints is largely independent of other concerns, as well as from sentiments towards people with disabilities and attitudes about inclusive education, and likely context dependent.

Institutional Barriers to Inclusion. Dissatisfaction with institutional support has been previously noted by ELTs working in other contexts (Pokrivčáková, 2018; Razmjoo & Sabourianzadeh, 2018; Smith, 2006), and calls for more robust institutional support for teachers of SWDs working in the present case context have been made before (Fujiwara et al., 2022; Sueyoshi & Tsuge, 2023; Young, 2019; Young et al., 2019). Seven participants in the current data set reported a concern about institutional barriers to inclusion. There were 14 phenomenological utterances related to this concern in total, one of which was made directly in response to the question "For you, what problems or difficulties in teaching English to students with disabilities are the most significant?". In this case, the participant's concern was closely tied to a concern for differentiating disability from a more general difficulty with language learning, as well as to a concern regarding student performance. Code co-occurrences with other concerns were: diagnosis and/or disclosure of SWDs (*n* = 4), differentiating disability and difficulty with language learning (*n* = 2), student performance (*n* = 2), curricular constraints (*n* = 1), Japanese cultural interference (n = 1), and the Japanese-English language gap (*n* = 1). For themes related to sentiments towards people with disabilities, there was one co-occurrence with having a child with a disability; for attitudes about inclusive education, there were four code co-occurrences with the theme of accommodations, most of which occurred as participants recounted stories of advocating for accommodations on behalf of a particular student only to encounter an institutional barrier to providing that accommodation. The concern surrounding institutional barriers was never linked to any specific inclusive behaviors in the present data set.

The overwhelming majority of expressions of this concern were in response to questions about institutional guidance on supporting SWDs, the extent to which participants followed such guidance, and the extent to which they felt supported by their institution when teaching SWDs. These responses paint a picture of shared dissatisfaction among the seven participants who voiced this concern, as well as some common features perceived as a failing on the part of the university or one of its offices. These features can be summarized as a lack of adequate communication with and support for teachers, a lack of meaningful accommodations for students, and a lack of adequate knowledge or expertise in supporting teachers or students. Asked about his institution's guidance on supporting students with disabilities, Participant A responded:

> It's basically nothing. It's basically, they send you that request, and then it's up to the teachers. Like, everything's up to the teacher's discretion. So, one of the frustrating things is if the student calls the office to ask for help, the office will say 'please contact the teacher because it's up to the teacher.'

In response to the same question, Participant K expressed similar frustration with the lack of communication and support from the university when a student with a disability is enrolled in one of their courses. Participant E replied "well, I'm sure it exists, but it's not communicated to us" before relating an incident when he went to his institution's support office to ask about a particular student. In that incident, the support office was aware of the student because he had disclosed his disability and requested accommodations, but the office had never notified the teacher of his diagnosis or support needs.

When asked if she ever made assessment accommodations for students with disabilities, Participant G shared a similar incident about encountering barriers to accommodating an autistic student:

> An openly autistic student that told me out loud on the first day that she has special needs and what she needed from me. Now, her diagnosis is more than two years old, so she has to get re-diagnosed [before she can qualify for accommodations]. And the process is going to be very difficult because she also needs to advocate all, like, for herself, all the different things that she needs during the test, all the different accommodations, and I don't think she really knows what she needs exactly because she's only taken the test once. So, she's not really familiar with that and she's also, you know, it's hard for her to advocate for herself. So, I went to my dean and I said, 'we should give her the ITP on campus and I'll be her reader because I've helped her take other tests before,' like just these entrance tests, right? I was her reader. And they said 'no'. They said no, that she has to go through the whole diagnostic process, and that she's gonna go to a test center like everybody else, and she has to get 80 or she can't be here.

This anecdote also illustrates the role that university leadership can play in ensuring or denying students receive the accommodations that they need, as well as how institutional barriers can be presented to both students and their teachers when they attempt to serve as advocates. Furthermore, the experiences of Participants E and G show how participants' concern for institutional barriers is often related to concern surrounding diagnosis and/or

disclosure. Such institutional barriers can be demotivating for ELTs and prevent them from providing accommodations. Razmjoo and Sabourianzadeh (2018) found that a majority of ELTs in their study agreed that their efforts to accommodate SWDs were not valued by their institutions, and so they should therefore not feel bad for not successfully including such students. Similarly, Smith (2006) found that ELTs' attitudes towards including SWDs were in part determined by institutional ethos regarding inclusivity, concluding that ELTs working in an environment that does not value inclusivity will be less likely to challenge the status quo. Smith (2006) also found that ELTs working in the public sector had more positive views about accommodating SWDs due to the more robust support systems compared to the private sector. Recalling that the AEDPD is not yet legally mandated for private HEIs in Japan, the fact that Participants E and G both worked full-time for private HEIs during the data collection period may help account for the poor service provisions for SWDs as perceived by these participants.

Other participants' expressions of concern for institutional barriers in the current research inquiry indicate that not all universities in Japan are the same in how effectively they provide support for SWDs. Asked about the extent to which she felt supported by her institution, for instance, Participant F replied that she felt generally supported, but that she had to "fight" with the university leadership to gain approval for certain accommodations, specifically allowing online instruction for students with health concerns. When asked to what extent she considers policy guidance from any level, Participant I replied that

> Honestly, we don't really have any policies for it at all. We do have a very, very small disability resource office, but it's just the tutors, you know, advising a particular student. We don't have a dedicated, like, fulltime, you know, personnel on that here. It's just too small of a university. So instead, I base it on the best practices I've had at previous institutions that did have, you know, dedicated disability resources staff.

It may be worth noting that Participants F and I also worked full-time at a private HEI during the data collection period.

The notion that not all HEIs in Japan provide a uniform or standard degree of support is supported by data reported to the Japan Student Services Organization (JASSO). In 2022, for instance, 36.5% of Japanese HEIs reported to JASSO that they offered training for teachers of SWDs, 29.3% reported having consultation services and social gatherings for SWDs and support staff, and 27.9% reported providing information about procedures for

supporting SWDs to new students (JASSO, 2023). There are also some existing reports of ELTs experiencing different levels of support from their institution with regard to accommodating SWDs. Tsukamoto (in press), for instance, only received notification from the university support center when a student with a disability was enrolled in her course, but she received no actual practical support. Yphantides (2022) similarly reported that eight postsecondary ELTs in Japan wanted more support from their institutions to properly accommodate SWDs enrolled in their courses. Young and Schaefer (2019), on the other hand, discussed successfully coordinating with their institution's SWDs support office to provide support for teachers with identified SWDs enrolled in a compulsory EFL course at a private university in Tokyo, and some of the teachers in Lowe et al.'s (2021) study cited a positive institutional ethos around disability and inclusion as major factor in their ability to provide accommodations for disclosed SWDs. Similarly, Iwai (in press) wrote in her case study about supporting a student with a hearing impairment that the student's decision to take her course was possible only because of the support office's promise to the student that they would provide her with total support throughout the year, and Kasparek and Turner (2020) noted the importance of a support office's involvement in their modification of an EFL course for a student with unspecified support needs at a private Japanese university.

In the current data set, Participant M was the most vocal about their concern for institutional barriers to inclusion, identifying a lack of transparency about university services and provisions, as well as a top-down flow of information and decisions, as central features of these barriers.

> Lack of visibility. […] It's always, like, feels like it's top down […] because most of the times that we see some students who are in need, we direct them to the wellness coordinator or counselor, that's it. We don't really get any feedback or any other information after that. I don't even know whether the student actually went to the wellness coordinator until I ask them. And even if we direct them there, I never ever got the information from the wellness coordinator or a counselor about whether a student actually went or not. So that's why I tried to closely communicate with a colleague who's been here long enough.

Participant M elaborated on their concern to say that

> Sometimes students will come talk to me and say that they need something. Sometimes it's, like, too late in the semester to make accommodations because usually this should be happening at the beginning of the semester when they register for the class. But then we only have one counselor, too, and then she's also only available for Monday through Friday, nine to five. That's pretty tough. […] I try to spend more time with the students who are in need, I try to reach out to them, you know, if I see anything happening in the class, I try to talk with them outside of the class, or usually I email them, because I don't want to be, you know, obvious that, like, I'm talking with some of the students privately outside of the class. I normally just email them saying that, 'well, this is something that I observed in class, are you okay? If you need to come talk to me, I'm here.' So, I usually just say that my doors are open for anything that you want to discuss, and then they usually come talk to me knowing that I'm Japanese and then they feel comfortable talking in their first language.

While some participants found strategies to address their institutions' lack of inclusive support, for example Participant I's drawing on previous experience or Participant M's providing out-of-class support, most of the participants who expressed this concern did not relate such workarounds. Viewed in total, the findings here and those of relevant previous studies strongly suggest the importance of institutional support in accommodating SWDs.

Japanese Cultural Interference. Eight participants voiced concern for how one or more aspects of Japanese culture can interfere with inclusive education. The code signifying this concern was applied to any utterance in which the participant described a perceived Japanese cultural norm or value as a factor in inclusive education in their practice or teaching context. There were 18 such utterances in total, with some notable code co-occurrences with other thematic codes. Only one instance of this concern being raised was made in response to the post-observation interview questions about which problems or issues related to teaching SWDs were most significant: Participant I noted that she would like to be able to approach students who appear to be having trouble with mental health, but that she does not feel comfortable doing this because of her perception that talking about such issues is taboo in Japan compared to her home country of the United States. There were several code co-occurrences with other concerns about implementing inclusive education. These included concerns for giving proper attentions to SWDs due to class size (*n*

= 2), lacking inclusive knowledge and skills (*n* = 3), the acceptance of SWDs by their peers (*n* = 1), issues related to diagnosis and/or disclosure of SWDs (*n* = 4), student performance (*n* = 2), institutional barriers (*n* = 1), and the Japanese-English language gap (*n* = 2). In almost all cases, the concern for Japanese cultural interference was a secondary, complicating factor of another concern.

Speaking about her prior experience working in primary education, Participant I implied that the stigma around disability in Japan can prevent parents of children with disabilities from seeking a diagnosis and accommodations and wished this stigma had been reduced to the point that it has in the United States. This view calls to mind the policy difference between postsecondary and earlier levels of education in Japan. At the primary and postsecondary level, the parents or guardians of SWDs are legally required to disclose any diagnosis to their school, whereas postsecondary contexts follow a policy of selective inclusion wherein SWDs can choose not to disclose their disability to their institution. Participant I's concerns are also not unfounded, as many researchers have previously noted that the stigma surrounding disability in Japanese society can prevent parents or and guardians from seeking diagnosis or disclosing a disability for their child beyond the necessary medical or educational networks (Heyer, 2015; Inose, 2020; Kondo et al., 2015; Todo & Young, in press). Similarly, the role that stigma can play in preventing postsecondary students in Japan from disclosing a disability has been previously noted (Kondo et al., 2015; Young, 2021; Yphantides, 2022) and can further compound practitioners' concerns for issues related to diagnosis and/or disclosure, as well as specific efforts to teach more inclusively. The following comment from Participant M illustrates this point:

> Today, I tried to, after this just talking about the discussion roles, I just tried to bring them to attention, saying that well, you have to make clear eye contact because I know that some of the students have a difficult time doing it. We do in that particular afternoon class. We do have several very shy students. You probably have noticed that one particular students are having a hard time making eye contact but the thing is, that with the Japanese students, it's very difficult to let them and then, you know, ask them to go to the hospital and then get diagnosed.

Analysis of the three code co-occurrences with a concern for lacking knowledge and skills reveals these to be incidental, though four participants did refer to their concern for Japanese cultural interference one or more times in connection to experiences they had had

with professional development for accommodating SWDs. All of these participants characterized their experience with this professional development as something of a mixed bag: there were positive aspects tempered with an adverse and seemingly static cultural backdrop. Participant E, for instance, echoed Participant I's sentiment when responding to the question "Have you participated in any in any professional development aimed at teaching students with disabilities, and if so, how would you characterize it?"

> JALT [Japan Association for Language Teaching conference], but there's been so many JALTs over the years. Well, I guess I would characterize it as being useful but it also, the unfortunate takeaway is, it makes me realize how little I know and how sort of unprepared or whatever you want to call it, the Japanese educational system in general is for it, and the possibility of students falling through the cracks and not getting the support that they need, etc. […] In America, I think there's more of a culture of aggressiveness about it, like, less shame in revealing that you need help.

Participant H had a similar view after attending on-site faculty development for supporting SWDs held by his HEI. Concern for Japanese cultural interference was also unsurprisingly connected to a concern for institutional barriers, if only by one participant. Participant L noted that it would be difficult to propose support systems or accommodations to his university because

> the thing about Japan is, if you can find an example, then it's much easier to propose something. And so that's also been a really important part is knowing 'Okay, the school does this. Why don't we take our program and add that to it?' And that sort of accretion. You know, a very typical Japanese thing is, no one will be the first one to do something, but if someone else does it, they'll say 'Oh, well, maybe we can do that.'

This comment highlights some of the subtext of many of the other quotes that appear above: that perceived socio-cultural norms can create specific interpretations about how inclusivity is or should be achieved institutionally. It also demonstrates that some practitioners may not take more proactive steps towards inclusion because they assume that those efforts will be rebuffed for reasons related to presumed cultural views or values, echoing concerns noted by Razmjoo and Sabourianzadeh (2018) and Smith (2006). Such passivity can allow a status quo in which a student's needs are going unmet to continue unchallenged while simultaneously absolving one from responsibility for action.

Finally, there were also two cases of this concern being connected to participants' consideration for the possibility that SWDs may be present during instruction. Participant E, for example, stated that

> I don't want this, like, putting people on the spot type of thing because I think there's a lot of stress and shyness and sort of psychological things going on with our students that we're not aware of, you know, because it's a cultural thing. They don't tell us or we just don't have any experience with it, or they wouldn't tell us anyways.

It's important to note that the concern for Japanese cultural interference was not limited to non-Japanese participants. Participant M, for instance, noted that they worried SWDs would not feel comfortable talking to them about disability or difficulty learning because of the perceived teacher-student relationship as hierarchical in Japan. Participant M then went to lament that, compared to their experience working at a university in the U.S., they have less leeway to approach students and counselors, and that the response speed to students' requests for support in Japan is slower. Expressing a similar point of view, Participant F stated that "I think Japanese inclusive education is very, very out of date, and because when I read some paper article in English, they're saying totally different things." As can be seen in many of the quotes above, most participants expressed their concern for Japanese cultural interference by comparing some aspect of Japan or Japanese education with another country or its educational system. This framing makes sense given that the international profile of the participants, and also helps account for the relatively high number of code co-occurrences with codes referring to positive attitudes about inclusive education in general terms. These co-occurrences were with the learning experience (n = 2), the learning environment (n = 2), other forms of difference (n = 2), accessibility (n = 1), adaptability (n = 1), and differentiation (n = 2).

Six instances of the concern for Japanese cultural interference occurred in responses to questions about specific inclusive behaviors. Participant H, for instance, echoed his previous view when asked to what extent he differentiated learning materials and tasks, stating that "in secondary education in the UK, differentiation is huge: it is a central component of teaching. For the past 15 years, I've been quite shocked that almost every institution that I've worked in in Japan doesn't differentiate." Asked to what extent he considers policy guidance from any level, Participant L responded that

> I don't consider it much because oftentimes, it's not very clear why it's coming down. Especially in Japan, where it seems like oftentimes things are done for appearances sake, right, rather than for actually dealing with the problem. So, I tend not to give it much notice.

Participant L also felt limited to perform another inclusive behavior, collaborating with colleagues to meet student needs, because of a perceived rarity of such collaboration, particularly with regard to classroom observations, within Japanese universities. Participant M implied that Japanese cultural interference inhibited her ability to use a variety of strategies to prevent disruption in class.

These six instances connected to five inclusive behaviors, raising the prospect that a concern for Japanese cultural interference may also have an impact on inclusion in actual practice, including some of the 18 observable behaviors that participants were not asked about during the post-observation interview. This possibility is supported by the fact that several participants raised their concern for Japanese cultural interference only incidentally when giving examples or talking about different aspects of their teaching. Participant G, for instance, mentioned that she has developed a particular way of communicating with Japanese students in the classroom that differs from how she has communicated with students with other nationalities in the past and at her current institution.

The Japanese-English Language Divide. Five participants made a total of eight utterances expressing a concern about the Japanese-English language divide and its impact on inclusive education or its provisions. Analysis of these responses revealed two aspects of this broader concern. The first is that non-Japanese teachers may not be proficient enough in Japanese to communicate with the relevant support office or students about requests for accommodations, and the other is that the language gap may be preventing Japanese educators and schools from accessing the most current research and information available in English. The second aspect of this concern was also found to be a concern among 15 postsecondary ELTs in Japan in another recent study (Ruddick et al., 2021).

Three participants, one of whom was Japanese and two of whom were not, raised this concern for non-Japanese teachers' ability to communicate with university support staff or students in Japanese. Participant J twice raised his concern for the language gap in relation to receiving requests for accommodation for identified SWDs from his institution's support office, as these are in Japanese, which Participant J reported having difficulty

reading. He also noted that English translations and/or improving his own Japanese proficiency would help alleviate this concern. This same concern and a feasible solution were also shared by Kennedy (in press), who in her capacity as lead EFL teacher at a private university in Japan, worked with the relevant support office at her institution to machine-translate requests for accommodations for the ELTs employed there, as well as make sure those teachers understood the information being provided to them.

Similarly, in response to the question "for you, what problems or difficulties in teaching English to students with disabilities are the most significant?" Participant M first expressed concern for differentiating between disability or general language learning difficulty, but tied this to a secondary concern for students being able to speak in English about any difficulties they might be experiencing. Participant M noted that, being Japanese, they could communicate about any such issues in their L1, but that this wouldn't be the case for other teachers. In response to the same question, Participant I shared an anecdote from her time teaching at a Japanese junior high school:

> I remember being at such a loss when I was doing an English lesson with two autistic girls and one of them had a meltdown. In the middle of the class. And I understood why because the school was having a change in their schedule for the day. And it hadn't been clearly communicated to that student by their homeroom teacher. The student didn't understand that it was a half day schedule. It, you know, just triggered the meltdown. The student started engaging in self harm as part of the meltdown. And I was left while the homeroom teacher, you know, went to try to contact the mother, I was left alone with the student. And I've had, of course, autistic and especially, you know, students with learning disabilities in the United States. And it's one thing to communicate with them in their native language, but I didn't have enough Japanese to communicate with this poor girl mid-meltdown and I understood again, what had triggered it. And when the mother came and she scolded the homeroom teacher, she's like, 'You should have told the student about the schedule change further in advance.' […] And I just remember thinking, 'I wish I had—I have friends that are special education teachers in the United States—and I wish I had had a bit more training of what to do.

Here we can see that Participant I, who has training to teaching students with specific learning difficulties and is herself autistic, was primarily concerned with having more

training to deal with autistic students experiencing a meltdown, but that what training she did have could not immediately be applied due to her insufficient command of the Japanese language. Young (2019) previously noted that the language gap may also prevent non-Japanese teachers from proactively seeking support within their institution, which may conceivably be the case among some of the participants in the current data set, though none of the post-observation interview data suggests this to be the case.

Two other participants, both of whom were Japanese parents of a child with disabilities, perceived the Japanese-English language divide as a barrier that prevented Japanese practitioners from accessing more up-to-date information and perspectives on inclusive education. Participant C, speaking as a parent of and advocate for his daughter with disabilities, brought up the Japanese-English language gap in relation to poor accommodations at his daughter's schools. Asked if he had any familiarity with inclusive practices, he responded

> Oh yes, because I experienced myself and also, I tried to suggest inclusive education in elementary and junior high for my daughter and I read a lot of papers and translated them into Japanese. It's just a summary because they don't understand the English. And yeah, try to persuade, try to convince the school needs inclusive education. But they never listen to me.

Participant F expressed a similar concern when asked to identify her training needs to better teach SWDs. Here, she expressed shock that Japanese-language and English-language academic articles on inclusive education are so out of step. She then went on to share an incident in which she attended a Japanese-language online workshop on supporting SWDs that was held by a bilingual practitioner. In that workshop, the presenter pointed out the same discrepancy that Participant F had noticed herself, though the rest of the audience seemed unaware of the additional or alternative perspective and methods being written about in English.

The analyses of these two groups of responses are supported by the code co-occurrences between the concern for the language gap and other thematic codes related to participants sentiments, attitudes, and concerns. These connected themes were having a child with disabilities (*n* = 1), the learner experience (*n* = 1), accommodations (*n* = 2), lacking inclusive knowledge and skills (*n* = 3), issues related to diagnosis and/or disclosure (*n* = 1), differentiating between disability and general difficulty with language learning (*n* = 1),

student performance (*n* = 1), institutional barriers to inclusion (*n* = 1), and Japanese cultural interference (*n* = 2).

Disruption to Traditional Practice. Speaking about inclusive education in broad terms, Participant L stated that it "can be really disruptive to traditional practices." In response to the question "Do you have any familiarity with inclusive practices?", he answered:

> I do read a lot about inclusive practices. I hesitate to kind of immediately apply it because I do want to kind of turn it over in my mind. You know, is it going to disrupt the class? I mean, at a certain point, you know, disrupting class is not a bad thing all the time. But I do think that the teacher needs to have, control sounds like a really strong word, but has to know where the boat's going. And if it's too disruptive, then you end up not knowing where you're going. So, I read a lot about inclusive practices, but I take my time to introduce them.

While Participant L was the only participant who raised this concern, it is informative because it signals that, at least in one practitioner's mind, conventional approaches to language teaching are not automatically inclusive, that teaching inclusively may not be reconcilable with other approaches, and/or that the perceived needs of students who are not experiencing difficulty take priority over other students' needs.

Factors Influencing Sentiments, Attitudes, and Concerns

The Spearman's correlation analysis (see Table 4.9) suggests the importance of confidence teaching SWDs, experience teaching SWDs, and inclusive practices self-efficacy in relation to all three subscales. Additionally, previous interactions with people with disabilities and knowledge of both local and global policy had statistically significant correlations with sentiments and concerns, but not the modified attitudes subscale. While most of the background variables that correlated with the subscales in the present study were not found to be predictive through the robust MLR, previous interactions with people with disabilities and inclusive practices self-efficacy did predict sentiments. Several previous studies using the SACIE-R found the same correlative or predictive power for the importance of confidence teaching SWDs (Agavelyan et al., 2020; AlMahdi & Bukamal, 2019; Li et al., 2016; Opoku et al., 2021; Özokçu, 2018a; Poon et al., 2016; Stavroussi et al., 2021; Tahsein & Ahsan, 2016; Tuncay & Kizilaslan, 2021), experience teaching SWDs (Emmers et al., 2020;

Navarro-Mateu et al., 2020; Nwosu et al., 2023; Opoku et al., 2021; Tuncay & Kizilaslan, 2021; Yada et al., 2018), inclusive practices self-efficacy (Ayub et al., 2019; Özokçu, 2018b; Yada et al., 2018), previous interactions with people with disabilities (Kunz et al., 2021; Li et al., 2016; Özokçu, 2018a; Poon et al., 2016; Stavroussi et al., 2021; Yada et al., 2018), and knowledge of local legislation (AlMahdi & Bukamal, 2019; Özokçu, 2018a; Poon et al., 2016; Stavroussi et al., 2021; Tuncay & Kizilaslan, 2021), but not knowledge of global policy. These findings also accord with several other quantitative studies using different instruments than the SACIE-R. Nijakowska et al. (2018), for instance, found that prior experience teaching students with dyslexia and previous interactions with people with dyslexia predicted ELTs attitudes about confidence teaching such students. Similarly, Smith (2006) found that prior experience teaching SWDs predicted ELTs' willingness to accommodate such students again.

The lack of IPSE's predictive power in the current findings may be due to a poor operationalization of this latent factor. The Cronbach's alpha for IPSE was .938. However, inclusive practices self-efficacy is difficult to define and model (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). As the revised version of the SACIE-R has now been validated, however, future administrations could incorporate the Teacher Efficacy for Inclusive Practices scale (TEIP, Sharma et al., 2012), which has previously been validated and used with the SACIE-R in a number of other studies (Ayub et al., 2019; Emmers et al., 2020; Hannah & Nolan, 2019; Kunz et al., 2021; Li & Cheung, 2021; Özokçu, 2018b; Romero-Contreras et al., 2013; Vogiatzi et al., 2021; Yada et al., 2018).

The independent ANOVA tests suggest age group and nationality do not relate to sentiments, attitudes, or concerns among postsecondary ELTs, though the three nonbinary respondents had statistically more positive concerns means than male respondents. Previous administrations of the SACIE-R have had mixed results, with several showing gender to be correlative and/or predictive of the concerns subscale (Agavelyan et al., 2020; Gallego-Ortega & Rodríguez-Fuentes, 2021; Opoku et al., 2021; Tuncay & Kizilaslan, 2021) and others showing it not to be (Aiello et al., 2017; Emmers et al., 2020; Mouchritsa et al., 2022; Navarro-Mateu et al., 2020; Poon et al., 2016). Pending further investigation, the current study can likely be added to the latter list of studies, owing largely to the fact the studies that did find a difference in gender found it between male and female groups, not male and nonbinary ones, and because the sample of non-binary respondents in the current data set is very small (n = 3). Additionally, the lack of a statistically significant relationship

with nationality lends some credence to the interpretation that the current respondents' high subscale means relative to nearly all previous SACIE-R administrations except for one conducted in Japan (Yada & Savolainen, 2017) relate to other contextual factors, for example subject area, level of education, policy, or level of human development, but not nationality.

Several previous administrations of the SACIE-R among general education teachers have noted the importance of both pre- (Forlin et al., 2011; Kunz et al., 2021; Li & Cheung, 2021; Mouchritsa et al., 2022; Navarro-Mateu et al., 2020; Özokçu, 2018a; Poon et al., 2016; Romero-Contreras et al., 2013; Tuncay & Kizilaslan, 2021; Yada et al., 2018) and in-service teacher training (Mouchritsa et al., 2022; Navarro-Mateu et al., 2020; Özokçu, 2018a; Poon et al., 2016; Yada et al., 2018). The current findings have important implications for both forms of teacher training. For pre-service training in the current administration, Welch's t-tests found that holders of an MA in TESOL, applied linguistics, or similar had more positive attitudes, $t(129) = 2.029$, $p = .044$. Critically, and remembering that the concerns subscale is reverse coded, the positive *t* value reveals that these MA holders had, in real terms, more concerns about implementing inclusive education than respondents who did not hold this qualification. However, such MA holders who did receive training to teach SWDs while earning their MA in TESOL, applied linguistics, or similar had more positive: sentiments, $t(13) = -3.308$, $p = .003$; attitudes, $t(13) = -3.183$, $p = .003$; and concerns, $t(13) = -2.341$, $p = .035$, meaning fewer actual concerns. Holders of such an MA degree also reported: less knowledge of global policy on inclusive education, $t(129) = 2.062$, $p = .04$; lower inclusive practices self-efficacy, $t(129) = 2.074$, $p = .039$; and higher perceived lack of skills and knowledge to teach SWDs, $t(129) = 2.192$, $p = .03$. If these MA holders received training to teach SWDs while earning that MA, they reported greater knowledge of global policy on inclusive education, $t(13) = -3.928$, $p = .001$; more confidence teaching SWDs, $t(13) = -2.413$, $p = .02$; and a smaller perceived lack of skills and knowledge to teach SWDs, $t(13) = -2.866$, $p = .013$.

The discrepancy between holders of an MA in TESOL, applied linguistics, or similar and other respondents, as well as between those MA holders who received training to teach SWDs while earning their degree and those who did not, provides the strongest possible indication within the current data set that MA TESOL and TESOL-related programs should better prepare their teacher trainees to effectively teach SWDs. There was no such

divergence observed for any other form of pre-service teaching qualification in the current administration of the SACIE-R. Those who received training to teach SWDs while completing a PhD in TESOL or Education both had statistically different means for all three subscales, though this is likely because receiving such training at the doctoral level suggests a high degree of specialization in special or inclusive education.

With regard for in-service training, Welch's t-tests found almost all forms of in-service training to teach SWDs related to at least one subscale (see Tables 4.12-4.14). Two forms of in-service training—attending conference presentations, workshops, or talks and doing independent reading or research—related to all three subscales. Additionally, engaging in a community of practice related to sentiments and concerns. Respondents who reporting engaging in these three types of ongoing professional development also reported higher knowledge of local policy, knowledge of global policy, confidence teaching SWDs, and IPSE (see Tables 4.15-4.19). Those who engaged in a community of practice dedicated to teaching SWDs, $t(37) = -3.113$, $p = .003$, and doing independent research, $t(85) = -2.775$, $p = .006$, also had higher perceived skills and knowledge to teach SWDs. These findings accord with Tanaka and Díez-Ortega (2021), who found that attending conferences has a positive impact on language teachers' beliefs and motivation to learn more about teaching, as well as changes to actual practice. Similarly, engaging in a community of practice has been shown to have significant positive impacts on teachers' self-efficacy (Brennan et al., 2022; Wang & Zhang, 2023). Investigating communicative English language teaching in Japanese HEIs, Moritani (2019) found that non-Japanese teachers had more well-defined self-concept and understanding of their professional roles related to their engagement in three forms of professional development: learning from other teachers, involvement with teacher organizations, and self-study. The present findings suggest the same benefits can be gained in relation to inclusive language teaching. Intriguingly, training conducted within the workplace did not relate any of the subscales, though it did relate to: knowledge of local legislation on teaching SWDs, $t(51) = -2.888$, $p = .005$; knowledge of global policy, $t(51) = -3.025$, $p = .003$; confidence teaching SWDs, $t(51) = -4.424$, $p < .001$; inclusive practices self-efficacy, $t(51) = -4.52$, $p < .001$; and perceived lack of skills and knowledge to teach SWDs, $t(51) = -2.872$, $p = .005$. These results suggest that training conducted within the workplace can still improve teachers' readiness to teach SWDs even if it does not change their views on inclusive education.

Viewed in total, a few key conclusions can be made based on the findings captured in Tables 4.12-4.19 and discussed immediately above. Firstly, MA programs in TESOL, applied linguistics, or similar have a clear need to include training on how to teach SWDs. Secondly, the findings related to in-service teacher training suggest that any form on ongoing professional development can increase policy awareness, confidence teaching SWDs, and inclusive practices self-efficacy. Except for attending conference presentations, workshops, or talks, all other forms of in-service training can also increase perceived skills and knowledge to teach SWDs. This is true even for teachers who have received training to teach SWDs in their job or workplace, which often occurs as an institutional mandate. Such training, however, did not significantly relate to sentiments, attitudes, or concerns. This suggests that teacher agency in seeking and selecting trainings is necessary for improving teachers views on inclusive education for SWDs, though this may just as likely be reflective of selection bias: teachers who are more likely to develop their inclusive teaching skills or learn more about inclusive education and practices may do so because they already have positive views about including SWDs in their instruction.

This interpretation further supports the idea that a person's sentiments, attitudes, and concerns are largely attributable to other factors, for example personality or beliefs about the world such as views on equality and social justice, that are not captured by the current model. Respondents' positive views may also be attributable in part to language teachers' sensitivity to linguistic diversity (Pfingsthorn & Giesler, 2022), which could make them more inclusively minded as a character trait. Understanding that postsecondary ELTs' preparedness to teach SWDs appears to be responsive to ongoing professional development even if it is not voluntary, however, is ultimately a hopeful prospect, though further investigations into this possibility should be made.

The results of the qualitative data analysis seem to support the quantitative results. Eleven of these 13 reported receiving at least one form of in-service training to teach SWDs on the background section of the SACIE-R, though twelve reported such training during their post-observation interviews. (Participant K, who previously reported receiving no such training, stated on separate occasions during his interview that he had done independent reading and research on how to teach students with SLDs.) The post-observation interview data supports the findings that confidence and experience teaching students with disabilities, along with previous interactions with people with disabilities, positively impact

teachers' general views on teaching inclusively. Participant C, for instance, reported a high degree of confidence and strong desire to teach SWDs due in part to his previous experience teaching such students, as well as being a parent of a child with a disability. Participants also frequently referred to previous experiences teaching SWDs, often with detailed accounts of accommodations or other service provisions offered to those students, when responding to questions about their in-service training.

Interview data also allows some interesting considerations for each type of in-service training. For instance, while participating in such training conducted within the job/workplace did not relate to any of the three SACIE-R subscales, its benefits for preparing teachers to teach inclusively were reported by two participants. Participant H stated that most of his knowledge of inclusive practices had come from "bumping into" different policies and procedures in different teaching positions in the UK and Japan over the span of his career, while Participant B noted that he had changed how he designed materials to be more accessible to students with color-blindness and/or dyslexia after attending a mandatory training on the topic at one of his workplaces. Attending conference presentations, talks, or workshops was the most commonly reported form of in-service training raised during post-observation interviews.

Interestingly, three participants mentioned the same frequent and prolific presenter on topics related to accessibility and accommodations for students with SLDs in Japan, and this same person conducted the onsite training about materials design at Participant B's institution. If nothing else, this phenomenon speaks to the possibility for positive influence a single practitioner can have within a community of practice. Conducing independent reading or research was raised by four participants, while three mentioned engaging in a community of practice. One of these, Participant F, spoke about a community of practice she joined as a parent of a child with a disability in order to support his learning at home, but what she had learned in that community had also influenced her classroom practice.

Finally, it is worth noting that the frequency with which some of these participants participated in such in-service trainings is yet another reflection of the opt-in bias of the current data set. This is another indication that these participants very likely care more about accommodating SWDs than the average postsecondary ELT in Japan, though their experiences are useful for determining how in-service training can better prepare other ELTs to successfully include SWDs in their instruction.

CLT and Inclusive Practices

The second research question was "how does experience and/or training in communicative language teaching influence the nature of inclusive practices in these teachers' instruction?". As was discussed in Chapter II, many principles of CLT overlap with principles of inclusive practices, making CLT compatible with inclusive education as a field, and following communicative principles as a way to better include SWDs in English language instruction has been proposed before (Smith, 2018). There is also a sizeable body of normative practical research demonstrating the efficacy of CLT principles for including SWDs (Cohen, 2011; Dini Anggraheni et al., 2020; Dykes, 2017; Fišer & Kałdonek-Crnjaković, 2022; Iwai, in press; Kasparek & Turner, 2020; Nyikes, 2019; Ooiwa & Yap, in press; Razmjoo & Sabourianzadeh, 2018; Stinson, 2018; Wijaya et al., 2020). Furthermore, it was expected that participants would have at least some knowledge of CLT not only because of its orthodoxy within the entirety of the TESOL field (Duff, 2014; Littlewood, 2014; Richards & Rogers, 2014), but also because it has been a commonly used approach at the postsecondary level in Japan in the past (Abe, 2013). Indeed, results to the three background items from the SACIE-R pertaining to CLT demonstrated its pervasiveness. On 5-point Likert scales from "very low" to "very high," respondents reported high degrees of knowledge of CLT (M = 4.03, SD = 1.18), as well confidence (M = 4.11, SD = 1.12) and experience (M = 4.14, SD = 1.12) using a communicative approach. These three items were operationalized as CLT self-efficacy (CLTSE), which had high internal consistency (α = .966) and mean (4.09, SD = 1.06).

CLTSE correlated with confidence teaching SWDs, r(237) = .134, p = .038, experience teaching SWDs, r(237) = .113, p = .08, inclusive practices self-efficacy, r(237) = .216, p = .001), reflective practice self-efficacy, r(237) = .582, p < .001, and sentiments, r(237) = .156, p = .016. The correlations between CLTSE and confidence teaching SWDs and experience teaching SWDs may offer support for the notion that following CLT principles helps create more inclusive classroom experiences for SWDs. However, the effect size of the correlation with experience teaching SWDs is small, and so these correlations may simply occur as an effect of general experience teaching. That is, the more experience one has of language teaching, the more likely that person is to have a high CLTSE, confidence teaching SWDs, and experience teaching SWDs as functions of time spent in the profession. This interpretation is further supporting by the results of the robust MLR, which showed that

CLTSE did not predict any of the three subscales in the SACIE-R. As this robust MLR did find two factors predicting sentiments—previous interactions with people with disabilities, *R2* = .04, *F*(2, 236) = .000, *p* = .003, and inclusive practices self-efficacy, *R2* = .08, *F*(6, 232) = .001, *p* = .018—CLTSE may indirectly influence sentiments towards people with disabilities through its correlation with inclusive practices self-efficacy. It is also worth noting that CLTSE did not correlate with or predict the modified attitudes or concerns subscales.

Eight Compatible Behaviors

That being said, an examination of the IPELT magnitude codes sorted by mean weight (see Table 4.25) suggests that CLT principles help create a more inclusive language learning experience for SWDs even if the teacher is unaware of this effect. For instance, all eight of the inclusive behaviors that overlap with CLT principles on the IPELT scored above the midpoint (1.5) during magnitude coding. These eight behaviors and their respective ranking among the 40 behaviors captured by the IPELT are summarized in Table 5.3 below. Intriguingly, the three behaviors compatible with both CLT and inclusive education that had the highest rate of occurrence in the studies summarized in Table 2.1 (creating a safe learning environment where students feel encouraged to take risks, recognizing and respecting affective factors of learning, and scaffolding activities to help students meet learning objectives) all ranked very highly compared to other mean weights for the other compatible behaviors. It is important to remember that none of the participants had disclosed SWDs enrolled in the classes being observed, and so these more frequently observed behaviors were not performed as accommodations but as standard practice.

Table 5.3

Inclusive Behaviors that are Compatible with Principles of CLT Ranked by Mean IPELT Magnitude Code

Pedagogical Domain	Ranking among 40 IPELT Behaviors	Inclusive Teaching Behaviors	*M*	*SD*
Student development	1	Tolerates learner error	3	0
Learning environment	3	Creates a safe learning environment where students feel encouraged to take risks	2.85	0.38
Student development	5	Recognizes and respects affective factors of learning	2.77	0.44

Task organization	13	Scaffolds activities to help students meet learning objectives	2.31	0.85
Task organization	15	Links different skills in and across activities	2.31	0.48
Task organization	20	Allows collaborative pair- and group-work	2.23	0.6
Task organization	21	Relates learning activities to students' personal experiences (e.g., by providing rich, meaningful input)	2.23	0.93
Student development	28	Provides frequent and appropriate feedback during class activities	2	1

As Table 5.3 shows, the most frequent behavior among all 40 inclusive behaviors captured by the IPELT was tolerance for learner error (*M* = 3, *SD* = 0), which is also a key principle in CLT (Richards, 2006). Additionally, as committing errors is a fundamental aspect of the language learning process, it is not at all surprising that this behavior would rank so highly and uniformly on the IPELT. This behavior is conceptually related to creating a safe learning environment where students feel encouraged to take risks (*M* = 2.85, *SD* = 0.38), which also ranks very highly compared to other behaviors on the IPELT. It is not surprising to see that toleration of learner error, creation of a safe learning and environment, and recognition and respect for affective factors of learning are so high if one allows that ELTs have a high sensitivity to linguistic diversity (Pfingsthorn & Giesler, 2022) and language learners have different levels of motivation and degrees of confidence using a foreign language. Additionally, it is well-established that the learning environment plays an important role in motivation and willingness to communicate for language learners (MacIntyre et al., 1998; Yashima, 2002), and creating a supportive learning environment has been previously observed as an inclusive behavior among other groups of ELTs with no training in inclusive practices (Iwai, in press; Nyikes, 2019; Ooiwa & Yap, in press; Razmjoo & Sabourianzadeh, 2018; Wijaya et al., 2020).

Scaffolding activities to help students meet learning objectives is a common communicative principle (Richards, 2006) that has also been shown to increase participation of English language learners with SLDs (Cohen, 2011). This behavior ranked 13th out of the 40 inclusive behaviors on the IPELT (*M* = 2.31, *SD* = 0.85). However, only one participant consciously mentioned scaffolding in connection to inclusive practices. When asked if he takes any specific pedagogical approaches to accommodate or include SWDs, Participant E

mentioned using a lot of scaffolding and modeling, but also noted he would do more to be inclusive if he was less restricted by the syllabus, textbook, and scheduling determined by his university. One way to scaffold activities is to use multisensory and multimodal support, which has also been previously found to be effective at including SWDs in English language learning (Abdullateef, 2022; Algrni, 2020; Cohen, 2011; Fišer & Kałdonek-Crnjaković, 2022; Iwai, in press; Kasparek & Turner, 2020; Lintangsari & Emaliana, 2020; Nyikes, 2019; Ooiwa & Yap, in press; Stinson, 2018). Multimodality refers to the use of different channels of communication to convey meaning, and has received substantial attention in the field of English language teaching in recent decades (Kessler, 2022). Multimodality is also a common feature of various reified sets of inclusive practices such as UDL, Universal Design for Instruction, and Universal Instructional Design (Evans et al., 2017), as well as CLT (Brandl, 2008; Richards & Rodgers, 2014), and has been advocated as an inclusive practice in the field of English language teaching (Kormos & Smith, 2024). In the current data set, the inclusive behavior of using multisensory and multimodal materials and tasks during activities (M = 2, SD = 0.91) ranked 27th out of 40 among the IPELT magnitude codes sorted by mean weight.

Common forms of multimodal support observed during participants' classroom observations were scripts and visual aids during listening activities and instructional talk, color-coding linguistic information, graphic organizers for content generation, manipulative role cards, and student movement around the room for certain tasks. In one case, several activities made use of iPad minis that the university provided to all students as part of their tuition payment. Some of these forms of multimodal support, however, have the potential to exclude students with certain impairments. Color-coding, for example, may not assist students with colorblindness, while students with mobility impairments may experience difficulty, even to the point of social othering, if required to move around the room to complete a task. While such impairments were not observed during the observations in question, these impairments could be undiagnosed and invisible to the teacher, highlighting the need for careful consideration of inclusive design in an environment of selective inclusion. This conflict calls to mind the paradox of inclusion, wherein efforts to include one group risk excluding others (Grace & Gravestock, 2009).

Most participants did not explicitly state that these choices were made for the benefit of including SWDs. However, two participants did provide very similar examples of

multimodal support when asked if they took any specific pedagogical approaches to teach SWDs. Participant C noted that he used closed-captioning for YouTube videos when he taught a student with a hearing impairment, while Participant D stated that he provided a pdf version of scripts used for listening activities to an autistic student with auditory processing disorder. In both cases, these forms of multimodal support were made at a prior time as an accommodation for a self-identified SWD who requested support from the institution. These findings suggest that the observed multimodal support, at least within the current data set, was likely not provided on the assumption that unidentified SWDs may be present in the classroom, but rather to scaffold language learning and use first and foremost or to accommodate SWDs when a diagnosis was known to the teacher.

Linking different skills in and across activities (*M* = 2.31, *SD* = 0.48) ranked 15th out of the IPELT's 40 inclusive behaviors in the current data set. This behavior is part of a spiral curriculum design, aiding in the uptake and retention of information for students with SLDs (Grace & Gravestock, 2009), and also helps teachers fulfill UDL checkpoint 3.4, maximizing transfer and generalization (CAST, 2018). Linking skills in and across activities also encourages repetition and automatization of linguistic forms, a common communicative principle (Celce-Murcia, 2014; Dörnyei, 2009; Richards, 2006). The main limiting factor that prevented participants from making more explicit, frequent, or meaningful connections between skills was the use of a textbook. To be clear, not all instances of textbook use were limiting in this way, but in three of four cases when a mandated textbook was used, the progression of activities in those books as used by the teachers did not link language or communication skills. In all three of these cases, participants were not able to select their own textbook, as this choice was made for them by their department or center as part of the curriculum. These same three participants also noted during their post-observation interviews that their inability to select their own teaching materials was tied to their concern about curricular constraints in meeting diverse needs in the class. As such, a curriculum which limits teachers' ability to select and provide their own textbook, or one in which the mandated textbook is not inclusive, may hinder teachers' ability to perform the specific inclusive behavior of linking skills in and across activities.

As language use is at the heart of any communicative endeavor, utilizing pair- and group-work is an essential aspect of a communicative approach (Celce-Murcia, 2014; Dörnyei, 2009; Richards, 2006; Richards & Rogers, 2014). Such cooperative learning is also a

common feature across multiple principled approaches to inclusive education (Evans et al., 2017). In the current data set, the inclusive behavior of allowing collaborative pair- and group-work was ranked 20th overall (*M* = 2.23, *SD* = 0.6). Though this behavior ranked at the midpoint of the set of 40 total behaviors, the mean magnitude code above two indicates that this behavior was still observed among the majority of applicable activities across all 13 lesson observations. In cases when participants did not maximize pair- or group-work, it was either because groups were too large for all students to participate evenly in an activity, teachers allowed independent work that could have been collaborative, or pairs/groups did not change throughout the lesson.

From an inclusive standpoint, the behavior of allowing collaborative pair- and group-work is connected to another inclusive behavior that does not overlap with CLT: forming small groups of students who differ in ability and interests to work in joint learning activities (*M* = 1.77, *SD* = 0.73). This behavior occurred less frequently than allowing collaborative pair- and group-work, as many teachers did not go the extra step to consider their students' ability and interest when forming pairs and groups. While most participants did have students change pairs and groups between collaborative activities, this was most often done randomly or following a principle of convenience and not with consideration for individual factors. For Participants A and B respectively, the high number of students enrolled and small physical size of the classroom were central mitigating factors that prevented more frequent changes in pairs and groups. Despite some shortcomings in maximizing pair and group interaction, all 13 participants recognized that this was an important aspect of their teaching, with some demonstrating a great deal of forethought that incorporated inclusive instructional aims beyond language learning. As Participant H stated:

> The aim of my pairing is basically to break down the inhibitions of the students so that they do not feel intimidated by a particular person. It's also to set each student up to understand that their role is to communicate with anybody regardless of who they are, and I find that brings out the best of even the shyest students. I feel it's very beneficial. Another way that I pair is sex-based. […] I feel as though it has an extremely positive effect on the motivation of the students. I think they're particularly interested to talk to members of the opposite sex. They haven't necessarily done that before. I feel as though I provide a safe space in which they can communicate, and so I also feel as though this has a pastoral aspect to it almost in

that, that providing this opportunity is preparing the students for the broader world and by allowing them to talk to people who they might never normally talk to. Participant H was not entirely alone in this regard. Considerations made by other participants when forming pairs or groups included not only ability or interest, but (perceived) gender, willingness to communicate, mood or affect, and perceived interpersonal relationships between students.

The difference in mean magnitude code weights between the two behaviors of allowing collaborative work and grouping students who differ in ability and interest suggests that ELTs are more often than not incidentally inclusive in their approach to collaborative learning, though in some cases teachers are very intentionally inclusive. As noted in the discussion of participants' attitudes towards the learning environment, the responses to questions about pairing and grouping students reveals some understanding, at least unconsciously, of MacIntyre et al.'s (1998) heuristic model of variables influencing willingness to communicate, which theorizes that a variety of factors such as desire to communicate with a specific person, intergroup motivation, and the social situation influence L2 use in any given context. It should not be surprising that language teachers have a heightened sensitivity to such factors in their classrooms, nor that attention to related factors would have a positive influence on other inclusive behaviors in the pedagogical domain of the learning environment.

The inclusive behavior of relating learning activities to students' personal experiences ranked 21st overall, but still occurred in most observable activities (M = 2.23, SD = 0.93). This behavior overlaps with each CLT principle topping the lists in Table 2.2, namely focusing on real communication (Richards, 2006), personal significance (Dörnyei, 2009), and providing rich, meaningful input (Brandl, 2008). Observed instances of this behavior were overwhelmingly in the form of personalized writing and discussion prompts, but also included task-based activities like self-introductions and creating an imaginary language school for study abroad students.

Finally, the least frequently observed inclusive behavior that overlaps with principles of CLT was providing frequent and appropriate feedback during class activities (M = 2, SD = 1), which ranked 28th out of the 40 IPELT behaviors. One explanation for the lower ranking and relatively high standard deviation for this observed behavior may be the differences in class size observed during the qualitative data collection. For example, Participant A, who

was the only participant to be assigned a magnitude code of zero for this observed behavior, stated in the post observation interview that he had difficulty giving appropriate attention to individual students because of the large class size a total of three times—once each in connection with determining how to pair and group students, enforcing standards of conduct in the classroom (specifically not speaking Japanese), and determining if students have individual support needs, stating that

> sometimes we'll get non-traditional learners, students who are obviously older than the other students, then I may start to think about what they may need in the course, but with the number of students I teach, it's really difficult to kind of focus on one student and in the larger group.

This participant had 44 students in his class for the observation, which was the largest group observed among the 13 participants. By contrast, Participant H was one of five participants who received a magnitude code weight of 3 for this observed behavior, and was the only one of these five participants to mention class size as a concern. In response to the question "to what extent do you use assessment outcomes to inform your instruction?" Participant H answered that

> there's a lot of me commenting on how the students have done, an audit or formative feedback, which I can do in that that kind of class. It's easy to do. In a large class, I do that a lot less, however.

Participant H had only two students in his classroom observation, by far the lowest of the 13 participants' lessons. Two other participants, Participants B and E, who respectively received magnitude code weights of 2 and 1 for giving appropriate feedback during class and had class sizes of 25 and 20, also mentioned class size was a concern. Tellingly, both raised class size as a concern in response to the question "to what extent do you plan lessons to address students' individual strengths and/or weaknesses?" Participant B answered

> I want to do that more, but I probably don't. Mainly, maybe if only because the class sizes are so large. But yeah, giving individual feedback is, is good. So, I guess the short answer is not as much as I would like to.

Participant E answered

> I guess I would say not very much, because obviously, when you're dealing with, you know, 30 to 40 students, it's, it's hard to do that. And the other problem is that because of the fact that the classes are so big, I often don't have the opportunity to

engage the students on an individual level to actually know where the students are at individually. So, in an ideal world, yes. But I think in reality, not to a great extent.

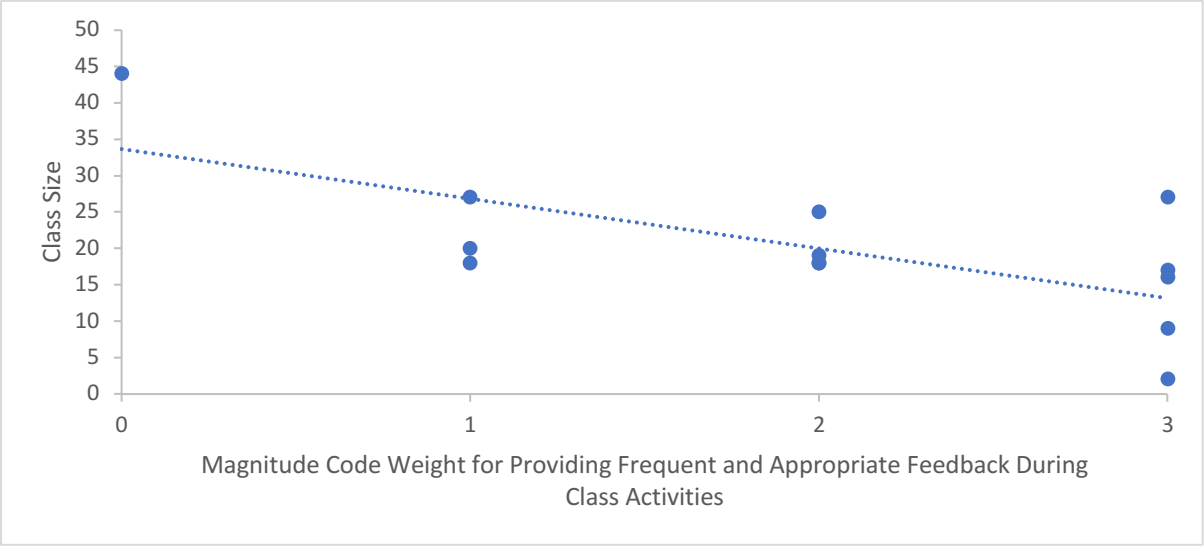
As discussed above, Participant E also raised class size as a concern in relation to using assessment outcomes to inform instruction and tracking student progress, both of which are also closely tied to feedback. It would seem, then, that at least for these participants, individual feedback is considered to be an important aspect of their instruction, but is contingent upon class size.

The Effect of Class Size

The effect of class size was significant enough as a phenomenological theme in the current data set, and theoretically supported in a review of relevant literature, that it was determined to warrant its own detailed analysis. Firstly, to help conceptualize the relationship between class size and participants' ability to provide appropriate feedback during lesson observations, Figure 5.1 was created to explore the relationship between feedback and class size, specifically whether the magnitude code weights for providing frequent and appropriate feedback could be considered a function of class sizes.

Figure 5.1

Magnitude Code Weights for Appropriate Feedback as a Function of Observed Class Size



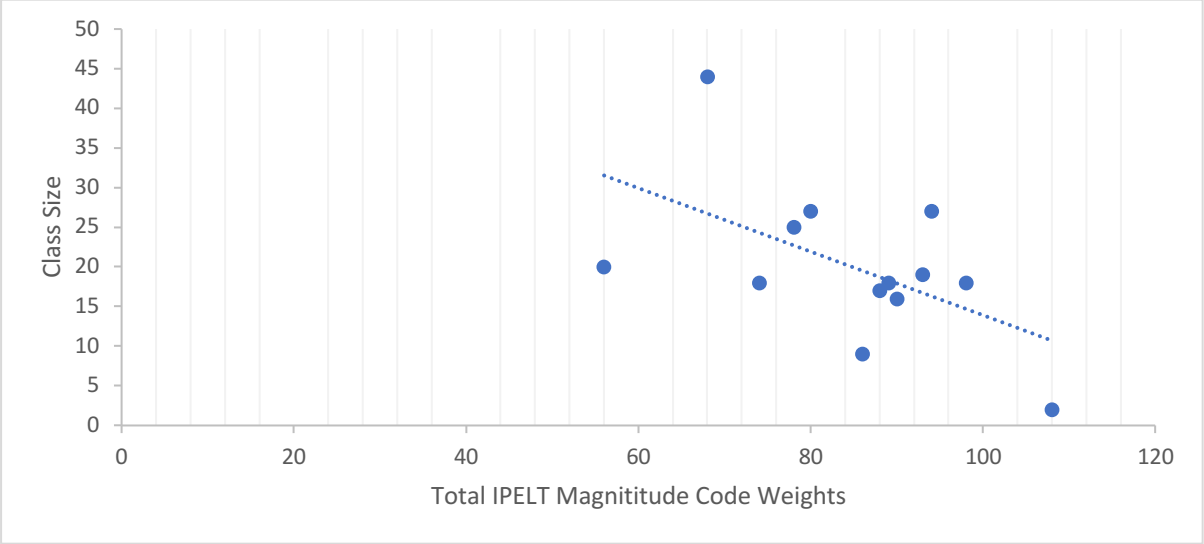
As is visible in the figure, teachers generally received a higher magnitude code for the observed behavior of providing frequent and appropriate feedback during class activities as class size decreased. In practical terms, teachers appear to be less able to monitor or

otherwise determine enough about their students in order to give feedback and help them develop when class sizes reach a certain point. While the current data set is too small to generalize this assumption, the findings here suggest that once a class size increases to 20-30 students, it can significantly hinder the ability to provide feedback, while those with ten students or fewer make it far easier. The concern for giving appropriate attention in large classes somewhat echoes the concern about increased workload being related to individuation and differentiation, which was discussed in the concerns subsection above.

The realization that class size could have impacted participants' ability to provide feedback prompted the creation of Table 5.2 to determine if there was a relationship between class size and overall degree of inclusivity as determined by total IPELT magnitude code weight. As this table shows, the current data set supports conclusions from similar previous studies (Ali, 2018; Smith, 2006; Razmjoo & Sabourianzadeh, 2018) that ELTs have a harder time implementing inclusive practices as class size increases, though replication with a larger pool of participants would add further credence to such a conclusion. This interpretation is further supported by a previous literature review by Wight (2015), who found that inclusive provisions in foreign language classes at the postsecondary level in the United States were more successful the smaller the class size. Similarly, a meta-analysis of 20 studies that investigated cases of UDL implementation found that the effect size on academic achievement for SWDs was with smaller class sizes (King-Sears et al., 2023).

Figure 5.2

Total IPELT Magnitude Code Weights as a Function of Observed Class Size



Divergent Approaches to CLT and Inclusion?

The eight inclusive behaviors that overlap with principles of CLT were categorized in just three pedagogical domains: task organization, learning environment, and student development. Looking back at Table 4.25, the inclusive behaviors in these domains ranked higher on average than most others. The relative mean code weightings of behaviors in the domain of task organization are likely a function of English language teaching in broader terms, as language instruction and acquisition are necessarily focused as much or more so on procedural knowledge than on declarative knowledge, and so it is logical that behaviors related to this pedagogical domain would be a priority for language teachers. As discussed above, the universality of error-making and attention to affective factors in the language learning process likely account for the high ranking of behaviors related to the learning environment.

Examining the relative rankings of the behaviors in the domain of student development, it becomes apparent that some of these behaviors actually rank quite low overall. These are helping learners to develop learning strategies and metacognition (*M* = 1.31, *SD* = 1.03) and encouraging students to reflect on what they have learned (*M* = 1.23, *SD* = 0.83). These relatively low mean code weights and rankings—35th and 36th on the IPELT, respectively—may be explained at least in part by their reliance on the teacher first knowing individual students' weaknesses, and then helping students improve on these points. Interventions for ELLs with SLDs that use metacognitive strategies have been promoted before (Eissa, 2015; Kormos & Smith, 2024; Ooiwa & Yap, in press), but as targeted interventions and not standard practice. As with providing feedback, helping learners develop learning strategies and metacognition and encouraging students to reflect on what they have learned can become considerably more difficult as class size increases. In other words, noticing an error and tolerating it takes little to no effort from the teacher; giving feedback on the error takes some effort, but helping learners notice and improve upon their own errors takes more effort still. Similarly, class size may also have an impact on certain inclusive behaviors that require knowing and acting upon information about a particular student. Examples include planning instruction to address interests of students (*M* = 1.54, *SD* = 0.66) and planning instruction to address students' individual strengths and weaknesses (*M* = 1.46, *SD* = 0.78). It should come as no surprise, then, that these behaviors

are weighted and ranked to reflect this escalating demand in teachers' time and attention, which are further strained as class size increases.

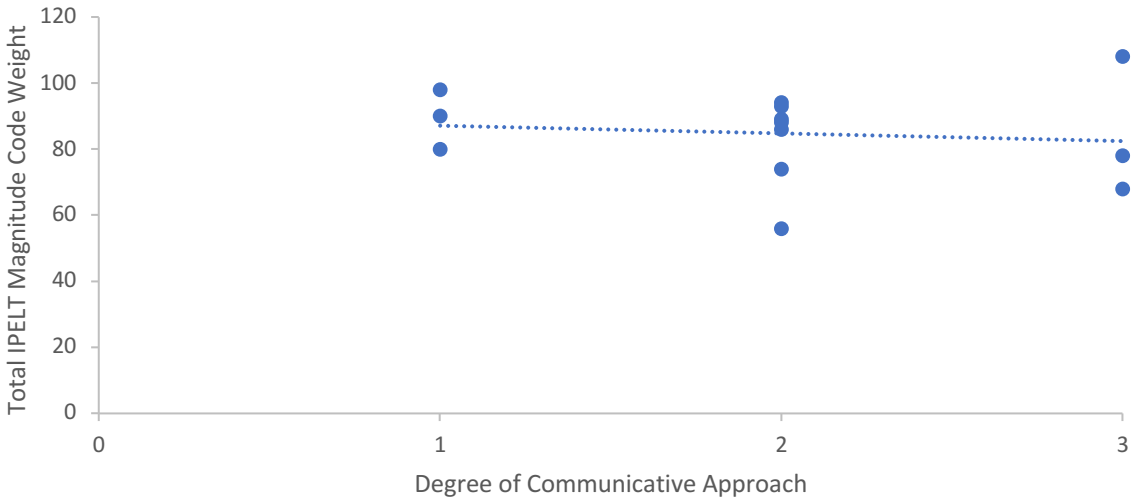
In total, the eight inclusive behaviors from the IPELT that overlap with CLT principles had a disproportionate presence in the top half of the 40 behaviors sorted by mean magnitude code weight, with three in the top five and seven among the top 20 inclusive behaviors. None of the eight behaviors appeared in the bottom 30% of the ranking, and the lowest ranked, providing appropriate feedback during class activities, still had a mean code weight above the magnitude coding midpoint of 1.5. This suggests, along with the analysis of discrete behaviors above, that lessons delivered by teachers who take a communicative approach will have fewer barriers to learning than those who do not—unless perhaps the alternative is explicitly inclusive, for example UDL—at least with regard for the pedagogical domains of task organization, learning environment, and to a lesser extent student development. The facts that CLT is so common within the TESOL field (Littlewood, 2014; Richards & Rogers, 2014) and MEXT language education policy has long emphasized communicative competence (Honna & Saruhashi, 2019; Kavanaugh, 2012) likely account for the high frequency of the inclusive and communicative behaviors being exhibited in the current data set. As such, many participants in the current study likely performed several such behaviors without consideration for SWDs or broader inclusivity with some exceptions noted above. This interpretation is further supported by the difference between the means of CLTSE (4.09, *SD* = 1.06) and IPSE (2.61, *SD* = 1.12) among all survey respondents.

Furthermore, responses to post-observation interview questions pertaining to CLT indicate that the lesson observation and interview participants did not consciously connect CLT with inclusive practices. When asked to define the term *communicative language teaching*, all 13 participants demonstrated a satisfactory understanding of the approach. To further inform the present discussion, magnitude coding using the same 0-3 scale as on the IPELT was used to compare participants' degree of communicative approach with their overall IPELT ranking. Figure 5.3 below considers the total IPELT magnitude code weights for each participant as a function of degree of communicative approach, which was also magnitude code weighted from 0-3 based on: responses to the question "referring to the lesson I observed, to what extent would you consider your approach to teaching to be communicative?", the observed presence of the six inclusive behaviors that overlap with principles of CLT, and the observed presence of six other communicative principles

categorized after a review of pertinent literature (Brandl, 2008; Celce-Murcia, 2014; Dörnyei, 2009; Duff, 2014; Harmer, 2003; Howatt, 1984; Richards, 2006; Richards & Rogers, 2014; Spada, 2007). These six other communicative principles and the number of participants who followed them for at least one lesson activity were: authentic communication (*n* = 10), focus on form (*n* = 5), formulaic language (*n* = 4), inductive learning (*n* = 5), meaningful input (*n* = 7), and opportunities to experiment (*n* = 4).

Figure 5.3

Total IPELT Magnitude Code Weights as a Function of Communicative Approach



An examination of Figure 5.3 further suggests that participants' ability to teach inclusively, at least insofar as that ability is reflected by their total IPELT magnitude code weights, is not dependent on the degree to which they take a communicative approach in their lesson design and delivery. While the sample size here is too small to be generalizable, this implication is supported by the factor analysis conducted above, wherein survey respondents' sentiments, attitudes, and concerns about inclusive education were not correlated with or predicted by their CLTSE, as well as post-observation interview data. This further suggests that ELTs are not necessarily being more inclusive simply because they take a communicative approach to teaching, though specific inclusive behaviors that overlap with principles of CLT may occur with a higher incidental frequency. Remembering that a communicative approach may prevent ELTs from using certain inclusive practices related to differentiation and promoting metacognition (Rovai & Pfingsthorn, 2022), however, it may also be the case that the degree of inclusivity as measured by an instrument like the IPELT is

essentially nullified by communicative teaching. In other words, CLT may indeed promote some inclusive practices while inhibiting others.

When asked if they take any specific pedagogical approaches to accommodate or include SWDs, six of the 13 participants said that they did not. Three said that they try to create accessible classrooms and materials, as well as make accommodations for students when they know the student's specific needs. Participant I mentioned following UDL, which she learned about when completing a BA in secondary education, and Participant H stated that he takes

> the pedagogical approach of inclusion. And so basically, I want all of my students to participate in the class regard regardless of their—I think probably social skills is an issue. A lot of students don't have social skills. And I want them to be included. And I feel as though they those students who do not have social skills often lose out and I think a good way to, to what's the word, circumnavigate that problem is to focus on increasing the confidence of the students within the speaking and listening classroom.

As stated above, Participant E mentioned following the communicative principle of using scaffolding and modeling to help students meet learning objectives. Responses to this question were used to magnitude code the inclusive behavior of taking specific pedagogical approaches to accommodate SWDs (M = 0.77, SD = 1.09), which ranked 39th overall. The findings here support Ali (2018), who found in a survey of 218 primary EFL teachers in Egypt that there was a high need for those teachers to know more about specific instructional strategies for teaching SWDs, and Sowell and Sugisaki (2020), who found in their survey of 23 EFL teachers who received training in the United States that those teachers desired more workshops on how to best teach SWDs.

Only one participant, Participant H, mentioned CLT explicitly in connection with inclusive teaching, though this occurred after the participant had been asked to define CLT, and so he may have been primed to make this connection. In response to the question "How do you feel that COVID-19 has impacted your ability to effectively teach students with disabilities?", Participant H answered

> It might have had positive impacts in some ways. So, students with anxiety disorders, I think it might have helped some of them. I think it might have had a positive impact in some ways, I think, especially because I go for the communicative approach.

> Students tend to respond very positively to that. So, I think that that there will be students who have disabilities who I cannot monitor so effectively, but actually, when speaking and listening, I, unlike a lot of teachers, actually took the view that you could pretty much effectively monitor students doing things like discussion going into depth in topics.

It is interesting to note here that Participant H connects taking a communicative approach to monitoring and feedback, which the same participant also connected to class size in response to another question.

In sum, only two of the participants in the present study—E and H—seemed to have an inkling of how the two sets of practices may be related. Still, the fact that the other 11 participants never mentioned taking a communicative approach or connected a communicative principle to inclusive pedagogy indicates that the wide majority of these teachers do not make an explicit connection between taking a communicative approach and inclusive practices. It seems probable that while teachers who follow at least some communicative principles may present fewer incidental barriers to SWDs in their task organization, teachers are less apt to be aware of the connection between these two approaches, or to follow principles of CLT because of their consideration for the possibility that SWDs may be present in their classes.

It would appear, then, that experience and/or training in CLT has little to no influence on the nature of ELTs' inclusive practices. While a communicative approach can complement an inclusive one, the effect of following principles of CLT is negligible compared to consciously following more explicit inclusive principles. In other words, CLT might be able to make up for the absence of inclusive practices in the domains of task organization and student development, though the effect can be dampened by larger class sizes or a lack of specific consideration for SWDs and the barriers they may face. Furthermore, the inclusive effect of applying CLT principles is likely greater in instances when teachers are more aware of their compatibility with inclusive practices.

Reflective Practice and Inclusive Practices

The third and final research question was "how does experience and/or training in reflective practice influence the nature of inclusive practices in these teachers' instruction?" As described more comprehensively in Chapter II, reflective practice as a means to

improving the implementation of inclusive practices has been proposed many times before (Graham et al., 2020; Higbee, 2009; Hogan & Sathy, 2022; Kuruvilla, 2017; Sharma, 2010; UNESCO 2013; 2017), and has also been found to promote inclusivity among postsecondary ELTs in Japan (Kennedy, in press; Lowe, 2015; Tsukamoto, in press; Turner, 2019).

In the present study, respondents' reflective practice self-efficacy (α = .974, *M* = 3.62, *SD* = 1.12) correlated with previous interactions with people with a disability (*r* = .15, *p* = .021), knowledge of global policy (*r* = .205, *p* = .002), confidence teaching SWDs (*r* = .134, *p* = .039), IPSE (*r* = .263, *p* < .001), CLTSE (*r* = .582, *p* < .001), and sentiments (*r* = .132, *p* = .042). Compared with CLTSE, RPSE had more and stronger correlations with other background variables in the SACIE-R, for instance with previous interactions with people with a disability and knowledge of global policy. As with CLTSE, RPSE did not predict sentiments, attitudes, or concerns in the robust MLR. Remembering again that previous interactions with people with a disability and IPSE both predicted sentiments, RPSE may also influence sentiments towards people with disabilities indirectly through its correlation with IPSE, as well as with previous interactions with people with a disability. The quantitative results overall suggest that reflective practice may have a larger effect on language teachers' inclusive practices compared to CLT.

Responses to post-observation interview questions pertaining to reflective practice shed more light on how participants use reflective practice to teach more inclusively. When asked to define the term *reflective practice,* all 13 participants demonstrated a good understanding of the term, but engaged with it to varying degrees. One of the 40 inclusive behaviors captured by the IPELT was reflecting on teaching with regard for individual student needs. The mean magnitude code weight for this behavior was 2.08 (*SD* = 0.95), which placed it slightly below the midpoint when all 40 inclusive behaviors were sorted by mean weight from high to low (see Table 4.25). This behavior for five participants was rated the highest rating of three. Five others were rated a two, two were rated a one, and one was rated a zero. As this behavior was not directly observable, each magnitude code weight was based on participants' responses to being asked "How often do you reflect on the efficacy of your teaching with regard for individual students' needs?" and "What is the mode of reflection?"

Analysis of the interview data revealed that participants performed an assortment of other inclusive behaviors as a direct result of reflecting on their teaching with regard for

individual student needs. These were: providing reasonable time allocations to achieve the learning goals and adjusting if students need more or less time (*M* = 2.69, *SD* = 0.48), scaffolding activities to help students meet learning objectives (*M* = 2.31, *SD* = 0.85), providing frequent and appropriate feedback during class activities (*M* = 2, *SD* = 1), and differentiating learning materials and tasks (*M* = 1.23, *SD* = 0.6). Within the current research framework, the first of these two behaviors belong to the pedagogical domain of task organization, while the latter two belong to student development and differentiation respectively. Two participants indicated that they reflect on specific inclusive behaviors when they were asked about those behaviors during the post observation interview. For example, when Participant K was asked how often he collaborates with colleagues to share best practices (*M* = 2.15, *SD* = 0.8), he recounted a very recent instance of co-reflecting with a colleague. Similarly, Participant L recounted reflecting on how effective his attempts to differentiate learning materials and tasks has been during the COVID-19 global pandemic.

In addition to these specific behaviors and domains, five participants spoke about using their reflections on student needs to make modifications to class activities and materials in more general terms, which could conceivably include other inclusive behaviors that were not explicitly noted. As Participant E stated:

> So, normally what I do is like, after class, you know, when I come back to my office to prep, I sit down and look at my class plan that I had made and review what worked and what didn't work. And sometimes that's just, like, the general, what worked in class, but also, I guess, reflecting on individual students, like, what I saw, that worked and didn't work with the individual students. And then when I'm done planning the next class, I tweak it or change it or try to as much as as possible.

Two participants stated that they routinely ask students to give feedback about what aspects of the lesson did or did not work, and that these responses directly informed their own reflection on how well the class was meeting each student's needs. Sharing their system for collecting this feedback, Participant M said:

> This is where I know what worked and what didn't work for each class activity, and sometimes they're really honest about it. They just say, 'I want to do this or that'. Like today, my intention for them was to stay on the same discussion role for the entire class, but they wanted to switch up and then one of the group just did it

> without asking me, so like, I just go with it. So I try to you know, play by ear. Yeah, I try to listen to them closely.

This approach of using student input shows that the inclusive behavior of encouraging students to reflect on what they have learned (M = 1.23, SD = 0.83), which belongs to the student development pedagogical domain, can inform teachers' own reflection to better meet student needs. In this case, then, there is a positive feedback loop between student reflection and teacher reflection. Reflective practice may therefore have a greater effect on behaviors related to teacher development, student development, task organization, and differentiation than those in other pedagogical domains.

The range of magnitude code means for seven inclusive behaviors linked to reflective practice in the post-observation interview data, along with the low frequency of these connections, suggest that simply engaging in reflective practice alone has a rather minor impact on improving the number and quality of inclusive behaviors in one's instruction. Rather, reflection specifically on and for inclusion must be undertaken for the effect to be meaningful. This is supported by previous researchers' findings that intention is an important factor in reflective practice, though exploratory reflection can be useful in identifying areas for later focus (Farrell, 2018; Mann & Walsh, 2018).

Regarding participants sentiments, attitudes, and concerns about inclusive education, there were no code co-occurrences between reflective practice and sentiments. However, Participant D indicated that his keeping of a teaching journal as part of his PhD research improved the accessibility of his courses and helped him be more adaptable in responding to student needs, especially those with markedly higher or lower language proficiency. In this regard, Participant D was one of two teachers who reflected on student needs primarily with regard for their perceived proficiency. Interestingly, two participants connected their lack of reflection on individual students' need to concerns about implementing inclusive education. Participant G intimated that her ability to act on her reflection on student needs was inhibited somewhat by curricular constraints and her busy workload:

> During the semester I'm like kind of on autopilot, because I just, my life is so busy, but during summer break, and from January when we finish exams, February, March, I really looked through everything that we've done, and I look at all my student feedback, […] and I see oh, they wanted to do this and they didn't really like that.

> And so I really try to change things as much as the curriculum allows. And I have really thought about specific students that I want to help.

Participant L made a similar comment, though there was no ascription of curricular constraints to impeding reflective practice:

> I would like to do it in a more organized way. I liked the learning journal that I kept this term. But then it just got too busy. And I'm going to try next term and get it going so that I have a list of everything I've done.

While one participant stated that he never reflected on his teaching with regard for individual student needs, the other 12 used a variety of different reflective modes and tools. These ranged from very informal reflections that were not standardized or recorded in any way (*n* = 9), to more detailed and documented methods. These were reflecting on recorded student output such as writing assignments or surveys (*n* = 3), keeping informal notes (*n* = 3), and keeping a teaching journal (*n* = 3). As noted above, one participant also regularly engaged in a critical friend group by sharing best practices with a colleague. Six participants used more than one method of reflection.

The current data set suggests that recorded reflection modes may have more tangible applications than less formalized ones. For instance, Participant K stated that he makes note of personal information that students share with him and uses this to help establish rapport, which could help foster certain inclusive behaviors like creating a learning environment where students feel comfortable taking risks or including students' interests in instruction. Similarly, five other participants who kept written records related that those records were useful when refining their course or lesson plan for repeated use in the future. Keeping a teaching journal or record of one's reflection is not without its own complications, however. Participant K, for instance, found note-taking to be difficult on days when he taught three or more lessons, and Participant L stopped keeping a teaching journal altogether because of his busy schedule. In lieu of keeping a record of one's own reflection, reflecting on material produced by students can have similar benefits. As noted above, two participants used written student reflections on lesson delivery to inform their reflection to reportedly great success. Similarly, Participant I reflected on her students' writing assessments:

> I do look at student production, especially in the work they submit to me and look at what they produced versus what I expected. And then figure out when there is that

> mismatch when my expectation was higher. I look and think okay, well, what could I have done different, right? So for me, it's much that tangible artifact that the student gives me that that's easiest for me to reflect on.

Finally, it is perhaps worth noting that three participants expressed during their post-observation interviews that the interview itself was causing them to reflect on their ability to inclusively teach SWDs. Participant E, for example, stated that

> All these things that we've talked about, you know, further make me realize that I could use, should get more training, more knowledge. […] The chances of me missing, you know, signs or symptoms or making a mistake or not helping the student when they needed help type of thing, and I would feel really bad about that.

Such a sentiment demonstrates the notion that post-observation conferences are an effective way for teachers to reflect on specific aspects of their teaching (Farrell, 2018), and affirms the methodological choice to frame these interviews as POCs for teachers to reflect on critical incidents within the observed lesson. It also lends further support to the conclusion made above that engaging in reflective practice in and of itself is not sufficient for making ELTs' instruction more inclusive: there must be a focus and intention to the reflection for a specific area of the instruction to improve.

It also important to consider the potential efficacy of other modes or reflection for improving ELTs' ability to teach inclusively. As noted in Chapter II, there is a wide variety of these modes from gathering formative feedback from students and performing stimulus recall, to taking part in focus groups and video recording lessons (Mann & Walsh, 2015; Murphy, 2014). The current findings combined with a review of relevant literature suggest that some modes of reflection may be more beneficial than others, though teacher preference appears to be a critical factor. King (2015), for instance, found that more experienced in-service ELTs prefer self-driven, autonomous reflective professional development such as keeping a teaching journal. Three participants in the present study noted their use or intention to keep a teaching journal, while Kennedy (in press) and Tsukamoto (in press) both noted the usefulness of keeping a teaching journal to better accommodate SWDs in their English language classrooms. Another potentially beneficial reflective practice is peer observations, wherein one teacher observes another and then engages in some kind of post-observation discourse like a POC to aid the observed teacher in their reflection. This mode has been widely advocated in the TESOL field (Farrell, 2015;

2018; Mann & Walsh 2015; Murphy, 2014; Richards, 2005; Trotman, 2015) as well as proposed to help teachers gain efficacy implementing inclusive practices in general education (Dignath, 2022). Similarly, collaborating will colleagues as a mode of reflective practice has also helped postsecondary ELTs in Japan better accommodate SWDs (Kasparek & Turner, 2020; Lowe, 2015) and calls for such collaboration as a mode of ongoing professional development to promote inclusivity among ELTs have been previously made (Ali, 2018; Fernández-Portero, 2021).

Additional Findings

In addition to data related to the stated research questions, the current data set also yielded a great deal of unexpected but pertinent information related to inclusive English language teaching. Five categories of additional findings emerged during data analysis, especially the qualitative data analysis. These findings are logically sequences and discussed in more detail below.

ELTs' Conception of and Pedagogical Approaches to Inclusive Education

Because inclusive education is itself a hard concept to define, and how teachers conceive of inclusive education in theory will impact how it manifests in practice (Dignath et al., 2022; Krischler et al., 2019; Rapp & Corral-Granados, 2021; Sanagi, 2016; Walton, 2016), it is important to consider how the current research participants conceive of this term when considering the character of inclusive practices in their teaching. To interrogate the lesson observation and interview participants' conception of inclusive education as it related to their practice, each one was asked to define the term *inclusive practices* for comparison with the multi-faceted definition used in the present research inquiry, which as stated in Chapter I is borrowed from the CRPD's CG4.

Participants' definitions were characterized more strongly by certain dimensions of GC4's definition of inclusive education compared to others, though all four facets were touched upon. Eight participants defined inclusive practices as a process or results of a process of eliminating barriers to learning, making it the most commonly represented aspect of GC4's definition of inclusive education represented in participants' definitions of inclusive practices. One representative definition in this strand was Participant D's:

> I'd define it by saying that you know, aiming to help. Well, yeah, aiming to help all students achieve the class or course aims by taking into account their differences, learning differences, you know, I don't know if it's only learning differences, or adjusting those aims based on their differences.

Seven participants defined inclusive practices by either explicitly or implicitly framing it as a right of the learner. Participant C, for instance, stated that an inclusive practice is one that "includes everyone. No, yeah. Why should we exclude someone from the classroom? You know, if they deserve to be in the classroom, they all have to be in the classroom. That's my definition." The framing of the post-observation interview question—asking participants to define *inclusive practices* and not *inclusive education*—may have delimited possible responses to regard inclusive education only as a field and not as an ideology or discourse, though this concern is largely annulled by the frequency with which participants included the notion that education is a fundamental right when defining *inclusive practices*. It is certainly possible that for these participants, inclusive practices and inclusive education, and perhaps the different between ideology and field, are not clearly demarcated.

Four participants also defined inclusive education in a way that demonstrated the principle of valuing students' well-being, while one gestured towards the idea that inclusive education could help students realize other rights. Only three participants defined inclusive practices with specific regard for SWDs; the remaining ten definitions exhibited a wider consideration for the needs and differences of every student, as is shown in Figure 5.4.

Figure 5.4

A Word Cloud of Participants' Definitions of Inclusive Practices

Two participants also mentioned differences in English proficiency as a form of difference to be considered when defining inclusive practices. Participant D, for instance, added to his initial definition that

> one obvious difference in language education is students have different levels of proficiency of the language. You know, that might vary depending on the skill that you're practicing or that you know, if it's grammar or vocabulary or phonology, etc. And so, I guess one way of trying to be aware of those differences and be inclusive so that students who are, you know, higher proficiency or lower proficiency in certain areas, is to familiarize yourself as much with those differences, and then provide extra support for the students who need it.

This definition further supports the notion that language teachers, as opposed to teachers in other content areas, may be more predisposed towards tolerating difference in their classrooms, and that this may be attributable at least in part to a necessarily high tolerance for linguistic diversity (Pfingsthorn & Giesler, 2022).

The current participants' conceptions of inclusive education are not dissimilar to the 182 Japanese primary and secondary school teachers in a study by Sanagi (2016), as these teachers predominantly understood inclusive education as engaging in a process of including students. However, Sanagi (2016) also found that SWDs figured most prominently in teachers' conception compared to other forms of difference, a fact which the author attributed to MEXT policy's targeting of such students in its framing of special support education in compulsory education. Japanese postsecondary education's lack of special support education and policy of selective inclusion for SWDs may account, at least in part, for the broader conception demonstrated by the participants in the present research inquiry.

Participants did demonstrate, however, a range of familiarity with inclusive practices. When asked about their familiarity with inclusive practices during the post-observation interview, nine reported a high degree of familiarity, while the remaining four reported low or no familiarity. All three participants who had a child with disabilities attributed, at least in part, this familiarity with their role as a parent of a child with disabilities. One participant attributed their familiarity with inclusive practices to pre-service training and experience working with SWDs in a previous job, one with in-service training, and another with his role as an editor of a professional publication that had published an

article on teaching English to SWDs. In this regard, however, the observed subset is likely not representative of all postsecondary ELTs in Japan or even the total pool of survey respondents. Mirroring the difference in overall SACIE-R scores between the observed subset and all survey respondents, the average IPSE among the observed subset (*M* = 3.03, *SD* = 0.99) was higher than the total pool of survey respondents (*M* = 2.61, *SD* = 1.04). As with the difference between the two groups' SACIE-R scores, this discrepancy can likely be attributed to selection bias, as inclusively-minded teachers were likely more willing to be observed and interviewed about the inclusive aspects of their teaching.

The IPELT results (see Tables 4.24 and 4.25) further characterize the diversity of inclusive practices represented by the research participants. As discussed above, participants' use of the eight behaviors that overlap with CLT principles, as well as commonalities in ELT training and experience in more general terms, likely contributed to a higher degree of inclusivity in the pedagogical domains of task organization, learning environment, and student development. However, behaviors in pedagogical domains more specific to teaching SWDs, namely differentiation and specific considerations for SWDs, were observed less frequently. When asked if they considered the possible presence of SWDs in their classes (*M* = 2.31, *SD* = 1.03), only one participant answered that he never did, and only two did so infrequently. For the remaining ten participants, this consideration was common or constant. The disparity between this specific behavior and other behaviors in the same domain, namely considering policy guidance on accommodating SWDs (*M* = 0.77, *SD* = 0.73) and taking specific pedagogical approaches to accommodate SWDs (*M* = 0.77, *SD* = 1.09), highlights the fact that while teachers may consider that SWDs are present in their classes, they do not necessarily know how to act on that consideration. This is not to say that they take no action, however. Several participants reported taking specific action as a result of their consideration for the presence of SWDs in the classroom. These included using icebreakers to create a positive classroom environment, planning lessons and designing materials to be accessible for a variety of impairments, ensuring personal interaction with SWDs, and providing out-of-class support to any students who need it.

In the minds of these participants, however, these instructional strategies were not codified as a pedagogical approach. When explicitly asked "do you take any specific pedagogical approaches to accommodating SWDs?", seven participants stated that they took no specific approaches whatsoever. Four participants reported taking conditional

approaches dependent upon whether an identified SWD was present in their class. Three of these were limited to making accommodations for mobility of sensory impairments, while one participant reported using extra scaffolding and Japanese in his instructional language for students who struggled to complete activities. While these participants had in fact implemented inclusive instructional strategies, they did not seem to be aware of it. Two of the 13 participants, on the other hand, indicated that they take an inclusive approach as a matter of course. Participant H stated that he took "the pedagogical approach of inclusion, and so basically, I want all of my students to participate in the class." Participant I testified to her use of UDL, which she had learned about while receiving her MA degree and applied when working with SWDs in the United States. It is perhaps worth noting that, by adding up the magnitude code weights for each inclusive behavior, Participants H and I respectively scored the highest and third highest overall on the IPELT. It would seem, then, that intentionally taking an inclusive approach will lead to more substantive inclusivity in actual practice than would occur incidentally, and raising teachers' awareness of the inclusive behaviors they already exhibit might serve as a foundation upon which greater inclusive skills and knowledge can be built.

Training Needs

The vast majority (*n* = 203, 84.9%) of survey respondents reported that they never received training to teach SWDs while receiving any of the listed qualifications. Of the 36 survey respondents that did report receiving such training, six did to while completing a TEFL/TESL certification or diploma, 14 while completing an MA in TESOL or a related field, 15 while completing an MA in education or similar, one while completing another MA, three while completing a PhD in TESOL or similar, and four while completing an EdD or similar. However, it should be noted that the present survey did not list any BA degrees as an option, and it is probable that some unknown percentage of respondents was unable to report if they received such training at this level of education. Regarding ongoing professional development to teach SWDs, 108 (45.2%) reported never receiving such training. Fifty-two (21.8%) reported receiving some form of relevant training conducted within their place of work; 49 (20.5%) had attended a conference presentation, workshop, or talk about teaching SWDs; 17 (7.1%) had engaged in a community of practice such as a special interest group; 76 (31.2%) reported doing their own reading or research on teaching

SWDs. Survey respondents also reported relatively low confidence teaching SWDs (*M* = 2.71, *SD* = 1.05) and inclusive practices self-efficacy (*M* = 2.61, *SD* = 1.04). Finally, on the main part of the SACIE-R, concerns item 5 ("I am concerned that I do not have the knowledge and skills required to teach students with disabilities") was the single greatest concern with a reverse-coded mean of 2.11 (*SD* = 0.91). These findings can be added to a growing list of others which reported a general lack of training and/or low confidence to teach SWDs among ELTs (Ali, 2018; Cimermanová, 2017; Fernández-Portero, 2021; Francisco et al., 2023; Hale & Ono, 2019; Lowe et al., 2021; Nyikes, 2019; Pokrivčáková, 2018; Razmjoo & Sabourianzadeh, 2018; Ruddick et al, 2021; Smith, 2006; 2008; Sowell & Sugisaki, 2020; Yphantides, 2022).

As shown in Tables 4.17-4.19, those who reported receiving training to teach SWDs during any listed qualification had higher confidence teaching SWDs and IPSE, and lower perceived degree of skills and knowledge to teach SWDs. This relationship with perceived lack of skills and knowledge to teach SWDs was greater for respondents who received training to teach SWDs while completing their MA in TESOL, applied linguistics, or similar, $t(13) = -2.866$, $p = .013$. Ali (2018) similarly found that ELTs who had an MA as opposed to only a BA degree had heightened concerns about teaching SWDs. Both results may be due to the fact that such training increases ELTs' awareness of diverse learning needs without sufficiently preparing them to address those needs. Receiving training to teach SWDs while completing an MA in TESOL, applied linguistics, or similar was also related to respondents' sentiments, attitudes, and concerns (see Tables 4.12-4.14). The need for such MA programs to better prepare their pre-service teachers to teach inclusively is therefore paramount.

The current results also demonstrate the importance of ongoing professional development, as all forms of in-service training were significantly and positively related to confidence teaching SWDs and inclusive practices self-efficacy, and those who engaged in a community of practice had a higher degree of perceived skills and knowledge to teach SWDs. Independent reading and research also had the greatest effect size in relation to confidence teaching SWDs, $t(85) = -4.645$, $p < .001$, IPSE, $t(85) = -6.451$, $p < .001$. While pre-service training may therefore be valuable for improving teachers' IPSE, these findings suggest that in-service training may be more valuable still, especially forms of professional development wherein the teacher has greater control and agency, i.e., participating in a community of practice or learning independently, though this may vary from teacher to teacher. This interpretation is supporting by the post-observation interview data in which

participants credited different forms of in-service training as helping to prepare them to teach SWDs, as well as previous investigations into the efficacy of different forms of reflective practice as ongoing professional development. King (2015), for instance, found that more experienced in-service ELTs prefer self-driven, autonomous reflective professional development, while the ELTs in Trotman's (2015) study preferred peer observation "compared to a being observed by a trainer with a checklist" (p. 189).

Table 4.25, which shows the mean IPELT magnitude codes weights sorted from high to low, provides an inkling of which pedagogical domains might require the most attention in any disability-related training for postsecondary ELTs, at least in the present context. The most obvious two domains are differentiation and specific consideration for SWDs, as behaviors belonging to these domains were among the least frequently observed. In addition, the current research participants at the very least would likely benefit from training to improve certain behaviors related to student development, classroom management, and assessment. Participants were also asked to identify their own training needs in relation to teaching SWDs. Two participants were unable to identify any specific needs, while thematic analysis of the remaining 11 participants' responses revealed several specific needs that can be grouped into two general categories: increased knowledge and skills about teaching SWDs and training on identifying SWDs in the classroom. Similar needs have also been identified as being high priority among ELTs in the same context (Ruddick et al., 2021; Yphantides, 2022) as well as with primary ELTs in Egypt (Ali, 2018), EFL teachers trained in the U.S. (Sowell & Sugisaki, 2020), and postsecondary educators with L2 students in five European countries (Tăbăcaru et al., 2022). Some researchers have also suggested that collaboration, both with other teachers and outside experts, as a means of ongoing professional development would help satisfy this need for more training and knowledge among ELTs (Ali, 2018; Fernández-Portero, 2021; Yphantides, 2022).

Ali's (2018) survey of 218 in-service ELTs at the primary level in Egypt is the most comprehensive study of inclusive training needs for ELTs. In this survey, respondents reported the highest need for in-service training on inclusive teaching methods, making instructional and curricular adaptations, developing inclusive education plans, using peer-mediated and cooperative learning, using multisensory input, and providing scaffolding and learning strategies. Respondents also reported the need for training on how to use strategies to gain students' attentions, providing resources, and using technology. In follow-

up interviews with eight in-service ELTs who did not take the initial survey, a number of topics as potential foci for ongoing professional development were mentioned: "[e]valuation strategies; planning lessons for individualized instruction; instructional strategies; and strategies for dealing with behavioral problems of SEN students as well as negative attitudes of normal students towards SEN students" (Ali, 2018, p. 173). While several of these training needs were also identified in the current research inquiry, others were not, indicating that such needs are somewhat context dependent. No teachers in Ali's (2018) study, for instance, expressed a need for training in diagnosis and identification of needs, whereas three participants in the present research did. This particular need is likely related to the policy of selective inclusion in Japanese HEIs.

In the current data set, nine of the 13 participants in the observed subset expressed the need for more knowledge and skills about teaching SWDs more inclusively, though there were a number of different ways in which these participants sought to gain such knowledge and skills. Participant J, for instance, wanted written case studies of practical ways to include SWDs along with "a clear set of principles to create inclusivity," while Participant K felt the need for training on how to best teach and manage students experiencing poor mental health and students with ADHD. Participant M, in connection to a number of complaints about the support for SWDs at their institution, wanted more information about on-campus services and provisions for support so they could pass this information on to students. Participant I desired "more materials on the students' perspective" because she wanted to know if her accommodations were actually helping.

Four participants expressed the need for more frequent and formalized collaboration. Two of these four wanted to share best practices in the form of regular teachers' meetings or lesson observations with colleagues, while the other two wanted to collaborate with experts from other fields. Participant G, for instance, specified that she "would like to be able to collaborate with psychologists, because they've seen a lot more cases than I have, and I would like to hear their feedback on what they think is necessary to do to support students." In a similar vein, Participant H posited that

> I think that inclusivity and differentiation should be part of all aspects of teaching. On the ESL side of things, I don't think we have the knowledge base to effectively promote differentiation and inclusivity. And I think that in secondary teaching, I think there is a vast reservoir of collective knowledge relating to all aspects of language

> teaching, which we do not tap into, because particularly because we are university teachers, and I think we should be and I think there's maybe an aspect of status involved. I think there are some teachers who want to view themselves as more like professors, whereas I think we should view ourselves more like teachers, and we should be accommodating our students more like teachers who are operating in the West and we should we should be, we should tap into that reservoir and freely use that knowledge base because it is there, but we don't.

This perceived insularity of language teaching as a discipline is underscored by the broader findings within the present research inquiry and supported by a number of other studies in which a large number of ELTs have reported not receiving training in and/or do not feel proficient implementing inclusive practices (Ali, 2018; Cimermanová, 2017; Fernández-Portero, 2021; Francisco et al., 2023; Hale & Ono, 2019; Lowe et al., 2021; Nyikes, 2019; Pokrivčáková, 2018; Razmjoo & Sabourianzadeh, 2018; Ruddick et al, 2021; Smith, 2006; 2008; Sowell & Sugisaki, 2020; Yphantides, 2022). Even Participant D, who reported an above average familiarity with inclusive practices due to reasonable accommodation duties in a previous position, stated that he felt like a "false beginner" when it came to teaching inclusively. He then added that a three-day workshop on inclusive practices and greater knowledge of the latest research on teaching SWDs would help prepare him in this regard. Echoing Participant H's desire to look beyond borders, Participant F, who had previously noted that as the parent of a child with a disability frequently attends online seminars about disability in education, shared that "I think Japanese inclusive education is very, very out of date. And because when I read some paper, article in English, they're saying totally different things."

In addition to this assortment of training needs related to the knowledge and implementation of inclusive practices, three participants wished to know more about how to identify SWDs enrolled in their classes. Participant J, for instance, thought he could benefit from the use of "a sensitive framework for discerning potential disabilities in the classroom," while Participant E wanted "the ability to tell the difference between, like, what's bad behavior and what's something to do with a disability." This need is clearly linked to participants' concern for issues related to diagnosis and/or disclosure of SWDs discussed in detail above and previously noted by postsecondary ELTs in Japan in other studies (Ruddick et al., 2021; Yphantides, 2022). However, taking a more accessibility-

focused approach to education, for example through the implementation of UDL or a similar approach that presupposes the presence of SWDs in the instructional environment, would not only diminish such concerns, but also reduce the need for training on identifying SWDs and the associated risks of exclusion under a policy of selective inclusion.

Policy Awareness

As stated in previously, one reason the present research was confined to the context of postsecondary education in Japan is in part because several studies have shown that policy awareness can impact teachers' views on inclusive education (AlMahdi & Bukamal, 2019; Main et al., 2016; Opoku et al., 2021; Özokçu, 2018a; Poon et al., 2016; Stavroussi et al., 2021; Tahsein & Ahsan, 2016; Tuncay & Kizilaslan, 2021), and so a wider data set with teachers working under the remit of different local policies could have confounded the impact of other factors, including on the character of inclusive practices as determined through class observations. Using postsecondary ELTs in Japan as a case also allows a more focused examination of how inclusive education policy for this specific context relates to the survey respondents' sentiments, attitudes, and concerns about inclusive education and other factors, as well as inclusive practices among the observed subset of teachers, even if this was not the main aim of the present research.

The background section of the SACIE-R includes items for participants to report their awareness of international and local policy on inclusive education. As noted previously, the local policy applicable to postsecondary education in Japan is the Act for Eliminating Discrimination against Persons with Disabilities, which came into effect on April 1 of 2016. This act is primarily concerned with business and government spheres, though there is a provision stating that "reasonable accommodations," terminology borrowed from the CRPD, be offered to SWDs; however, the original drafting of the AEDPD did not explicitly make this connection or define the term (Boeltzig-Brown, 2017). Since then, a 2019 MEXT white paper has been appended to the AEDPD to provide the CRPD's definition of reasonable accommodations and offer some concrete, practical guidelines and examples (MEXT, 2019). Currently, the AEDPD only requires public HEIs to provide reasonable accommodations to SWDs, with private institutions merely encouraged to do so; an amendment to this policy to make reasonable accommodations mandatory for private institutions passed the Diet in May of 2021 and will take effect in April of 2024 (Cabinet Office, 2023).

By law, institutional policies on providing reasonable accommodations to SWDs should be derived from the AEDPD. In 2022, 75.5% of HEIs reported to the Japan Student Services Organization that they already had guidelines in place for how to comply with the AEDPD, 4.2% reported they were in the process of drafting guidelines, and 20.4% reported no present plans to draft any such procedures (JASSO, 2023). As discussed above, support for SWDs varies greatly from institution to institution. It is also important to remember that HEIs in Japan follow a policy of selective inclusion, wherein SWDs receive accommodations only after disclosing their disability to their school. This policy results in an unknown number of SWDs going unnoticed and unsupported in postsecondary contexts and can further complicate matters for teachers who struggle to differentiate instruction or make accommodations for students with a suspected disability. It is to be expected, then, that the experiences of SWDs, as well as forms and quality of support for their teachers will vary greatly depending on the context. This assumption is further supported by several interview participants' concerns for issues related to diagnosis and/or disclosure of SWDs and institutional barriers to inclusion, both of which are discussed in more detail above.

Survey respondents in the current data set reported low knowledge of local legislation or policy pertaining to SWDs (M = 1.74, SD = 1.05), as well as low knowledge of similar global policy (M = 1.94, SD = 1.07). While the robust MLR did not show any predictive power of policy guidance at any level on respondents' sentiments, attitudes, or concerns, the Spearman's correlation matrix (Table 4.9) showed significant correlations between: sentiments and knowledge of local laws, r(237) = .11, p = .09, and knowledge of global policy, r(237) = .22, p = .001, as well as between concerns and knowledge of local laws, r(237) = .22, p = .001, and knowledge of global policy, r(237) = .23, p < .001. As shown in Tables 4.15 and 4.16, teachers who received different forms of in-service training reported better knowledge of local and global policy to varying degrees, which means that in-service training on local policy can impact ELTs' sentiments about engaging people with disabilities and concerns about implementing inclusive education. A closer examination of these tables reveals that teachers who participated in any in-service training had greater knowledge of local legislation and policy, but this relationship was stronger for forms of training in which the teacher participated of their own accord. In other words, teachers who voluntarily complete training on teaching SWDs will likely have greater awareness of both local and global policy pertaining to teaching such students.

These findings accord with previous findings by Özokçu (2018a), Poon et al. (2016), and Tuncay and Kizilaslan (2021), who found that respondents with knowledge of local policy had more positive views about inclusive education for SWDs. Additionally, these correlations lend some credence to Main et al.'s (2016) findings that completing training about inclusive education policy can improve teachers' sentiments about engaging with people with disabilities. The present findings, however, do not support or accord with AlMahdi and Bukamal (2019), who identified a correlation between knowledge of local policy and sentiments, or Opoku et al. (2021), who found that policy knowledge correlated with attitudes. The current data set's lack of predictive power for policy awareness contradicts findings from Tahsein and Ahsan (2016), who found that knowledge of local policy predicted attitudes, as well as Poon et al. (2016), who found that knowledge of local policy predicted all subscales, especially attitudes and concerns. The possibility should be considered, however, that the revision to the attitudes subscale in the current administration of the SACIE-R may account for this disparity.

Lesson observations and interview data provided further insight into teachers' policy awareness, as considering policy awareness from any level was one of the 40 inclusive behaviors captured by the IPELT. Ranked magnitude coding of these 40 behaviors, however, revealed that consideration of policy guidance on accommodating SWDs was tied for the lowest (M = 0.77, SD = 0.73) of all behaviors. The other lowest-ranking behavior was taking specific pedagogical approaches to teaching SWDs (M = 0.77, SD = 1.09). As consideration for policy guidance on accommodating SWDs was not directly observable, each participant's score was determined based on their response to the post-observation interview question "To what extent do you consider policy guidance from any level on accommodating students with disabilites in your class?". Responses to this question were illustrative of how policy knowledge can affect actual classroom teaching.

Across the 13 responses, only one participant mentioned international policy, which along with consideration for national policy, was done in the context of a previous role in which the teacher was partly responsible for the implementation of a support system for SWDs enrolled in a postsecondary English language program. Four teachers mentioned national policy guidance. All of these instances were in connection to the participants' current or a previous professional role, and one was in connection with that teacher's role as the parent of a child with disabilities. These experiences echo Tsukamoto (in press), who

only became aware of global and Japanese policy on inclusive education after she was notified an SWD was enrolled in her postsecondary English language course. Speaking as a parent of a child with a disability, Participant G stated that national policy is merely "background noise" owing to the disconnect between policy language and what happens in actual practice. In such an environment, teachers may feel reluctant to ask their institutions for support when teaching an SWD. The interview data suggests that policy awareness overall, especially at the local level, may result from incidental factors related to work duties or personal circumstance, namely being the parent of a child with a disability. In post-observation interviews, teachers also reported a general lack of policy consideration in lesson design and delivery, as well as only a cursory degree of institutional support in most cases. With one exception, participants viewed their respective institutional support negatively or with ambivalence.

Institutional Support

The current administration of the SACIE-R did not ask participants about their knowledge of institutional policy guidance, though it did ask respondents to report on their awareness of four types of institutional support. These findings, originally reported in Table 4.5 and reproduced below, represent a variety of support by type, though 27.6% to 40.6% of respondents were completely unaware of whether or not their institution offered specific examples of support or not.

Table 4.5

Reported Awareness of Institutional Support

Type of support offered by employer(s)	**Yes**	**No**	**Don't know**
Training on how to teach SWDs	*n* = 36 (15.1%)	*n* = 115 (48.1%)	*n* = 88 (36.8%)
Office or center for supporting SWDs	*n* = 139 (58.2%)	*n* = 34 (14.2%)	*n* = 66 (27.6%)
Information or guidelines on how to teach SWDs enrolled in respondent's classes	*n* = 154 (64.4%)	*n* = 86 (36.0%)	*n* = 68 (28.5%)
Information or guidelines on how to teach SWDs in general	*n* = 185 (77.4%)	*n* = 88 (36.8%)	*n* = 97 (40.6%)

The current survey respondents reported much lower awareness of institutional support compared to Tăbăcaru et al.'s (2022) findings, wherein only 12% of 158 postsecondary teachers in five European countries reported no awareness of support mechanism for supporting students with SLDs at their institution. The current figures are still somewhat higher, however, to findings from Ruddick et al. (2021), wherein only two of 15 non-Japanese ELTs at the postsecondary level in Japan were aware of their institutions' policy on accommodating SWDs; the authors attributed this low degree of awareness to the language gap between institutional policy being written in Japanese and their participants' low Japanese proficiency. The discrepancy between the awareness of institutional support in the current data set and Ruddick et al. (2021) can be attributed to differences in the samples: 10.9% of respondents to the current survey were Japanese, and the larger total sample of non-Japanese respondents (*n* = 213) likely represents a broader range of Japanese language proficiency. Still, the current findings represent a less than ideal degree of such awareness. Although awareness of institutional support did not predict any of the three subscale of the SACIE-R, the qualitative interview data suggests that ELTs would like greater communication and support from their institutions with regard for accommodating SWDs.

Nine of the 13 lesson observation and interview participants had an awareness of institutional guidance on accommodating SWDs; two reported that their institution has no guidance, and two reported ignorance of such guidance altogether. With specific regard for institutional policy guidance, seven teachers noted that the only institutional guidance provided to them was a notification from the university, while one noted they had only the student handbook to work from. Five participants expressed a desire for more coordination and/or communication from their institution when teaching an identified student with a disability, while two stated that greater visibility of service provisions would be an improvement over the status quo. Ten participants expressed feeling unsupported by their institution. One representative comment was:

> My whole experience with the institution is they're interested in checking whether they did it or not. So, you know, they'll send a message that says 'the student requested these following concessions.' You're required to reply, and then if you don't reply, they say 'we sent this message on such and such a date, you're required to reply,' and it wasn't even like, 'please let us know what you're planning to do' or anything. I didn't reply because I didn't know what reply they wanted.

Two of the ten participants who felt unsupported were able to find support from colleagues when attempting to include or accommodate SWDs, but in both cases this seeking of collegial support was prompted by the lack of more formalized support from their respective institutions. Of the 13 total participants, two others did feel supported by their institutions, while one felt unable to answer. Awareness of institutional policy guidance was also linked to two broader concerns about inclusive education: curricular constraints/barriers (*n* = 3) and issues related to diagnosis and/or disclosure of SWDs (*n* = 3). For instance, when asked about institutional guidance on accommodating SWDs, one participant said that:

> I'd say the guidance and the practice again are very, very different. We have on paper that we're inclusive, we do have students with disabilities in our classroom. But then when you go to your dean and say, this particular student should not have to go through a whole diagnostic process which is going to cost thousands, and she's gonna have to have it translated by a certified translator that, like from TOEFL, and then she's gonna have to sign up for this, go there and have a reader that she doesn't know. It doesn't matter. They just don't care about that.

Most teachers felt unsupported by their institution, and the lack of support was linked to some broader concerns about inclusive education. In almost all cases, lesson observation and interview participants professed a need for more frequent and concrete institutional support when teaching an identified student with a disability. These findings echo Yphantides (2022), who found in a narrative study of eight postsecondary ELTs in Japan that those teachers were concerned about the perceived increase of SWDs present in their classes and the lack of institutional support and collaboration available to provide the necessary accommodations. Ruddick et al. (2021) similarly reported a low degree of institutional policy awareness among non-Japanese postsecondary ELTs, and speculated that those teachers would be more willing and able to make accommodations if they were more aware of institutional guidance. Findings from several recent studies (Fujiwara et al., 2022; Omodaka & Sato, 2023; Sueyoshi & Tsuge, 2023), the most currently available figures from JASSO (2023) regarding various forms of support from postsecondary educational institutions, and low awareness of different forms of support among current survey respondents suggest that there is the low amount of support for SWDs within in postsecondary education in Japan. The current findings further suggest that what support

does exist is largely superficial, at least as it is perceived by ELTs working in those contexts. Indeed, the prevailing sentiment regarding institutional guidance and support was that interviewees generally perceived their institutions to be guilty of performative anti-ableism: participants generally felt that their institutions were ambivalent to real student needs, instead more often concerned with following inadequate procedures for the sake of having followed them. Even giving postsecondary institutions the benefit of the doubt and allowing that they are not being performative in their anti-ableism, they may still be guilty of *fauxclusion*. That is, they may be misinterpreting inclusive education in a way that stimies actual implementation of inclusive policies, procedures, and principles (Graham, 2020). Furthermore, this fauxclusion may itself be a symptom of broader misinterpretations of inclusive education as a result of inadequate international policy guidance in the years before the AEDPD took effect, as such misapplications have been previously attributed to ambiguous policy language (Graham, 2020). An even more cynical view would see these insufficient support mechanisms as a smokescreen to allow the continuance of exclusionary practices (Graham & Slee, 2008, as cited in Graham, 2020).

Such misinterpretations are not limited to policy or institutional support. Three of the ten lesson observation and interview participants who were dissatisfied with their institutional support connected this dissatisfaction to curricular barriers that, in their view, impeded their ability to fully accommodate SWDs' needs. This concern echoes conclusions from Lowe et al. (2021), who reported that two of the five postsecondary ELTs in Japan noted that program flexibility helped them meet SWDs' needs in certain cases, while one other expressed concern about holding some SWDs to the same standard of performance as other students in the course. Importantly, the program in question "held diversity and inclusion as a priority and provided a great amount of support to this end" (Lowe et al. 2021, p. 243). Similarly, Young and Schaefer (2019) found that top-down support for a group of seven postsecondary ELTs in Japan was instrumental in those teachers' perceived ability to accommodate SWDs, and the five of 15 ELTs in Ruddick et al.'s (2021) study who received a sufficient amount of support from their Japanese HEIs when teaching an SWD reported more positive views about accommodating such students than the other ten teachers in that study. As has been observed in postsecondary contexts in other countries, teachers' positive attitudes towards inclusion are not enough: institutions need to provide a support network for both teachers and students, including a robust service provision center and

clear communication between multiple stakeholders, in order to successfully implement inclusive policies (Zhang et al., 2018).

In some instances, teachers in the present study were able to alleviate their concerns by collaborating with colleagues, while others who lacked the opportunities to collaborate with colleagues wished that they could. These findings are not dissimilar to studies by Razmjoo and Sabourianzadeh (2018), who found that a majority of 45 Iranian ELTs interviewed about their inclusive practices for SWDs felt that their efforts were not valued by their institutions, and Young and Schaefer (2019), who found that support from program managers for ELTs at a Japanese university helped those teachers feel better able to accommodate student needs. Studies by Razmjoo and Sabourianzadeh (2018), Young and Schaefer (2019), and Lowe et al. (2021) all found teacher collaboration to play a central role in supporting SWDs in those teachers' classes, and other researchers and ELTs have previously called for more frequent and structured collaboration as mode of ongoing professional development to compensate for their lack of inclusive knowledge and skills (Ali, 2018; Fernández-Portero, 2021; Yphantides, 2022), including in the current data set.

Recalling the poor degree of institutional support for postsecondary teachers in Japan as reported by JASSO in combination with the current findings, the need for greater institutional support is clear, and clearly encouraged by international policy as a way to support both teachers and students (e.g., Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, 2018; UNESCO, 2017). Collaboration among not only teachers but all stakeholders is necessary for inclusive educational policies to be put into actual practice. As Smith (2018) has noted, teachers play a central role "in the development and implementation of inclusive practices, but they cannot achieve or sustain positive change without support from the wider educational community. School management needs to provide teachers with ongoing support through the provision of continuous professional development" (p. 29). Several studies in general education have also found that immaterial resources such as institutional support and collaboration with other teachers and special educators has a positive impact on attitudes about inclusive education (Saloviita, 2022). It is also worth considering that foreign ELTs working in postsecondary contexts in Japan have experienced feelings of commodification and disempowerment (Whitsed & Volet, 2013), tokenism (Chen, 2022), and even discrimination (Hosseininasab, 2020) in the past. Given the possibility that extant institutional policies on accommodating SWDs may not be effectively

communicated to any of the teaching faculty, or only be available in Japanese, ELTs' potential or perceived outsider status may further impede their efforts to provide reasonable accommodations. The current data does suggest, however, that effective institutional support can reduce ELTs' concerns and help them accommodate SWDs enrolled in their courses.

Finally, three of the ten participants who were dissatisfied with the level of institutional support they experienced coupled their dissatisfaction with issues related to diagnosis and/or disclosure of SWDs, a connection previously noted in the postsecondary Japanese context (Ruddick et al., 2021). Japanese HEIs' policy of selective inclusion sheds light on this connection: if postsecondary institutions can only provide concrete accommodations to SWDs who identify themselves and request accommodations, then it stands to reason that institutional policy would account for this fact, and also that teachers who know or suspect a student has an unidentified disability may feel abandoned by the university in their attempt to provide accommodations. Such concern could be alleviated by a more universally inclusive approach to instruction rather than one that relies on ad hoc accommodations, for example by adopting a Universal Design for Learning approach as advocated by the United Nations' General Comment 4 (Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities 2016), as well as stronger institutional support for teachers who suspect a student may have a disability regardless of whether or not an official diagnosis has been received or reported. Such an approach could be reflected in both institutional policy and actual practice. Absent such provisions, teachers can continue to collaborate to help students meet learning aims, as well as provide bottom-up pressure to advocate for their students, gain more robust top-down support, and create a more inclusive institutional ethos that values students' wellbeing.

Impact of COVID-19

While not a central concern of the current research endeavor, participants in the qualitative research stage were asked during the post-observation interviews about how they felt COVID-19 had impacted their ability to effectively teach SWDs. This was due to the timing of the research with the understanding that "[t]he COVID-19 pandemic exposed the shortcomings, fragilities, risks, and inequalities in the education of learners with disabilities within and across countries" (UNESCO, 2021, para 1) along with a number of opportunities

for policy makers and practitioners alike (Gordon-Gould, 2023; UNESCO, 2021; 2023). Additionally, as time passed through the period of data collection, it appeared more and more likely that many of the changes that COVID-19 was rendering on the fields of both TESOL and inclusive education would be long-lasting. As such, the pandemic could be considered a factor influencing the character of ELTs' inclusive practices both within the present data set and beyond.

In a systematic review of publications related to COVID-19 and the ELT community, for instance, Moorhouse and Kohnke (2021) found that in 2020 and 2021, ELTs adapted quickly by developing new communities of practice, engaging in reflective practice, and implementing and reflecting on the use of new technologies and unfamiliar teaching modes. In a survey of 1158 ELTs in Hong Kong, Lo and To (2023) found that the rapid transition to ODL had a negative effect on self-efficacy, but that positive benefits included increased collaboration and new digital literacies. While little research has been published on the effects of COVID-19 for EFL students with disabilities, Erdogan and Yazici (2022) found through a survey of 41 ELTs in Turkey that these teachers felt competent in lesson planning and teaching during online instruction, but much less competent about teaching SWDs in this environment. Similarly, Khasawneh (2021b) found that 200 Jordanian ELTs expressed concern that barriers related to school administration and technology would make learning difficult for students with SLDs during the pandemic. Still, there is also some evidence demonstrating that some inclusive practices, specifically a UDL approach, can be applied to online learning environments for EFL students (Rao, 2021; Rao et al., 2021), including in postsecondary education in Japan (Young, 2023). While the findings below are cursory and exploratory in nature, it is hoped that this brief report will further add to this small but growing body of knowledge.

Participants in the present research inquiry were rather split on whether COVID-19's impact on their ability to effectively teach SWDs was beneficial or detrimental, with most recognizing that it had both positive and negative impacts. Overwhelmingly, the most commonly cited benefit was the use of technology. Specifically, several participants stated that COVID-19 and the resulting transition to ODL increased their proficiency with different technologies in their instruction, including accessibility features such as automatic closed captioning. Participant D said that "it's raised my awareness of, you know, what I can do with technology in terms of delivering lessons in different modes, and different ways to

support students. So I think that's been useful." Two other participants also noted that ODL allowed more flexibility in formatting for students with specific support needs such as converting text to Braille. One other benefit raised by Participant L was that students had more autonomy and control over their learning.

Participants collectively listed several detriments to COVID-19's impact on their ability to teach SWDs, though most of these were mentioned only once or twice. Three participants said that wearing masks in face-to-face instruction was detrimental because it made it harder for students to understand them and to build rapport with students. Two participants also expressed dismay that it was harder to build rapport and have one-on-one time to interact with students in an ODL environment. There were also some negative impacts related to specific inclusive behaviors. Participant K, for instance, reported that he had a hard time managing class conduct when teaching online, while Participant H said that it was harder to monitor students and provide feedback during communicative activities. Similarly, Participant I noted that ODL made assessment and feedback more difficult and also that it "was really hard for my students with disabilities that required routines because they didn't get that they had to make their own routines while we were online, and a lot of my students couldn't [do that]." Participant I also reported that returning to face-to-face instruction limited her ability to pair and group students because of concerns about spreading infection between students. Finally, one participant expressed concern for the psychological effect of transitioning to and from ODL on certain types of students. More specifically, Participant L raised the topic of *hikikomori*, students with

> these sort of psychological problems where they can't come to school. I'm worried a bit that doing this [teaching online] might actually exacerbate some of those things, because all of a sudden, okay, you have to come to three classes, and you can't miss those three classes. Then everything gets concentrated in those three classes. And they say, 'Well, why? You're giving all these other classes online?' So, you know, like I said, the jury's still out.

Additionally, and as noted above, Participant G related a number of difficulties that neurodivergent students in her classes appeared to have during online learning as a result of the pandemic and expressed frustration that her HEI did little to accommodate them.

As previously stated, the impacts of COVID-19 on inclusive practices in the current research context is not fully incorporated into the present research framework and so these

exploratory findings are only cursory in nature. Still, they indicate that there may be several perceived benefits relating to technology use among postsecondary ELTs, but these may come at the cost of certain inclusive practices and/or increased strain on learning for certain learner profiles. Until more formalized research is conducted, however, the jury, as Participant L put it, is still out. Finally, it is important to consider that the findings of the current study, especially with regard for the inclusive behaviors inventoried on the IPELT, may have been impacted for better or worse by COVID-19 in ways that were unaccounted for. It is entirely possible, in other words, that the survey respondents' understanding and implementation of inclusive education and practices as measured by the SACIE-R and IPELT may have been impacted by the pandemic. Furthermore, the findings suggest here that some of the observed subset of teachers adapted their teaching to be more inclusive, at least in some respects, as a result of the pandemic.

Chapter VI: Conclusion

Summary of Key Findings

The current research partially confirmed the three-factor structure of the SACIE-R, though the overall goodness of fit and internal reliability was sufficient for the data set. Furthermore, the attitudes subscale modified for postsecondary ELTs had high inter-item reliability (α = .816), validating its use in future administrations with similar populations. The results of the current administration indicate that postsecondary ELTs in Japan have generally positive views about interacting with people with disabilities and access to education for learners with different support needs, but these views are not without some level and variety of concern. Specifically, survey respondents were most concerned about their lack of inclusive knowledge and skills (*M* = 2.11, *SD* = 0.91), followed by giving appropriate attention to all students in an inclusive classroom (*M* = 2.27, *SD* = 0.91), SWDs not being accepted by their peers (*M* = 2.56, *SD* = 0.96), and increasing workload as a result of having SWDs in their classes (*M* = 2.57, *SD* = 0.94). Respondents were less concerned about increased stress from having an SWDs enrolled in their classes (*M* = 2.92, *SD* = 0.94).

Correlation analysis suggests statistically significant relationships between concerns about inclusive education and previous interactions with people with disabilities, knowledge of local and global legislation on inclusive education, confidence teaching SWDs, experience teaching SWDs, and inclusive practices self-efficacy. The background variables have a similarly strong connection with respondents' sentiments about people with disabilities, while significant relationships between attitudes and confidence teaching SWDs, experience teaching SWDs, and inclusive practices self-efficacy was also observed. A robust MLR found that previous interactions with people with disabilities and inclusive practices self-efficacy predicted respondents' sentiments, though there were no predictors for attitudes or concerns.

Welch's t-tests found that the following groups within the current data set had more positive sentiments about engaging with people with disabilities: respondents who received training to teach SWDs by attending conference presentations, workshops, or talks; those who received training to teach SWDs by engaging in a community of practice; and those who received training to teach SWDs by doing independent reading or research. Respondents who received training to teach SWDs by attending conference presentations, workshops, or talks and those who received training to teach SWDs by doing independent

reading or research had more positive attitudes about accepting learners with different support needs. Finally, these groups had reduced concerns about inclusive education: respondents who received training to teach SWDs in any of the listed qualifications (not BA degrees); those who received training to teach SWDs by attending conference presentations, workshops, or talks; those who received training to teach SWDs by engaging in a community of practice; and those who received training to teach SWDs by doing independent reading or research. Respondents who received any form of in-service training to teach SWDs, including within the job/workplace, also had greater knowledge of both local and global policy on accommodating SWDs, as well as confidence teaching SWDs, inclusive practices self-efficacy, and perceived knowledge and skills to teach SWDs. These findings highlight the importance of ongoing professional development in postsecondary ELTs' preparedness to teach SWDs, especially forms of such development in which teachers have a degree of agency. However, even mandatory training conducted as a job requirement appears to have some benefit for teachers.

Finally, the survey results found no statistically significant relation between ELTs' CLT self-efficacy and reflective practice self-efficacy and their sentiments, attitudes, or concerns. While there were significant correlations between CLT self-efficacy, reflective practice self-efficacy, and inclusive practices self-efficacy, it is probable that these are a function of time spent in the profession, as teachers are more likely to have greater self-efficacy in all three respects the longer that they teach.

Data from the lesson observations and post-observation interviews with the subset of 13 survey respondents corroborate the survey results and indicate a greater degree of complexity in postsecondary ELTs' views of inclusive education than are captured by the modified SACIE-R alone. Specifically, the interview data suggests that the sample's views on inclusion are positively influenced by having a child with disabilities, and that their acceptance of learners with different support needs is characterized to varying degrees by regard for the learner experience, the learning environment, a desire to teach students with disabilities, their perceived responsibilities as teachers, an equity view of inclusion, other forms of difference, accessibility, adaptability, accommodations, assistive technology, and differentiation.

Additionally, interview participants elaborated on concerns included in the concerns subscale of the SACIE-R or raised a number of new concerns about implementing inclusive

education that were not captured by the scale. While survey respondents reported concern about giving appropriate attention to SWDs, for instance, this concern was dependent upon class size among the four participants in the observed subset who raised it. Observation and interview participants' concerns about implementing inclusive education were also occasionally related to specific inclusive practices. The inability to give appropriate attention due to class size, for example, appeared to negatively impact teachers' overall ability to implement inclusive practices as determined by the IPELT, but especially their ability to give appropriate feedback. Other specific inclusive behaviors that appeared to be negatively impacted as class size increased include pairing and grouping students who differ in ability and interests, planning lessons to address students' individual strengths and weaknesses, and using assessment outcomes to inform instruction. Concern about SWDs being accepted by their peers was occasionally related to how teachers determined how to pair and group students, and concern for increased workload was connected to establishing standards of conduct, differentiating materials and task, using assessment outcomes to inform instruction, and reflecting on one's teaching with specific regard for individual student needs.

The single greatest concern raised by the observed subset was not included in the SACIE-R: issues related to the diagnosis and/or disclosure of SWDs enrolled in their classes. This concern was raised a total of 29 times by ten participants, and was frequently connected to respondents' positive acceptance of learners with different support needs. In short, many respondents expressed concern that they did not have official diagnoses or disclosure reports from suspected SWDs, and this hindered their efforts to modify their instruction to better include these students and help them meet learning aims. This concern appears to be context dependent to postsecondary settings in which SWDs have the right to anonymity, and was frequently tied to participants' perceived lack of institutional support for accommodating SWDs.

Nine participants also expressed concern for curricular constraints, and that such constraints limited their ability to differentiate certain elements of their teaching to better accommodate a variety of learner needs. This concern was frequently connected to a concern for institutional barriers to inclusion. These barriers included a lack of adequate communication with and support for teachers, a lack of meaningful accommodations for students, and a lack of adequate knowledge or expertise in supporting teachers or students.

These concerns were also frequently connected to a concern for how elements of Japanese culture limit their ability to accommodate or otherwise support SWDs. In some cases, this was connected to a perceived stigma surrounding disability in Japan, and in others to a top-down organizational structure in which participants did not feel they could advocate for SWDs in a bottom-up way. Additional concerns raised by interviewees included differentiating disability and difficulty with language learning, student performance, the Japanese-English language divide, and disruption to traditional practice.

Mean magnitude code weights for the 40 inclusive behaviors included on the IPELT, a novel instrument created for the present research inquiry, found that the 13 observed teachers demonstrated fewer and less frequent behaviors in the pedagogical domains of differentiation and specific consideration for teaching SWDs. Behaviors related to communication, the learning environment, and task organization were generally observed more frequently, while those related to student development varied greatly. Looking at individual behaviors without regard for their pedagogical domain, the most frequently observed behaviors can be connected to field-specific considerations. Language learners, for example, necessarily make frequent errors and the most commonly observed behaviors was tolerating learner error (M = 3, SD = 0). These relative rankings of inclusive behaviors lend credence to the argument that language teaching as a field requires specific inclusive practices that may be less obligatory in other content areas. Remembering that any definition of inclusion is value-laden and subjective (Rapp & Corral-Granados, 2021) cuts two ways: in one sense, this means that the present results must be interpreted subjectively; in another sense, it means that any given circumstance requires context-specific means of achieving inclusion. Indeed, there is no one-size-fits all approach to inclusion (Armstrong & Armstrong, 2019; Rapp & Corral-Granados, 2021), and more work needs to be done within and across the TESOL field to determine what sorts of inclusive practices are most needed.

Regarding the investigation into CLT's relationship to ELTs' inclusive practices, the current data set suggests that certain communicative teaching principles may have a place in the inclusive EFL classroom. These are tolerating learner error, creating a safe learning environment where students feel encouraged to take risks, recognizing and respecting affective factors of learning, scaffolding activities to help students meet learning objectives, linking different skills in and across activities, allowing collaborative pair- and group-work,

relating learning activities to students' personal experiences, and providing frequent and appropriate feedback during class activities. However, following these principles may also come at the cost of excluding students who prefer more individualized learning environments (Pfingsthorn, 2022). Regardless, CLT itself is not a replacement for inclusive practices, and instruction that is both effectively communicative and inclusive requires instructional intention in both planning and execution. Accidental inclusion does not go very far: while the current inquiry's observation and interview participants exhibited a high degree of inclusion with regard to most of these communicative principles, they were mostly unaware that these principles were in fact inclusive. They exhibited a very low degree of inclusive practices related to differentiation and specific regard for SWDs, suggesting that many of the observed inclusive behaviors were incidental, not intentional. As such, more intentionality among teachers would lead to greater inclusion for students.

This conclusion is supported by the inquiry into the relationship between reflective practice and inclusive practices. Here, some participants performed specific inclusive behaviors as a direct result of reflecting on their teaching with regard for individual student needs. These were: providing reasonable time allocations to achieve the learning goals and adjusting if students need more or less time, scaffolding activities to help students meet learning objectives, providing frequent and appropriate feedback during class activities, and differentiating learning materials and tasks. Reflective practice was also found to improve some participants' ability to modify task structures and instructional materials in order to make them more accessible to specific forms of disability. Still, the findings discussed above suggest that reflection on and for inclusion specifically will have a greater impact on inclusion than engaging in reflective practice in more general terms, and tangible forms of reflection (e.g., keeping a teaching journal) will lead to more inclusive changes to practice compared to less tangible forms of reflection (e.g., thinking about an activity after class).

Finally, a number of additional findings help contextualize the implications of the overall results. Specifically, it is important to remember that the vast majority (n = 203, 84.9%) of survey respondents reported never receiving any training to teach SWDs while receiving one of the listed qualifications. The observed subset expressed the need for more training on knowledge and skills to teach SWDs, as well as identifying SWDs in the classroom, and provided several possibilities for how such training might be delivered. Meanwhile, IPELT results indicate a low amount of differentiation and specific consideration

for SWDs, suggesting targeted training on inclusive practices in these pedagogical domains may also be beneficial. In addition, survey respondents reported a low awareness of institutional support on supporting SWDs, while the observed subset frequently expressed dissatisfaction with the clarity, frequency, and quality of institutional support that they received. Viewed in total, these findings have important implications for how future and current ELTs might be better trained and supported to meet the needs of SWDs.

Implications of Findings

The are several implications of the present research results for pre- and in-service ELT training, field-specific inclusive practices for ELTs, and institutional policy and support in the current case context, all of which are underscored by the fact that the AEDPD will legally mandate the provision of reasonable accommodations at private HEIs in Japan from April of 2024. First and foremost, the present findings highlight the need for more and mandatory pre-service training to teach SWDs in MA TESOL programs, as well as more opportunities for high-quality in-service training for ELTs. In this respect, the current research can be added to a growing chorus of similar calls (Ali, 2018; Fernández-Portero, 2022; Nijakowska et al., 2018; Razmjoo & Sabourianzadeh, 2018; Sah, 2022; Smith, 2006; 2008; Yphantides, 2022). With regard for in-service training, a meta-analysis of 102 studies from 40 countries about teachers' beliefs about inclusive education found that length of intervention for in-service teachers is not significant (Dignath et al., 2022), and so any form of in-service training regardless of length may have a positive effect on teachers' beliefs about inclusive education. Dignath et al. (2022) also discuss the benefits of allowing in-service teachers to observe each other as a form of professional development, which is a commonly encouraged form of reflective practice for ELTs (Farrell, 2015; 2018; Mann & Walsh 2015; Murphy, 2014; Richards, 2005; Trotman, 2015) suggested by some of the participants in the present study. Ali (2018) also suggested peer observation as a means of improving ELTs' ability to teach SWDs. Similarly, some participants in the current data set proposed multi-day workshops on inclusive practices as a way of improving their inclusive knowledge and skills, a recommendation made by in-service ELTs in similar previous studies (Ali, 2018; Sowell & Sugisaki, 2020), as well as better coordination with support staff and outside experts on special education, echoing another existing recommendation within the literature (Ali, 2018; Fernández-Portero, 2021; Yphantides, 2022).

However, the question remains of what specific knowledge and skills should be imparted. There is some evidence to suggest that specific approaches such as UDL may be helpful for language teachers, and indeed applying UDL to accommodate SWDs in English language education has been suggested before (David & Torres, 2020; Torres & Rao, 2019). A meta-analysis of 20 studies on UDL used in general education from kindergarten to adult education found that taking a UDL approach had a moderately positive effect on learners' academic achievement, with no significant difference in effect size between learners with and without disabilities (King-Sears et al., 2023). In other words, a UDL approach benefits all learners. One study in the meta-analysis applied UDL in a postsecondary setting in Canada for students of computer science, including ELLs. This study (Allen et al., 2018) found that taking a UDL approach in the curriculum allowed the authors to support linguistically-diverse classes, with ELL students reporting that the approach facilitated both their language and content learning. Similarly, students enrolled in an online EMI course at a Japanese university during the height of the COVID-19 pandemic reported that the UDL approach taken by the teacher helped them engage in course content and fostered communication and collaboration (Young, 2023). Seok et al. (2018) found in a systematic review of 17 studies using UDL strategies in postsecondary settings that the approach benefited students with and without disabilities in face-to-face and online instruction, with greater effects observed in cases in which teachers had received training in UDL during teacher preparation courses.

UDL remains problematic for language learning contexts, however, as several of its checkpoints are focused on helping learners comprehend and express declarative knowledge, whereas linguistic competence is more a matter of procedural knowledge. Additionally, the unique barriers presented by language learning to students with SLDs further necessitates a set of inclusive practices that are specific to language learning/teaching. No such formal set has been proposed, though there is a wide body of research into the cognitive and affective dimensions of language learning for students with SLDs that could inform such practice, and several small-scale normative studies have provided recommendations for ELTs of students with specific forms of disabilities ranging from SLDs to sensory and mobility impairments. Furthermore, it is hoped that the IPELT might serve as a baseline from which to construct more customized sets of inclusive practices for language teachers working in any given context, as any implementation of

inclusive education must necessarily be adapted to suit the local circumstances (Forlin, 2018; Gordon-Gould & Hornby, 2023; Graham, 2020; Hunt, 2019).

The current findings also add clarity to our view of the widening tapestry of inclusive language teaching. The IPELT results in particular reveal that inclusive English language teaching may be more strongly characterized by higher degrees of inclusivity in the pedagogical domains of task organization and communication. This finding is supported by similar reports of inclusive practices in English language teaching (Cohen, 2011; Fišer & Kałdonek-Crnjaković, 2022; Iwai, in press; Nyikes, 2019; Ooiwa & Yap, in press; Razmjoo & Sabourianzadeh, 2018; Stinson, 2018; Wijaya et al., 2020). While this may be in part attributable to language teachers' sensitivity to linguistic diversity, it is also very likely related to the communicative nature of language learning itself. Furthermore, the 13 teachers in the second stage of the current inquiry also demonstrated both the willingness and ability to apply novel approaches to inclusion in response to student needs, albeit to varying degrees that can largely be attributable to individual factors.

These findings also suggest that inclusive training for ELTs should focus on differentiation and specific considerations for teaching SWDs, including international and local policy guidance, while similar previous studies also noted the need for training on identifying possible SWDs (Ruddick et al., 2021; Yphantides, 2022). Such training would also accord with an equity view of education, further bringing the field closer into line with relevant international policy guidance and, at least in the current case context, local policy guidance as well. The above findings also suggest that many ELTs likely already have a foundational skill set to create more equitable and inclusive learning environments, and may simply need a greater awareness of how do this for a greater variety of support needs, for example by following recommendations made by research-practitioners such as Horwitz (2017) to reduce foreign language anxiety. Pfingsthorn (2022), furthermore, argued that in order to be more inclusive, pre-service foreign language teacher training may need to "critically reflect on the organisation of teaching in terms of the degree of autonomy, need for structure, range of attitudes, amount of discipline and self-organisation that can and should be expected and/or required of students" (p. 189). These points should also be kept in mind when determining what constitutes best inclusive practices for ELTs.

The present research findings also corroborate conclusions made in similar research inquiries that ELTs and their students would benefit from more structured and systematic

institutional support when teaching SWDs, including but not limited to clear communication from HEIs about support provisions, opportunities for formalized collaboration with colleagues and other specialists, and in-service training on inclusive practices (Ali, 2018; Iwai, in press; Kasparek & Turner, 2020; Lowe, 2015; Ooiwa & Yap, in press; Ruddick et al., 2021; Scott & Edwards, 2012; Smith, 2006; Stinson, 2018; Tsukamoto, in press; Young & Schaefer, 2019; Young et al., 2019; Yphantides, 2022). Additionally, individual EFL departments, programs, and centers should design curricula to be accessible while allowing flexibility for teachers to be adaptable and make necessary accommodations to meet all student needs, and class sizes should be kept to a minimum so as not to impede teachers' ability to implement certain inclusive practices associated with class size. HEIs and individual programs should also endeavor to foster an inclusive ethos, as inclusive views clearly have a positive impact on inclusion in actual practice. Remembering that the wording of SDG4 is to ensure "inclusive and quality education for all," (UNESCO, 2016), any institutional support should also incorporate formal quality assurance measures, as such measures have been linked to effective implementation of inclusive education within the TESOL field (Dunn et al., 2020), including among EFL programs in postsecondary Japanese education (Young, 2020). Quality inclusive education is a human right, and understanding teachers' views on inclusive education, as well as their capacity to implement inclusive practices as limited by training and institutional constraints, can help inform policy decisions at all levels. Of course, policy makers and practitioners alike should also be attentive to how they define inclusive education before and during implementation, as well as remain reflective about its efficacy in promoting learning.

Finally, it is important to note that Richards and Rogers (2014) asserted that the field of language teaching experiences periodic renewal and paradigm shifts as a result of two factors: "the impact of new ideas, new educational philosophies, advances in technology, and new research paradigms, and as a response to external pressures" (p. 83) of a more economic and political nature. This then begs the question: is such a shift happening now? As an ideology, inclusive education can be viewed as a traveling educational philosophy in the way that it has journeyed across national borders, fields of study, and levels of education. It is also very clearly the result of external political and social pressures (Gordon-Gould & Hornby, 2023; Graham, 2020; Hunt, 2019). If a paradigm shift to make space for inclusive education in the field of language teaching is indeed occurring, then those working

within the field must live a “life of alertness” (Walton, 2016, p. 155) to respond both sensitively and speedily as the sands shift beneath our feet.

While an underlying goal of the present research inquiry has been to determine what the field of inclusive education can offer the TESOL field, the possibility that such contributions can be made in only one direction should not be dismissed. In the broadest terms, the findings discussed above support the common claim that inclusive education must be adapted to suit its local context. Such a claim is commonly made with regard for a country’s unique demographics, educational policy, culture, and socio-historic features, as well as for the level of education being taught. However, it also appears that the subject area being taught must be seriously considered. Furthermore, the efficacy of certain inclusive practices more common in language teaching, for example those related to the IPELT’s pedagogical domains of task organization and communication, may yet prove beneficial for teachers in other fields. Remembering Walton’s (2016) conceptualization of inclusive education as a discourse, we can recognize that the definition of inclusive education evolves over time, continually (de-/re-)constructed by its enactors. More frequent and formalized discourse between language education and inclusive education can therefore aid in their respective evolutions as fields of practice.

Limitations and Possibilities for Future Research

The current study includes a number of limitations that should be kept in mind when considering the above findings and subsequent discussion, as well as any potential applications and/or directions of future research. Regarding the quantitative data collection, convenience sampling allowed for sampling bias, selection bias, and positivity bias. Ideally, CFA should use random sampling, and so the CFA of the SACIE-R described in Chapter IV may not be generalizable, which is further supported by the borderline goodness of fit tests described there. Furthermore, histograms, P-P plots, and Q-Q plots of each of the three dependent variables indicated varying degrees of negative skewness and nonnormality of the distribution of residuals for all three factors. This is likely the result of the small sample size, lack of truly random sampling, and treatment of the 5-point items as continuous.

The reliability of self-reporting on the SACIE-R has also been questioned before, as teachers may be reluctant to express opinions which are viewed by society as negative, for example by giving a low rating on items that comprise the sentiments subscale (Main et al.,

2016). This was the first modification of the SACIE-R for use among postsecondary language teachers, as it has been far more commonly used among primary general education teachers. In addition, it is the first time that the respondents have represented such an international body, and so it is harder to parse the different nationalities and consider results against previous studies that used the original or a translated version of the original SACIE-R. Related to this point, predictors could have been excluded from the model in the robust regression for more accurate factor analysis.

The background section of the SACIE-R did not ask if respondents received training to teach SWDs during a BA degree, which may have been the case for an unknown number of respondents. Some unknown number of respondents also likely worked for dispatch companies rather than an HEI directly. This has the potential to influence the factors related to knowledge of relevant institutional policy. Future administrations with a similar population should account for these possibilities through the addition or revision of pertinent background items and/or taking appropriate measures to account for these different groups in the data treatment and analysis. Additionally, a number of seemingly significant concerns were raised during qualitative data collection that were not included in the concerns subscale of the SACIE-R, for example issues related to diagnosis and/or disclosure. Results related to respondents' concerns about implementing inclusive education may therefore not be truly representative. Because two of the original concerns items were ultimately removed during the CFA, they could be replaced with two items corresponding to concerns raised by observation and interview participants if this modified version of the SACIE-R were to be used with another set of ELTs in the same case context. The resultant scale would, though, require validation. A background item asking respondents to report their knowledge of institutional policy would also help provide valuable insight into how HEIs interpret and communicate local policy guidance to faculty members and determine if such policy awareness predicts sentiments, attitudes, or concerns.

Because Cronbach's alpha for the attitudes subscale was acceptable for this modified version of the SACIE-R, future administrations of this version may confirm the modifications with a different set of data, as this method has been strongly recommended to confirm the validity of such a scale (Netermeyer et al., 2003). As this was the first modification of the SACIE-R for use among ELTs, and because the respondents in the current sample

represented such an international body, replication is needed. This need is made more acute through the consideration that teachers' views on inclusive education vary from country to country (Alghazo & Gaad, 2004; Malinen & Savolainen, 2008), including divergent SACIE-R findings being attributable to differences in educational systems and teacher training between countries (Vogiatzi, 2021; Yada et al., 2018). As such, repeat administrations with other groups of ELTs, including at differing levels of education and in countries other than Japan, would further validate this modified version of the scale and add confidence to the findings reported here. In addition, future studies could investigate teachers' sentiments, attitudes, and concerns in relation to other constructs, most notably self-efficacy, for example using the Teacher Efficacy for Inclusive Practices Scale, as knowledge of inclusive education and self-perceived preparedness to implement inclusive practices has been shown to have a positive effect on the efficacy of inclusive practices in several mainstream teaching contexts (Forlin et al., 2011; Loreman et al., 2007; Özokçu, 2018b; Sharma et al., 2008; Sharma et al., 2012; Yada et al., 2018). Finally, a modified version of the SACIE-R can be used to help develop national policies on inclusive practices, as well as support teacher training programs (Kis, 2016; Murdaca et al., 2016; Poon et al., 2016).

Regarding the qualitative data collection, there appears to have been selection and positivity bias among the pool of observation and interview participants, as this set of participants had markedly more positive sentiments and attitudes compared to the total set of survey respondents, as well as greater interactions with people with disabilities and inclusive practices self-efficacy. Therefore, this group very likely represents a disproportionately positive view of inclusive education for SWDs compared to ELTs in broader terms, and so their overall degree of readiness to teach SWDs is likely not generalizable.

There were also some limitations of the qualitative data collection instrument, the Inclusive Practices in English Language Teaching scale (IPELT). Broadly speaking, it must be remembered that rendering any definition of inclusive education into actual practice is value-laden and subjective (Rapp & Corral-Granados, 2021). Furthermore, when attempting to measure inclusive education, there is a "high likelihood of encountering a lack of contextual sensitivity in measurement instruments, no matter what the method or criteria chosen" (Loreman et al., 2014a, p. 2). As for the IPELT itself, some behaviors are not fully

qualified. For example, asking teachers to report about how they set expectations for the class. Many said they do this on the first day of class, but the instrument was unable to capture how effectively this was communicated. Some items that were initially thought to be directly observable could be better contextualized through direct dialogue with the participants. Because participants were not asked to elaborate on the in-class observed behaviors on the IPELT, there was less scope for these behaviors to be reflected on in the POCs by the teachers, and thus less likelihood that they could be linked to broader concerns or contextual factors. A more comprehensive understanding of these teachers' approaches could have been gained through additional questioning. As such, any replication of the current study should invite teachers to elaborate on all 40 behaviors. Following Emmers et al. (2020), using behavioral intention operationalized through discourse analysis along with SACIE-R results in future administrations may also help overcome this particular limitation.

Additionally, there is the possibility of rater drift in magnitude coding, though this should have been minimized during second cycle coding. More significantly, the IPELT itself implies a certain paradigm or idea(l) of inclusion that may not reflect the best form of inclusion for every classroom being observed. For example, some participants received lower magnitude code weights for not maximizing pair- or group-work when they allowed independent work that could have been collaborative, but this weighting rests on the assumption that collaborative group work is always more inclusive. However, some students may benefit more from independent work time. This also raises the likelihood that some participants performed inclusive behaviors, perhaps intentionally, that were not captured by the IPELT at all. As such, the IPELT's 40 inclusive behaviors may require revision, including by addition or deletion, to be more contextually sensitive. Related to these limitations, a single rater allows more bias to influence the interpretation of critical incidents during observations and POCs. These limitations could be mitigated through the presence of additional expert raters who could have critical discussions of the IPELT itself and its implementation before deciding final magnitude code weights. The IPELT also has potential to be used as a reflective tool, as teachers could assign their own magnitude code weights or do so with a critical partner. As such, the IPELT could also be used for pre- or in-service professional development in a variety of EFL/ESL contexts.

Finally, it should be noted that the current research inquiry did not account for other perspectives, namely those of students and other stakeholders in HEIs, on inclusive

education and practices in the present research context. While not a limitation per se, this fact should be kept in mind when considering the results in broader terms. Carpenter (in press), for example, cited a blind postsecondary student in Japan who felt that some teachers rely too much on the support center and do not want to learn anything themselves, and Participant A raised a similar point during his interview. Similarly, Ooiwa and Yap (2020) found that eight students with SLDs at a Japanese university became more aware of the need to communicate their needs to teachers rather than stay silent and deal with the stress and discomfort presented in certain language learning environments. In addition to student voices, those of support staff and other university administrators, including leadership, could provide valuable insight into how inclusive education is perceived and implemented in such environments, especially as pertains to factors such as the presence and nature of institutional support. As such, future research inquiries into ELTs' preparedness to teach SWDs would almost certainly benefit from including and considering a wider set of perspectives.

Reflection

Throughout the course of my research, I encountered a number of obstacles to completing this dissertation. Many of these were unrelated to the research itself: the garden variety sufferings that come along with working fulltime with two small kids at home and a global pandemic unfolding in the background. Many others, however, were related to the research, and to data collection in particular. While I was often frustrated beyond belief at these seemingly unjustifiable obstacles, I came to realize that they were valuable sources of data themselves insofar as they reflected a number of the eight complicating factors that perpetuate barriers to inclusive education listed in GC4, and as such will be the focus of this final reflection.

According to GC4, these eight complicating factors are:

a. the failure to understand or implement the human rights model of disability, in which barriers within the community and society, rather than personal impairments, exclude persons with disabilities;

b. persistent discrimination against persons with disabilities, compounded by the isolation of those still living in long-term residential institutions, and low

expectations about those in mainstream settings, allowing prejudices and fear to escalate and remain unchallenged;

c. lack of knowledge about the nature and advantages of inclusive and quality education, and diversity, including regarding competitiveness, in learning for all;

d. lack of outreach to all parents and lack of appropriate responses to support requirements, leading to misplaced fears, and stereotypes, that inclusion will cause a deterioration in the quality of education, or otherwise impact negatively on others;

e. lack of disaggregated data and research, necessary for accountability and program development, impeding the development of effective policies and interventions to promote inclusive and quality education;

f. lack of political will, technical knowledge, and capacity in implementing the right to inclusive education including insufficient education of all teaching staff;

g. inappropriate and inadequate funding mechanisms to provide incentives and reasonable accommodations for inclusion of students with disabilities, inter-ministerial coordination, support, and sustainability; and

h. lack of legal remedies and mechanisms to claim redress for violations. (Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, 2016, p. 2)

There are two notable impediments to my data collection which embody some of these factors and, I believe, help to characterize and ground the present research in a more everyday reality, as well as provide a cruder counterpoint to the comparatively rosy findings reported above. Accepting Mills and Morton's (2013) contention that we are never fully removed from our research setting and that "ethnography is a broad church," (p. 89), this final reflection will take the form of a brief autoethnography in an attempt to recognize my position in relation to the social setting in which this research is situated, and furthermore to learn from it (Ellis, 2004).

The first of the above-mentioned hindrances came during the quantitative data collection, which I began by first notifying my personal professional network before posting a link to the survey on the Facebook pages of various special interest groups and regional chapters of the Japan Association for Language Teaching (JALT). Additionally, I contacted 61

individual English language programs, centers, and departments at a variety of HEIs around Japan over the course of the survey's open period. In that time, ten programs, centers, or departments agreed to share the link with their ELT faculty, four rejected the request, and 47 did not respond or ceased correspondence after an initial, noncommittal response.

The ten that granted the request represented a range of approval procedures from immediate and unilateral permission to going before a board or committee dedicated to research review. Notably, seven of these ten programs, centers, or departments were places where I had a personal contact or referral. Of the four that rejected the request, three did so in accordance with internal policy not to grant access to external researchers; the fourth notified me that there was an official procedure to go before the center's review committee, but rejected my request before the procedure could be followed citing concerns about the content of the survey itself. I later learned through an acquaintance employed in that center that, immediately after the review committee's rejection, the center's leadership instituted a new policy barring all instructors from participating in any outside research, a claim that was later corroborated by an administrative staff member at that university. While this certainly raises ethical concerns of this leadership's attempt to control their faculty's conduct outside of their regular work duties, it further signals the possibility that some EFL departments, centers, or programs are resistant to any external research inquiries which might find or perceive any kind of fault behind closed doors. Placed within the context of inclusive education, specifically for SWDs, such reluctance may further be construed as an attempt to conceal ableist policies or practices.

Viewed in total, the nature of these various rejections to assist in survey respondent recruitment and the disproportionate number of programs, centers, or departments that never responded to the request or terminated contact, may exemplify, at least to some degree, how a number of complicating factors to realizing inclusive education as listed in GC4 may impede or otherwise interfere with research into attitudes on inclusive education in the current case context. More specifically, the decision to reject or ignore such requests for research participation from gatekeepers may reflect a "[l]ack of political will, technical knowledge, and capacity in implementing the right to inclusive education including insufficient education of all teaching staff", as well as a "[l]ack of knowledge about the nature and advantages of inclusive and quality education, and diversity, including regarding competitiveness, in learning for all" (Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities,

2016, p. 2). GC4 further notes that a "[l]ack of disaggregated data and research, necessary for accountability and program development, impeding the development of effective policies and interventions to promote inclusive and quality education" can complicate efforts to realize inclusive education in practice, and such overzealous or negligent gatekeeping can, despite its best intentions, preclude such research. Similarly, the range of procedures required by those programs, centers, or departments that did assist in participant recruitment demonstrates the lack of uniform policy and procedure for dealing with outside researchers across HEIs in Japan. Such inconsistency further indicates shortcomings in quality assurance as it relates to promoting inclusive education as a human right as outlined in SDG4 and the Incheon Declaration (see UNESCO, 2016).

I had far better success in recruiting respondents through JALT, which is a non-profit organization and community of practice operated solely by volunteers. Primarily through Facebook, and to a lesser extent through direct contact via email, I was able to contact a total of 27 JALT special interest groups and 32 local or regional chapters. Of these groups, 20 special interest groups and 29 chapters shared the survey with their members. This was done primarily through Facebook posts, and to a lesser extent, newsletters and mailing lists. I also contacted the Japan Association of College English Teachers, a for-profit professional organization, as well as its seven regional chapters. The national office declined to provide any assistance in recruiting research participants, as did one of the regional chapters, while the other six did not respond to my emails. Finally, I was able to share the survey on two large Facebook groups for ELTs in Japan that are unaffiliated with any professional organization. Compared to the institutional barriers I encountered, the ease with which I was able to recruit participants through completely charitable communities of practice reinforces the importance of communities of practice in promoting an inclusive ethos within the TESOL field.

The second obstacle on which I wish to reflect was a single incident that illustrates the difficulty in overcoming selection bias in voluntary research into inclusive practices, but also one which provides some telling insight into the silent discrimination SWDs may yet encounter in their English language coursework, at least in the present case context. As noted above, I was ultimately able to observe and interview 13 survey respondents for the qualitative stage of the data collection. This might have been fourteen, had an unfortunate bit of timing not caused a potential participant to withdraw.

This particular survey respondent was one of the very first to volunteer to be observed and interviewed for the second stage. In our correspondence before the data collection period began, they were extremely amicable and eager to participate. This correspondence occurred during a holiday period between semesters, and so at a certain point there was nothing to correspond about until I could contact this person's institution to request formal approval for a classroom observation. Weeks passed while I waited for the spring semester to begin. Then, just before classes started, I received a brusque email from the potential participate wanting to know if they had received a disclosed SWD in one of their upcoming courses because they had responded to my initial survey. They went on to accuse me of contacting their supervisor to arrange for this to happen, and stated in no uncertain terms that they did not like teaching SWDs because it strained their workload. They concluded the email by saying that they would never again volunteer to participate in any research having to do with SWDs if this was what they got for it. I took some time to cool off before replying, but eventually did so by reminding this person that their participation was completely anonymous, and that my contacting their supervisor to make such a request would have been an inexcusable breach of ethics. I further noted that the number of disclosed SWDs in Japanese HEIs was rising every year, and that it was statistically more likely than not for any given teacher to have such a student enrolled in at least one course each academic year. Finally, I reminded this potential participant that a condition of my classrooms observations was that they specifically *not* have a disclosed SWD enrolled. I did not receive a reply, and needless to say, the individual in question did not participate in the qualitative stage of my research.

This particular episode highlights that, despite the generally positive views of people with disabilities and their inclusion in EFL/ESL coursework as demonstrated by the findings above, negative and even ableist views persist. It also exhibits how individual ELTs can embody two of the complicating factors to implementing inclusive education listed in GC4, namely "persistent discrimination against persons with disabilities" and a "lack of knowledge about the nature and advantages of inclusive and quality education, and diversity, including regarding competitiveness, in learning for all" (Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, 2016, p. 2). Viewed in comparison to the lesson observation and interview participants, who had more positive views on inclusive education compared to the total pool of survey respondents, helps us to understand the true range of possible attitudes

present within the current case context, and likely the wider TESOL field. While the observed subset is less representative of the community of ELTs in Japanese HEIs currently, they may be representative of where this community could be headed. In other words, these 13 teachers can be viewed as models to follow on the path to realizing a more inclusive community of postsecondary ELTs in Japan and the wider TESOL field rather than an accurate representation of the community as it stands at the time of writing.

In closing, I feel it is important to state, unequivocally, that we can and must be more inclusive as a field. In the words of Paulo Freire (2018), education is remade through praxis: "[i]n order to *be*, it must *become*" (p. 84). MA TESOL and equivalent programs can and should better prepare their pre-service teachers to teach inclusively. ELTs can and should make a conscious effort to accommodate a variety of support needs in their instruction. Hiring committees can and should ask prospective hires about their views of accommodating SWDs and inclusivity in the classroom. Department and program leadership can and should conduct in-service faculty development to improve ELTs' ability to effectively teach SWDs. Curricula and courses can and should be accessibly and flexibly designed. Institutions can and should provide more systematic and structured support for students with disabilities and their teachers. Communities of practice can and should actively discuss and foreground issues related to inclusivity. ELTs and department leaders with deficit views of disability are out there, but "[o]nly a critical mass of empowered *inclusive* teachers can enact systemic change for inclusive education" (Hunt, 2019, p. 125). If a paradigm shift towards greater inclusivity in the field of English language teaching is not already underway, ELTs everywhere should be inciting one. It's on us to drive the change.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Word Version of the Modified SACIE-R

"This survey is being administered in partial completion of a PhD dissertation at the Graduate School of Asia Pacific Studies at Waseda University, and has been approved by the advising committee. The total survey should take 10-15 minutes to complete. Please note that your consent for this data to be used for these research purposes is given by your completion of the survey. All responses are anonymous and protected. Email addresses are collected in order to locate a specific response if a respondent chooses to revoke their participation. Additionally, you are encouraged to share this survey with colleagues. Questions, concerns, or requests to revoke participation can be directed to the researcher, Davey Young, at dyoung@fuji.waseda.jp."

<u>Part 1 – Background Information</u>

1. I identify as...
    a. Male
    b. Female
    c. Non-binary
    d. Prefer not to say

2. What is your age?
    a. 20-29
    b. 30-39
    c. 40-49
    d. 50-59
    e. 60+

3. My nationality is... (if you have dual/multiple nationality, please separate with a comma)

4. What qualifications do you have? Check all that apply.
    a. TEFL/TESL Certification or Diploma (e.g. CELTA, DELTA, DipTESOL)

   b. MA in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar
   c. MA in Education or similar
   d. Other MA
   e. PhD/EdD in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar
   f. PhD/EdD in Education or similar
   g. Other PhD
   h. I have not received any of the qualifications listed here.

5. I received training to teach students with disabilities as part of my... (Check all that apply.)
   a. TEFL/TESL Certification or Diploma (e.g. CELTA, DELTA, DipTESOL)
   b. MA in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar
   c. MA in Education or similar
   d. Other MA
   e. PhD/EdD in TESOL, Applied Linguistics, or similar
   f. PhD/EdD in Education or similar
   g. Other PhD
   h. I have not received training to teach students with disabilities as part of the qualifications listed above.

6. I have received training to teach students with disabilities as ongoing professional development... (Check all that apply.)
   a. conducted within my job/workplace.
   b. by attending conference presentations, workshops, or talks.
   c. by engaging in a community of practice, e.g. a special interest group dedicated to serving students with disabilities.
   d. by doing independent reading or research.
   e. I have not received any such training.

7. I currently teach....
   a. Full-time at a public higher education institute (university, junior college, or vocational school)

   b. Full-time at a private higher education institute (university, junior college, or vocational school)
   c. Part-time at a public higher education institute (university, junior college, or vocational school)
   d. Part-time at a private higher education institute (university, junior college, or vocational school)

8. Does/do (any of) your current institution(s) offer training on how to teach students with disabilities?
   a. I don't know
   b. Yes
   c. No

9. Does/do (any of) your current institution(s) have an office or center for supporting students with disabilities?
   a. I don't know
   b. Yes
   c. No

10. Does/do (any of) your current institution(s) provide information or guidelines on how to teach students with disabilities enrolled in your classes?
   a. I don't know
   b. Yes
   c. No

11. Does/do (any of) your current institution(s) provide information or guidelines on how to teach students with disabilities in general?
   a. I don't know
   b. Yes
   c. No

The following items use a 5-point Likert scale

1. I have had considerable interactions with a person with a disability.
2. My knowledge of local legislation or policy (e.g. as required by the Japanese government) as it pertains to students with disabilities is: (strongly agree to strongly disagree)
3. My knowledge of global legislation or policy (e.g. as recommended by the United Nations) as it pertains to students with disabilities is: (very low to very high)
4. My level of confidence in teaching students with disabilities is: (very low to very high)
5. My level of experience teaching a student with a disability is: (very low to very high)
6. My knowledge of inclusive practices is: (very low to very high)
7. My level of confidence using inclusive practices is: (very low to very high)
8. My level of experience using inclusive practices is: (very low to very high)
9. My knowledge of communicative language teaching (CLT) is: (very low to very high)
10. My level of confidence using a communicative approach is: (very low to very high)
11. My level of experience using a communicative approach is: (very low to very high)
12. My knowledge of reflective practice is: (very low to very high)
13. My level of confidence doing reflective practice is: (very low to very high)
14. My level of experience doing reflective practice is: (very low to very high)

<u>Part 2 – Sentiments, Attitudes, & Concerns about Inclusive English Language Education Scale (SACIELE Scale)</u>

These items use a 4-point Likert scale, strongly disagree to strongly agree

1. I am concerned that students with disabilities will not be accepted by the rest of the class.
2. I dread the thought that I could eventually end up with a disability.
3. Students who have excessive difficulty producing English-language output should receive accommodations in their English-language classes.

4. I am concerned that it will be difficult to give appropriate attention to all students in an inclusive classroom.
5. I tend to make contacts with people with disabilities brief and I finish them as quickly as possible.
6. Students who are inattentive should receive accommodations in their English-language classes.
7. I am concerned that my workload will increase if I have students with disabilities in my class.
8. Students who require communicative technologies (e.g. Braille and sign language) should receive accommodations in their English-language classes.
9. I would feel terrible if I had a disability.
10. I am concerned that I will be more stressed if I have students with disabilities in my class.
11. I am afraid to look a person with a disability straight in the face.
12. Students who have excessive difficulty comprehending English-language input should receive accommodations in their English-language classes.
13. I find it difficult to overcome my initial shock when meeting people with severe physical disabilities.
14. I am concerned that I do not have knowledge and skills required to teach students with disabilities.
15. Students who disclose a disability to their school should receive accommodations in their English language classes.

Part 3 – Volunteer for an Observation & Interview (Optional)

Participants may leave their email to indicate willingness to be observed and interviewed in the spring 2022 term. All volunteers must receive approval from their host institution before an actual observation can take place.

Appendix B: Observation & POC Form

Not observed	Partially	Substantially	Fully
The behavior is never observed despite opportunities for its presence.	The behavior is evident in few applicable activities observed in the class; there is substantial room for improvement.	The behavior is evident in most applicable activities observed in the class; there is some room for improvement.	The behavior is evident in all applicable activities and forms an integral part of the lesson; there is little to no room for improvement.

Teacher's name:
Institution:
Course title:
Number of students:
Date of observation:
Lesson objectives:
Class characteristics:

Script to read to teachers before interview:
Thank you for letting me observe your teaching and for participating in this interview! The interview should take between 45-60 minutes in total. First, I am going to ask you some simple questions about your teaching in general terms. These questions are intended to help me gain a better understanding of your pre-teaching process, for example lesson planning. Many of these are simple yes/no questions, and there is no need to elaborate, though you may if you like. Next, after those questions, I will invite you to elaborate further through a short series of more open-ended questions. Do you have any questions before we begin?

	Behaviors Observed in Lesson *(overlap with principles of CLT)	NO	P	S	F
1.	Uses multisensory and multimodal materials and tasks during activities (e.g. by using visual organizers and manipulatives). Notes:				
2.	Uses appropriate fonts and formatting in materials. Notes:				
3.	Arranges the classroom with physical and sensory impairments in mind, e.g. by providing enough space to move and by minimizing distraction. Notes:				
4.*	Creates a safe learning environment where students feel encouraged to take risks. Notes:				
5.	Uses available technology in lessons to enhance student learning when appropriate. Notes:				
6.*	Scaffolds activities to help students meet learning objectives. Notes:				
7.	Articulates high expectations for students. Notes:				
8.	Presents clear criteria for activities. Notes:				
9.	Modifies directions to meet the diverse learning needs of students (e.g. rephrasing, giving written and spoken directions, modeling or providing an example). Notes:				
10.	Provides alternate explanations or examples when students are confused. Notes:				
11.	Asks effective questions that match instructional goals. Notes:				
12.*	Allows collaborative pair- and group-work. Notes:				
13.*	Relates learning activities to students' personal experiences (e.g. by providing rich, meaningful input). Notes:				
14.*	Links different skills in and across activities. Notes:				

15.	Provides reasonable time allocations to achieve the learning goals and adjusts if students need more or less time. Notes:				
16.*	Tolerates learner error. Notes:				
17.*	Recognizes and respects affective factors of learning. Notes:				
18.*	Provides frequent and appropriate feedback during class activities. Notes:				
19.	Encourages students to reflect on what they have learned. Notes:				
20.	Helps learners develop learning strategies and metacognition. Notes:				
21.	Provides equal opportunities for students to ask questions. Notes:				
22.	Responds appropriately to students' questions/comments. Notes:				
Notes:					

	Behaviors Determined through Post-Observation Interview	NO	P	S	F
23.	Selects curricular materials and resources that align with student learning goals. *(To what extent do you select materials and resources so that they align with student learning goals [as opposed to your own or curricular goals for their learning]?)*				
24.	Plans instruction to address students' individual strengths and weaknesses. *(To what extent do you plan lessons to address students' individual strengths and/or weaknesses?)*				
25.	Plans instruction to address interests of students. *(To what extent do you plan your lesson to address or include students' interests?)*				
26.	Designs learning experiences that connect new learning to prior learning. *(To what extent do you plan your lesson to connect new learning to prior learning?)*				
27.	Routinizes instructions and task structures. *(Do you follow a routine when it comes to instructions and the organization of activities? If so, what is the routine and do you ever break it?)*				
28.	Differentiates learning materials and tasks. *(How often do you differentiate learning materials and tasks? In other words, do you ever give different materials or tasks to individual students based on their needs?)*				
29.	Forms small groups of students who differ in ability and interests to work in joint learning activities. *(How do you determine how to pair and group students?)*				
30.	Uses assessment outcomes to inform instruction. *(To what extent do you use assessment outcomes to inform your instruction?)*				
31.	Uses a variety of assessment strategies to measure student progress. *(How do you measure students' progress both within a lesson and across the term of the course?)*				
32.	Makes assessment accommodations when necessary. *(Do you ever make assessment accommodations for students? If so, why do you make such accommodations?)*				
33.	Has established standards of conduct and they are clear to students.				

	(Have you established standards of conduct and communicated those to students? When and how did you do this?)				
34.	Uses a number of strategies to prevent behavioural disruption. *(What strategies do you use to prevent disruption in class?)*				
35.	Uses strategies to motivate learners. *(What strategies do you use to motivate learners?)*				
36.	Collaborates with colleagues to share best practices. *(How often do you collaborate with colleagues to share best practices?)*				
37.	Reflects on teaching with regard for individual student needs. *(How often do you reflect on the efficacy of your teaching with regard for individual students' needs? What is the mode of reflection [e.g. critical friend groups, teaching journal, etc.]?)* • *How do you define the term* reflective practice*?*				
38.	Considers the possibility of students with disabilities (SWDs) in their classroom, and the barriers they face. *(Do you actively consider the possibility that students with disabilities may be present in your class? [If yes: Do you think about how their experience of learning might compare to other students in the class, and do you do anything in particular as a result of this consideration?])*				
39.	Takes specific pedagogical approaches to accommodate SWDs. *(Do you take any specific pedagogical approaches to accommodate students with disabilities? [If yes: What approaches?])* • *Do you have any familiarity with inclusive practices? (If yes: how would you characterize that familiarity, e.g. how did you learn about them, to what extent do you implement them, and so on? Try to refer to the lesson I observed.)* • *How do you define the term* inclusive practices*?* • *Referring to the lesson I observed, to what extent would you consider your approach to teaching to be communicative?* • *How do you define the term* communicative language teaching*?*				
40.	Considers institutional/national/global policy guidance on accommodating SWDs. *(To what extent do you consider policy guidance from any level [i.e. from your institution, the Japan government, or international policy] on including or accommodating students with disabilities?)* • *What is your institution's guidance on supporting students with disabilities?*				

	Additional questions: • *For you, what problems or difficulties in teaching English to students with disabilities are the most significant? (If nudge needed: these could be related to language learning, the classroom environment, your institution, or really anything. They could be based on your own experience, or the experience of others, or simply your understanding and knowledge of the topic.)* • *To what extent do you feel prepared by your qualifications and training to teach English to students with disabilities?* • *Have you participated in any professional development aimed at teaching students with disabilities? If so, how would you characterize that experience?* • *What are your current training needs when it comes to teaching students with disabilities? In other words, what knowledge or skills do you think your need in order to teach such students?* • *To what extent do you feel supported by your institution to accommodate students with disabilities enrolled in your classes?* • *How do you feel that COVID-19 has impacted your ability to effectively teach students with disabilities?* • *In very general terms, how do you feel about teaching students with disabilities?* • *Is there anything you think is important that we haven't talked about?*
Notes:	

(modifed from Grace & Gravestock, 2009; New Jersey Coalition for Inclusive Education, 2010; Sharma & Sokal, 2016; Smith, 2018)

Appendix C: Post-observation Interview Coding Start List

Categories	**Subcategories**	**Code Descriptions & Examples**	**Codes**
Affective construct	Sentiments	Codes refer to "sentiments about engaging with people with disabilities" (Forlin et al., 2011, p. 59).	Comfort around disability Imagined disabled self
	Attitudes	Codes refer to "acceptance of learners with different support needs" (Forlin et al., 2011, p. 59).	Accessibility Accommodations Adaptability Assistive technology Differentiation/Individualization Mentions disability by name Learning environment
	Concerns	Codes refer to "concerns about inclusive education" (Forlin et al., 2011, p. 59).	Workload Appropriate attention Stress SWDs won't be accepted Lacking knowledge and skills
Instructional strategies	Communicative language teaching	Codes refer to the use of communicative language teaching as an approach	Mentions CLT by name Defines CLT Degree of communicative approach:0-3 Communicative principle:(various)
	Reflective Practice	Codes refer to the use and mode of reflective practice	Mentions reflective practice by name Defines reflective practice Reflection-in-action Reflection-on-action Reflection-for-action Mode of reflection:(various)
	Inclusive Practices	Codes refer to the use and mode of reflective practice.	Defines inclusive practices Familiarity with inclusive practices:0-3 Multisensory & multimodal:0-3 Fonts & formatting:0-3

		Weighting is used for magnitude coding of specific inclusive practices in the IPELT.	Classroom arrangement:0-3 Safe environment:0-3 Appropriate technology use:0-3 Scaffolding:0-3 Expectations:0-3 Clear criteria:0-3 Modifies directions:0-3 Alternate explanations & examples:0-3 Effective questions:0-3 Pair and group work:0-3 Personalizes activities:0-3 Links skills:0-3 Time allocations:0-3 Tolerates error:0-3 Affective factors:0-3 Feedback:0-3 Student reflection:0-3 Strategies & metacognition:0-3 Opportunities for questions:0-3 Responds appropriately:0-3 Materials match students' goals:0-3 Addresses ind strengths & weaknesses:0-3 Addresses students' interests:0-3 New learning connects to prior:0-3 Routines:0-3 Differentiates materials & tasks:0-3 Groups differ in ability & interest:0-3 Assessment informs instruction:0-3 Variety of assessments:0-3 Assessment accommodations:0-3 Standards of conduct:0-3 Behavior strategies:0-3 Motivation strategies:0-3 Collaborates with colleagues:0-3 Reflects on ind needs:0-3 Considers possible SWDs:0-3 Specific pedagogy for SWDs:0-3 Considers policy:0-3

		Other instructional strategies	Personal interaction L1 use
	Other approaches to teaching	Codes refer to specific other approaches to teaching	Other pedagogical approaches:(various) - Project-based learning
Policy	Institutional policy	Codes refer to institutional policy on teaching SWDs	Institutional policy Faculty needs
	National policy	Codes refer to national policy on teaching SWDs	National policy
	International policy	Codes refer to int'l policy on teaching SWDs	International policy
Needs	Support needs	Codes refer to stated support needs	Support needs:(various)
	Training needs	Codes refer to stated training needs	Training needs:(various) Willingness to improve
	Student needs	Codes refer to stated student needs	Student needs:(various)