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Defining Inclusion: Surveying Educator Perceptions and Practices in Chile

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Defining Inclusion: Surveying Educator Perceptions and Practices in Chile

A Dissertation Presented

by

CHRISTINA ANDERSON BOSCH

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts Amherst in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

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College of Education

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DEDICATION

To my grandparents, Anderson, Bellows, Bosch, and Passalacqua,
to name just a few in the lineage of adventurers who live through me.

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ABSTRACT

Defining Inclusion: Surveying Educator Perceptions and Practices in Chile

MAY 2021

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Despite earlier attempts to arrive at unified theories or conceptualizations, the international literature on inclusive education has increasingly documented the proliferation of operationalizations of inclusion in and even within single instances of policy, research, and practice, and called for further scholarly attention to such subjectivity. Specifically, there is a dearth of international research linking definitions to perceptions to practices within special and/or inclusive education, and findings on the efficacy of interventions to promote inclusive education practices in Spanish-speaking contexts or literature are similarly sparse. This study investigates how Latinx educators in K-12 schools conceptualize and practice inclusion with respect to special education needs (SEN) in Chile, the locus of one of the most segregated, free-market education systems in

the world. It is the first linking educator definitions, perceptions and pedagogical knowledge of inclusion as well as SEN in Chile, validating a comparative special education research instrument for Spanish-speaking education stakeholders interested in how schools and educators approach enacting inclusive praxis. This convergent mixed methods crosssectional survey study used the International Survey of Inclusion in Education to gather qualitative and quantitative responses from educators across Chile about their definitions and perceptions of inclusion and special education needs, as well as practical strategy knowledge. A total of 660 individuals accessed the self-administered online survey; based on consent and completion of items, the Likert scale responses from 476 participants were retained in the quantitative analysis, while 468 participants' definitions of inclusion were reviewed in the qualitative analysis. The findings suggest that in Chile, definitions of inclusion reflect the wide range of influences on educator practice: national legal policy, national grassroots civil rights activism led by student movements for quality, equitable access to free public schooling, and international economic and social hegemony authored by imperial world powers. Educators have a generally positive perception of inclusion and special education needs, but this is inversely related to their self-appraised strategy knowledge related to special education needs—particularly in the case of special educators. The implications for equity-based, intersectional inclusive education within and beyond the territory of Chile are discussed.

Keywords: Inclusion, special education needs, Chile, disabilities, teacher attitudes, teacher knowledge

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	v
ABSTRACT.....	vi
LIST OF TABLES.....	x
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xi
 CHAPTER	
I. INTRODUCTION.....	1
A Brief History of Inclusion in Chile.....	8
Chilean Education and Youth with Disabilities.....	10
Definitions of Inclusion as a Problem for Practice.....	12
Definitions of Inclusion as a Problem for International Research.....	15
II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE.....	21
Systematic Review and Content Analyses Processes.....	21
Search Terms.....	23
Systematic Literature Review Procedures.....	26
Results of the Citation Content Analysis.....	29
Citation Analysis Results: Inclusion in Chilean Policy and Legislation.....	29
Citation Analysis Results: Inclusion in Chile Based on Intergovernmental Agreements.....	36
Citation Analysis Results: Inclusion in Chilean Scholarship	42
Review Synthesis: Factors Underlying Educational Inclusion of Students with SEN in Chile.....	46
Additional Possible Factors Underlying the Operationalization of Inclusion in Chile.....	62
Literature Review Findings Summary.....	63
III. METHOD.....	65
Quantitative Method.....	65
Instrument.....	66
Back-Translation and Content Validation for Pilot.....	69
Pilot and Instrument Finalization.....	74
Sampling Recruitment and Data Collection Procedures.....	76
Database Preparation.....	77
Final Sample.....	78

	Data Analysis Procedure.....	80
	Multiple Linear Regression Analysis.....	83
	Qualitative Method.....	84
IV.	RESULTS.....	87
	Quantitative Data Analysis Results: EFA.....	87
	EFA: Ten-Factor Solution.....	87
	EFA: Six-Factor Solution.....	101
	Descriptive Findings.....	108
	Multiple Linear Regression Results.....	114
	Qualitative Data Analysis Results.....	117
	How Category.....	119
	What Category.....	123
	Why Category.....	126
	Where Category.....	127
	Who Category.....	128
	Themes.....	130
	Word Frequency Analyses Results.....	132
V.	DISCUSSION.....	142
	Factor Structure.....	143
	Interpretation of Specific Factors.....	144
	Quantitative Insights into Participant Conceptualizations of Inclusion.....	146
	Mean Ratings by Factor.....	149
	Relationships between Factors and Participant Characteristics.....	149
	Definitions of Inclusion.....	151
	Interpretation of Themes Drawn from Participant Definitions.....	152
	Limitations of the Present Study.....	160
	Implications for Research.....	161
	Implications for Practice.....	162
	Conclusion.....	163
	REFERENCES.....	165

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Disability Classification Demographics in Chilean Education in 2018..	12
2. Citation Analysis Results.....	27
3. Inclusion Survey Items.....	68
4. SEN Category Translation Process and Results.....	73
5. Sample Demographics.....	78
6. Ten-Factor Solution Correlation Matrix.....	89
7. Ten-Factor Solution Communalities.....	90
8. Ten-Factor Solution Pattern Matrix.....	94
9. Ten- Factor Solution Structure Matrix.....	97
10. Six-Factor Solution Pattern Matrix.....	103
11. Six-Factor Solution Structure Matrix.....	107
12. Model Summaries from Multiple Regression Analyses.....	115
13. T-Tests and p-values for significant findings from multiple regression analyses.....	117
14. Categories, subcategories, and codes from qualitative analysis.....	118
15. Word counts, rankings, and percentages for responses in Spanish.....	133
16. Word counts, rankings, and percentages for responses in English.....	139

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. Distribution of Mean Rating Scores within Factor I: Independence.....	109
2. Distribution of Mean Rating Scores Within Factor II: Disposition.....	110
3. Distribution of Mean Rating Scores within Factor III: Institutional Support	111
4. Distribution of Mean Score Ratings Within Factor IV: Strategy Knowledge.....	112
5. Distribution of Mean Score Ratings within Factor V: Workplace Inclusion	113
6. Distribution of Mean Score Ratings within Factor VI: Institutional Climate	114
7. Model of the subcategories linked to the two overarching themes.....	131
8. Word cloud of most frequent words in participant responses: Spanish.....	137
9. Word cloud of most frequent words in participant responses: English.....	141

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Appropriated by conservatives, liberals, and radicals alike, the construct *inclusive education* is simultaneously used to promote globalization; erase cultural, ethnic, linguistic, and indigenous identities in search of a common core within all humans; and to identify and give voice to the experiences and lives of people who live at the margins of social institutions and, in doing so, make visible power-laden polycultural discourses that construct differences. (Kozleski et al., 2011, p. 1 -2)

Inclusion has become a pervasive term in educational systems around the world. Whether conceptualized as a movement, policy, or paradigm, the origins of inclusive education remain rooted in the historic creativity and sacrifice of disabled people and their families, who sought dignity and opportunity through community-based, public opportunities for learning—often in solidarity, however direct or indirect, with allies in Afro-descendant, feminist, and queer communities—and achieved hard-won civil rights while aiming for the transformation of inequitable systems. Such groundbreaking work spawned inclusive education initially in the Scandinavian countries, England, Canada, and the U.S. territories (Artiles et al., 2011). Today, these grassroots have become a globalized education policy phenomenon with a broadened impetus to remove barriers to learning for all marginalized learners, through decades of mounting support from liberal intergovernmental organizations (IGOs) like the United Nations (UN), the World Health Organization (WHO), and the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development

(OECD) (Slee, 2018). Since the 1990s, “inclusion” has been widely employed in international education discourses (e.g., UNESCO Salamanca Statement, 1994; UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, 2006; UN 2030 development goals).

Increasingly, this massive political uptake is coming under scholarly scrutiny (Terzi, 2014). A resulting body of literature has emerged, analyzing the proliferation of justifications for, implementations of, and meanings ascribed to “inclusion.” This paper will generally conceive of inclusive education as the process of systematically removing barriers to access, participation, and benefit for historically marginalized populations, with a focus on disabled¹ communities; however, the lack of a more specific operationalization is precisely the problem engaged by this research. Numerous meanings ascribed to the single word “inclusion” may hamper progress in established areas of concern within inclusive education, such as: 1.) a weak empirical basis for enacting and evaluating inclusion (Loyo Brambila et al., 2014; Dell’Anna et al., 2019; Amor et al., 2019; Nilholm & Göransson, 2017), 2.) persistently dismal outcomes of students with disabilities (Nilholm & Göransson, 2017; UN Disability Report, 2018; Artiles et al., 2016), 3.) a lack of investigation on how it is that inequity in education continues in the face of inclusive reforms (Artiles, 2019; Bakhshi et al., 2020). In sum, concerns and

¹ I used disabled, dis/abled, and ‘with disabilities’ as well as the educational discursive equivalent, special education needs (SEN), relatively interchangeably, acknowledging the fraught implications of these terms, and aligning with the usage in Rosenthal (2019), as described by Marta Russell and Ravi Malhotra in its Introduction: “Disability is a socially created category derived from labor relations, a product of the exploitative economic structure of capitalist society: one which creates (and the oppresses) the so-called *disabled* body as one of the conditions that allow the capitalist class to accumulate wealth.”

considerations about what can fundamentally be understood as equity are currently lagging behind as inclusive models grow around the world (Artiles et al., 2011).

Inequity also exists within research on inclusive education itself. Despite Latin American nations' adoption of key intergovernmental agreements regarding inclusion, Spanish-language papers and research involving Latin American countries remain absent or underrepresented in the vast majority (if not all) English-language reviews of inclusion (e.g., Miles & Singhal, 2010; Nilhom & Göransson, 2017; Linder & Schwab, 2020; Artiles et al., 2016; Lindsay, 2007). The recent publication by the first international team to conduct a bilingual review of research on inclusive education, Amor et al. (2019), signals this omission while contributing to filling its gap.

What effectively amounts to Latin/Spanish exclusion from the international body of knowledge compounds confusion in the research and practice landscape of inclusive education. In some countries, most notably the U.S., inclusion is closely linked to special education reforms which encompass gradations of segregated programs for students with special education needs (SEN) (Baglieri et al., 2011; Florian, 2014). Internationally, inclusion often represents a broader social justice agenda, such as UNESCO's goal of Education for All. This agenda can be a cohesive set of policies predicated on the universal value of diversity, or it can translate into assimilationist approaches to education—everyone learns at school, at the same school, through the same curriculum (Terigi, 2008). A problem with more expansive approaches to inclusion is that disability can once again become a marginalized issue. This de-centering of disability is compounded by the challenges of conducting comparative research: excepting most physical and sensory disabilities, special education needs (SEN) categories, criteria, and

evaluation techniques—not to mention the cultural perspectives on how disability is constituted and experienced—vary from country to country. This variability illuminates the subjective construction and socio-cultural contingencies of SEN, calling into question, as a result, monolithic or culturally non-responsive “inclusion” strategies. Latin American scholars have even claimed that the very need to distinguish the “abnormal” is a fundamentally European import (León, 2019), and that although countries on this continent have adopted abundant legislation safeguarding inclusive education as a human right, translating laws into policy and pedagogical practice has proven very difficult because of linguistic and cultural nuances (Loyo Brambila et al., 2014).

Within Latin American countries, Chile has long been characterized by relevant paradoxes or contrasts. Although it can be argued to possess the longest-running democracy in Latin America, this narrative is marred by the nearly twenty-year Pinochet dictatorship that overthrew the only democratically-elected socialist presidency in the Western Hemisphere, which also established lasting neoliberal austerities that continue to shape the present society—making it one of the most unequal within the OECD (Atria et al., 2018). From an international perspective, Chile is often considered an economic success story and a bastion of stability in the region. But nationally, its well-known extreme socio-economic inequity and segregation are reflected in its education system (Gatica, 2016; León León & Rojas Gómez, 2015; León, 2019; López et al., 2018). In recent decades, this model has come under intensifying public pressure (Ávalos & Bellei, 2019). In response to several decades punctuated by massive popular uprisings—largely led by high school and college students—against the neoliberal policies that the public perceives as having generated extreme levels of social inequity (Cummings, 2015), the

government has enacted several progressive, interlocking, national education reforms oriented towards inclusivity. As a result, Chile is a case study in how both individual educators and schools transition from a culture where exclusion was normalized to one where inclusion is mandated by federal policy.

Gaps in inclusive education policies may reflect that a consistent challenge in inclusive education research has also been identifying effective practices (Adderley et al., 2015; Bešić et al., 2017; Black-Hawkins, 2012; Coombs-Richardson & Mead, 2001; Semon et al., 2020; Sharma & Sokal, 2016). As is the case generally in the international field of inclusive education research, there is limited documentation and empirical validation of specific interventions that Chilean educators use to support innovative inclusive practices (Apablaza Santis, 2015; D. Manghi et al., 2018; Matus et al., 2019). Another major challenge is the lack of a scholarly understanding of the Chilean educator perceptions and knowledge of inclusion and disability (Crosso, n.d.; Fuente-Alba, 2018; M. Tenorio et al., 2013). While the link between dispositions or attitudes and practices has long been established in the social sciences and in the literature on inclusive education specifically, no studies to date have engaged Chilean respondents on both perceptions and practices in a single investigation. Additionally, an important gap identified in recent international research lies in the diverse definitions of inclusion, which remain apparently under-interrogated in the current Chilean literature. Emerging findings suggest that descriptions, perceptions, and beliefs about inclusion are contingent on people's highly subjective definitions of it, which have generally not been sufficiently considered in inclusive education research (Przibilla et al., 2018; Lüke & Grosche, 2018; Scheer et al., 2020; Krischler et al., 2019).

Chile is one of the most privatized and segregated education systems and is also the only Latin American country included in the OECD—with the expectation that it address its marked history of social inequity. Neoliberal policies, such as those embraced in Chile, shape teacher education and practice, and as such are relevant to understanding how teachers approach inclusion (Ávalos & Razquin, 2017). Along with ambitious national reforms enacted in the 2015 (the education reforms Inclusion Law and Decree 83), integrating or more recently including students with Special Education Needs (SEN) in general education classrooms has been increasingly mandated by Chilean policy and is monitored through the optional state-funded special education program PIE (*Programa de Integración Escolar*, or, School Integration Program) since 2004. The Ministry of Education has put out guidance on inclusive practices since 2005, and the same year that produced the Inclusion Law also put forward a teacher evaluation system that addresses some of the issues related to enacting inclusion as an educator in Chile (Ávalos-Bevan, 2018). However, literature has long documented that because of hierarchies and privileging of practical and tacit knowledges (Foucault, 1973; Argyris & Schon, 1974; Nonaka, 1994; Argyris, 1999), the whole systems learning and change (Argyris, 1992; Fullan, 1993) envisioned by policy, research, and programming do not necessarily translate into school practices coherently, if at all (Senge, 2012).

Complicating the challenges of developing practices congruent with policy conceptualizations of inclusion is the intersectional, context-dependent nature of disability. Outside of physical and sensory disabilities, SEN categories, criteria, and evaluation techniques vary from country to country. For example, in 2009, the Chilean system dichotomized SEN into transitory and permanent classes, to specify that School

Integration Programs were limited to serving five students with transitory and two with permanent SEN per grade level. This variability across school types illuminates the subjective construction and socio-cultural contingencies of SEN, calling into question discourses about inclusion that fail to adopt an intersectional prism towards not just disability in education, but education for a plurality of populations more generally.

Chile's recent Inclusion Law and Decreto 83 (explained in subsequent sections, implemented in waves from 2015 to the present) exemplify how contradictory concepts coexist with problematic implications for education stakeholders. The Inclusion Law was designed to dismantle one of the most segregated, exclusionary, and highly privatized education systems in the world, eliminating numerous barriers to universal access to public education. However, in the wake of this reform, educators are practicing under layers of somewhat contradictory Chilean mandates and imported Eurocentric and US inclusion frameworks. Decreto 83, enacted in tandem, braids together frameworks produced in the Global North, like Universal Design for Learning and the Index for Inclusion, to mandate that students with disabilities be educated in general education conditions. The de-facto foundation for these innovative laws, however, remains the optional Chilean School *Integration* Program (my emphasis), which provides special education for a limited number of students with SEN per grade and has been consistently identified in Chilean literature, following a landmark study by López et al. (2014), as a hybrid of medical, deficit models and inclusive discourses. As a result, applied and applicable guidance for inclusive education practices in Chile may be unclear to researchers, school leaders and educators. One of the major issues confronting the system is the incoherence of SEN inclusion policies under neoliberal approaches to public

education, which is compounded by the lack of alignment between research, practice, and educators' perceptions of inclusion.

A Brief History of Inclusion in Chile

According to Ramos (2014), special education in Chile can be classified into four phases: 1852 – 1989 mark the origins and consolidation of special education; the orientation and theoretical consolidation of inclusion emerged between 1990 and 2004; and since 2005 the education of students with special needs including but not limited to disability has been characterized by contradictions. As is typical in the histories of national public education systems in much of the world, inclusive education is rooted in the legacies of exclusion from education.

The first school for youth with intellectual “deficits” was opened in 1928, a year after proposed legislation (which did not pass) proposed that primary schools for the “indigent, weak and unhealthy, abnormal and mentally retarded” be officially incorporated into the country’s public education system (León & Rojas Gómez, 2015; León, 2019). From the 1940s and through 1989, separate educational centers and schools were established and were the only options for youth with specific types of disabilities to be educated. These school were operated under a mix of Decrees regulating education for these children as a kind of medical rehabilitation. After the seventeen-year Pinochet dictatorship ended in 1990, the new democratic government passed “integration” legislation emphasizing equal access for people with disabilities in education through the optative School Integration Program (*Programa de Integración Escolar*, or PIE) and society in general. Today, PIE remains synonymous with special education in Chile.

Beginning in 2004, international momentum promoting the inclusive paradigm propelled the Chilean government to reform special education. Special education was conceived of as a modality that functioned through three types of settings: separate special schools, regular education schools with School Integration Programs (PIE), and hospital-based schools and classrooms (MINEDUC, 2005, as cited in Ramos, 2014). The so-called “Contradictions” phase culminated, with the 2010 General Education Law, which defined education, identified the societal values that framed the education system, and proclaimed equity and quality as its goals. This law established a quality-assurance or accountability agency to monitor the implementation of its many landmark policies, establishing rights that aligned with an inclusion paradigm. These included “opportunities for holistic development,” “adequate and opportune attention to [SEN],” and “prohibiting discrimination” (Ley 20.370, 2009, p.4, as cited in Muñoz Durán & Otondo Briceño, 2018). However, the law failed to change the tripartite model of special education, which concentrated students with transitory Special Education Needs (SEN) in publicly-subsidized, privately-operated schools while students with permanent SEN were typically enrolled in public schools (Muñoz Durán & Otondo Briceño, 2018). This dichotomy between transitory and permanent had been created the previous year (2009) to categorize types of SEN and specify that School Integration Programs would be limited to serving five students with transitory and two with permanent SEN per grade level, a stipulation still in effect today.

The next major education reforms related to inclusion would come in 2015 with Decree 83 and the School Inclusion Law, discussed in depth in the forthcoming sections. For many years, the Ministry of Education has released documentation and guidelines

seeking to align national legislation, international paradigms, and local pedagogical practices related to special education, integration, inclusion and SEN (detailed below). However, research has documented gaps between these directives and the extent to which school programs and personnel actually incorporate the new perspectives and practices necessary to achieve alignment at least, or, at best, a system operating in coherence with the goals of equitable, inclusive, quality education (Alarcón Carvacho, 2017; López et al., 2018; Marfán et al., 2013; Rojas Fabris et al., 2016; M. Tenorio et al., 2013).

Chilean Education and Youth with Disabilities

Given that Chile (population estimate 18.75 million; World Bank, 2018) is typically considered to be much less racially and ethnically diverse than the U.S. or even many of its Latin American neighbors, disproportionality along racial lines are not as readily apparent (or documented) in its special education system as it is in, for example, the U.S. Indicators illuminate some similar tendencies, however. For example, over 20% of the Chilean students that participate in PISA belong to the group internationally considered the most disadvantaged (Paulo et al., 2017). The percentage of students attending municipally-funded public schools is one of the lowest among PISA-participating countries and economies (Paulo et al., 2017). The percentage of students attending government-dependent, privately-operated schools is one of the highest among PISA-participating countries and economies (Paulo et al., 2017). As of 2015, 70% of the schools participating in PIE—the optional, voucher-funded School Integration Program that constitutes special education in Chile—are the cash-strapped public schools, while 30% are in the public-private school sector (Paulo et al., 2017). Of all of these schools with special education programming, 75% enroll families from the low-mid income

levels (Paulo et al., 2017). This amounts to an over-representation of mid-low income families in the publicly-funded schools and special education programs, while high-income families are under-represented.

Furthermore, the highest percentage of youth with disabilities is clustered in the lowest fifth income level of the country, with the top two quintiles registering the lowest percentages of youth with disabilities (Paulo et al., 2017). Most of the youth identified as having “permanent” special education needs are from the lowest-income families, while the vast majority of youth “temporary” special education needs are from the highest-income families (Marfán et al., 2013). The municipally-funded public schools are more likely to enroll students with permanent special needs than the publicly-subsidized, privately-operated schools.

On average, students with special education needs (SEN) comprise 8.5% of the total enrollment of each school with a School Integration Program. The National Survey on Disability (2015) estimated that although only 5.8% of youth identify as having a disability, 16.7% of the population between 2 and 17 years regularly face disabling situations. First Nation youth display slightly higher rates of disability than non-indigenous youth in Chile. Although vast majority of all youth with disability attend school, about 96% percent of elementary-aged youth are enrolled whereas about 89% of those with disabilities are as well. The discrepancy becomes dramatically different at the middle and high-school levels, where 82% of youth without disabilities are enrolled while only 49% of their peers with disabilities are. About 12% of youth with disabilities, or 30,000, go to separated Special Education schools, (Paulo et al., 2017), down from as many as 150,000 in 2010 (García-Cedillo et al., 2015). Almost all of these special

education schools are in urban areas, though most of the country is quite rural, and as of 2015 only three such schools were private (Paulo et al., 2017).

In part due to the optional nature of the school integration program as it interacts with the bifurcation of transitory and permanent special education needs (SEN) as well as the persistence of substantially segregated schools for students with “permanent,” high-support needs, special education services have effectively been limited and concentrated within the primary education levels in Chile. Table 1 below shows the 2018 Chilean Government’s System of General Education Information demographic data on type of disability and percentage of the student population across two elementary and one high school grade level.

Table 1

Disability Classification Demographics in Chilean Education in 2018

	% in 2nd grade		% in sophomore
Disability	school	% in 6th grade school	year school
Classification	population	population	population
SLD	4.43	4.52	3.07
ADHD	2.13	2.06	1.12
SID	2.4	2.51	1.36
MID	2.7	3.04	1.84
Any disability	13.16	12.84	7.82

Definitions of Inclusion as a Problem for Practice

Scholars have suggested that inclusion is a stage in the sequential development of education within the liberal state. First comes compulsory education (often with terrible consequences for minoritized groups, like First Nations), followed by de-segregation or integration, followed by inclusion comprising the current phase of a system that is increasingly pluralistic (Ainscow et al., 2006; Booth & Ainscow, 2002b; Dyson & Slee, 2002; Terigi, 2008). As these waves overlap, a lack of clear concepts, models and logics defining “inclusion” produces a multiplicity of operationalizations that may be problematic for coherence between policy, research, and practice (Nilholm & Göransson, 2017). For example, if a policy indicates that “inclusion” means all students are equally educated, then a school system could either interpret this to mean students with disabilities are educated with peers without disabilities and received the same instruction in the same environment, or they could interpret this to mean students with disabilities get access to the same materials and instruction, but provide that instruction in a segregated educational setting. Similarly, teachers might take inclusion to mean that they cannot differentiate instructional responses to student needs, or acknowledge learner differences (in order to treat them “equally”). In the research, the operationalizations of inclusion affect the how variables of interest are defined and measured. For example, participants with “learning disabilities” or “in special education” may be represented as a homogeneous group when in fact there is extreme variability and diversity within these constructs. Time in general education is also much easier to measure than more complex conceptions of equal access to and participation in appropriate educational opportunities.

Challenges associated with clear and concise understanding of inclusion may be related to a fallacy of universalism. A transnational feminist critique of international

social justice efforts reveals that values assumed to be universal (by individuals in the global North) are often imposed unilaterally through unintentional yet effectively imperialistic replication of historical patterns of oppression (Khader, 2018). Scholars in disability studies, postcolonial theory, and critical curriculum studies, meanwhile, note that persistent ableism and ethnocentrism within these lines of inquiry limit the production of intersectional analyses and dialogical praxis (Erevelles et al., 2019; Grech & Soldatic, 2015). Disability studies in education (DSE) focuses on schooling practices as they are foregrounded by social and cultural contexts so that constructions of disability are questioned in contrast in and in opposition to special education assumptions and practices (Connor, 2014, 2019). As an example of such assumptions, special education eligibility in the US is premised on the idea that disabilities are *not* the result of environmental factors, and thus implicitly reinforce the medical or deficit models of disability where impairments are inherent in the individual's biological structures.

Some special education scholars have certainly laid a foundation for critique and improvement of the field that would address the problems of racial, ethnic, gender and socio-economic disproportionality within eligibility classifications and poor student outcomes that plague this field (particularly in the US) (Skrtic, 1991; A. J. Artiles & Trent, 1994; Brantlinger, 1997; Gallagher, 1998; M. D. Clark & Artiles, 2000; Alfredo J. Artiles et al., 2005; Krezmien et al., 2006; Connor & Ferri, 2007; McLaughlin et al., 2009; Harry & Klinger, 2014; S. Annamma et al., 2014). Nevertheless, the DSE discourse on inclusive education constitutes a radical departure from the parameters of inclusion within special education (Connor, 2019; Gallagher et al., 2014; Slee, 2014). For

example, in their critique of the social constructionist approach to disability and its implications for special education, Anastasiou & Kauffman (2011) write:

We fear that these new ideas—the constructionist model, which has now become orthodoxy—will not be a liberating force. In fact, the constructionist model of disability may contribute not only to a zealous pursuit of inclusion at the expense of effective instruction but also to the demise of special education. (p. 368)

In this passage, special education is positioned as “under siege” (Anastasiou & Kauffman, 2011, p. 379, as cited in Connor, 2019) from not just constructionism or disability studies, but inclusion itself.

Definitions of Inclusion as a Problem for International Research

One of the ways to understand the concept of inclusion is by examining research-based conceptions of inclusion. These conceptions offer a critical and/or empirical clarification of this complex, multi-faceted concept. For example, describing the “conceptual divide” between empirical and position papers about inclusion, Nilholm & Göransson (2017) note that most original research equates inclusion with placement. This means that inclusion is simply a function of where a student is educated. This conceptualization is certainly useful as a measurable conceptualization, but it is synonymous with mainstreaming and integration. The wide reach of this conceptualization in the U.S. has led to U.S. influence abroad when “inclusion” is used interchangeably with traditional research on special education needs:

We contend that national insularity within the American educational community has contributed to a parochial iteration of inclusion that primarily considers only the physical placement of students with labeled dis-abilities. Rejecting the

dominant usage of the term in American educational literature, we instead position our conceptualization of inclusive education within international discourses that query exclusions of all kinds. (Baglieri et al., 2011)

While Baglieri et al. (2011) position U.S. literature on inclusion as a strictly place-based notion of special education, other conceptualizations of inclusion can be found in US scholarship that positions inclusion as the right to benefit from a public education that provides equitable access and participation (Connor & Ferri, 2007; McLaughlin et al., 2009).

In a seminal investigation of the conceptualization of inclusion, Nilholm & Göransson (2017) reviewed the 60 most-cited journal articles in the North America and European “arenas,” the researchers’ analysis ultimately identified this placement-based definition of inclusion as distinct from three other (sometimes radical) conceptualizations associated with the individual right to quality education (e.g., Villa et al., 1996), democracy and community (i.e., Barton, 1997), and/or barriers to participation in the learning environment for pupils with disabilities (i.e., Hemmingson & Borrell, 2012). Clearly, the more complex the definition, the less likely it is to be adopted in original research. The authors noted that the definition of inclusion “varies so much between articles and at times also within the same article” (Nilholm & Göransson, 2017, p. 447). It seems that even if the operationalization of inclusion as time-in-general-education lends itself to empirical measurement, researchers imbue the term with more dynamic meanings. If unacknowledged, as is apparently the case, this variation could undercut claims of objectivity or weaken construct validity.

In Latin America, inclusion may be heavily dependent on a tangled web of international agreements and national legislation (Terigi, 2014), producing hybridized, new understandings that are left out of international research on meanings of inclusion due to language barriers, amongst others (Amor et al., 2019). For example, Terigi (2009, 2014), writing from Argentina (where higher education is unconditionally free), offers politically-oriented criteria for identifying inclusive education. First, *all* learners have access to schooling—but schools must also have certain basic resources and characteristics (e.g., buildings up to code, enough teachers, pedagogical materials, hours dedicated to learning). Inclusive education also involves the assurance of participation (a typical facet of inclusive frameworks) but Terigi (2014) specifies that such participation in shared learning shall be ensured regardless of the students' origin and/or the conditions around their development. Furthermore, such shared learning will not occur at the expense of the local culture, nor involve assimilation or homogenization into a dominant culture designated as an authority over any segment of the population. On the contrary, shared learning ought to promote cultural competencies and curiosity about the interests of others.

Finally, in a unique contribution to the frameworks of inclusion, Terigi (2014) specifies that there must not be conditions imposed on what “subjects” (students) can continue to study once they complete a given level of education. In other words, content areas are open to all learners; there is no tracking, no testing into specialized subjects or schools. Terigi also stipulates that (a) every time there is a new barrier to access of schooling or learning, or (b) any time that education (being a common public good) becomes a means of domination, the State shall intervene without delay in order to

protect and assure the right to education. Terigi essentially advocates for a shift of focus in inclusion research. Rather than continually focus on individuals or students, the focus should shift to state policy and the ways in which its ambiguities or lack of direct intervention serve to limit the implementation of inclusive ideals.

Fuente-Alba (2018) offers the most extensive account of the scholarship, research, and personal lived experience regarding inclusion and students with sensory disabilities in the Chilean higher education system. He recounts how, during a Spanish virtual forum on independent living for and by individuals with diverse impairments, Lobato & Románach (2005) introduced the term “Diversidad Funcional,” literally translated as “Functional Diversity,” as an alternative to existing Spanish vocabulary (such as people with disabilities, “invalids”, handicapped, etc.). This term intentionally encompasses the full spectrum of the human range of functioning as a way of disrupting the normal/deviant binary. In the process, this term reveals how in inherently imperfect societies notwithstanding, standards of perfection promote individual and collective ways of being that can never be completely accessible to any single real person.

Taking this logic a step further, Miguel Ferreira (2008) embraced Diversidad Funcional as a human-centered model that advances beyond the frontiers of what Latinos perceive as the “Anglo-Saxon” social model of disability. Useful as the social model of disability has been to destabilize the bio-medical-rehabilitation model of disability, its excessive focus on the structures of oppression have eclipsed the concrete experiences lived by those individuals disabled in said societies.

Writing after the “estallido social” or social revolution that sparked on the 18th of October, 2019, Mason & Mondaca build on this Latin American literature by proposing

that inclusion be advanced through analyzing data on exclusion. Chile is known for collecting extensive amounts of data on learners in its education system (Vegas, 2018). A recent analysis made national headlines when it concluded that only 10% of the students that entered Kindergarten in 2005 exited 12th grade by following what is typically thought of as a “normal” path: passing to a new grade each year within the same school. 65% of this cohort graduated “on time,” despite variations in their trajectories (Valdés, 2019). But almost a third did not, and given that the majority of progress through the system is “a-typical,” the data on exclusion suggests that structure of the system does not align with the vast majority of student pathways. This places the need for inquiry on the design of the system, not on the characteristics of students. Mason & Mondaca (2019) propose that the is ample data that exists on student pathways through the educational system could be used to more effectively define and measure inclusion, through exclusion. The units of analysis would be drop-outs and grade-level retention, viewed through push-out, fall-out, and pull-out theorizations of scholastic exclusion (Ecker-Lyster & Niileksela, 2016, as cited in Mason & Mondaca, 2019). This type of analysis aims at a paradigm change. It would escape the pathologizing tendency to diagnose and rehabilitate individuals, by widening the perspective to interrogate the systematic ways in which educational institutions and society disrupt students’ pathways through the regular education system.

In Chile, as in Latin America more broadly, a steady stream of scholarship has added to the critique that Artiles & Kozleski (2016) refer to as the “uneven application” of inclusive principles across demographic characteristics like race, class, and gender. In other words, “inclusion” has not consistently meant inclusion for all. Perhaps as a result, Chilean legislation in recent years has boldly shifted away from integration and special

education discourses and towards inclusion for all learners. As long as Chilean and international research and policy fail to question constructions of disability and incorporate local and regional definitions of inclusion, it is likely that policy, theory, and practice will remain misaligned. Therefore, while the backdrop of globalization necessitates negotiation between domestic and international policy visions of inclusion, there is a risk for negative impact if we overlook legitimate local differences in how rights, education, and exclusion are understood between and within countries.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

To begin my research process, I undertook a systematic review of the literature with the objective of classifying the interpretations, definitions, and operationalizations of inclusion that are shaping research on related educator perceptions and practices in Chile. I looked at studies that include educators as participants and that employ survey methodologies. This is because surveys or questionnaires are appropriate instruments when the research purpose is to examine perceptions (attitudes, beliefs, and/or opinions) and behaviors among a population, and these methods also allow researchers to create descriptions on a larger scale (Creswell, 2012). This expansive reach was appropriate given the numerous variations of inclusion frameworks that could be operating within school systems, schools, and educator practices.

Systematic Review and Content Analyses Processes

According to the Campbell Collaboration--a group that promotes systematic review and other types of evidence-synthesis research to support evidence-based policy and practice--the purpose of a systematic review is to summarize the best available research on a specific, pre-defined question by synthesizing the results of several studies. Systematic reviews are distinguished from other types of reviews because they use explicit, defined, replicable search procedures to find, evaluate and synthesize the results of relevant research. The studies included in a review can also be evaluated for their components (for example, through a methodological review) so that the findings of a large number of studies can be combined (Campbell Collaboration, 2020).

To evaluate and synthesize the results of the systematic review, I treated the papers as data and employ a basic form of Content Citation Analysis (CCA) (Swales, 1986) to examine the frameworks for inclusion utilized within this body of literature. While Citation Analysis often refers to studies of bibliographic references (i.e., how frequently a text is cited by others), Content Citation Analysis involves analyzing the citation practices of social scientists to show “empirical differences in disciplinary rhetoric...because they bear on the social construction of knowledge (Law and Williams 1982; Gilbert and Mulkay 1984) or on norms and stratification in disciplines that generate literatures (Baldi 1998; Hargens 2000)” (White, 2004, p. 89). This approach allowed me to identify the dimensions of inclusion characterized in survey research conducted with educators in Chilean schools in grades K-12.

The CCA method is subset of Content Analysis, which is frequently classified as a qualitative approach (Erlingsson & Brysiewicz, 2017; Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). However, in this systematic review study, I characterized it as a quantitative approach, because I coded text into mutually exclusive categories and counted their occurrences (Wood & Kroger, 2000). With this narrowed focus, I was able to isolate criteria that will enhance the validity and reliability of future quantitative survey studies on inclusion in Chile and international education, including my planned validation study of the International Survey on Inclusion (Krezmien & Linderkamp, 2014).

To synthesize the findings reported in the articles I reviewed, I utilized directed content analysis (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). This method is guided by a more structured process, whereby initial coding categories are based on key concepts from prior research (Potter & Levine-Donnerstein, as cited in Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). I used the

operationalizations of inclusion identified in the sample of studies from the CCA (Swales, 1986) and the focused on perspectives and practices as constructs in the International Inclusion Survey to guide my analysis of each study's results.

Search Terms

I selected the search terms based on the conceptual framework, my knowledge of the field, consultations with Chilean researchers and educators, and the vocabulary utilized in the English version of the Inclusion Survey (Larmon, 2020). I used the following combinations of search terms, in English and Spanish (as indicated below):

- Chile AND inclusion AND survey OR questionnaire/Chile AND inclusión AND cuestionario
- Chile AND inclusion AND survey/chile AND inclusión AND encuesta
- Chile AND special education AND survey OR questionnaire/chile AND special education OR educación especial OR educación diferencial AND cuestionario OR encuesta
- Chile AND integration AND survey OR questionnaire/chile AND integración AND encuesta OR cuestionario
- Chile AND "special needs" OR "necesidades educativas especiales" OR "educación especial" OR "special education" OR "educación diferencial" AND practice OR practica OR praxis OR pedagog*
- chile AND "special needs" OR "necesidades educativas especiales" OR "educación especial" OR "special education" OR "educación diferencial" AND perspective OR perspectiva OR perception OR percepción
- Inclusión escolar/school inclusion = 128

Systematic Literature Review Procedures

I limited my search of the literature published in Spanish to peer-reviewed articles beginning in 2004, the year that inclusion per se first appeared in the Ministry of Education's policy recommendations. In English, I used 1990 as a start date, given that

the discourse on inclusion in English took shape in the 1990s. In either case, my searches did not exceed 2019, the year during which I conducted the search and arrived in Chile. I conducted the search using several online search engines: EBSCO/Academic Search Premier, ERIC, PsychInfo and PsychArticles, available through the Umass library system; and the databases utilized by Latin American academics: Scielo, Latindex, GoogleScholar, and the Universidad de Chile's new Portal de Revistas Académicas Chilenas for Spanish-language articles. However, I eliminated Latindex as a search engine when no variants of Chile and inclusión, or Chile and educación especial, returned any results. Different search engines had different levels of search specificity (for example, not all permitted delimitations based on year of publication). My search resulted in a total of 347 studies. For searches in GoogleScholar, I limited the results to the first ten pages of results.

An exception to the systematic use of search terms occurred with Portal de Revistas Académicas Chilenas (a database focused on Chilean academic journals), which was released in May of 2019, after I had conducted searches in the other database. I found that replicating the previous search terms resulted in all the articles I had already found. Therefore, I opted for a very broad search term ("inclusión escolar" or, school inclusion). This returned an additional 128 results, for a total of 475 articles.

The screening phase was based on a review of the titles and abstracts. I selected all articles from this initial search that had anything to do with Chile, and inclusion, or special education, or teachers. This yielded 185 papers; after removing duplicates, the total was lowered to 152. Next, I reviewed the 152 abstracts, and if necessary, articles, to determine whether each study met the following criteria:

- Empirical (involves data collection);
- involves the Chilean education system directly; mentions inclusion, integration, special education/needs, and/or diversity;
- targets K-12 education (this effectively excluded informal education, social inclusion studies, and research on inclusion in higher education, but permitted studies with higher education participants if these folks were training to work in K-12 education; note, Pre-K is not compulsory in Chile);
- dealt with educator perspectives/and or practices (even if through student testimony);
- utilized a survey or questionnaire during data collection.

Applying these criteria resulted in 18 unique articles eligible for review. An ancestral search of these articles yielded three references that had not already been screened, but none of these met the inclusion criteria.

Then, I reviewed the abstracts, introductions, background/rationale, and theoretical or conceptual framework sections of the 18 articles and collected every citation used in association with inclusion or integration, specifically. I created a spreadsheet based off of these citations and tracked which citations appeared in which articles using 1s or 0s. I then grouped the citations based on whether they referred to A.) Chilean legislation or Ministry of Education policy, B.) Intergovernmental organizations, agreements, declarations, or conventions; or C.) scholarly literature or research articles. I then counted how many total citations appeared within each of those three groups, and how many citations from each group (type) appeared in each article. I calculated the percentage of each type of citation within each article as well, to understand whether each article drew primarily on Chilean, international, or research-based conceptualizations of inclusion.

To synthesize the findings, I translated the findings from the Results sections of the 18 articles from Spanish into English, line by line, in a spreadsheet. Then, I reduced these into meaning units, condensed meaning units, and codes, eventually grouping the codes into categories and subcategories (Erlingsson & Brysiewicz, 2017). Through this iterative process, I arrived at the following summary of the state of knowledge and practices as they relate to inclusion in Chile.

Results of the Citation Content Analysis

I conducted a citation analysis as one component of the systematic review of the literature. In this analysis, I describe the policies, international position documents, and research articles to develop their operational definitions of inclusion. I also conducted a citation review to explore which of the sources were used in the development of those operational definitions.

In the 18 studies reviewed, definitions of inclusion were derived from inter-governmental organizations (primarily UNESCO and the UN), Chilean law and policy, and/or education literature (primarily from Europe). Only one study lacked citations explaining inclusion (Muñoz Quezada et al., 2014) and this was because this research prioritized the related but distinct concept of “school climate.” Most of the studies drew primarily on national ideas about inclusion. The next most frequent sources of conceptions of inclusion were from international agreements as well as the largely international research on inclusion (with one important exception). The remaining three studies drew evenly on multiple sources. These results are summarized in Table 2.

Table 2*Citation Analysis Results*

							Total #
							Citations
Source of inclusion	International		Chilean law		Scholarship		Per
citations	agreements		& policy		& Research		Article
Article	#	%	#	%	#	%	
Muñoz Quezada et al., 2014	0	0%	0	0%	0	0%	0
Vega Godoy, 2009	0	0%	0	0%	1	100%	1
Castro-Rubilar, et al., 2017	0	0%	0	0%	2	100%	2
Gómez & Infante, 2004	0	0%	2	100%	0	0%	2
Urbina et al., 2011	2	50%	0	0%	2	50%	4
Yupanqui et al., 2016	1	25%	3	75%	0	0%	4
Sánchez Bravo et al., 2008	1	20%	3	60%	1	20%	5
Cerón et al., 2017	2	33%	1	17%	3	50%	6
Mellado Hernández et al., 2016	3	50%	0	0%	3	50%	6
Núñez et al., 2018	2	33%	2	33%	2	33%	6
Tamayo Rozas et al., 2018	4	57%	1	14%	2	29%	7
Castillo Armijo & Miranda Carvajal, 2018	6	67%	1	11%	2	22%	9
Tamayo et al., 2017	5	56%	4	44%	0	0%	9

							Total #
							Citations
Source of inclusion	International		Chilean law		Scholarship		Per
citations	agreements		& policy		& Research		Article
Article	#	%	#	%	#	%	
Muñoz Durán, K., &							
Otondo Briceño, M. (2018).	2	20%	8	80%	0	0%	10
Tenorio, 2011	1	9%	10	91%	0	0%	11
Henríquez, et al., 2012	6	43%	8	57%	0	0%	14
Urrea & Aguilera, 2016	6	43%	6	43%	2	14%	14
Manghi et al., 2012	6	43%	7	50%	1	7%	14
Total	47	38%	56	45%	21	17%	124

Because the politics of citation are especially complex in Latin American countries (given academic pressure to publish, in English, in journals in the US and Europe), the citation distributions may not accurately reflect influences of original empirical studies about inclusive pedagogy in Chile. However, the analysis does provide some basis for framing the findings of these studies, given that plenty of other scholarship about Chile (outside this review) has observed for many years now that Chilean schools appear “trapped” between integrationist and inclusive paradigms, resulting in the preponderance of pedagogical practices centered on deficit models and maintained through market-based accountability policies (López et al., 2012, 2018; D. Manghi et al., 2018; Marfán et al., 2013).

Citation Analysis Results: Inclusion in Chilean Policy and Legislation

The first law that can be said to have potentially laid a foundation for inclusion by enshrining the principles of equity and quality in education for all appeared in 2009. But it wasn't until 2015 that policy explicitly intended to foment the paradigmatic transformation to inclusion appeared. Only three studies were published before 2010; five were published between 2010 and 2015; and ten were published after 2015. Yet the studies primarily conceptualized inclusion using citations from before 2015. Only five authors cited either Decreto 83 or the Inclusion Law, which are inclusion policies that preserve some of the integration era policies and practices. And while MINEDUC has published several technical assistance guides intended to orient school policy and teacher practice related to PIE, SEN and inclusion that varyingly adopt inclusive or integrationist paradigms (2011; 2013; 2017), only one of the studies cited only one of the MINEDUC technical assistance documents (2013). Taken together, this analysis suggests that survey research on educator perspectives and practices of inclusion in Chile is primarily using the national legal basis to frame inclusion, even though this basis remains weighted towards integration policies that are widely critiqued as incompatible with critical and international conceptualizations of inclusion—even sometimes by the very researchers using them.

The most-cited sources for the operationalization of “inclusion” in the articles I reviewed came from Chilean legislation or policy (a total of 56 references, or 46% of the total citations of inclusion), appearing in 13 of the 18 articles.

In 1990, the first major advance towards inclusive education occurred through MINEDUC Decree No. 490, the first legal recourse that supported the integration of

students with disabilities into regular education schools across the country (Jara Urrea & Parra Aguilera, 2016; Sánchez Bravo et al., 2008; Sanhueza Henríquez et al., 2012). Next, a 1994 law advanced the Social Integration of Persons with Disabilities (No. 19.284) by requiring that public and private educational institutions alike innovate and accommodate as necessary to ensure accessibility to the curriculum for all (Gómez & Infante, 2004; Henríquez et al., 2012; Manghi et al., 2012; Sánchez Bravo et al., 2008; Tenorio, 2011). That spurred official Acts endorsing school integration from the Ministry of Education (MINEDUC) along with private school operators and social organizations that same year (Tenorio, 2011).

Reforms were taking place throughout Chilean society in the mid to late 1990s, such as the enactment of a full school day (as opposed to only morning or afternoon) (Tenorio, 2011). But it wasn't until 1998 that Decreto No. 1 explicitly provided for school integration for children with special education needs through federal funds (including vouchers) (Gómez & Infante, 2004; Henríquez et al., 2012; Manghi et al., 2012; Sánchez Bravo et al., 2008; Tenorio, 2011). More specific directives regarding the establishment of School Integration Programs were legislated in 1999 through Decreto No. 374 (Tenorio, 2011). Decreto No. 1.300 in 2002 outlined educational services for students with language-based learning disabilities (Henríquez et al., 2012).

In 2004, consistent with international agreements since the mid 1990s, MINEDUC's National Commission of Experts on Special Education issued an important Report on New Perspectives and Visions for Special Education that established a conceptual framework for inclusion along with recommendations for shifting Chile out of the integration paradigm and into a system aligned with the inclusive paradigm

(Henríquez et al., 2012; Manghi et al., 2012). The Report urged the PIE to cease being optional for regular education schools, and that special education schools be progressively restricted to serving only students with intensive, permanent special needs who could not be educated in the regular education system even with significant curricular modifications (Ramos, 2014).

Towards the end of 2005, the ministry of education (MINEDUC) published national policy guidelines for special education effective beginning in 2006 through 2010 in a document that was collectively created with multiple stakeholder participation (Henríquez et al., 2012; Manghi et al., 2012; Tenorio, 2011). However, rather than advance inclusion as the 2004 Report had intended, MINEDUC opted for improving integration-related processes and the quality of instruction for integrated students, without touching the regular education system or pushing for improvements for students from culturally and socially marginalized groups as well as those with special education needs (Ramos, 2014).

As a result, the subsequent legislation strengthened Special Education services under an integration model. Decree N° 191 in 2006 refined the School Integration Program (PIE) by specifying indicators that could be used to evaluate the quality of the related processes (Tenorio, 2011). That same year, Decreto N° 1398 provided a mechanism to validate elementary school completion for students who achieved this milestone through PIE, rather than regular education processes (Tenorio, 2011). In 2007, Law No. 20.201 further regulated the subsidies for special education schools and the vouchers for students in PIE, while establishing “equality” as a priority and principal of the education system in Chile (Henríquez et al., 2012; Tenorio, 2011).

The next year, in 2008, Chile ratified the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (a treaty still not been ratified by the US) and adopted the associated protocols (Manghi et al., 2012; Yupanqui et al., 2016). Article 24 specifically says that signatory states ought to guarantee an inclusive education system at all levels. Additionally, Decree 170 (2009; 2012) adds to prior legislation by distinguishing transitory and permanent Special Education Needs, as well as establishing diagnostic criteria and formal procedures necessary for determining a student's eligibility for School Integration Program (PIE), aka Special Education, services (Henríquez et al., 2012; Manghi et al., 2012; Muñoz Durán & Otondo Briceño, 2018; Tamayo et al., 2017; Tenorio, 2011).

Months later, the Ley General de Educación (General Education Law) (No. 20.370, 2009) built upon the limited and vague provisions for education located in the Chilean Constitution (Mason & Mondaca, 2019) and greatly contributed to the mainstreaming of students with SEN by prohibiting discriminatory selection (in admission and expulsion processes) through the sixth grade in publicly-funded schools (Muñoz Durán & Otondo Briceño, 2018; Nuñez et al., 2018; Tenorio, 2011; Urrea & Aguilera, 2016). Also in 2010, Law 20.422 replaced the law about Social Integration (now called Inclusion) of People with Disabilities and establishes new norms to define equality of opportunity, prohibit discrimination on the basis of ableism, and fund improvements in accessibility throughout state-funded institutions (Henríquez et al., 2012; Manghi et al., 2012; Muñoz Durán & Otondo Briceño, 2018; Tamayo et al., 2017; Tamayo Rozas et al., 2018; Yupanqui et al., 2016; Tenorio, 2011). However, a commission formed by the Chilean congress to evaluate this law in 2012 found that none

of its measures related to inclusion were sufficiently backed up by regulatory mechanisms (Ramos, 2014).

The Chilean government issued inclusion-specific policy guidance, as well as concrete criteria for inclusive pedagogies in 2015 through Decreto n° 83, which only went into full effect in Pre-K through elementary grades as recently as 2019 (Muñoz Durán & Otondo Briceño, 2018; Tamayo et al., 2017). That same year also produced Ley 20.845 de Inclusión Escolar (2015), also known as the so-called Inclusion Law (Castillo Armijo & Miranda Carvajal, 2018; Nuñez et al., 2018; Urrea & Aguilera, 2016).

Building from the goals of education outlined in Article 34 of the General Education Law of 2010, Decreto 83 (2015) is about the “diversification of teaching” for *all* learners, including but not limited to those with SEN. The policy establishes criteria for accommodations and modifications. It emphasizes Universal Design for Learning and the principle of accessibility as engines for collaborative work between school leaders in both administration and teaching; it challenges educators to innovation in their pedagogical practice, such that they can more effectively respond to the multiplicity of talents and “educational needs” (not necessarily “special”) and facilitate successful as well as flexible educational trajectories; offers to *all* students the expanded participation possibilities opened up by multicultural and accessible schools; and, specifically for students with disabilities, it purports to enrich their learning by clarifying the accommodations and modifications available to them as they progress towards the same learning objectives as all other students under the national curriculum, as well as offering alternative certification processes.

Notably, the decree significantly addresses separate special education schools, which had utilized “deficit” plans to guide student learning, and instead promotes an “ecological-functional” perspective that links students in these schools to grade-level objectives and the national curriculum for the first time. Its impact on PIE primarily involves renewed or expanded calls for collaboration between stakeholders, including with families and students themselves. Through pre-existing laws related to social inclusion and accessibility and its emphasis of teaching for diversity, Decreto 83 applies to all schools, even those without have special education programming. It specifically lists nine categories of acceptable pedagogical approaches, providing concrete examples within each, along with professional development strategies and methods of implementation to support these changes.

The culmination of legislative reforms toward inclusive education is undoubtedly the Inclusion Law. This highly contested and complex set of regulations sought to reduce market dynamics in education through three primary reforms, which mostly affect publicly subsidized, privately-operated schools, and the fee-based, for-profit ones in particular (Ley de Inclusión Escolar, 2015). First, the Inclusion Law ends public funding of all for-profit schools, requiring that they convert to non-profit status and establishing new control over where and how many of these schools could be opened. This provision is based on evidence that in comparison to non-profit, publicly subsidized and public schools, for profit schools did not produce higher rates of student achievement, nor offer more diverse curricula, paid the most minimal salaries to educators, and engaged in racketeering (Ávalos & Bellei, 2019). Considering that separate special education schools

were present in all the three financing models of Chilean schools, this aspect of the law was poised to affect the special education system.

Second, the inclusion law eliminated fees and tuition in publicly funded schools, affecting approximately 70% of the families with children enrolled in such schools at the time (Ávalos & Bellei, 2019). Before the inclusion law, the cost-sharing model in operation effectively discriminated against students who could not pay. The rationale supporting the elimination of fees and tuition through the Inclusion Law was that these discriminatory effects were incompatible with the General Education Law's guiding equity principal. Furthermore, these financial practices had failed to demonstrate effectiveness in student achievement and contributing to the high socioeconomic school segregation of Chilean education that has been well-documented by entities such as the OECD and PISA (Ávalos & Bellei, 2019). Given the optional status of School Integration Programs (PIE) and the fact that types of SEN are distributed unevenly across school type and family income level in Chile (Paulo et al., 2017), this principal has been expected to affect the special education system, especially by expanding access to students with disabilities from low socio-economic backgrounds.

The third pillar of the Inclusion Law had to do with eliminating academic and social selectivity in the admission procedures and significantly restricting expulsions in publicly funded educational establishments (MINEDUC, 2017). Schools had previously utilized these screening practices to inflate their performance on school quality metrics and improve their rankings from the accountability agency within MINEDUC, thereby increasing their advantage and competitiveness in the market (Ávalos & Bellei, 2019). Clearly, the effects of such practices could be detrimental for the admission chances of

students with disabilities. In place of the now-outlawed academic assessments and interviews (not to mention in-person applications, or the lack of free public school transportation to access schools outside a neighborhood), MINEDUC created a highly advanced, publicly-regulated on-line School Admission System, where parents rank-order school choices and various applicant characteristics are weighted differently during the assignment process. The success of this new mechanism has been the topic of intense research and debate since the law went into effect region by region. The final phase of its implementation was to be in the Metropolitan Region of the capital, Santiago, during the 2019 school year, but was blocked by the political opposition party that came into control of the presidency in 2018.

Citation Analysis Results: Inclusion in Chile Based on Intergovernmental Agreements

The Education for All goal that has underpinned UNESCO's efforts around inclusion is articulated as, "Every person - child, youth and adult - shall be able to benefit from educational opportunities designed to meet their basic learning needs." (UNESCO, 1990). The Salamanca Statement that is still invoked to define inclusion within the global Education for All initiative is largely based on a rights discourse (Artiles & Kozleski, 2016). Much of this language has gone on to substantiate wide-spread discourses about removing "barriers" in education in order to respect diversity and eliminate discrimination in "the learning environment," documented by UNESCO on their website about Inclusion in Education (2020).

Today, UNESCO utilizes language about addressing "inequality" as opposed to "inequity" in education. Although UNESCO maintains substantial language about inclusion in education, the specific targets of inclusion have expanded beyond learners

with disabilities. UNESCO says it “pays special attention” to “marginalized and vulnerable groups,” such as those “with disabilities as they are overrepresented in the population of those who are not in education” as well as “indigenous people [who] continue to experience exclusion within and from education” (UNESCO, 2020). This position reflects UNESCO’s attention to the troubling connection between special education and minoritized or marginalized status. For example, in the US, Native, Alaskan, and Inuit groups (among the most marginalized groups in U.S. society) are the most overrepresented in Special Education and specific eligibility categories (OSEP Annual Report to Congress, 2019). Equality and rights discourses, however, have been identified as incompatible and conflicting with transformative visions of education for all by international scholars of inclusive education (see conceptual framework, i.e., Artiles & Kozleski, 2016; Armijo-Cabrera, 2018).

With the advent of the new millennium, UNESCO incorporated the range of inclusion initiatives into the Sustainable Development Goals for 2030. According to these goals, The objective of inclusive education systems is a core part of the fourth sustainable development goal (SDG4). Such systems “respect the diverse needs, abilities, and characteristics of all children and youth, and [are] free of all forms of discrimination” (UNESCO, 2019). Currently, UNESCO’s International Institute for Education Planning (2019) defines Inclusive Education as:

Inclusive education means that all children - no matter who they are - can learn together in the same school. This entails reaching out to all learners and removing all barriers that could limit participation and achievement. Disability is one of the

main causes of exclusion; however, there are also other social, institutional, physical, and attitudinal barriers to inclusive education.

UNESCO maintains that inclusive education systems are goals because of their role in fostering another priority: societies that are more inclusive. This certainly sounds like a transformative aim.

UNESCO's 2030 Education Agenda, in turn, cites the UN Convention on Human Rights (1960). As far back as six decades ago, this document prohibited "any exclusion from, or limitation to, educational opportunities on the basis of socially ascribed or perceived differences, such as by sex, ethnic/social origin, language, religion, nationality, economic condition, ability." As part of the position, UNESCO acknowledges the notion of disability as a social construct. This is an important position, especially with regards to the relationship between minoritized status and disability. First, this position affects the Chilean perception of disability, often regarded by Chilean researchers as an "Anglo-Saxon" framework (Fuente-Alba, 2018). Second, it specifically identifies "perceived differences" as an unacceptable source of discrimination in education in a manner that highlights the problem with the prevalence of contradictory perceptions of disability and inclusion in education. Today, Article 24 of the 2016 Convention is the formal position on inclusion in education from the UN. It asserts the right of persons with disabilities to "an inclusive education system at all levels and lifelong learning" provided by States that are party to this agreement.

The second most featured source of operational definitions of inclusion in education were from international entities (47 citations in total, or 38% of the total citations for inclusion), appearing in 14 of the 18 studies reviewed (recall that 13 of the

18 articles cited Chilean norms, using 56 citations in total that comprised 45% of the total, for comparison). Only four sources cited were from declarations developed prior to 1990, the year marking the re-establishment of democracy in Chile and the beginning of the decade that fostered the inclusion paradigm. Most of the cited documents were UNESCO declarations or UN agreements, although two additional citation sources came from US legislation and a UK education commission report.

The earliest foundational piece in the world's evolution towards inclusion came in 1948 through the United Nations General Assembly's Universal Declaration of Human Rights (Henríquez et al., 2012). This document asserts non-discrimination as an inter-governmental principal and names education as a universal right. Later, the 1960 UNESCO Convention against Discrimination in Education in Paris leveraged the 1948 Declaration to denounce many detailed instances of segregation and exclusion in education specifically (Tamayo et al., 2017). A single study in this review cited the US Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, which in 1992 became what is now known as the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (Urrea & Aguilera, 2016), whereas four studies cited the UK's 1978 Warnock Report, which is credited with introducing the idea of special needs education (rather than medical institutionalization) into the regular education system (Henríquez et al., 2012; Manghi et al., 2012; Tamayo et al., 2017; Tamayo Rozas et al., 2018; Urrea & Aguilera, 2016). These acts laid the foundation for inclusion through integration.

In the 1990s, the UN and UNESCO's goals became Education for All, beginning with the World Conference on Education for All in Jomtien, Thailand (1990) (Castillo Armijo & Miranda Carvajal, 2018; Henríquez et al., 2012; Manghi et al., 2012; Nuñez et

al., 2018; Urrea & Aguilera, 2016). This is one of the most widely cited international agreements in the body of literature I reviewed. This fact is notable given that just a few years later, in Salamanca, UNESCO addressed the ways in which this declaration made no account of access to quality education for people with disabilities.

The Salamanca Statement on Principles, Policy and Practice in Special Needs Education and a Framework for Action (1994) was the first global endorsement of inclusion as the norm in education, establishing it as the preferred mode of Special Education services, and cementing the often-marginalized consideration of accessibility and disability into all future initiatives related to Education for All (Castillo Armijo & Miranda Carvajal, 2018; Henríquez et al., 2012; Manghi et al., 2012; Muñoz Durán & Otondo Briceño, 2018; Tamayo Rozas et al., 2018).

The next source of citations came from the World Education Forum in Dakar, Senegal in 2000 (Castillo Armijo & Miranda Carvajal, 2018; Tamayo Rozas et al., 2018; Urrea & Aguilera, 2016) produced six regional frameworks for action to advance their conceptualizations of “schools for all,” the long-held goal of UNESCO. “Inclusion,” at this point in UNESCO discourses, became once again heavily associated with special education needs (UNESCO, 2000).

After 2000, researchers cited nearly all of the yearly UNESCO publications, citing publications from 2001 (Cerón et al., 2017), 2003 (Mellado Hernández et al., 2016), 2004 (Manghi et al., 2012; Mellado Hernández et al., 2016), 2005 (Castillo Armijo & Miranda Carvajal, 2018; Cerón et al., 2017; Urrea & Aguilera, 2016), 2008 (Manghi et al., 2012; Nuñez et al., 2018), 2009 (Castillo Armijo & Miranda Carvajal,

2018; Mellado Hernández et al., 2016; Urbina et al., 2011), to 2013 (Tamayo et al., 2017).

The Dakar and subsequent similar declarations that operationalize inclusion in education as a mechanism for education for people with disabilities is not necessarily a shift in UNESCO's aims. It does, however, exemplify how sometimes "inclusion" has been used to broaden the concept of "education for all" by accounting for people with disabilities, while at other times it is paradoxically used to carve out a separate provision of education-for-all specifically for people with disabilities. If disabilities are understood solely through the biological-medical model, this framing might work well. However, if "disability" is understood through the World Health Organization's definition, which the UN would presumably recognize, disability is understood "not just a health problem. It is a complex phenomenon, reflecting the interaction between features of a person's body and features of the society in which he or she lives" (WHO, 2020). As discussed in the conceptual framework, social constructions of disability in education push back against models of disability as inherent to the individual and a problem that the individual must fix; rather, an inclusion paradigm premised on social constructions of disability would hold that society, rather than the individual, must change. Only Muñoz Durán & Otondo Briceño (2018) cited the World Health Organization (WHO) to explain inclusion and disability.

Another important publication was the United Nations 2006 Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities. Article 24 of the convention describes inclusive education at all levels and throughout life as a human right (Manghi et al., 2012; Tamayo et al., 2017; Tamayo Rozas et al., 2018; Urbina et al., 2011; Yupanqui et al., 2016). The

UN's Sustainable Development Goals for 2030 were adopted by all member nations in 2015 and cited by two studies as well (Castillo Armijo & Miranda Carvajal, 2018; Tamayo Rozas et al., 2018). Relatedly, Sánchez Bravo et al. (2008) cited inclusive pedagogy scholar Lani Florian (1998) and her analysis of UNESCO, the UN, and UNICEF policies regarding education for all children, without distinctions.

Citation Analysis Results: Inclusion in Chilean Scholarship

Most of the definitions of inclusion that cited researchers rather than national laws or inter-governmental agreements utilized the concepts put forward in the Index for Inclusion. The Index for Inclusion is essentially a list of indicators of inclusive policies, practices, and cultures in schools. When published by Booth & Ainscow originally in 2000, later translated and contextualized in the international Spanish education literature (Booth & Ainscow, 2002a; Sandoval Mena et al., 2002), and as adopted into Chilean policy guidance by MINEDUC (2011), the Index is embedded in a larger discourse and process. The Manual for the Index describes this tool as “a resource to support the inclusive development of schools” (Booth & Ainscow, 2002, p. 1). Rather than being prescriptive, it aims to “help everyone to find their own next steps in developing their setting” and “to build on the wealth of knowledge and experience that people have about their practice” (Booth & Ainscow, 2002b, p. 1). In this framework, inclusion is defined as follows:

Inclusion is often associated with students [children and young people in schools irrespective of age] who have impairments or students seen as ‘having special educational needs’. However, in the *Index*, inclusion is about the education of all children and young people. ...Everyone has his or her own view of a complex idea

like inclusion. Inclusion involves change. It is an unending *process* of increasing learning and participation for all students. It is an ideal to which schools can aspire, but which is never fully reached. But inclusion happens as soon as the process of increasing participation is started. An inclusive school is one that is on the move. (Booth & Ainscow, 2002, p. 1-3)

The Index for Inclusion approaches the development of inclusive schools through indicators, all of which can be gauged through a series of questions with school stakeholders including staff, educators, students, and families. Each indicator belongs to one of six sub-dimensions. Two subdimensions comprise each of the three dimensions of the Index: Inclusive Practices, Policies, and Culture in schools.

In Spain, research on inclusion appears to have relied largely on a human rights discourse. Echeita & Sandoval (2002) frame their oft-cited conceptualization of inclusion as the right of all children and people to benefit from education so as to not be excluded from neither schools nor the culture and society at large. This is similar to the preminent scholar of inclusion in Chile in the 1990s, Dr. Rosa Blanco.

In the Latin American literature, the definition of inclusion advanced by Blanco has been situated within the established, widely-shared consensus that education is a universal right (Blanco, 2014). Blanco has historically conceived of inclusion using equity and rights discourses, advocating for intersectional policies that would intervene in as well as outside of education systems to promote global quality education for all marginalized groups (Blanco, 2006, 2008). Rather than just access or schooling, Blanco argues for the right to an education of comparable quality for all, promoting the development and learning of each person, under equitable conditions in their

neighborhood schools. Although inclusion, as well as inclusive education, is commonly associated with students with disabilities or SEN, or those who live in impoverished contexts, Blanco (2014) asserts that current perspectives have broadened to conceive of education as a means for achieving equitable access to quality education without any type of discrimination. The targets of inclusion policies vary from one country to another, but typically involve students with disabilities, indigenous and afro-descendent peoples, populations displaced by violence, isolated rural communities, or those who have exited the education system all together (Blanco, 2014). Citing UNESCO's 2005 Guidelines for Inclusion, Blanco (2014) defines inclusive education as a process oriented towards responding to learner diversity, increasing their participation in the culture, curriculum, and community of the school, reducing exclusion within education as well as through it.

Many of the articles reviewed used citations from prior scholars to develop their operational definitions of inclusion. The body of studies included 21 citations across 11 of the 18 studies reviewed. Only two of the articles reviewed (Castro-Rubilar et al., 2017; Vega Godoy, 2009) cited neither Chilean nor international norms when they introduced inclusion as a central topic in their research, but they did cite Booth & Ainscow (2002, 2012) and Blanco (1999) as their definitions of inclusion.

By far, the most cited scholarship on inclusion in this body of studies comes from Booth and/or Ainscow, who co-authored the popular Index for Inclusion (appearing at least 12 times, not counting duplicate references of the same publication) (Castillo Armijo & Miranda Carvajal, 2018; Castro-Rubilar et al., 2017; Cerón et al., 2017; Jara Urrea & Parra Aguilera, 2016; D. H. Manghi et al., 2012; Mellado Hernández et al., 2016; Nuñez et al., 2018; Sánchez Bravo et al., 2008; Tamayo Rozas et al., 2018; Urbina

et al., 2011) . The Index for Inclusion originated through research on and with schools in the authors' home country (the UK) and has a global presence with translations available in over 37 languages. Mel Ainscow is notable because of contributions to internationalizing inclusion through the 2005 UNESCO Guidelines for Inclusion.

The other two primary scholars, Echeita and Blanco, referenced received just five and four citations each, respectively. Gerardo Echeita, (who collaborated with Ainscow) is a Spanish researcher with an extensive record of international work in inclusive education, widely cited in Latin America due in part to the fact that he was an early publisher of articles on inclusion in Spanish. Echeita is a coauthor on one of the papers that cited his scholarship on inclusion in order to define it (Urbina et al., 2011). Otherwise, Echeita's authorship was cited by (Castro-Rubilar et al., 2017; Mellado Hernández et al., 2016; Tamayo Rozas et al., 2018; Urbina et al., 2011).

The other researcher who received more than a single citation (for a total of four) is Rosa Blanco, a Chilean researcher and arguably the most prominent scholar on inclusive education in the country, having collaborated with UNESCO, across Latin America, and Chilean universities during her career. Her influence was made visible through the citations used to define inclusion in the studies authored by (Castillo Armijo & Miranda Carvajal, 2018; Cerón et al., 2017; Mellado Hernández et al., 2016; Vega Godoy, 2009). Interestingly, the only one of these papers that did not also cite Echeita was Vega Godoy (2009). Godoy's singular reference (to Blanco) was the one reference used to define inclusion in that study, which had only 11 total references as its bibliographic foundation.

Review Synthesis: Factors Underlying Educational Inclusion of Students with SEN in Chile

Rather than encouraging instructional methods that treat learners differently--on the basis that such differentiation can lead to marginalization--inclusive pedagogies laud the universal provision of options for learning that are designed to eliminate barriers and reduce labeling, ranking, or differentiation (Florian, 2007, 2009; Florian & Rouse, 2009; Swann et al., 2012). For example, international meta-analyses of inclusive pedagogical strategies that raise participation and achievement highlight: Structured/Direct Instruction; Meta-cognitive strategies; Formative feedback; Peer learning, assessment, and tutoring; Co-operative learning; Individual learning; and two-teacher arrangements, more commonly known as co-teaching in the US (Hattie, 2009; Malmqvist, 2016).

However, the same reports that disseminate these strategies also note major caveats, including that some of these strategies do not work for students with SEN. Such limitations reinforce other criticism of meta-analyses on teacher practices as being of little practical value (Hargreaves and Fullan, 2012). Although inclusive pedagogy seeks to diverge from the special education model of service that identifies students in order to support them in the general education classroom, the results of the above-referenced meta-analyses overlap with much of what the applied field of special education in the US has demonstrated through rigorous research standards to produce evidence-based practices (NRC, 2002; CEC, 2014): Universal Design for Learning, Cooperative Learning, Differentiated Instruction, Data-Based Instructional Supports, Peer-Assisted Learning, Culturally Responsive Teaching, and Multi-Tiered Systems of Support (National Council on Disability, 2018).

Overall, instructional strategies for special education needs (SEN) vary significantly between Chile's 16 regions (Tamayo Rozas et al., 2018). In their large scale ethnography of social inclusion and special education in Chilean schools, (Rojas Fabris et al., 2016) observed that students in the School Integration Program often receive notable differential treatment in the classroom administered mostly by the special education teacher, as opposed to the general education teacher. Nevertheless, PIE professionals were often seen helping the regular education teacher run particularly large classes. In public and publicly subsidized, privately-operated schools in both rural and urban settings, the traditional forward-facing model of students seated in rows dominated these classes. Lessons typically unfolded traditionally as well: a teacher's brief lecture, student work, and then checking and correcting answers, all without students ever leaving their desks. Rojas Fabris et al. (2016) reported very few strategies that incorporated students' prior knowledge or interests, strategies that are hallmarks of inclusive frameworks like UDL for example.

One high school Rojas Fabris et al. (2016) highlighted did offer more innovative strategies: collaboration between students, flexible usage of the physical space, peer-learning, and workshops or curricular alternatives based on student interests. A study of how physical education teachers approach inclusion identified the following specific transversal pedagogical moves as inclusive: adapting learning objectives based on the context, sensitivity towards and valuing of natural differences that exist between students, as well as formative and participatory assessment (Nuñez et al., 2018). Furthermore, when PE teachers view the subject or learning goal as a means to contributing to the overall development of students, and account for learner variability in the objectives and

activities of the class, they facilitate a classroom climate that makes inclusion possible (Nuñez et al., 2018).

In another ethnographic study of inclusive practices in public schools located in low-income neighborhoods in an urban region of Chile, (Manghi et al., 2018) concluded that the inclusive practices they observed tended to do with flexible responses to student needs presented in that moment. Inclusive educator practices in the behavioral, academic, and material (spatial, nutritive) realms were flexible on an as-needed, just-in-time basis. These researchers noted that the challenge in relying on rather spontaneous or momentary interventions is that these types of measures do not constitute a general, pedagogical shift, nor can they constitute a significant transformation in the conditions that put students “at risk” of negative outcomes.

Educator Knowledge of SEN and Instructional Strategies. Hernández et al. (2016) concluded that teachers in their study lacked knowledge and skills to implement cooperative learning, which is associated in Ministry of Education guidance with inclusion. The teachers, however, did not necessarily share the researcher’s opinion about their strategy knowledge. However, most of the teachers interviewed viewed learning as individually constructed and, perhaps as a result, had difficulty implementing as well as valuing cooperative learning as a strategy for developing inclusion (Mellado Hernández et al., 2016).

The majority of the establishments across the country claim to have adaptations and addition supports in the areas of assessment and teaching for students with disabilities, with extra time being the most frequently reported accommodation (Tamayo Rozas et al., 2018). This finding somewhat aligns with a separate conclusion made by

Mellado Hernández et al. (2016) that schools lacked a variety of strategies to foment good inclusive practices in the classroom, and that teacher knowledge of accommodations tailored to develop each students' learning was similarly scarce. According to the ethnography conducted by Rojas Fabris et al. 2016, modifications and accommodations in the classroom typically consisted of a different set of handouts, often worksheets that included more visuals, which were supplied to specific students by the PIE staff.

In fact, most teachers in the study conducted by Muñoz Durán & Otondo Briceño (2018) relied on what they understood as accommodations to make assessments accessible for students with special education needs. But whereas Pre-K teachers promoted access to assessments through various personalization strategies and the addition of modifying supports like manipulatives, the most common adjustments made for elementary-aged students with special education needs involved prioritizing or modifying learning objectives and setting timelines or time limits for their achievement (Muñoz Durán & Otondo Briceño, 2018). All but one of the general education teachers interviewed by the researchers described the procedures for administering a written test when asked to describe the procedures for administering an assessment. But they also indicated that they made assessment processes "more concrete" through rubrics, guidelines, group work. The researchers concluded from this type of data that even if the teachers in the study prioritized the use of written tests, they knew about other instruments and recognized the need to use these with students who have SEN.

Most of the Chilean teachers surveyed by Henríquez et al. (2012) indicated that they employed "significant" curricular accommodations and modifications, and they in

fact appeared to favor these over "non-significant" alternatives. Specifically, teachers more frequently employed material or personnel resources to support inclusion, sought changes in the organization of school structures, and/or altered activities, methodology, content areas, and/or objectives; they less frequently relied on the professional support, the distribution of space, the availability of other classrooms, teaching materials, and/or the scheduling and grouping of students.

The research reviewed on pre-service teacher understandings of accommodations, modifications, and strategies related to SEN was mixed and likely different under the present-day instructional context, a decade later. The majority of education students surveyed by Tenorio (2011) conceived of curricular accommodations as the changes made to the curriculum so that students with SEN can be integrated into regular education settings. This concept is like what are understood as “modifications” in US Special Education parlance. By comparison, most education majors believed that inclusion does not require different instructional strategies, and that inclusive classes do not produce more disciplinary issues (Sánchez Bravo et al., 2008).

Educator Dispositions towards Inclusion. In Chile, the body of research on inclusive education has shown that teachers can confuse equal treatment with equitable treatment, thinking that differentiation is a form of discrimination (Castro, 2012, as cited in Cerón et al., 2017). Teachers are increasingly sensitive in their perceptions of cultural diversity within the classroom but may not recognize that this begs for corresponding changes in their practices (Cerón et al., 2017). Practitioners, along with families, have been described as having a passive attitude and limited knowledge about the inclusive practices established by the Chilean state (Lería Dulčić et al., 2016).

Implicit theories about inclusion are organized along a continuum running from inhibitory to facilitative (Lüke & Grosche, 2018; Sirlopú et al., 2012; Urbina et al., 2011). In Chile, Urbina et al. (2011) found that grade levels taught, perception of support, and type of school (public or publicly subsidized) were statistically significant associated with two distinct teacher profiles: inhibiting or facilitating inclusion. These two profiles that aligned with teachers' tendencies to choose inclusive or exclusive pedagogical practices when faced with disruptive classroom behavior. Teachers with an inclusive orientation tend to value guaranteeing a quality education for all students, assuring equality of opportunity, which they conceive as both possible and necessary the transformation of schools' attitudes towards diversity (Urbina et al., 2011).

In one study focusing on the school inclusion of immigrant youth, teachers understood the idea of equal opportunity to access educational support as pull-out special education, conducted through the School Integration Program or PIE (Cerón et al., 2017). The teachers in the Cerón et al. (2017) study believed that immigrant students in their school were given equal opportunities to access curriculum through PIE, which provided the necessary support for what teachers described as generally poor academic preparation (particularly if the immigrant children had grown up in rural areas within their country of origin).

School-wide implementation of inclusion. In Chile, López & Valenzuela (2015) identify democratic leadership, educators who feel empowered with curriculum and resource planning, collaboration within the community and outside its walls, professional development, collaboration between teachers and students, and a specific team in charge of supporting inclusion at the institutional level. Internationally, Universal Design for

Learning (UDL) (Meyer et al., 2014), School-wide Positive Intervention Behavior Supports (SWPBIS) (Carr et al., 2002), Response to Intervention (RTI) and Multi-Tiered Systems of Support (MTSS) (Jimerson et al., 2015), and the Index for Inclusion (Booth & Ainscow, 2002) are widely-adopted and researched within the inclusive education field. Rather than focusing exclusively on one subset of studies, as occurs with traditional special education programs, these frameworks aim to comprehensively affect how all members within a school operate to enact inclusion across the institution.

A 2013 evaluation of the state of School Integration Program (PIE) implementation in Chilean schools found that overall, the bureaucratic procedures necessary for installing PIE had been well-executed and the necessary operational processes were firmly in place (Marfán et al., 2013). Nonetheless, Marfán et al. (2013) showed that the schools had typically failed to institutionalize the educator as well as administrative practices that would facilitate wholesale alignment with the objectives of inclusion-for-all. A focus on completing external requirements for establishing a PIE overshadowed the internal policy, culture, and practice changes required; resources and priorities were not planned to generate new capacity for working with diversity; there was a lack of adequate tools and techniques at the classroom level to support the diversification of instructional practices (Marfán et al., 2013).

Institutional Climate or Culture Inclusive of Students with SEN. According to results from the application of the Index for Inclusion (Booth & Ainscow, 2002a) with 53 teachers, 68.59% of the special education, elementary and high school teachers created inclusive cultures in their educational establishments--operationalized in the afore-

mentioned instrument through indicators that fall into the subscales of “Creating Inclusive Community” and “Establishing Inclusive Values” (Urrea & Aguilera, 2016).

But the accumulated evidence within this review was mixed in this area. In the study by Mellado Hernández et al. (2016), teachers espoused a lack of confidence in their relationships with students in special education and demonstrated little closeness and trust with their students. Less than 50% of the establishments surveyed states that students are considered in rule-making and decisions (Tamayo Rozas et al., 2018). Students describe a positive climate in their PE classes, but also note some problems with respectful treatment between students (Nuñez et al., 2018).

Along similar lines, school administrators, Special Education professors, and practicing Special Educators themselves encouraged, expected, and reported seeking family engagement, fitting it into their broad visions of Special Education and inclusion (Manghi et al., 2012). On the other hand, some teachers value family engagement, but also believe it has limitations. With respect to the participation of family members in assessment decisions for students in special education, the teacher participants in Muñoz Durán & Otondo Briceño’s 2018 study mentioned that they value the understanding parents have of their children, that some families use educationally supportive strategies that could be validated within the classroom, and that support at home for learning that happens at school is key. Nevertheless, the teachers attributed parents’ limited pedagogical knowledge and even the outright negligence or lack of interest demonstrated by some of the families as barriers to their further involvement.

In one case study of a Montessori-style privately-operated, publicly subsidized school in a rural region just south of the capital, parents clearly asked for improvements

in school climate and suggested hiring professionals like a psychologist and/or special education teacher, or creating a multi-disciplinary team to attend to behavior problems, conflict resolution, or student learning difficulties (Quezada et al., 2014). About half of all educational establishments claim to consider the participation of family and the out-of-school community in their work (Tamayo Rozas et al., 2018). More than half of all the PIE coordinators agreed that the family participates in special education program planning and evaluation of results (Tamayo et al., 2017).

School-wide accessibility. Ever since the 1990s, Chilean law has regulated physical and social accessibility in schools; however, these are unevenly and minimally enforced, and many places are not in compliance (Humeres, 2019). Structurally accessible facilities as well as supports and assistance for children with sensory disabilities is low throughout the country (Tamayo Rozas et al., 2018). Most schools have resource rooms but as little as fewer than 20% have instructional materials (e.g., Braille materials, audiobooks) for use by students with sensory disabilities, while sign language interpreters are unevenly distributed across regions in a similarly minor percentage of schools (Tamayo et al., 2017).

Professional Development and Institutional Support for Educators to Implement Inclusion. Professors of Special Education at the University level reported that they place importance on preparing teachers to support students in the concrete contexts of the educational system, where the reality is complex and diverse, and it is necessary to simultaneously provide different support to different people (Manghi et al., 2012). Nevertheless, 39% of Chilean teachers surveyed by Henríquez et al. (2012) agree

or strongly agree that they have had sufficient training to adequately attend to students with NEE in regular education classrooms, while 49% disagree or strongly disagree.

Most of this same sample agreed that professional development supports inclusion (Henríquez et al., 2012). Unfortunately, less than half of the 875 establishments across the country with Special Education programming indicated in the Tamayo Rozas et al. (2018) survey that they periodically conduct professional development around inclusion. Perhaps these perceptions depend on the definition of professional training, development, learning and/or support. For example, Special Education professors highlighted collaboration between teachers as a kind of professional development embedded in the everyday school setting (Manghi et al., 2012).

The evidence reviewed suggests that many teachers in Chile view institutional support for inclusion as deficient. According to (Henríquez et al., 2012), the vast majority of teachers report that they do not have all the necessary supports to implement inclusive practices and generally feel that they do not get enough help with inclusion, especially from the Special Education team. In addition, urban as well as rural schools nationwide report a lack of instructional resources to support students with disabilities (i.e., accessible facilities, Braille, audiobooks, or sign language professionals) (Tamayo et al., 2017).

Time emerged as a key theme in the empirical findings of these 18 studies. The sample of Chilean teachers was roughly split on whether their schedules allow time for collaboration in the Henriquez et al. (2012) study, and was identified as the principal barrier to a special needs education assessment strategy by Muñoz Durán & Otondo Briceño (2018). Specifically, teachers explained that the quality of their assessment

strategies for students with special education needs (SEN) were affected by the time involved in sending assessments for adjustments to special educators, the timing of the actual application of the test, how long it takes for the class as a whole to be ready to be assessed, and the time necessary for effectively coordinating with the special education teacher (Muñoz Durán & Otondo Briceño, 2018). In their ethnography, Rojas Fabris et al., 2016 found that teachers had little time to collaborate or reflect individually on new inclusion policies because they were busy meeting and adjusting to the bureaucratic and structural demands that new laws entailed.

Chilean teachers were roughly split on whether they receive the necessary help from administrators to implement inclusive practices, with only 53% agreeing that they can count on support from their administrators (Henríquez et al., 2012). Teachers in the Muñoz Durán & Otondo Briceño (2018) identified institutional constraints on teacher authority as one of the primary barriers to implementing inclusive assessments, citing limitations imposed by the administration on their decision making in this area.

According to another one of the studies reviewed, perceptions of administrative support are tied to teachers' orientations towards inclusion. Urbina et al. (2011) found statistically significant relationships indicating that teachers who tend towards disruptive behavior management choices that are “inhibitive” of inclusion more frequently report not receiving professional support, while “facilitative” teachers more frequently report receiving support.

Teacher Collaboration. Collaborations between teachers is key to planning instruction aligned with the PIE Individual Curricular Accommodations Plan (the PACI in Spanish). The process around this document involves at least three team members, two

of which must be the regular and the special education teachers (Muñoz Durán & Otondo Briceño, 2018). Yet only slightly more than half of the regular education teachers interviewed collaborated with special education teachers on assessment for students in the special education program (Muñoz Durán & Otondo Briceño, 2018). Most of the interdisciplinary collaboration that occurred between educators in this study involved identifying the strengths and weaknesses of each class or grade (Muñoz Durán & Otondo Briceño, 2018).

Yet within this sample of teachers, the presence of a SEN assessment strategy was contingent upon collaboration with special education teachers (Muñoz Durán & Otondo Briceño, 2018). Over half of the teachers interviewed by Muñoz Durán & Otondo Briceño (2018) identified coordinated work between classroom professionals (special education teacher, regular education teacher, classroom assistants) as the primary factor in whether assessments were adapted to Special Education student needs. In some cases, this was because the special education teachers are viewed as having a more complete understanding of these students and as such the regular education teachers depend on them to adjust assessments.

Possible Moderators of Educators' Approaches to Inclusion of Students with SEN. Perceptions of professional support, which Urbina et al. (2011) concluded are a critical factor in implementing inclusion, are associated with teacher profiles that do not exist in a vacuum. Rather, school-level factors are likely also predictors of perceptions and definitions of inclusion, as well as inclusive practices.

Urban versus Rural Schools. While the most populous regions in the center of Chile are decidedly urban, the majority of the country remains largely rural. School

Integration Program (PIE) coordinators in urban and rural areas alike agreed that the needs of students with disabilities are considered, that teachers work collaboratively, and that special education program professionals' recommendations for student learning are followed (Tamayo et al., 2017). But beyond this congruence, inclusion seems to be perceived differently in urban and rural schools.

A statistically significant association was found between area (urban/rural) and explicit declaration of school inclusiveness, with most rural coordinators reporting that their school is explicitly inclusive (Tamayo et al., 2017). Conversely, urban coordinators reported a much more positive perception than rural coordinators regarding their institutions' promotion of professional development related to inclusion (Tamayo et al., 2017). Rural and urban schools registered a statistically significant difference in the extent to which they reported having adaptive equipment or infrastructure available to support accessibility for students with disabilities, which in all cases existed for under 43% of the respondents (Tamayo et al., 2017). Rural PIE coordinators reported broader opportunities for student participation than urban coordinators and were more likely to promote social inclusion of students with disabilities (Tamayo et al., 2017). Though PIE Coordinators in general signaled high degrees of collaboration between service delivery professionals, special educators, and regular educators, there were statistically significant differences in these scores across regions of Chile, with the populous, metropolitan region home to the capital city, Santiago, scoring below the national average on this dimension (Tamayo Rozas et al., 2018).

Grade Level. Studies have found that the role of grade levels taught can moderate some dispositions towards inclusion and SEN, though results have been mixed (Sánchez

Bravo et al., 2008; Urbina et al., 2011; Urrea & Aguilera, 2016). Similarly, teacher's roles as special or general educators of various grade levels has been shown to distinguish their perceptions of inclusion (Urrea & Aguilera, 2016; Manghi et al., 2012). In one study, general education teacher interviews revealed tendencies towards the segregation of students with special education needs or ignoring and avoiding diversity in the classroom (Mellado Hernández et al., 2016).

Educator Title/Position: Special or General Education. Special education professors believe that practitioners must be visionaries in order to develop the skills that will allow them to propose, concretize and promote inclusive cultures at the societal and educational levels (Manghi et al., 2012). School administrators listed interdisciplinarity, social skills, community, and educational focus as the most relevant categories describing the work of special education teachers in the 21st century (Manghi et al., 2012).

At the same time, university professors of Special Education underscore intervention-related skills as being of primary importance for 21st century Special Educators (Manghi et al., 2012). Despite Special Education professors' emphasis on interventions being beneficial to all students, Special Education professionals identify unique features of their skill sets meant to distinguish them from general education teachers. According to Manghi et al. (2012), university professors of special education concur with in-service Special Educators in emphasizing the role of context in learning interventions. Providing specialized support to a student, in this sense, requires understanding them as a person, knowing their history, and considering how they are influenced by their environments (Manghi et al., 2012). Practicing special education teachers, who trained in traditional university-based teacher preparation programs,

explain that their "psycho-pedagogical" interventions include dealing with various special educational needs in all life stages, context-based interventions, and interventions related to diversity (Manghi et al., 2012). Their broader notions of intervention in 21st century education incorporate knowledge of curricular accommodations, family involvement, and special technologies, reflecting an awareness of the interconnected, networked responsibility inclusive education entails (Manghi et al., 2012).

Through their questionnaire and focus groups, Manghi et al. (2012) arrived at the conclusion that school administrators see 21st century special education through ecological and social lenses, rather than medical or clinical. According to these school leaders, the educational project of special educators ought to consist of support for students that is based in or on their lives in their home communities, along with pedagogical approaches informed by the ecological model of human development (Manghi et al., 2012). In a break from the past, none of the administrators in this study mentioned the medical, clinical, or rehabilitative models of Special Education services.

School administrators prioritized special education teachers' capacity for interdisciplinary collaboration with other educators above all other professional skills (Manghi et al., 2012). Interdisciplinary work appeared as the most explicit and prominent feature in their descriptions of Special Educators' daily duties in schools. School administrators believed that special education teachers must possess social skills like reliability, flexibility, and being proactive, to navigate the contradictions inherent in the education system in which they work. They see 21st century special education as long-term and community-embedded work that not only foments learning but also holistically improves the long-term lives of students.

In parallel, Special Educators themselves indicated that their current pedagogical interventions go well beyond that which was traditionally expected and are what is to be expected within this field in the future (Manghi et al., 2012). These practitioners shared congruent views about 21st century Special Education's extensive reach beyond the classroom, which would require them to develop interpersonal skills and maintain a network of relationships. In fact, as part of what they expressed as the goal of advancing inclusion, they often described Special Education functioning as a network, primarily with other teachers, especially regular education teachers. It makes sense therefore that the Special Educators in this study espoused an ecological-systems view of learners, emphasized education as a universal right, and embraced strength-based approaches to supporting the holistic development of all learners.

School Funding Type. Perceptions of professional support for managing disruptions in the classroom also vary according to school type: most of the teachers in publicly subsidized, privately-operated (and often for-profit) schools fell under the “facilitative” profile that emerged during this study (Urbina et al., 2011). The “inhibitive” profile, that tends towards pedagogical approaches that inhibit inclusion in the classroom, was more common amongst teachers in public schools.

This trend held in the Muñoz Durán & Otondo Briceño (2018) study on assessments and Special Education Needs (SEN). Compared to teachers in privately subsidized public schools, teachers in municipal public schools appeared to have more flexibility in their assessment strategy for students with SEN. Given that most teachers in the study prioritized the use of written assessments and made individualized adjustments as necessary to the items or texts included in such tests, it seems that teachers in publicly

subsidized, privately-operated schools encountered more institutional rigidity that limited how they could evaluate their students' learning. As such, most of the accommodations they made were limited to heightening the accessibility of the assessment type (typically, the classic written-response test) (Muñoz Durán & Otondo Briceño, 2018).

In contrast, teachers in the public school in this study appeared to have more flexibility around the types of adjustments and accommodations they made to assessments. In addition, these public school teachers were free to focus on aspects that may not have a direct connection to assessment or grading--such as how to avoid provoking unnecessary frustration in the student, or considering their individual needs and progress. However, their justification for this more extended realm of considerations related to assessment centered on circumventing failure or past failures; in no case was their argument for increased flexibility based on pedagogical motives or the neurological or social characteristics of the student (Muñoz Durán & Otondo Briceño, 2018).

Additional Possible Factors Underlying the Operationalization of Inclusion in Chile

Perspectives towards disability or special education need type did not appear in the literature that met the inclusion criteria for the review. However, research in Chile has investigated educators' different perspectives towards intellectual disabilities and sensory disabilities, and interrogated the justness of the concept of disability in Chile through the lens of functional diversity (Castro-Rubilar et al., 2017; Lería Dulčić et al., 2016).

Additional research on teacher education outside of the studies on pre-service educators sampled in the literature review suggests that within the Chilean market-based education system, educators require additional frameworks and specific training in social justice in order to promote inclusivity (Sleeter et al., 2016).

Literature Review Findings Summary

The literature offered a wealth of information about inclusion in education in Chile. However, there was limited consistent information about teacher perceptions of disability and inclusion. No studies examined differences by disability category or differences at the school or school system (public, public-private, private) levels. Besides the study on specific assessment practices (which did not associate perceptions or practices with types of SEN), no studies examined perceptions or knowledge of strategies or practices in a single study. One study summarized educators' definitions of special education and inclusion, but besides this study (which did not employ systematic analyses), no studies collected qualitative, self-reported definitions of either inclusion or SEN from educators. These gaps are consistent with other international research (Przibilla, 2016; Przibilla, 2018; Ugulru, 2016; Alsulami, 2019; Larmon, 2020). As Chile moves towards inclusion, there is a need for research that can broadly, yet also specifically, describe the knowledge and attitudes of current and future teachers, to support targeted professional development and inform local and national level policy and practice. Without this, the implementation will continue to proceed without aligning to the goals and objectives, and will fail to result in truly inclusive learning environments.

Research Questions.

Based on the gaps in the existing research, I developed the following research questions to drive this study:

In Chile, in K-12 schools,

1. How do educators define inclusion?
2. What are educators' perceptions of special education needs (SEN) and inclusion?
3. What do educators report they know about SEN and inclusion?

4. Do perceptions of students differ by SEN category?
5. Do perceptions of students differ by educator characteristics (e.g., Experience, Position, Gender, School Type)?

CHAPTER III

METHOD

The purpose of this research is to examine teacher perceptions and knowledge of disability, inclusion, and evidence-based practices for students with special education needs (SEN) in the three primary types of K-12 schools in Chile: public, publicly funded/private, and private.

Consistent with the needs in the inclusion research in Chile, I employ a convergent mixed-methods cross-sectional survey design (Creswell, 2012; Creswell & Clark, 2017) to examine educator perceptions and knowledge among PK-12 school-based educators in urban and rural communities in Chile. Survey research can describe both perceptions and self-reported knowledge (of disability and effective practices) and to compare subgroups on these measures (Creswell, 2012). To answer the research questions, I employ both quantitative and qualitative analyses to explore the quantitative and qualitative data. This combination of analytic procedures helps ensure that the findings are meaningful across the various discourses of inclusion at local, national and international levels, and makes it more likely that findings can inform policy, research, and practice.

Quantitative Method

The exploratory instrument validation study described here comprised the quantitative strand of research within a mixed methods convergent questionnaire variant design aiming to understand how educators in Chile define, perceive, and practice inclusion as it pertains to students with special education needs. To gauge educator's dispositions towards inclusion and school levels of support for inclusion in Chile, the

International Survey on Inclusion (Krezmien et al., 2017) was validated through a four step process: instrumentation; back-translation and content validation; pilot and data collection; and data analysis involving exploratory factor analysis and multiple linear regression.

Instrument

The International Survey on Inclusion (Krezmien et al., 2017) used in this investigation was developed from two integrated approaches. First, the items from three existing validated instruments were examined to determine alignment and consistency in item content. These instruments were widely cited in the literature: the Teacher Attitudes Toward Inclusion Scale (TATIS) ([Cullen et al., 2010](#)); the Sentiments, Attitudes, and Concerns about Inclusive Education Revised (SACIE-R) scale (Forlin et al., 2011); and the Opinions Relative to Mainstreaming - Revised (ORM; Antonak & Larrivee, 1995). Then, the authors of the survey reviewed the existing research on inclusion, and examined the findings associated with teacher perceptions, teacher knowledge, and teacher strategy implementation. The findings were listed as discrete findings, and were aligned to the items culled from the review of the three existing surveys. Any novel findings were added as new potential items. Next, a team of researchers reviewed all the items using a recursive process to eliminate redundant items, and to combine items that were close in meaning. Subsequently, the initial survey items were shared with experts in the field of education who were asked to review and comment on each item. The responses were reviewed, and the survey authors identified consistent feedback across the experts, and modified the survey according to the feedback. When inconsistent feedback was received, the authors asked the experts to respond to that feedback to establish

consistency. Then, the authors conducted a cognitive interview with eight current teachers who were also in a graduate program in education. The findings from the cognitive interview were reviewed by the team, and modifications to the survey were made based on the cognitive interview feedback. Finally, the final version of the survey was shared with the original group of experts for final review. Final edits were made based on the feedback.

Previous studies showed that the International Inclusion Survey was valid and reliable when applied in Turkey (Ugurlu, H. E., 2017), Saudi Arabia (Alsulami, T. M. 2019), the United States (Larmon, 2020), and Germany (Przibilla et al., 2016; Przibilla, Krämer, et al., 2018). Additionally, the International Survey of Inclusion is an appropriate instrument from the perspective of Creswell's (2012) criteria for a good instrument because: 1.) It has been developed recently, 2.) It has been cited by others (e.g., Przibilla et al., 2018) additionally it has been used in three other dissertations (Ugurlu, H. E., 2017; Alsulami, T. M. 2019; Larmon, 2020), 4.) There are reliability and validity scores from past use of the instrument, 5.) The instrument's procedure for recording data fits the purpose and research questions in my study; 6.) the instrument contains accepted scales of measurement (i.e., nominal scales, Likert quasi-interval scale).

The International Survey of Inclusion is divided into three main sections: (1) 13 items about demographic information, (2) two open-response definition questions (of inclusion and special education needs), followed by 47 Likert scale items related to teachers' perceptions and teachers' knowledge of students with disabilities, inclusion, and (3) eight open-ended questions about pedagogical strategies for working with students

with SEN in inclusive classrooms. The first part of the survey takes about 5 minutes to complete, the second about fifteen minutes, and the third about ten, for a total of about 30 minutes. The survey is designed to be confidential, and the online version is set up so that it does not collect identifying information that could be linked to the participant (the “anonymized” setting available in Qualtrics, where the online survey is hosted). Table 3, below, breaks down the questions by set.

Table 3

Inclusion Survey Items

Sets of Items	Items
Set 1	
Items organized by	1: 13a, 14a, 15a, 16a (Ability to Teach in GenEd)
item types across	2: 13b, 14b, 15b, 16b (Administrative Support)
vignette description	3: 13c, 14c, 15c, 16c (Sufficient Time to Plan and Prepare)
of four disability	4: 13d, 14d, 15d, 16d (Students will be Successful in GenEd)
categories.	5: 13e, 14e, 15e, 16e (Student Time in GenEd)
Set 2	
Items organized by	6: 17a,17b,17c,17d,17e (Know and Understand Instructional
item types across	Strategies)
disability category	7: 18a,18b,18c,18d,18e (Know and Understand Characteristics)
names	8: 19a,19b,19c,19d,19e (Prepare for Adults with Job)
	9: 20a,20b,20c, 20d,20e (Prepare for Independent Adults)

Sets of Items	Items
	10: 21a,21b,21c,21d,21e (Students should be able to Obtain Job)
Set 3	
Discrete items that measure broad perceptions about all kids with disabilities or inclusion generally.	11: 22a Accommodation of Needs 12: 22b Inclusion as Placement 13: 22c Inclusion as Pushed in Supports 14: 22d Inclusion Requires SPED Teacher 15: 22e Students should be in all activities with peers w/o disabilities 16: 22f Need for SPED / GenEd Collaboration 17: 22g Need of Additional Training 18: 22h Students w/o disabilities “desire” students with disabilities

Back-Translation and Content Validation for Pilot

I obtained the U.S. version of the instrument from Larmon (2020) and translated this instrument into Spanish, tailoring the terminology and descriptive questions to the Chilean educational system. As part of the Fulbright application, I was certified fluent in written and spoken Spanish by a Spanish-language instructor and licensed interpreter. During the initial translation, I accounted for the gendered nature of the Spanish language

and randomly alternated references to male and female students when using a gender-neutral term was not possible. Then, I conducted cognitive interviews with two special education and two regular education teachers as they completed my translated draft version, noting the comments they made and questions they asked me and which of the sections in the survey had prompted them.

Finally, I reviewed the results of those cognitive interviews with three professors of education (two direct top-university research centers on education, one on inclusive education specifically; the other was recommended based on their doctoral training in multicultural education in North America) as they reviewed the same draft of the survey with me, item by item. As an expert panel, these professors validated not only the translation that I had tested in the cognitive interviews with practicing teachers, but also the content of the instrument.

One consistent challenge was aligning the translated vignettes that begin the Likert portion of the survey (items no. 18.1-5, 19.1-5, 20.1-5, 21.1-5) with the special education needs categories listed explicitly in the latter half of the survey (described below). The vignette related to the U.S. category of “specific learning disability” (SLD) technically describes a language-based learning disability, which in the Chilean system is separately classified as a “Specific Language Disorder” if children under seven years old. After age seven, children previously identified as eligible for special education services due to this language disorder classification will be identified as SLD if they continue to be found eligible. Therefore, this vignette is arguably mis-aligned to the SLD category for practitioners working with students under seven years of age.

The vignettes for items 19 and 20 described cases of students with mild and severe intellectual disabilities. Chile divides intellectual disabilities (ID) into four categories—general intellectual disability or severe, moderate, and mild—and further classifies these as “permanent” disabilities (as opposed to “transitory” disabilities, such as SLD and ADHD). The language used around these is changing or inconsistent (M. Tenorio et al., 2013) (e.g., *límitrofe* or *límite* for severe, *leve* or *ligera* or *bajo el promedio* for mild). During cognitive interviews, participants equated severe ID with autism and downs syndrome. Mild ID was less understood and associated with ADHD or having a slower learning pace. In fact, one of my advisors hypothesized that many students with ADHD in the Chilean system are classified as Mild ID. Because special education schools enroll most students with severe intellectual disabilities, and the focus of this study was on inclusive settings, I used a general intellectual disability category, in lowercase, in alignment with vignette no. 19. I aligned the vignette associated with mild intellectual disability to a category I created based on language in the PIE school manuals that described students with “transitory difficulties not otherwise diagnosed.” My rationale was that paralleled the U.S. category of “Other Health Impairment,” which accounts for ADHD, and it reflected difficulties with learning that had not been diagnosed otherwise, and as such could be transitory—as difficulties with “writing paragraphs and essays” and “low grades in school” can be. However, I it is not technically a disability category within the PIE system. Nevertheless, this new category was supported through the validation process described previously.

A related consistent challenge was translating the special education needs categories used in items no. 22.1-4, 23.1-4, 24.1-4, 25.1-4, and 26.1-4 (see Table 4

below). As described above, the Chilean Special Education system lists specific learning disability (SLD) as a special education need category that qualifies for services. SLD aligns clearly in English and the U.S. special education system, which is the basis of the English inclusion survey, and in fact is one of the consistently largest groups of students with disabilities in the school system. However, so-called “emotional-behavioral disorder” does not yet exist in the Chilean system, whereas it is an established disability category in the U.S. Instead, I used language from the Ministry of Education’s Special Education program that described students with severe alterations in behavior, relationships, and communication. Ultimately, this phrasing turned out to be associated with the Chilean SPED system’s evolving attempts to classify autistic students, and so while Autism is a disability category assessed by the survey, it is never explicitly used.

Table 4*SEN Category Translation Process and Results*

Phase No. and Name					
Item No.	1. U.S. SPED Categories	2. Initial Spanish SPED Categories	3. Back-Translation into English	4. Final Spanish Survey Categories	5. Abbrev. in Analysis & Results
					SLD
22-26.1	Disability	Aprendizaje	Difficulties	NO CHANGE	EBD
					SID
22-26.2	Emotional Behavioral Disorder	o, de la relación y comunicación	and communication	NO CHANGE	SID
					SID
22-26.3	Disability	Discapacidad Intelectual	Intellectual Disability	Discapacidad intelectual	SID
					SID

Phase No. and Name					
Item No.	1. U.S. SPED Categories	2. Initial Spanish SPED Categories	3. Back-Translation into English	4. Final Spanish Survey Categories	5. Abbrev. in Analysis & Results
	Moderate Intellectual Disability	Dificultades Transitorias (o aún no diagnosticadas)	Transient difficulties (or not yet diagnosed)	transitorias (o aún no diagnosticadas)	MID
	22-26.4				

Within the demographic section, some questions were added (e.g., types of special education related resources available at respondents' schools) and tailored to the Chilean system. No question about race was included because historically, Chile, like some other Latin American countries, primarily utilizes ethnicity and nationality as identifiers to describe population characteristics rather than racial categories, which have traditionally not been numerous or diverse in Chile (Contardo, 2019). Adding "other" to the gender identification question that opened the survey proved radical for most pilot participants.

Pilot and Instrument Finalization

I administered the translated, expert-validated version of the survey to two groups of participants. The first consisted of 25 in-service educators in two rural publicly-subsidized schools who volunteered to participate, with a choice of printed, paper-based versions of the survey or a QR-code accessible mobile and website version, according to their preference. Afterwards, I solicited feedback orally while a colleague took notes. Later, I returned and facilitated a workshop on Universal Design for Learning open to all interested members of the school community as had been previously agreed to thank the schools for their involvement. Paper-based responses were later transferred to the digital database.

During the pilot phase, consistent feedback indicated the importance of streamlining the language used to directly translate the instructions on the U.S. English version, as the instructions proved verbose and long in Spanish. Additionally, it was useful to include numerous specific job titles to reduce how much time participants spent thinking about this question and so that results could be relevant to schools—because different types of schools use different terms—and to reduce the number of write-ins in the “Other” category (thus streamlining data analysis). For example, some titles (e.g., *psicopedagoga*) predate others (e.g., special educator) and are virtually nonexistent in English. Additional user-testing decisions arose from this pilot that affected the design of the survey in Qualtrics, such as the decision to replace sliding bars that selected a number with numeric entry response options for questions related to numbers.

The piloted instrument was translated back into English by a professional translator associated with Fulbright. I compared the two English versions and user testing feedback from the pilot to create the final version. This resulted in minor changes in

wording or responses on 11 total items. I made these final changes to the Spanish version with the approval of both my doctoral advisor and Fulbright-affiliated academic advisors in Chile.

Sampling Recruitment and Data Collection Procedures

The sampling strategy employed in this study, maximal variation snowball/convenience sampling, has the advantage of recruiting large numbers of participants for a study (Creswell, 2012; Creswell & Clark, 2017). A general rule of thumb in survey research is to select as large a sample as possible from the population (Creswell, 2012). Approximately 350 individuals are considered adequate for most survey studies, though the appropriateness of the size depends on several factors (Creswell, 2012). The three scales that formed the basis of the International Inclusion Survey (Przbilla et al., 2016), for example, used sample sizes between 252 and 542 for the final phase of their validation studies.

The convenience sample for this study was drawn from the nation-wide population of in-service educators at public, public-private, and private schools in Chile. Contacts with schools were made through academic institutional affiliations and networking at academic presentations, educator and teacher conferences, and book launches. I also emailed local private schools and public school districts directly, using the contact information available on their websites. My in-country Fulbright sponsors also put me in touch with national networks of educators from across the school system -- such as the national public school teacher alliance, el Colegio de Profesores; Educación 2020, a non-profit education research group with national reach; EduGlobal, a national network disseminating education news, tools, and research with over 45,000 registered

teachers and schools; and participant databases at the Center for Advanced Investigations in Education (CIAE) at the Universidad de Chile.

The translated International Survey on Inclusion was administered online via Qualtrics over a six month period. School administrators were invited to participate via email. When a school administrator indicated that the school was going to participate, a simple short protocol was provided to the administrator. This included the directions approved by the IRB and a link to the survey. Administrators shared the protocol with school personnel who used the link to complete the survey on Qualtrics. Emailed invitations and protocols also resulted in the recruitment of participant cohorts, namely, the in-service educators in two graduate courses at the Pontificia Universidad de Chile at Valparaíso; pre-service educators at the Universidad de Playa Ancha at San Felipe; public school educators organized under the syndicate of public school educators (unions are essentially illegal in Chile), known as the Colegio de Profesores.

Database preparation

As part of the data cleaning process, job titles (including some of those entered in the “Other” text field) were recoded into new variables as follows: special education teachers (including *psicopedagoga*), which are inherently K-6 teachers in almost all cases; non-special education teachers in grades Pre-K through 12 (general education elementary teachers, high school subject-area teachers, music, PE, and elective workshop teachers); administrators (school directors or principals, deans, special education program coordinators, instructional coaches or *jefe de unidad técnico-profesional*); special education related service providers (school psychologists, social workers, counselors,

paraprofessionals or classroom aids, and those in charge of school climate); and others (secretary, librarian, janitorial staff, IT).

A total of 660 respondents accessed the survey, and 652 consented to participate. Of the 652 who consented, 118 did not answer any items and 57 answered less than 80% of the items; these were all classified as non-respondents and were not included in the analysis consistent with recommended procedures (Garson, 2015).

Final Sample

Of the 476 remaining participants included in the analysis, 52 (10.9%) failed to complete all 47 Likert items. Missingness of data corresponded to the order of the questions: the first Likert item on the survey was answered by all 476 participants, while the last item was answered by the fewest (n=466, or 2.1% missing). An analysis of missing data using Little's MCAR test was conducted to determine missing data patterns, and it was determined the data was missing at random. For the 51 participants with missing data, missing data were replaced with the item mean consistent with recommended procedures (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). The demographic data of the participants are displayed in Table 5.

Table 5

Sample Demographics

Age (Years)		Grade Range		Job Title	
#	%	#	%	#	%

Age (18-24)	7	1.5	Pre-K - K	64	13.4	SPED Teacher (K-8)	72	15.1
Age (25-34)	149	31.3	1 - 4	118	24.7	GenEd Teachers (K- 12)	243	51.1
Age (35-44)	125	26.3	5 - 8	112	23.5	Related Service Providers, Counselors, Paras	44	9.2
Age (45-54)	130	27.3	9 - 12	150	31.5	Admins	44	9.2
Age (55-64)	57	12				Other	12	2.5
Age (65+)	7	1.5						

The final sample can be compared with the national population in various respects. Almost all respondents in the final sample were experienced teachers in general ($n = 470$, mean = 15.2 years teaching, $SD = 10.6$, range = 42). Of these, the majority (88.5%) had taught students with SEN, averaging about nine years of this type of experience ($SD = 8.6$, range = 40) and generally working in inclusive classrooms where students with SEN were estimated to be fewer than 10% of the total enrollment. This is consistent with the Chilean special education program cap of seven SEN students per class or grade, depending on the school. Although the most populous regions (Metropolitan Santiago, Valparaíso) were also those most heavily represented in the final sample, (63.6% and 21.3%, respectively), participants hailed from at least six other

regions in Chile (amounting to about half of the total number of regions in the country). In keeping with other national trends, 74.6% of the participants identified as female (25% as male). About 55% of this sample were from private schools, while educators at publicly subsidized, privately operated schools accounted for 9.9%, and educators at publicly funded, municipally run schools accounted for 35.3%. A substantial percentage (86.4%) of this sample had a school integration program (special education services) at their institution.

The sample of 476 was appropriate based on classical recommendations of a sample size of at least 300 participants, with five to ten responses for each variable (L. A. Clark & Watson, 2016; Comrey & Lee, 1992; Nunnally, 1978). It was also appropriate for more recent and stringent recommendations of a 10:1 ratio of items to participants (Black & Babin, 2019; Picho & Plaisime, 2020; Yong & Pearce, 2016). I had 48 items, and the sample of 476 was just four participants short of meeting the proposed ratio. However, high communalities and well-determined factors can lower the recommended sample to anywhere from 100 – 300 subjects (Picho & Plaisime, 2020).

Data Analysis Procedure

Although other dissertation studies in several countries have used the International Survey of Inclusive Education (Krezmien et al., 2017), results were not consistently available prior to this study, and as such, research questions about whether the instrument retains the same structure across certain population subgroups would be premature. Additionally, the Chilean translation of the survey was substantially different from the survey used in the U.S., Saudi Arabia, Germany, and Turkey – as each of those countries employ similar western educational system and similar special education

categories. So, I employed Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) to search for an underlying structure among clusters of survey variables (factors) and identify possible items to be excluded from the final instrument, using SPSS v. 27. Then, I conducted a Multiple Linear Regression analysis to investigate relationships among predictor variables from the demographics portion of the survey and factor scores.

Exploratory Factor Analysis

In the literature, most studies that use some form of EFA list Principal Components Analysis with Varimax rotation and the Kaiser criterion as the method of data analysis—even though this norm will not always yield the best results for a particular data set (Costello & Osborne, 2005; Velicer & Jackson, 1990b). Because PCA (Principal Components Analysis) is primarily a data reduction method that does not discriminate between the shared variance of a variable and its unique and error variance to reveal the underlying factor structure, EFA was selected over PCA. EFA develops a concise model that separates out the common variance (which items share due to a latent factor) from unique variance (i.e., item-specific variance and random error), in this way clarifying the relationships among indicators (measured variables) and latent factors that are key to instrument design, particularly in the case of new scales (Alavi et al., 2020; Costello & Osborne, 2005; Picho & Plaisime, 2020). In other words, choosing between the two “involves a trade-off between parsimony...and completeness” (Alavi et al., 2020, p. 1). The EFA procedure began with initial extraction and rotation, followed by identification and refinement of the model, and finally the derivation of factor scales that could be used in a future confirmatory factor analysis study.

Besides assuming the presence of relationships between the variables being analyzed, the EFA principal axis factoring (PAF) maximum likelihood method is free of distributional assumptions (assumes a multivariate normal distribution) and less prone to improper solutions. The next step is to choose a factor rotation method, which determines the axes along which relationships between variables are measured to achieve simple structure and meaningful factor solutions. During the PAF analysis, I initially employed an orthogonal Varimax rotation as is recommended during the first explorations of a data set for simplified results and is widely used in the literature (Costello & Osborne, 2005; Yong & Pearce, 2016).

However, the PAF with Varimax resulted in a Factor Transformation Matrix that suggested this was not a suitable rotation technique. According to Tabachnick & Fidell (2007), the best way to decide between orthogonal and oblique rotations is to utilize oblique and examine the factor correlation matrix; if correlations exceed 0.32, there is at least 10% overlap in variance among the factors, which is enough “to warrant oblique rotation unless there are compelling reasons for orthogonal rotation” (p. 646). I employed oblique Direct Oblimin rotation to obtain the present results. Rather than constraining the factor rotation to an orthogonal solution in which factors are held to be totally independent of each other, oblique rotation methods permit the factors to be correlated. In the social sciences, oblique rotations make more theoretical sense given the complex connections underlying human behavior; furthermore, if the factors are truly uncorrelated orthogonal and oblique rotation produce results that are nearly identical (Costello & Osborne, 2005; Picho & Plaisime, 2020; Yong & Pearce, 2016).

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy and Bartlett's test of sphericity—a test of the overall significance of all correlations between instrument variables—were used to determine the suitability of the sample to EFA. Internal consistency was measured by Cronbach's alpha.

Eigenvalues greater than 1.0 (Kaiser criterion) and scree plot analysis were used to determine the initial number of factors. Although widely used, the former method is largely recognized to be among the least accurate methods for selecting the number of factors to retain (Velicer & Jackson, 1990b, 1990a), while the latter can be tested simply by running multiple factor analyses and setting the number of factors to be retained manually at, above, and below the number of datapoints above the elbow or break point in the curve (Costello & Osborne, 2005). Coefficients equal to 0.32 or less were suppressed from the displayed results in SPSS given that this is the recommended minimum loading for an item—it equates to approximately 10% overlapping variance with the other items in the factor (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

Multiple Linear Regression Analysis

Factor scores are on an interval scale and six categorical or interval independent variables were used in analysis. The Durbin-Watson statistic was within the 1.5 and 2.5 range for each test. Linear relationships between each dependent variable and independent variable combination were addressed through inspection of the scatterplots. Homoscedasticity was met in all cases and there was no multicollinearity. However, the correlation matrix shows that the only correlation coefficient above .5 was Age and Years Experience (.854). Since Years Experience was more closely related to the criterion variables of interest than Age, I used Years Experience and excluded Age from the

analyses. I also used variance inflation factor (VIF) values. Values below 10 indicate lack of multicollinearity, although VIF below 5 are preferable. VIF are below 5 for all variables in each analysis. I examined the residuals scatterplot to identify outliers. I did not have any significant outliers. A final assumption of multiple linear regression is that residuals are approximately normally distributed. I used a typical method to check this assumption include using: (a) a histogram (with a superimposed normal curve) and (b) a Normal Probability – Probability Plot (P-P Plot). A P-P plot compares the empirical cumulative distribution function of a data set with a specified theoretical cumulative distribution function. P-P plots should be a relatively straight distribution along the 1:1 regression line. The R-Squared and regression tests were used to understand variance and significance, and the Bonferroni correction was used to determine level of significance because I conducted six independent tests using the same data.

Qualitative Method

I utilized a classical inductive content analysis process (Erlingsson & Brysiewicz, 2017; Hsieh & Shannon, 2005; Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007, 2011) to analyze the qualitative responses to the “define ‘inclusion’ in your own words” item from the survey. I entered each of the 468 responses in a discrete cell in a discrete row in Excel. I translated each Spanish response into English in a new column in Excel. These were the meaning units in my analysis.

Then I transformed each meaning unit into a condensed meaning unit using a process of “shortening the text while still preserving the core meaning” (Erlingsson & Brysiewicz, 2017). In some cases, one meaning unit resulted a single condensed meaning unit. Often, the meaning units yielded multiple condensed meaning units. In all

circumstances, each condensed meaning had a unique row in the spreadsheet. This process resulted in 1,066 initial condensed meaning units.

Working in Excel, I then converted the condensed meaning units into 405 codes, using the constant comparative method (Glaser, 1965; Leech & Onwuegbuzie, 2007). Codes are short labels that maintain a close literal connection to the original text to represent the associated condensed meaning units (Erlingsson & Brysiewicz, 2017). Next, I sorted the initial codes alphabetically and reviewed them, and then drafted a memo with my observations to record recurring phenomena and words.

In accordance with the iterative nature of the constant comparative process, I then imported the Excel sheet into NVIVO and used my memoing to review the condensed meaning units alongside the initial codes, conserving or changing the initial codes (for example, *access to formal education* and *access to education* were combined into the latter code; *access to meaningful experiences*—within the educational and schooling context—and *access meaningful learning* were combined into *access learning*) and removing duplicates that had proliferated in Excel (e.g., *accepting diversity* appeared as two different codes, likely due to a space after the term) while re-coding the condensed meaning units as NVIVO nodes. This reduced the 405 initial codes to 222 final codes, which became grandchild nodes in NVIVO. During this process, I created 39 more meaning units, for a final total of 1,105 condensed meaning units.

Next, I used the constant comparative process to convert the codes into initial categories, grouping together related codes while writing reflexively about patterns and my process (Bhattacharya, 2017). I grouped codes into five initial categories (which became NVIVO grand-parent nodes) that answered questions about who, what, where,

why, and how. “When” did not figure as a category of response, because rather than describing a chronological time, the few meaning units that used the word “when” described an action or a state, and as such tend to appear within the What category, described below. As Erlingsson & Brysiewicz (2017) suggest for situations where there are a “plethora” of codes, and as Morse (2008) indicates, when a category contains a lot of codes, it may be separated into smaller units or subcategories. The five categories came to contain a total of 17 sub-categories (or NVIVO parent nodes), which maintained an expression of “manifest content,” that is, “what is visible and obvious in the data” with limited interpretation from the researcher (Erlingsson & Brysiewicz, 2017, p. 94). Finally, the data fit into two larger constructs that functioned as overarching themes across the data consistent with the model proposed by Morse (2008): while categories will encompass some of the data and not others, themes will go through all of the data.

Qualitative data analysis triangulation in the Leech & Onwuegbuzie (2007, 2011) model of mixed methods research with a strong use of both qualitative and quantitative analysis (Hitchcock & Onwuegbuzie, 2020) approaches occurs through utilizing more than one type of qualitative analysis. After I drew from the constant comparison method to create codes, categories, and themes out of the original responses and translated condensed meaning units, I used word frequency counts to check my translation, to get a sense of the prominent words and topics in both the original responses and condensed meaning units, and to compare these results to the results of the classical content analysis.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The results from both the quantitative and qualitative components are reported separately in this section. They are integrated in the discussion.

Quantitative Data Analysis Results: EFA

To determine whether the data is suitable for factor extraction, the Correlation Matrix must show that the items are intercorrelated but not too highly as this will create difficulties in achieving unidimensional loadings of items onto the factors (Koostra, 2004). However, items should have some relationship, and some scholars even suggest removing items with low correlation coefficients (below ± 0.3) at this stage of the analysis (Yong & Pearce, 2013).

The EFA Correlation Matrix showed that no items had correlations above 0.8, indicating a lack of significant multicollinearity. Nevertheless, numerous items had low coefficients (below ± 0.30). The anti-image matrix showed that all but three correlations, ranging from 0.641 – 0.779, were above 0.80. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity, which tests for the overall significance of all correlations between the items, was significant ($p < 0.000$) and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy (compact patterns of correlations) was 0.9, well above the minimum requirement of 0.5. Taken together, these measures indicate that the data was technically suitable for factor analysis and suggested that the sample did contain underlying patterned relationships.

EFA: Ten-Factor Solution

Applying the Kaiser Criterion (eigenvalues > 1.0) to the rotated values in the Total Variance Explained output table identified ten factors that explained 63.4% of the total variance. The averaged extracted communalities was 0.63, appropriate for EFA because they are above 0.6 and from a sample size of greater than 250 (Yong & Pearce, 2016). According to the Reproduced Correlation Matrix Output, the model appeared to be a good fit because only 5.0% of the non-redundant residuals had absolute values greater than 0.05 (cut off is less than 50%). However, the subjective scree plot output analysis suggested that a six-factor solution is plausible, as demonstrated in subsequent analyses.

Factor Correlations Matrix. Inter-factor correlations of 0.80 and above suggest discriminant validity problems. A general rule of thumb for correlation coefficients is that .00 – 0.30 is very little to no correlation, 0.3 – 0.5 is a low correlation, and above 0.5 extends into the range of moderate, followed by high (above 0.7) (Hinkle et al., 2003). The factor correlations matrix in Table 6 shows that Factor I had a moderate negative correlation with Factor IV (-0.52), and while having a low positive relationship to Factor V (0.41). Factors III and X also shared a low negative correlation (-0.40). Factor VIII had a low positive correlation with Factor VII (0.35). All other positive correlation coefficients ranged from 0.01 – 0.26, considered a very low correlation if any, while negative coefficients ranged from -0.28 - -0.01. The correlations indicated that the data were appropriate for EFA.

Table 6*Ten-Factor Solution Correlation Matrix*

Factor	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X
I	—	0.04	0.16	-0.52	0.41	0.17	0.21	0.26	-0.13	-0.12
II		—	0.01	0.01	0.18	0.00	0.16	0.25	-0.28	-0.14
III			—	-0.23	0.02	0.08	0.21	0.18	-0.03	-0.40
IV				—	-0.26	-0.14	-0.20	-0.25	0.10	0.16
V					—	0.24	0.25	0.30	-0.23	-0.04
VI						—	0.08	0.14	-0.19	-0.01
VII							—	0.35	-0.22	-0.10
VIII								—	-0.27	-0.08
IX									—	0.07
X										—

Communalities. Communalities (the sum of squared factor loadings for each variable) are considered “high” if they are 0.8 or greater (Picho & Plaisime, 2020), though magnitudes in social science research tend to range from low to moderate (0.40 – 0.70) (Costello & Osborne, 2005). Items with communalities below 0.40 may either not be related to the other items through underlying factors or suggest an additional factor that requires further exploration (Costello & Osborne, 2005). If extracted communalities are less than 0.20, that means that 80% of the error in that item is due to unique—as opposed to common—variance, making these items candidates for possible removal from the instrument, depending on other considerations explained in the following sections.

Prior to extraction, 40 of the 47 items had communalities above 0.4, suggesting that most items on the instrument share variance, likely due to an underlying structure. Table 7 shows that after extraction, 39 of the 47 item communalities ranged from 0.521 to 0.894. The eight items with the lowest communalities under 0.521 ranged from 0.2 – 0.392. Since the aim of factor analysis is to explain variance through common factors, items with low communalities are questionable and could be candidates for removable in the final instrument. Both before and after extract, the eight items with low communalities (<0.4) were amongst the last set presented to respondents on the survey (No. 27.1-8).

Table 7

Ten-Factor Solution Communalities

No.	Items	Initial	Extraction
20.3	MID - Sufficient Time	0.83	0.89
20.5	MID - most or all their time in gen ed	0.81	0.77
24.3	obtain and keep a job - ID	0.81	0.76
21.5	SLD - most or all their time in gen ed	0.81	0.78
21.3	SLD - sufficient time	0.80	0.80
22.3	instructional strategies - SID	0.80	0.80
19.3	SID - sufficient time	0.80	0.82
23.3	characteristics - SID	0.79	0.74
25.4	live independently - MID	0.79	0.74
25.2	live independently - EBD	0.79	0.70
25.3	live independently - SID	0.79	0.70

Table 7*Ten-Factor Solution Communalities*

No.	Items	Initial	Extraction
25.1	live independently - SLD	0.78	0.68
23.4	characteristics - MID	0.78	0.72
24.4	obtain and keep a job - MID	0.78	0.69
24.1	obtain and keep a job - SLD	0.77	0.70
20.2	MID - administrative support	0.76	0.75
24.2	obtain and keep a job - EBD	0.76	0.67
22.4	instructional strategies - MID	0.76	0.70
20.1	MID - able to teach	0.75	0.77
21.4	SLD - academically and socially successful	0.75	0.72
20.4	MID - academically and socially successful	0.75	0.70
21.2	SLD- administrative support	0.75	0.80
19.4	SID - academically and socially successful	0.73	0.71
19.5	SID - most or all their time in gen ed	0.73	0.69
26.4	office at a typical company - MID	0.72	0.75
23.2	characteristics - EBD	0.72	0.65
23.1	characteristics - SLD	0.70	0.66
22.1	instructional strategies - SLD	0.69	0.63
26.3	office at a typical company - SID	0.69	0.72
19.1	SID - able to teach	0.69	0.61
19.2	SID - administrative support	0.68	0.72

Table 7*Ten-Factor Solution Communalities*

No.	Items	Initial	Extraction
21.1	SLD - able to teach	0.68	0.62
26.1	office at a typical company - SLD	0.68	0.68
18.3	EBD - sufficient time	0.67	0.68
26.2	office at a typical company - EBD	0.66	0.64
22.2	instructional strategies - EBD	0.65	0.52
18.5	EBD - most or all their time in gen ed	0.64	0.60
18.4	EBD - academically and socially successful	0.62	0.65
18.1	EBD - able to teach	0.57	0.58
18.2	EBD - administrative support	0.55	0.56
27.1	I know how to accommodate	0.45	0.39
27.6	teachers need to collaborate	0.37	0.37
27.3	supported in age-appropriate gen ed	0.36	0.33
27.5	involved in all school activities with peers	0.36	0.38
27.7	I need additional training	0.31	0.25
27.2	students with special needs are placed	0.29	0.20
27.4	will need a special education teacher	0.27	0.26
27.8	Students without NEE want peers with	0.25	0.21

Pattern Matrix. The pattern matrix is the primary source for interpreting the factors in PAF (Koostra, 2004). It contains the regression coefficients for the linear

combinations of the variables, or the factor loadings, and indicates the effect of a given factor on a given item while controlling for other factors (Picho & Plaisime, 2020). To achieve simple structure, factors should have high item loadings with near zero loadings on all other factors, with items loading under 0.32 considered poor, 0.45 - 0.54 considered fair, 0.55 - 0.62 considered good, 0.63 - 0.69 considered very good, and >0.70 considered excellent (Comrey & Lee, 1992). Low loadings or multidimensionality can make items candidates for removal.

The eight unidimensional item-factor loadings for Factor I were excellent (0.76 - 0.81). Three items had fair to very good loadings on Factor II (0.47 - 0.64), though one of these also loaded poorly onto Factor VIII (0.34), and a fourth unidimensional item in Factor II loaded poorly and negatively (-0.38). Each of the four unidimensional item-factor loadings on Factors III and V were positive and excellent (0.74 - 0.90, and 0.74 - 0.86, respectively). Factor IV contained the most items (9), ranging from fair (and negative) to excellent (-0.47 - 0.80). Although unidimensional, the six item-factor loadings for Factor VI ranged from poor to good (0.34 - 0.56). The four item-factor loadings for Factor VII ranged from fair to very good (0.45 - 0.63), with the weakest item (0.45) also loading onto Factor X (-0.53). Similarly, the five items loading onto Factor VIII ranged from poor to excellent (0.34 - 0.74), with the weakest two (0.34 and 0.44, respectively) representing double-loadings that favored Factor II (0.53) and X (-0.58). Factor IX contained three fair to good unidimensional items (-0.49 - -0.59). The final Factor, X, only contained one unidimensional item (-0.55), with all four of the negative item-loadings ranging from fair to good (-0.46 - -0.58) and the weakest of these loading

onto Factor II (0.39) and III (0.38) as well. Table 8 shows the findings from the pattern matrix.

Table 8

Ten-Factor Solution Pattern Matrix

#	Item Text	Factor Loading									
		I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X
25.2	live independently - EBD	.81									
	obtain and keep a job -										
24.1	SLD	.81									
25.4	live independently - MID	.80									
25.1	live independently - SLD	.80									
24.3	obtain and keep a job - ID	.78									
	obtain and keep a job -										
24.2	EBD	.78									
25.3	live independently - SID	.77									
	obtain and keep a job -										
24.4	MID	.76									
20.1	MID - able to teach		.64								
	MID - most or all time in										
20.5	gen ed		.53							.34	
	MID - academ/socially										
20.4	successful		.47								

#	Item Text	Factor Loading									
		I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X
	need a special education		-								
27.4	teacher		.38								
20.3	MID - Sufficient Time			.90							
19.3	SID - sufficient time			.76							
21.3	SLD - sufficient time			.75							
18.3	EBD - sufficient time			.74							
					-						
23.4	characteristics - MID			.80							
					-						
23.1	characteristics - SLD			.80							
	instructional strategies -				-						
22.4	MID			.79							
					-						
23.2	characteristics - EBD			.78							
					-						
23.2	characteristics - SID			.77							
	instructional strategies -				-						
22.1	SLD			.77							
	instructional strategies -				-						
22.3	SID			.70							

#	Item Text	Factor Loading									
		I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X
	instructional strategies -				-						
22.2	EBD				.67						
	I know how to				-						
27.1	accommodate				.47						
	office at a typical										
26.3	company - SID					.86					
	office at a typical										
26.4	company - MID					.84					
	office at a typical										
26.1	company - SLD					.78					
	office at a typical										
26.2	company - EBD					.74					
	teachers need to										
27.6	collaborate						.56				
	in all school activities										
27.5	with peers						.55				
	supported in age-approp										
27.3	gen ed						.48				
27.7	I need additional training						.45				
	Ss with special needs are										
27.2	placed						.38				

#	Item Text	Factor Loading									
		I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X
	Ss without NEE want										
27.8	peers with						.34				
	SID - academ/socially										
19.4	successful							.63			
	SID - most or all of time										
19.5	in gen ed							.59			
19.1	SID - able to teach							.51			
	SLD - most or all time in										
21.5	gen ed								.74		
	SLD - academ/socially										
21.4	successful								.73		
21.1	SLD - able to teach								.60		
	EBD – academ/socially									-	
18.4	successful									.59	
										-	
18.1	EBD - able to teach									.50	
	EBD - most or all time in									-	
18.5	gen ed									.49	
	SLD- administrative										-
21.2	support							.44			.58

#	Item Text	Factor Loading									
		I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X
	EBD - administrative										-
18.2	support										.55
	SID - administrative										-
19.2	support							.45			.53
	MID - administrative										-
20.2	support		.39	.38							.46

Note. Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in 36 iterations.

Structure Matrix. The structure matrix appears in the SPSS output for oblique PAF analyses and includes the simple correlations of items to the factors (Koostra, 2004). It is the pattern matrix multiplied by the interfactor correlations (Picho & Plaisime, 2020). In this case, most item-factor correlations were moderate to strong in all factors, and the loadings were similar to the pattern matrix. Factor VI stood out as the only set of items with no correlations to any other factors. The items within Factor VI are not only uncorrelated to other factors, but weakly correlated to Factor VI. Only three of the six items in Factor VI had loadings above 0.5 (moderate), the others had a coefficient of 0.4 (low). Table 9 displays the findings from the structure matrix.

Table 9*Ten-Factor Solution Structure Matrix*

No.	Item	Factor									
		I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X
25.4	live independently - SLD	0.84			-0.45	0.43					
25.2	live independently - EBD	0.83			-0.43	0.37					
24.3	obtain and keep a job - ID	0.82			-0.44	0.34		0.36			
24.1	obtain and keep a job - SLD	0.82			-0.46						
24.4	obtain and keep a job - MID	0.82			-0.46	0.42					
25.1	live independently - SLD	0.81			-0.45	0.33					
24.2	obtain and keep a job - EBD	0.81			-0.45	0.35					
25.3	live independently - SID	0.8			-0.43	0.33					
20.1	MID - able to teach		0.75			0.43		0.42	0.5	-0.37	
20.5	MID - most / all time in gen ed		0.66			0.34		0.51	0.62	-0.4	
20.4	MID - acad. and soc. successful		0.59					0.51	0.57	-0.4	
27.4	will need a SPED teacher		-0.43								
20.3	MID - Sufficient Time			0.91							-0.42
19.3	SID - sufficient time			0.84				0.43			-0.41
21.3	SLD - sufficient time			0.83					0.35		-0.45
18.3	EBD - sufficient time			0.78							-0.41
23.4	characteristics - MID	0.47			-0.84						
23.3	characteristics - SID	0.5			-0.83						
22.4	instructional strategies - MID	0.46			-0.82	0.35					
23.1	characteristics - SLD	0.42			-0.8						
23.2	characteristics - EBD	0.42			-0.79						
22.3	instructional strategies - SID	0.49			-0.79			0.4			
22.1	instructional strategies - SLD	0.43			-0.79						
22.2	instructional strategies - EBD	0.4			-0.71						
27.1	I know how to accommodate	0.44			-0.58						
26.4	office at a typical company - MID	0.38				0.86					
26.3	office at a typical company - SID					0.84					
26.1	office at a typical company - SLD	0.4				0.81					
26.2	office at a typical company - EBD	0.38				0.79					
27.5	involved in all activities with peers						0.59				
27.6	teachers need to collaborate						0.59				
27.3	supported in age-appropriate gen ed						0.53				
27.2	students with NEE are placed						0.4				
27.7	I need additional training						0.4				
27.8	Students want peers with NEE						0.4				
19.4	SID - acad. and soc. Successful					0.38		0.77	0.48	-0.39	
19.5	SID - most / all time in gen ed		0.36			0.38		0.73	0.48	-0.44	
19.1	SID - able to teach		0.37			0.42		0.66	0.39		
21.5	SLD - most / all time in gen ed		0.35			0.37		0.4	0.85	-0.38	
21.4	SLD - acad. and soc. Successful							0.4	0.82	-0.39	
21.1	SLD - able to teach	0.34				0.45			0.72		
18.4	EBD - acad. and soc. Successful							0.38	0.5	-0.7	
18.5	EBD - most / all time in gen ed					0.33		0.39	0.53	-0.65	
18.1	EBD - able to teach		0.37			0.36			0.35	-0.64	
21.2	SLD- administrative support			0.6					0.47		-0.72
20.2	MID - administrative support		0.44	0.6							-0.67
19.2	SID - administrative support			0.55				0.51			-0.66
18.2	EBD - administrative support			0.42						-0.35	-0.64

Note. Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation Method: Oblimin with Kaiser Normalization.

Reliability. I conducted an analysis of the reliability using the Cronbach's Alpha, a measure of the internal consistency of the items in the survey. The Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was 0.94, a very strong measure of the internal consistency of the survey.

Factor Interpretation. A qualitative review of the model was conducted to determine a title of each factor and ensure that the items within each factor aligned. In the ten-factor solution, Factor I was described as "(Socio-Economic) Independence." This first factor explained the largest share of the common variance (9.17%) and loadings suggested it was strongly related (0.76 - 0.81) to eight unidimensional items about agreement with preparing students with the four types of SEN to live independently and, also, become adults who obtain and keep a job.

Factor IV explained the second largest percentage of variance (8.73%), affected the largest set of items (9) with loadings ranging from -0.47 - -0.80, and, given its moderate correlation ($r = -0.52$) with Factor I-(Socio-Economic) Independence, had the strongest correlational relationship of any pair of factors. Factor IV, described as instructional "Strategy (and SEN) Knowledge," grouped all eight items related to *knowing and understanding both instructional strategies and the characteristics associated with [4 types of] SEN* along with one of the last statements respondents encountered on the instrument: *I know how to accommodate the needs of students with special education needs in the regular classroom.*

In addition to the moderate correlation with Factor IV: Strategy (and SEN) Knowledge ($r = -0.52$), Factor I: (Socio-Economic) Independence moderately correlated with Factor V as well ($r = 0.41$), the latter of which explained the third largest share of common variance (6.25%). Factor V: (Professional) Workplace Inclusion loaded all four

SEN classification items (0.74 – 0.86) associated with the statement, *students with the following SEN should be able to obtain and keep a job in an office at a typical company.*

Factor I: Socio-Economic Independence, and V: Professional Workplace Inclusion were substantively similar in terms of content, though not similar enough to load as one factor.

Factor VIII: Specific Learning Disability (SLD) explained the fourth largest share of variance (5.91), and was amongst the four factors that grouped items related to what came to be thought of as “disposition” towards including students in the general education classroom that had one of each of the four SEN classifications. Each SEN classification loaded onto its own factor: Factors IX: EBD (3.33%) Factor VII: Severe Intellectual Disability (SID) (4.69%) and Factor II: Transitory or Not Otherwise Diagnosed/Mild Intellectual Disability” (TNOD/MID) (2.96%). Each of these factors loaded the three statements about being *able to teach this student in a general education classroom, this student will be academically and socially successful in a general education classroom, and this student should spend most or all their time in a general education classroom* (EBD loadings ranged from -0.49 to -0.59; SLD 0.60 – 0.74; Factor SID 0.51 – 0.63). Given these statements, “disposition” here encompasses the respondent’s self-appraised teaching “ability” as it applies to teaching the student with SEN, their expectations of “success” for the student with SEN, and the extent to which the respondent agrees that the student essentially belongs in the general education classroom.

In addition to loading these items as they related to TNOD/MID (0.47 – 0.64), TNOD/MID negatively loaded (-0.38) the weakest item, No. 27.4: *A student with a*

special education need who is included in a general education classroom will need a special education teacher in the classroom to teach him or her and cross loaded item 20.2, about TNOD/MID as it pertained to receiving *sufficient administrative support*. This *administrative support* item presented with a 0.39 loading in Factor II-TNOD/MID, and -0.46 in Factor X, which loaded the other three SEN type items associated with this statement. Factors SID and SLD cross loaded the *administrative support* items for those types of SEN (0.45 and 0.44, respectively) with Factor X as well. Finally, Factor VIII-SLD was unique in cross loading item No 20.5 in the TNOD/MID factor, a SEN type item that was consistently present all the Disposition Towards SEN factors: *this student [with MID] should spend most or all their time in a general education classroom* (0.34).

Within Factor X, “Administrative Support,” the only unidimensional item of the four that loaded (-0.46 to -0.58) was associated with EBD (-0.55). The Administrative Support factor was moderately negatively correlated (-0.40) with the substantively similar Factor III – “(Sufficient) Time,” given that both factors relate to institutional support for educators to implement inclusion in the classroom. Within the “Time” factor, the four disability classification item loadings were much higher (0.74 – 0.90) and all unidimensional. While the latter accounted for 3.1% of the common variance, the former accounted for 5.01%.

Finally, Factor VI was described as “Institutional Climate (for Inclusivity)” because the six unidimensional items it affected the most (0.34 – 0.56) asked respondents to agree with statements about the importance of No. 27.6 *teacher collaborat[ion]*, 27.5 *school-wide accessibility and participation*, conceptualizations of 27.2 *inclusion as placement* or 27.3 *support*, the attitude of 27.8 *students without SEN towards those with*

SEN, and the respondent's own 27.7 *need for additional training*. Notably, all but the first (No. 27.1) of the last set of seven Likert items in the survey accounted for this factor, which also represented the smallest share of common variance (2.55%) and displayed very low inter-factor correlations, as seen in Table 5.

EFA: Six-Factor Solution

The goal of EFA for instrument design is to achieve simple structure. Nonetheless, a consistent guideline in EFA is to over-factor rather than under-factor, and to use theory to guide the selected number of factors retained (Picho & Plaisime, 2020). As Costello & Osborne (2005) argue, a best practice in determining factor structure at the exploratory stage is *not* to rely exclusively on the Eigenvalues but to use the scree plot in tandem to guide the selection of the number of meaningful factors. This is done through multiple analyses, extracting the number of factors suggested by the elbow in the scree plot, as well as one number below and above, and analyzing the resulting pattern and structure matrices. In this case, the scree plot suggested that a six-factor solution was plausible, which made sense given the six factors hypothesized to underly educator approaches to including students with SEN drawn from the Chilean literature.

Communalities were consistent with the 10-factor solution: all eight of the last items were lower than the 0.4 cut-off, now with the addition of item 18.2 (*sufficient administrative support* for students with EBD). The six-factor solution explained 55.7% of the total variance, less than the ten-factor solution (63.4%) but still within the range considered adequate in the social sciences. The Factor Correlation Matrix contained mostly low to non-existent correlations. The only exceptions were the moderate negative correlation between Factor I and Factor 4 ($r = -0.53$), which was essentially the same as

the strongest inter-factor correlation in the ten-factor solution. Factors I and V ($r = 0.41$), and II and V ($r = 0.39$) were the only moderate inter-factor correlations. Table 10 displays the pattern matrix for the six-factor solution.

Table 10*Six-Factor Solution Pattern Matrix*

#	Item	F1 Ind.	F2. Dis	F3. Inst. Supp	F4. Strat. Know.	F5. WrkPl. Inc.	F6. Inst. Clim.
25.4	live independently - MID	0.82					
25.2	live independently - EBD	0.82					
24.1	obtain and keep a job - SLD	0.81					
25.1	live independently - SLD	0.81					
24.2	obtain and keep a job - EBD	0.8					
24.3	obtain and keep a job - ID	0.78					
24.4	obtain and keep a job - MID	0.77					
25.3	live independently - SID	0.77					
20.5	MID - most / all time in gened		0.84				
21.5	SLD - most / all time in gened		0.78				
20.4	MID - acad. & soc. successful		0.77				
19.5	SID - most / all time in gened		0.7				
20.1	MID - able to teach		0.7				
21.4	SLD - acad. & soc. Successful		0.7				
18.5	EBD - most / all time in gened		0.68				
19.4	SID - acad. & soc. Successful		0.62				
21.1	SLD - able to teach		0.58				
18.4	EBD - acad. & soc. Successful		0.57				
19.1	SID - able to teach		0.52				
18.1	EBD - able to teach		0.51				
27.4	will need a SPED teacher						
20.3	MID - Sufficient Time			0.88			
19.3	SID - sufficient time			0.84			
21.3	SLD - sufficient time			0.81			
18.3	EBD - sufficient time			0.78			
20.2	MID - administrative support			0.71			
21.2	SLD- administrative support			0.68			
19.2	SID - administrative support			0.67			
18.2	EBD - administrative support			0.52			
23.4	characteristics - MID				-0.81		
22.4	instructional strategies - MID				-0.8		
23.1	characteristics - SLD				-0.78		
23.3	characteristics - SID				-0.78		
22.1	instructional strategies - SLD				-0.76		
23.2	characteristics - EBD				-0.75		
22.3	instructional strategies - SID				-0.74		
22.2	instructional strategies - EBD				-0.67		
27.1	I know how to accommodate				-0.46		
26.3	office at a typical company - SID					0.84	
26.4	office at a typical company - MID					0.81	
26.1	office at a typical company - SLD					0.73	
26.2	office at a typical company - EBD					0.71	
27.6	teachers need to collaborate						0.55
27.5	involved in all activities with peers						0.53
27.3	supported in age-appropriate gened						0.45
27.7	I need additional training						
27.2	students with NEE are placed						
27.8	Students want peers with NEE						

Note. Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation Method: Oblimin with

Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

In comparing the ten and six factor solutions, the latter retained the same eight items at slightly higher loadings (0.77 – 0.82) in Factor I-Independence, which continued to explain the largest share of common variance (9.33%). In parallel fashion, Factor IV-Strategy and SEN Knowledge remained essentially unchanged, loading the same nine items in a similar range (-0.46 - -0.81) and continued to explain the second largest amount of shared variance (8.69%). Factor V-Workplace Inclusion also remained very similar, though the four loadings were slightly lower in the six-factor solution (0.71 – 0.84) and the share of variance explained decreased by less than half a percentage point (5.83%). Factor VI-Institutional Climate was also retained as a factor, its six item loadings ranging from 0.36 to 0.55, and explaining 2.48% of the variance—like the ten-factor solution.

The three primary points of contrast between the two solutions are seen in the factors related to disposition and institutional support. First, the original four factors related to “disposition” towards including students presenting with one of the four SEN classifications were collapsed into a single, second factor (“Disposition”) loading all 12 related items (0.51 – 0.84) and explaining 8.47% of the common variance.

Second, the original two factors related to whether the respondent’s institution provided sufficient administrative support and time to prepare/plan were collapsed into a single factor with eight strong loadings (0.52 – 0.88), explaining the fourth largest share of the variance (6.67%). Third, item 27.4 *will need a special education teacher* did not load onto any factor. Previously, as shown in Table 7, this item loaded weakly and inversely (a negative loading whereas the other three were positive) onto Factor II-

TNOD/MID, which had distinguished this factor from the other three related to dispositions towards SEN, which each loaded the same three items related to the respective SEN types only.

The contrast between the two solutions is most notable in the respective structure matrices. The six-factor solution shows a much more parsimonious relationship between the items and the factors that load them. Whereas the ten-factor solution showed numerous items correlating with numerous factors, the six-factor solution has consolidated the factors while retaining moderate to strong correlations within each factor (with Factor VI-Institutional Climate being somewhat of an exception, as explained momentarily). The structure matrix displayed in Table 11 for the six-factor solution shows correlations between the items and factors (see Table 9 for the ten-factor solution).

The items within the Factor IV-SEN Strategy Knowledge factor continue to load negatively, confirming this factor's unique relationship to the other factors (recall that it had a moderately negative correlation with the most robust factor, Factor I-Independence). The EBD administrative support item (18.2) in this factor, which had a lowered communality in the six-factor solution, is by far the weakest loading within this factor. Indeed, except for Factor I-Independence, the weakest loadings on factors II-V were EBD-related items.

Another similarity is the sixth factor, Institutional Climate, which continues to register the weakest correlations with the items loaded. In the ten-factor solution, half (3) of the items had low correlations to Factor VI ($r = 0.4$) while the other half had moderate correlations ($r = >0.5$). In the six-factor solution, four items correlate at 0.44 or higher, while two are lower ($r = 0.38, 0.36$). Taken together, all this suggests that the items

within Factor VI-Institutional Climate, and especially those two items (27.4: *students with SEN are placed in gen-ed* and 27.8: *students without SEN want students with*) are not explained well by either model and could be candidates for removal—or further inquiry.

To understand the internal reliability of each factor, Hotelling's T-squared test of significance was used with Cronbach's alpha. In all cases the results were significant at the 0.000 level. Reliability of the first five factors was high (I-Independence 0.94; II-Disposition 0.88; III-Institutional Support 0.91; IV-SEN Strategy Knowledge 0.93; V-Workplace Inclusion 0.90) while the sixth Institutional Climate factor ($\alpha=0.65$; $CI=0.58 - 0.68$) did not meet the general limit for acceptable measures of internal consistency (>0.69). The inter-item correlation matrix for this scale showed that most correlations were very low (below 0.32).

I applied the following criteria to identify items for removal: (1) Extracted communalities below 0.4; (2) At least three items within each factor; five or more items with loadings above 0.50 is desirable and indicates a solid factor; (3) At least a 0.45 loading in a factor (the baseline for "Fair" loadings, according to Comrey & Lee, 1992); (4) No items with cross loadings above 0.5.

Table 11*Six-Factor Solution Structure Matrix*

	F1 Ind.	F2. Dis	F3. Inst. Supp	F4. Strat. Know.	F5. WrkPl. Inc.	F6. Inst. Clim.
live independently - MID	0.82					
live independently - EBD	0.82					
obtain and keep a job - SLD	0.81					
live independently - SLD	0.81					
obtain and keep a job - EBD	0.8					
obtain and keep a job - ID	0.78					
obtain and keep a job - MID	0.77					
live independently - SID	0.77					
MID - most / all time in gened		0.84				
SLD - most / all time in gened		0.78				
MID - acad. / soc. successful		0.77				
SID - most / all time in gened		0.7				
MID - able to teach		0.7				
SLD - acad. / soc. Successful		0.7				
EBD - most / all time in gened		0.68				
SID - acad. / soc. Successful		0.62				
SLD - able to teach		0.58				
EBD - acad. / soc. Successful		0.57				
SID - able to teach		0.52				
EBD - able to teach		0.51				
will need a special education teacher						
MID - Sufficient Time			0.88			
SID - sufficient time			0.84			
SLD - sufficient time			0.81			
EBD - sufficient time			0.78			
MID - administrative support			0.71			
SLD- administrative support			0.68			
SID - administrative support			0.67			
EBD - administrative support			0.52			
characteristics - MID				-0.81		
instructional strategies - MID				-0.8		
characteristics - SLD				-0.78		
characteristics - SID				-0.78		
instructional strategies - SLD				-0.76		
characteristics - EBD				-0.75		
instructional strategies - SID				-0.74		
instructional strategies - EBD				-0.67		
I know how to accommodate				-0.46		
office at a typical company - SID					0.84	
office at a typical company - MID					0.81	
office at a typical company - SLD					0.73	
office at a typical company - EBD					0.71	
teachers need to collaborate						0.58
involved in all activities with peers						0.53
supported in age-appropriate gened						0.45
I need additional training						0.44
students with NEE are placed						0.38
Students want peers with NEE						0.36

Note. Extraction Method: Principal Axis Factoring. Rotation Method: Oblimin with

Kaiser Normalization. Rotation converged in 7 iterations.

The six-factor solution had no cross loadings, so no items were identified through this criterion. Item 27.4 did not load on the six-factor solution and had the lowest of all extracted communalities (0.14). In the Institutional Climate factor, 27.7, 27.2, and 27.8 did not meet the criteria as they load below 0.45. In addition, item 18.2 also had a low communality (0.37) and was the weakest item to load onto the Institutional Support factor (0.55). However, because it fit with the pattern, I kept 18.2. Table 10 shows the final six factors and respective items used to conduct descriptive and regression analyses.

Descriptive Findings

I then examined the distributions of ratings of the items shown in Table 10 within each of the six factors. These data allowed me to understand the mean ratings of the items associated with each factor. This distribution was calculated by summing the items within each factor and dividing those Likert values, which ranged from 1 – 4, by the number of items in the factor. The distributions allowed me to get an understanding of the mean ratings on the items within each of the six factors.

Figure 1 displays the distribution of the mean ratings of the items associate with Factor I: Independence. The mean rating for items in this factor, which were statements about educator's preparation of students with the SEN for socio-economic independence, was 2.77, close to 3.0 (Agree). There were high frequencies for ratings of 4.0 (strongly agree) and 2.0 (disagree) on Factor I: Independence.

Figure 1

Distribution of Mean Rating Scores within Factor I: Independence

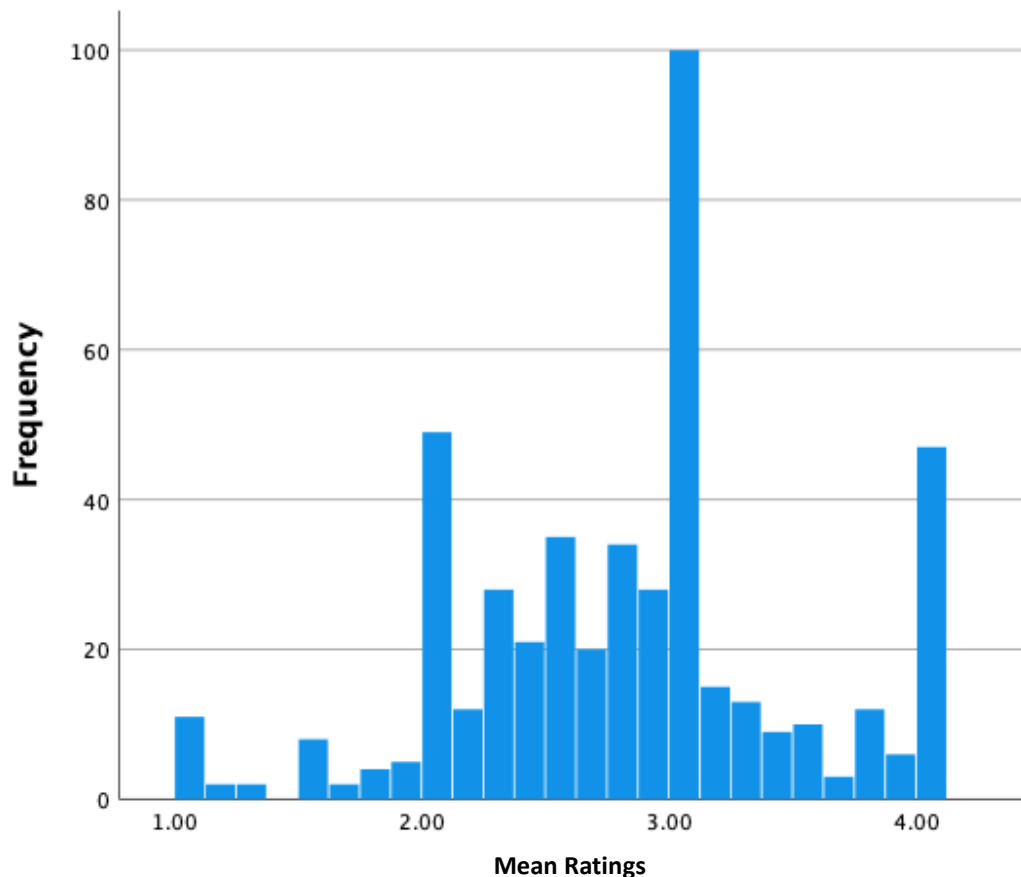


Figure 2 displays the distribution of the mean ratings of the items associated with Factor II: Disposition. The mean rating on items within this factor was 2.84, close to 3.0 (Agree). The distribution was broad, with substantial frequencies of ratings between 2.0 (Disagree) and 3.0 (Agree). In general, the distribution of mean ratings in this factor showed that participants had a positive disposition towards teaching students with each of the four types of SEN in general education, affirming their ability to teach students with SEN, that these students belong in the general education classroom for most or all of the time, and will be academically and socially successful there.

Figure 2

Distribution of Mean Rating Scores Within Factor II: Disposition

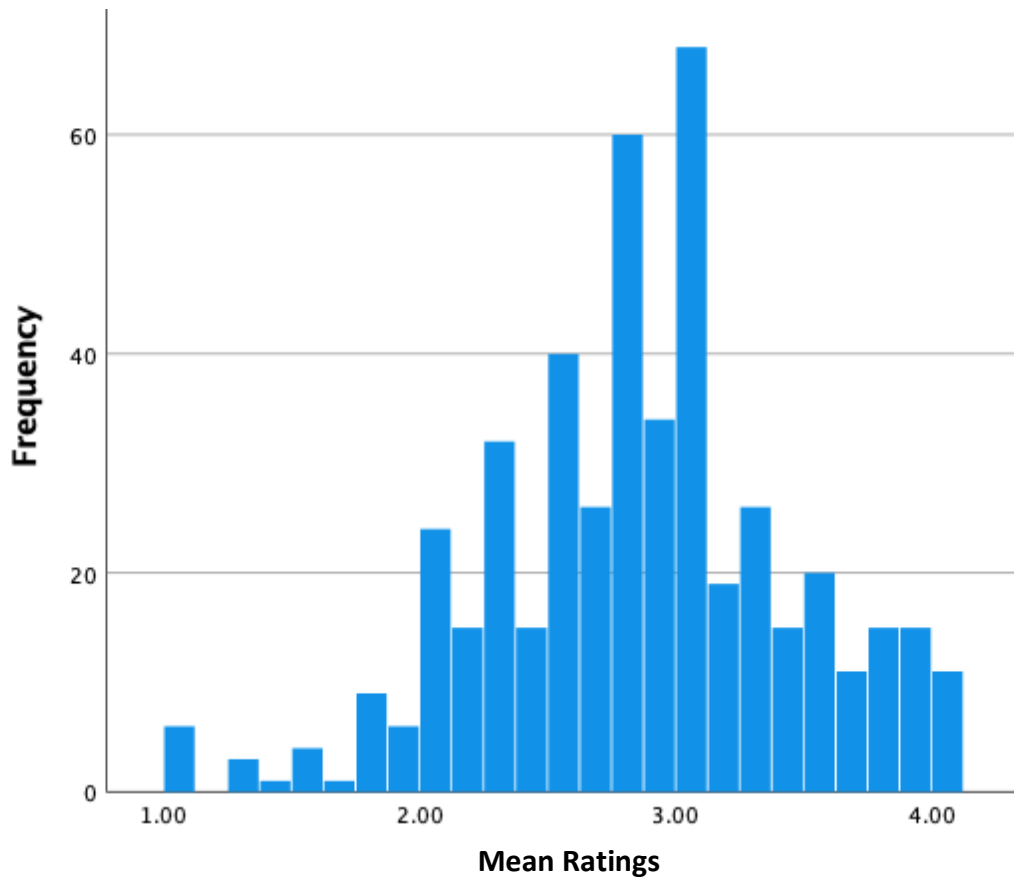


Figure 3 displays the distribution of the mean ratings of the items associated with Factor III: Institutional Support. The mean rating on items within this factor was 2.38, close to 2.0 (Disagree). The distribution included substantial ratings between 2.0 and 1.0 (Strongly Disagree), with a low frequency of ratings in the Strongly Agree (4.0) range. In general, the participants had a slightly negative orientation statements about receiving sufficient support from administration and time to prepare for inclusive instruction.

Figure 3

Distribution of Mean Rating Scores within Factor III: Institutional Support

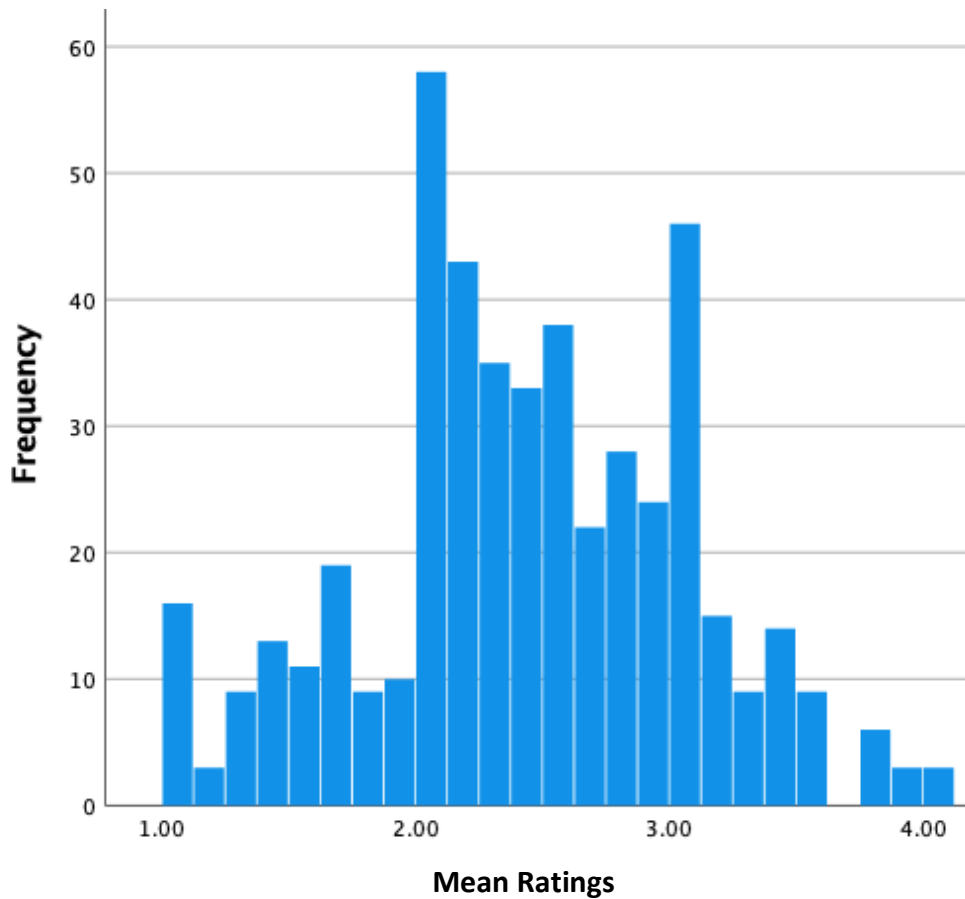


Figure 4 displays the distribution of the mean ratings of the items associated with Factor IV: SEN Strategy Knowledge. The mean rating on items within this factor was 2.72, close to 3.0 (Agree). The distribution included substantial ratings between 2.0 (Disagree) and 3.0 (Agree). Factor IV contained the most Strongly Disagree ratings of any factor, and Disagree was the most frequent rating. In general, the participants agreed with assertions about knowing instructional strategies and learner characteristics associated with the four types of SEN.

Figure 4

Distribution of Mean Score Ratings Within Factor IV: Strategy Knowledge

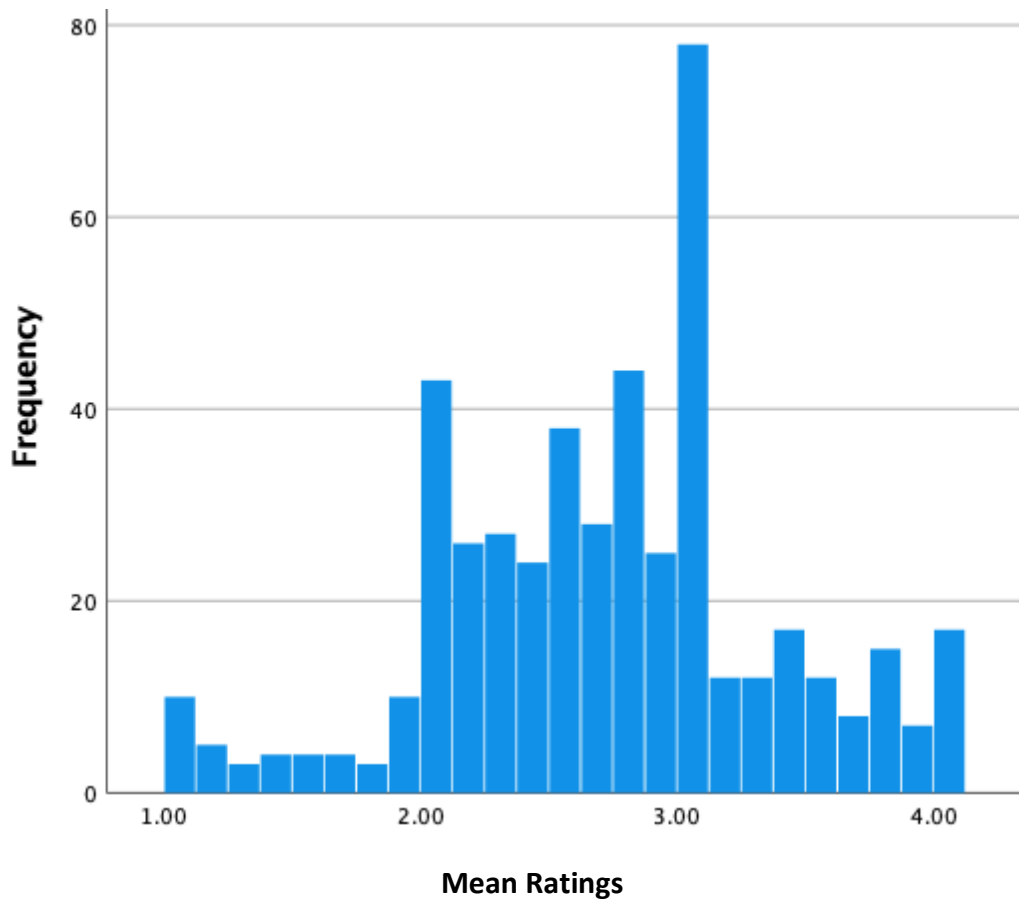


Figure 5 displays the distribution of the mean ratings of the items associated with Factor V: Workplace Inclusion. The mean rating on items within this factor was 3.12, slightly above 3.0 (Agree). The distribution included few participants with mean ratings below 2.0. In general, the participants agreed that students with SEN should be able to obtain and maintain an office job at a typical company.

Figure 5

Distribution of Mean Score Ratings within Factor V: Workplace Inclusion

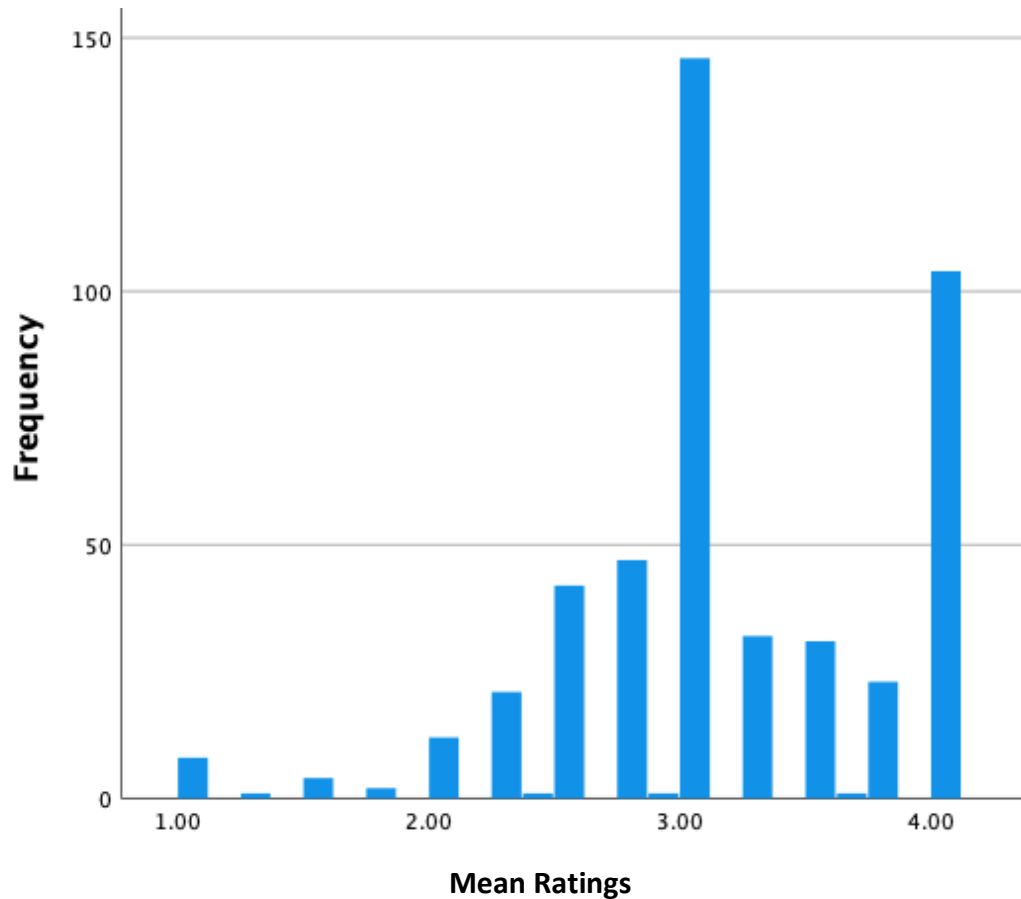
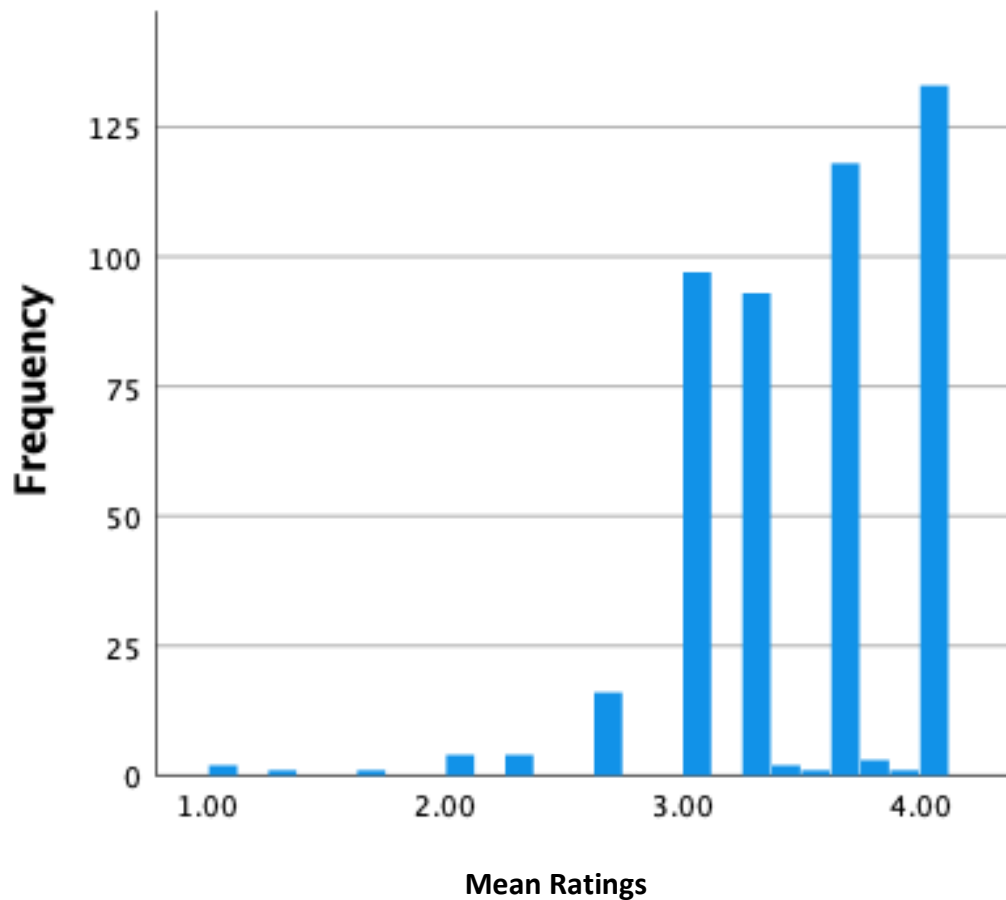


Figure 6 displays the distribution of the mean ratings on the items associate with Factor VI: Institutional Climate. The mean rating on items within this factor was 3.48, well above 3.0 (Agree). Factor 6 included the largest percentage of responses with a mean of 4.0 (strongly Agree), with more than 100 participants scoring each item in the Factor as Strongly Agree. Additionally, nearly 150 participants had mean ratings of 3.0 (Agree) while few respondents had ratings of 2.0 or lower.

Figure 6

Distribution of Mean Score Ratings within Factor VI: Institutional Climate



Multiple Linear Regression Results

I conducted six separate multiple regression analyses with each of the six factor scores used as criterion variables, with Gender, Years Experience, Grade Level Taught, School Type, Percent of Students with Special Needs Taught (% SEN), and Position entered as predictors. I employed Bonferroni's adjustment to account for possible Type 1 error associated with conducting multiple analyses with the same data set. The models

were significant for Factors I, II, III, IV, and V. The Adjusted R squared, F score, degrees of freedom, and test of significance for each model is displayed in Table 12.

Table 12

Model Summaries from Multiple Regression Analyses

Factor	Adjusted R			
	squared	df	F	Sig.
Factor I	0.155	(7) 377	11.07	< 0.001
Factor II	0.056	(7) 377	4.26	< 0.001
Factor III	0.07	(7) 377	5.11	< 0.001
Factor IV	0.181	(7) 377	13.14	< 0.001
Factor V	0.053	(7) 377	4.07	< 0.001
Factor VI	0.005	(7) 377	1.27	0.264

The adjusted R squared is a measure of shared variance among the variables in each model. The adjusted R squared were small across all of the models, although the R squared values demonstrated between 15% and 20% of explained variance for Factor I and Factor IV. The model was not significant for Factor VI.

Table 13 displays the significant findings among the predictors for each significant model. Table 13 shows that Years' Experience and % SEN were significant predictors for participant responding to items in Factor I: Independence. Based on the findings, educators with less experience teaching had higher rating of their capacity to support independence of students with SEN. It also shows that higher the percentage of

students with SEN served by a teacher was associated with higher ratings of their instructional purpose being to support students' ultimate independence. Table 13 shows that grade level taught significantly predicted responding on Factor II: Disposition and Factor III: Institutional Support. The lower the grade level taught, the more positive the educator dispositions and the higher the perceptions of having adequate institutional support to implement inclusion. Position and % SEN were significant predictors of responding on Factor IV: SEN Strategy Knowledge. The lower the percentage of students with SEN supported by the respondents, the higher their ratings of their knowledge of SEN characteristics and strategies to support students with SEN in inclusive classrooms. Because Position was a categorical predictor, I conducted a post hoc test to understand differences by position type. I found that special education teachers had significantly lower rating of their knowledge of strategies to support students with SEN in inclusive classrooms than Administrators ($p < 0.001$), Related Service Providers ($p < 0.001$), General Education Teachers ($p < 0.001$), and Other Educators ($p < 0.001$). Finally, % SEN significantly predicted perceptions of Factor V: Workplace inclusion. Educators serving higher percentages of students with SEN had higher ratings on statements affirming that students with SEN should be able to obtain and keep jobs in "professional" office settings.

Table 13*T-Tests and p-values for significant findings from multiple regression analyses*

Predictor	I: Independ. d.	II: Dispositio n	III: Institution al Support	IV: Strategy (SEN) Knowledg e	V: Workplac e Inclusion	VI: Institution al Climate
Gender						
Years Experienc e	t = -2.67 (p = 0.008)					
Grade Level Taught School Funding Type		t = -4.57 (p < 0.001)	t = -4.57 (p < 0.001)			
% SEN Taught Title or Position	t = 5.08 (p < 0.001)			t = -4.82 (p < 0.001)	t = 3.65 (p < 0.001)	
				t = 3..53 (p < 0.001)		

Qualitative Data Analysis Results

Table 14 displays the five categories, the associated subcategories, and the numbers of respective codes and the condensed meaning units they reference (references) for each level. It is important to note that the meaning units are the level of analysis, and not participants. A single participant could have resulted in multiple condensed meaning units, and subsequently multiple codes. Consequently, participant responses are reflected

across codes and categories. In the descriptions of each category below, recall that respondents can be associated with more than one meaning unit, and as such one respondent can appear in more than one category.

Table 14

Categories, subcategories, and codes from qualitative analysis

Categories	Subcategories	# Codes	# References
(Total # references)			
How (735)	(Anti) Discrimination	29	231
	Addressing Difference	25	146
	Teaching-Learning Practices	25	139
	Inclusion Model	23	94
	Equality and or Equity	26	90
	Integration Model	6	35
What (205)	Including, Incorporating,	11	65
	Integrating		
	Understanding, Respecting,	13	62
	Valuing		
	Access and Opportunity	10	45
	Policy	15	35
Why (67)	Achievement	6	42
	Liberal Values	9	25
Where (56)	Place(ment)	7	38

Categories	Subcategories	# Codes	# References
(Total # references)			
	Ideal Society or Community	4	18
Who (42)	Who is Included	12	41
	Who Includes	1	3

How Category

The majority of the responses yielded condensed meaning units that were coded and grouped within the *How* category. The *How* category included six subcategories and a total of 134 codes, 735 references, and 397 associated respondents. The *How* category represented responses that described general and specific actions associated with inclusion, or through which inclusion occurs. In other words, the way inclusion is facilitated, enacted or implemented, as well as activities and processes that were emphasized in respondents' definitions of inclusion. This category accounts for most of the qualitative data, at all levels of coding, and in the number of associated respondents.

As the categories with the greatest number of references, *(Anti) Discrimination* and *Addressing Difference* encompassed codes about dealing with human variability in education, but these two subcategories were distinguished from each other according to whether they contained codes that addressed a result, purpose, or association with the general notion of discrimination. Implicit in the *Addressing Difference* subcategory is the idea that diversity and difference, generally within the student body but in the population more generally, stimulate some kind of action on the part of the educator or educational institution. Codes in this category, for example, used verbs like “attending,” “accepting,”

“considering,” “supporting” and “responding” to “all people,” “all children,” “diversity,” “difference,” and “individuality.”

In contrast, explicitly anti-discrimination positions along with perspectives that emphasized difference or uniqueness—rather than merely the response to it—as a necessary and positive quality were grouped within (Anti) Discrimination, which is the reason for the use of the parenthetical in naming this subcategory. By far, the most references and codes fell within the subcategory of *(Anti) Discrimination*.

As a subcategory, Anti-discrimination described actions undertaken “regardless” of individual characteristics, group demographics, and special education needs. But Anti-discrimination also described *not* classifying, segregating, excluding, discriminating, and, interestingly, differentiating. For example, codes in this category labeled responses that defined inclusion as:

- “a way of not discriminating or classifying in any way”
- “avoiding enacting positive discrimination”

At the same time, responses valuing positive discrimination also appeared in this category. Although many of these used words like “difference” and “diversity,” the codes within this subcategory were distinct from the Addressing Difference subcategory because they emphasized avoiding or countering the negative, unfair specter of discrimination. For example, the *Positive Differences* code referred to meaning units about enhancing or promoting differences (e.g., “to focus on different or special abilities”) as a way of avoiding negation, marginalization, and exclusion. The *Belonging* code referred to responses that focused on the capacity of educational environments to welcome and create authentic membership in community for various individuals (e.g., “[inclusion is] a labor, social, emotional, learning, etc. system's will to make all belong in

the place it represents”). Interestingly, *Inclusive Exclusion* was a code grouped into the (Anti) Discrimination subcategory. Consider the following two references contained in this code:

- “inclusion itself is an exclusionary term, preoccupied with everyone's diversity and differences”
- “the word [inclusion] as it is should not exist, given that just by saying it we are already excluding or seeing in some other way the person who needs some form or another of extra support”

Though the Inclusive Exclusion code contained only three referenced meaning units (two of the three are shown above), these references illustrate the tension between what can be thought of as positive and negative connotations of discrimination encapsulated by definitions of inclusion.

This tension between treating “everyone” the same or treating “everyone” in distinct ways also appeared in the *Equality and Equity* subcategory. “Equity” was the word choice in 9 references labeled with four codes, while “equality” was the word choice in 56 references and 16 codes. The codes in this subcategory suggest that rather than being an outcome of or even synonymous with inclusion, *equal treatment*, *accessing same education*, and even the *same teaching* or *same methods* is how inclusion is achieved. For example:

- “everyone is the same”
- “[inclusion] is considering all people as equals, with the same rights and responsibilities”
- “all students work on the same basic objective”

Another recurring word, “same” (i.e., “same opportunity” or “same possibilities”) seems synonymous with equality, underscoring the emphasis on equality and the contrasting lack of emphasis on equity in the sample.

Meanwhile, the few responses that invoked equity per se used it as a mechanism for inclusive education:

- “the integration of equity with teaching and learning”
- “providing learning that is active, reflexive and equitable”
- “to work for and give equitable opportunity”

The only response within this subcategory that seemed to operationally define equality or equity did so using the concept of fairness, in English: “fair is not always the same; fair is giving everyone what they need to be successful.”

The subcategory *Teaching-Learning Practices* also captured a substantial portion of participants’ descriptions of how inclusion happens. The general nature of the responses coded under Teaching-Learning Practices is reflected in condensed meaning units such as:

- “bearing in mind the personal characteristics of every student in the moment that the learning-teaching process occurs”
- “[inclusion is] the perspective that sees, accepts, responds to and respects the individual characteristics of every subject”

This subcategory contained the educational practices associated with inclusion, as well as more specific actions than those described within the Addressing Difference subcategory. A majority of the references in this category were coded under *accommodations and modifications* in educational environments as well as curricula. The *intervention* code described references to the importance of “modified” or “distinct strategies” and “methods.” Additionally, meaning units about “giving” students “tools,” “strategies,” and generally “what they need” were coded within this practice-focused subcategory.

The Inclusion Model subcategory included codes that referenced typical phrases and ideas from the international non-governmental and scholarly definitions of inclusion.

Comparing the number of references coded within this subcategory to the others suggests that the associated concepts were slightly more frequent than the conceptualizations of equity and equality. There were just 94 references associated with this code, indicating that most of the responses provided contained few concepts aligned to the definitions of inclusion from the literature, which tend to construct inclusion as a systems-change based on the social model of disability. Examples of codes in this category were context adapts, holistic or harmonious development for all students, and process or paradigm.

In contrast, there were just 35 references associated with the *Integration Model*, which implies mainstreaming, or the first generation of policy about special education programs in general education schools—which omitted any expectations for systems-change. Examples of frequently used codes included *adding to the group* and *responding to special education needs (SEN)* in particular (as opposed to diversity more generally, or a wider range of identity groups). SEN-related codes were grouped under the Integration Model subcategory because the very concept of SEN arose in tandem with integration policies, and overall, the references in this category invoked notions of mainstreaming or putting “special” students “into” the education system and did not mention what happens next. For example, the response, “the job of organizing to incorporate people with special education needs into a given school environment” reflected the focus on bringing students with SEN into the school, without the broader reach that characterizes the more recent inclusive education frameworks.

What Category

The second most prominent category was the What category. There were four categories related to the What category, each with a relatively similar number of codes

and references. Within these four subcategories were 49 codes referring to 205 meaning units from 168 respondents. The What category represented definitions of inclusion as an objective entity or state, equating inclusion with nouns and gerunds as key descriptors.

Within the What category, the two subcategories with the most references were *Including, Incorporating, Integrating* and *Understanding, Respecting, Valuing*. These subcategories often encompassed circular definitions of inclusion (such as, “[inclusion is] to include everyone”) or the use of synonymous words to define inclusion, as the titles of the subcategories suggest. Codes for the Including, Incorporating, Integrating category reflected the centrality of the words “incorporate” and “integrate” (or a synonym) in the meaning units. For example, respondent definitions coded as such were:

- “it is the integration of all humans”
- “it is the 100% integration of all into the education system”
- “[inclusion is] to include all people in all the activities of daily life”

At the same time, codes associated with the Understanding, Respecting, and Values subcategory similarly included responses that hinged on those discrete words, such as, “Accept, incorporate, integrate them into the class and the society like a normal person.” Another common code here was *respecting individual characteristics* and *understanding difference as opportunity*. Examples of references coded as such are:

- “it is when we incorporate and respect every person with their personal characteristics”
- “the possibility of knowing people with different capabilities/abilities”

These codes in some ways overlapped with the Addressing Difference subcategory that was grouped into the How category. However, rather than explain inclusion according to *how* it is implemented or undertaken, the responses coded into this subcategory operationalize inclusion by describing *what* it is.

The *Access and Opportunity* subcategory included codes like, *access to* (1) *learning*, (2) *education*, and (3) *participation*. Access and Opportunity was strongly linked to references to learning and development, and included references to terms that were associated with discrete provision of access alongside opportunity, such as “giving possibilities,” “giving tools,” and “giving strategies.” Rather than opportunity being a result of inclusion or even simply a result of access, this subcategory encompassed meaning units within the respondent definitions that equated inclusion with an educational context rife with access and opportunity. For this reason, it was grouped within the What category.

The final subcategory in the What category referred to responses that conceptualized inclusion as some form of policy. The *Policy* subcategory contained coding about rights, the law, and public policy. Rights-based responses and meaning units about equality or sameness before the law were among the most prominent. The *based in law* code was created in reference to responses like, “the way in which the society executes, guarantees, and protects equality before the law for all people.” The following responses serve as examples of the kinds of references coded as *rights*:

- “guaranteeing all children's right to a quality education”
- “exercising their right to an education”
- “It is necessary not to forget that the students, prior to having a description related to their needs, are children, and in the face of this reality, they have the right to be treated in the same ways”

Interestingly, despite the references to these rights, there is no corresponding policy requiring such rights in Chile. Indeed, the Chilean constitution currently only safeguards parents’ right to choice in the educational marketplace, and the right of private entities to compete for their choices. Few responses explicitly defined inclusion as the intersection

of educational operations and public policy. One example, however, simply defined inclusion as “required by the Ministry of Education.”

One code grouped under the Policy subcategory referred to a unique phrase as well as concept in the sample: “*una educación edumétrica*,” a phrase that I and others I consulted were not familiar with. It literally translates to, “a measurement-centered education,” perhaps associated with accountability reforms, standardized testing, and maybe even the 2016 Inclusion Law quotas for admitting “vulnerable” students into schools (Sillard et al., 2018).

Why Category

Substantially fewer subcategories (2), codes (15), references (67), and respondents (64) comprised the *Why* category. The *Why* category encapsulated concepts related to the desired result, the ultimate reason for, and/or the goals of inclusion. Codes typically referred to an achievement concept, or more generalized liberal values linking inclusion to a broader societal concern. For example, *achieving learning* was the most common code within the *Achievement* subcategory, followed by *achieving* (1) *common objectives*, (2) *individual objectives*, or (3) *success*. Examples of responses references in this subcategory were:

- “so that all students acquire the contents that I am teaching”
- “arriving at the same end is what really matters”
- “trying to make whoever has difficulties feel as if they can achieve their goals”

Each of these definitions are associated with an achievement type of outcome.

The *Liberal Values* category included a broader range of codes, many of which only occurred once, but were all linked to ideas about individual wellbeing in democratic

society as the ultimate results of inclusive education. Codes related to equality before the law and rights might have been grouped here as well, but were not because those previously-described codes and subcategories did not relate to the *why* behind inclusion. *Maximizing potential* and *universal benefit* were the most frequent codes, and included responses such as:

- “in such a way as to develop their maximal social, cultural and intellectual capabilities”
- “for the benefit of the wellbeing of the society”

Infrequent codes like *participation in society*, *goal of democracy*, *education is deserved* illustrate the range of unique concepts within this category, demonstrating a lack of a cohesive definition of inclusion even at this level of the analysis.

Where Category

The *Where* category included just two subcategories, 11 codes, and 56 references from 53 respondents. The *Where* category includes meaning units that focused on the location of inclusion at various levels like society, the specific physical site, or a more general setting that was nonetheless central to the meaning unit.

The *Place(ment)* subcategory contained most of the codes and references, and represented definitions of inclusion as a type of placement or a kind of place. This referred to typical special education placements as a primary location of learning for a student with SEN as well as to more general places and spaces for all students, not just those with SEN. The code most frequently identified in the subcategory was *Placement*, even though placement referred to a subcategory and a code. This subcategory included meaning units such as:

- “to integrate the student with special needs alongside their classmates”

- “It is when you have students with special needs in your classroom”

This category also included conceptualizations of placement that also touched on participation, coexistence, and the conviction that all students can learn—in a setting that is inclusive. For example,

- “making the student into a participant within the class”
- “space where everyone can coexist”
- “generating spaces where all kids can learn”

were references in this category.

The Where category also included the subcategory *Ideal Society or Community*, although it was an infrequently identified code with few references. This subcategory included definitions that cast community and society as critical (if utopian) sites for defining inclusion, although the responses tended towards language about insertion (this was typical in the Integration Model subcategory in the How category). Examples include responses like:

- “into a social system, be it educational, recreational, professional or otherwise”
- “when all people are inserted into the society in a way respectful of their differences, needs, and ways of thinking”

This subcategory also included global but indirect perceptions of place such as:

- “where we are all important and where we can all contribute something”
- “this should be coordinated with the family system and external professionals who through consistency and coherence support the process”

It also included global perceptions of inclusion as a community-based action, such as “an imperative to create a consciousness in the community around children and youth with special education needs.”

Who Category

The Who category referred definitions that included language about the individuals involved in inclusion. This was the least-frequently populated category with just two subcategories. The two subcategories represented the individuals that were identified as subjects or objects in inclusive education (the former with just one code referencing three responses). The objects of inclusion were the focus of 40 respondents in 41 meaning units across the codes in the Who is Included category. About half of these referred to “all” students, people, types, participants. For example, meaning units referred to “everyone,” “all people or students who need direct or indirect help from society to be integrated,” and “children with all types of learning styles,” as recipients of inclusion. Or, they described inclusion as something given “to all people who need it.” The other half of codes in this subcategory made more specific references to a broad range of groups including those who present with some indicator of vulnerability (otherwise known as at-risk) such as, immigrant, special education need, sexual dissent (LGBTQ+) etc. They also referred to representations of learners such as:

- “cannot learn in the same way as the average student”
- “people who have difficulties (be they cognitive or physical)”
- “those students who learn at superior levels”
- “foreign students”

more concretely. One code, School, Professionals, Family referred to just three meaning units from three different respondents whose definitions of inclusion elaborated on the individuals involved in inclusion. The references included the following:

- “with this end in mind, the school, teachers, and family seek better conditions”
- “supported by the different professionals dedicated to working with the children in our school”

- “this should be coordinated with the family system and external professionals who through consistency and coherence support the process”

These were potentially the most robust descriptions of the individuals involved, but this was the smallest category with the fewest codes and references in the database.

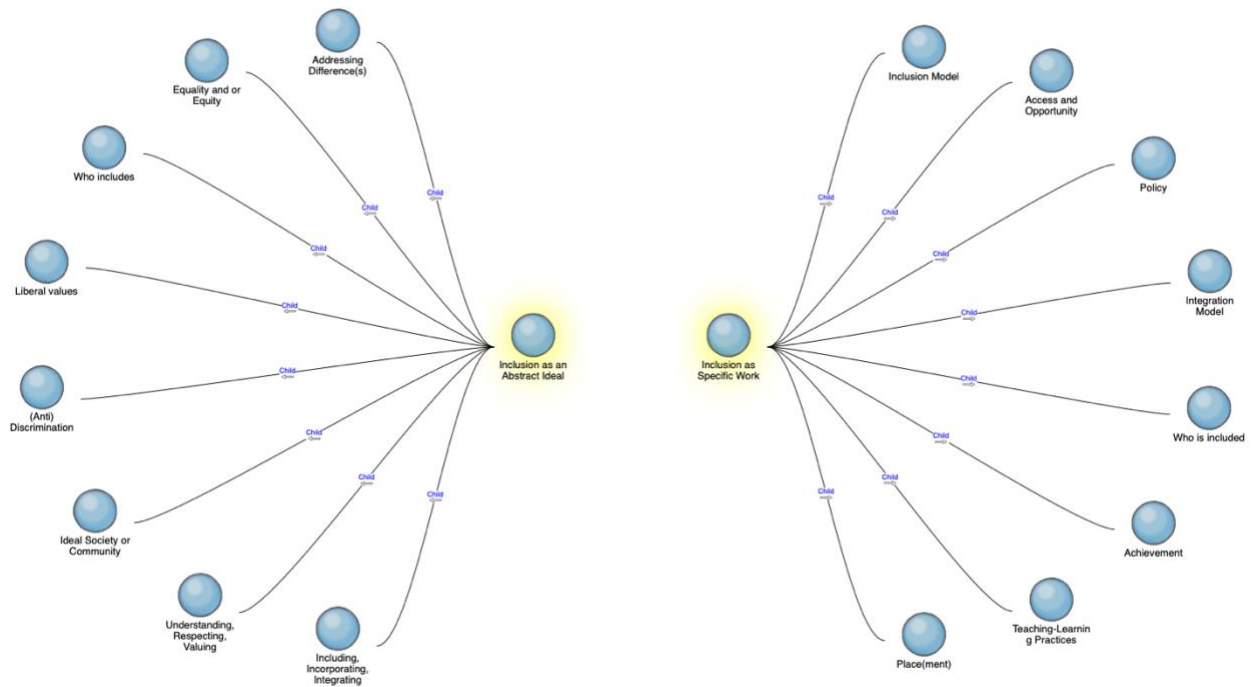
Themes

The overlaps between sub-categories and categories suggested two themes that transcended all levels of the data analysis. These themes reflect two fundamentally different ways that the participants conceptualized their understanding of inclusion:

Inclusion as an Abstracted Ideal and *Inclusion as Specific Work*. The former is associated with the majority of references and codes, but both themes are evenly represented across the categories, as reflected in Figure 7.

Figure 7

Model of the subcategories linked to the two overarching themes



Inclusion As Specific Work. Inclusion as Specific Work is associated with subcategories related to practicing or implementing inclusion in education. These subcategories included codes associated with practices and frameworks that are practical in nature and linked to inclusion as an applied process (e.g., “reducing barriers” or “context adapts”). Concepts like accommodations and modifications, learning objectives, and access to the curriculum represent forms of professional activities specific to primary and secondary educators working in schools in Chile today, even if they are not explicitly “inclusive” schools, and even if they are not technically “special” educators. Knowledge of these concepts, and the capacity to implement them, constitutes a kind of professional capital associated with inclusion. Subcategories such as Teaching-Learning Practices,

Achievement, and Access and Opportunity are specific to the work of implementing, practicing, complying with inclusive education policies and approaches, which are associated with a specific professional responsibility of educators.

Inclusion as an Abstract Ideal. The Inclusion as an Abstract Ideal theme accounted for substantially more of the responses and associated codes. The construct is associated with abstracted definitions of inclusion that are based on conceptualizations of equity, equality, and larger idealized visions for inclusive societies. Subcategories such as (Anti) Discrimination, Ideal Society or Community, and Liberal Values convey participants' perceptions of inclusion generally, as citizens—not necessarily educators. Akin to values, these definitions are subjective, aspirational, felt, and are more difficult to operationalize. In some ways, they reflect less pedagogical perspectives and more theoretical and sociological perspectives. In some ways, these views reflect an “art” of teaching in an inclusive way, whereas the Inclusion as Specific Work construct could be considered to define the “science” of inclusive practice.

Word Frequency Analyses Results

I conducted word frequency counts at the initial stages of the coding on the original responses and the condensed meaning units. The built-in stop words for Spanish (Mexico) and English (United States) were utilized in each case.

Spanish Responses Word Frequencies. I conducted a word count analysis to understand the frequency of words used in the participant responses, under the assumption that these frequencies provide some indication of how meaningful various concepts in the definitions are. I used NVIVO to conduct this analysis. Table 14 displays

the most commonly used words, the frequency of the words, and the percent of the total words used in the original Spanish responses.

The word frequency analysis of the original Spanish responses revealed that words similar to *estudiantes*, or students, was the most frequent (2.26%, weighted) followed by words similar to *personas*, or people (2.09). This contrasts with the fact that the smallest category that emerged from the content analysis was the Who category; however, the most prominent subcategory within the Who category was the objects of inclusion—students. Otherwise, however, the frequent words mirrored the sub-categories and categories. Inclusion was the most frequently used word in original Spanish responses. Table 15 of Spanish word frequencies with weighted percentages above 0.99% is shown below.

Table 15

Word counts, rankings, and percentages for responses in Spanish

Rank Eng.	Rank Span.	Original (Spanish) word	Similar (Spanish) words	English equivalent(s)	#	%
1	1	Estudiantes,	Estudia, estudiante,	Student, study	139 +	2.26
		Alumnos**	Alumnado, alumnas,		61 =	+
			alumno, alumnos		200	0.99
						=
						3.25*
						*

Rank	Rank	Original	Similar	English	#	%
Eng.	Span.	(Spanish)	(Spanish)	equivalent(
		word	words	s)		
16	2	Inclusión*	Inclusion, Incluyendo,	Inclusion	112 +	1.82
			Includia, incluidas,		67 =	+1.09
			incluido, incluir,		179	=
			incluirlas, incluirlos,			2.91
			incluirse, incluya...			
3	3	Personas	Persona	People, person	129	2.09
2	4	Educativos	Educaciones,	Educational,	119	1.93
			educación, educadoras,	educator, educate,		
			educativos, educar...	education		
5	5	Aprendizaje	Aprendizajes	Learning	112	1.82
	6	Todas	Toda, todos, todes	All	111	1.80
6	7	Diferentes	Diferencia, diferencias,	Different,	101	1.64
			diferente	differences,		
				difference		
7	8	Diversidad	Diversas, diversidades,	Diverse, diversity	100	1.62
			diverso, diversos			
4	9	Necesidades	Nececidad	Need, necessities	99	1.61
10	10	Capacidades	Capaces, capacidad	Capabilities,	82	1.33
&				abilities,		
12				capacities		

Rank	Rank	Original	Similar	English	#	%
Eng.	Span.	(Spanish)	(Spanish)	equivalent(
		word	words	s)		
9	11	Partícipes	Participación, participant, participando, participantes, participar...	Participation, participants, participate	73	1.18
14	12	Integrar	Integra, integración, integrados, integrantes, integrarlas, integrarlo, integrarlos, integrarse...	Integration, integrate, integrated, integrants	63	1.02
	13	Cada	.	Each	62	1.01
	14	Alumnos**	Alumnado, alumnas, alumno, alumnos	Students	61	0.99

*Variants of inclusion were summed manually.

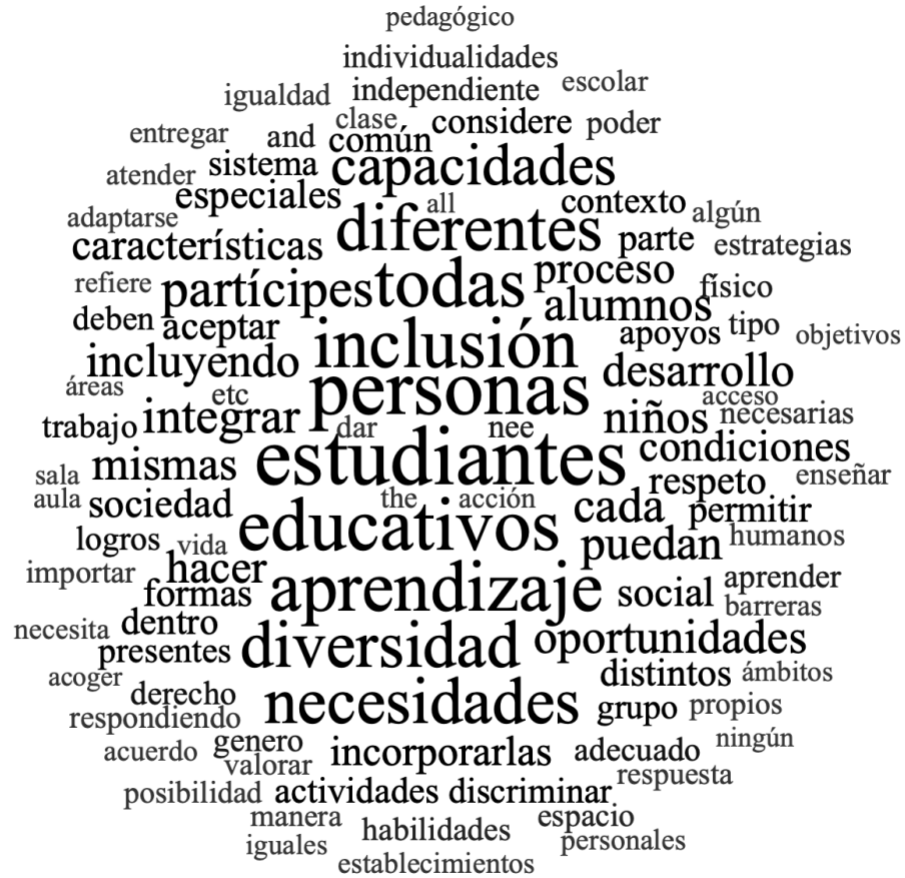
***Estudiantes* and *alumnos* are both translated simply as “student” in English. However, in Chile during the time this study was conducted, some special education teachers indicated a preference for *estudiante*, associating it with a more equitable dynamic between student and teacher, given that the root of *alumno* is *luz*, or light, and many educators felt this word suggested, erroneously, that educators illuminate or give light to

students, who are otherwise in the dark. Hence it is interesting to note the dominance of *estudiante*.

I then developed a word cloud of showing the most frequent of the 1,000 most-utilized words in the original Spanish language responses. Figure 8 shows the word cloud developed. The prominence of the word “inclusion” might be due to most participant’s definitions of inclusion beginning with something along the lines of, “Inclusion is...”. This may simply be the result of them responding to the question by rephrasing it at the beginning of their answer, or it might point to the lack of ability to clearly define, or find synonymous words and concepts, for inclusion. These results show that the responses included substantial references to students in particular, people in general, and about their education and learning. Interestingly, schooling in particular and establishments or institutions are mentioned less frequently than these more abstract concepts of education and learning. This might suggest that respondents link inclusion to both education and society more generally. Also, it implies that inclusion is first and foremost a human-centered value, rather than a policy or even a (human) right.

Figure 8

Word cloud of most frequent words in participant responses: Spanish



Given the language-based contrast between integration and inclusion, it is also interesting to note that *integrar* does show up as a most frequently used word, though far less than many of the other terms, and almost a third as much as words derived from *inclusión*. Participation-related vocabulary, as well as words related to needs and abilities, suggests that these concepts are key to understanding how respondents defined inclusion in multi-dimensional ways. In particular, the frequency of *capacidades* is noteworthy because in Spanish this word is frequently used interchangeably with *habilidades*, though

the latter is more literally translated as “capability” or “capacity,” while the former would be “abilities.” This tendency in Spanish might bely a sort of schematic priming for definitions of inclusion that hinge on the capability approach to equity-based inclusive education and students with disabilities (Dubois & Trani, 2009; Terzi, 2014; Trani et al., 2011). Also notable is what does not show up most frequently: words specifically naming disability.

English Condensed Meaning Unit Word Frequencies. I also conducted a word frequency analysis on the translated, English condensed meaning units I used during coding. I used NVIVO to conduct this analysis. Table 16 displays the most commonly used words, the frequency of the words, and the percent of the total words used in the translated and summarized English responses. It is important to note that during the translation, I did not translate the beginning of the definition when the first words were “Inclusion....” Consequently, there was a substantially lower frequency of “inclusion” in the English analysis.

Table 16*Word counts, rankings, and percentages for responses in English*

Rank	Rank	English word	Similar	Spanish	#	%
Span.	Eng.		(English)	equivalent(s)		
			words			
1	1	Students	Student, students'	Estudiante, alumno	233	4.06
4	2	Educator	Educate, education, educational	Educativo	179	3.12
3	3	People	Person	Persona	158	2.75
9	4	Needs	Need	Necesidad	152	2.65
5	5	Learns	Learning, learn	Aprendizaje	144	2.51
7	6	Different	Difference, differences	Diferencia	139	2.42
8	7	Diversity	Diverse	Diversidad	101	1.76
n/a	8	Special	Specialized, specializing	n/a	77	1.34
11	9	Participation	Participant, participants, participate	Partícipe	76	1.32
10*	10	Abilities	Ability	Capacidad	72	1.25

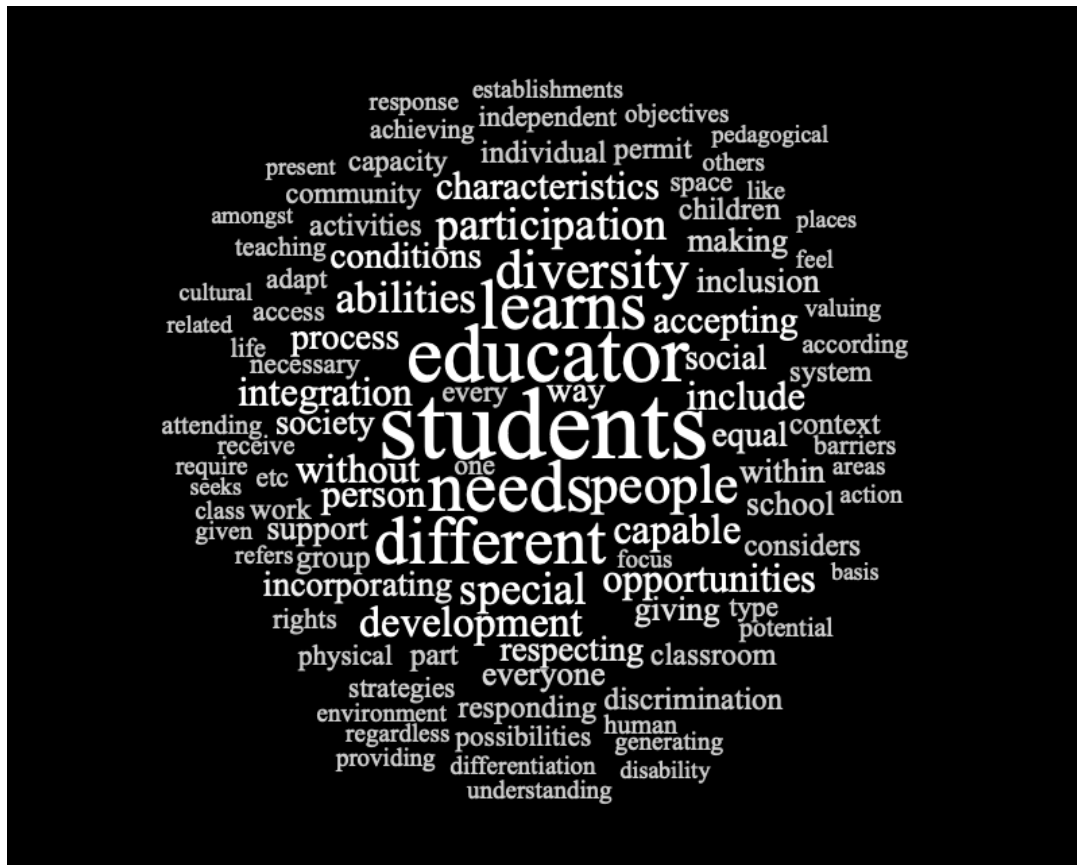
Rank	Rank	English word	Similar	Spanish	#	%
Span.	Eng.		(English)	equivalent(s)		
			words			
n/a	11	Development	Developing, development	n/a	69	1.20
10*	12	Capable	Capabilities, capability	capacidad	62	1.08
n/a	13	Opportunities	Opportunity	n/a	61	1.06
12	14	Integration	Integrate, integral, integrated	Integración	61	1.06
n/a	15	Without	.	n/a	60	1.04
1	16	Include	Included, including, includes	Inclusión	59	1.03

Two notable changes exist in the rankings of word frequencies, as observable in Table 13 and Figure 9 (below), from Spanish to English. One involved the word “inclusion,” which was removed during the translation and summarization of meaning units if it occurred in the beginning of the response. The other is the appearance of the word “special” in English, which does not figure prominently in the Spanish. This may be due to the fact that “differential education” is the literal English translation of the Spanish version of “special education.” Another possible explanation is that in the course of

creating translated, summarized, condensed meaning units in English, which totalled more than double the number of original responses, “special” may have been repeated and added. In any case, “special” and its derivatives appear about 43 times in the original Spanish responses, while they appear 77 times in the English condensed meaning units.

Figure 9

Word cloud of most frequent words in participant responses: English



CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

This study investigated perceptions and practices associated with inclusive education in Chile amongst K-12 educators in a range of positions across public and private schools throughout the country. To contribute to the international empirical basis for inclusive education policies, and to support cross-cultural collaboration within the fields of critical disability studies in education and special education, this study resulted in a reliable and valid instrument to be used to understand educator perceptions of inclusion, special education needs (SEN), and pedagogical practices. Through a convergent mixed methods cross-sectional survey design and a non-probabilistic maximal variation snowball sampling strategy drawn from the national population, respondents completed the Chilean Spanish version of the online, self-administered International Inclusion Survey. The concurrent design used identical samples for the quantitative data analysis (n=476) and the qualitative data analysis (n=468). Respondents used Likert-scales to rate their agreement with statements about the purposes of their instruction and education, knowledge of SEN and instructional strategies, and the feasibility and desirability of inclusion. They also used open text fields to define inclusion, SEN, and respond to problems of practice. To merge the two sets of results, content areas represented in both studies are compared, contrasted, and/or synthesized in the discussion.

The results of the exploratory factor analysis indicate that the International Inclusion Survey was adequately adapted to the Chilean context and Spanish language. The instrument went through a robust translation process that included substantial input

from multiple experts in Chile. I found that the instrument was reliable, with very strong internal consistency. I also found that the instrument yielded a parsimonious model with six factors. The survey had robust construct validity and extremely high reliability.

Factor Structure

The EFA yielded six meaningful final factors that described 55.7% of the total variance. The six factor solution were partially aligned to structures of two other frameworks in the literature. The Auto-Adscription to Inclusion survey (Castro-Rubilar et al., 2017) consisted of six factors that claimed to underly educators' adscription to inclusion as a paradigm in education: teaching for learning for all; building inclusive community; curricular design for diversity; school policies for diversity; inclusive practices in schools; and development of inclusive culture. These were then condensed into three factors, labeled Pedagogical Practices, Inclusive Cultures, and Inclusive Policies, consistent with studies cited by Castro-Rubilar et al. (2017) that had been previously conducted in Mexico and Spain. The Castro-Rubilar (2017) instrument was based on the Index of Inclusion (Booth & Ainscow, 2002a), an approach embraced in Chilean policy. The Index is broken into three dimensions with two sections each, for a total of six variables deemed as critical underlying factors in the implementation of inclusion in schools. The three dimensions were Inclusive Cultures, Policies, and Practices, which encompass Creating Community and Establishing Values, Developing a School for All and Organizing Support for Diversity, as well as Orchestrating Learning Processes and Mobilizing Resources, respectively.

The six factors from the International Inclusion Survey in Chile have substantive similarities and differences with the Culture, Practices, and Policies triumvirate

established in the literature. Factor IV: SEN and Strategy Knowledge clearly relates to inclusive practices. The items about educator beliefs in Factor II: Disposition can be understood as cultural constructs related to community and values. With items about administrative support for teaching inclusively, and items about the characteristics typifying inclusive schools, Factor III: Institutional Support and Factor VI: Institutional Climate align with Policies. But, notably, Factor I: Socio-Economic Independence and Factor V: Workplace Inclusion emerge unique, relating educators' purposes in K-12 inclusive schooling to socio-economic status and employment. These are novel structures, and no other instrument appears to have interrogated teachers' sense of purpose in teaching students with SEN inclusively; nor does the literature on Chile reviewed establish a connection between inclusive education and socio-economic outcome as a component of educator approaches, beliefs, attitudes, practices, etc. This is a primary contribution of this study, resulting in an important mechanism for understanding the underlying factors associated with educator perceptions of inclusive education.

Interpretation of Specific Factors

The separation of teachers' vocational purpose and socio-economic independence in Factor I, from assertions that students with SEN "should" be able to obtain "office" jobs in Factor V, warrants further inquiry. The weak loadings and correlations in Factor VI also warrant further inquiry or revision, particularly in light of the results of the qualitative definitions of inclusion, which showed that these are highly variable in this sample.

The second most robust factor, IV: SEN Strategy Knowledge, was moderately and negatively correlated to all the other factors. This suggests that the more educators agreed with the purpose of their instruction being socio-economic independence (Factor I), their ability to teach students with SEN in a general education classroom (Factor II), the adequacy of administrative support (Factor III), and certain key characteristics of inclusive climates (Factor VI), the lower their self-reported ratings about specific SEN classification characteristics and instructional strategies. The inverse holds as well: those who would have responded with high regard for their own SEN strategy knowledge would then have disagreed about the essential correspondence between their instruction and socio-economic purposes, their own inclusive dispositions when teaching all students in the general education classroom, and the adequacy of the institutional climate around inclusion.

Given that post-hoc regression analyses showed that special educators tended to rank themselves lower on Factor IV-SEN Strategy Knowledge than all other professionals, this could suggest that those who feel quite advanced in their SEN strategy knowledge may recognize the general state of inclusive education in place in their own educational settings as inadequate. The inverse—stronger agreement about preparing students for socio-economic independence, stronger disposition towards inclusive instruction in the classroom, and stronger satisfaction with institutional implementation of inclusion, and lower knowledge of SEN—may reflect a more abstracted perception of inclusion that becomes clearer as it approaches the practitioner's concrete skills.

The second most robust factor in the International Inclusion Survey, II-Disposition, links statements relating teachers' appraisal of their ability to teach students

with the four types of special education needs to their expectations of success in general education for those students and to the extent to which they value the guiding principle of placement in general education for these students. This supports previous research that developed educator dispositions, or stances toward, inclusion (Urbina et al., 2011).

The third factor is better understood in light of the sixth factor, which is perhaps the most useful application of the sixth factor in understanding the quantitative results. Educators have a stronger reaction to assertions of administrative support than to assertions about the need for their own collaboration. While it has been well-documented that educators almost universally do not feel consistently supported in their institutions to comply with educational policy reforms, the factor structure here suggests that educators attribute support externally and hierarchically, rather than horizontally (i.e., support from colleagues is not associated with administrative support).

Importantly, the sixth factor is the weakest factor and was also the only factor with no significant association with the predictors in the multiple regression analysis. This factor loaded six of the eight items that were designed to measure participants' conceptions of North American and European concepts of inclusion and inclusion models, although the final six-factor solution only loaded three of these at suitable levels. Notably, the item about inclusion as placement did not load onto this or any factor while the item about inclusion as support in general education was one of those final three items appearing in Factor VI: Institutional Climate. This may be because, as Baglieri et al. (2011) noted, the international conceptualization of inclusion, which is not placement-based, figures more prominently outside of the U.S., and even perhaps Europe.

Quantitative Insights into Participant Conceptualizations of Inclusion

The weakness of this sixth factor and the associated loading of the items may provide some insight into international conceptualizations of inclusion that have yet to be examined in the literature. As discussed in the previous Factor Structure section, the Culture/Practice/Policies instrumentalized models of inclusion, primarily from European research, that have been taken up in Chilean policy may partially overlap with Chilean conceptualizations, but not completely. This finding further suggests that Chilean conceptualizations of inclusion may not be substantially aligned to the European and North American constructs of inclusion as a systematic integration of students with disabilities into inclusive education environments with necessary services and supports based on the respective student needs. In fact, it appears that the Chilean educators understand inclusion primarily as an educational experience that supports students in achieving financial independence as socio-economic success as adults.

Previous landmark scholarship on variations of education that go by the same word, inclusion, focused on North America and European publications and created four categories of definitions of inclusion implicitly or explicitly operating in the international research on inclusive education: (a) placement in general education classrooms, (b) specified individualized, or “inclusion as meeting the social/academic needs of pupils with disabilities/pupils in need of special support”, (c) general individualized, or meeting social/academic the needs of all students, and (d) community – “inclusion as the creation of communities with specific characteristics” (Nilholm & Göransson, 2017). In fact, Nilholm and Göransson (2017) found that a majority of the papers in their study operationalized it—implicitly—as placement. Given that this is the definition that did *not* show up in the quantitative scale validation of this study, Nilholm & Göransson’s seminal

conclusions about the proliferation of conceptualizations of inclusion in international research may be inaccurately over-generalizing beyond the scope of what is explained solely from within European and North American borders. Furthermore, Amor et al. (2019) recently conducted the first systematic literature review to include Spanish-language, peer-reviewed publications on inclusive education also found significant differences between English and Spanish-language papers in this area. Applied to this study, one of their more relevant findings may be that theorizing inclusion took up a greater proportion of the articles on inclusion published in Spanish journals (as opposed to the share dedicated to theorizing inclusion in the English-language articles reviewed) (Amor et al., 2019). It is possible that the multiple dimensions underlying enacting inclusive education are more developed, complex, or a queered, hybridization of border-crossing influences (in the Anzaldúan tradition of *mestizaje*) (Anzaldúa, 1987).

In terms of inclusive education policy, there appears to be either a disconnect between the Chilean policies associated with inclusion and the conceptualization of inclusion by the participants of this study, or, the participants in this study reflect the pastiche of policies on integration, inclusion, disability, socio-economic segregation, immigration, equity and equality that vie for space in the country's education marketplace. This position is also supported by the findings from the qualitative findings associated with definitions of inclusion, which were heterogeneous and not closely connected to the U.S. based constructs of inclusion as a form of specialized education support, nor to intergovernmental agreements about human rights, but rather, reflected the mix of international influence on national policy that characterizes the Chilean school

integration program (the country's special education system) and the national education reform legislated recently through the sweeping Inclusion Law of 2016.

Mean Ratings by Factor

There was substantial variation in participant responding across the items within each of the factors. Mean responding was positively oriented towards I: Independence, II: Dispositions, IV: SEN Strategy Knowledge, V: Workplace Inclusion, and VI: Institutional Climate, but negatively oriented to III: Institutional Support. The finding that educators in this sample disagree with assertions about having sufficient administrative support to implement inclusion corroborates previous findings in the literature, as previously discussed. The distributions across the Independence, Dispositions, and Strategy Knowledge factors included substantial numbers of participants with low mean ratings. Only the Workplace Inclusion and Institutional Climate factors had few participants with negative mean ratings.

Relationships Between Factors and Participant Characteristics

The regression analyses showed that there were significant models for five of the six factors, although the variance explained was very small for three of the five models. Less experienced educators and educators with higher percentages of students with SEN had higher ratings of I: Independence factor items. This suggests that educators with greater levels of exposure to students with special needs agree more strongly that their instructional efforts are directed towards preparing these students to be socio-economically independent once they age out of school. At the same time, educators with less teaching experience had lower ratings of Independence. It is possible that younger educators either have more expansive or more limited beliefs about the purpose of their

work when it comes to students with SEN. Given the long-documented role of teacher expectations on student achievement, this finding opens a number of implications, ranging from A.) educators working with larger numbers of students with SEN may tend to expect them to ultimately assimilate into an independent, rather than interdependent, model of successful adulthood, to B.) educators with more experience may hold limited expectations about the post-school outcomes for these students in Chile.

Educators of lower grade levels had higher ratings of II: Dispositions and III: Institutional Supports. This corroborates prior findings as previously discussed, such as those in Urbina et al. (2011). Given that Special Education in Chile has long been concentrated, and in many cases limited to, elementary grades, this finding likely reflects that history.

Educators who had higher percentages of students with special needs had lower ratings of IV: SEN Strategy Knowledge. Special educators also had lower ratings of Strategy Knowledge than other professions. This indicates at least two possibilities. One, that special educators realize how much there is to know about SEN and SEN strategies because their actual knowledge of the required needs of students with SEN reveals how difficult supporting those students is in less inclusive settings. This may have resulted in lower self-assessments of their knowledge compared to other educators with less theoretical and practical expertise. Regardless of whether these hypotheses explain these trends, social desirability and acquiescence bias may play a part, as may concepts from social psychology such as the Dunning-Kruger effect or illusory superiority, wherein people have overly-positive illusions about their abilities. Phenomena such as these might

also explain why the mean ratings on every factor tended towards Agree—with the exception of Factor III: Institutional Support.

The significant relationship between the II: Disposition and III: Institutional Support factors and Grade Levels Taught predictor variable may be related to the limits of the School Integration Program, as special education is known in Chile. After sixth grade the provision of special education services in Chile becomes more limited.

The SEN Strategy Knowledge factor interacted significantly with the percentage of students with SEN and the professional title, or position, of the responding educator. Special education teachers tended to rate themselves lower on this factor. The relationship with % of SEN was... Percentage of students with SEN was also significantly related to the Workplace Inclusion factor, which was conceptually similar to the Independence Factor. This suggests that when respondents are responsible for a greater number of students with SEN, they ascribe a sense of purpose to their work that has to do with socio-economic independence, and that they will rate themselves lower on the strategy knowledge, perhaps because they recognize how much more there is to know about learner variability and diverse instructional approaches.

Definitions of Inclusion

A purpose of this mixed methods crossover analysis (Hitchcock & Onwuegbuzie, 2020) was to explore the qualitative definitions of inclusion provided by educators who responded to the survey and determine the frequency, if any, of themes identified in the quantitative instrument validation analysis as well as whether there is any relationship between respondents' qualitative definitions and their quantitative perceptions of inclusion (i.e., are there profiles of educators?). Despite earlier attempts to arrive at

unified theories or conceptualizations, the international literature on inclusive education has increasingly documented the proliferation of operationalizations of inclusion in and even within single instances of policy, research, and practice, and called for further scholarly attention to such subjectivity (de Boer et al., 2012; Pit-ten Cate et al., 2018; Przibilla, Linderkamp, et al., 2018; Scheer et al., 2020). Analyses have shown that contradicting conceptualizations of inclusion are at work in United Nations, World Health Organization, and International Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development policies (Ainscow & Miles, 2008; Kiuppis, 2014; Magnússon, 2019; Miles & Singal, 2010), raising questions about whether inclusive education and the implied human rights can exist meaningfully under accepted globalized neoliberal economic structures (Gentili, 2009, 2010; Waitoller, 2020; Waitoller et al., 2015), and whether public education systems can continue to maintain separate special education schools without violating the inclusive education right of children with disabilities outlined in the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (in 2020, the UN Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities found, in its first-ever decision on the right to inclusive education, that Spain had violated this right by maintaining segregated special schools).

Interpretation of Themes Drawn from Participant Definitions

The definitions of inclusion can be understood through two overarching themes. The themes, Inclusion as Abstracted Ideal and Inclusion as Specific Work, help to understand the two large ways that the participants conceptualized inclusion – and helped to shape the way that the participants consider the one half of the “two distinct problems

of social justice” raised by disability and impairment: fair treatment of people with disabilities, and the needs of those who provide their care (Nussbaum, 2006).

The themes, categories, and subcategories reveal several problems in the way that the issues associated with inclusion (or lack of inclusion) were conceptualized by the participants. Primarily, there were no tightly defined codes and a major lack of alignment across the participant definitions. Instead, the definitions were broad and diverse, suggesting a lack of a coherent understanding or conceptualization of inclusion within the sample. The breadth of responses and the constructs associated with those responses frame the void in orthodox theories of justice when it comes to disability, as Nussbaum (2006) illustrates in her critique of Rawls’ liberal social contract political theory. Without philosophical underpinnings that take disability into account, the language democratic societies have for justice in education is incomplete.

Inclusion in Europe and North America in particular is framed through ratified international conventions (the US has yet to ratify the 2016 UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities) or strict policy perspectives including standards-based accountability policies, dominated by special education systems, and supported by tightly aligned teacher preparation programs, that, all together, reinforce a narrow concept of inclusive education (Ainscow et al., 2006; Baglieri et al., 2011; Cochran-Smith et al., 2018; Keifer-Boyd et al., 2018; Wexler, 2016). In contrast, the definitions provided in this sample reflected a bit of each of these influences, rather than a cohesive framing of disability or inclusive education. Instead, the responses from this sample revealed an paradoxical understanding of inclusion that was shaped by a discordant combination of practical educational considerations and abstract ideals. The constructs from this sample

arguably go so far as to suggest that in Chile, meeting the full range of learner needs (as the various models of inclusion exported to Chile over time claim to do) means that schooling practices that distinguish between what is “general” and “special” are increasingly giving way to ever wider and possibly vaguer meanings of inclusive education.

As an abstracted ideal, inclusion in this sample is conceptualized primarily as opposition to oppressive, exclusionary forms of discrimination on the basis of human equality and dignity. However, a highly generalized anti-discrimination, a broad rejection of apparently all histories of marginalization and/or oppression along various dynamics (socio-economic, racial, nationality, gender, disability, and “special education needs”) in education, permits confused co-existing concepts that conflate equity and equality, or treating “everyone the same” with addressing individual “differences” and group “diversity.” It seems that educators grapple with making sense of the imperative to include students in educational structures and traditions, and the society beyond, given that these were so clearly not designed for the full scope of human variability increasingly understood as a “normal” aspect of the continuum of human life. As Nussbaum (2006) notes,

Social contract theories...imagine the contracting agents who design the basic structure of society as ‘free, equal, and independent,’ the citizens whose interests they represent as ‘fully cooperating members of a society over a complete life’...characterized by a rather idealized rationality. ...such theories must handle severe mental impairments and related disabilities as an afterthought, after the basic institutions of society are already designed. Thus, in effect, people with

mental impairments are not among those for whom and in reciprocity with whom society's basic institutions are structured.

In a study of Black and Latinx parents navigating privatized school choice for children with disabilities in the U.S. urban public education system, Waitoller (2020) similarly argues that “idealized rationality,” to borrow from Nussbaum above, is a deeply flawed and incomplete characterization of the various influences on parents’ desires to have their children included in the regular education system and the access to successful inclusion in the market that it represents. In a DisCrit analysis of justice-centered education, Annamma & Handy, (2020) show that “efforts to obtain justice in education must be rooted in the lives of those who are impacted by injustice” (p. 7): communities that are multiply-marginalized along racial and ability identities amongst others. In the abstract, inclusion does not promote justice explicitly nor anchor it in any particular community.

These arguments provide support for the idea that inclusive education is a retrofitted response to histories of injustice in education, built on a shaky foundation thrown into relief by the lack of coherent language structures available to the practitioners responsible for doing it. At first, Inclusion as an Abstract Ideal, with its emphasis on anti-discrimination and addressing differences, may seem like an opening congruent with transnational feminist approaches that unify around opposition to gender-based discrimination (Khader, 2018). But perhaps because of a flawed, faulty, or absent clear theory of justice, the respondents’ zest for general anti-discrimination is not actionable.

However, a feminist perspective scours what is there for what has been left out (Vaught, 2019), and is what informs the second theme, Inclusion as Specific Work,

though any coherence approached in the sample of responses transversed by this theme is relegated to a minority of the data. Nonetheless, this construct encapsulates much of the regulation-informed, technocratic aspects of inclusive education that define it as a specific kind of labor performed by educators. It is a way of working that involves compliance with policy and resulting bureaucracy; it involves structural changes permitting physical accessibility, and socio-emotional as well as cognitive changes within individual educators about how they perform their duties, which are generally understood to be ‘more’ (offering differentiation, for example) than in a “one size fits all” model of instruction. Currently, most models of inclusion do not promote inclusion as a change in labor conditions and expectations, even as privatization and budget cuts constrain the resources for inclusion in neoliberal education systems/societies. Rather, as the Abstract Ideal construct reflects, is almost assumed that this work will be done because it is the right, just thing to do; much like societies assume that the work of caring for dependents is something women (poor women, women from the Third World, women of color, women without education credentials) will do for free, out of love (Nussbaum, 2006; Piepzna-Samarasinha, 2018).

The sample in this study is representative of the national population of teachers in Chile and in much of the world in that it is majority female. Most classroom teachers are cisgendered women and have been ever since compulsory schooling became a globalized expectation aligned with stereotypes about feminine nurturing (Goldstein, 2015).

Characterizing inclusion as a specific way of working in education connects it to issues of gender justice, in a world where most of the labor caring for dependents (children, the elderly, the significantly disabled) is provided by women, and is often unpaid and not

recognized by the market or public policy as labor—let alone skilled labor. To again draw from Nussbaum's (2006) writings on disability and justice, "A just society, I might think, would also look at the other side of the problem, the burdens on people who provide care...it has a large effect on the rest of such a worker's life." Women I met in the field who worked as teachers and as assistants at schools for students with disabilities in Chile almost always had a child with a disability (sometimes mild) enrolled at the school that employed them, because they felt that 'regular' schools did not appropriately care for their children.

Relationship of Themes to Categories and Subcategories. The dominant category that emerged through constant comparison of codes, *How*, accommodates and even implies specific, procedural approaches to defining inclusion, which one might expect to take shape somewhat like a task analysis—a common method in special education whereby a process is broken down into discreet steps. However, the stark preponderance of subcategories like *(Anti) Discrimination*, *Addressing Difference*, and *Equality or Equity* seem to align with Inclusion as an Abstracted Ideal. The other, less prominent subcategories such as *Teaching-Learning Practices*, *Inclusion Model*, *Integration Model*, are associated with the labor, activities, and concrete processes that define Inclusion as Specific Work in education and on the part of educators.

For example, the codes in the *(Anti) Discrimination* subcategory only enlist opposition to exclusion, segregation, and anti- or non-discriminatory mechanisms as vague vehicles, or perhaps values, by which inclusion is made possible. The coexistence of the following two meaning units illustrates the range of abstractions encompassed within the *(Anti) Discrimination* subcategory particularly well: the positive statement,

“all are loved for who they are and not expected to change in order to belong” and the negative statement, “not [emphasis added] them having to include themselves by their own means” explain how inclusion happens clearly, albeit using abstract terms like “love,” “belong,” “include.” The Addressing Differences subcategory contains more consistently positive statements about dealing with diversity, and includes more specific and often subjective or hard-to-measure verbs like “attending,” “considering,” “recognizing,” “supporting,” and “responding.” The Equality and Equity subcategory is heavily weighted towards ideas about equality, which is arguably a more abstract value, hard to apply in the realm of human behavior and education, whereas equity can be operationalized in policy and practice, as special education illustrates, albeit imperfectly. Similarly, the *What* category offers some specificity through the two subcategories, *Policy* and *Access and Opportunity*, while the other two subcategories, *Including*, *Incorporating*, *Integrating* and *Understanding*, *Respecting*, *Valuing*, are abstruse. The *Why* and *Where* categories similarly reflect these diverging perspectives in each of their respective subcategories. Respectively, the categories *Achievement* and *Place(ment)* are manifestations of Inclusion as Specific Work, while the other categories, *Liberal Values* and *Ideal Society and Community*, are congruent with Inclusion as an Abstract Ideal.

The *Who* category is the only category with subcategories that reflect a strongly uneven distribution of codes and references across the two themes, and reflects a complex interrelation of the themes. The *Who Includes* subcategory with the fewest codes and references of any subcategory, grouped school, family, and professionals as those individuals made subjects (not objects) in inclusive education. The category *Who is Included*, however, contains a range of groups or labels for people who are potential

objects of inclusive education. According to this category, operationalizing inclusion requires not only an understanding of who is to be included but also who is to do the including. However, when contemplating inclusion in the abstract, who is to “do” the including may be assumed – oneself (the educator) - and hence it may not be a priority to name in the definitions from those same stakeholders potentially “doing” the specific work of including. Indeed, it may be easier to imagine “marginalized” groups as monolithic, abstracted categories of people - as the term “special education needs” functions to do - benefitting from inclusion than it is to imagine oneself or whoever else is to be the agent of change, when the change itself is an abstracted ideal.

Interpretation of Classical Content Analysis Findings. The lack of parsimony and the high frequencies of codes and categories suggest two primary tentative conclusions. First and foremost, there is wide variability in the definitions of inclusion provided by the participants in this sample. This may indicate a lack of shared meaning, and/or goals, among the participants or in the wider population. This may be related to the fact that about half the respondents worked at private schools (which drew prestige from being *exclusive*), where special education services of any type traditionally have not existed, though they are increasingly demanded by parents and the Ministry of Education. Given the high response rate and the tendency of the responses to contain complex sentence structures with multiple ideas, however, the data suggests that the respondents are far from ignorant about inclusion. Hence the condensed meaning units are about two and a half times the number of responses to the item. The spectrum of concepts under the umbrella of inclusion suggests that participants’ conceptualizations have likely been formed through exposure to one or more sources including globalized inclusion policy

and research discourses, national/local cultural or socio-political narratives about inclusion (promoted through student activism), and the relics of shifting paradigms in Chilean and international intergovernmental educational policy (from compulsory to integration to special education and inclusion). However, none of these sources have been dominant, yielding discordant conceptualizations of inclusion, even within some discrete definitions by individual participants.

The second major tentative conclusion suggested from these results is that practitioners may be much more concerned with *how* they implement what inclusion consists of. The where, who, and even why of inclusive education are invoked much less in educators' definitions of inclusion, perhaps because these seem more obvious in the current socio-political paradigm governing education, where inclusion is demanded both in Chilean law and in the Chilean streets. Nonetheless, as previously discussed, the roadmap for how educators implement is unclear.

Limitations of the Present Study

As with nonprobabilistic sampling designs, the results of the sample in this study cannot be generalized to the Chilean population of educators. In the same vein, the sample represented here is disproportionately drawn from educators in private institutions, which comprise a minority of the education marketplace in Chile. The challenges that arose while translating disability classifications warrant cautious interpretations of results related to types of SEN, from both the Chilean and comparative perspective. Furthermore, the full implementation of the Inclusion Law and Decreto 83 in 2020 are creating sweeping changes in the School Integration Program, specialized

separate schools for disabled students with more intensive support needs, the financing of public schools, and the market-based education system in Chile. These contextual changes may limit the relevance of some of the findings in this study to present-day issues in the educational context—particularly in the wake of COVID-19. The findings in this study, due to the research design, are descriptive of a convenience sample in a moment in time that preceded major social change and instability. Finally, the factor analysis employed was an EFA, and was not confirmed with a CFA. The factors produced in the EFA were then used as criterion variables in regression analyses, and may have produced findings that could be different if a CFA were employed. Future research will be needed to confirm the factors from this EFA, and, subsequently, verify the adequacy of the findings from the regression analyses.

Implications for Research

This is the first study conducted in Chile that explored both educator perceptions of their knowledge of SEN and inclusion as well as their perceptions of SEN and inclusion in a single study. Furthermore, this is the first study of Chilean educators that explored educators definitions of inclusion in a substantive manner. Replications of this survey are required to confirm if these findings are stable across time and participants samples.

This study revealed a disparate conceptualizations of inclusion in this sample, indicating a lack of a shared knowledge of or agreement to a single definition of inclusion. This reveals a shortcoming of work on inclusion in Chile if there are assumptions about educator definitions of inclusion. Researchers may be able to contribute in meaningful ways to improved outcomes for students with disabilities and

their teachers by working towards a transnational definition of inclusion that permits contextual, cultural nuance while retaining a global standard. Critical analyses of inclusive education within the confines of neoliberal socio-economic policies, epitomized in the Chilean market-based approach to education, along with feminist and disabled theories of justice, seem fundamental to achieving a transnational operationalization of inclusive education that garners empirical solidarity towards collective liberation. As an international field, inclusive education research must make efforts to be truly international, rather than overwhelmingly centered in the imperial powers of the Global North. Research should reflect the spread of influence that intergovernmental agreements and globalized economic trends have spurred in education policy amongst so many developing and middle-high income nations alike.

Future studies should be conducted to confirm or extend the findings from this investigation. Additional applications of this survey that can employ CFA would help to confirm the factor structures of the survey. Furthermore, because it appears that Chilean educators do not have a shared understanding of “inclusion”, it would be useful to develop items that would allow educators to evaluate or rate existing definitions of inclusion in Chile. This would lead to a clearer understanding of how Chilean educators conceptualize inclusion. Furthermore, follow up interview studies could be employed to better understand the responses acquired through the open ended item on the definition of inclusion.

Implications for Practice

The findings of the present study suggest that practitioners are similar to researchers in that they are knowledgeable about inclusion, but do not share a cohesive

goal or process for inclusion in education. Rather than strive to internalize policy definitions imposed from external context and authorities, or seek clear guidance from policy influencers within the political sphere, practitioners might be encouraged to draw from the pastiche of policy that legally bounds their practice while also developing consensus with students and families about what inclusion means within their school community. Tools that are already familiar in Chile, such as Booth & Ainscow's Index for Inclusion (2000) exist to support educational communities in this way. The findings of this study suggest that it is urgent to utilize those tools and processes in order to meaningfully enact whatever version of inclusion practitioners and community members decide they want.

Conclusion

In a market-based system that mandates inclusion, and a broader global context of privatization and weakening of public school prestige, educators are increasingly expected to comply with emotional standards for their labor (from accepting all children to caring for them individually) and eschew labels like discriminatory or exclusive; they may be protecting their emotional self-interest (Hochschild, 2012, 2018) when they ascribe to inclusivity. The lack of any meaningful difference between types of disability suggests a lack of understanding about what disability entails and the significant questions it raises for operationalizing inclusion in practice.

These findings provide support for established scholarly models dividing culture, practice, and policy into discrete factors underlying inclusion, as well as findings suggesting discrete profiles describing educator dispositions towards inclusion (Booth & Ainscow, 2002a; Castro-Rubilar et al., 2017; Urbina et al., 2011). They also support

previous findings showing significant differences between regular and general education teachers, and primary and secondary teachers (Castillo Armijo & Miranda Carvajal, 2018; Jara Urrea & Parra Aguilera, 2016; Mellado Hernández et al., 2016; Urbina et al., 2011). However, the findings also suggest that such a tripartite model may be insufficient for conceptualizing how educators perceive and practice inclusion in Latin America or the Global South, and Chile in particular.

A plethora of definitions of inclusion in education affect the empirical development of validated inclusive practices, particularly those interventions that might improve the continued disparity in educational outcomes for youth with identified disabilities. Unacknowledged competing, diverse, subjective definitions amongst the practitioners/workers within educational institutions—not to mention amongst the students—may also affect planning, coordination, and which perspectives are privileged or marginalized. The findings from my analysis revealed a broad range of definitions from the participants that may reflect the lack of a single consistent Chilean definition among either researcher or policy makers.

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