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DOCTORAL THESIS

The Attitudes of Greek Special and General Education Teachers toward Inclusion

and their Self-efficacy in the Implementation of Inclusive Education in Secondary

Education. The Effect on the Collaboration with Parents of Children with Special

Educational Needs and/or Disabilities

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Abstract

In recent years, the separation between general education and special education has been slowly diminishing as they become an integrated single system. Teachers' attitudes and perceptions can completely change the climate of a classroom, as they have a great impact on the behavior of the students during the learning process. In an inclusive school, it seems clear that teachers' views on their self-efficacy have also changed, as have their roles and the conditions of their pedagogical profile.

Current research aims to investigate the effect of self-efficacy of general and special secondary education teachers at Greek high schools in implementing inclusive practices on attitudes towards inclusion, as well as the effect of self-efficacy and attitudes towards inclusion on the collaboration of teachers with parents of children with Special Educational Needs and/or Disabilities (SEND). In addition, differences between general and special education teachers regarding the sense of self-efficacy in implementing inclusive practices and the formation of perceptions about attitudes and collaboration are examined, as are the effects of training and demographic profile on the above parameters.

Current research is primary, quantitative, and correlational, between and within subjects, in a non-experimental design, using questionnaires of acceptable reliability (a≥0,605) and validity. In the current research, 265 teachers participated, almost equally distributed between general (N = 131) or special education (N = 134) and permanent (N = 120) or deputy (N = 144) employment status, mainly teaching in Central Greece, Attica, Central Macedonia, and the Southern Aegean, with the specialty of philologist, science teacher, or mathematician. Most of them have training in special education, are female, older than 35 years old, and have 0–5 years of teaching experience in special education. At a significance level of 5%, the independent samples t-test, ANOVA, Mann-Whitney, Kruskal-Wallis, and multiple linear regression models were used. The necessary ethical issues were confirmed.

Teachers who were highly effective at collaborating demonstrated more positive attitudes toward inclusion. The efficacy of general education teachers to use inclusive instructions as well as the efficacy of special education teachers to deal with

disruptive behaviors enhanced the attitudes toward inclusion. Teachers of special education, as well as teachers with special education training and teachers that have attended a course or seminar on the education of students with SEND, present self-efficacy to implement inclusive practices, formulate perceptions about attitudes, and collaborate with parents of students. Teachers' efficacy to collaborate increased the levels of collaboration with parents of students with SEND. General teachers' efficacy to use inclusive instructions and a positive attitude toward logistical concerns led to increased levels of collaboration. Special teachers' inclusive attitudes improved levels of collaboration with the parents, while females and younger teachers supported more inclusive attitudes, while middle-aged teachers had higher levels of collaboration. Teachers' having children with SEND at home presented higher efficacy in dealing with disruptive behaviors. Deputy teachers presented more inclusive attitudes and better collaboration for teaching but cited more personal reasons as obstacles to cooperation. Teachers with more experience in special education indicated higher efficacy in implementing inclusive practices, while teachers with moderate experience displayed higher inclusive attitudes and collaboration. Collaboration at all levels is facilitated not just by teachers' abilities and understanding of inclusive methods but also by their increased self-efficacy and positive attitudes about inclusion. In Greece, insufficient studies have been conducted on the issue of collaboration with parents; therefore, there is an obvious need to investigate strategies to improve teacher-parent collaboration, particularly in special education.

Keywords: Teachers, General education, Special education, Self-efficacy, Greece, Secondary education, Inclusive practices, Attitudes, Collaboration, Parents.

Contents

Acronyms

ADHD: Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder

ASD: Autism Spectrum Disorders

CDDDS (KEDDY in Greek): Centers for Differential Diagnosis, Diagnosis and Support

ECSC (KESY in Greek): Educational and Counseling Support Centers

ICIDH: International Classification of Impairments, Disabilities, and Handicaps

IC: Integration Departments

PS: Parallel Support

RSA: Responsibility for Student Achievement

SEN: Special Educational Needs

SEND: Special Educational Needs and/or Disabilities

SMEAE: Special Education and Training Schools

STATIC: Scale of Teachers' Attitudes towards Inclusive Classrooms

TEIP: Teacher Efficacy for Inclusive Practice

TLC: Teacher Locus of Control

TSES: Teacher Effectiveness Scale TSES

UNESCO: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

UN: United Nations

INTRODUCTION

Schools in the 21st century are defined by their student diversity. Students vary in almost all schools around the world in terms of race, religion, and culture, but there are also students with impairments or Special Educational Needs and/or Disabilities (SEND). There are children all around the world who are excluded from the schools to which they are entitled due to disability, color, language, religion, gender, or poverty. However, disability is more of a societal issue than an individual one, since most of the challenges people with disabilities experience are the result of society's organizational structure and relationships (Walker, 2006). Thus, deviations from what society deems "normal" are often neglected (Anderberg & Jönsson, 2005). Nevertheless, a society that wants to be called "tolerant" and "progressive" must transform "diversity" into an equal opportunity for all its members to participate (UNESCO, 2008). Therefore, every child has the right to be supported by their parents and the community to grow, learn, and develop throughout their early years of life and to get an equal education with all other children at a school where they will feel accepted (Winter & Raw, 2010).

Inclusion of pupils with SEND in general education was not a priority for the development of an equal opportunity society until recent years (Olukotun, 2004). The Salamanca Declaration on Special Education and Training (UNESCO, 1994) and the United Nations Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UN, 2006) were landmarks for educational policy decisions that led to the strengthening of the integration of children with special educational needs and/or disabilities in general school. The idea behind Salamanca's proclamation changed the accepted way of thinking. The change suggested that the student's preparation was no longer the most essential element in determining their acceptance into mainstream school. The emphasis switched to schools, which were expected to become more accommodating to students with diverse abilities (Salovita, 2020a). Moreover, the Salamanca Declaration also legally accepts the word "inclusion," which recognizes the individuality of the learner and characterizes any difficulty he or she experiences as a peculiarity rather than a problem (UNESCO 1994). Today, inclusive education is a well-established educational reality, but each nation has its own curriculum, and the

whole process, from inclusion to the final integration of students with disabilities into socio-educational settings, is seen as lengthy and complex (Garuba, 2003).

Inclusive education is premised on the right of every child to participate in common school life and to receive adequate teaching and educational experience. It is a set of techniques, practices, views, and possibilities (Onaga & Martoccio, 2008) that enables the integration of children with formal and non-formal developmental needs into the general classroom, thereby establishing a "school for all" (Soulis, 2010).

In this context, all instructors in the school should be engaged in the establishment of special conditions and be fully aware of classroom methods for identifying and evaluating students with SEND (Gross, 2002). Thus, teachers are more dedicated and accountable for the effective implementation of the inclusion strategy than educational policymakers (Hosford & O'Sullivan, 2016). In the framework of educational inclusion, the teacher is required to follow national policies that, through the perspective of social justice, seek to eliminate any educational inequities and provide excellent education to all children without exception (Pantić & Florian, 2015).

Teachers must be able to use a range of instructional strategies to effectively integrate children with special educational needs (Callan, 2013). In addition, preparation time, material resources, school personnel, and class size should be considered. Specifically, the efficacy of teachers or their confidence in their ability to positively influence learning outcomes affects both their attitudes and their teaching practices, ultimately shaping students' experiences within an inclusive learning context (Bandura, 1997; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001; 2007; Hosford & O'Sullivan, 2015).

Numerous recent studies demonstrate that teachers' beliefs and attitudes toward students with SEND have a significant impact on how "open" they are, how committed they are to an inclusive educational framework, how they apply it, and to what degree it is successful (Hosford & O'Sullivan, 2015; Malinen et al., 2012; Savolainen et al., 2012a; Yada & Savolainen, 2017). It is suggested that the adjustments required to properly apply the concepts of inclusive education should not be restricted to modifying the curriculum to accommodate the requirements of students with disabilities. Changes must also aim to shape positive attitudes among teachers toward students with disabilities, as well as co-education itself (Watkins 2007).

Understanding teachers' attitudes and beliefs about inclusion is important because it is one of the strongest predictors of its success in practice (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Forlin et al., 2011; Miesera & Gebhardt, 2018), but also because it can help improve the learning environment in general and ultimately achieve a high-quality education without exclusions (Savolainen et al., 2020). Furthermore, teachers' daily actions in diverse classrooms are substantially influenced by their goals for the implementation of inclusive education and their attitudes toward inclusive education (Hellmich et al., 2019).

In addition, one of the elements that influences the successful implementation of inclusive education is self-efficacy in inclusive education (Bosse et al. 2017; Kiel et al., 2020). A teacher with high self-efficacy scores may believe that a student with specific learning needs could be taught effectively in the regular classroom. Teachers with a better sense of self-efficacy tend to have lower expectations of their students' abilities in educational integration (Sharma et al., 2016; Zee & Koomen, 2016). Teachers with higher levels of self-efficacy are more likely to be positive about introducing new teaching approaches (Chan, 2008). These educators are less likely to fire students with SEND from regular classes or send them to special education institutions and are more likely to implement interventions recommended by other professionals. It is obvious that teachers' perceptions of their effectiveness influence both their behavior and actions, as well as the results of any school activity. Moreover, teachers who believe in their skills set more challenging objectives for themselves and their students, accept responsibility for the outcomes of their teaching methods, and persevere in attempting to overcome the problems they will encounter. Teachers' self-efficacy beliefs, as a result, play a vital role in establishing a successful inclusive culture in the educational system and should be researched and assessed (Brouwers and Tomic, 2000).

In addition, another important factor for the success of inclusive education is the cooperation of families of children with special educational needs with teachers and the school community. Inclusion practices have the overarching goal of ensuring that all students are treated as valued contributors to the educational community by reducing the extent to which they are excluded from academic and extracurricular activities (Kazanopoulos et al., 2021). Therefore, families of children with SEND must actively participate in the process of education as a whole. As a result, collaboration between

teachers and families is recognized as an essential first step in educational practices and a cornerstone for effectively meeting the needs of children with learning disabilities (Lalvani, 2015). Cooperation has a positive impact on the academic achievement, attendance, and conduct of students; it also improves the overall quality of the services those children get (Simpkins et al., 2006). Moreover, collaboration between parents of children with SEND and schools is required not only so that parents have a better understanding of how the school operates in terms of its structure and organization, but also so that parents can consult, exchange information, and actively participate in the purpose of providing their child with a more beneficial education (Cotton, 2000).

Teachers who have a positive and supportive attitude toward parental engagement are more successful in recruiting parents to participate and improving the effectiveness of parental involvement (Hornby & Lafaele, 2011). When it comes to working with parents to educate students who have special educational needs or disabilities (SEND), engaging teachers who have a good attitude toward inclusion seems to play a crucial role. Training in special education has a major influence on teachers' perceptions of interacting with parents about issues related to the education of children who have special educational needs and/or disabilities (SEND) (Syriopoulou-Delli et al., 2016). In this approach, educators consider that the primary benefits of cooperation between parents and teachers are the strengthening of children's self-esteem and the fact that parents are more regularly informed about the processes involved in special education than they would have been otherwise.

Thus, the purpose of the present study is to investigate the effect of teachers' self-efficacy on the application of inclusive education practices as well as their attitudes towards inclusive education and the impact of these factors on teachers' collaboration with parents of children with SEND. The present research consists of two parts: the theoretical part, which includes the literature review and the formulation of research hypotheses; and the second part, which includes the methodological design and conduct of research, statistical analysis, and presentation of findings, as well as the discussion, conclusions, and suggestions for future research in the relevant field.

The theoretical section of the literature review consists of the following chapters: In the first chapter of our research, we develop the research problem, which, through the presentation of the study's objects, particularly regarding: a) the attitudes

and perceptions of special and general education teachers regarding the inclusion of students with SEND in general school, and b) the collaboration of these teachers with the parents of students with SEND, will contribute to the understanding of our subsequent research. Moreover, the problem of the research, the criteria for selecting the topic, the goal and objectives of our study, the questions that emerged from the review of the literature, and the hypotheses that will be attempted to be verified via the methodological approaches are presented.

The second chapter will be developed on the various definitions of special education that have been formulated over time, including definitions and conceptual approaches for students with Special Educational Needs and Disabilities (SEND). This will be followed by the historical background of special education both in Greece and internationally. Finally, reference will be made to statistics on the population of students in Greece with SEND.

In the third chapter, the differences between integration and inclusion will be analyzed and addressed, followed by a bibliographic review of the definitions of inclusive education. Last, the integration classes and the parallel support institutions will be discussed in terms of how inclusive education has changed in Greece.

The fourth chapter presents a comprehensive review of the broad definitions of the term "attitudes," followed by a review of i) society's attitudes towards the inclusion of people with SEND; ii) family attitudes towards the inclusion of people with SEND; iii) typical development students' attitudes towards their peers with SEND; and iv) the individual's attitudes towards the inclusion of people with SEND. Finally, a comprehensive investigation will be conducted into teacher attitudes toward students with SEN and the factors that influence them.

In the fifth chapter, the concept of teachers' self-efficacy about the inclusion of children with SEND and the elements that contribute to its development will be examined. Next, instruments and scales for evaluating self-efficacy toward inclusion that have been utilized in diverse studies in Greece and elsewhere will be discussed. A bibliographic review of mostly international studies that investigate the impact of teacher efficacy on the attitude toward inclusion of students with SEND will be undertaken at the end of this section.

In the sixth chapter, reference will be made to the cooperation of families of children with special educational needs with teachers and the school community. Initially, reference will be made to the conceptual definitions of collaboration in the school environment and the models of school-family collaboration. Then a report is made about the factors influencing parental involvement, the factors for successful teacher-parent collaboration, the content and ways of teacher-parent collaboration, and the obstacles that hinder teacher-parent collaboration. In the end, it will be analyzed how and if the attitudes of teachers and their self-efficacy towards inclusive practices affect the collaboration with the parents of students with SEND.

The second part of the dissertation concerns the methodology and conduct of the research and includes the seventh chapter, where the research methodology is presented. Our research tools, sample composition, and statistical data analysis methods are described. The variables and means of data collection for the questionnaire are examined.

In the eighth chapter, there will be an extensive presentation of the three questionnaires of the study, i.e., the Teacher Efficacy for Inclusive Practice (TEIP) Scale (Sharma et al., 2012). ii. The Scale of Teachers' Attitudes Toward Inclusive Classrooms (STATIC) (Cochran, 1998), and iii. The questionnaire regarding the collaboration of teachers with the parents of students with special educational needs and one open-ended question regarding the obstacles to cooperation (Papanikolaou, 2018).

Finally, in the ninth chapter, the results will be examined and compared to those of other researchers. In addition, research suggestions for future studies and teacher proposals are formulated.

Chapter I. PRESENTATION OF THE RESEARCH

1.1 Contextualization of the problem

The worldwide scientific community is concerned about the inclusion of children with SEND (Ainscow et al., 2011). It is noteworthy that no internationally recognized definition of inclusive education exists (Ainscow et al., 2006; Allan & Slee, 2008; Malinen et al., 2012), while the phrase "inclusion" is a challenging one to define since attempting to do so would contradict the concept's philosophy (Angelidis, 2011). Teachers in both general and special education strive for each student's participation in school and social activities, as well as the development of attitudes and social skills. According to the Salamanca Declaration (UNESCO, 1994), general schools are the most effective strategy for combating discrimination, developing a welcoming community environment, creating an inclusive society, and achieving education for all.

Moreover, according to several researchers (Acedo, 2008; Angelides et al., 2009; Ainscow & Sandill, 2010; Ainscow, 2005), the concept of "inclusive education" refers to an ongoing effort to engage everyone involved in the educational system, with a particular focus on the most disadvantaged students. Thus, many governments have embraced considerable efforts to push education policies and practices in an open and inclusive direction (Ainscow & Cesar, 2006). However, inclusive education was subject to a variety of interpretations, and the educational community seemed divided on the aims of integration, teacher training, and the variables influencing its efficient implementation (Avissar et al., 2016). Nevertheless, even though many nations throughout the globe seem to accept the concept of inclusive education, they struggle to make their educational institutions more inclusive (Messiou, 2006).

This research examines inclusive education as a response to student diversity, recognizing that inclusive mainstream schools are the most successful institutions for providing education for all. Inclusion is not limited to the education of children with special educational needs and/or disabilities and varies from nation to nation based on each nation's accession philosophy and standards (Ainscow et al., 2013). However, education policymakers often ignore "local" characteristics and replicate effective strategies created for other nations (Garcia-Huidobro & Corvalan, 2009).

Furthermore, the adoption of a particular "form" of action, policy, or practice cannot be applied equally effectively in all schools, even if they are in the same nation. Any effort to make schools more inclusive will fail if education systems are compared and successful "recipes" from other countries are used without considering the local context (Bualar, 2016).

In addition to the adoption of educational policies appropriate to the local cultural and educational realities, teachers' attitudes and beliefs about inclusion are crucial components for the effective implementation of inclusive education and one of the greatest indicators of its success in practice (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002). Positive attitudes and behaviors may support acceptable policies and practices, while negative attitudes and perceptions tend to sustain lower expectations. In the modern educational system, the acknowledgement of diversity and special educational needs is seen as a fundamental principle and practice that fosters access and full involvement for everyone (Grenier, 2010).

Furthermore, teachers' self-efficacy for teaching in inclusive classrooms is identified as a vital factor for successful inclusion (Bandura, 1997; Tschannen-Moran & Johnson, 2011). Teachers with higher levels of teacher self-efficacy are more flexible in the use of teaching and pedagogical methods to help students attain higher performance levels (Tschannen-Moran and McMaster, 2009). In addition, as compared to instructors who reported lower levels of self-efficacy, they are more adaptable in modifying their teaching approaches to meet the needs of a diverse, inclusive classroom (Woodcock & Jones, 2020).

At the same time, the attempt to provide a more inclusive education necessitates the collaboration of many independent but interrelated parties. The participation of public authorities, members of the local community, school stakeholders, and students' parents is critical to encouraging inclusion. However, several difficulties in this area have been identified in various nations (Rose, 2010; Angelidis, 2011). More precisely, societal cultural difficulties, stereotypes, racial attitudes, and religious views in both state/municipal and school settings impede the promotion of more inclusive practices (Stylianou, 2017).

Specifically, in terms of schools and families of children with SEND, it seems that when effective collaboration happens, children gain immensely, from improved performance, attendance, and school behavior, to support that is genuinely customized to their needs (Chen & Gregory, 2010; Simpkins et al., 2006). Nevertheless, the partnership procedure between schools and parents or caregivers is sometimes problematic owing to several stakeholders who are often engaged, the diverse requirements and cultural backgrounds represented by children with disabilities and their families, and a lack of proper training for collaborative skills (Mereoiu et al., 2016).

In addition, it should be noted that there is a correlation between teachers' self-efficacy and their ability to collaborate, as parents are more effectively involved in their children's education when instructors actively encourage family engagement (Goddard & Kim, 2018; Kiel et al., 2020; Savolainen et al., 2012). When it comes to working with parents to educate children who have special educational needs and/or disabilities (SEND), having teachers who have a good attitude toward inclusion seems to play a crucial role. Furthermore, educators who have a positive and supportive attitude toward parental engagement are more successful in getting more parents engaged and improving the effectiveness of parental involvement (Hornby & Lafaele, 2011).

Moreover, according to several recent studies (Malinen et al., 2012; Montgomery & Mirenda, 2014; Yada & Savolainen, 2017; Narkun & Smogorzewska, 2019; Yada et al., 2018; Özokcu, 2018), self-efficacy in collaboration was the most important predictor of educators' attitudes. In addition, teacher interaction with colleagues and parents of children with SEND, collaborative planning, and peer learning may be seen as significant success factors for integration strategies. In the near future, it is anticipated that the development of collaborative skills and the training of pedagogical behavior management will become more important in both pre-service and in-service teacher education programs.

1.2 Problem formulation and topic selection criteria- Significance of study

The enactment and implementation of the new legislation on special education (Law 3699/2008) make clear the orientation and goals of educational policy towards the co-education of children with SEND in general school. One of the most important

factors that contributes to the success of co-educating children with and without disabilities is the existence of a positive attitude on the part of teachers towards children with special needs and inclusive education (Lindsay, 2007; Fisher et al., 1998). Moreover, the recent development of integration and co-education programs in secondary education in many countries makes it necessary to investigate the attitudes toward inclusive education of secondary education teachers, especially in the Greek area where the new legislation for special education (Law 3699/2008) is in progress.

As was previously indicated, several researchers (Avramidis & Kalyva, 2007; Batsiou et al., 2008; Hellmich et al., 2019; Monsen et al., 2014; Leyser et al., 1994; Saloviita, 2018; Zoniou-Sideri & Vlachou, 2006) have investigated the attitudes of educators regarding inclusion and attempted to associate those attitudes with a range of other aspects. The findings of these surveys either reveal disparities from country to country (Batsiou et al., 2008; Leyser et al., 1994), bring to light opposing viewpoints held by educators (Zoniou-Sideri & Vlachou, 2006), or provide results that differ from one another. Thus, it seems there are no study findings to substantiate the widespread popularity of inclusive education (Lindsay, 2007). Particularly in the Greek setting, it has been observed that some instructors have a favorable attitude towards the inclusion of students with special educational needs, but only on a theoretical level. However, when these teachers themselves are asked to assume responsibilities, these views usually change (Zoniou-Sideri & Vlachou, 2006; Avramidis & Kalyva, 2007; Avramidis et al., 2019). This emphasizes the necessity of exploring teachers' attitudes and the variables that impact them and are likely responsible for the disparities in views shown in the pertinent research.

Given the importance of investigating new factors that influence the formation of teachers' attitudes toward inclusion (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002), the self-efficacy of general and special education teachers in the inclusion of children with disabilities will be investigated as an additional factor in the current work. At the same time, there is an issue with examining teachers' self-efficacy in terms of inclusion, as studies often use scales to assess teachers' overall efficacy (Malinen, 2012; Romi & Leyser, 2006; Weisel & Dror, 2006). It should be noted at this point that self-efficacy has a variable influence depending on the content and type of projects and activities (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007). For instance, a teacher who believes in his or her capacity to

successfully teach a homogenous classroom may have a low feeling of self-efficacy when students with special educational needs are added to his or her class, which must be taught just as effectively. For the reasons stated above, it was considered suitable to investigate the feeling of self-efficacy in this set of students and how it is developed using a specifically designed scale with corresponding Greek instructors (Sharma et al., 2012). Likewise, it was regarded as important to test their attitudes about the inclusion of children with SEND using a comparable, specifically developed scale (Cochran, 1998).

Concurrently, several studies (Avramidis & Kalyva, 2007; Fakolade et al., 2009; Čargan & Schidt, 2011; Buford & Casey, 2012; Woodcock, 2013; Tsakiridou & Polyzopoulou, 2014; Cameron, 2017; Martin et al., 2021) have investigated the link between teacher training and the development of favorable attitudes toward inclusion and a feeling of self-efficacy in inclusive practices. In addition, Avramidis and Norwich (2002) demonstrated that instructors' attitudes toward the inclusion of students with and without SEND are significantly influenced by the provision of educational assistance. Therefore, it is obvious that instructors need adequate training in the application of inclusive practices (Savolainen et al., 2012; Yada et al., 2018; Yada & Savolainen, 2017), making the results of this study even more significant.

Furthermore, in many recent studies (Ismailos et al., 2022; Malinen et al., 2012.; Özokcu, 2018; Savolainen et al., 2012; Yada & Savolainen, 2017) that have studied the relationship between teachers' attitudes towards inclusion and their self-efficacy to implement inclusive practices, it has emerged that efficacy in collaboration with colleagues and parents is one of the crucial determinants of the success of inclusion practices. Moreover, it has been noted that teachers' perceptions of the responsibilities of both them and the parents of children with SEND, in terms of collaboration, are influenced by their overall ideological attitudes, the nature of their vocational education, and their sense of self-efficacy (Matsaggouras & Poulou, 2009). In addition, the content of teachers' collaboration with parents is one of the key factors for the effectiveness of inclusive education (Papanikolaou, 2018).

In Greece, several studies have been conducted on teachers' attitudes towards inclusion as well as their self-efficacy in implementing inclusive practices (Polyzopouloy, 2019; Ntinidou, 2013; Patsidou, 2010; Penna, 2008). These surveys

mainly concern primary school teachers or pre-service teachers who have not taught in a real classroom. Moreover, few studies have examined the relationship between in-service teachers' self-efficacy in adopting inclusive practices and their attitudes toward inclusion at the secondary school level, and no study has combined the variables with the way and content of collaboration between in-service teachers and parents of students with SEND.

The present research examines the views of secondary general and special education in-service teachers, with the aim of (1) identifying their attitudes towards inclusion and their self-efficacy to implement inclusive practices; (2) identifying the effect of training on their attitudes towards inclusion and their self-efficacy to implement inclusive practices; and (3) formulating the content of their collaboration with the parents, which is of particular interest, and (4) highlighting the difficulties and obstacles that arise in their cooperation with parents. Such research may reflect the acceptance of inclusive education by the teachers as well as their dispositions toward the effectiveness of this educational process. In addition to assessing teachers' attitudes and self-efficacy, this study is expected to provide research data on the factors that influence both attitudes toward inclusion and self-efficacy in implementing inclusive practices in general secondary school classrooms in Greek educational reality. The research findings are expected to make it clear that in the not-too-distant future, both pre-service and in-service teacher education programs will likely need to place more emphasis on developing collaboration-related skills and providing training in pedagogical management behavior.

1.3 Problem delimitation

In the present study, a delimitation of the problem should be examined. While inclusive education is an educational approach that applies not just to students with SEND but also to marginalized students (Booth & Ainscow, 1998; Angelides et al., 2006), the current study will solely examine children with SEND. In other words, the attitudes and self-efficacy of teachers regarding the inclusion of children with SEND are examined. In this manner, a thorough investigation of one component of inclusive education will be conducted since it is difficult to investigate the breadth of the idea and all that it entails in a single study.

1.4 Formulation of the problem -Research Questions

Current research examines teachers' efficacy in inclusive practices, teachers' attitudes towards inclusive classrooms, and the collaboration of teachers with the parents of students with special educational needs. Current research aims to investigate the effect of self-efficacy in implementing inclusive practices on attitudes towards inclusion, as well as the effect of self-efficacy and attitudes towards inclusion on the collaboration between special and general education teachers with parents of children with SEND. In addition, differences between general and special education teachers regarding their sense of self-efficacy in implementing inclusive practices, their attitudes toward the inclusion of children with SEND, and their collaboration with parents of children with SEND are examined, as are the effects of training and demographic profile on the above parameters. The research questions are formulated below:

1) Does general and special education teachers' self-efficacy in implementing inclusive practices affect their attitudes towards inclusion?

2) Does general and special education teachers' training affect their self-efficacy to implement inclusive practices and formulate perceptions about attitudes and collaboration?

3) Do the attitudes towards inclusion and the self-efficacy for inclusive practices of general and special education teachers affect their collaboration with parents of students with special educational needs in the context of inclusive education?

4) What are the differences between general and special education teachers regarding their sense of self-efficacy in implementing inclusive practices and their perceptions about attitudes and collaboration with parents of student with SEND?

5) What is the effect of demographic factors on general and special education teachers' sense of self-efficacy in implementing inclusive practices and on the formation of perceptions about attitudes and collaboration with parents of student with SEND?

1.5 Research Hypothesis

This study's research hypotheses comprised the whole of our basic research direction.

Hypothesis 1: There is a positive relationship between teacher self-efficacy and attitudes toward inclusive education. There is a greater correlation between the factors of self-efficacy and attitudes in special education teachers.

Hypothesis 2. Teachers with special education training show higher values in the indicators of self-efficacy, attitudes, and collaboration with the parents of children with SEND.

Hypothesis 3. Teachers of general and special education with higher levels of efficacy and attitudes are correlated with higher levels of collaboration with parents of children with SEND.

Hypothesis 4. We expect that special education educators will work more closely with the parents of students with SEND to implement inclusion in Greek high schools.

Hypothesis 5. We expect that age, gender, having a child with SEND at home, work experience in special and general education, and employment status affect self-efficacy, attitudes, and the collaboration between teachers of general and special education with parents of children with SEND. More specifically, the hypotheses are specified below:

i)   Female teachers have more positive attitudes towards inclusive education, present higher levels of efficacy, and collaborate with parents of students with SEND.

ii) Younger teachers have more positive attitudes towards inclusive education, present higher levels of efficacy, and collaborate with parents of students with SEND.

iii) Deputy teachers have more positive attitudes about students with disabilities, present higher levels of efficacy, and are more collaborative with parents of students with SEND.

iv)   Teachers who live with a child with special educational needs have more positive attitudes towards inclusive education, and present higher levels of efficacy than those who do not.

v)   Teachers who live with a child with special educational needs are more collaborative in inclusive education with parents of students with SEND than those who do not.

vi)   Years of professional experience have a positive impact on attitudes towards inclusive education and present higher levels of efficacy.

vii)   The extent of training in special education has a positive impact on attitudes toward inclusive education and self-efficacy.

viii)   The extent of training on special education has a positive impact on collaboration with parents of students with SEND.

1.6 Research objectives

The main purpose of this study is to investigate the relationship between attitudes and perceptions of general and special education teachers (working in the parallel support institution in Greek high schools) towards inclusion and their self-efficacy to implement inclusive practices, and whether these factors influence their views about collaboration with the parents of students with special educational needs in the implementation of inclusion in Greek high schools. The specific objectives of the research are:

i.   to investigate whether the self-efficacy of general and special education teachers in the implementation of inclusive education practices influences their attitude toward inclusion.

ii.   to investigate whether general and special education teachers' training affects their self-efficacy to implement inclusive practices and to formulate perceptions about attitudes and collaboration.

iii.   to investigate whether the attitudes towards inclusion and the self-efficacy for inclusive practices of general and special education teachers affect their collaboration with parents of students with special educational needs in the context of inclusive education.

iv.   to investigate the differences between general and special education teachers regarding their beliefs about inclusion.

v. to investigate the differences between general and special education teachers regarding their sense of self-efficacy in implementing inclusive practices.

vi. to investigate the content of the collaboration with the parents of students with SEND, as reflected by special and general education teachers.

vii. to investigate the differences between general and special education teachers regarding the content of collaboration with parents of students with SEND in the implementation of inclusion in Greek high schools.

viii. to investigate the effect of certain demographic factors on general and special education teachers (such as age, gender, and professional experience) on the sense of self-efficacy in implementing inclusive practices.

ix. to investigate the effect of certain demographic factors of general and special education teachers (such as age, gender, and professional experience) on the formation of attitudes towards inclusive education.

x. to investigate the effect of certain demographic factors of general and special education teachers (such as age, gender, and professional experience) on the content of collaboration with parents of children with SEND

xi. to investigate the obstacles that general and special education teachers, as they perceive, in their cooperation with parents of students with SEND.

CHAPTER II. THEORETICAL REFERENCES OF THE RESEARCH
2.1 Special Education

Special education is a new and rapidly growing branch of the social sciences whose goal is to study and treat children and adolescents with special educational needs in all their behavioral and learning manifestations. Such an approach focuses a) on the analysis and description of their clinical profile (i.e., all their characteristics) and the differences they present compared to typically developing children of the same age, and b) on the techniques and practices that can be applied in the classroom and the school environment in order to achieve the maximum possible improvement and to have the necessary quality of life in their daily lives (Stasinos, 2013).

In the following section, a bibliographic review will be developed on the definitions of special education that have been formulated from time to time, with a historical background of special education both in Greece and internationally, and finally, reference will be made to statistics on the population of students with special education needs in Greece.

2.1.1 The definition of Special Education

Diverse conceptual approaches to special education have different aims, thus it is difficult to generalize about it. There is a common misconception that this law is overly complex; for instance, it is often seen as a simple piece of legislation that guarantees the right of parents of children with special educational needs to participate in decision-making regarding the optimization and design of appropriate educational programs. It's often thought of as something that goes into the economic and educational policies of a country (Stasinos & Papachristou, 2011).

The concept of "Special Education" has been the subject of several attempts to define in both international and Greek literature. However, these definitions are viewed as problematic since they are regarded to reflect more on the economic, social, political, educational, and cultural opinions and demands of society than on the unique needs and quirks of children (Zoniou - Sideri, 1998). Also, because people with special needs have often been misdiagnosed and treated as mentally ill in the past, Special Education has a very rich and varied historical context. Therefore, the following is a review of

definitions that are not particularly extensive but attempt to include the broad range of educational options.

Imvrioti (1939), who has been designated the "Mother of Special Education" for her enormous contribution to Greece's educational activities, provided the first description of special education in Greece. More precisely, she argued that "*special education is the science that takes care of the education, instruction, and welfare of all children whose physical and mental development is continually hampered by individual and societal circumstances*" (Imvrioti, 1939, p.7). This description indicates that this institution intends not only to educate but also to care for children who, for personal or societal reasons, are unable to grow physically or cognitively to the same extent as other children. For the first time, the definition acknowledges that societal influences might obstruct a child's mental growth, a reality that had previously been overlooked by the law (Polychronopoulou, 2012). The major focus is on the carefully created educational programs needed by Special Education, as well as the requirement of customizing them to each children's unique characteristics, abilities, and difficulties. The objective is to give a clear guide for how these initiatives should be executed (Zoniou - Sideri, 1981).

According to Kalantzis (1985), special education is a cycle of specific manipulations and procedures, special forms of activity, distinctive didactic content and materials, and special pedagogical culture and life. Special education does not aim at remediation or rehabilitation, but rather replenishes, builds, and serves as an evolutionary and life-helping tool.

According to Christakis (1996), special education is the combination of program adjustments, instruction, support, and the construction of suitable learning environments to successfully handle the student's unique educational requirements. The curriculum is restructured in the presence of legal and educational circumstances, either at the individual level, a small group of pupils, or, eventually, the whole class.

Special education, as defined by Stathis (2001), is support offered to children with unique needs through specialized programs, mainstream classes, or in integrating classes. Special education is described as additional assistance or a new strategy for treating these students, and the method in which it is given must be as unique as the children who would benefit from it. A new feature that has been clarified through the

above definition is that special education should not be provided only to mainstream classes, but integration classes should be established (Stathis, 2001).

Tomlinson (1986) approaches the term from a sociological point of view, stating that the value of special education is studied and understood according to the benefits it brings to society, the education system, and in general in every field that deals with it (Tomlinson, 1986). On the contrary, a broader definition emphasizes that special education is not defined by the space in which it is offered but by the needs of the child. In addition, the inferiority does not deepen mainly in disability but in the school system and society (Zoniou-Sideri, 2011).

Emphasis on the purpose of Special Education is given by the following definition "*the purpose of Special Education is to assist, support and improve the physical, emotional, spiritual and social condition of children and adolescents*" (Kroustalakis, 1994, p. 12). Similarly, "*the goal of Special Education is to prepare the child to participate to the highest possible degree in all areas of action of society*" (Polychronopoulou & Zacharogeorga, 1993, p.29) while, whereas Mantes (1989) states its definition of how to achieve the goals, saying that "*the goal of Special Education is not to separate children with special educational needs from the social whole of the student population*" (p. 106).

Finally, according to Stasinos (2013), special education has a dual character in that all the content is viewed as the process of modifying or adapting instruction to the child's unique educational requirements and, at the same time, as a practice of intervening in the problem in its many expressions (prevention, compensation, and treatment). Recapitulating: special education, as defined, encompasses both the scientific (specific educational programs) and social components (integration and acceptance) to be useful and comprehensive.

2.1.2 Definition and conceptual approaches of Special Educational Needs and Disabilities (SEND)

It should be noted that the term children with Special Educational Needs and/or Disabilities (SEND) is difficult to define because there is no universally accepted definition that fully reflects the evolving nature of special educational needs, as they are always influenced by social standards, educational system goals, and community

values (Papanis et al., 2009). Historically, these children were frequently labeled as "*abnormal*," "*maladapted*," "*problematic*," and "*ill*" (Riga, 1998). The term "*Students with special Educational Needs* (SEN)" was introduced in England in the Education Act (Department for Education, 1981) when students formerly referred to as "handicapped" were to be termed "pupils with SEN." In addition, in the same practice, a documented statement of requirements was created for each child and greater emphasis was placed on comprehensive support for their education. According to the Education Act (Department for Education, 1996) the legal definition of Special Educational Needs (SEN) is: "*A child has SEN if it has a learning difficulty that requires a special educational forecast to cover it*" (Farrell, 2003, p.11). The Education Act then defines "learning disability" as stating that a child has a learning disability if: a) he or she has significantly greater difficulty in learning than most of his or her peers; b) has a disability that prevents or hinders him from making use of educational facilities of a kind generally provided for children of his age in schools within the area of the local education authority; or c) attends compulsory education and falls under the above definitions (a) or (b) or should be if there was no specific educational provision for them (Farrell, 2003, p.12). SEN refers to the emotional and behavioral elements of an individual's development that make it difficult or impossible for them to attend a general and vocational school, integrate into the creative process, and be accepted by society (Dellasoudas, 2004; Westwood, 2015).

Additionally, the term "students with Special Education Needs and/or Disabilities" includes the physical, personal, social, emotional, and behavioral aspects of the development of the individual, in combination with the cognitive functions and learning within the school, to the extent that it is difficult or severely hindered to attend general and vocational education, the possibility of integration into the productive process, and mutual acceptance by society as a whole (Dellasoudas, 2004; Westwood, 2015). In general, the term SEND is more inclusive, since it is an acronym that encompasses children who may not necessarily have specific learning needs, but who need extra adjustments due to physical or sensory handicaps.

There are few bibliographic references that mention intellectually disabled or exceptional pupils as SEND (Dean, 1996; Farrell, 2003; Freeman, 1983; Halliwell, 2003; Westwood, 2015). Therefore, children with SEND can be broadly defined as those who have significantly greater difficulty learning and adapting to school than their

peers due to physical, mental, psychological, emotional, and social characteristics such as mental immaturity, vision, or hearing problems (deaf or hard of hearing), severe neurological or orthopedic defects or health problems, speech and language problems, and special learning difficulties (Dellasoudas, 2004; Westwood, 2015). When the school recognizes this need, it provides more support (Halliwell, 2003). The importance of recognizing individual needs, opportunities, strengths and weaknesses, preferences and interests is emphasized so that the educational process benefits each student individually to the maximum extent, facilitating his access to an "expanded, balanced and diversified curriculum" (Gulliford &Upton 1992; Rose & Howley, 2007; Wearmouth, 2009).

According to Kassotakis et al. (2005), the phrase "people with disabilities" refers to a broad group of individuals that includes many smaller subcategories that are distinct from one another. Individuals with disabilities include the blind and deaf, people with severe mobility problems, people with mental retardation, those with learning and other challenges, and people with mental illness and other emotional disabilities. Zoniou-Sideri (2009) states that the person with special needs is the one who is not able to participate in all the activities and enjoy all the goods offered to the other members of the society in which he lives, due to the situation of someone or some of his psychosomatic or social characteristics.

For Panteliadou and Botsas (2007), "special learning difficulties" is a general term that refers to a heterogeneous group of disorders that manifest with significant difficulties in acquiring and using listening, speaking, reading, writing, reasoning, or math skills. These disorders are inherent in the individual, are attributed to dysfunction of the central nervous system, and can exist throughout life.

The categories of Special Educational Needs and Disability (SEND) as defined by the SEND Code of Practice (Department of Education and Department of Health, 2015) and the World Health Organization (WHO, 1980) will next be given. According to the SEND Code of Practice, the following are the major areas of SEND:

• communication and interpersonal issues such as speech delays, impairments, or abnormalities

• cognitive and learning problems such as moderate, severe, severe / multiple learning difficulties, specific learning difficulties such as dyslexia and dyspraxia h

• behavioral, emotional, and social development, such as features of behavioral and emotional problems, ADHD, and so forth.

• sensory and/or physical requirements, such as hearing, vision, or physical disability students who have speech and language problems include those who have:

• deafness

• Autism Spectrum Disorder

• sensory or bodily impairment that impairs communication and interaction

Students with moderate, severe, or severe learning problems may also be included in this category, according to SEND. The problem is, though, that it's unclear whether these issues stem from communication and engagement (Department for Education and Department of Health, 2015). Additionally, students with special needs may need help with language acquisition, comprehension, and use, as well as articulation, cognitive skill acquisition, and the use of augmentative and alternative communication methods (Department for Education and Department of Health, 2015).

2.2 Historical background of Special Education-Models of approaching disability

Social biases against people with disabilities have gradually faded throughout the ages, as political and social developments have aided in the development of favorable attitudes toward individuals with impairments (Soulis, 2002). Interest in individuals with impairments started to grow towards the end of the 18th century and peaked in the 20th century. Rousseau, Lake, and Pestalozzi's ideas on children and the significance of childhood provided the first impetus (Tzouriadou, 1995).

People with disabilities have previously been marginalized and socially excluded because of society's views about them. People with impairments were regarded with suspicion and their human status was questioned consequently (Zoniou-Sideri, 2004a). Internationally, the 20th century was the most crucial for the development of special education, with the most significant developments occurring towards the end of the century. Before the middle of the twentieth century, individuals with impairments had restricted educational and social opportunities (Soulis, 2002).

People with disabilities originally attended special schools established by religious or charity groups, but subsequently, a parallel education system known as special schools was established for people with disabilities (Farrell & Ainscow, 2002). Until the 1970s, children with impairments were excluded from the regular school curriculum (Soulis, 2008). At this point, the dominant medical paradigm for disability, which has influenced special education since the mid-nineteenth century, starts to be seriously questioned.

2.2.1 The medical-individual model of disability

The medical-individual model of disability identifies and limits the disability to the individual. According to this model, disability is considered exclusively a problem of the individual, a problem that makes him essentially 'incompetent' and manifests itself with specific symptoms (Soulis, 2008; Oliver, 1996). The biological body is mentioned as the source of disability (Karagianni & Zoniou-Sideri, 2006).

The impaired individual, according to the foregoing, needs "therapy" and "assistance" from a professional (Zoniou-Sideri, 2011). The social environment is the context in which people with disabilities should be integrated and modified via medical care, parallel structure building, and institutionalization procedures (Anastasiou & Kauffman, 2011). The medical-individual paradigm achieves social inclusion by using "passive" procedures and welfare measures (Zoniou-Sideri, 2012). The first special education law (Law 1143/1981), "Law on Special Education, Vocational Education, Employment, and Social Welfare of Deviants," drew heavily on the medical-individual paradigm. The goal of this legislation is to give special education and vocational training to people who deviate from the norm, to implement social care measures, and to assess the likelihood of their integration into society, among other things.

The World Health Organization (WHO, 1980) created two frameworks for disability: the ICIDH (International Classification of Impairments, Disabilities, and Handicaps) and the ICIDH-2 (International Classification of Impairments, Disabilities, and Handicaps) (Zaimakis & Kandylaki, 2005). The World Health Organization (WHO, 1980) created the following injury and disability categories. The term "*injury*" refers to a loss or deviation from one's normal level of psychological, physiological, and functional performance. A disability is defined as a restriction or impediment to the

fulfillment of a function caused by an impairment or handicap. (Official Journal of the European Communities, No.230/38/10.9.81, Article 1.5.)

2.2.2 The social model of disability

The medical-atomic model received strong criticism. The fight against institutionalization and marginalization began in Britain in 1970 with the Union of Physically Impaired Against Segregation (UPIAS, 1976). The aim was to create opportunities for people with disabilities to ensure their participation in society as independent, self-sufficient, and equitable members (Shakespeare, 2006). The manifesto, entitled "*The Fundamental Principles of Disability*", led to the emergence of the social model (Oliver, 1996). More specifically, it is stated that "*In our view, it is a society that renders people with disabilities incompetent. Disability is something that is imposed on our disability in such a way that we are unnecessarily isolated and marginalized from full participation in society. People with disabilities are therefore an oppressed social group*." (UPIAS, 1976, p. 14).

In the context of this struggle, the social model of dealing with disability emerged. The key features of this model lie in the conceptual separation of impairment and disability as suggested by UPIAS (1976), as well as in the approach to disability as a social rather than an individual phenomenon. In this light, "damage" tends to refer to some weakening of the physical or mental capabilities of the individual. On the contrary, the concept of disability refers to the "difficulty or restriction of activity caused by modern social organizations, which pay little attention to how motor impairments can exclude access to one or the whole of a society" (UPIAS, 1976).

More specifically, disability is no longer related to the individual but to society itself, which oppresses and socially restricts people with disabilities, making them disabled. According to the "theory of justified action" of Fishbein and Ajzen (1977), a person's tendency to act in a particular way is determined by subjective norms and regulatory beliefs that contribute to the adoption or not of behavior depending on its acceptance or not by the social whole (social pressure). Thanks to the concept of "behavioral control," added by Ajzen (1991), the "theory of programmed behavior" was formed. The individual now feels that his actions verify the view of the "control group." Research by Armitage and Conner (2001) showed that the beliefs of the "many" were reflected in about 20% of learning outcomes. Humphrey (2002) states the need for self-

awareness and disengagement from pre-constructed self-images in which we "try" to fit. A few years later, Burden & Burdett (2005) demonstrated through the results of their own research on the mechanisms of education that upgraded learning environments aimed at inclusion prejudge positive attitudes towards learning, thus verifying the initial view. Upgraded environments include not only modernized technological and methodological terms, but also environments in which stereotypical or racist perceptions are no longer present (Burden & Burdett, 2005).

Disability is therefore a social construct, a constraint imposed by society, and a product of social activity (Oliver, 1990). The social mechanism, through its formation and operation, excludes these people from the right to full participation in social events, thus making them disabled (Panagiotou et al., 2012). Disability is therefore a matter of social ideologies, policies, and practices. Human functionality is influenced by the environment, which can facilitate or hinder the activities and participation of the individual in social development (Dewsbury et al., 2004). For example, a child with a disability attending a special school is deprived of socializing with a typical developmental peer. On the contrary, attending a school where a co-educational program is implemented offers him the opportunity to work with his non-disabled classmates, because of which he experiences recognition from society. Although the disability is the same in both cases, the child experiences it in different ways and with different intensities due to the different educational conditions.

Within the social model, disability is pushed outside the context of medicine and "treatment," but also the logic of asylum (Mavropoulou, 2007). Thus, the social model has succeeded in shifting interest from inadequacy as a biochemically dominant phenomenon to its political and social bases by focusing on the social origins of inadequacy (Hughes & Paterson, 1997). The model aimed to transfer moral responsibility to society and break the barriers that limit and marginalize this group of people. Such barriers can be natural, such as logistics, but they can also be educational.

The new paradigm of approaching disability appears to have had a significant impact on educational policy toward individuals with impairments. With the passage of Law 1566/1985 (Law 1566/Government Gazette, 1985), special education became a component of the mainstream education system. For the first time, legislation for the education of children with special needs is incorporated into general education

legislation, establishing the legal framework for the inclusion of students with special educational requirements. The term "divergent person" is redefined in legislation 1566/1985 as "person with special needs," with the goal of the law being the complete and effective development and exploitation of its potential and talents, inclusion in the productive process, and mutual acceptance by society.

In addition, in 2001, the World Health Organization (WHO, 2001) adopted a new classification system (the International Classification of Functioning, Disability, and Health). In this new classification system, the parameter "functionality" (functioning) is included, which describes the ability of the individual to perform daily human functions. Moreover, reference was made to the term "participation," i.e., the involvement of man in life situations, but also to the term "activity," which refers to the realization of an action or mission. In this way, the concepts of "participation restrictions" and "activity barriers" were emphasized, respectively, stating the problems that a person may experience during the process of engaging in life situations and the difficulties that may arise during the performance of his activities (Shakespeare & Watson, 1997). In conclusion, the social model based on human rights advocates the adaptation of environmental (e.g., logistical infrastructure), social, and political (e.g., legislation) conditions to the needs of people with disabilities. Making this adjustment possible requires collective effort and social action (WHO, 2001).

2.2.3 The multidimensional model of disability

However, both models have been criticized from time to time (Oliver, 1996). The social model of disability, although attempting to separate the relationship between harm and disability, has moved away from reports related to physical pain, medication, and the treatment of individual problems in general (Oliver, 1996). Crow (1992) argued that the social model could only evolve through the integration of the experience of harm with that of disability. Therefore, the social model appears incomplete, and its completion lies in the collapse of those theories according to which harm is a social product with those that focus on the role of the body experience.

In this context, the need to create a new, multidimensional model, in which disability would be understood conceptually through the interaction of social and individual problems and rights, was now a fact. The multidimensional model for

disability covered both the one-sided and restrictive approach of the medical-individual model and the "general" approach of the social model. The multidimensional model is born from the combination of measures both on a social and individual level through specialized actions. Essentially, the multidimensional model is a coupling between the individual and the social model. Therefore, finding a solution to the limitations of each model separately was ultimately at the intersection of these two disability models. Through this coupling, depending on the circumstances and the relevant problems, there is the flexibility of policies with the possibility of shifting the center of gravity to passive and/or active policies (E.S.A.meA, 2009).

This approach seems to have been followed by the World Health Organization, which revised the definition of disability, which is now characterized as "a complex and at the same time changing phenomenon that has its roots in the interaction of individual characteristics and characteristics of its environment" (WHO, 2001). As mentioned above, based on the fact that the current perceptions reflect the respective policies, the multidimensional approach to disability aims at the expiration of measures and the implementation of policies characterized by flexibility of shift, i.e., their transformation from passive to active on occasion. Therefore, the adoption of the multidimensional model leads to policies to ensure both individual and social rights (E.S.A.meA, 2009).

2.2.4 The educational model for disability

The National Confederation of People with Disabilities (E.S.A.meA), in its annual report in 2013, proposed a new model, the educational one, which focused its attention on taking appropriate measures and improving the quality of life of people with disabilities. For this to happen, it was necessary to redefine disability as a goal that could be achieved through education. Education, by its very nature, as a tool of socialization, can lead to the overthrow of social data as well as to the creation of a new culture of disability. In this model, educational and social reality go hand in hand with a dominant feature of diversity. The notions of "defectology" and the adaptation of the individual student to social reality are rejected. Instead, a cultural reality emerges where each student is accepted regardless of any physical, mental, social, cultural, religious, or racial trait. In fact, his personal contribution to society is recognized as a vehicle of culture that is no longer devalued by the supremacy of the majority of the "normal".

Education and society work together to provide all students, independently, with the opportunity to excel equally (Goufa et al., 2014). Overall, it becomes clear that the practical application of the educational model for disability can be implemented within the institution of inclusive education.

2.3 Special Education in Greece

People with special educational needs are people who have significant learning and adjustment difficulties due to physical, mental, psychological, emotional, and social peculiarities. According to Greek Law 2817/2000, these individuals include those who have: a. Mental retardation or immaturity b. Particularly severe vision problems (blind) or hearing problems (deaf) c. Serious neurological or orthopedic defects or health problems d. Speech and language problems e. Special learning difficulties (dyslexia, numeracy, illiteracy) f. Complex cognitive, emotional, and social difficulties and those with autism and other developmental disorders (Soulis, 2008).

According to Law 3699/2008, students with disabilities and special educational needs are considered those who for the whole or a certain period of their school life show significant learning difficulties due to sensory, mental, cognitive, developmental problems, mental and neuropsychiatric disorders which, according to the interdisciplinary assessment, affect the process of school adaptation and learning.

Students with disabilities and special educational needs include those who:

- have a mental disability, sensory visual impairments (blind, students with low vision),
- sensory hearing disabilities (deaf, hard of hearing),
- motor disabilities, chronic incurable diseases,
- speech-language disorders,
- special learning difficulties such as dyslexia, dysgraphia, dyscalculia, illiteracy, dysgraphia,
- attention deficit disorder with or without hyperactivity,
- diffuse developmental disorders (autism spectrum),
- mental disorders and multiple disabilities.

The category of students with disabilities and special educational needs does not include students with low school performance that is causally associated with external factors, such as linguistic or cultural peculiarities. Students with complex cognitive, emotional, and social difficulties, delinquent behavior due to abuse, parental neglect, and abandonment, or due to domestic violence, belong to people with special educational needs. Students with special educational needs are also students who have one or more mental abilities and talents developed to a degree that far exceeds the expectations for their age group.

A brief historical overview of special education in Greece reveals that it began as an institution in the early 20th century with the establishment of special schools and institutions. However, the issue of equal rights and opportunities for people with disabilities has begun to puzzle experts and to take the first approaches much later, during the transitional period (Stasinos, 2001).

Therefore, until the 1980s, special education legislation was limited. A year later, however, Law 1143/1981 was passed, which was considered a pioneer for that time. This law was based on equality and justice for all citizens. At the same time, it sought to integrate people with disabilities into all sectors, with a view to their social and occupational rehabilitation. However, there were some reactions and intense criticism as this law essentially maintained the existing education system, cutting special education out of general education. Thus, it did not contribute to the integration of people with disabilities but rather led to their marginalization (Zoniou-Sideri, 1998).

For the above reasons, later Law 1566/1985 was introduced, which is known as "anti-309" (Zoniou-Sideri, 2011). By this law, special education was part of general education, and since then the competent authority is the Ministry of Education. Special auxiliary services were also introduced, such as the school psychologist (Polychronopoulou, 2003). The state officially stated that it was abolishing the dividing lines in education, which it had begun in 1983–84 by creating special classrooms in mainstream schools (Zoniou-Sideri, 2011).

Subsequently, Law 1771/1988 was followed to fill some gaps in the previous law and further introduced the principles about persons with disabilities in higher education, while supplementary Law 1824/1988 introduced supportive teaching in schools (Zoniou-Sideri, 2000). During the same period 1989-1993, within the European

Union, there was a similar development in the field of special education. Thus, the country participated in two European programs, called HELIOS I and HELIOS II, aimed at the social integration and integration of people with disabilities (Delassoudas, 2004). Then, in 1995, an attempt was made to amend Law 1566/1981 where it was finally voted in 2000. The new Law 2817/2000 defined the integration of persons with disabilities into general education and specified special education only in cases of serious problems (Zoniou-Sideri, 2011). To implement this measure, Zoniou- Sideri (2011) reports that individual programs were created for each child, and the role of special educators was strengthened. Specifically, students with special educational needs could now attend integration courses or receive support, while teaching uses state-of-the-art technology, Braille devices, etc. New specialties such as music therapists, sign interpreters were introduced. In addition, diagnostic and support centers for people with disabilities (CDDDS -KEDDY in Greek) and university departments for special education studies are being established. Finally, sign language is recognized as the official language of the deaf.

It is found that this law had several positive regulations but was unable to create "a school for all". The reason was that special education had other rhythms and themes than general education did, and simply, the two types worked in parallel. In addition, the centralized disadvantage was the centralized nature of the CDDDS as it operated in large cities, with the result that remote areas did not have adequate support (Zoniou-Sideri, 2011).

In this context, Law 3699/2008 was voted in 2008 with the primary aim of ensuring equal opportunities for all citizens with disabilities and special educational needs, with the aim of their full integration. Under this law, special education is now owned by the Ministry of Education Educational and Counseling Support Centers CDDDS and co-education programs are established. Thus, students with mild learning disabilities are now able to attend a mainstream school classroom and, in some cases, receive support from a special teacher or attend integration classes. In fact, for each student with special needs a personalized program can be created by an interdisciplinary team (Vlachos, 2008).

However, just as in 2012, Greece ratified by UN 4074/2012 the United Nations Organization convention on the rights of persons with disabilities and the Optional

Protocol to the Convention (Government Gazette A '88 / 11.4.2012). Another law was also followed by Law 4115/2013 (Government Gazette A'24/30.1.2013) and Article 39, where special schools are essentially support centers for a set of school units, called the School Education and Support Network. The main objective of these centers is to coordinate the members of the school units and their respective departments to support students with disabilities.

The above law was subsequently amended by Law 4186/2013 and Article 28, on special education issues, with regulations related to secondary vocational education structures and their competencies of CDDDS. This law establishes that CDDDS has sole responsibility for the classification, enrollment, transcription, and attendance of people with disabilities in the appropriate special education school unit as well as for the appropriate support framework in the mainstream school.

2.4 Students with special educational needs in Greece.

This section will present statistics for students with special educational needs attending Greek schools. The data was collected from the 5th Statistical Information Bulletin conducted by the National Confederation of Persons with Disabilities (Disability Observatory, 2019). Note that the collection of statistical data for students with disabilities and/or special educational needs in Greece is at an early stage. In 2018, data was made available for the first time on students with disabilities and/or special educational needs attending general schools through a new information system that applies to all public and private schools in the country. In previous years, the only data available was limited to the student population of special schools, precluding any possibility of designing and monitoring documented policies for the inclusive education of students with disabilities.

These data allow us to outline a first picture of the total population of students with disabilities and/or special educational needs, the type of support they receive or do not receive, the adequacy of teaching staff, as well as geographical differences and inequalities found in the variables in question. It should be clarified that data gaps are still large. For the student population with disabilities and/or special educational needs attending general schools, a) it is not possible to analyze the data by category of disability or educational need, b) there is no complete data on the reasonable adjustments provided, c) they cannot provide data on student dropout, d) there is no

picture of the large part of the students of integration departments who study in these departments without having a formal evaluation or opinion, and finally, any data on the reason for their referral to an integration department is missing.

According to the estimate of the Disability Observatory, the student population with disabilities and/or special educational needs (with official assessment/opinion) amounts in the school year 2017-18 to 90,743 students out of a total of 1,429,147 students (percentage ratio 6.3%). 70% of these students are boys, while the vast majority, 88%, attend general schools in primary and secondary education.

Most Primary and Secondary education students with disabilities and / or special educational needs, and 88%, attend general education schools. In the school year 2017-18, 79,934 students with disabilities or special educational needs attended general primary and secondary education, while 10,809 students attended special schools. Per level of education, the ratio remains almost unchanged, as in all educational levels, more than 8 out of 10 students with disabilities and/or special educational needs attend general schools.

2.4.1 Students with disabilities and / or special educational needs attending Special Education and Training Schools (SMEAE)

Students attending special schools account for 38.2% of special primary schools, while 56% attend lower and upper secondary schools, and 7 out of 10 students attending special schools are boys. Most students attend special schools concentrated in the Attica region (34.8%) and secondarily in Central Macedonia (17.3%). In Western Greece, there is a relatively larger number of students in special schools compared to the total number of students in the region (8.2% of SMEAE students in the country study in Western Greece, while 6.3% of the total student population is concentrated in this region).

According to the data published by the Hellenic Statistical Authority, the student population of SMEAE consists mainly of students with mental retardation at a rate of 36.3%, students with autism (29.9%) and students with multiple disabilities (13.7%).

2.4.2 Students with disabilities and / or special educational needs attending general education schools.

According to the statistics, 79,934 students attend regular primary and secondary schools around the nation, following a professional opinion. Students with disabilities and/or special educational needs who attend general education schools report that most of them receive support only from the general education teacher (57.3%). The provision of specialized support (integration departments, parallel support, special support staff, school nurse, special assistant from the family, home teaching) to students attending general schools presents a significant inequality in the regions of the country. In the regions of Western Greece (32% of Western Greece), Attica (36.2%) and Central Greece (39.4%) have the lowest percentages of students who receive some specialized support for all students with a formal disability or special educational needs in general schools.

Moreover, 31% of students with disabilities and/or special educational needs (24,751 students) attend departments with integration and specialized programs, and 7% of students are supported with parallel support. Additionally, parallel support is provided mainly to pre-school and primary school students. The general conclusion is also that the number of students receiving specialized support (other than support from the class teacher) is significantly reduced during the transition from primary to lower secondary and upper secondary education, where now more than 90% of students are supported only by general education teachers. The integration classes of primary and secondary education are attended by students with disabilities and/or special educational needs who have an official evaluation/opinion from CDDDS or another public-certified body, but also students without an opinion who may face difficulties in joining the general department. These students attend integration classes with the consent of the Special Education and Inclusion Education Coordinator and their parents/guardians.

However, in many circumstances, students with poor academic performance and/or behavioral difficulties as a result of suspected neglect or problems in their familial setting are assigned to integration classes without the advice of a specialist. The overall number of these students enrolled in integration classes (without the advice of a specialist) is exceptionally substantial, accounting for 35.2 % of those enrolled in

the specialized classes. In fact, during the 2017-18 academic year, a total of 39,440 pupils attended integration classes across the country, with just 25,542 students receiving expert advice (64.8 percent of the total number of students attending the integration departments).

2.4.3 Students with disabilities and / or special educational needs receiving parallel support in general education schools

The majority of students who received parallel support during the 2017-18 school year were supported for less than 20 hours per week (78%). In addition, 37% of students who received parallel support were supported for 1 to 10 hours, while only 22% of students were supported for 20 hours or more per week. Therefore, the coverage rates of students with parallel support mentioned above may be fictitious in several cases, as is the case in the Attica region, where the vast majority of students receiving parallel support are insufficiently supported for only a few hours.

Chapter III. INCLUSIVE EDUCATION

Inclusive education is a contentious term, with underlying practices and conceptions varying by area (Loreman, 2017). In a broad sense, the term "inclusive education" refers to the diversity that identifies students and the ways in which the characteristics of each school are treated. It is related to the tendency or the effort to overcome the obstacles of participation and learning for all students regardless of any difference, such as, e.g., nationality, gender, social background, disability, performance, etc. (Booth & Ainscow, 1998).

Inclusive education in general is a complex and controversial issue, a fact that often provokes intense discussions, between experts and various stakeholders. Ainscow et al. (2000) argue that there is great ambiguity, but also confusion, in the meaning of the term inclusive education.

Many times, the differentiation of inclusive education with integration is not easily distinguished even by the education professionals themselves (Angelides, 2011). The following section will address the differences between integration and inclusion, followed by a bibliographic review of the definitions of inclusive education. Finally, with reference to the evolution of inclusive education in Greece, the integration classes and the parallel support institutions will be discussed.

3.1. From integration to inclusive education

The terms "integration," "mainstreaming or incorporation," and "inclusion," although they have some things in common, their conceptual content is different, as they express practices that have been adopted at different times, and many times the terms "integration" and "inclusion" overlap or are used alternatively (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002). In fact, teachers themselves often perceive the meaning, nature, and practice of inclusion differently (Angelides et al., 2006), a fact that has made inclusion a subject of scientific controversy (Hornby, 2012).

According to Soulis (2008), the institution of inclusive education could be considered a conceptual evolution of the institutions of "*mainstreaming* " and "*integration*". We will first deal with the term "mainstreaming," which is the first to

appear in the internationally launched effort for the rights of people with disabilities. Mainstreaming appeared in response to the bipolar education system for people with disabilities, as it provided for the placement of children with disabilities in general education schools but without necessarily encountering their typical developmental peers (Farrell & Ainscow, 2002).

According to Dictionary of the Common Modern Greek Language (1998) mainstreaming is referred to as "*the placement of one, within a whole in which it is assimilated and loses its independence*". The term mainstreaming appeared in the 1960s in the Nordic countries and was first enacted in the United States in 1975 with the Law on the Education of Students with Disabilities. The term mainstreaming is used to describe the efforts to avoid marginalization and isolation in the education of children with special needs (Tzouriadou, 1995). However, the term mainstreaming began to be questioned and give way to the term "integration" because through integration no importance is given to the personality traits of each individual, "the individual assimilates to the whole and loses its uniqueness" (Soulis, 2002).

The issue of the integration of children with disabilities and / or SEND in Europe has been at the center of interest since the 1970s, especially after the Warnock report in 1978, which prioritized integration and more specifically locational, social and functional integration of people with / without disability in the general school (Zoniou-Sideri, 1998)

The report also aimed at reviewing educational benefits for children with disabilities and was closely linked to the condition of integration (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002). In the 1998 Dictionary of the Common Modern Greek Language, the term "integration" is defined as "the systematic placement of an inseparable part within an assembled whole" and does not have the characteristic of "assimilation." Through the idea of integration, the right to education was promoted to all students with disabilities, since until that time a large percentage of children with special needs were excluded from the educational practice. The integration, according to Farrell & Ainscow (2002), provided for partial contact of children who were included in the school context with their peers, mainly in school education or in dining areas, but again the educational act did not take place in the same environment. The institution of integration was considered a pioneer for that time as it proposed new forms of

pedagogical evaluation and education of children with disabilities (Soulis, 2008). However, according to Zollers et al. (1999) the institution of integration did not work effectively. The separation of special and general classes continued to exist, with the result that children with disabilities continued to experience isolation even though they were spatially in the same school as their typically developing peers. Integration does not provide quality in education (Farrell & Ainscow, 2002). The institution of integration did not promote the social interactions of people with disabilities, keeping them cut off from members of the school community (Farrell, 2000). Despite the strong criticism of the institution for not providing quality to the educational process, it continued to operate until the 1980s (Vislie, 2003). The efforts that followed to ensure an equal education for children with special needs led to the emergence of the institution of inclusive education (Soulis, 2008).

The institution of inclusive education emerged in the 1990s. According to Soulis (2008) children with disabilities were taught in the general classroom with their classmates, their typical development peers. The main difference with the idea of inclusion is that inclusive education was not just concerned with the placement of the disabled in general education but aimed at quality education of all students, without categorizing them (Soulis, 2008). Inclusive education has also replaced integration because its goals include respect for human rights that are not challenged by disability (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002). The institution of inclusive education allowed students with disabilities to enter the classrooms of general schools as it was argued that both children with disabilities and their normal developmental classmates benefit from this common education (Fakolade et al., 2009). This method of co-teaching helps children with disabilities in terms of their educational and social self-improvement (Kypriotakis, 2001), while children of formal development help them to develop a culture of solidarity, their awareness and to become aware of their abilities (Rafferty & Griffin, 2005).

Therefore, it can be concluded that a key point of differentiation between integration and inclusion is the concept of adaptation. In the context of integration, the student is partially or completely placed in the context of the general school (Polat, 2011) and is asked to adapt to the school environment (Lindsay, 2007). On the contrary, in the context of inclusion, the environment is the one that is called to adapt to the needs of students (Lindsay, 2007). The key to achieving a successful adjustment is the attitude

of the school itself. More specifically, the school context should primarily prioritize the medical model of approaching disability, which focuses on the individual's weaknesses as a result of congenital pathology and treats disability as a handicap or deficit (Kirby, 2016), and secondarily make the necessary changes to the values, attitudes, policies, and practices that are considered necessary for the successful educational inclusion of students with special educational needs (Polat, 2011).

3.2 Definitions of inclusive education

The word "inclusion" was introduced in 1990 during the UNESCO International Summit (UNESCO, 1990), when the necessity for obligatory and high-quality education for everyone was advocated. Following that, at the UNESCO World Congress in June 1994 in Salamanca, Spain, ninety-two governments and twenty-five international organizations co-signed the Salamanca Declaration entitled "Principles, Policies, and Practices in Special Education," which articulated the principle of "education for all" (UNESCO, 1994). To signify the new core aim of educational policy and the essential framework for its realization, the term "*education for all*" underlined the necessity for the education of children with special needs. The term "*integration*," which had previously been in use, was replaced in an attempt by the participating experts to broaden the concept, following findings that long-term implementation of integration policies and integration systems had not resulted in the formation of the appropriate ideological framework.

The most essential point of the Salamanca Declaration is that the English term inclusion is now being consolidated. The term inclusion is rendered in the Greek language with terms such as "integration", " mainstreaming or incorporation " and "equal co-education" (Polychronopoulou & Zacharogeorga , 1993) and is based on a philosophy of acceptance and respect for all children without setting parameters around disability. Schools should welcome all children, regardless of physical, mental, social, emotional, language or other abilities. This includes children with SEND as well as children with exceptional skills, children from linguistic, cultural or ethnic minorities, as well as children from degraded otherwise marginalized groups or regions.

According to the literature, various definitions have been formulated for inclusive education. Sebba & Ainscow (1996) defines inclusive education as the

process which describes school's attempt to respond to all students individually by reviewing the organization and provision of the curriculum. This process enables more and more students from the local community to attend the school.

Porter (1997) defines inclusive education as a system of education in which children with special needs are educated together with their peers in the formal schools of their area while they are provided with supportive teaching within the general school according to their abilities and needs.

Corbett & Slee (2000) state that inclusive education is an unshakable, public and political proclamation and celebration of diversity. It requires a continuous active response to establish an integrated educational culture.

According to Strully & Strully (1996), inclusive education is defined as a process of consummation. It is the process of bringing all the children together so that they can learn together. It means helping all people (children and adults) to recognize and appreciate each other's unique gifts.

Inclusive education is the educational process in which all students, irrespective of disability or special educational requirements, get the same age-appropriate curriculum taught in general education schools (Ferguson, 1999). Inclusion of children with special educational needs is a crucial component and factor of educational practice, while inclusive education has been acknowledged globally as the objective of educational systems worldwide (Curcic, 2009; Katz, 2012a; Katz, 2012b). Consequently, more children with physical or mental challenges are attending general education schools (Laws & Kelly, 2005).

Inclusive education is promoted on two bases: the right of children to be included in general education and the view that inclusive education is more effective (Lindsay, 2007). Within a philosophy of inclusive education, schools are designed to meet the needs of all students. If a student faces difficulties that hinder his learning process, then it is considered preferable to identify the problem in the context of learning strategies applied in general and in the operation of the school rather than the student himself (Sharma et al., 2012). Still, the term "inclusion" refers to a more drastic model. It is implied that the curriculum of the general education school, the teaching methods, the organization, and the resources of teaching, should be adapted to ensure that all students, regardless of ability or disability, can successfully participate in

general education. (Mittler, 1995). The process of including children with special needs in the general context of education is related to an overall view of the school system and the replacement of the tendency of these children to attend special schools (Wong, 2008).

3.3 Principles of Co-education

Co-education is a concept that has three directions and two procedures. The three axes are as follows: a) placement of children with disabilities and/or special educational requirements in mainstream schools, b) social contact of all students with one another, and c) implementation of differentiated teaching programs incorporated in the curriculum's wide framework (Ipgrave, 2004). The methods entail enhancing the engagement of students with disabilities and/or special educational needs in attending classes and other activities in general school, followed by the process of diminishing isolation from educational and social events (Booth, 1996).

According to the Index for Inclusion (Booth & Ainscow, 2011), which is still used as a guide for teachers, it highlights, among other topics, how the implementation of inclusive education should be restructured, including practices and school policy, as well as learning conditions and logistical infrastructure, such as sports facilities or research labs, in order to meet the diverse needs of students (Mastropieri & Scruggs, 2001; Tafa, 1998). According to the European Commission for Special Education and Training, the implementation of inclusive education necessitates a) political will; b) systemic change in the education system with a focus on learning; and c) reflection, redefinition, and reorganization of human and financial resources (European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education, 2022).

In terms of internal school reorganization and teacher roles, there should be constant collaboration between the principal, the teacher, and the special educator in order to determine the respective educational goals, adjust the curriculum as needed, and decide on the implementation of individualized teaching programs. Training in special education is a vital requirement for successful cooperation between them in their education (Mastropieri & Struggs, 2001). The participation of parents with the teaching staff is a vital element for the effective outcome of inclusive education, since it provides

necessary support and improves decision-making (Norwich, 1999). Classes should be small for the effective implementation of inclusive education, and current supervisory instruments should be employed in accordance with the children's specific needs. Moreover, all students should participate in a variety of activities both inside and outside of the classroom, in collaboration with children from other departments and classes. In this way, the awareness and change of attitude of all children towards children with disabilities and/or special educational needs are achieved (Tafa, 1998).

An essential factor is also the evolution of a culture of acceptance, a friendly environment with events of solidarity and mutual support for and from all members of the school class, so that the natural and social environment that is formed includes all children and all cultures that meet at school (Tafa, 1998). As a result, the goal of implementing inclusive education is to build a school that is a shared space of learning, knowledge, and socializing for all students, regardless of their unique characteristics, talents, or origin.

Co-education of students with and without disabilities and/or special educational needs is implemented differently in different countries and schools. This is since each country has a unique educational system and educational policy in place for people with disabilities and/or special educational requirements (Papanikolaou, 2018). Furthermore, depending on the logistical infrastructure and particularly educated teaching staff, each school can use different inclusive education practices.

3.3.1 Models of co-education

Co-education is a diverse practice since it is strongly tied to the educational setting to which it is applied. Specifically, its implementation depends on the school's personnel, its resources, and the characteristics of the students with special educational needs. Norwich (1999) outlined four schematic models of inclusive education to highlight the variety of methods that might come from combining the importance of mainstreaming with the promotion of individual participation in the educational process (individuality). Following is a description of each of these models.

In the full inclusion model, all students are actively engaged in their education. It is anti-discriminatory in that it encourages pupils of different backgrounds to work together in the classroom. Differentiated instruction and grouping strategies are used to

accommodate students' varying learning styles and promote inclusive classroom environments. Children with SEND are not provided with special education or supplemental help since it is assumed that all children learn best in a traditional classroom environment. Children with disabilities do not have a dedicated institutional and legal framework (Strati,2017; McLeskey & Waldron, 2011; Norwich,1999).

In-class participation models, which emphasize engagement in the same place. In this situation, a professional educator works with students individually or in small groups to help them realize their full potential, either inside or outside of the traditional classroom environment. A national curriculum with differentiation for children with disabilities is developed, and specific regulations are passed to protect these kids' needs. Thus, based on this model, the operation of special schools and special classes ends, and only the operation of general classes and support classes within the framework of general education is encouraged with the assistance of psychologists or other professionals. Schools must have the necessary resources to assist pupils with severe impairments and other issues, which is sometimes a disincentive. However, there are also doubts over how typical class groupings may adequately fulfill the diverse requirements of SEN students. (Strati,2017; McLeskey & Waldron, 2011; Norwich,1999).

This third model acknowledges the limited use of special schools and courses for educating children with SEND, as well as ability grouping within ordinary classes. In circumstances when children with SEND do not seem to be able to react to the general education curriculum, they have the option of pursuing a personalized education program in a special school for a certain period. Children with SEND are only educated in special school units if their participation in a mainstream classroom is judged harmful to the academic achievement and social conduct of the other pupils. (Strati,2017; McLeskey & Waldron, 2011; Norwich,1999).

The fourth model emphasizes the need of educating children with specific educational needs in special schools or special classrooms. These structures are more appropriate learning environments for students with SEND because they enable these students to interact with other children who have difficulties and needs that are comparable to their own. As a result, these students are not subjected to constant comparisons with their peers who are considered to be "typical," which helps them feel

less of a sense of inferiority and significantly improves their self-esteem and self-image. This approach places a strong emphasis, at the same time, on the right of students with SEND to participate in mainstream classrooms. Together with the student's parents and the school's specialist personnel, the choice may be taken about the support system that will best benefit each individual student (Strati, 2017; Norwich,1999).

3.3.2 Implementation of co-education in Europe

Between 1990 and 2000, European countries were divided into three groups based on how they implemented special education policies: one-track, two-track, and multi-track (multi-track approach). These three types of educational policies have a lot in common with Norwich's (1999) co-education implementation methods, which include: 1) full inclusive education, 2) classroom participation, 3) individual needs focus, and 4) optional co-education (Norwich, 2000).

The one-way method included countries that developed legislation and practical applications aimed at integrating nearly all students into general education. Spain, Greece, Italy, Portugal, Sweden, Iceland, Norway, and Cyprus were among the countries that followed this way (Papanikolaou, 2018). The f*ull-inclusive model* and the *same classroom participation* model are both used in this method. In the first model, all children, regardless of their differences, require equal treatment at school, and the goal is for them to interact. In the first model, all children need equal treatment at school regardless of their particularities, while the goal is to have interaction between them. In this model, no support is provided by a special educator to students with disabilities and/or special educational needs since the educational environment of the general class is considered the most suitable for the acquisition of knowledge and skills. There is also no legislative regulation or revision of the curriculum, as well as parental engagement in decision-making (Norwich, 2000).

In the second approach, a special educator and a psychologist or other expert will give help outside of the classroom. This model, unlike the previous one, incorporates regulations governing the operation of support courses, special facilities, and curriculum adjustments to fit children's unique educational needs. Notably, this paradigm has been critiqued for the lack of parental participation (Norwich, 2000).

According to the second two-way method, there were two independent education systems, each with its own legislation and set of laws, in which children with disabilities and/or specific educational needs attended special courses in special schools rather than following the normal educational curriculum. Switzerland and Belgium are two nations where special education was introduced in this manner because a well-organized system of special schools was necessary. As a result, there is no inclusive education under this technique, as there is a separate school system for children with SEND. This technique is similar to Norwich's restricted and inclusive education paradigm, which emphasizes two factors: children's academic success and sociability (Papanikolaou, 2018). According to the first component and the children's academic achievement, it is advised that they attend special schools or courses, whereas the second factor suggests that they attend a regular school. The special education personnel and the child's parents jointly decide on the school. In this paradigm, children who remain in special schools may have a detrimental impact on their social integration and acceptability by other students (Norwich, 1999).

Regarding the third method, which corresponds with the Norwich model of *concentrating on individual needs* (Norwich, 1999), the potential of multiple approaches to the integration of persons with disabilities and/or special educational needs is provided (Papanikolaou, 2018). In further detail, focus is given to the children's unique requirements, and the operation of special schools and courses is planned. Following an examination of each child's educational needs, and when there are critical and difficult situations where the child cannot attend the class program, it is proposed that the child attend a special school. Denmark, France, Ireland, Luxembourg, Austria, Hungary, Poland, Finland, the United Kingdom, Latvia, the Czech Republic, Estonia, Lithuania, and Poland, Slovakia, and Slovenia were all included in this group.

Moving forwards, it is critical to emphasize that the models outlined above do not no longer exist. Nonetheless, in the countries, the implementation of inclusive education has progressed substantially over time (Papanikolaou, 2018). According to current statistics from the European Agency for Special Education and Co-education (European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education, 2022), educational segregation has been reduced, and the institution of co-education is almost entirely used.

According to the findings of the study, the percentage of pupils with disabilities and special educational requirements in general schools in the 28 nations of the European Union (notice that Greece did not participate in this study) is about 98 percent (European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education, 2022). There is law in these nations that requires all children, including those with disabilities and/or special educational needs, to be enrolled and attend some sort of schooling, whether in a mainstream school or another structure. Co-education is implemented in three ways: a) part-time study in a separate special class inside the general school, b) full-time study in a separate special class within the general school, and c) general class study (European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education, 2022). In each country, there are specific educational division structures for children with impairments, such as special schools where additional health and/or social welfare services are offered. Parents and other private special education institutions can also provide home education.

The study's findings reveal that many European nations are returning to the practice of inclusive education, with an increase in special classes in regular schools and a drop in attendance in fully distinct educational institutions. Finally, it should be mentioned that there is a lack of data on the implementation of inclusive education in general education classrooms (Papanikolaou, 2018).

3.4 Inclusive education in the Greek educational system

According to law 3699/2008 students with special educational needs in Greece have the opportunity and the option to study:

a. in a general school classroom, in the case of students with mild learning difficulties, supported by the class teacher, who cooperates on a case-by-case basis with the Centers for Differential Diagnosis, Diagnosis and Support (CDDDS or KEDDY in Greek), with school counselors of general and special education, and Special Education Peers.

b. In a general school classroom, with parallel support-co-education, by Special Education teachers, when this is required by the type and degree of special educational needs. Parallel support is provided to students who can attend the classroom curriculum with appropriate individual support, to students with more serious educational needs when in their area there is no other framework of Special Education and Training

(special school, integration department) or when the parallel support becomes necessary - based on the opinion of CDDDS - due to their special educational needs. In the latter case the support can be done on a permanent and planned basis by a special educator. The parallel support is suggested exclusively by the relevant CDDDS which with its written opinion determines the hours of parallel support on a case-by-case basis. Applications for parallel support are submitted to the school management and through the relevant directorate of education are forwarded to the Directorate of Special Education of the Ministry of National Education and Religions for approval and execution planning. The time for submitting applications for parallel support is set from the date of enrollment in the school until the end of October of each school year.

c. in specially organized and properly staffed Integration Departments (IC) that operate within the schools of general and vocational education. These departments operate with two (2) different types of programs: a) A joint and specialized program, determined by a proposal from the relevant CDDDS, for students with a milder form of special educational needs. The duration of this program will not exceed fifteen (15) teaching hours per week for each student. Students can also study at the ICs without the opinion of a diagnostic body with the consent of the school counselor for special education. To establish an IC, it is necessary to have at least three students and a relevant proposal from a diagnostic service. In cases of co-located or neighboring schools, the ICs are merged up to a maximum of twelve (12) students per IC. b) A specialized group or individual program of extended hours, determined by a proposal of the relevant CDDDS, for students with more serious special educational needs that are not covered by the type and degree of independent school units. The specialized program can be independent, according to the needs of the students. In these cases, the co-teaching is done according to the suggestions of the diagnostic services. Students who do not self-serve attend either independent schools of special education and training (SMEAE), schools of general education, or IC with the appropriate support and the presence of special support staff (EPC), depending on their type of disability and the special educational needs arising from it. In cases where the education of students with disabilities and special educational needs becomes particularly difficult due to special educational needs, with the result that these students cannot be admitted to the schools of the joint educational program or their integration departments, their education is provided:

a) in independent SMEAE,

b) in schools or departments that operate either independently or as branches of other schools in hospitals, rehabilitation centers, juvenile care institutions, institutions for the chronically ill or Mental Health Education and Rehabilitation Services, if they are home to disabled school-age and educational needs,

 c) By teaching children at home when serious short-term or chronic health issues prevent them from moving and attending school. This opinion is issued by a public medical education service or a public health committee and is approved by a decision of the regional director of education for the level at which the student is enrolled, after a reasoned recent medical opinion stating the period of stay at home.

3.4.1 Integration classes

According to Article 6 of Law 3699/2008, students with SEND can study in specially organized and staffed integration classes, which operate in general schools and follow two types of programs. The integration classes have no administrative status and are attached to general education schools. Their institutionalization began with Laws 1566/1985 and Laws 2817/2000 as special classes, and later they were renamed integration classes.

The term special class was unfortunate, as it does not refer to any class in the school but is a special program for children with special needs and / or disabilities in the general school (Polychronopoulou, 2001).

In the past, children with learning disabilities or behavioral issues attended special classrooms for a few hours each week before returning to the regular class. They were classified into two groups based on the time of study: Full-time-Special Class I and part-time-Special Class II (Christakis, 1994).

Then children with other educational needs began to study. As far as the integration classes are concerned, they operate in two different ways. The common and specialized program defined by Center for Diagnosis, Differential Diagnosis and Support (CDDDS) for students with mild educational needs and has as an upper limit of 15 teaching hours per week. Students who have received the necessary assessment and opinion from CDDDS (Polychronopoulou, 1999), but also children who have not

received this opinion, but always with the consent of the school counselor, can attend the Department of Integration.

For the establishment and operation of an integration class, a precondition is the participation of at least three children and a relevant proposal from the diagnostic service. In the case where school units are co-located, the integration classes are merged, and the allowed number of students in them per class is 12. The second program is that of the specialized group or individual extended schedule determined by a CDDDS proposal and concerns students with more serious educational needs. In these cases, with the proposal of CDDDS, a specialized program is followed that is based on the needs and capabilities of these students and is independent of the public.

The integration classes are spatially housed in the formal education school and are attended by students with mild educational needs, behavioral problems, and low school performance, and the lessons take place for a few school hours during the week. The educational programs are tailored to the needs of the student, and individual or group teaching is provided in a specific area of the school. In the integration department, there is rich supervisory material, a computer, fewer desks, and depending on the educational needs of the student, there may be a rest area. The responsibility of educating the student with SEND is shared between the class teacher and the teacher of the integration department. The teaching practice in the general classroom is that of co-teaching, and there is a collaboration between the teachers of special education and general education to make modifications and adjustments in the teaching but also to evaluate the student's progress.

Nevertheless, Greek education has given negative impressions with samples of reduced tolerance for diversity and great inelasticity due to the easy referral for assessment of students who are considered difficult to join the field of special education. The integration classes maintained the separation within the general school by expelling children with special educational needs and / or disabilities from the general classroom, as the schools are not prepared to deal with the diversity and diversity of students by shifting their own inadequacies and problems to the disability and pathology of students (Lachana & Efstathiou, 2015). Thus, the question is the adaptation of the school to the individuality and uniqueness of the student and the creation of an educational program adapted to his needs, not the adaptation of the

student to the provided educational program. Integration aims at education and upbringing for all students without exception in a school for all, something that cannot be done without political will, an assessment of the current situation, and the adoption of an inclusive philosophy (Lachana & Efstathiou, 2015).

3.4.2. Parallel support

The law 3699/2008 states that children with special educational needs and / or disabilities have the right to attend general school by receiving support services from special education teachers that are related to the type and severity of the diagnosis of the children. In other words, it is the coexistence and co-teaching of all children, regardless of individuality and educational needs (Liodakis, 2000). This way of providing educational services for children with disabilities is a type of model of co-teaching, which in Greece is called Parallel Support (PS).

Children with SEND participate in the PS when it is judged that it is the most appropriate placement for them based on the opinion of the Center for Diagnosis, Differential Diagnosis, and Support (CDDDS). Students also participate in the PS when, in the area where the child's family lives, there is no other school unit of special education (SMEAE) such as a special school, an integration department, etc. However, in any case, for a student to participate in a PS program, he or she must have a written opinion from the relevant CDDDS, which determines the hours of parallel support that the child will receive. If the child's school has an integration department, then CDDDS should justify the reasons why it is not proposed for the child to attend the integration department but for his or her participation in the parallel support. The application of the parents for the provision of parallel support to their child, accompanied by the relevant opinion from CDDDS, is submitted to the school principal, which, through the directorates of education, is notified to the Ministry of Education (Law 3699/2008).

The educational services of PS provided only by teachers of the Ministry of Education. In case the number of special education teachers is not enough to cover the needs of the PS, then based on the following amendment (Article 26 "Other provisions" & 9a N. 3879/2010) teachers of different specialties can be hired (eg general education teachers-PE70, philologists, mathematicians, etc.), provided that they have attended special education seminars.

Regarding the education of children with hearing impairments, prospective educators must be proficient in Greek Sign Language. Likewise, to assist vision challenged students, educators must be Braille-trained. On the recommendation of the family and with the approval of the teachers' organization, a special assistant may be present in the classroom for autistic children. In addition, children who cannot care for themselves have access to specialized workers from the central administration. Each new school year requires a new act of permission for the provision of the PS, and only in the case of autism may it be extended for a second year as long as the appropriate CDDD 's opinion remains valid (N. 3699/2008). The law titled "Development of Lifelong Learning and Other Provisions" (Law 3879/2010) stipulates that employees employed for parallel assistance must complete four training cycles. In the first cycle, trainees will learn about general problems in special education, the development of specialized study plans, teaching methodologies, etc. In the second cycle of training, assessment of children's knowledge and abilities is emphasized. In the third cycle, instructors document the profile of the kids they help, the potential of the school environment in terms of parallel support, and the action plans and tailored program plans they generate. In the fourth program evaluation cycle, pertinent calendars are filled up.

3.5 The role of teachers in the implementation of inclusion

It is a well-known reality that teachers have a challenging, time-consuming, and essential role to perform in inclusive education. They are responsible for organizing and carrying out the inclusive education program in a diverse school environment with students who come from a variety of backgrounds and have varying levels of educational ability and need (Panteliadou & Patsiodimou, 2007). They need to learn how to build new forms of teaching, foster an atmosphere that focuses on student expectations, and place their students in new roles. Moreover, teachers are cultural producers and central players in educational reform, curriculum, critical literacy, democracy, and social justice. Their work should be based on ongoing research that takes place in the classroom in order to foster an atmosphere of discovery in relation to these changes (Zoniou-Sideri, 1998). According to Uiterwijk-Luijk et al. (2019), this culture encourages educators to investigate their own methods of teaching methodically and deliberately as a means of enhancing the standard of education and co-education. They are how curricula can be utilized to benefit the inclusion of all children. The ever-

changing educational environment and the increasing demands of modern educational reality have pushed general and special education educators to acquire new knowledge and skills in areas such as organization, counseling, and communication—skills that, by themselves, will ensure their continuous improvement (Uiterwijk-Luijk et al., 2019). The following is a brief description of the role of the special and general educator for the successful outcome of co-education.

3.5 The role of Special Education Teacher

Regarding special educators, they are undisputed and irreplaceable bodies of special education (Zoniou-Sideri, 1998), while this profession developed mainly from the 1940s to the 1980s and was considered solely responsible for the education of children with disabilities. The change of social attitudes towards disability brought changes in the perception of the role of the special educator, creating a new thematic and problematic concept in terms of his role and effectiveness (Zoniou Sideri & Vlachou, 2006). The responsibilities of special education teachers are presented in Law 449/2007. According to this law, the responsibilities of teachers are to evaluate and investigate students with special educational needs and / or disabilities in terms of their educational needs, the need for a specialized educational program, the age and class they attend, and the number of students who can effectively be supported by proposing those who need more help with a substantiated suggestion. Also, in cooperation with the principal, they inform the parents of the children about the procedures that need to be done for the child to receive additional support. In addition, they cooperate with the class teacher in terms of the content and the way of implementation of the specialized program to achieve the integration of the child in the school environment. They strengthen the general adaptation of these students to the common school environment with participatory work and other activities, while updating the individual file of each child with opinions and evaluations of his educational needs and abilities, his family and social history, and making suggestions for the preparation of the individualized educational program.

In addition, special educators provide information and advice to other members of the school community on special education issues while collaborating with school

counselors, to whom they submit a visa for the weekly schedule and annual evaluation report of the integration departments. Finally, it is possible for them to offer their services to students at co-located schools or to implement a parallel support program for a neighboring school. As can be seen from the above, the role of the teacher of Parallel Support (PS) is not static, as it does not simply monitor the conduct of teaching but actively participates in its design and differentiation. The teacher of PS is an equal collaborator with the teacher of general education and not just his assistant, because together the two teachers organize the course of the lesson and participate in the evaluation of the educational process and the achievement of the goals that have been set (Zoniou-Sideri, 2004b).

3.6 The role of the teacher in general

The image of the whole school is represented through the image of the teacher. The teacher is undoubtedly the spokesman of the school but also of the society because he has taken on a great role. Not only to contribute to the academic progress of his students but to contribute to the comprehensive development of their personality. The teacher is called to shape the rising citizens of our society. On the one hand, he/she carries out the requirements of the state as foreseen by the Curriculum and on the other hand, he/she transmits to the next generation principles, values and beliefs that will contribute to their personal and social development (Soulis, 2008). His role is therefore twofold and particularly important on both sides. The innovative and promising practice of inclusive education invites the teacher to take initiatives and contribute with his skills to this difficult task. The role of the teacher is one of the most important factors in creating an inclusive learning environment. Therefore, the presence of children with special needs within the general classrooms concerns the teacher in order to change the course in his way of teaching, as he is considered to be largely responsible for achieving inclusive education (Tzouriadou, 1995).

The first step in safeguarding each student's right to a high-quality education is for the teacher to cultivate a culture of inclusion in the classroom, treat students with disabilities with dignity, and take into consideration their unique needs in their daily lessons (Soulis et al., 2016; Willis, 2009). To be effective, a teacher must instill in his or her students an accepting and welcoming attitude toward those with different abilities (Willis, 2009). However, in addition to having a favorable outlook on inclusive

education, the teacher must get specialized training in order to properly execute it (Ainscow, 1997). Creating a school that welcomes all students requires improved training for educators (Saleh, 1997). To do their jobs effectively, teachers who are asked to speak to a wide variety of students with varying abilities and requirements will need to undergo extensive preparation (Watkins, 2004; Saleh, 1997).

Through appropriate training, teachers will be able to reshape the curriculum and reform their teaching strategies to meet the needs and interests of each student (Barton, 2004). In order to provide appropriate education to all children teachers are asked to improvise during the educational activity, to experiment, to take initiatives (Ainscow, 1997) and to delve into methods that work for the benefit of their students (Willis, 2009). Moreover, taking into consideration the difficult task of inclusive education, the teacher must first be possessed by a collaborative spirit. As mentioned, inclusive education requires the cooperation of all those involved in the school process to exchange ideas, opinions and address problems that arise (Ainscow, 1997). The practice of co-education also provides for the presence of a special teacher in the general classroom to offer individualized teaching to the student with special educational needs. For the best possible result, the two teachers should work together (Fakolade et al. 2009; Willis, 2009). The work of the general education teacher can also be helped by his cooperation with the parents. Parents can provide information by facilitating the educational practice as well as can help within the school voluntarily (Saleh, 1997).

To achieve the best standards for effective inclusive education, the teacher must be provided with appropriate special and technological equipment, a well-designed school environment in combination with proper administration and supervision (Fakolade et al., 2009). An important factor for the development of inclusive education is the attitude of the teacher towards the evaluation programs of students with special needs. Students do not all learn in the same way and at the same pace therefore teachers should be able to assess the strengths and weaknesses of each student to adapt their teaching to the appropriate way (Hammond &, Ingalls, 2003). Teachers therefore need to be educated about the appropriate assessment tools they need to use in their young students in order to have safe results. With the clear results that teachers will have in their hands, they will redefine the educational process to the new needs of students (Krantz, 1997).

Chapter IV. ATTITUDES TOWARDS PEOPLE WITH SPECIAL EDUCATIONAL NEEDS

The teacher plays a crucial role in the school context, and his or her attitudes toward the inclusion of children with special educational needs are crucial to the success of the inclusion practice (Cook, 2001; Hammond & Ingalls, 2003; Polyzopoulou,2019). Inclusion of students with SEND cannot be expected to succeed in a school setting when teachers have negative attitudes toward inclusion(Forlin et al,., 2011;Alnahdi et al., 2019). Moreover, teachers' perspectives and attitudes toward inclusive education have emerged as indicators of successful teaching in inclusive classrooms and have a significant impact on the performance of school-based curriculum. (Hammond & Ingalls, 2003; Bhatnagar & Das, 2014).

As a result, studying attitudes is critical for the successful implementation of inclusive education. The next section will provide a bibliographic overview of attitude definitions, followed by a discussion of attitudes toward the inclusion of students with SEN in society, family, and the child's environment. Finally, the attitudes of teachers toward SEN students will be examined.

4.1 Conceptual definitions of the term attitudes.

There is no single universally accepted definition of attitudes. Allport (1935) was the first to highlight the significance of attitudes in social and individual psychology. The author defines attitude as a mental and nervous state of preparedness that is organized based on experiences to guide and dynamically impact the individual's reactions to things and situations with which he is related (Kladakis, 2012).

Attitudes, as a psychological human characteristic, reveal the way in which the individual moves in the social environment and how he evaluates the objects of behavior based on what he has in mind (Bohner & Dickel, 2011). However, differing views have been put on whether attitudes are features that are permanently stored in memory or momentary judgments made of information (Gawronski, 2007; Yada & Savolainen, 2019).

Attitude is defined as an individual's tendency to show a favorable or negative reaction to a specific object, person, idea, or situation (Nel et al., 2011). Reporting an attitude involves planning, concerning liking versus disliking, approving vs disapproving, or favoring versus disfavoring a particular issue, object, or person (Haddock & Maio, 2013).

Attitudes are directly tied to an individual's opinions and are founded on previous experiences. They are frequently connected to how a person interacts with other people and serve as an important connection in the study of cognitive and social psychology (Polyzopoulou, 2019). A person's point of view or opinion is formed because of past cognitive manipulations and the assessment of specific events, both of which have an abstract nature and are part of mental representations based on memory (Bednarek, 2009).

Attitudes are conveyed via thoughts, feelings, and sentiments, whereas attitudes toward other people evolve and are gained through direct personal and specific experiences in inclusive learning contexts (Diamond & Huang, 2005). Attitudes are part of the process of socializing the individual (Daruwalla & Darcy, 2005). In addition, it is appropriate to mention the cultural dimension of attitudes, which is defined differently from society to society, and is an integral part not only of attitudes, but also of beliefs, rules, roles, and values (Polyzopoulou, 2019).

In addition, attitude is the classification of an object-stimulus on an evaluative dimension. The object-stimulus comprises everything that a person may think about, from a specific thinking to an abstract notion, and is connected to objects, people, groups, and ideas. Although most researchers agree on this fundamental description, the most sophisticated theoretical models of attitudes differ greatly (Petty et al.,1997; Bohner & Dickel, 2011). Nonetheless, attitude is a notion with emotional content that produces a corresponding predisposition for conduct, which when analyzed in different societies reveals considerable cultural variations (Polyzopoulou, 2019).

4.1.1 The Content of Attitudes

Attitude is a complex concept because it depends on cognitive and emotional criteria (Cameron, 2017).) The attitude notion is represented by a variety of conceptual models. The multicomponent model (known as ABC model) has historically been one of the most important theories of attitude. According to this perspective, three

components can shape a person's attitude (NDA, 2007; De Boer et al., 2012b; Kladakis, 2012; Haddock & Maio, 2013; Rakap et al., 2016):

(1) **A**ffective component which refers to evaluative emotions (i.e., feelings towards the subject),

(2) **B**ehavioral component which refers to the behavior manifested by the individual as a result of the formed attitude, i.e., thoughts, of his beliefs and the ensuing emotion and

(3) **C**ognitive component, which refers to the cognitive representation of the object of the attitude (conscious support of knowledge, opinions, beliefs). (i.e., thought and beliefs about the subject),

Several attempts have been made to confirm the validity of the three-component model of attitudes. Some researchers have proven the model's validity (Rosenbaum et al., 1986; Mahat, 2008). Breckler (1984) discovered that a three-component model explains the covariance of measures better than a one-component model when examining students' attitudes regarding navigating. Other researchers, on the other hand, have validated the one- or two-component model (Bagozzi & Burnkrant, 1985; Ajzen, 2005). According to Ajzen (2005), most of the data in the literature are highly compatible with the one-component model, while the factor analyses, he used to demonstrate that one factor better explains most of the variation in its data. As a result of the foregoing, the number of components of attitudes is debatable.

4.2. Attitudes and inclusion

4.2.1 Attitudes of the society towards the inclusion of people with SEN

The community's attitude toward the integration of people with disabilities is an essential indicator of future inclusion(Thomas & Rose, 2020). Current community attitudes toward people with disabilities appear to be generally positive but paternalistic (Thompson, et al., 2011). Many times, however, disability is associated with stigmatized postures of anxiety and discomfort (Randle & Reis, 2016). For Walker and Scior (2013) stigma is '*one of the most disabling factors for people with disabilities*' (p. 2200). In addition, the less favorable attitudes of the community towards disability

seem to be related to certain types of disability, such as mental illnesses, emotional problems and intellectual disability (Thompson et al. ,2011 ; Nowicki, 2006;Thomas & Rose, 2020).

Negative social attitudes are a significant impediment to persons with disabilities fully participating in economic and social life (Deane, 2009). The finding that people hold negative attitudes toward students with SEND, especially those with challenging behavior, may affect the quality of life of these students in school as well as in the community. Research has shown that negative attitudes toward students with SEN can lead to rejection or negative interactions (Krischler & Cate, 2019). Also, discriminatory and biased attitudes toward people with SEND are linked to negative attitudes (Millington et al., 1996), such as avoidance, overprotection, compassion, alienation, and rejection.

Changing the existing negative attitude towards people with disabilities is therefore likely to contribute to reducing these barriers and promoting the inclusion and equal participation of people with disabilities in social events (Randle & Reis, 2016). When societal attitudes are positive, they facilitate inclusion, furthering the acceptance of students with SEN by family, friends, and teachers (Morin et al. 2013). Surveys of public attitudes in Europe showed that respondents were positive about the inclusion of students with SEN in general schools, and the results showed that people have the most positive attitude towards the inclusion of students with physical disabilities (Krischler & Cate, 2019).

According to research, public awareness initiatives aimed at demonstrating the advantages of inclusion for students with and without SEN can be effective in addressing misunderstandings and unfavorable attitudes regarding persons with various forms of SEND (Krischler & Cate, 2020). As community members' contact with people with disabilities is one of the most important factors in reducing bias between groups and negative attitudes. Contact should include positive interactions, equality, and cooperation to encourage more positive attitudes. Furthermore, government policies and strategies should make it easier for persons with and without SEN in their communities to engage and share positive experiences(Pettigrew 2008; McManus et al., 2010; Allport, 1954; Kalyva & Agaliotis, 2009). Finally, changes in government

policy can provide the basis for a change of attitude, changing the social context for promoting integration(Krischler & Cate, 2020).

4.2.2 Attitudes of the family towards the inclusion of people with SEN

In many countries, parents' attitudes toward the inclusion of children with SEN in general classrooms are a key indicator of the institution's operation (Leyser & Kirk, 2004; Abu-Hamour & Muhaidat, 2014; Renzalia et al.,2003). As a result, it's not unexpected that research on parental attitudes is a popular topic, as the family may help with all elements of integration, thus contributing to the institution's success. Paseka and Schwab (Paseka & Schwab, 2020).

In general, many parents appear to support the concept of inclusion, but have conflicting ideas about how it should be implemented in practice(Schmidt et al., 2020). In their metaanalysis, de Boer et al. (2010) found that parents' sentiments about the inclusion of children with disabilities in general school ranged from indifferent to positive. Parents of children with SEN were not uniformly favorable, and parents of children with severe disabilities were the least positive (Abu-Hamour & Muhaidat, 2014).

Parents of children with disabilities experience a range of feelings about integration. It is considered that they want their children to be included in educational and social situations, but they are concerned about a number of other factors such as the lack of capable and trained people and the lack of implementation of inclusion by support services (Leyser & Kirk, 2004; Schmidt et al., 2020)

Parents of children with special educational needs frequently state that inclusion is not a suitable choice for their children and express worries about their child's psychological development, the quality of education, and the resources offered in mainstream schools(de Boer et al., 2010). These results are consistent with several other studies in which the attitudes of parents of children with SEN are generally neutral (Leyser & Kirk, 2004; Runswick-Cole, 2008; Abu-Hamour & Muhaidat, 2013)

An interesting field is the study of the attitudes of parents of children without SEND about the inclusion of children with SEND in their children's general school. In

these cases, parents of children without SEND are frequently concerned because they believe that students will lose interest due to the relaxed teaching environment, or that students without SEN will be disappointed to discover that other students study less and get the same or even better grades, or that teachers will devote more teaching time to disciplining and disciplining students with behavioral problems (Kalyva et al., 2007;Shipley, 1995). Nevertheless, in Greek research (Kalyva et al., 2007), it was found that Greek parents of primary school children without SEND are generally supportive of their children's enrollment in primary school and hold generally good sentiments regarding fundamental inclusion perspectives. In addition, parents of typically developing children, on the other hand, are more positive towards inclusive education and see it as an opportunity for their children to experience social benefits, such as accepting differences in people and developing sensitivity to others(de Boer et al., 2010). In other research however (Balboni & Pedrabissi, 2000; Dimitrova-Radojichich & Chichevska-Jovanova, 2014) parents of typically developing children showed neutral attitudes.

In addition, parents' attitudes towards inclusion are shaped by other factors. Parents' attitudes are more favorable if they have a higher degree of education and have already experienced inclusive education (Paseka & Schwab, 2020). Additionally, the type of the SEN seems to play an important role in the attitude that parents form towards inclusion of children with SEN (Tafa & Manolitsis, 2003). More specifically, inclusion of children with physical and sensory disabilities is strongly advocated, on the other hand inclusion of children with behavioral issues and severe cognitive disabilities is viewed with skepticism (Avramidis and Norwich 2002; Schwab 2018; Krischler & Cate, 2020). Also another factor that seems to influence the attitude of the parents of the children without SEND is the gender of parents but with controversial results. Mothers are willing more than fathers to engage themselves and their child in interaction with a child with SEND (Balboni abd Pedrabissi,2000) while in another research (Kalyva et al., 2007) the fathers were seen to have more positive attitudes towards inclusion of children with SEND.

4.2.3 Typical development students' attitudes toward their peers with SEN

The topic of children's attitudes toward peers with disabilities is critically valuable since it has a major impact on how well children with disabilities integrate into

general education classrooms (Laws & Kelly, 2005). According to Bossaert et al. (2011), measuring students' attitudes toward students with special needs may be a critical factor in enhancing social engagement and inclusive education for students with disabilities in general education schools. Nevertheless, measuring attitudes in children is difficult since their perspectives are influenced by a variety of factors, many of which are impossible to account for in a study (Tamm & Prellwitz, 2001).

Children with typical development, according to research, have a negative attitude toward their colleagues with disabilities and tend to isolate them (Deal, 2003; Law et al., 2007; Smith-D & Cheryl Moore-Thomas, 2010). In a meta-analysis of 20 studies looking at the relationship between student attitudes and the social participation of peers with disabilities, Boer et al. (2012) found that students with behavioral problems and intellectual disabilities are especially vulnerable to negative peer attitudes. Many students of formal development even believe that students with ID should not participate in their academic classes such as math or English (Siperstein et al., 2011). Peers' negative attitudes about them may be explained by their usual conduct, which includes difficulties with normal behavior and social connections as well as attention deficit/hyperactivity disorder (Boer et al., 2012; Batstra et al., 2012).

In contrast, the findings of a large number of studies revealed that children in formal development support integration, have good views, accept classmates with impairments, and create connections with them (Lewis & Lewis, 1987 - Townsend et al., 1993; Avramidis, 2010). In mainstream classroom, students are aware of the constraints that impairment imposes on their peers.

Neutral views toward children with impairments were observed in a limited number of studies, such as that of Bossaert et al. (2011). Georgiadi et al. (2012) validated these findings, demonstrating that children of normal development were neither favorable nor negative toward their peers with impairments. Typically developing children in inclusive settings, on the other hand, reported more favorable social views toward their friends with intellectual impairments than children in non-inclusive settings, according to the same study (Georgiadi et al., 2012).

When researching the international literature, it is common to come across inconsistent and contradictory conclusions (de Boer et al., 2012a). The findings of the aforementioned study demonstrated that attitudes of children toward their peers with

disabilities are shaped by a variety of circumstances. Both personal as well as environmental variables relate to these attitudes, such as gender (Laws & Kelly, 2005 ; Nowicki, 2006 ;Vignes et al., 2009 ;Bossaert et al., 2011), age (Smith & Williams, 2001 ; Nowicki 2006; De Laat et al., 2013;Blackman, 2016), experience with inclusive education (Smith & Williams, 2001 ;Bossaert et al., 2011) and their knowledge about disabilities(Nowicki, 2007;Bossaert et al., 2011).

4.3 Teachers' attitudes towards inclusion

Although developing a commonly accepted definition of teacher attitudes has been a difficult process, the literature approaches attitudes as relatively stable constructs containing cognitive, emotional, and behavioral elements (Bizer et al., 2003; Savolainen et al., 2012). Understanding teachers' attitudes and beliefs towards inclusion is important as it is one of the strongest predictors of its success in practice (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Forlin, 2010; Forlin et al., 2011; Miesera & Gebhardt, 2018; Opoku et al., 2020), but also because it can help improve the learning environment in general and finally achieve a high quality education without exclusions (Savolainen et al., 2020). Moreover, teachers' every-day practices in heterogeneous classrooms are significantly predicted by their intentions regarding the implementation of inclusive education and by their attitudes towards inclusive education (Hellmich et al., 2019).

However, the implementation of inclusive practices is jeopardized when teachers' beliefs, perceptions and attitudes are inconsistent with the philosophical background and the corresponding desired reform practices (Bryan, 2012).

The relevant literature points out that the success of co-education of students with special educational needs in the general school depends to a large extent on the positive attitude of teachers towards the concept of inclusion and its content (Avramidis & Kalyva, 2007; MacFarlane & Marks Woolfson , 2013; Penna, 2008).

There is a parallel concern about the delimitation of the semantic content of teachers' attitudes as reported by the review of relevant research (Fives & Buehl, 2012). However, researchers seem to converge on the fact that the term attitude is used to identify individual, subjective, and value-based mental patterns that are relatively

stable, derived from the teacher's experiences, and have a significant impact on the teacher's teaching practices in the classroom (Skott, 2013; Skott, 2015).

Quite a large number of studies have been recorded in the international and Greek literature that study the attitudes of teachers regarding this promising new educational practice. Interesting research in which the views on the co-education of 641 Greek teachers of general education, primary, and secondary education were explored is that of Zoniou-Sideri and Vlachou, 2006. A questionnaire created by the researchers themselves was used as a tool for this research. The results showed that teachers had a positive attitude towards inclusive education as they felt confident in their teaching abilities. Teachers' attitudes in this research were studied in relation to certain variables such as gender, type of disability, and previous teaching experience with students with special needs.

Avramidis & Kalyva (2007) came to similar results in a study in which primary school teachers from a region of Northern Greece participated. In the research, teachers' attitudes toward inclusive education were studied in relation to variables such as the training they had received and their previous teaching experience. According to the researchers, teachers believe that students with moderate learning difficulties, delayed speech development, and physical disabilities can more easily integrate into the general class, followed by students with behavioral problems, such as attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD). According to the same research, teachers find it more difficult to include in the general class students with neurological disorders, sensory problems, brain trauma, or autism. Many educators believe that they do not have the appropriate education and the appropriate means to adequately teach students with special educational needs (Bornman & Donohue, 2013).

According to another study (Monsen et al., 2014), teachers generally express positive attitudes towards inclusive education. Teachers with a low score in attitude towards inclusive education are more favorable towards the inclusion of students with high abilities compared to students with multiple disabilities. Also, in the same research, teachers with an average score in the attitude of inclusive education also select students with high mental potential, compared to students with behavioral difficulties or multiple difficulties. Also, teachers with high scores on scales that measure attitudes towards the inclusion of students with special educational needs prefer the inclusion of

students with high intellectual potential, students with learning difficulties, or students with speech and language problems, compared to students with behavioral disorders or students with multiple difficulties.

In a recent survey of Avramidis et al., (2019) the researchers attempted to link the reported attitudes towards teachers' inclusion and self-efficacy in inclusive practices with an actual inclusive instructional approach, that of peer tutoring. In a part of the research where the differences in the attitude towards the inclusion of general and special education teachers were examined, the general education teachers were found to have neutral attitudes, while their peers in special education seemed to have a more positive attitude.

In the study of Yada and Savolainen (2017), who examined Japanese teachers' attitudes toward inclusive education and their self-efficacy for inclusive practices, it turned out that Japanese teachers' overall attitudes towards inclusive education were slightly above the neutral midpoint of the scale used for the research, even though many of the teachers thought inclusive education was necessary. Thus, it suggests that teachers did not express extreme views in favor of or against inclusive education, while the most positive attitude reported was about interacting with students with disabilities in mainstream classes.

In another study (Vaz et al., 2015), researchers found that male primary school teachers maintain fewer positive attitudes compared to female teachers; teachers with low self-efficacy develop fewer positive attitudes; and teachers who receive some education for students with disabilities develop positive attitudes about inclusion tactics. The researchers also found that teachers aged 55 and over had more negative attitudes compared to those in the 35-55 age group.

In the research of Ćwirynkało et al., (2017), primary school teachers expressed a positive attitude towards inclusive education of students with mild to moderate difficulty and maintained their belief in the effectiveness of inclusive education. Similar results were revealed by the research of Hellmich et al., (2019) where it was found that that every- day practices in heterogeneous classrooms are significantly predicted by the positive attitude towards inclusive education of the primary school teachers' who participated.

In a study involving teachers in Finland (Saloviita, 2018), teachers maintain neutral to negative attitudes about inclusive education, and in particular, special education teachers score the highest score, specialty teachers (theoretical and positive sciences, physical education, arts, and humanities) the lowest score, where no differences were found within the group, and general education teachers an intermediate score. In the same study, it is reported that women expressed more positive attitudes than men, and younger people expressed a more favorable attitude towards inclusion tactics.

Research conducted at the intercultural level, with the participation of general education teachers from Finland and Africa (Savolainen et al., 2012) showed that teachers a) develop generally positive emotions for people with disabilities and neutral perceptions towards the inclusion of students with special educational needs and b) expressed their concern about the co-education of these students with the typical population in the general class. The Finns developed a positive but more critical attitude towards the tactic of inclusion while the African teachers supported the inclusion, recognizing education as an inalienable right of all people.

Furthermore, teachers at pedagogical schools with 6 months to 11 years of experience in education who had taught students with special needs participated in the study of Krischler and Pit-ten Cate (2019), where they were asked to express their attitudes towards the inclusion of students with special educational needs. The results of the research showed that teachers maintain latent negative attitudes towards students who show provocative behavior or have learning difficulties, but these attitudes did not vary as a function of the type of difficulty.

A study with the participation of science teachers in secondary education (Sahin, 2018) concluded that teachers with years of service retain more positive attitudes towards inclusive education of students with disabilities, compared to teachers who have worked for a short time in education. This experience was not only related to the educational teaching but also to the personal experience, as a result of which a positive attitude was formed.

Finally, Alnahdi et al. (2019) attempted to compare the attitudes of Finnish and Saudi preservice teachers. According to the findings of the research, Finns have a more positive attitude, while the Saudi participants were less willing than their Finnish

colleagues to accept students with disabilities in their classrooms. At the same time, there were differences in attitudes in relation to some demographic characteristics. In the Saudi sample, the female participants expressed significantly more positive attitudes towards inclusion than did the male participants. In contrast, there were no significant differences in the Finnish sample between the female participants.

4.3.1 Factors that shape teachers' attitudes

The research data highlighted above demonstrate the existence of different attitudes toward inclusive education. This contradiction is due to the factors that contribute to the formation of teachers' perceptions about inclusive education. Avramidis and Norwich (2002), through a series of surveys conducted in two European countries and the USA, recorded positive attitudes of teachers regarding the inclusive education of students with and without disabilities in general schools. In addition, the authors examined the factors that influence teachers' attitudes. Factors are related to the teacher (e.g., gender, age, teaching experience, level of teaching and training), the child (e.g., type of disability), and the environment itself (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002).

i. Teacher training

Avramidis and Norwich (2002) found that teachers' access to teaching support is an important variable that affects their attitude towards the common education of students with and without special needs in general schools. Teacher training as an important variable for a more positive attitude towards inclusive education has been noted by many researchers (Avramidis & Kalyva, 2007; Fakolade et al., 2009 ; Cargan & Schidt, 2011 ; Buford & Casey, 2012 ;Woodcock, 2013 ; Tsakiridou & Polyzopoulou, 2014 ;Cameron, 2017 ; Miesera & Gebhardt, 2018;Butakor et al., 2020). In this way teachers have confidence in their ability to teach students with special educational needs (Cameron, 2017; Saloviita, 2020b). Research conducted by Mamah et al., (2011), showed that teachers with higher levels of education (higher education and postgraduate studies) have a more positive attitude towards inclusive education.

Ambiguous views were presented through the study of gender research as a variable that influences teachers' attitudes. On the one hand, the researchers found that there were statistically significant differences in gender, and on the other hand, no significant findings were presented. In many studies, female teachers have been observed to show a more positive attitude towards the practice of inclusive education (Fakolade et al., 2009; Tsakiridou & Polyzopoulou, 2014; Mamah et al., 2011; Alnahdi et al., 2019). Moreover, Butakor et al. (2020) and Vaz et al. (2015) found that men showed a negative attitude towards inclusive education, while in contrast, research by Rakap & Kaczmarek (2010) and Sharma et al. (2015) showed that men were more positive than female teachers in terms of co-education of students. However, there are many studies that did not record any significant difference from the gender variable (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Buford & Casey, 2012; Varcoe & Boyle, 2014; Hofman & Kilimo, 2014)

In an earlier effort to catalogue attitudes towards inclusive education, Avramidis and Norwich's (2002) meta-analysis showed that teachers' attitudes were influenced by a range of students, teacher and school related variables.

iii. Age

Age is an important variable in shaping teachers' attitudes about co-educating students with and without disabilities. The research studied in the present work seemed to show a relative unanimity regarding the age at which teachers show a more positive attitude towards inclusive education. More specifically, in the results of the research of Rakap and Kaczmarek (2010), it was recorded that the younger as well as the older teachers showed a more positive attitude. Also, the studies of Galaterou & Antoniou (2017) and Vaz et al. (2015) showed that young teachers show a more positive attitude compared to older ones, while the opposite results were recorded by the research of wirynkao et al. (2017), where older teachers expressed a higher degree of belief in the effectiveness of inclusive education practices.

Teachers' years of service in education is a factor that plays an important role in shaping teachers' attitudes (Batsiou et al., 2008). According to the results of Idol (2006) research, teachers with more educational experience in general education, in contrast to teachers with fewer years of service, are more positive about inclusive education as they consider themselves to be more experienced. Finally, similar results were presented in another Greek study (Koutrouba et al., 2008), where it was found that the longer the previous service of the teachers who participated in the research, the more positive their attitude towards inclusive education. The opposite results were shown by the research of Butakor et al. (2020), where older teachers seem to maintain negative attitudes towards inclusive education, while the research of Saloviita (2020a) showed that younger teachers maintain a more positive attitude.

v. Factor related to the child / type of special needs of the student

The type of disability is an important factor for the teacher. Teachers' attitudes are determined by the type and severity of the disability (Rakap & Kaczmarek, 2010; Avramidis & Norwich, 2002). Students with emotional and behavioral impairments seemed to be more concerned about the teaching staff. Teachers are concerned about the occurrence of incompatible behaviors as well as how to manage them (Avramidis & Kalyva, 2007). Students with physical disabilities are treated more positively than students with emotional and behavioral disorders (Čagran & Schmidt, 2011; Tsakiridou & Polyzopoulou, 2014).

vi. Environmental factors

In addition to the student body and the teaching staff, who are directly involved in the educational practice, the institution of inclusive education, in order to function properly and in a healthy way, requires the support of the school authorities and society as a whole. In this way, the teachers will have all the specifications they need to create a positive attitude towards the institution. However, in the Greek education reality, these specifications do not exist, with the result that teachers show an uncertain attitude and have reservations about inclusive education. The state subsidy is small, and there are shortages of teaching staff and equipment (Zoniou-Sideri & Vlachou, 2006). It has

been demonstrated that the unplanned application of inclusive education to all students, i.e., without coordinated ways of educational assistance, generates unfavorable attitudes among instructors about the inclusion of children with SEN and/or disabilities in their classrooms (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002). In addition, in another study by Avramidis and his colleagues (Avramidis et al., 2000) on the factors that help teachers form a more positive attitude towards the inclusion of students with SEND and/or disabilities in general classes, it was discovered that the majority of teachers were in favor of co-education under the condition that there was more support and training, as well as more resources and time. In the research of Mamah et al. (2011), the majority of participants mentioned the need for adequate resources for the implementation of the institution. The attitude of teachers is also shaped by the attitude of the principal himself, who is the main link between the community and the school (Odongo & Davidson, 2016).

4.4 Measuring teachers' attitudes towards the inclusion of students with SEN.

Teachers' attitudes toward inclusion have been extensively studied for decades (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Chazan, 1994; De Boer et al., 2012b; Mahat, 2008;Sharma et al., 2015; Scruggs & Mastropieri, 1996). While most studies have been conducted in the United States, many studies are now emerging in all parts of the world, including developing countries (Ewing et al., 2018). This burgeoning interest has resulted in the development of several psychometric tests that measure teachers' attitudes toward inclusive education all around the world. Some questionnaires are specifically targeted at teachers of pre-school, other at secondary school and higher education while some others are suitable for use across a range of ages (Ewing et al., 2018). Some of the questionnaires use up-to-date terminology such as "inclusio*n»* and "special educational needs", instead of earlier terms such as "mainstreaming", "integration" or " handicapped". Lot of the questionnaires use the term "disability" (Mahat, 2008; Forlin et al., 2011; Bailey, 2004) for many of the items and so may not always be appropriate when considering other types of difficulties. Another issue that is often raised is the small sample size in most studies (usually less than 200 teachers). (Saloviita, 2020a).

Most questionnaires are written in English while many attempts are made to translate them into the languages of the researchers. As a result, differences in local conditions and regulations around the world make it difficult to compare and discuss results. However, surprisingly similar results in terms of inclusive education have been repeated in various countries. Also, many studies have used psychometrically advanced posture scales with acronyms such as SACIE-R, ORI, ATIES, ORM, CIES, MTA, STATIC, TAIS (Saloviita, 2015;Saloviita, 2020b).

In any event, looking into teachers' attitudes poses methodological issues, particularly when looking into the link between attitudes and teaching practices, since teachers' beliefs are based on their own personal judgements, which are difficult to analyze, let alone measure(Skott, 2013). Furthermore, using established scales may not guarantee that teachers' real opinions are highlighted, as such methods may impose a set of assumptions on participants (Skott, 2015). As a result, combining multiple methodologies, such as interviews to explain what instructors truly believe or field study focusing on observation of teaching practice, is advised (Bryan, 2012; Skott, 2015)

CHAPTER V. SELF-EFFICACY

The term "self-efficacy" refers to the theory developed in the late 1970s by the distinguished psychologist and academic Albert Bandura (Bandura, 1977). As he defines self-efficacy, it is about people's beliefs about their ability to produce certain levels of performance in events that affect and influence their lives (Bandura, 1994). The importance of each person's view of their self-efficacy lies in the fact that it determines their feelings and way of thinking. At the same time, everyone's views on self-efficacy are the driving force behind their actions and behaviors (Bandura, 1977; Benight & Bandura, 2004). The main idea behind Bandura's (1977) theory of self-efficacy is that psychological processes are what make and improve people's expectations of themselves.

Consequently, this leads to an analysis of the concept of "expectation" and the way in which it can be related to the concept of self-efficacy of the individual. The first includes two components: the "expectation of competence" and the "expectation of result." Between these two components lies the mediation of the behavior of the individual (Bandura, 1977). It determines within the individual the "expectation of the result," as it is his assessment that a certain behavior will bring a certain result. On the contrary, the "expectation of ability," which is not determined by the individual's behavior, is his belief that he can successfully take an action that is a prerequisite for achieving the desired result. The difference between the two is that one can believe that a particular act will have a specific outcome. However, if he develops any doubts about whether he can achieve the desired result, this process will consequently affect the result (Bandura, 1977). Therefore, this is the reason why a high level of self-efficacy contributes to the realization of the principles of unified education (Fackler & Malmberg, 2016).

According to the literature (Bandura, 1986; Bandura, 1994; Bandura, 1997; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998; Hoy & Spero, 2005; Zee & Koomen, 2016), individuals form their views on their level of self-efficacy based on information they gather from four sources:

a) Past personal experiences and previous personal achievements: The individual's past experiences can create a strong sense of effectiveness for performing similar

projects in the future. An increased number of personal achievements in the past raises people's expectations of themselves. On the contrary, repeated failures lead to weakening of expectations of effectiveness. Essentially, past experiences are a critical factor in how individuals perceive and interpret their level of self-efficacy, leading to higher or lower levels of internal motivation.

In this context, self-efficacy is directly and largely linked to the theory of self-determination. More specifically, according to the theory of self-determination, human motivation can be understood only through the satisfaction of the following human psychological needs (Bandura, 1986; Bandura, 1994; Bandura, 1997):

- the ability, i.e., the need of the individual to feel effective and to be able to exercise their abilities,
- autonomy, i.e., the need of the individual to feel that his behaviors are a consequence of the individual himself and
- relationships with other people, that is, the individual's need to feel part of a group. Satisfaction of these needs' leads to increased levels of internal motivation, which in turn leads to high levels of efficiency and personal growth, as well as increased self-efficacy.

b) observation of models: the lack of previous relevant experiences, or the questioning of the personal abilities of individuals, leads them to turn to the observation of other people's experiences, which are also called models / models. People, therefore, build beliefs of self-efficacy through indirect experiences gained from monitoring the performance of other individuals, which function as social models. From social comparison, people gather information necessary to evaluate their own abilities.

c) social persuasion: social influence, such as third-person judgments and their verbal messages, help to increase individuals' self-efficacy. Additional factors involved in this resource include self-guidance, feedback from third parties, and encouragement of individuals. Therefore, an individual's social environment influences individuals' motivations for the manifestation of a behavior.

d) normal arousal: according to this source, the emotional and physical condition in which individuals find themselves can contribute to the determination of self-efficacy. The person is affected by an emotional or physical condition (eg anxiety, pain). If he associates this situation with negative self-efficacy, his future actions will

be determined by this association. Therefore, the interpretation and correct evaluation of a situation can affect future actions and increase self-efficacy.

Self-efficacy, as a belief in what one believes one can do in a particular context regardless of one's abilities and skills, is not an indicator of one's abilities but a determining factor in shaping one's ability, as different people with similar skills may exhibit low, adequate, or excellent performance depending on the varying levels of their self-efficacy when performing a project (Bandura, 1997). Given the variability and diversity of human abilities, beliefs about self-efficacy should not be seen as a general characteristic of individuals but as a belief system that varies according to the individual and the field in which he operates (Bandura, 2006a).

A series of meta-analyses of research from various contexts have shown that self-efficacy significantly contributes to both motivation and performance of individuals as predictors of human function and behavior, and that it explains any differences in performance levels observed during a project both between people and within people (Bandura & Locke, 2003). Self-efficacy contributes as an independent factor to the subsequent performance of individuals and, together with other factors, such as goals, aspirations, and expectations of the individual, acts as a mediator between the earlier and subsequent performance of the individual (Bandura & Locke, 2003). According to Bandura (2006b), beliefs about self-efficacy affect a person's emotional well-being as well as their aspirations and goals and their commitment to them; they shape a person's expectations for the outcome of his behavior; and they determine not only how the person perceives any obstacles or opportunities but also the decisions he is called to make in critical situations.

5.1 Teachers' self-efficacy

In this context, among other areas of human action, much of the research has focused on education and specifically on teachers' self-efficacy. Specifically regarding the concept of teachers' self-efficacy, it is about their beliefs about their ability to do their job in defined working conditions and bring positive results to every type of student they have to teach (Wyatt, 2014; Fackler & Malmberg , 2016; Schunk & DiBenedetto, 2018). Research has shown that the teachers who are most dedicated to

their work are those who show higher rates of self-efficacy, while experiencing lower levels of anxiety (Fackler & Malmberg, 2016).

Based on social cognitive theory, teacher self-esteem can be considered the individual belief of teachers in their ability to plan, organize, and carry out activities required to achieve educational goals (Bandura, 1997). It is an instinct that acts as a driving force and relies more on teachers' re-evaluation than on an objective evaluation of their abilities (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007; Hosford & O'Sullivan, 2015). Bandura (1997) also pointed out that behavior is determined more by an individual's beliefs about his or her ability to complete a task than by whether he or she is able to accomplish it. As a result, and in a more specific context such as school, the teacher's confidence is what motivates his or her professional effectiveness.

In their meta-analysis Zee and Koomen (2016) based on a research model they developed, they found the positive effect that teachers' self-efficacy has on educational processes, students' academic achievement and teachers' overall well-being. Teachers with a high sense of self-efficacy, and especially those with more educational experience, tend to display the following characteristics:

- Deal effectively with various behavioral problems.
- They act proactively in matters of classroom management.
- Develop fewer conflicting relationships with students.
- They are more willing to use more different and differentiated teaching practices to provide appropriate support to all students.
- They are more willing to modify their goals according to the needs of the students.
- They motivate and involve their students in the educational process.
- They experience less frequent feelings of anxiety and psychological or occupational exhaustion.
- Demonstrate higher levels of personal and professional satisfaction as well as dedication and willingness to stay in their profession.

After reviewing the literature, Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) characteristically reported that teacher effectiveness is regularly reviewed in the literature under three specific factors listed below:

- ▪ The effectiveness of the teacher to involve students in teaching practice, a factor that refers to the confidence he has in his ability to strengthen students' motivation, to understand and evaluate the course of their learning.

- ▪ The effectiveness of classroom management, a factor that refers to the confidence of his abilities to control student behavior and compliance with classroom rules.

- ▪ The effectiveness of selecting appropriate teaching strategies, which refers to whether a teacher has the ability to identify and use effective teaching strategies in a timely manner.

Gibson and Dembo (1984) found significant differences between the teaching practices of high- and low efficiency teachers. According to them, teachers with high self-efficacy use better teaching strategies (e.g., less criticism for wrong answers, a better question system) for low-achieving students, which allows the latter to be more effective in learning. Conversely, low-efficiency teachers spend more time on non-academic issues and use less effective teaching strategies, ultimately hindering the student's learning (Sharma et al., 2011).

In addition, other researchers have found that teachers with high teaching efficiency tend to better regulate students' problem behaviors (Wang, Hall, & Rahimi, 2015), use more participatory forms of teaching (Chan, 2008) and generally more humane approaches. (Sharma et al., 2011; Woolfolk et al.,1990).

5.2 Teachers' self-efficacy in the context of inclusion

Teachers' confidence in their own abilities is crucial to the success of integrating students with intellectual impairments into regular classrooms (Wilson et al., 2020; Sharma et al., 2012). According to empirical data from inclusive education research, self-efficacy in inclusive teaching is one of the factors that influence the effective implementation of inclusive education (Bosse et al. 2017; Kiel et al., 2020). For Bandura (1997), the perception of teachers' self-efficacy affects both the kind of environment they create for their students, as well as teachers' decisions and criticisms of different teaching practices to enhance learning. Thus, a teacher with high educational efficiency would believe that a student with special learning needs in the

implementation of inclusive practices could be taught effectively in the regular classroom.

Along with similar findings to those of teacher self-efficacy research in general (Sharma & George, 2016; Zee & Koomen, 2016), in the context of educational inclusion, teachers with a higher sense of self-efficacy tend to form lower expectations for their students' skills, feel more responsible and competent for the effective and successful teaching of students with SEND, listen and pay special attention to the special needs of students, spend more time with students who are experiencing difficulties, and be more willing to deal with students' problems instead of resorting to punishment in cases of confrontation and behavioral problems (Wang et al., 2015). In conclusion, these teachers tend to show greater sensitivity, commitment, mental resilience, and perseverance against the demanding situations of an inclusive class and thus demonstrate the innovation brought about by the implementation of inclusive approach interventions in student reinforcement (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998; Hosford & O'Sullivan, 2015).

According to Palardy and Rumberger (2008), the higher the levels of self-efficacy shown by teachers, the greater the chances of being positive in implementing new teaching methods that will promote unified education by applying more participatory forms of teaching. Also, these teachers are less likely to exclude students with SEN from the general classroom or to refer them to special education structures and more likely to adopt interventions suggested by other specialties and work with other professionals and students' parents (Chan, 2008). Finally, teachers 'self-efficacy seems to influence students' attitudes and achievements and is related to the formation of positive attitudes towards educational inclusion and sociocultural diversity and the development of effective classroom management skills by teachers adopting more humane approaches (Sharma et al., 2011; Woolfolk et al., 1990).

In contrast, teachers with low self-efficacy consider that they can make very few interventions to include a student with special learning needs in a regular classroom. Therefore, these educators may experience stressful emotional, cognitive, and behavioral consequences, leading them to experience anxiety as they may fear harming the child with a disability or failing to achieve their educational goals. At the same time, a situation of low self-efficacy can lead him to a state of avoidance, i.e., to

prefer to place the child in a special school (Hutzler et al., 2019). It becomes clear that the perception of educators' effectiveness influences both their behavior and actions, as well as the consequences of any school action (Sharma et al., 2011; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998).

5.3 Factors affecting teachers' self-efficacy
i. Gender

Studies on how gender can affect teachers' sense of self-efficacy are not enough and have yielded very different results. Imants and De Brabander (1996) concluded that gender affects teachers' self-efficacy. More specifically, they found that male elementary teachers seem to have higher self-efficacy for student-oriented and school-oriented tasks than female teachers. The same result was reached by the research of Tsakiridou and Polyzopoulou (2014), who studied the perceptions of Greek teachers about the inclusive education of children with disabilities and found that male teachers have a higher sense of self-efficacy than women.

In contrast, Cheung (2006) and Karimvand (2011) found that female teachers have significantly higher general efficacy than male teachers. It is worth noting that in both studies, female teachers were generally older and had more teaching experience than male teachers. Similarly, a study conducted in China (Minghui et al., 2018) found that female special educators outperform men in terms of their teaching efficacy. The same results were obtained by the research of Veisi et al. (2015); according to mean differences between male and female teachers, the result showed that self-efficacy among female teachers is higher than among male teachers. In a survey (Romi & Leyser, 2006) that examined attitudes towards inclusion and self-efficacy beliefs, a large sample of Israeli preservice teachers revealed that female students had significantly higher scores in almost all the factors of the teacher self-efficacy scale.

However, Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001), and Wilson et al. (2004) showed that gender has no significant effect on teachers' self-efficacy. Similarly, in a study by Tschannen-Moran and Hoy (2007) involving 43 teachers who taught reading and spelling lessons, no difference was found between the gender and the degree of self-efficacy of the trainers. In a study by Shaukat and Iqbal (2012) on 108 male and 90 female teachers, it was found that there is no gender correlation in the

scales of teaching strategies and student involvement while male teachers tend to manage the classroom better. Similarly, in a recent Greek study (Antoniou et al., 2017) researchers found, regarding the effect of gender on the averages of the subscales of didactic self-efficacy, that there is no statistically significant difference.

ii. Age

Numerous previous studies (Chester & Beaudin, 1996; Mohammadzaheri et al., 2014; Ross et al., 1996) have shown that age plays an important role in teachers' self-efficacy, which is therefore inextricably linked to their experience. Additionally, in research by Antoniou and Dalla (2010), it has been found that teachers up to the age of 30 have the highest average satisfaction.

More recent studies, such as Klassen and Chiu (2010), did not reach the same conclusions because their findings did not show a significant correlation of the same variables (Fackler & Malmberg, 2016). In the research of Antoniou et al. (2017), conducted with a sample of 200 special educators in Greece, it was found that the age of special educators is not a determining factor that affects their self-efficacy.

iii. Training

Teachers' training in adapting the curriculum and instruction to meet students' different needs can contribute to the development of lesson content, teaching strategies, and routines. Kiel et al. (2020) concluded that such training should especially target self-efficacy in inclusive curriculum development. During training, teachers could try new methods and techniques for handling differentiation and teaching without pressure, and feelings of success could help to increase self-efficacy (Kiel et al., 2020).

Corona et al., (2017) conducted a study that aimed to investigate whether the training of teachers in the guide of the International Autism Center (EBPs) can lead to an increase in their sense of self-efficacy. It was also examined whether their training specifically in the "PTR" model (Prevent – Teach – Reinforce) of Dunlap et al., (2010) has positive results in their self-efficacy. The research showed that the training of teachers in the learning of children with Autism Spectrum Disorders, as well as their training in EBPs and especially in the PTR model has a positive effect on teachers' self-efficacy. As a result, teaching to specific students becomes more effective (Corona et al., 2017)

Saade et al. (2021), in their survey, adapted an online training to provide pre-service teachers from two culturally diverse contexts: those of the United States (Georgia) and Canada (Québec), with strategies to integrate students with ASD into the classroom. At the end of the training, it was observed that there was a relative improvement in self-efficacy teaching. It should be noted that although improvements in the self-efficacy of ASD teaching were initially observed in both cultural contexts, review analyses revealed that the apparent improvements in the teaching of ASD self-efficacy among students in the USA were due to prejudice toward social desire. There was also a tendency for increased bias toward social desire among participants in Georgia compared to those from Quebec.

In addition, several studies have concluded that general and special education teachers who attend seminars on the design, evaluation, and implementation of interventions, student teaching methods, and ways of working between general and special education teachers and other members of the school develop high beliefs in effectiveness in managing students with learning difficulties and behavioral problems (Tzivinikou, 2015; Giallo & Little, 2003).

Special education teachers seem to use more effective practices for children with learning disabilities as their academic education is focused on planning and implementing interventions for children with learning disabilities, which is why they feel more effective. In contrast, general education teachers, although well-informed about these interventions, choose those that apply to the general classroom (Leyser, 2002).

iv. Teaching experience

The previous successes or failures of the educational course of the teachers shape the beliefs of their didactic self-effectiveness. According to Mulholland and Wallace (2001) gaining experience for a teacher plays an important role in strengthening his / her beliefs about his / her effectiveness in teaching. Zee and Koomen (2016), in a meta-analysis of 165 articles over a period of 40 years on teacher teaching self-efficacy, concluded that there is little correlation between experience and effectiveness in classroom teaching strategies. They also argued that teachers with low

averages in classroom management and teaching strategies may be more prone to feeling emotionally exhausted than teachers with high teaching self-efficacy.

Bosma et al., (2012) and Lee et al., (2013), found that teachers with more teaching experience had significantly lower self-efficacy scores. The authors attribute this finding to the fact that teachers may have experienced many failures in their work in education. In contrast to the above findings, the study by Tschannen-Moran & Hoy (2007), which involved a sample of 255 teachers in the US, showed a differentiation of young teachers and teachers with more teaching experience. Newly appointed teachers had lower teaching self-efficacy than more experienced teachers who had four or more years of service. Similarly, a study by George et al., (2018) conducted on teachers in the first year of teaching and later in the same sample of teachers in the sixth year of service in schools found an increase in teachers' beliefs about their effectiveness. Higher scores on self-efficacy for more experienced teachers were also observed in studies by Klassen and Chiu (2010) and Wolters and Daugherty (2007). The same conclusion was reached by the research of Minghui et al. (2018), who argued that with more teaching experience, special educators feel more confident.

v. The teaching experience of their colleagues.

Teachers, by observing the successes of their colleagues, who possess similar abilities and skills, strengthen their self-confidence about what they can achieve themselves. Thus, the effect of the role model on the teacher's effectiveness depends on the degree to which he or she identifies with the role model (Hoy & Spero, 2005).

5.4 Measuring teachers' self-efficacy towards the inclusion of students with SEND

Teachers' self-efficacy is not a static concept; it evolves as the teacher is confronted with new situations (Fives, 2003). It is a dynamic condition since the issue of self-efficacy is continually changing as a result of the knowledge and experience gained through the implementation of the information initiatives (Gist & Mitchell, 1992).

A lack of a particular frame of reference is noted in a historical analysis of research to evaluate teacher self-efficacy. Therefore, measures of self-efficacy often avoid adhering to the principles of Bandura's theory. The use of generalized measurement instruments obscures the concept of self-efficacy and diminishes the extent to which a self-efficacy measurement instrument should be appropriate, adequate, accurate, specific, and specialized, which are the characteristics that should be included in a self-efficacy measurement instrument (Pajares, 1997).

Self-efficacy cannot be measured using a tool that is applicable in all situations, since this would limit the relationship between a clearly defined area of operation and the explanatory value of the instrument. According to Bandura(2006a), assessments of perceived self-efficacy should be modified to a particular area of operation that is the subject of interest.

The exact conceptualization of teacher self-efficacy is not an easy task and is fraught with difficulties, posing a difficult and intractable dilemma for academics. As a result, there is no consensus on how to test the conceptual construction of self-efficacy, and the validity and reliability of the current measuring measures are questioned. (Skott, 2013; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998; Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001).

The first attempts at measuring the concept of teacher self-efficacy occurred in the mid-1970s and followed two directions (Berman & McLaughlin, 1977; Brouwers & Tomic, 2000; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). The first is based on Rotter's (1966) control site theory which relates to instructors' ideas on their ability to influence students' performance (outcome), taking into account their own actions (internal control site) or external forces (external control site) (Dellinger et al., 2008). RSA (Responsibility for Student Achievement) and TLC (Teacher Locus of Control) are two measures that evaluate self-efficacy and are based on Rotter's theoretical framework (Henson et al., 2001).

The second direction, pertaining to teacher effectiveness research, was based on Bandura's social cognitive theory and the conceptualization of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977). Gibson and Dembo (1984) developed the Teacher Efficacy Scale (TES) based on Rotter's theory and Bandura's theory (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2001). The number of questions was reduced from 30 to 16 to get a good dependability index (Egyed &

Short, 2006). This scale played a key role in the study of self-efficacy, although it had significant drawbacks, underlining the need to develop a new measuring instrument.

Bandura (1997) developed his own instrument for measuring teachers' levels of self-efficacy; however, the instrument was never published. The instrument was developed to assess the capabilities of teachers using a set of 30 questions that were subdivided into seven distinct subscales. These subscales include the following: the ability to influence decision making; the ability to influence school resources; teaching; discipline; ensuring community participation; creating a positive school climate; and ensuring parental involvement (Denzine et al., 2005). Bandura's instrument is flawed in two different ways: a. it contains questions that are less representative of a teacher's work routine at school; and b. it has neglected important responsibilities and activities of the teacher, such as assessment, adaptation of the lesson to the needs of each student, also known as personalization, correction of students' misconceptions, and mobilization of the participation and interest of the students.

Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998) recognized the need for a multidimensional scale and therefore proposed a holistic model of teacher self-efficacy based on Bandura's theory. This model is based on different aspects of a teacher's role in the classroom and is formed on the basis that teachers play an important role in students' learning. The work of the researchers resulted in the development of a scale for evaluating the effectiveness of teachers called the Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy Teacher Effectiveness Scale (TSES) (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk-Hoy, 2001). This scale has become the most used in the area. It covers classroom management, student interaction, and instructional practices as three aspects of a teacher's sense of self-efficacy (George et al., 2018). To assess the validity, reliability, and cultural neutrality of the instrument, Tsigilis et al. (2010) distributed the TSES, which had been translated into Greek, to a sample of 405 teachers working in secondary schools. Overall, the findings exhibited favorable psychometric qualities, including the maintenance of the three-dimensional conceptual construction, autonomy from the cultural environment, temporal stability, and repeatability.

Although several studies have been conducted on teacher efficacy in general education, there have been few studies on teacher efficacy in including children with SEND in mainstream classes(Sharma et al., 2012). Some research that has studied

teacher efficacy to implement inclusive education(Romi & Leyser, 2006 ; Weisel and Dror, 2006) have often used general teacher efficacy measures (e.g., TES,TSES) . With the use of general measurement instruments, which lack a specific framework and frequently obscure the concept of self-efficacy, isolating it from situations, context, and work related to it and presenting it as a generalized attribute of some- one's personality, a holistic non-targeted approach can be observed (Pajares, 1997;Antoniou et al., 2017). Furthermore, some research has employed teacher efficacy scores based on the medical model's conception of disability. Despite their high reliability and validity, these scales continue to see disability as a lack which is inherent in the person and is thought to create considerable disadvantages(Sharma et al., 2012).

In the literature, self-efficacy is referred to as "perceived self-efficacy," which is defined by a person's views and ideas about his or her own self-efficacy (Antoniou et al., 2017). The Teacher Efficacy for Inclusive Learning Practices (TEIP) self-efficacy measurement scale was created by Sharma et al. (2012) and was used to test teachers' perceived self-efficacy in adopting inclusive classroom practices. This self-efficacy measurement scale has gained broad acceptance. Effectiveness in managerial behavior (measured by the EFMB subscale), inclusive education (measured by the EFII subscale), and cooperation (measured by the TEIP subscale) are the three categories covered by the TEIP scale, which has a total of 18 questions (Kazanopoulos et al., 2022).

5.5 Teachers' self-efficacy towards the inclusion and attitudes

Most researchers who have studied teachers' attitudes and self-efficacy toward inclusive practices (Martin et al., 2021; Miesera et al. 2019; Savolainen et al., 2020) have discovered links between these two constructs, but it appears that they do not yet have clear evidence on the most probable causal relationship between the two components (Savolainen et al., 2020; Miesera et al. 2019).

In several studies (Malinen et al., 2012; Montgomery & Mirenda, 2014; Yada & Savolainen, 2017; Narkun & Smogorzewska, 2019; Yada et al., 2018; Özokcu,, 2018), the factor efficacy of collaboration predicted relatively strong attitudes toward inclusive education. The other two factors of the TEIP scale have different correlations

with general and special education teachers, in contrast to Malinen et al. (2012), who found that the other two TEIP scale dimensions, efficacy in inclusive instruction and efficacy in behavior management, had no significant relationship with attitudes. Furthermore, when Montgomery and Mirenda (2014) considered all three self-efficacy factors together, a multiple regression analysis revealed that teachers' self-efficacy in collaboration was the only variable that was a statistically significant predictor of sentiments, attitudes, and concerns.

Özokcu (2018) confirmed an important relationship between teachers' self-efficacy and attitudes regarding inclusive education, while it was considered that teacher effectiveness is an important predictor of teachers' attitudes regarding inclusion. Therefore, self-efficacy proved to be an important variable that could explain teachers' attitudes. The results of this study initially identified that the attitudes of teachers who consider themselves capable of implementing co-education practices with students with disabilities are positive and that positive attitudes of teachers are related to high self-efficacy beliefs. Furthermore, self-efficacy in collaboration was discovered to be the most important factor in predicting teachers' attitudes, implying that factors like teachers' collaboration with colleagues and their parents, collaborative planning, and peer learning can be considered critical determinants of the success of integration practices. This finding emphasizes the importance of high-efficiency co-education in the formation of good co-educational attitudes (Özokcu, 2018).

Opoku et al. (2020) adopted the Theory of Planned Behavior (TPB) (Ajzen, 1991) as a framework to explore the intentions of secondary school teachers toward practicing inclusive education in Ghana. Although three determinants seem to be able to predict intention (attitudes, subjective rules, and self-efficacy), in this study, only attitudes and self-efficacy positively predicted intention. Similarly, another finding in this study is the existence of a positive but small correlation between attitude and self-efficacy. Thus, it was expected that both factors would be combined to predict secondary school teachers' intentions to pursue inclusive education. On the other hand, teachers with strong self-efficacy may be more open to implementing inclusive strategies for students with disabilities (Ajzen, 1991).

Narkun & Smogorzewska (2019) conducted correlation analyses and a series of regression analyses to observe whether there is a statistically significant relationship

between the teachers' sense of self-efficacy and their attitudes toward inclusive education. The study of the relationship between TEIP subscales and teachers' attitudes toward inclusive education reveals a small but significant correlation between efficacy in collaboration and attitudes toward inclusive education. However, no significant relationship existed between efficacy in managing behaviors or efficacy in using inclusive instruction and views toward inclusive education. However, self-efficacy was not a significant predictor of attitudes toward inclusiveness, as only job experience did, with more experience predicting better attitudes. In contrast to the preceding study, Sharma and Deppeler (2012) discovered that, despite having a high level of perceived teaching efficacy, pre-service teachers in Bangladesh are not overly concerned and have moderately positive attitudes toward students with SEND.

Savolainen et al. (2020) studied attitudes towards inclusive education and teachers' self-efficacy in implementing inclusive practices by using a longitudinal cross-lagged-panel design. A cross-lagged approach allowed researchers to investigate the impact of attitudes on future efficacy as well as efficacy on future attitudes while controlling for the previous level of each variable. Findings revealed that teachers' self-efficacy predicts their attitudes toward inclusive education, particularly teachers' concerns about implementing inclusive teaching in their classrooms. The study provided clear evidence that the influence of teachers' self-efficacy on teachers' attitudes toward inclusive education is likely stronger than vice versa. Increases in self-efficacy are likely to contribute to the formation of more favorable attitudes toward inclusive education, regardless of gender or teaching experience. Furthermore, efficacy had a greater impact on the attitudes measured as teacher concerns than on their general attitudes. Teachers' general attitudes are connected to their overall perspective of including students with various impairments in mainstream classes, which reflects their general stance on inclusion as an educational paradigm. Concerns refer to the teacher's teaching as he or she receives the inclusion on a personal level, expressing what the teacher believes about the inclusion of kids with disabilities in their classroom. The study reveals that, while teacher attitudes are rather constant, boosting teacher efficacy can favorably shift teacher attitudes.

Desombre et al. (2019) confirmed that French general teachers have a less positive attitude towards inclusion than special education teachers, and the discrepancy between these two groups is partly supported by the general teachers' lower sense of

efficacy. The mediation analysis carried out confirmed the indirect effect of teachers' effectiveness on the attitude towards inclusion. This meant that special education teachers expressed a more favorable attitude towards inclusion compared to general education teachers, in part because of their higher perceived efficacy. Finally, teachers' efficacy was positively related to their attitude toward inclusion, as the more confident they were about their teaching abilities, the more favorable they were to inclusion. (Savolainen et al., 2012b) reported similar results, confirming that self-efficacy beliefs are really connected with attitudes. The more teachers think they can implement co-educational activities on a precise and practical level, the more favorable their attitude toward inclusion will be.

According to Yada and Savolainen's (2017) research, self-efficacy and attitudes have a moderate relationship. Teachers who believed they were better equipped to implement inclusive teaching practices were less concerned with including students with disabilities in their classrooms. Furthermore, self-efficacy in behavior management appeared to be the most strongly related to attitudes. As a result, teachers who were more confident in their ability to manage their students' problem behaviors were more optimistic about inclusive education. In more recent research by the same authors (Yada & Savolainen, 2019), it was shown that Japanese instructors with a higher sense of self-efficacy evaluated inclusive arrangements as more advantageous for students with moderate disabilities. In contrast, the same teachers believed that students with severe disabilities were better educated in segregated education. Additionally, strong correlations exist between self-efficacy and most of the attitude variables in the Finnish sample, except for severe speech difficulties, severe vision impairments, severe physical disabilities, and severe hearing impairments.

Chapter VI. COLLABORATION BETWEEN TEACHERS AND PARENTS OF CHILDREN WITH SEND IN THE CONTEXT OF INCLUSION

6.1 Conceptual Definitions-Collaboration in general

According to Moreillon (2007), collaboration is described as "how" people work together to achieve mutual goals, i.e., the "process," which is characterized as dynamic and interactive, and "what" they develop together, i.e., the "content." At the same time, as mentioned by Dillenburg et al. (1996), there is a contrast between the phrases "cooperation" and "collaboration." This difference mostly applies to how collaborative work is distributed. The work in "cooperation" is divided hierarchically into independent sub-projects, and coordination is required when the individual results are gathered, whereas in "collaborative actions," cognitive processes can be equally divided into interconnected layers, and collaboration is the result of a continuous effort to build and maintain a shared conception of the problem.

Moreover, collaboration between individuals takes place within groups, organizations, or communities. Within a group, there are two forms of collaboration. Members of the first category (group work) share certain attributes, such as teaching the same topic or working in the same classroom (Effraimidou, 2014). In this situation, each member has his or her own personal project, and all members communicate and share ideas, methods, and potential solutions while providing feedback to one another. In the second sort of collaboration (teamwork), team members share the same vision and strive toward the same objective. Collaboration in this scenario is built on conversation, which includes discussion and compromise around a common purpose (Richardson, 2005). Additionally, the process of successful collaboration comprises frequent face-to-face encounters, a mechanism for resolving problems that emerge, the implementation and monitoring of pertinent choices, and the clear accountability of each member for the agreed-upon responsibilities (Hunt et al. 2003).

In the present work, we define collaboration between teachers and parents of children with SEND as both sides focusing on the same goal and sharing a common vision, which is the successful inclusion of the student in the general school. The next section will provide a bibliographic overview regarding collaboration in the school

system and more specifically, issues related to school-family collaboration. Then, the term "parental involvement" and the factors that influence parental involvement will be explored, and ultimately, the content of school-family collaboration in the context of inclusion, as well as the barriers that complicate this cooperation, will be analyzed.

6.2 Collaboration in the school system

Within the educational system, a variety of individuals and groups undertake multiple tasks, so they build complicated relationships as a result of their contacts. The degree to which this network of links and exchanges is comprehended has an impact on the school's ability to operate effectively (Campell et al., 1983). Cooperation among school members is one of the most essential social processes of joint, collective activity, as it allows beneficial connections to emerge and links between members of various groups to be stabilized (Fragoudaki, 1985).

In this instance, the term "collaboration" may be construed in a variety of ways, as it can refer to both co-teaching in the classroom and meetings of the teachers' association of a school unit. Teachers can also use the phrase to refer to collaborative efforts with colleagues on topics such as school environment organization and improvement, as well as the management of the school unit in which they work (Karagianni & Kladakis, 2012). According to Nathaniel (2014), the term "collaboration" is a qualitative parameter that is difficult to define due to its ambiguity. Cook and Friend (1991) presented one of the most widely recognized definitions, stating that "*person-to-person cooperation is a type of direct engagement involving at least two individuals who have volunteered for joint decision-making and joint effort toward the achievement of a goal*"(pp. 6–9). In other words, collaboration is not a result of the educational system's institutionalized practices. Instead, it is the result of a school environment that encourages values like mutual support, trust, and availability, as well as a real exchange of views and ideas (Hargreaves & Fullan, 1995).

Typically, cooperation begins when each of the participants has something unique to offer the joint venture that complements but does not duplicate what the others have to offer. Participants in a collaborative process must frequently work long hours but also possess unique interpersonal and social abilities (Day, 2003).

Collaboration may take many different forms. A cooperative connection might therefore be "developmental," when the goal is to foster the evolution of ideas and persons, or "executive," when it is imposed from without, has a standard nature, and lasts just a limited time (Biott, 1991). Collaboration in the workplace is promoted as one of the most crucial tasks of a contemporary company, as it is linked to increased productivity and the capacity to fulfill objectives (Drucker, 1980). It's no surprise that in educational practice, the topic of school community collaboration is continually raised as a serious concern (James et al., 2007; Hargreaves, 1994).

Systematic attempts have been undertaken to seek and capture the benefits of a collaborative atmosphere at school, particularly in the context of educational research and, more recently, psychological study. The positive effects of cooperation, according to Hargreaves (1994), are largely concerned with teachers' personal and professional growth. Of course, these advantages are reflected on a larger scale, since collaboration improves the educational system's procedures and outcomes in general (Berry et al., 2009). At the same time, a review of recent psychology research reveals that a secure, caring, participatory, and responsive school environment is associated with successful risk reduction and individual mental health promotion (Berkowitz & Bier, 2005; Greenberg et al., 2003).

6.3 Teacher -parent collaboration

It is undeniably true that the family plays a critical part in a child's spiritual, emotional, and social development. The child's growth and psychosocial adjustment begin in the family and are impacted by the family's cohesiveness and parental conduct. Other support variables, most notably the school, are incorporated afterwards (Mylonakou-Keke, 1999a; Babalis & Xanthakou, 2008).

Furthermore, the family's characteristics - socioeconomic status, cultural level, and dynamics - influence not only the child's psychology and self-image formation, but also the formation of the pedagogical relationship, as the child's perceptions of his family environment influence and often determine his behavior in the school environment (Mylonakou-Keke, 1999b). A school that strives for the greatest possible psychosocial adjustment of the child both at home and at school, for example, might encourage dialogue and collaboration with parents.

In recent years, there has been a growing interest in issues related to school-family collaboration, which is expressed through research that proposes theoretical models, studies best practices, and aims to highlight the positive effects on the learning process and psychosocial development of children (Mylonakou-Keke, 2009). To fully comprehend this topic, it is important to first provide the fundamental theoretical models that characterize school-family collaboration, as well as to clarify the idea of "parental engagement" and the elements that influence it. Following that, the theoretical underpinnings of communication as well as the basic skills that instructors might employ are presented.

6.4 Models of school-family collaboration
i. Bronfenbrenner ecosystem model

Bronfenbrenner (1989) created this paradigm, which is based on the systemic approach. Its fundamental premise is that a human interacts with a variety of systems throughout his life, all of which are in continual interaction and interdependence and influence his growth. The person is involved in five separate systems: The microsystems are the child's immediate surroundings, such as his or her family, school, and community. Interactions are immediate at this level, and their impact on the individual is strong and decisive. Furthermore, as the kid develops and participates in more microsystems, the interplay of microsystems becomes more complex.

The mesosystem is a system of linkages and interactions that depicts the interaction that occurs between the microsystems. It is not a structural aspect of the model (e.g., the relationship between the teacher and the parents). The quantity and quality of interactions that operate in the system have an impact on the effectiveness of the system environment for the child's good development, and thus it is regarded as the purpose of intervention to improve and modify the child's behavior.

State and professional entities, technology, the media, and social groups make up the extrasystem. The kid, it turns out, is not directly engaged in the extrasystem and cannot influence it but is impacted by it through the extra system's effect. For example, the hours and pay of the parents' jobs influence the family's microsystem, which in turn has an effect on how the child grows and acts.

The macrosystem, which concerns the political system, the legislation, the social and cultural values, and the economic policy of the country, it develops dynamically and affects the child through its effect on the various subsystems that it mediates.

The time system, which represents the time component of the subsystems described, for example, the time of death of the parents in the family microsystem is an important parameter for the development of the child. It is argued that, as evolution over time is largely unpredictable, a child's developmental process is complex and often influenced by random factors.

Recognition of the contribution of the biological parameter (e.g., role of genes, neurological development, chromosomal abnormalities) as decisive in the development of the individual led to the renaming of the model to bio-ecosystem (Berk 1993).

ii. Global model or model of overlapping spheres of influence of Epstein

Epstein's (1995) model of overlapping spheres of influence has a strong systemic focus and enhances the structure of school-family collaboration by acknowledging the involvement of the community. He claims that kids learn and grow in three larger settings (family, school, and community), all of which must coexist functionally.

Depending on the age of the child, the attitude of the instructors, and the level of community knowledge on problems of parental engagement in the educational process, the three spheres approach or move away. Although it is acknowledged that the family, school, and community all have different mechanisms in place to improve student performance, the joint adoption of designed and programmed methods can provide additional incentives for children to work diligently and efficiently in order to achieve school success and reduce dropout rates.

Epstein pays special attention to parental engagement, which is organized according to a research-based typology that can be used to build school-family collaboration initiatives.

The systemic-oriented approach of Ryan and Adams (1995) focuses on the child-student and members of his immediate home environment, their interpersonal interactions, and the impact they have on the child's achievement in school and in the social context in which he or she is involved. Relationship systems and parameters are graded at six levels, with the child at the bottom, based on their proximity to the child's conduct and school achievement. Each level has its own collection of variables, which are represented by a number that shows how far apart they are.

The zero level, in particular, comprises characteristics relating to a child's school performance and conduct (e.g., grade, participation). Variables that define personality traits and are more connected to school success are found on the first level (e.g., intelligence, self-esteem, emotional expression). The second level covers factors relating to parents' engagement in their children's school duties (e.g., homework assistance), and the third level includes parent-child contact in extracurricular activities. The fourth level provides characteristics relating to interactions among members of the extended family (e.g., communication, cooperation, cohesion, and expression of aggression). The fifth level delves further into the personality traits of the parents as well as their expectations for their children's performance and attitudes toward schooling. The sixth level is concerned with the family's external environment, including the social, economic, and cultural situations that surround it (e.g., the educational level of the family).

Simultaneously, the model makes the following fundamental assumptions:a. Regarding the child and his growth, the set of individual traits of family members, as well as the processes that occur within them, function in both directions. b. The criteria, which follow the six-level hierarchy about the child, impact the child's behavior and performance to varying degrees. c. The impact on the child varies according to the degree of influence of the factors (Mylonakou-Keke 2009).

iv. Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler of parental involvement's model

The model proposed by Hoover-Dempsey and Sandler (1995) focuses on psychological parameters that concern parents and influence their relationships with the school and consists of five levels:

At the first level, include the factors that motivate parents to engage in their children's education, such as: Personal motivation appears to be impacted by the "construction" of the parental role, which is made up of parents' ideas of assuming responsibility for their children's education as well as their own educational experiences. Simultaneously, parents' feelings of efficacy, or their views that they can genuinely assist their children by adopting proper behaviors, play an important part in creating parental engagement and motivation.The institution, instructors, and even students themselves extend invitations to collaborate. The family life context is determined by the socioeconomic status of the family, the parents' past knowledge and skills, the availability of time, and the total potential for participation in assisting the children with their studies and activities.

The second level consists of parental evaluations of parental engagement mechanisms, such as encouraging the child to do homework; all core strategies and practices of parental participation; parental efforts to improve the child's behavior; and parental instruction.

The third level describes children's perceptions of the mechanisms of parental involvement, such as the encouragement and support they receive in the performance of their schoolwork, all the basic strategies, and practices of parental involvement, enhancing the positive behavior of the child by the parents and the provision of education to a child by his or her parents.

According to children's perspectives, the fourth stage reflects the following characteristics of pupils that contribute to improved performance: Academic effectiveness, the internal desire for learning, the application of self-regulatory approach, which relates to students' ability to self-regulate via their beliefs and actions, the processes that increase learning and academic achievement, and the connection with instructors.

Students' performance in many topics is assessed at the fifth-grade level. Overall, this model includes significant study data and findings about parental motives, children's perceptions of parental engagement, and school success (Mylonakou-Keke 2009).

Co-education is an emerging interdisciplinary study topic that offers a new functional model of education that complements the current social practices of adult and child education with formal and non-formal education techniques, practices, and processes. Particularly, co-education is described as the learning of a shared educational experience concurrently and in cooperation with individuals of diverse ages, cognitive infrastructure, experiences, interests, and socio-cultural level (Mylonakou-Keke 2009).

Given the complexity and ongoing social, cultural, and economic changes that characterize modern society, the rapid development of science and technology, and the need for a functional interaction between school, family, and community, the model's inspirers argue that co-educational actions are a necessity, as they recognize school-family cooperation as a very important issue that requires direct involvement, i.e., students, parents, and teachers (Mylonakou-Keke 2009).As a result, organizing co-educational activities around a thematic unit that responds to the needs and interests of the participants can lead to a shift in their attitudes and behaviors, allowing them to transition from non-participating to active participation that organizes and develops knowledge. The collaborative process is completed by not only utilizing the obtained experiences and information, but also sharing them to the larger community (Mylonakou-Keke 2009).

In conclusion, the various models, despite their diverse scientific orientations, contribute to a deeper understanding of the processes and characteristics that influence school, family, and community collaboration. They can complement each other in the formulation and execution of a successful educational strategy for school, family, and community collaboration, according to Mylonakou-Keke (2009).

6.5 Parental involvement

The term "*parental involvement*" is multidimensional and is used to describe a wide range of activities of parents at home and at school, which aim to support children in the educational process (Bonia et al., 2008).

Parental engagement occurs at three levels (Fantuzzo et al., 2000): a) inside the home, b) within the school, and c) within the school-family communication.

Furthermore, Epstein (1995) distinguishes six categories of parental involvement: a) Parental activities aimed at creating a positive learning environment at home; b) parent-teacher communication about school curriculum and children's progress; c) parental involvement in school activities and volunteer contributions to school; d) parental involvement in preparing children for school and learning at home in general; e) parental involvement in decision-making boards and school administration; and f) parental involvement in seeking access to social services.

The research of the influence of parental engagement in children's school education confirms its good effect not only on students, parents, and instructors, but also on the quality of education delivered (Georgiou, 2000; Epstein & Sheldon, 2002; Bruzos, 2009).

Parents' active engagement appears to have major benefits for all students, independent of age, socioeconomic status, or cultural setting. It contributes to the enhancement of school performance by increasing engagement and interest in class, accepting responsibility for learning, and taking responsibility for assignment completion. Simultaneously, it promotes students' psychosocial development through the development of emotional and social skills, as well as the adoption of good attitudes and behaviors in the school setting, while avoiding and treating adaption challenges and lowering school dropout rates (Mylonakou-Keke 2009).

Parental participation appears to lead to improved connections with their children and the learning of new skills to help them at home. At the same time, it increases their appreciation and happiness with the school's collaboration, as well as their sense of efficacy in performing their parental role (Mylonakou-Keke, 2009).

Finally, instructors have the chance to better understand their students' needs, to have parents adequately support them in their work, and to be more effective via the reinforcement of teaching approaches that follow (Mylonakou-Keke, 2009).

Factors influencing parental involvement.

While recognizing the importance of parental involvement, it is not always seamless. According to research data, various factors influence the formation of parental involvement and consequently school-family cooperation. These factors

concern the characteristics of the child, the attitudes and expectations of parents and teachers, the external conditions, and the characteristics of the school unit (Pneumatikos et al., 2008).

Particularly, it appears that the age, gender, and learning requirements of the student have a substantial impact on parental engagement. Regarding age, it appears that parental participation is greatest while a child attends elementary school and subsequently declines as the child becomes older. In addition, the gender of the child affects parental engagement, since research indicates that the parents of males are more active in the educational process than those of girls. Parental participation appears to be regulated by the child's learning requirements, as it increases when school performance feedback is unfavorable and reduces when it is positive (Pneumatikos et al., 2008). Regarding parents, their educational background has a significant influence, as it appears that parents who had unpleasant experiences with education and instructors as students may be hesitant to cooperate with teachers or even refrain from school activities. In addition, external factors influence parental engagement perceptions and attitudes. For instance, parents with a high or moderate degree of social education view themselves as co-responsible for their children's education and actively participate in it. In addition, they may ascribe their children's strong performance to their own influence or their own children's skills, while they attribute learning challenges and poor performance to the instructor and the school. In contrast, low-income parents believe that education is solely the duty of teachers or that they lack the specialized expertise essential to help their children (Pneumatikos et al., 2008).

Moreover, external obstacles may limit parental engagement. For instance, parents may be unable to dedicate the necessary time to their children's education owing to severe financial difficulties, single motherhood, and lack of spare time because of long work hours (Bonia et al., 2008). Lastly, linguistic, and cultural disparities between educators and parents (e.g., immigrants, Roma) might impede collaboration (Bruzos 2009).

Teachers sometimes oppose parental engagement because they perceive it as a danger to their professional standing. They frequently believe that they are completely responsible for educating children, doubting that parents can make a good contribution to their job, or refuse to acknowledge that they require parental assistance. are not

concerned with the child's overall interactions with all school community members (Bruzos, 2009). Teachers frequently take the technocratic view and approach to educational work, according to which the "personal" problems of kids and parents are viewed as their private concern and addressing them is not their responsibility. The particular characteristics of the school unit, such as the student-teacher ratio, the difficulty of access to school, the school atmosphere, and notably the attitude of the school principal toward parental engagement, all play a key influence in the growth of parental involvement (Bruzos, 2009).

Finally, Georgiou (2000) explores the topic of school-family collaboration by concentrating on the political aspect of this connection, which involves the battle for power between the two groups involved. In particular, argues that in order to fully understand the factors that negatively affect parental participation and consequently school-family cooperation, issues such as who is responsible for the child's education, the advantages and disadvantages of active participation as well as if all parents have equal opportunities to be active in their children's education.

6.6 Teacher-parent collaboration in the context of inclusion

In studies of parents' views on inclusion institutions and how to apply them, the necessity for collaboration with schools to increase the assistance offered to their children and their active engagement is highlighted. As a result, the level of parental involvement in school activities aids their understanding of how the school runs in terms of structure, organization, and curriculum design (Cotton, 2000; Chen & Gregory, 2011; Simpkins et al., 2006). An important result of the cooperation of parents and teachers is the improvement of the academic performance of the student with SEND, the improvement of their social behavior (Garbacz & McIntyre, 2016), the understanding of disability by other students at school, a better understanding of learning needs by parents and teachers, and more active parental support and attendance at educational programs. Finally, their active participation increases parents' confidence and personal satisfaction with their involvement in school (Yssel et al., 2007).

The main benefits resulting from a productive relationship between parents and teachers, in addition to general support for the educational project, are increased learning opportunities and access to more resources and services (Simpkins et al.,

2006). In addition, a significant benefit is the reinforcement of the child's appropriate behavior in and out of school with teachers and parents observing and regulating the child's behavior accordingly throughout the supplement.

An important factor for parents is the quality of teaching and the availability of support services when Several studies have found that parents feel unsure about the positives or negatives of the effects of certain practices on inclusive education. Nevertheless, parents support the opportunity for their children to participate in general classes (Kokaridas et al., 2008). In general, co-education is positively evaluated by the parents of children whose children attend co-educational classes, which is confirmed not only by the final assessments but also by the statements of the parents, who do not seem to regret their child's choice of school and by the fact that they would make the same decision if they had to choose again (Boer et al., 2010; Gasteiger-Klicpera et al., 2012).

Regarding social connections in the classroom, the parents of children with disabilities or special educational needs are optimistic and supportive of inclusive education. Recognize that co-education of children with and without impairments or special educational needs at school prepares them to adjust to the real world by allowing them to work together and interact (Freeman et al., 1999; Garrick & Salend, 2000; Papanikolaou,2018). Other study has revealed that parents realize that the adoption of inclusive education promotes the good socialization and sensitivity to diversity of children with standard development (Freeman et al., 1999).

Regardless of the nature of their children's impairment, many parents notice that their child's school attendance has a positive impact on their child's social ties, as it allows them to meet their friends more frequently inside and outside of school (Gasteiger -Klicpera et al., 2012; Pijl & Frostad, 2010).

Some parents, however, worry that their children's differences would cause them to be singled out or victimized at school (Kokaridas et al., 2008). In addition, several surveys have expressed concern among parents about the general education teachers' lack of special knowledge and teaching skills. As a result, parents themselves worry that their child may be cognitively excluded and isolated (Davern, 1999; Leyser & Kirk, 2004; Runswick-Cole, 2008).The academic success of their child has been

credited in several studies to the inclusionary practices of their child's school. Specifically, parents have seen their child's upward trend and general improvement, his more active involvement in class, and a simultaneous decrease in their absences (Papanikolaou, 2018). Other studies have found that parents who participate in their children's education are able to better control their children's conduct at school and in the classroom (Smit & Driessen, 2009).

6.6.1 Content and way of teacher-parent collaboration.

The form of communication at school with the family is defined mainly by the established weekly and informal meetings, their telephone communication with their children's teachers, and the various activities of the parents and association guardians (Symeon, 2007). Parents often cooperate with the school in school decision-making by participating in school boards and more rarely in teachers' unions and parent associations.

Parents often express the importance of frequent and informal communication in matters concerning the difficulties or challenges encountered by students (Francis et al., 2016; Adams et al., 2016; Minsih et al., 2020). The preferred ways of communication are oral communication (i.e., phone calls, in-person talks before or after school, parent-teacher meetings) and written communication (i.e., home-school journals, emails, text messages, photographs, newsletters, and student plans) (Francis et al., 2016). An effective method of family-school collaboration, according to Minish et al. (2020), included: (1) Communication book and Class Journal; (2) Student Guardian Forum; (3) Home visits; (4) active school engagement with students' parents via social media networks; and (5) unique friendships for special needs parents. The advantages of home visit activities should be highlighted as they provide a unique opportunity to contact families in an informal setting. Furthermore, house visits help them to have a better understanding of their children's behavior at home as well as their family's background.

Also important is the support offered to parents at school either in the form of funding or other forms of support such as their presence at various school events. The specific form of support depends on the general culture and cultural atmosphere of the

school, the mood, and the intention of the parents to participate in them (Lyons et al., 2004).

6.6.2 Factors for a successful teacher-parent collaboration.

Cooperation between teachers and parents is helpful to include the collection of all necessary information concerning the student with disabilities or special educational needs and an overview of issues considered important for the effectiveness of the child's education (Kokaridas et al., 2008; Schwab et al., 2019).

An important factor that helps to build trusting partnerships with families is the demonstration of respect by professionals through action and communication, as well as empathy, sensitivity, compassion, and kindness to students (Francis et al., 2016). Teachers and other staff can also satisfy students' needs by developing tailored strategies, meeting children at their current levels, and adopting "outside the box" strategies to address specific academic, behavioral, social, and emotional needs. It is equally critical for educators to listen to parents and consider their perspectives (Kazanopoulos et al., 2021). As a result of being respected by educators, parents perceive themselves as valued partners in educational decision-making for their children and feel that their contributions and personal investments are appraised, which establishes positive differences in the school (Kazanopoulos et al., 2021).

Frequent meetings with parents are the only way for teachers to understand the needs of the child, but at the same time, it is a unique opportunity to be informed by the parents on the best practices and strategies to guide the SEND students (Adams et al., 2016). All of this information will aid teachers in adjusting their instruction and meeting the goals set for each student. Furthermore, family information exchange and a joint decision-making process assist in reducing conflict and improving student achievement (Mereoiu et al., 2016).

More particular, information on the student's background and learning requirements is deemed necessary so that the teaching program may be continuously improved. Furthermore, through collaboration and the sharing of ideas and expertise, a better understanding of the child's requirements, as well as the wants and desires of the parents, is attained (Heward, 1996). Teachers may give additional information, encourage, and provide practical assistance to parents (Salend, 2001; Sileo, 2011).

Effective cooperation, on the other hand, now entails the collaborative design of specific educational activities, the establishment of tailored learning goals, and the overall execution of the choices taken (Leyser & Kirk, 2011).

As a result, in order to foster a solid cooperative and trusting connection, parents should seek more active engagement as well as more chances to interact with one another since the education of their children is not just the duty of instructors.

6.6.3 Obstacles that hinder teacher-parent collaboration.

However, research has revealed that collaboration between school and family is not established properly. Typically, such interactions take the form of official relationships within the framework of specified duties such as notifying parents and participating in school activities (Papanikolaou, 2018). Family engagement in education often starts in elementary school and is restricted to overseeing homework that the child is responsible for completing at home. Lack of time seems to be the most significant barrier to more active family engagement in children's education. According to Kazanopoulos et al. (2021), both parents and educators believe that a lack of time and an inability to meet are crucial aspects of their partnership. Furthermore, parents claim that they occasionally attend a parent-teacher meeting due to professional duties or business activities (Jigyel et al., 2018; Minsih et al., 2020; Papanikolaou, 2018). Additionally, instructors are unable to meet with parents since they are constantly presented with many demands and obligations, such as co-curricular activities, administrative chores, and several Ministry of Education programs (Wong et al., 2015). Additionally, the rise in the number of households where either just one parent works, both parents work, or both parents practice more than one profession ultimately leads to less time spent at home with children and school commitments.

In addition to the lack of time, some additional problems arise, some of which concern the different educational identities of the family, while the use of professional language might make parents feel concerned (Mereiou, 2016). Teachers and specialists usually employ papers that are dense with discipline-specific concepts, vocabulary, and acronyms, making them difficult to comprehend for those who have not received equivalent training or substantial experience in special education (Solone et al., 2020). Mereiou (2016) also brought up the issue of instructors' lack of understanding of the

demands of culturally diverse families. Teachers stress the need to recognize cultural variations, which may have an impact on parent engagement. For example, parents from various cultures are hesitant to argue with or criticize instructors, which may restrict them from disagreeing and sharing their viewpoint in that regard. Participants also discussed how diverse family structures or backgrounds may face challenges when it comes to participating in the educational process.

Furthermore, a significant barrier is the absence of mutual trust, as well as the parents' insistence on problems linked to how to deal with their child's learning requirements, conduct, and performance, resulting in no meaningful communication and collaboration with the instructor (Papanikolaou, 2018). Furthermore, it has been demonstrated that during the student's transition from primary to secondary school, parents place a greater emphasis on how their child will be better supported, specifically whether they will be provided with any individualized support services so that the student avoids injury and exclusion from his class due to poor performance (Gasteiger-Klicpera et al., 2012).

6.7 Teacher's attitudes and their self-efficacy in relation to cooperation with the parents of students with SEND in the context of inclusive education

The number of studies on the relationship between self-efficacy and teachers' collaborative skills is limited (Goddard & Kim, 2018; Kiel et al., 2020; Savolainen et al., 2012). When educators aggressively promote family participation, parents are more successfully engaged. Teachers who have a positive and helpful attitude toward parental involvement get more parents involved and make parental involvement work better (Hornby & Lafaele, 2011). Teachers' positive attitudes toward inclusion seem to play an essential part in working with parents when it comes to teaching children with SEND.

Syriopoulou-Delli et al. (2016) observed that postgraduate courses in special education had a significant impact on teachers' perspectives on dealing with parents on problems linked to the education of children with ASD. These educators believed that the major advantage of collaboration between parents and teachers was the improvement of children's self-esteem and that parents were informed about special

education procedures more frequently than otherwise. As a result, teachers with academic qualifications in ASD can tell parents about important concerns, such as communication approaches, as well as analyze children's language development.

Several studies (Özokcu, 2018; Savolainen et al., 2012; Malinen et al., 2012; Montgomery & Mirenda, 2014; Yada & Savolainen, 2017; Narkun & Smogorzewska, 2019) emphasized that self-efficacy in collaboration was the most significant factor in predicting teachers' attitudes. In addition, variables such as teacher engagement with colleagues and parents of children with SEND, collaborative planning, and peer learning may be seen as crucial success factors for integration techniques. These findings make it abundantly clear that in the not-too-distant future, both pre-service and in-service teacher education programs will likely need to place a greater emphasis on the development of skills related to collaboration and provide training in pedagogy behavior management.

Chapter VII. METHODOLOGY OF THE RESEARCH

7.1 Research questions

Current research examines the teachers' efficacy in inclusive practices, the teachers' attitudes towards inclusive classrooms, and the cooperation of teachers with the parents of students with special educational needs. The aim of current research is to investigate the effect of self-efficacy in implementing inclusive practices on attitudes towards inclusion as well as the effect of self-efficacy and attitudes towards inclusion on collaboration. In addition, differences between general and special education teachers regarding the sense of self-efficacy in implementing inclusive practices and the formation of perceptions about attitudes and collaboration are examined, as are the effects of training and demographic profile on the above parameters. The research questions are formulated below:

1) Does general and special education teachers' self-efficacy in implementing inclusive practices affect their attitudes towards inclusion?

2) Does general and special education teachers' training affect their self-efficacy to implement inclusive practices and to formulate perceptions about attitudes and collaboration?

3) Do the attitudes towards inclusion and the self-efficacy for inclusive practices of general and special education teachers' affect their collaboration with parents of students with special educational needs in the context of inclusive education?

4) What are the differences between general and special education teachers regarding their sense of self-efficacy in implementing inclusive practices and their perceptions about attitudes and collaboration?

5) What is the effect of demographic factors on general and special education teachers' sense of self-efficacy in implementing inclusive practices and on the formation of perceptions about attitudes and collaboration?

7.2 Research design

Current research is primary, quantitative, and correlational, both between and within groups, in a non-experimental design. Quantitative research is chosen because concepts such as teachers' efficacy in inclusive practices, teachers' attitudes towards inclusive classrooms, and the cooperation of teachers with the parents of students with special educational needs are measurable, so researchers can measure them accurately (Creswell, 2013). In addition, according to the first research question, the predictors of attitudes towards inclusion are examined, while in the third research question, the predictors of collaboration are examined in quantitative research using correlations and multiple regression models (Hayes, 2013). Furthermore, in the 2nd, 4th, and 5th research questions, dependences and comparisons between groups are examined, which are accomplished in quantitative research using statistical methods on numerical data (Muijs, 2011). A major advantage of quantitative research is that results can be generalized for the population of the study if statistical methods are performed properly and the sample can be considered representative of the population (Cohen et al., 2007). Current research is non-experimental because researchers aim to identify relationships between and within groups without considering external factors (McLeod, 2017).

7.3 Population-Sample

The current study's population is comprised of general and special education teachers in Greece. Sample, it was conducted by 265 teachers, almost equally distributed between general or special education and permanent or deputy employment status, mainly teaching in Central Greece, Attica, Central Macedonia, and the Southern Aegean, with the specialty of philologist, science teacher, or mathematician. Most of them have training in special education, and almost all (97.40%) are trained with at least one of the possible methods, regarding training in special education issues: in educational sciences generally, in another scientific field, in a seminar, or via participation in a conference. Most teachers are female, older than 35 years old, with 0–5 years of teaching experience in special education, and they do not have a child with special educational needs living at home. Almost half of the sample stated 0–10 years

of teaching experience in general education, while 1 out of 4 referred to more than 20 years.

7.4 Questionnaire

A questionnaire of 71 questions, which is separated in 4 sections (demographics, TEIP, STATIC, Collaboration) was used.

The 1st section refers to demographic characteristics, with 11 questions considering gender, age, existence of child with SEND at home, kind of education, specialty and training, employment status, region of teaching, years of teaching experience in general and special education, as well as if they have attended, as part of their undergraduate studies, a course or seminar on the education of students with special educational needs.

The 2nd section involves 18 Likert-type questions from 1 to 6 (1=strongly disagree, 2=disagree, 3=disagree somewhat, 4=agree somewhat, 5=agree, 6=strongly agree) of the Teacher Efficacy for Inclusive Practice (TEIP) Scale (Sharma et al., 2012) and involves 3 factors with 6 questions for each factor. More specifically, the first factor is "efficacy to use inclusive instructions," which corresponds to questions 15, 18, 10, 5, 6, and 14 of the questionnaires (see Appendix). The second factor is "efficacy in collaboration" and corresponds to the questions 4, 13, 9, 3, 12, and 16. The third factor is "dealing with disruptive behaviors" and corresponds to the questions 7, 8, 2, 11, and 17.

The 3rd section involves 20 Likert-type questions from 0 to 5 (0=strongly disagree, 1=disagree, 2=disagree somewhat, 3=agree somewhat, 4=agree, 5=strongly agree) on the Scale of Teachers' Attitudes towards Inclusive Classrooms (STATIC) (Cochran, 1998) and involves 4 factors. More specifically, the first factor is "Advantages and Disadvantages of Inclusive Education" and corresponds to the questions 7,11,12,13,14,15,20 of the questionnaire (see Appendix), the second factor is "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" and corresponds to the questions 1,2,3,4,9 of the questionnaire, the third factor is "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" and corresponds to the questions 5,6,10,16 of the questionnaire, and the fourth factor is "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education" and corresponds to the questions 8,17,18,19 of the questionnaire.

The 4th section involves 21 Likert type questions from 1 to 8 (1= Strongly disagree, 2= Disagree a lot, 3= Disagree, 4= Disagree somewhat, 5= Agree somewhat, 6= Agree,7=Agree a lot, 8= Strongly agree), for cooperation of teachers with the parents of students with SEND and 1 open type question regarding the obstacles of cooperation (Papanikolaou, 2018). The questionnaire involves 6 factors, and more specifically , the first factor is "Collaboration for timely information" and corresponds to the questions 1,2 of the questionnaire (see Appendix), the second factor is "Collaboration for teaching" and corresponds to the questions 9,10,11,12 of the questionnaire, the third factor is "Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations" and corresponds to the questions 3,4,5,6,7,8 of the questionnaire, the fourth factor is "The result of working with the final adjustments" and corresponds to the questions 13,14,15 of the questionnaire, the fifth factor is "Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation" and corresponds to the questions 16,17,18 of the questionnaire and the sixth factor is "Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation" and corresponds to the questions 19,20,21 of the questionnaire . The factors "Collaboration for timely information" AND "Collaboration for teaching" belong to the "Content of collaboration" subsection, the "Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations" and the "The result of working with the final adjustments" belong to the "Content of the role of teachers in cooperation with parents" subsection while the "Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation" and the "Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation" belong to the "Obstacles to cooperation" subsection.

Mean time for completion of each questionnaire was approximately 15 minutes. Data were collected using google forms via random sampling in general administrations of primary and secondary education of Greece (Creswell, 2013).

7.5 Data analysis

IBM SPSS 24 was used to analyze the data. Microsoft Office Excel 2016 was used for coding the data and interpreting the results. Percentages and frequencies were used for nominal variables, while mean and standard deviation were used for Likert-type questions and scale variables.

Significance was set at 5%. To compare mean differences between two independent large samples ($n \geq 30$), or samples that are normally distributed, the parametric

independent samples t-test was used. Similarly, the parametric ANOVA test was used to compare mean differences between three or more independent large samples (n 30) or samples that are normally distributed, with post hoc analysis LSD or Games Howell for equal or unequal variances, respectively. The non-parametric Mann-Whitney test was used to compare medians between two independent samples that were small (n 30) and not normally distributed. To compare medians between three or more independent samples that are small (n 30) and not normally distributed, the non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis test was used. To identify predictor variables of scale-dependent variables, multiple linear regression models were used (Field, 2017).

7.6 Ethical issues

Researcher confirmed all the necessary ethical issues that are related to the nature of research and to the psychology of participants (BPS, 2014). In particular:

✓ The research project was approved by the university of the researcher.

✓ Professor at the university supervised the procedure of the research.

✓ Teachers were informed about the research aims and that their participation is anonymous and voluntary.

✓ The right to withdraw from research was clarified as occurring during the procedure or 1 week after the collection of data.

✓ The researcher gave his personal information to the participants in case they wanted to communicate.

7.7 Reliability

Reliability of data were tested using the Cronbach Alpha coefficient where acceptable values are those greater than 0,7 (McLeod, 2007). Table 1 indicates the results of the reliability analysis that was conducted. It is apparent that in all factors have a satisfactory internal reliability. In particular, the factor "Efficacy to use inclusive instructions" had reliability a= 0,773, "Efficacy in collaboration" a=0,780, "Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors" a=0,848, "Advantages of Inclusive Education" a=0,837, "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" a=0,772, "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" a=0,719, "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education" a=0,647, "Collaboration for timely information" a= 0,884, "Collaboration for teaching" a= 0,845, "Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations" a=0,885, "The result of

working with the final adjustments" a=0,812, "Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation" a= 0,605 and "Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation" a=0,829.

Table 1: Reliability Analysis of Factors

Factor	Questions	Cronbach's Alpha
Teacher Efficacy for Inclusive Practice Scale		
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	5,6,10,14,15,18	0,773
Efficacy in collaboration	3,4,9,12,13,16	0,780
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	1,2,7,8,11,17	0,848
Scale of Teachers' Attitudes towards Inclusive Classrooms		
Advantages of Inclusive Education	7R,11,12,13R,14,15R,20	0,837
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	1,2,3R,4R,9R	0,772
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	5,6,10,16	0,719
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	8,17,18,19	0,647
Cooperation of teachers with the parents of students with special educational needs		
Collaboration for timely information	1,2	0,884
Collaboration for teaching	9-12	0,845
Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations	3-8	0,885
The result of working with the final adjustments	13-15	0,812
Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation	16-18	0,605
Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation	19-21	0,829

7.8 Validity

The validity of the questionnaire was tested using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), proving the concept's validity (McLeod, 2013).

Table 2 presents the results of factor analysis for the Teacher Efficacy for Inclusive Practice Scale, using the varimax method. Results indicate moderate validity, as 10 of 18 questions (55.55%) are classified in the correct component. The 1st component involves 4 questions on the factor "Efficacy in dealing with disruptive behaviors," but also involves 3 questions on the factor "Efficacy in collaboration" and 1 question on the factor "Efficacy to use inclusive instructions," explaining 40.92% of the total variance. The second component includes four questions on the factor "Efficacy to use inclusive instructions," but also includes two questions on the factor "Efficacy in dealing with disruptive behaviors" and one question on the factor "Efficacy in collaboration" that are incorrect, accounting for 8.68% of the total variance. The 3rd component involves two questions about the factor "Efficacy in Collaboration," but

incorrectly involves only one question about the factor "Efficacy to Use Inclusive Instructions," explaining 7,02% of the total variance.

Table 2: Results of factor analysis for TEIP using the Varimax method

Questions	1	2	3
EFF_DIS_5	0,791		
EFF_COL_6	**0,731**		
EFF_DIS_3	0,689		
EFF_COL_3	**0,650**		
EFF_DIS_2	0,637		
EFF_COL_1	**0,622**		
EFF_DIS_1	0,608		
EFF_INCL_4	**0,544**		
EFF_INCL_2		0,710	
EFF_INCL_5		0,642	
EFF_INCL_1		0,609	
EFF_DIS_4		**0,578**	
EFF_INCL_6		0,500	
EFF_COL_4		**0,486**	
EFF_DIS_6		**0,481**	
EFF_COL_5			0,873
EFF_COL_2			0,860
EFF_INCL_3			**0,534**
Variance	**40,92%**	**8,68%**	**7,02%**

Table 3 presents the results of factor analysis for STATIC questionnaire, using the varimax method. Results indicate very high validity as 19 from 20 questions (95%) are classified in the correct component. The 1st component involves 7 questions of the factor "Advantages of Inclusive Education" explaining the 30,12% of total variance. The 2nd component involves 4 questions of the factor "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education" but involves wrongly 1 question of factor "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education", explaining the 12,44% of total variance. The 3rd component involves 4 questions of the factor "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education", explaining the 7,50% of total variance. The 4th component involves 4 questions of the factor "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education", explaining the 7,33% of the total variance.

Table 3: Results of factor analysis for STATIC using the Varimax method

Questions	1	2	3	4
ATT_ADV_INCL_3	0,804			
ATT_ADV_INCL_7	0,748			
ATT_ADV_INCL_1	-0,717			
ATT_ADV_INCL_4	-0,706			
ATT_ADV_INCL_5	0,678			
ATT_ADV_INCL_2	0,576			
ATT_ADV_INCL_6	-0,503			
ATT_LOG_CONC_1		0,905		
ATT_PR_INCL_1		**0,905**		
ATT_LOG_CONC_4		0,605		
ATT_LOG_CONC_3		0,550		
ATT_LOG_CONC_2		0,524		
ATT_PR_INCL_3			0,809	
ATT_PR_INCL_4			0,755	
ATT_PR_INCL_2			-0,653	
ATT_PR_INCL_5			0,529	
ATT_PHIL_INCL_3				0,766
ATT_PHIL_INCL_1				0,765
ATT_PHIL_INCL_4				0,696
ATT_PHIL_INCL_2				0,518
Variance	**30,12%**	**12,44%**	**7,50%**	**7,33%**

Table 4 presents the results of factor analysis for the collaboration questionnaire, in the subsection "Content of Collaboration" using the varimax method. Results indicate excellent validity, as all questions (100%) are classified in the correct component. The first part has four questions about the "collaboration for teaching" factor, which accounts for 57.38% of the total variance. The second part has two questions about the "collaboration for timely information" factor, which accounts for 19.55% of the total variance.

Table 4: Results of factor analysis for Collaboration in "Content of collaboration", using the Varimax method

Questions	1	2
COLL_TEACH_2	0,902	
COLL_TEACH_3	0,860	
COLL_TEACH_1	0,843	
COLL_TEACH_4	0,623	
COLL_TIME_1		0,922
COLL_TIME_2		0,913

Variance   57,38%   19,55%

Table 5 presents the results of factor analysis for the Collaboration questionnaire, in the subsection "Content of the role of teachers in cooperation with parents", using the varimax method. Results indicate excellent validity, as all questions (100%) are classified in the correct component. The 1st component involves six questions about the factor "predisposition to organize teaching adaptations," explaining 56,03% of the total variance, while the 2nd involves 3 questions about the factor "the result of working with the final adjustments," explaining 12,23% of the total variance. Table 3 presents the results of factor analysis for the STATIC questionnaire, using the varimax method. The results show that the test is very valid because 19 of the 20 questions (95%) are put in the right component. The 1st component involves 7 questions of the factor "Advantages of Inclusive Education," explaining the 30,12% of total variance. The 2nd component involves 4 questions of the factor "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education" but involves wrongly 1 question of factor "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education", explaining the 12,44% of total variance. The third component involves four questions about the factor "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education," explaining 7,50% of the total variance. The 4th component involves four questions about the factor "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education," explaining the 7,33% of the total variance.

Table 5: Results of factor analysis for Collaboration, in "Content of the role of teachers in cooperation with parents", using the Varimax method

Questions	1	2
ROLE_PREDISP_6	0,793	
ROLE_PREDISP_5	0,778	
ROLE_PREDISP_3	0,777	
ROLE_PREDISP_1	0,774	
ROLE_PREDISP_4	0,765	
ROLE_PREDISP_2	0,615	
ROLE_ADJ_2		0,910
ROLE_ADJ_1		0,830
ROLE_ADJ_3		0,646
Variance	**56,03%**	**12,23%**

Table 6 presents the results of factor analysis for Collaboration questionnaire, in the subsection "Obstacles to cooperation", using the varimax method. Results indicate excellent validity as all questions (100%) are classified in the correct component. The 1st component involves 3 questions of the factor "Personal reasons as

obstacles in cooperation", explaining the 56,03% of the total variance, while the 2nd involves 3 questions of the factor "Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation" explaining the 16,23% of the total variance.

Table 6: Results of factor analysis for Collaboration, in "Obstacles to cooperation", using the Varimax method

Questions	1	2
OBST_PERS_1	0,863	
OBST_PERS_3	0,827	
OBST_PERS_2	0,822	
OBST_PR_1		0,766
OBST_PR_3		0,701
OBST_PR_2		0,675
Variance	**50,00%**	**16,23%**

Chapter VIII. RESULTS

8.1 Descriptive statistics

8.1.1   Demographics

i. Gender

Table 7 and Graphs from 1 to 8 represent the demographic characteristic of participants

Concerning gender, the 74,3% (N=197) are females, while 25,7% (N=68) are males.
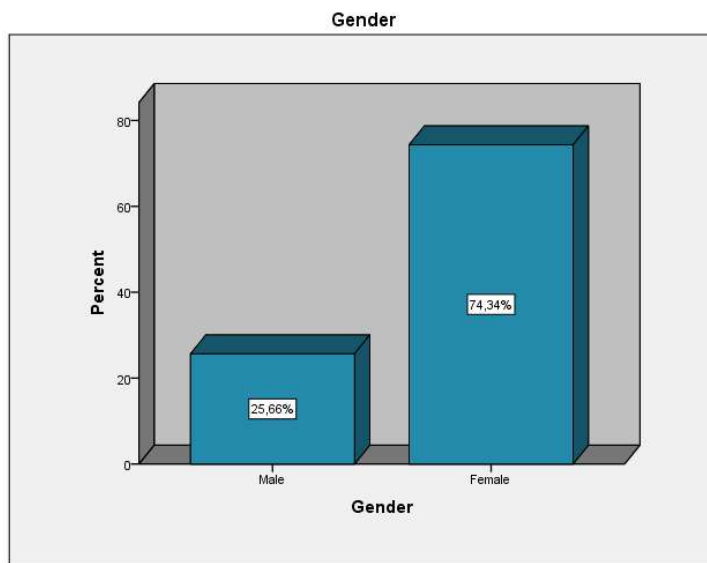
Graph 1: Gender

ii.Age

With regard to age, 27,5% (N=73) are more than 51 years old, 20,8% (N=55) 36-40, 17,0% (N=45) 41-45, 16,6% (N=44) 31-35, 14,0% (N=37) 46-50, while 4,2% (N=11) are 22-30 years old.
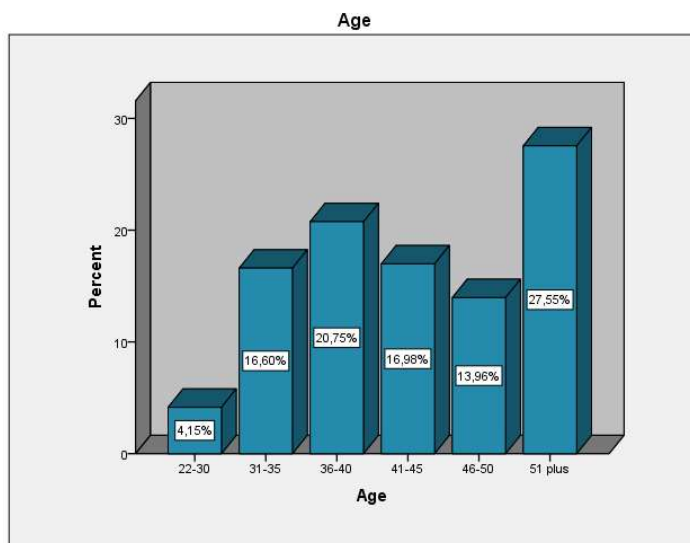
Graph 2: Age

iii. Child with SEN living at home

Also, 90,6% (N=240) don't have a child with special educational needs living at home, while 9,4% (N=25) do have.

Note the category in which you belong
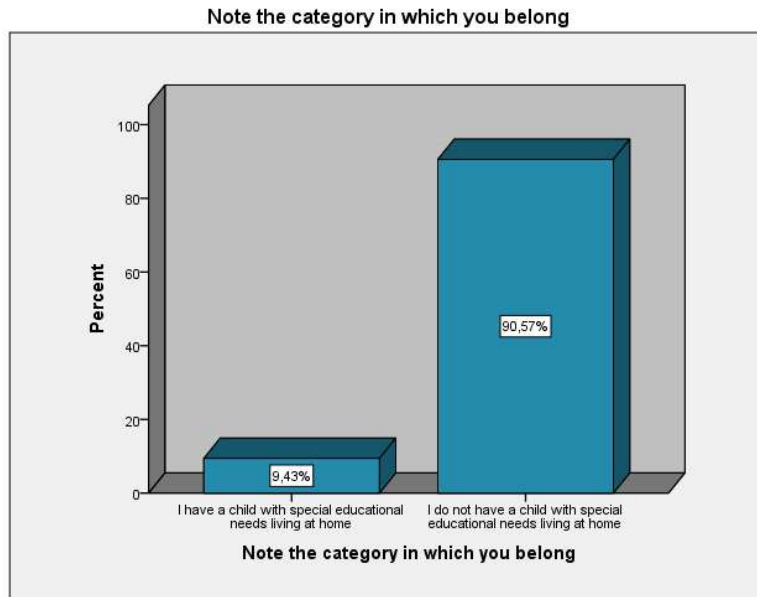
Graph 3: Note the category in which you belong

iv. Teaching in general education

Furthermore, 49,4% (N=131) teach this year in general education, 32,5% (N=86) in special education-parallel support, while 18,1% (N=48) teach in special education-integral.
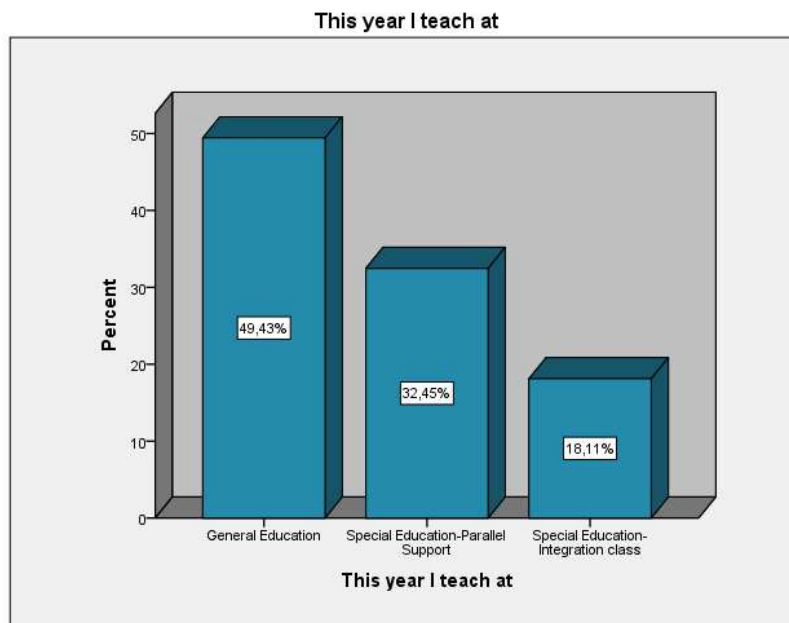
This year I teach at

Graph 4: This year I teach at

As for the region in which they work, 20,4% (N=54) work in Central Greece, 15,8% (N=42) in Attica, 11,3% (N=30) in Central Macedonia, 10,6% (N=28) in Southern Aegean, 7,9% (N=21) in Peloponnese, 7,9% (N=21) in West Macedonia, 4,5% (N=12) in Eastern Macedonia and Thrace, 4,5% (N=12) in Epirus, 4,2% (N=11) in West Greece, 3,8% (N=10) in Thessaly, 3,8% (N=10) in Crete, 3,4% (N=9) in Ionian Islands and 1,9% (N=5) in North Aegean.
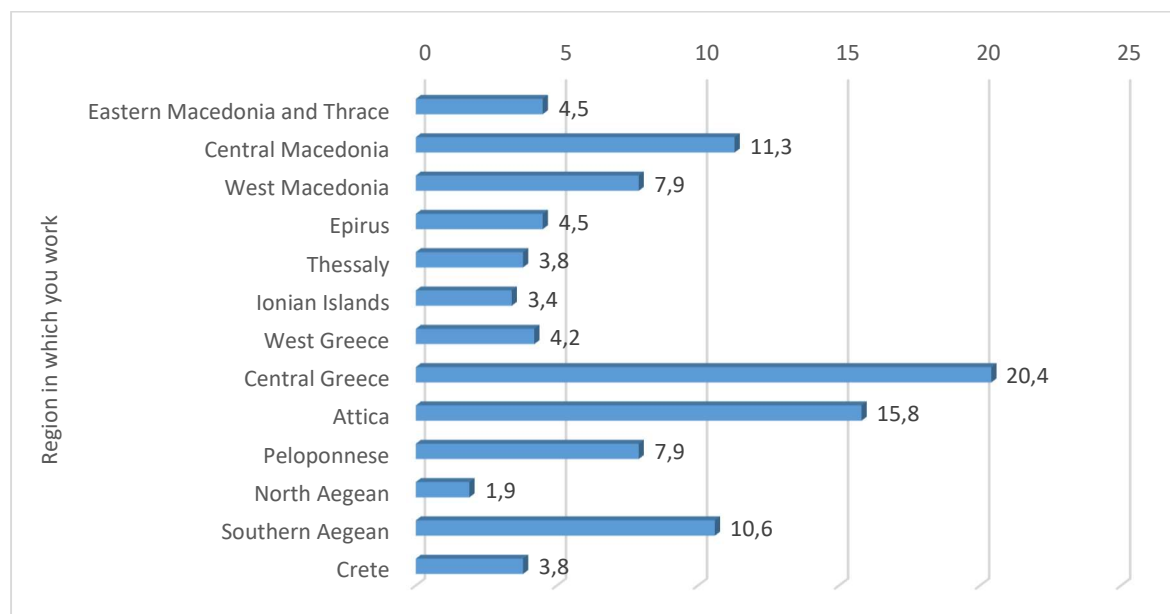
Graph 5: Region in which you work

vi. Employment status

In terms of employment status, 54,3% (N=144) are deputies, 45,3% (N=120) permanents, whereas 0,4% (N=1) are hourly wages.
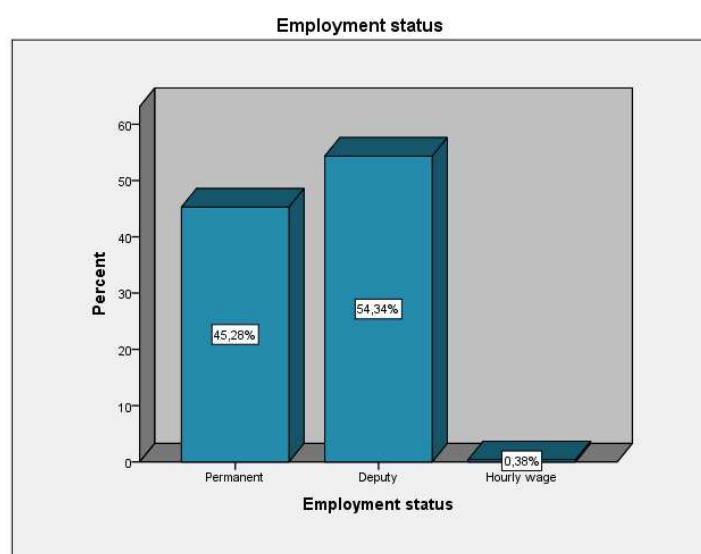
Graph 6: Employment status

vii. Teaching experience in general education

Moreover, 29% (N=62) have 0-1 year of teaching experience in general education, 24,8% (N=53) have over 20 years, 13,1% (N=28) 2-5 years, 12,1% (N=26) 11-15, 11,2% (N=24) 16-20 and 9,8% (N=21) 6-10 years.

Years of teaching experience in General Education
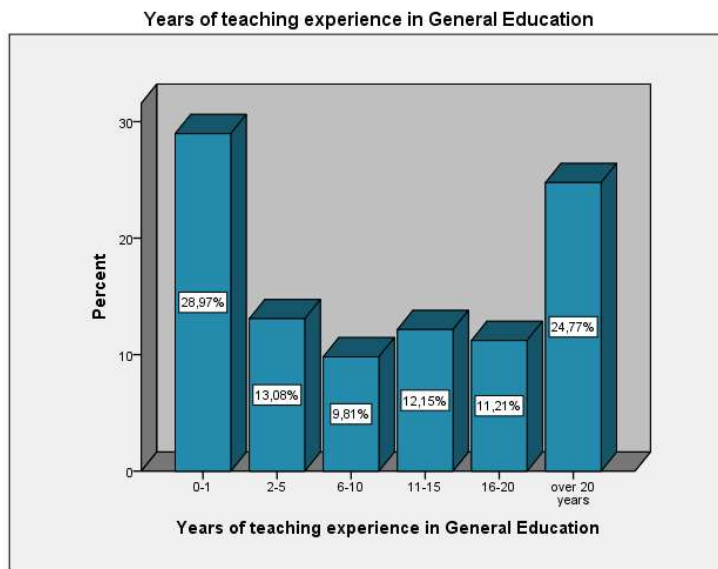
Graph 7: Years of teaching experience in General Education

viii. Teaching experience in special education

Regarding the years of teaching experience in special education (Parallel Support, Integration classes, Special schools, KESY), 46,7% (N=92) have 0-1year experience, 33,0% (N=65) 2-5 years, 15,2% (N=30) 6-10, 4,1% (N=8) 11-15 while 1,0% (N=20) have 16-20 years.

Years of teaching experience in Special Education (Parallel Support, Integration classes, Special schools, KESY):
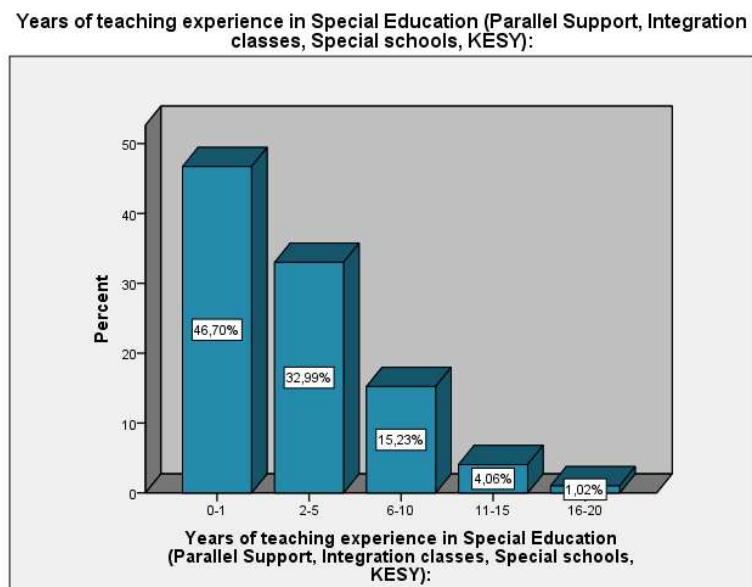
Graph 8: Years of teaching experience in Special Education (Parallel Support, Integration classes, Special schools, KESY

Table 7: Demographics

Variable	Category	N	f%
Gender	Male	68	25,7
	Female	197	74,3
	22-30	11	4,2
	31-35	44	16,6
Age	36-40	55	20,8
	41-45	45	17,0
	46-50	37	14,0
	51 plus	73	27,5
Note the category in which you belong	I have a child with special educational needs living at home	25	9,4
	I do not have a child with special educational needs living at home	240	90,6
This year I teach at	General Education	131	49,4
	Special Education-Parallel Support	86	32,5
	Special Education- Integration class	48	18,1
	Eastern Macedonia and Thrace	12	4,5
	Central Macedonia	30	11,3
	West Macedonia	21	7,9
	Epirus	12	4,5
	Thessaly	10	3,8
	Ionian Islands	9	3,4
Region in which you work	West Greece	11	4,2
	Central Greece	54	20,4
	Attica	42	15,8
	Peloponnese	21	7,9
	North Aegean	5	1,9
	Southern Aegean	28	10,6
	Crete	10	3,8
Employment status	Permanent	120	45,3
	Deputy	144	54,3
	Hourly wage	1	0,4
	0-1	62	29,0
	2-5	28	13,1
Years of teaching experience in General Education	6-10	21	9,8
	11-15	26	12,1
	16-20	24	11,2
	Over 20 years	53	24,8
Years of teaching experience in Special Education (Parallel Support, Integration classes, Special schools, KESY):	0-1	92	46,7
	2-5	65	33,0
	6-10	30	15,2
	11-15	8	4,1
	16-20	2	1,0

8.1.2   Specialty & training

Below, Table 8 and Graphs 9 to 11, represent the features that are related to specialty and training of participants. The 39,6% (N=105) belong to the specialty of PE02 Philologist, 20,0% (N=53) to PE04 Science teacher, 15,1% (N=40) to PE03 Mathematician, 4,2% (N=11) to PE01 Theologian, 3,8% (N=10) to PE11 Sports teacher, 2,6% (N=7) to PE06 English language teacher, 1,9% (N=5) to PE10 Sociologist teacher, 1,1% (N=3) to PE05 French language teacher, 0,8% (N=2) to PE07 German language teacher, 0,4% (N=1) to PE08 Art teacher, 0,4% (N=1) to PE09 Economist teacher, while 10,2% (N=27) chose the category "other (PE12.01 – PE91.02)".
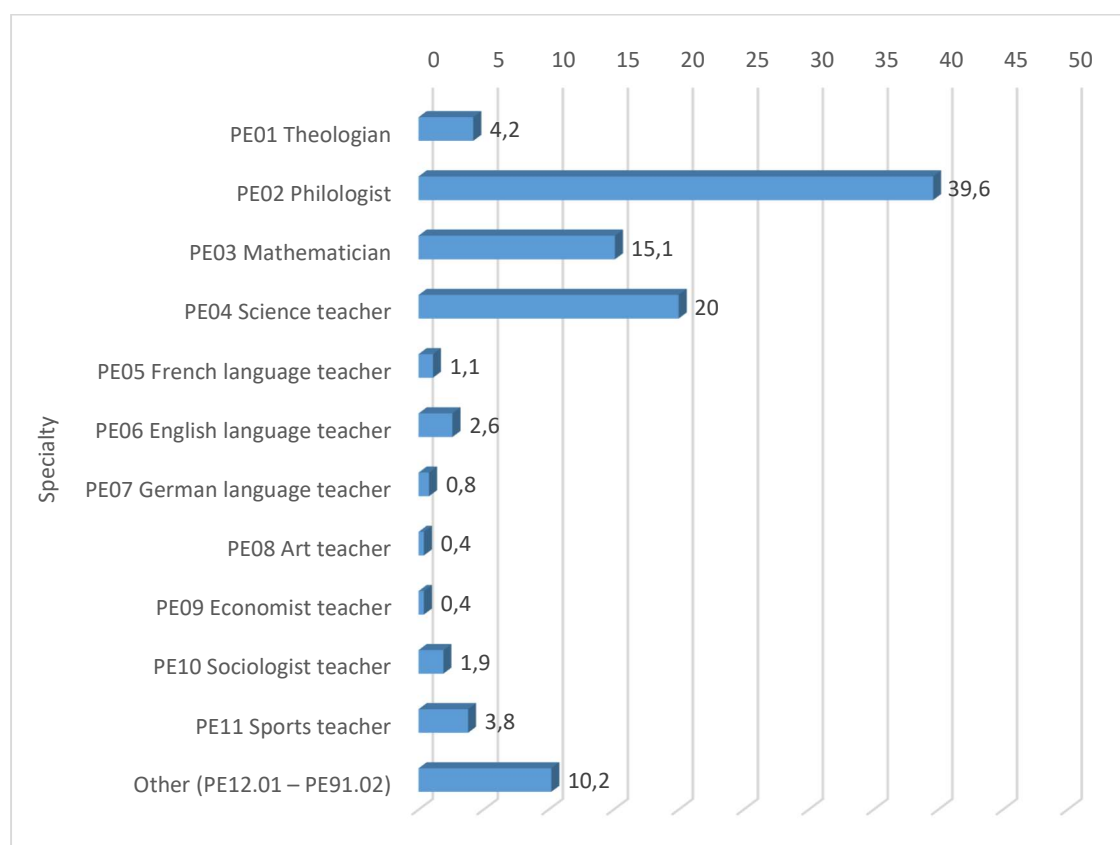
Graph 9: Specialty

In addition, 62,6% (N=166) haven't attended, as part of their undergraduate studies, a course or seminar on the education of students with special educational needs, whereas 37,4% (N=99) do have attended.
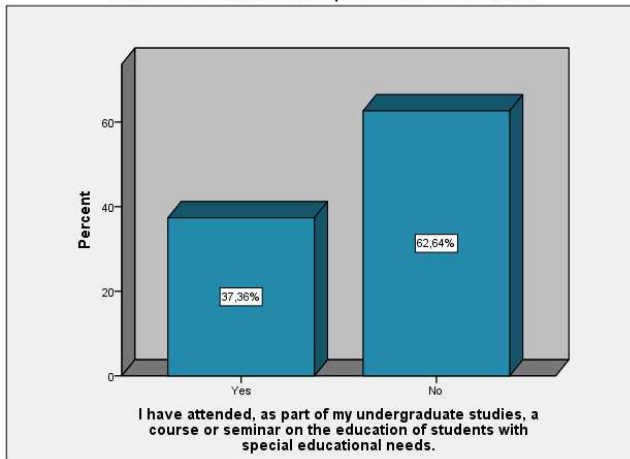
Graph 10: I have attended, as part of my undergraduate studies, a course or seminar on the education of students with special educational needs.

The next question is multiple choice, which means that participants can choose more than one answer. Thus, 43,40% (N=115) have master's degree in Special Education, 38,50% (N=102) have participated in a conference, 37,70% (N=100) have done seminar at least 300 hours in Special Education, 35,80% (N=95) have other seminar–training, 23,00% (N=61) have done seminar at least 300 hours in Educational Sciences generally, 20,40% (N=54) have Master's degree in another scientific field, 15,50% (N=41) have Master's degree in Educational Sciences generally, while 12,50% (N=33) have done seminar at least 300 hours in another scientific field. Also, 2,60% (N=7) have doctorate in another scientific field, 2,30% (N=6) in Educational Sciences generally, 0,80% (N=2) in Special Education, whereas 2,60% (N=7) have no training at all.
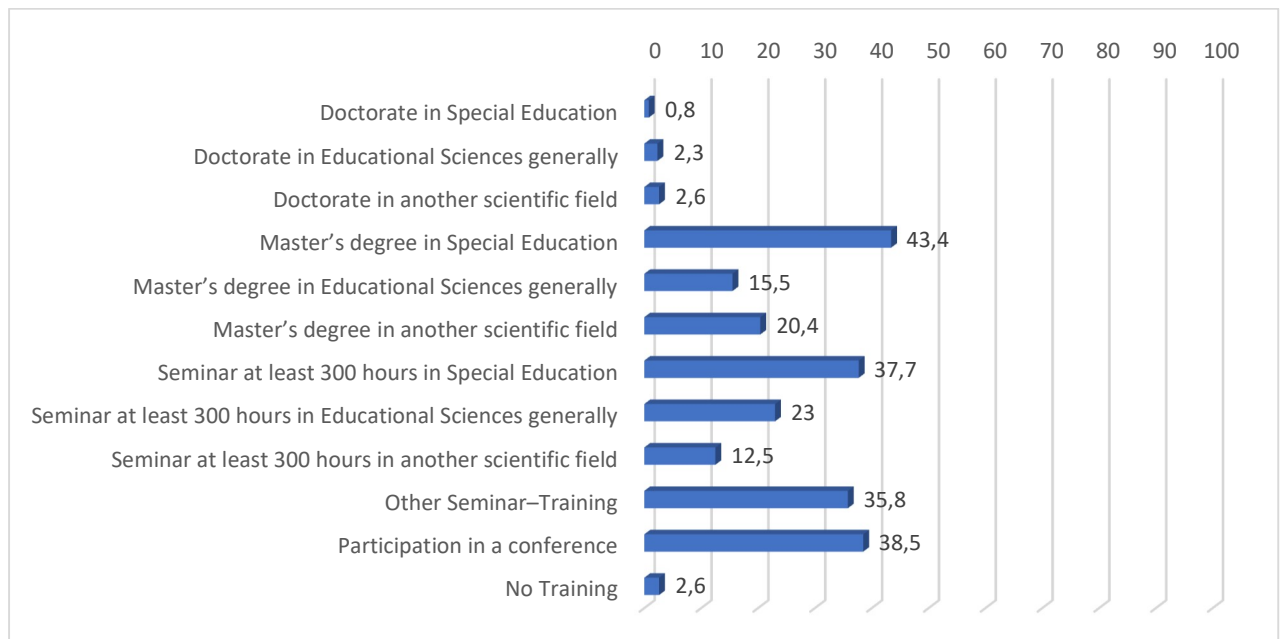
Graph 11: Training

Table 8: Specialty & training

Variable	Category	N	f%
Specialty	PE01 Theologian	11	4,2
	PE02 Philologist	105	39,6
	PE03 Mathematician	40	15,1
	PE04 Science teacher	53	20,0
	PE05 French language teacher	3	1,1
	PE06 English language teacher	7	2,6
	PE07 German language teacher	2	0,8
	PE08 Art's teacher	1	0,4
	PE09 Economist teacher	1	0,4
	PE10 Sociologist teacher	5	1,9
	PE11 Sports teacher	10	3,8
	Other (PE12.01 – PE91.02)	27	10,2
I have attended, as part of my undergraduate studies, a course or seminar on the education of students with special educational needs.	Yes	99	37,4
	No	166	62,6
Training	Doctorate in Special Education	2	0,80
	Doctorate in Educational Sciences generally	6	2,30
	Doctorate in another scientific field	7	2,60
	Master's degree in Special Education	115	43,40
	Master's degree in Educational Sciences generally	41	15,50
	Master's degree in another scientific field	54	20,40
	Seminar at least 300 hours in Special Education	100	37,70
	Seminar at least 300 hours in Educational Sciences generally	61	23,00
	Seminar at least 300 hours in another scientific field	33	12,50
	Other Seminar–Training	95	35,80
	Participation in a conference	102	38,50
	No Training	7	2,60

8.1.3 Teacher Efficacy for Inclusive Practice (TEIP) Scale

In the present section it is represented the teacher efficacy for Inclusive Practice. Participants declare their degree of agreement through 6 scales (1= Strongly disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Disagree somewhat, 4= Agree somewhat, 5= Agree, 6= Strongly agree).

i. *Efficacy to use inclusive instructions*

Table 9 and Graph 12 include statements that are related to the efficacy to use inclusive instructions. According to the results, participants agreed that they are able to provide an alternate explanation, or example when students are confused (M=5,27±0,63) and appropriate challenges for very capable students (M=4,95±0,79). Moreover, they agreed that they are confident in their ability to get students to work together in pairs or in small groups (M=4,86±0,77), and can accurately gauge student comprehension of what they have taught (M=4,65±0,72).

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Besides, their responses were placed among the scales "agree somewhat" and "agree", regarding how much they can use a variety of assessment strategies (e.g., portfolio assessment, modified tests, performance-based assessment, etc.) (M=4,59±0,90). Finally, they agreed somewhat with the statement that they are confident in designing learning tasks, so that the individual needs of students with disabilities are accommodated (M=4,38±1,13).

Table 9: Efficacy to use inclusive instructions

Statements	M	SD
I am able to provide an alternate explanation, or example when students are confused	5,27	0,63
I can provide appropriate challenges for very capable students,	4,95	0,79
I am confident in my ability to get students to work together in pairs or in small groups.	4,86	0,77
I can accurately gauge student comprehension of what I have taught	4,65	0,72
I can use a variety of assessment strategies (e.g., portfolio assessment, modified tests, performance-based assessment, etc.)	4,59	0,90
I am confident in designing learning tasks so that the individual needs of students with disabilities are accommodated	4,38	1,13
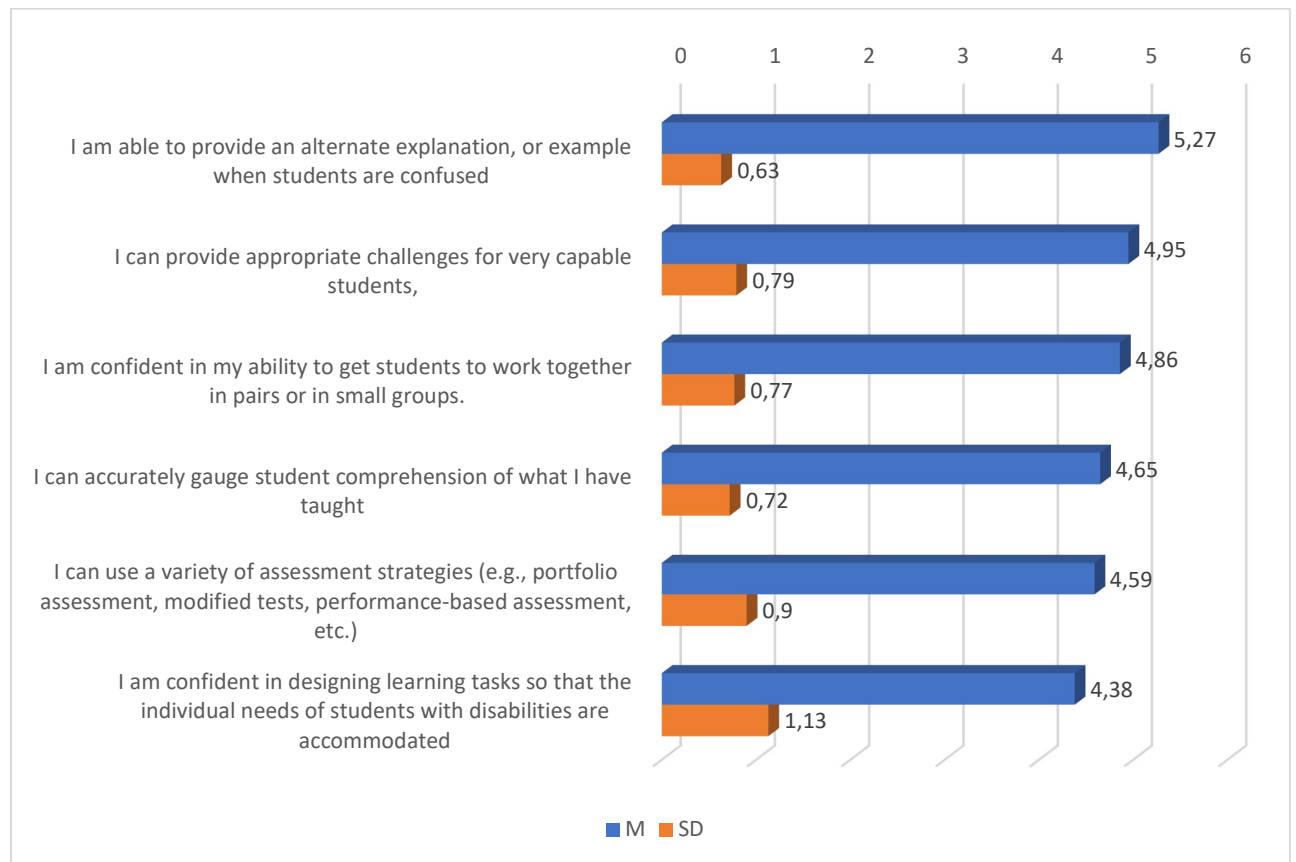
Graph 12: Efficacy to use inclusive instructions

Table 10 and Graph 13 indicate that participants agreed that they can collaborate with other professionals (e.g., Itinerant teachers or speech pathologists) in designing educational plans for students with disabilities (M=5,07±0,78), work jointly with other professionals and staff (e.g., aides, other teachers) to teach students with disabilities in the classroom (M=5,06±0,77), and make parents feel comfortable coming to school (M=4,82±0,76).

Also, their answers were placed between the scales "agree somewhat" and "agree", regarding how they much can assist families in helping their children do well in school (M=4,54±0,85). In conclusion, they agreed somewhat that they are confident in their ability to get parents involved in school activities of their children with disabilities (M=3,91±1,16) and in informing others who know little about laws and policies relating to the inclusion of in question students (M=3,86±1,31).

Table 10: Efficacy in collaboration

Statements	M	SD
I can collaborate with other professionals (e.g., Itinerant teachers or speech pathologists) in designing educational plans for students with disabilities	5,07	0,78
I am able to work jointly with other professionals and staff (e.g., aides, other teachers) to teach students with disabilities in the classroom.	5,06	0,77
I can make parents feel comfortable coming to school.	4,82	0,76
I can assist families in helping their children do well in school	4,54	0,85
I am confident in my ability to get parents involved in school activities of their children with disabilities	3,91	1,16
I am confident in informing others who know little about laws and policies relating to the inclusion of students with disabilities.	3,86	1,31
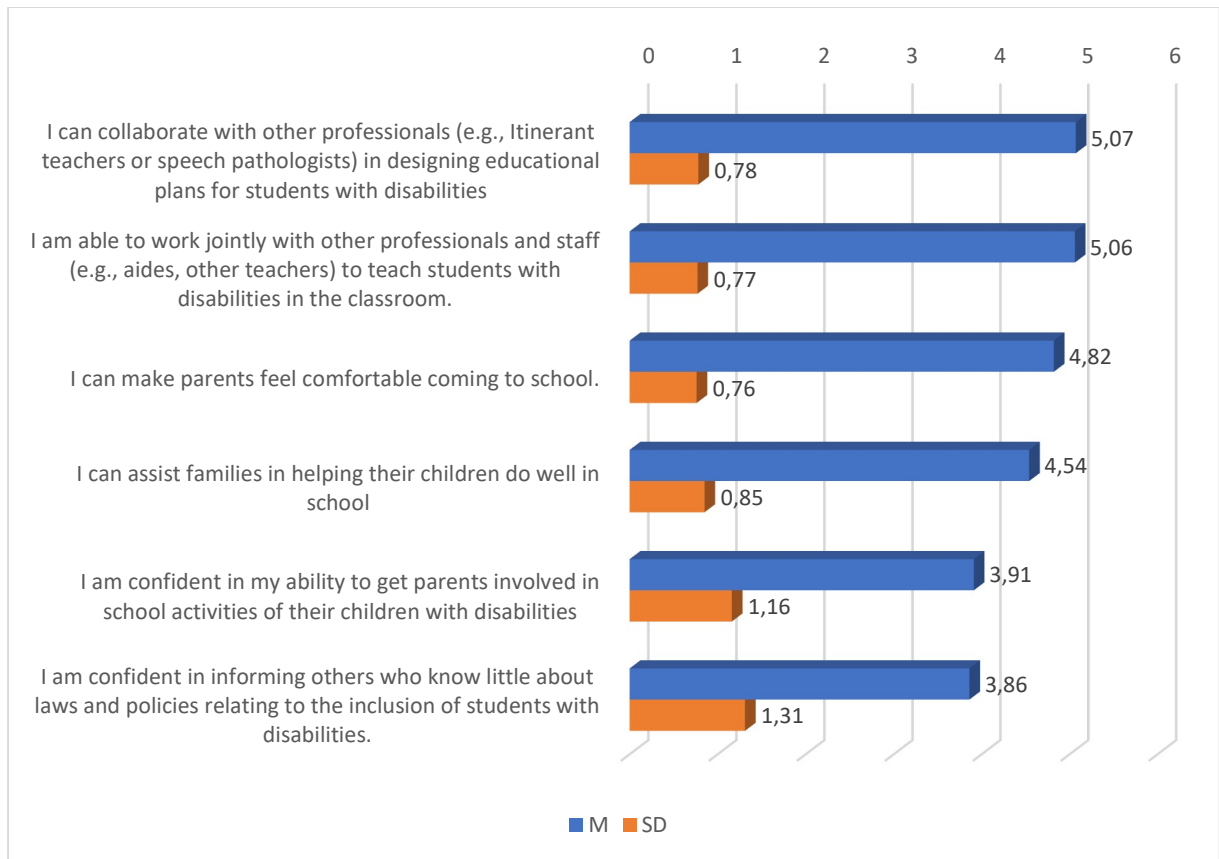
Graph 13: Efficacy in collaboration

    iii.   *Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors*

According to the results, (Table 11, Graph 14), participants agreed that they are able to get children to follow classroom rules (M=4,73±0,69) and make their expectations clear about student behavior (M=4,71±0,74). Besides, their responses were placed among the scales "agree somewhat" and "agree", as for how they can control disruptive behavior in the classroom (M=4,51±0,75).

Further, they agreed somewhat that they are able to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy (M=4,35±0,75), are confident in their ability to prevent disruptive behavior in the classroom before it occurs (M=4,24±0,83), and when dealing with students who are physically aggressive (M=4,19±1,01).

Table 11: Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors

Statements	M	SD
I am able to get children to follow classroom rules	4,73	0,69
I can make my expectations clear about student behavior	4,71	0,74
I can control disruptive behavior in the classroom.	4,51	0,75
I am able to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy	4,35	0,75
I am confident in my ability to prevent disruptive behavior in the classroom before it occurs.	4,24	0,83
I am confident when dealing with students who are physically aggressive	4,19	1,01
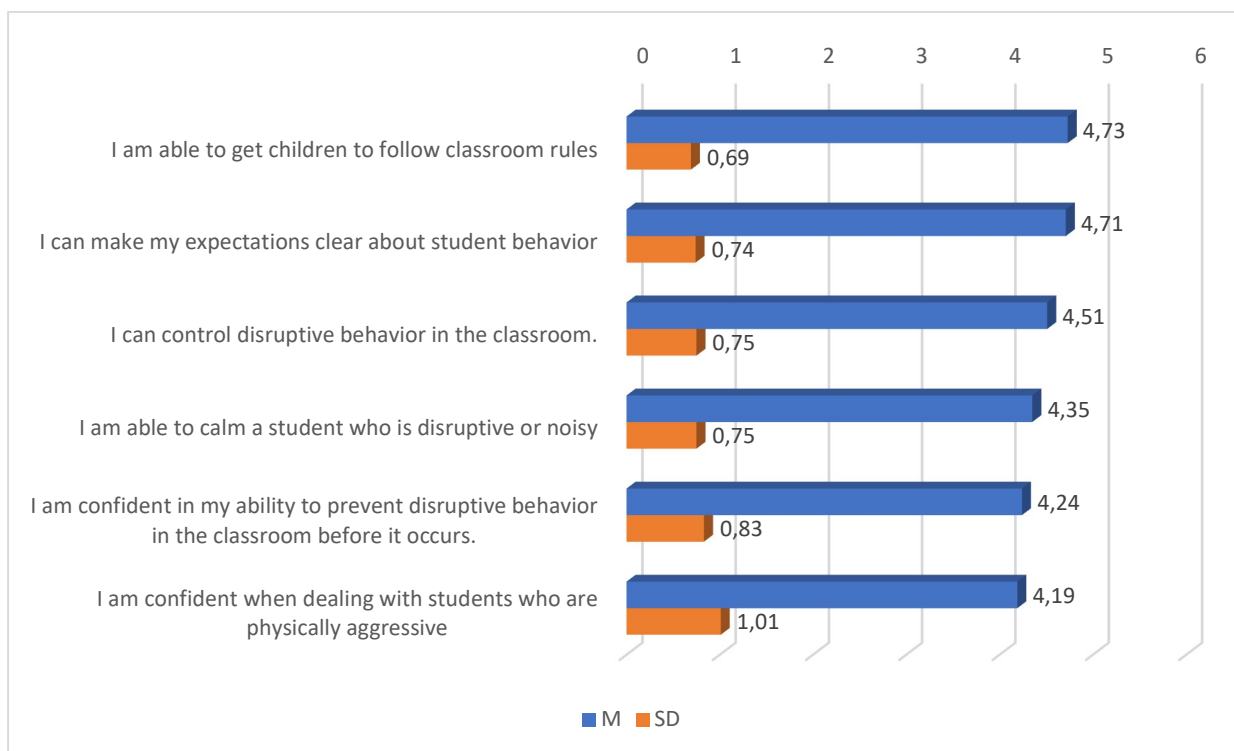
Graph 14: Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors

8.1.4 Scale of Teachers' Attitudes towards Inclusive Classrooms (STATIC)

This section, include statements that consider in the teachers' attitude towards Inclusive Classrooms. Participants declare their degree of agreement through from 0 to 5 scale (0= Strongly disagree, 1= Disagree, 2= Disagree somewhat, 3= Agree somewhat, 4= Agree, 5= Strongly agree).

i. Advantages and disadvantages of inclusive education.

Table 12 and Graph 15 show the results about the advantages and disadvantages of inclusive education. In line with the results, participants' answers were placed between the scales "agree somewhat" and "agree", regarding how much students with special needs learn social skills that are modeled by regular education students (M=3,60±0,86), should be included in regular education classrooms (M=3,56±1,08) and how much their self-esteem is increased, when included in the regular education classroom (M=3,45±1,01). In addition, they agreed somewhat that students with special needs have higher academic achievements, when included in the regular education classroom (M=3,05±1,05).

Moreover, they disagreed somewhat with the statements that it is difficult for children with special needs to make strides in academic achievement in the regular education classroom (M=2,29±1,24) and that those children should be placed in special

education classes (M=1,82±1,24). Finally, they disagreed that students with special needs in the regular education classroom, hinder the academic progress of the regular education student (M=1,15±1,01).

Table 12: Advantages and Disadvantages of Inclusive Education

Statements	M	SD
Students with special needs learn social skills that are modeled by regular education students.	3,60	0,86
Students with special needs should be included in regular education classrooms.	3,56	1,08
Self-esteem of children with special needs is increased when included in the regular education classroom.	3,45	1,01
Students with special needs have higher academic achievements when included in the regular education classroom.	3,05	1,05
It is difficult for children with special needs to make strides in academic achievement in the regular education classroom.	2,29	1,24
I believe that children with special needs should be placed in special education classes.	1,82	1,24
Students with special needs in the regular education classroom hinder the academic progress of the regular education student.	1,15	1,01
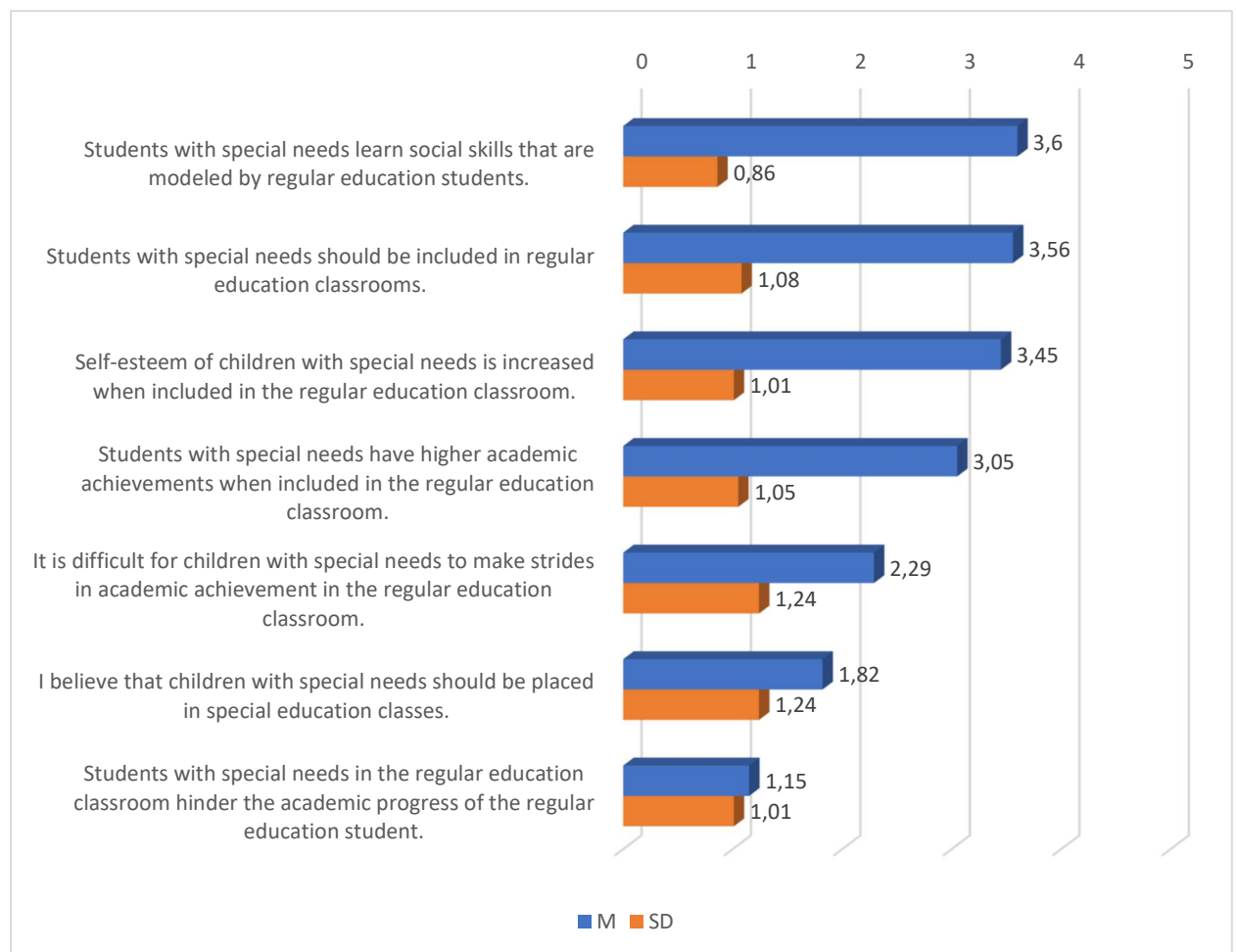
Graph 15: Advantages and Disadvantages of Inclusive Education

Table 13 and Graph 16 indicate that they agreed that they are confident in their ability to teach children with special needs (M=4,13±0,98). Also, their answers were placed between the scales "disagree somewhat" and "agree somewhat", regarding how much they have been adequately trained to meet the needs of children with disabilities (M=2,58±1,56).

Into the bargain, they disagreed somewhat that they become easily frustrated when teaching students with special needs (M=2,11±1,27). Besides, their responses were placed among the scales "disagree" and "disagree somewhat", as for how they become anxious when they learn that a student with special needs will be in their classroom (M=1,53 ± 1,39). In closing, they disagreed that they have problems teaching a student with cognitive deficits (M=1,12±1,17).

Table 13: Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education

Statements	M	SD
I am confident in my ability to teach children with special needs	4,13	0,98
I have been adequately trained to meet the needs of children with disabilities.	2,58	1,56
I become easily frustrated when teaching students with special needs.	2,11	1,27
I become anxious when I learn that a student with special needs will be in my classroom.	1,53	1,39
I have problems teaching a student with cognitive deficits.	1,12	1,17
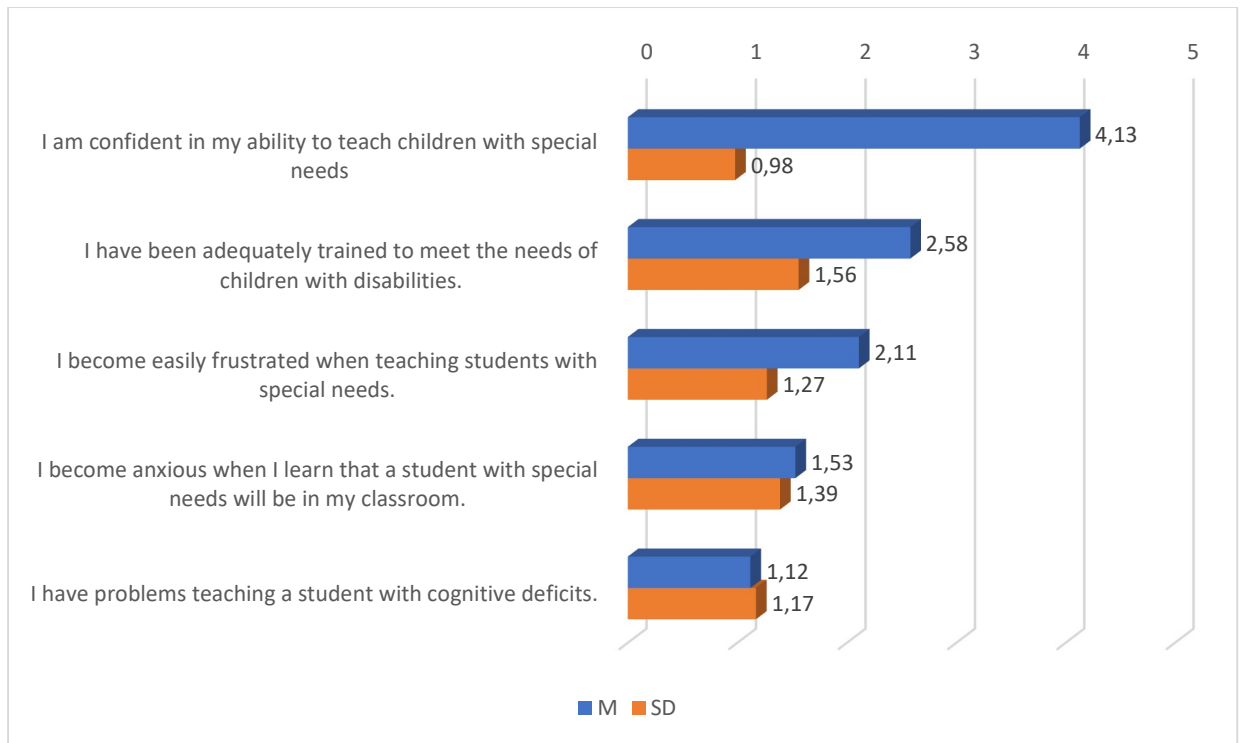
Graph 16: Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education

iii. Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education

Table 14 and Graph 17 indicate that participants agreed that special in-service training in teaching special needs students should be required for all regular education teachers ($M=4,23\pm1,08$), that academic progress is possible in those children ($M=3,87\pm0,79$) and they can adequately handle students with mild to moderate behavioral problems ($M=3,81\pm0,88$). In conclusion, their answers were placed between the scales "agree somewhat" and "agree", regarding how much they believe that all children can learn in most environments, despite that they differ intellectually, physically, and psychologically ($M=3,52\pm1,19$).

Table 14: Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education

Statements	M	SD
Special in-service training in teaching special needs students should be required for all regular education teachers.	4,30	1,02
I believe that academic progress is possible in children with special needs.	4,05	0,68
I can adequately handle students with mild to moderate behavioral problems.	4,02	0,77
Although children differ intellectually, physically, and psychologically, I believe that all children can learn in most environments.	3,68	1,18
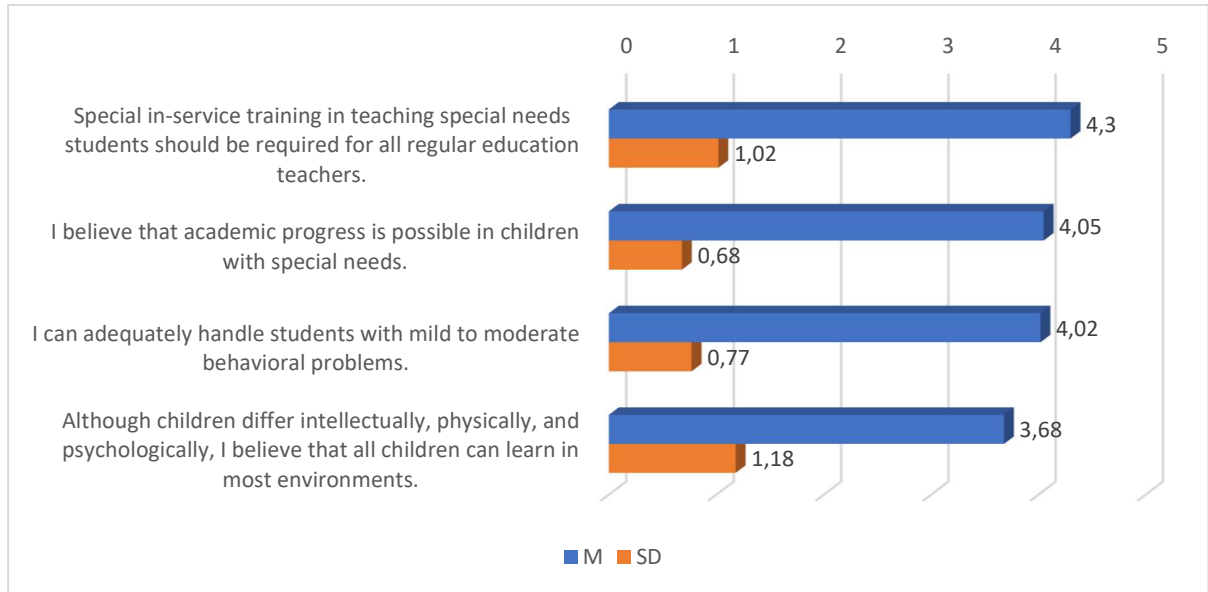
Graph 17: Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education

iv. Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education

Table 15 and Graph 18 show that their responses were placed among the scales "agree" and "strongly agree", regarding how they don't mind making special physical arrangement in their room, to meet the needs of students with special needs (M=4,43±0,75). Additionally, they agreed that they are comfortable teaching a child that is moderately physically disabled (M=4,13±0,98), and that their principal is supportive in making needed accommodations for teaching children with special needs (M=3,78±1,07). In conclusion, they agreed somewhat with the statement that adaptive materials and equipment, are easily acquired for meeting the needs of students with special needs (M=2,63±1,37).

Table 15: Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education

Statements	M	SD
I don't mind making special physical arrangement in my room to meet the needs of students with special needs	4,43	0,75
I am comfortable teaching a child that is moderately physically disabled.	4,13	0,98
My principal is supportive in making needed accommodations for teaching children with special needs.	3,78	1,07
Adaptive materials and equipment are easily acquired for meeting the needs of students with special needs.	2,63	1,37
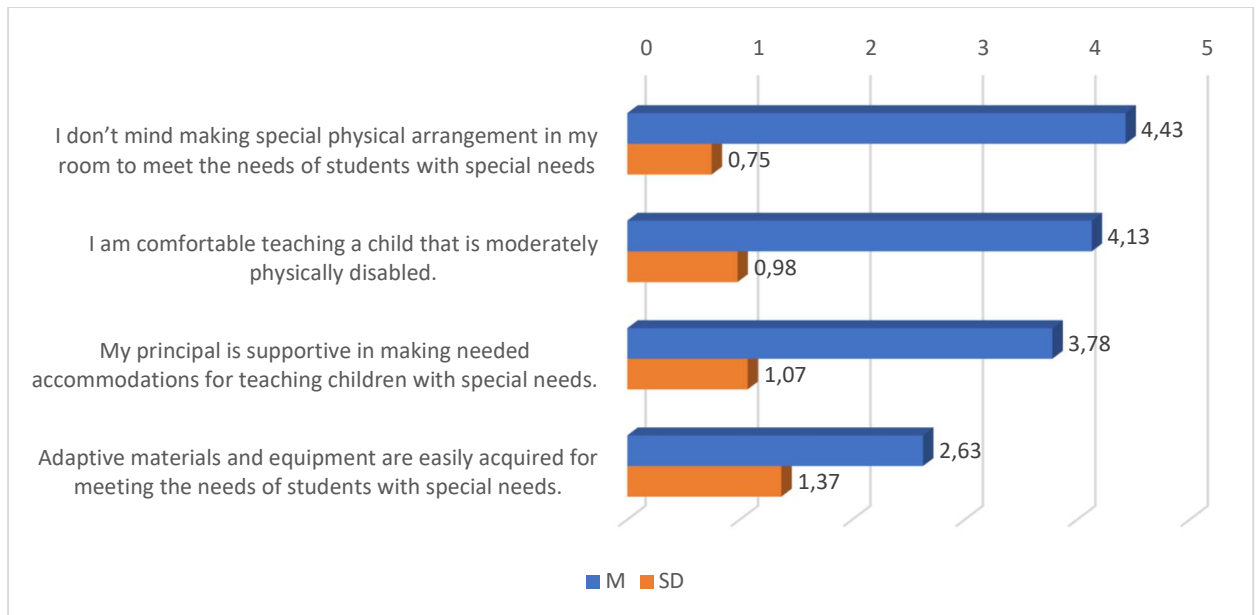
Graph 18: Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education

8.1.5 Collaboration of teachers with the parents of students with SEN

i. Timely information

Table 16 and Graph 19 depict the timely information. According to the results, participants agreed that in their collaboration with the student's parent (with SEN), he provides them with information about his background (M=6,36±1,59), and helps them to understand his learning needs (M=6,32±1,61).

Table 16: Timely information

In my collaboration with the student's parent (with SEN)	M	SD
He provides me with information about his background.	6,36	1,59
He helps me to understand his learning needs.	6,32	1,61
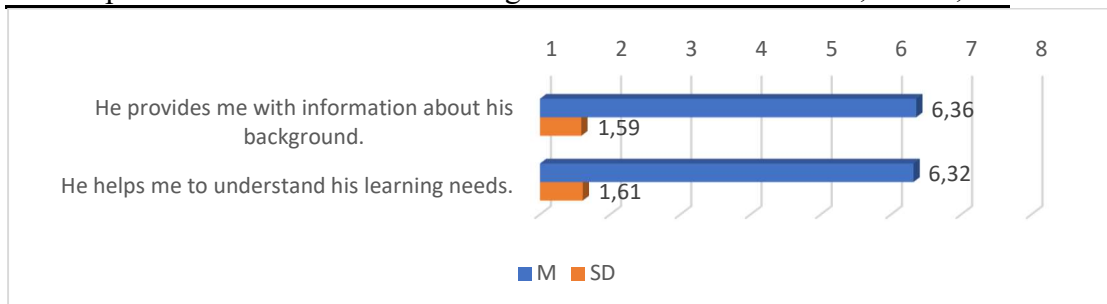
Graph 19: Timely information

In consonance with the results, (Table 17, Graph 20) participants agreed that in their collaboration with the student's parent (with SEN) they evaluate together issues related to his performance (M=5,64±1,67).

Besides, their responses were placed among the scales "agree somewhat" and "agree", regarding how much they develop teaching objectives (M=5,59±1,70) and work together with special educational staff (e.g., speech therapist / occupational therapist / psychologist) (M=5,55±1,96). In conclusion, they agreed somewhat with the statement that they plan together educational activities (M=4,92±1,80).

Table 17: Collaboration for teaching

In my collaboration with the student's parent (with SEN)	M	SD
We evaluate issues related to his performance.	5,64	1,67
We develop teaching objectives.	5,59	1,70
We work together with special educational staff (e.g., speech therapist / occupational therapist / psychologist).	5,55	1,96
We plan educational activities.	4,92	1,80
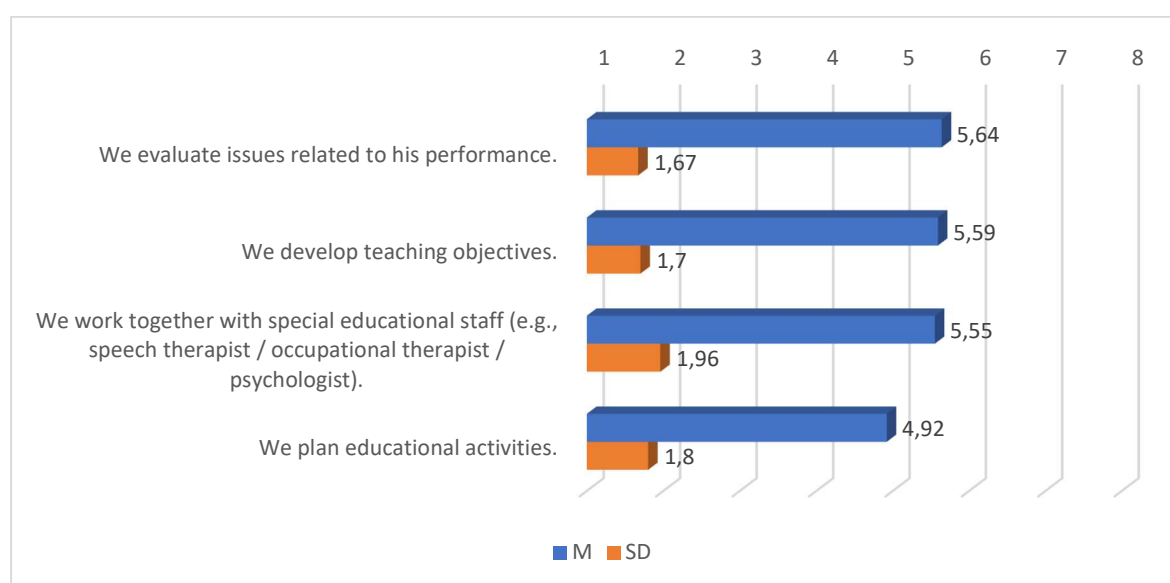
Graph 20: Collaboration for teaching

iii.Teachers' role in the cooperation with parents
Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations

In agreement with the results (Table 18, Graph 21), participants agreed a lot that in their collaboration with the student's parent (with SEN), they point out the strengths and not only the weaknesses of the student (M=7,03±1,18).

Besides, their answers were placed between the scales "agree" and "agree a lot", regarding how much they explain the teaching objectives (M=6,42±1,27) and how much they offer practical help as well (M=6,40±1,43).

In conclusion, they agreed that in their collaboration with the student's parent (with SEN), they explain the teaching methods (M=6,15±1,35), provide counseling guidance (M=6,02±1,62) and include his needs and desires in their curriculum (M=5,80±1,56).

Table 18: Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations

In my collaboration with the student's parent (with SEN)	M	SD
I point out the strengths and not only the weaknesses of the student.	7,03	1,18
I explain the teaching objectives.	6,42	1,27
I offer practical help.	6,40	1,43
I explain the teaching methods.	6,15	1,35
I provide counseling guidance.	6,02	1,62
I include parents needs and desires in my curriculum.	5,80	1,56
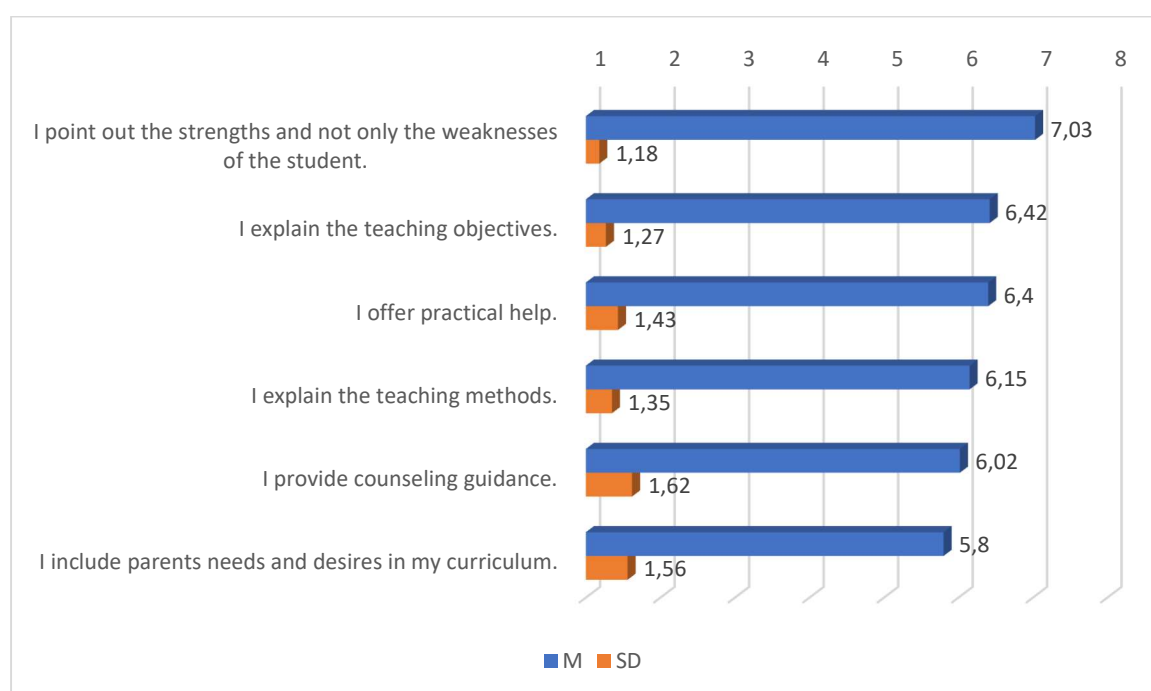
Graph 21: Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations

iv.The result of working with the final adjustments

In consonance with the results, (Table 19, Graph 22), participants agreed that based on the cooperation with the parent (of student with SEN), they adapt their teaching to the learning needs of the student (M=6,08±1,56) and the homework intervention activities as well (M=5,68±1,76). Also, they agreed that based on the collaboration with the parent (student with disability), they adapt activities with his/her classmates (M=5,62±1,79).

Table 19: The result of working with the final adjustments

Statements	M	SD
Based on the cooperation with the parent (of student with SEN) I adapt my teaching to the learning needs of the student.	6,08	1,56
Based on the collaboration with the parent (student with disability) I adapt the homework intervention activities.	5,68	1,76
Based on the collaboration with the parent (student with disability) I adapt activities with his/her classmates.	5,62	1,79
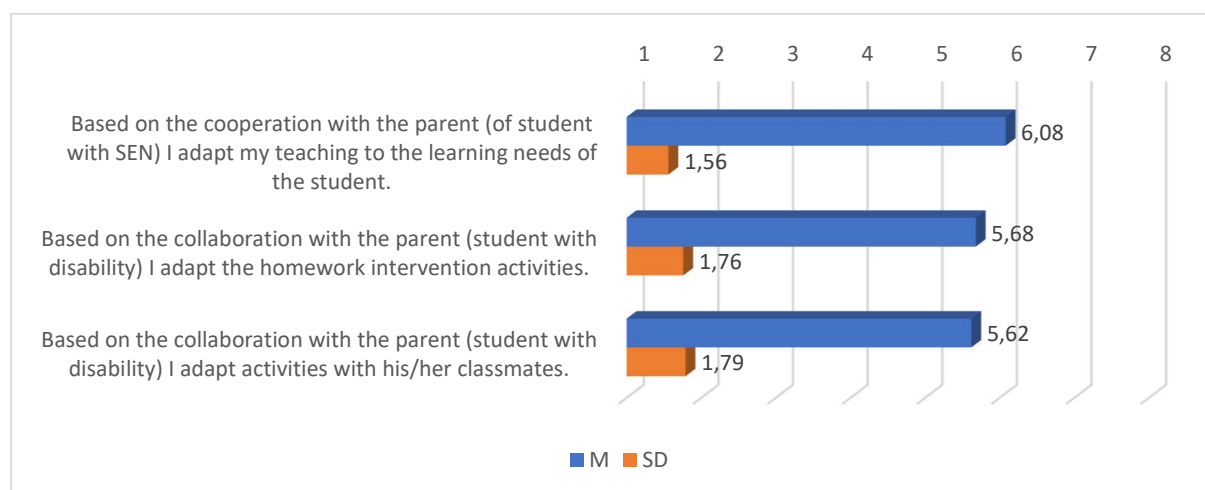
Graph 22: The result of working with the final adjustments

8.1.6   Obstacles in the cooperation

i. Practical reasons

Table 20 and Graph 23 depict the practical reasons that complicate the cooperation. According to the results, participants agreed that one obstacle in their cooperation with the student parent (with SEN) is the lack of time (M=5,94±2,06).

Additionally, they agreed somewhat that the inability to meet other than the specified days and hours (M=4,96±2,37) and their own lack of training in counseling (M=4,76±2,43), constitute practical obstacles in their cooperation with the student parent (with SEN).

Table 20: Practical reasons

One obstacle in my cooperation with the student parent (with SEN)	M	SD
Is the lack of time	5,94	2,06
Is the inability to meet other than the specified days and hours.	4,96	2,37
Is my lack of training in counseling	4,76	2,43
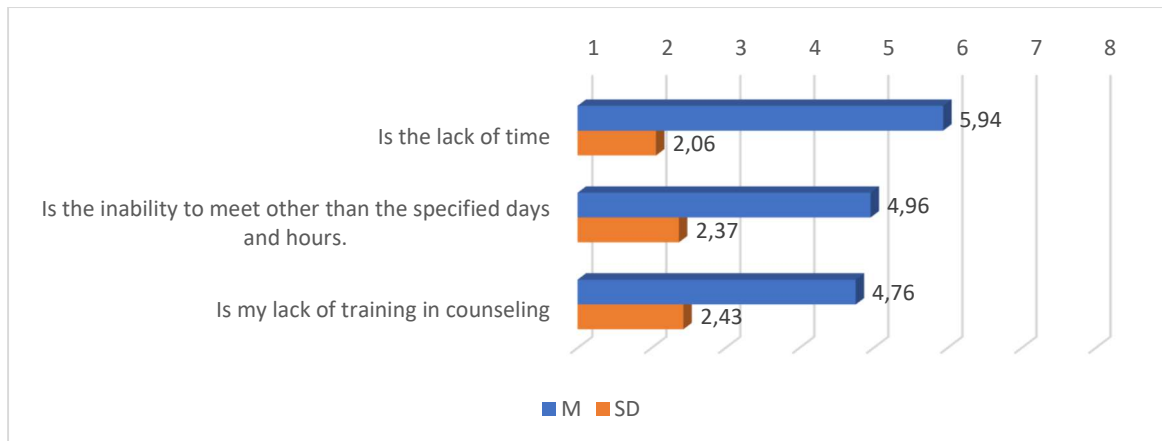
Graph 23: Practical reasons

ii. Personal reasons

In line with the results (Table 21, Graph 24), they agreed somewhat with the statement that the existence of indifference (M=5,01±2,41) constitute personal reason that hinder their cooperation with the student parent (with SEN). Also, they disagreed somewhat that the lack of trust (M=4,12±2,40) and the existence of poor interpersonal communication (M=3,94±2,46), would constitute personal barriers in their cooperation with the student parent (with SEN).

Table 21: Personal reasons

One obstacle in my cooperation with the student parent (with SEN)	M	SD
Is the existence of indifference	5,01	2,41
Is the lack of trust	4,12	2,40
Is the existence of poor interpersonal communication	3,94	2,46
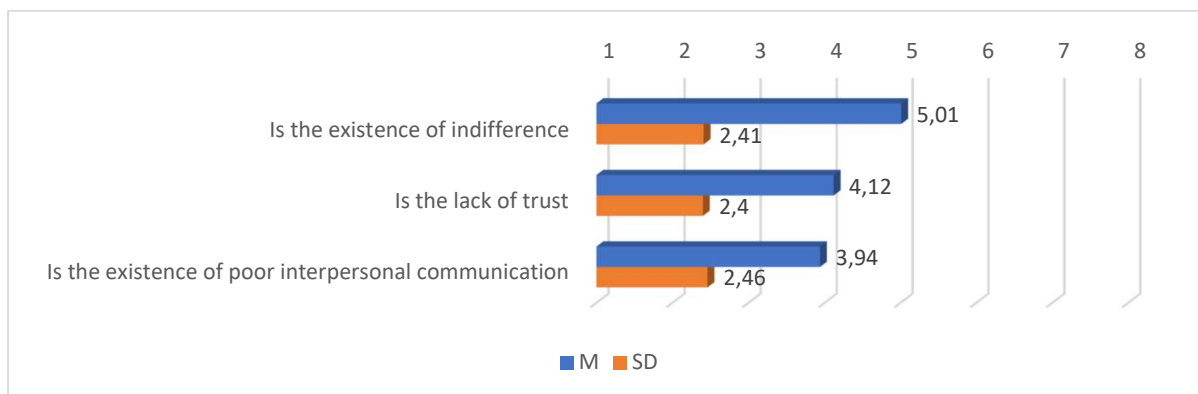
Graph 24: Personal reasons

iii. Other obstacles in collaboration with the student's parents

Table 22 (Graph 25) presents the results about the obstacles in collaboration with the student's parents. Participants gave multiple responses. Regarding the sample that gave an answer, 23,8% (N=5) stated as an obstacle the lack of communication with parents, 19% (N=4) the inability of parents to admit some difficulties to their child, 19% (N=4)

the lack of parental knowledge, 14,3% (N=3) the lack of time, 14,3% (N=3) lack of teacher time, 9,5% (N=2) the lack of logistical infrastructure, 9,5% (N=2) the unnecessary parental intervention, 9,5% (N=2) the lack of parental interest, 4,8% (N=1) the prejudice of parents towards the pedagogical ability of a teacher, 4,8% (N=1) the parental frustration with performance, 4,8% (N=1) the mental retardation of parents, 4,8% (N=1) the low parental expectations and the 4,8% (N=1) the parental overprotection.

Table 22: Obstacles in collaboration with the student's parents

Obstacles	N	f%
Prejudice of parents towards the pedagogical ability of a teacher	1	4,8
The inability of parents to admit some difficulties to their child	4	19,0
Lack of parental knowledge	4	19,0
Lack of communication with parents	5	23,8
Lack of time	3	14,3
Lack of teacher training	3	14,3
Parental frustration with performance	1	4,8
Mental retardation of parents	1	4,8
Lack of logistical infrastructure	2	9,5
Unnecessary parental intervention	2	9,5
Lack of parental interest	2	9,5
Low parental expectations	1	4,8
Parental overprotection	1	4,8
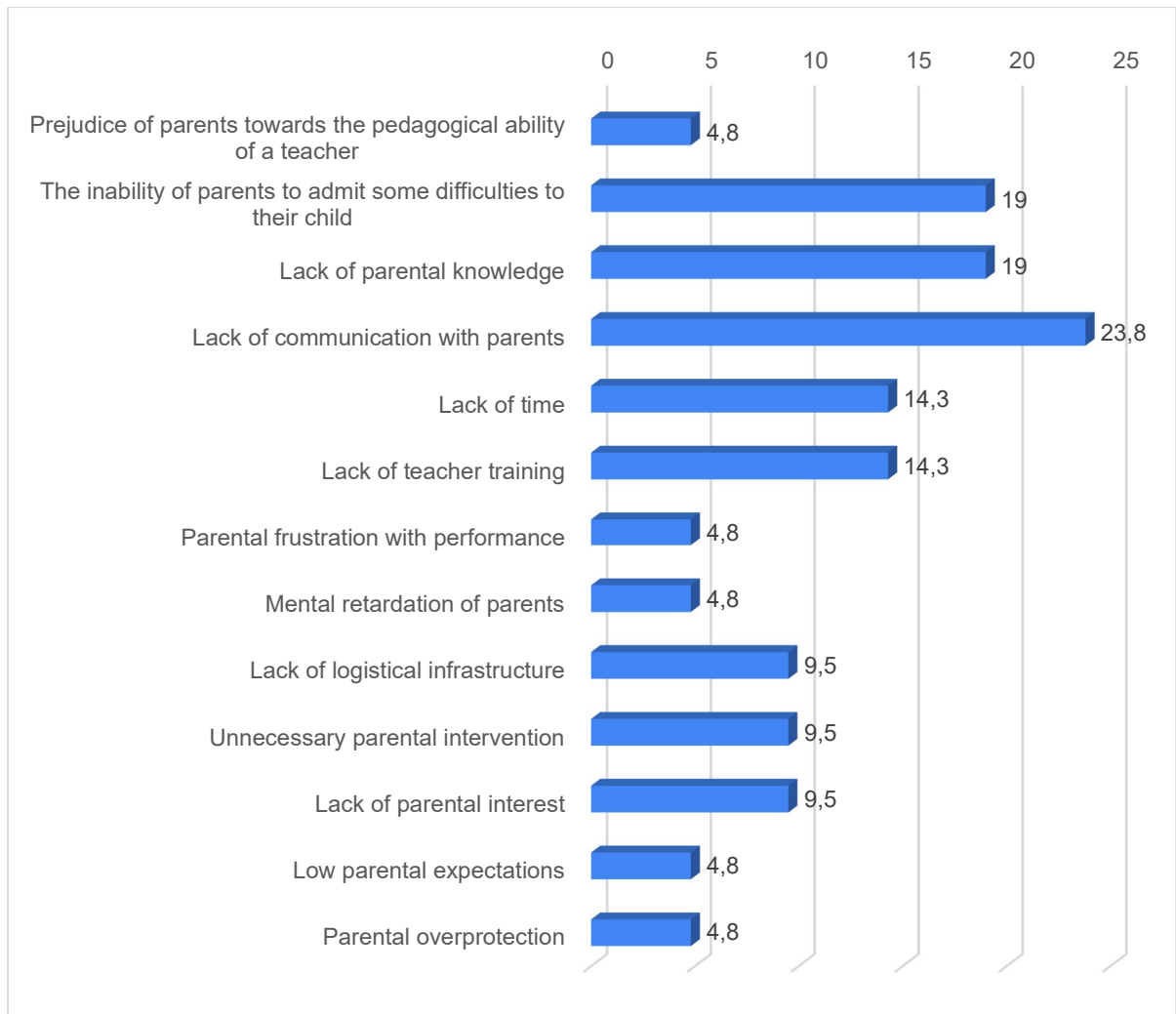
Graph 25: Obstacles in collaboration with the student's parents

8.2 Inferential Statistics

Confidence intervals of factors

Table 23 (and Graph 26) shows the descriptive statistics and 95% mean confidence intervals of the factors regarding the Teacher Efficacy for Inclusive Practice Scale. The results show that participants agreed with the factor "Efficacy to use inclusive instructions" (M=4,78±0,57), while they agreed somewhat or agree with the factors "Efficacy in collaboration" (M=4,54±0,66) and "Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors" (M=4,54±0,60).

Table 23: Descriptive statistics and 95% mean confidence intervals of the factors regarding the Teacher Efficacy for Inclusive Practice Scale

Factor	M	SD	95% Lower	95% Upper
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	4,78	0,57	4,71	4,85
Efficacy in collaboration	4,54	0,66	4,46	4,62
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	4,45	0,60	4,38	4,53
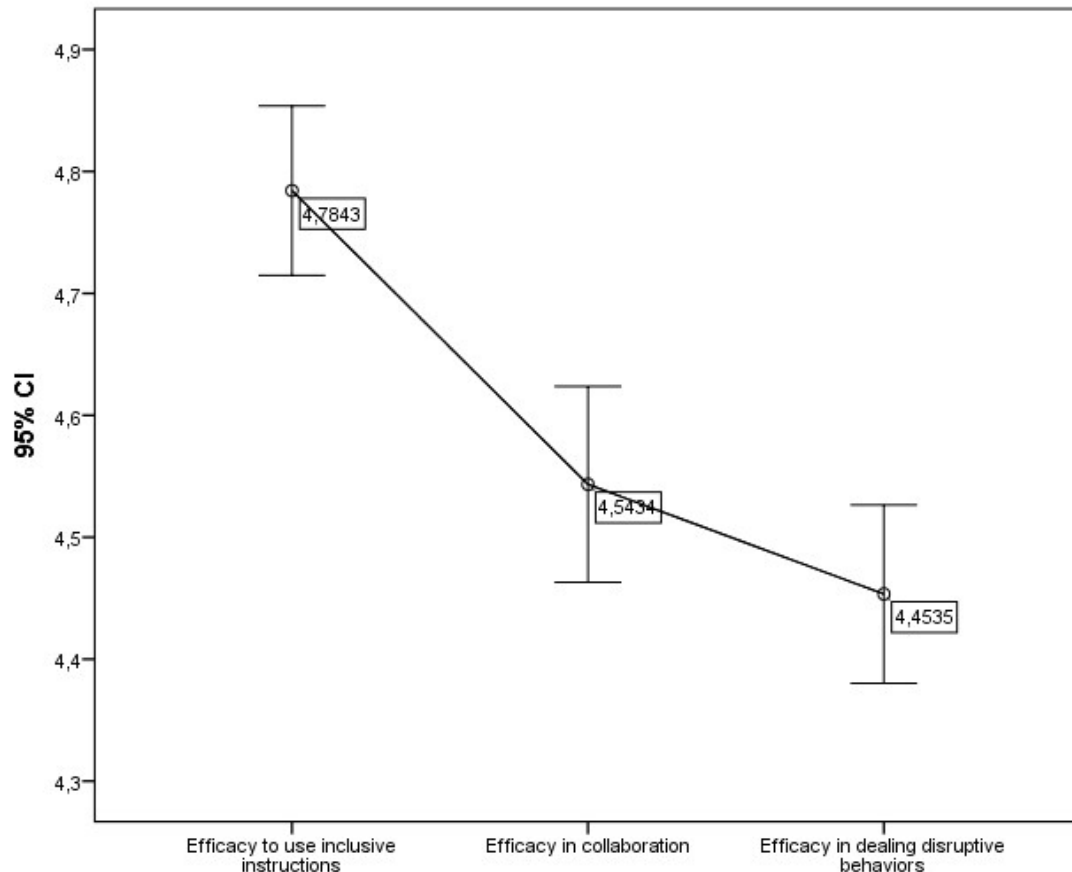
Graph 26: Errorbars of the factors regarding the Teacher Efficacy for Inclusive Practice Scale

Table 24 (and Graph 27) shows the descriptive statistics and 95% mean confidence intervals of the factors regarding the Teachers' Attitudes towards Inclusive Classrooms Scale. The results show that participants agreed with the factors "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" (M=4,01±0,69) and "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education" (M=3,74±0,74), while they agreed somewhat with the factors "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" (M=3,39±0,93) and "Advantages of Inclusive Education" (M=3,34±0,77).

Table 24: Descriptive statistics and 95% mean confidence intervals of the factors regarding the Teachers' Attitudes towards Inclusive Classrooms Scale

Factor	M	SD	95% Lower	95% Upper
Advantages of Inclusive Education	3,34	0,77	3,25	3,44
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	3,39	0,93	3,28	3,50
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	4,01	0,69	3,93	4,10
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	3,74	0,74	3,65	3,83
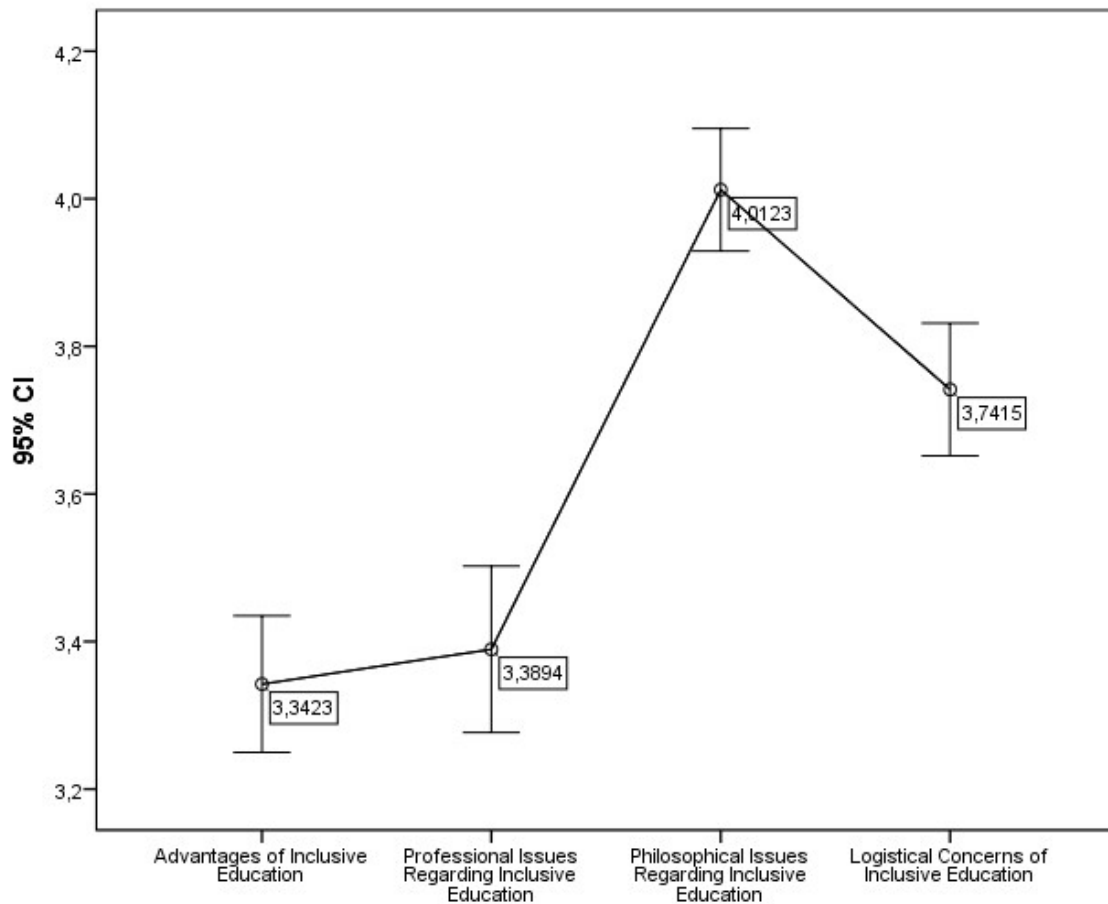
Graph 27: Errorbars of the factors regarding the Teachers' Attitudes towards Inclusive Classrooms Scale

Table 25 (and Graph 28) shows the descriptive statistics and 95% mean confidence intervals of the factors regarding the Cooperation of teachers with the parents of students with special educational needs. The results show that participants agreed with the factors "Collaboration for timely information" (M=6,34±1,52), "Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations" (M=6,30±1,12) and "The result of working with the final adjustments" (M=5,79±1,45), while they agreed somewhat or agree with the factor "Collaboration for teaching" (M=5,40±1,51). Finally, the participants somewhat agreed with the factor "Practical reasons as obstacle s in cooperation" (M=5,22±1,71), while

somewhat disagreed with the "Personal reasons as obstacle s in cooperation" (M=4,36±2,09).

Table 25: Descriptive statistics and 95% mean confidence intervals of the factors regarding the Cooperation of teachers with the parents of students with special educational needs

Factor	M	SD	95% Lower	95% Upper
Collaboration for timely information	6,34	1,52	6,16	6,53
Collaboration for teaching	5,40	1,51	5,21	5,58
Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations	6,30	1,12	6,17	6,44
The result of working with the final adjustments	5,79	1,45	5,62	5,97
Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation	5,22	1,71	5,01	5,43
Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation	4,36	2,09	4,11	4,61
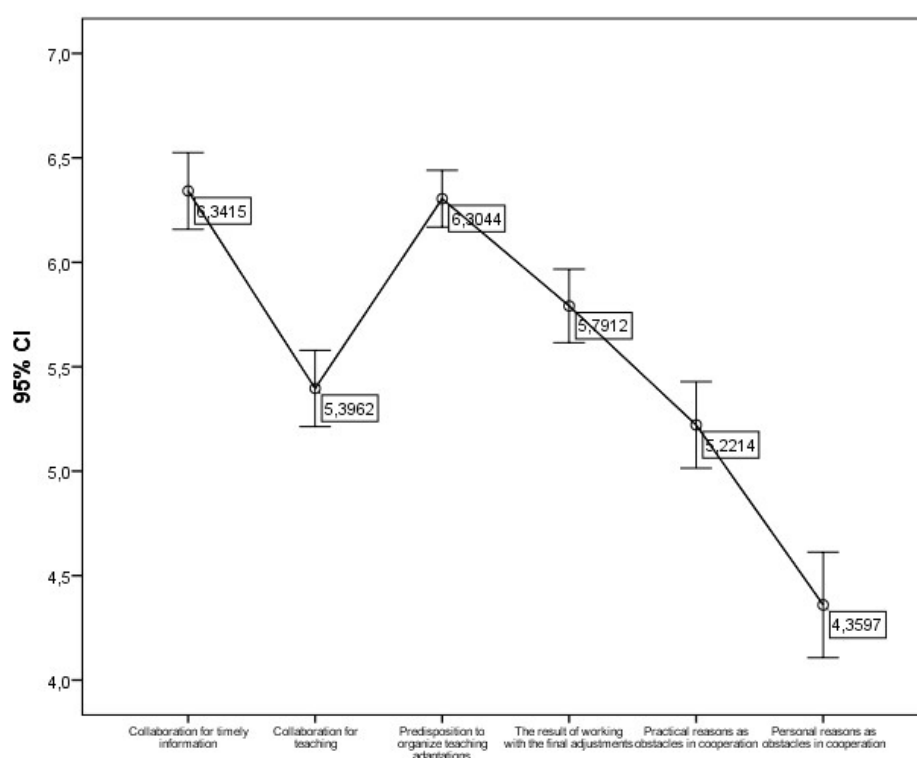
Graph 28: Errorbars of the factors regarding the Cooperation of teachers with the parents of students with special educational needs

8.2.1 1st Research Question

Does general and special education teachers' self-efficacy in implementing inclusive practices affect their attitudes towards inclusion?

i. General Education

Table 26 presents the results of the multiple linear regression model where the dependent variable is the "Advantages of Inclusive Education" while the independent

variables are the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice for the teachers working in general education. It appears that the initial hypothesis of not-fitting of the model was rejected (F $(3,127)$ =4,072, p=0,008<0,01). The fit of the model is considered low, as AdjR^2=0,066<0,100. Also, only the constant coefficient was considered statistically significant (t=2,482, p=0,014 <0,05). Also, there was no collinearity (VIF<10). The multiple regression model is determined by the mathematical equation:

Advantages of Inclusive Education=1,368+0,169*Efficacy to use inclusive instructions+0,246*Efficacy in collaboration-0,022*Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors

Table 26: Results of the multiple regression model with dependent the variable "Advantages of Inclusive Education" and independent variables the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice (General Education teachers)

Dependent Variable	R	R^2	AdjR^2	F (3,127)	p
Advantages of Inclusive Education	0,296	0,088	0,066	4,072	**0,008**
Independent Variable	**B**	**Beta**	**t**	**p**	**VIF**
(Constant)	1,368	-	2,482	**0,014**	-
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	0,169	0,125	1,067	0,288	1,919
Efficacy in collaboration	0,246	0,218	1,911	0,058	1,807
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	-0,022	-0,018	-0,148	0,882	2,049

Table 27 presents the results of the multiple linear regression model where the dependent variable is the "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" while the independent variables are the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice for the teachers working in general education. It appears that the initial hypothesis of not-fitting of the model was rejected (F $(3,127)$ =23,546, p<0,001). The fit of the model is considered good, as AdjR^2=0,342>0,250. Also, the constant coefficient (t=-2,397, p=0,018<0,05) and the coefficient of the factor "Efficacy in collaboration" were considered statistically significant (t=3,378, p=0,001<0,01). Also, there was no collinearity (VIF<10). The multiple regression model is determined by the mathematical equation:

Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education=-1,211+0,283*Efficacy to use inclusive instructions+0,398*Efficacy in collaboration+0,228*Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors

Table 27: Results of the multiple regression model with dependent the variable "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" and independent variables the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice (General Education teachers)

Dependent Variable	R	R²	AdjR²	F (3,127)	p
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	0,598	0,357	0,342	23,546	**<0,001**
Independent Variable	**B**	**Beta**	**t**	**p**	**VIF**
(Constant)	-1,211	-	-2,397	**0,018**	-
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	0,283	0,192	1,946	0,054	1,919
Efficacy in collaboration	0,398	0,323	3,378	**0,001**	1,807
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	0,228	0,174	1,705	0,091	2,049

Table 28 presents the results of the multiple linear regression model where the dependent variable is the "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" while the independent variables are the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice for the teachers working in general education. It appears that the initial hypothesis of not-fitting of the model was rejected (F (3,127) =3,532, p=0,017<0,05). The fit of the model is considered low, as $AdjR^2$=0,055<0,100. Also, only the constant coefficient was considered statistically significant (t=4,848, p<0,001). Also, there was no collinearity (VIF<10). The multiple regression model is determined by the mathematical equation:

Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education=2,428+0,062*Efficacy to use inclusive instructions+0,193*Efficacy in collaboration+0,079*Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors

Table 28: Results of the multiple regression model with dependent the variable "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" and independent variables the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice (General Education teachers)

Dependent Variable	R	R²	AdjR²	F (3,127)	p
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	0,278	0,077	0,055	3,532	**0,017**
Independent Variable	**B**	**Beta**	**t**	**p**	**VIF**
(Constant)	2,428	-	4,848	**<0,001**	-
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	0,062	0,051	0,431	0,667	1,919
Efficacy in collaboration	0,193	0,189	1,648	0,102	1,807
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	0,079	0,073	0,599	0,550	2,049

Table 29 presents the results of the multiple linear regression model where the dependent variable is the "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education" while the independent variables are the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice for the teachers working in general education. It appears that the initial hypothesis of not-fitting of the model was rejected (F (3,127) =7,242, p<0,001). The fit of the model is considered mediocre, as $0,100<AdjR^2$=0,126<0,250. Also, the coefficient of the factor "Efficacy to use inclusive instructions" was considered statistically significant

(t=2,287, p=0,024<0,05). Also, there was no collinearity (VIF<10). The multiple regression model is determined by the mathematical equation:

Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education=0,939+0,368*Efficacy to use inclusive instructions+0,174*Efficacy in collaboration+0,028*Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors

Table 29: Results of the multiple regression model with dependent the variable "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education" and independent variables the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice (General Education teachers)

Dependent Variable	R	R^2	AdjR^2	F (3,127)	p
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	0,382	0,146	0,126	7,242	**<0,001**
Independent Variable	**B**	**Beta**	**t**	**p**	**VIF**
(Constant)	0,939	-	1,683	0,095	-
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	0,368	0,260	2,287	**0,024**	1,919
Efficacy in collaboration	0,174	0,147	1,335	0,184	1,807
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	0,028	0,022	0,187	0,852	2,049

ii. Special Education

Table 30 presents the results of the multiple linear regression model where the dependent variable is the "Advantages of Inclusive Education" while the independent variables are the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice for the teachers working in special education. It appears that the initial hypothesis of not-fitting of the model was rejected F (3,130) =4,220, p=0,007<0,01). The fit of the model is considered low, as AdjR^2=0,068<0,100. Also, only the constant coefficient was considered statistically significant (t=2,531, p=0,013<0,05). Also, there was no collinearity (VIF<10). The multiple regression model is determined by the mathematical equation:

Advantages of Inclusive Education=1,525+0,152*Efficacy to use inclusive instructions+0,017*Efficacy in collaboration+0,263*Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors

Table 30: Results of the multiple regression model with dependent the variable "Advantages of Inclusive Education" and independent variables the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice (Special Education teachers)

Dependent Variable	R	R^2	AdjR^2	F (3,130)	p
Advantages of Inclusive Education	0,298	0,089	0,068	4,220	**0,007**
Independent Variable	**B**	**Beta**	**t**	**p**	**VIF**
(Constant)	1,525	-	2,531	**0,013**	-
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	0,152	0,110	0,834	0,406	2,492
Efficacy in collaboration	0,017	0,014	0,095	0,925	2,970
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	0,263	0,203	1,663	0,099	2,134

Table 31 presents the results of the multiple linear regression model where the dependent variable is the "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" while the independent variables are the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice

for the teachers working in special education. It appears that the initial hypothesis of not-fitting of the model was rejected F (3,130) =26,350, p<0,001). The fit of the model is considered good, as AdjR^2=0,364>0,250. Also, the coefficient of the factors "Efficacy in collaboration" (t=2,819, p=0,006<0,01) and "Efficacy in collaboration" were considered statistically significant (t=3,384, p=0,001<0,01). Also, there was no collinearity (VIF<10). The multiple regression model is determined by the mathematical equation:

Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education=0,732-0,019*Efficacy to use inclusive instructions+0,343*Efficacy in collaboration+0,372*Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors

Table 31: Results of the multiple regression model with dependent the variable "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" and independent variables the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice (Special Education teachers)

Dependent Variable	R	R^2	AdjR^2	F (3,130)	p
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	0,615	0,378	0,364	26,350	**<0,001**
Independent Variable	**B**	**Beta**	**t**	**p**	**VIF**
(Constant)	0,732	-	1,748	0,083	-
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	-0,019	-0,016	-0,151	0,880	2,492
Efficacy in collaboration	0,343	0,336	2,819	**0,006**	2,970
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	0,372	0,342	3,384	**0,001**	2,134

Table 32 presents the results of the multiple linear regression model where the dependent variable is the "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" while the independent variables are the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice for the teachers working in special education. It appears that the initial hypothesis of not-fitting of the model was rejected (F (3,130) =3,946, p=0,010<0,05). The fit of the model is considered low, as AdjR^2=0,062<0,100. Also, the constant coefficient (t=5,686, p<0,001) as well as the coefficient of the factor "Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors" was considered statistically significant (t=2,755, p=0,007<0,01). Also, there was no collinearity (VIF<10). The multiple regression model is determined by the mathematical equation:

Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education=3,259-0,286*Efficacy to use inclusive instructions+0,084*Efficacy in collaboration+0,414*Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors

Table 32: Results of the multiple regression model with dependent the variable "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" and independent variables the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice (Special Education teachers)

Dependent Variable	R	R^2	AdjR^2	F (3,130)	p
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	0,189	0,083	0,062	3,946	**0,010**

Independent Variable	B	Beta	t	p	VIF
(Constant)	3,259	-	5,686	**<0,001**	-
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	-0,286	-0,218	-1,643	0,103	2,492
Efficacy in collaboration	0,084	0,073	0,507	0,613	2,970
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	0,414	0,338	2,755	**0,007**	2,134

Table 33 presents the results of the multiple linear regression model where the dependent variable is the "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education" while the independent variables are the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice for the teachers working in special education. It appears that the initial hypothesis of not-fitting of the model was rejected (F (3,130) =9,817, p<0,001). The fit of the model is considered moderate, as 0,100<AdjR²=0,166<0,250. Also, only the constant coefficient was considered statistically significant (t=3,324, p=0,001<0,01). Also, there was no collinearity (VIF<10). The multiple regression model is determined by the mathematical equation:

Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education=1,582+0,124*Efficacy to use inclusive instructions+0,237*Efficacy in collaboration+0,144*Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors

Table 33: Results of the multiple regression model with dependent the variable «Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education» and independent variables the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice (Special Education teachers)

Dependent Variable	R	R²	AdjR²	F (3,130)	p
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	0,430	0,185	0,166	9,817	**<0,001**
Independent Variable	**B**	**Beta**	**t**	**p**	**VIF**
(Constant)	1,582	-	3,324	**0,001**	-
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	0,124	0,107	0,858	0,393	2,492
Efficacy in collaboration	0,237	0,233	1,711	0,090	2,970
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	0,144	0,134	1,154	0,251	2,134

8.2.2 2nd Research Question

Does general and special education teachers' training affect their self-efficacy to implement inclusive practices and to formulate perceptions about attitudes and collaboration?

i.Training in Special Education issues

Table 34 presents the results of the independent samples t-test that were conducted between the factors and whether the participants had training in special education issues (Doctorate, Master's degree or Seminar at least 300 hours in Special Education).The results show that there were statistically significant differences in the means for the factors "Efficacy to use inclusive instructions" (t(263)=-4,830, p<0,001), "Efficacy in collaboration" (t(263)=-4,746, p<0,001), "Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors"

(t(263)=-3,213, p=0,001), "Advantages of Inclusive Education" (t(211,206)=-5,326, p<0,001), "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" (t(189,003)=-12,013, p<0,001), "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" (t(263)=-3,151, p=0,002), "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education" (t(263)=-4,530, p<0,001), "Collaboration for teaching" (t(263)=-2,330, p=0,021), "Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations" (t(189,607)=-4,169, p<0,001), "The result of working with the final adjustments" (t(263)=-2,996, p=0,003), "Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation" (t(263)=3,391, p=0,001) and "Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation" (t(263)=-2,053, p=0,041).

Table 34: Factors*Training in Special Education issues, independent samples t-test

Factors	t	df	p-value
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	-4,830	263	**<0,001**
Efficacy in collaboration	-4,746	263	**<0,001**
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	-3,213	263	**0,001**
Advantages of Inclusive Education	-5,326	211,206	**<0,001**
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	-12,013	189,003	**<0,001**
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	-3,151	263	**0,002**
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	-4,530	263	**<0,001**
Collaboration for timely information	-1,556	263	0,121
Collaboration for teaching	-2,330	263	**0,021**
Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations	-4,169	189,607	**<0,001**
The result of working with the final adjustments	-2,996	263	**0,003**
Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation	3,391	263	**0,001**
Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation	-2,053	263	**0,041**

Specifically, from Table 35 (and Graphs 29-40) arises that:

• For the factor "Efficacy to use inclusive instructions", the mean value of the participants that had not training in Special Educational issues (M=4,59) was statistically lower (t (263) =-4,830, p<0,001), than the mean of those that had (M=4,92).
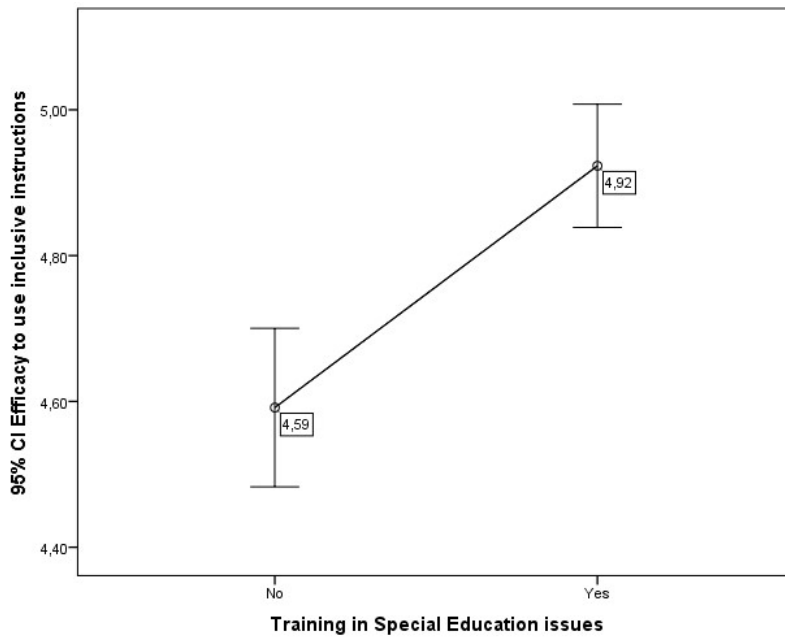
Graph 29: Errorbar "Efficacy to use inclusive instructions" *Training in Special Education issues

- For the factor "Efficacy in collaboration", the mean value of the participants that had not training in Special Educational issues (M=4,32) was statistically lower (t (263) =-4,746, p<0,001), than the mean of those that had (M=4,70).
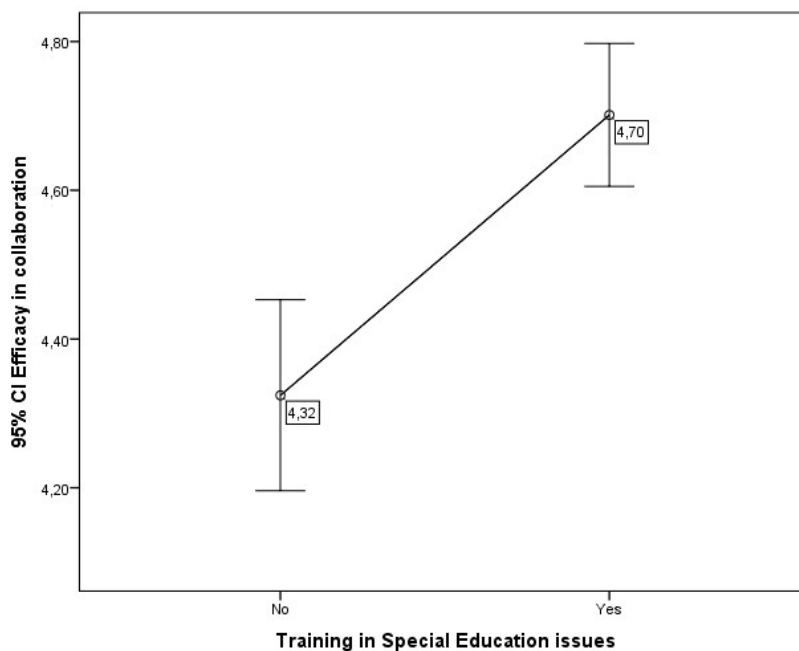
Graph 30: Errorbar "Efficacy in collaboration" *Training in Special Education issues

- For the factor "Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors", the mean value of the participants that had not training in Special Educational issues (M=4,32) was statistically lower ((t (263) =-3,213, p=0,001), than the mean of those that had (M=4,55).
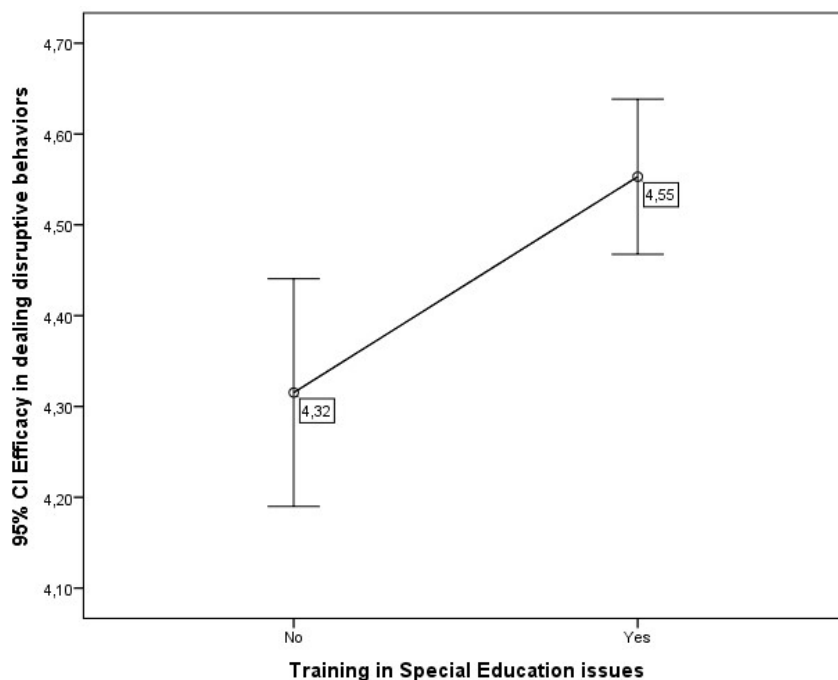
Graph 31: Errorbar "Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors" *Training in Special Education issues

- For the factor "Advantages of Inclusive Education", the mean value of the participants that had not training in Special Educational issues (M=3,05) was statistically lower (t (211,206) =-5,326, p<0,001), than the mean of those that had (M=3,55).
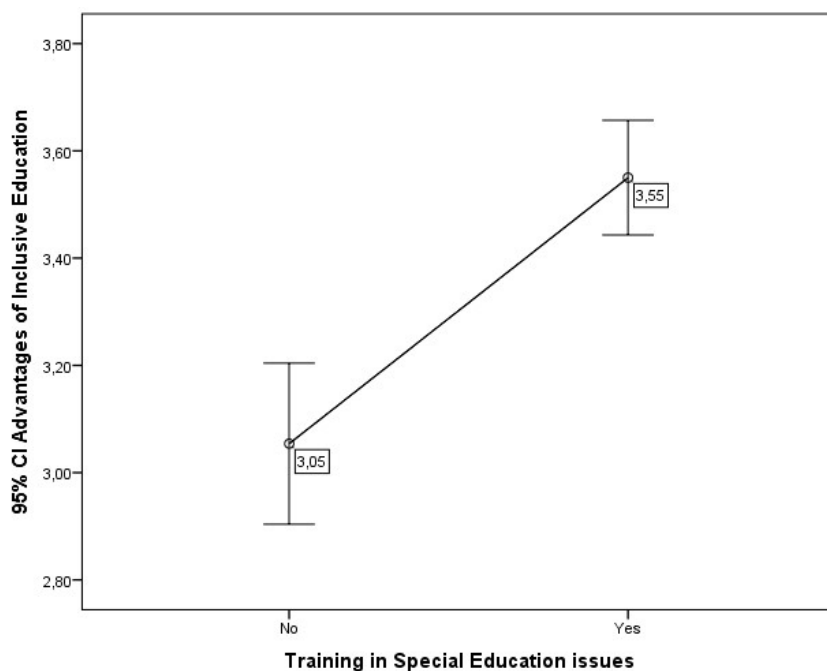
Graph 32: Errorbar "Advantages of Inclusive Education" *Training in Special Education issues

- For the factor "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education", the mean value of the participants that had not training in Special Educational issues (M=2,72) was statistically lower (t (189,003) =-12,013, p<0,001), than the mean of those that had (M=3,88).
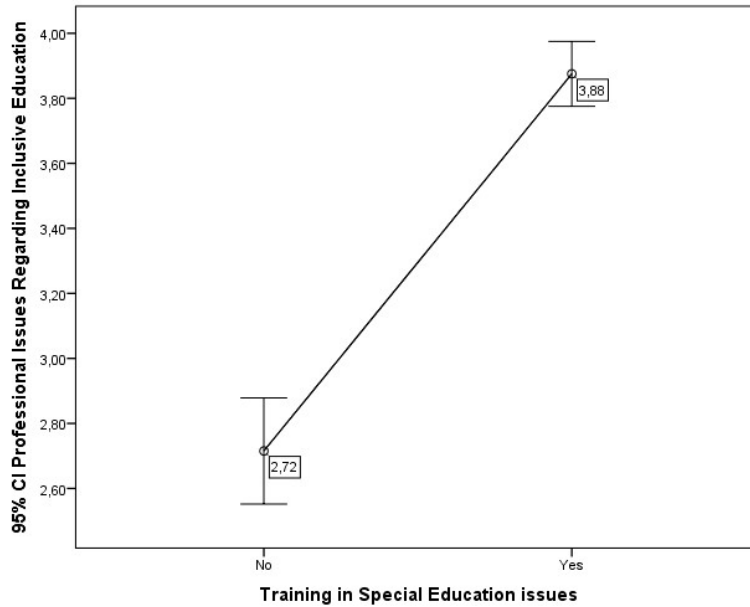
Graph 33: Errorbar "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" *Training in Special Education issues

- For the factor "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education", the mean value of the participants that had not training in Special Educational issues (M=3,86) was statistically lower (t (263) =-3,151, p=0,002), than the mean of those that had (M=4,12).
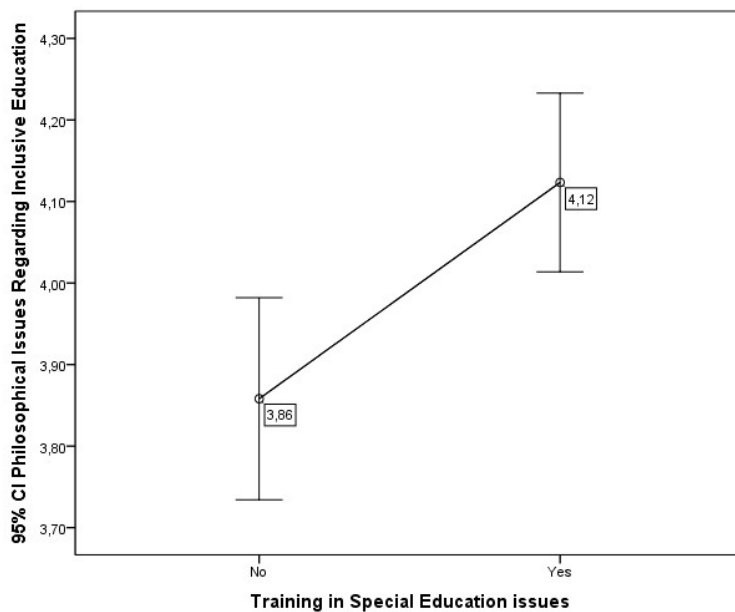
Graph 34: Errorbar "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" *Training in Special Education issues

- For the factor "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education", the mean value of the participants that had not training in Special Educational issues (M=3,51) was statistically lower (t (263) =-4,530, p<0,001), than the mean of those that had (M=3,91).
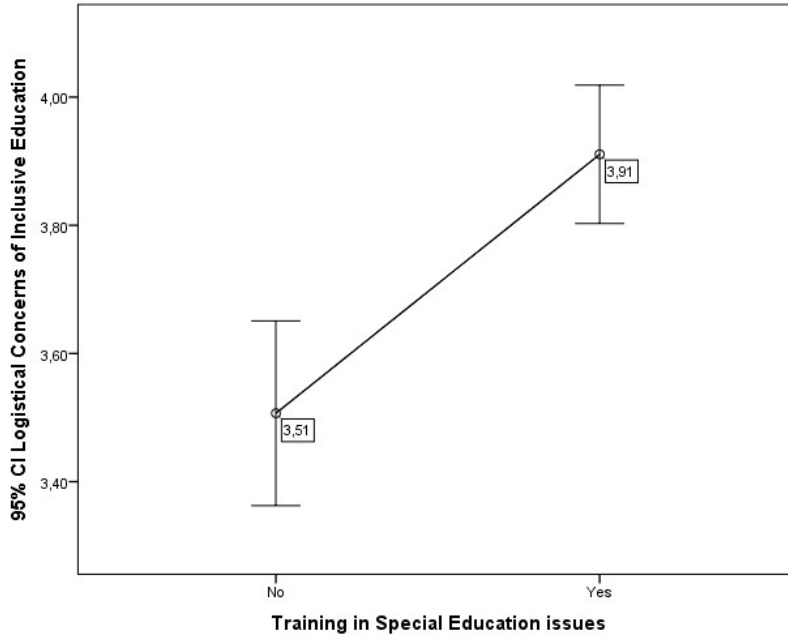
Graph 35: Errorbar "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education" *Training in Special Education issues

- For the factor "Collaboration for teaching", the mean value of the participants that had not training in Special Educational issues (M=5,14) was statistically lower (t (263) =-2,330, p=0,021), than the mean of those that had (M=5,58).
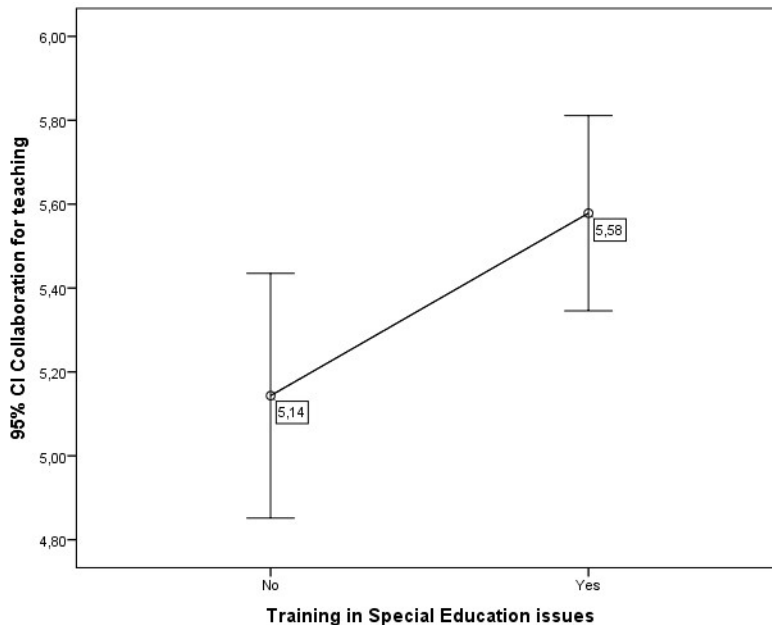
Graph 36: Errorbar "Collaboration for teaching" *Training in Special Education issues

- For the factor "Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations", the mean value of the participants that had not training in Special Educational issues (M=5,96) was statistically lower (t (189,607) =-4,169, p<0,001), than the mean of those that had (M=6,55).
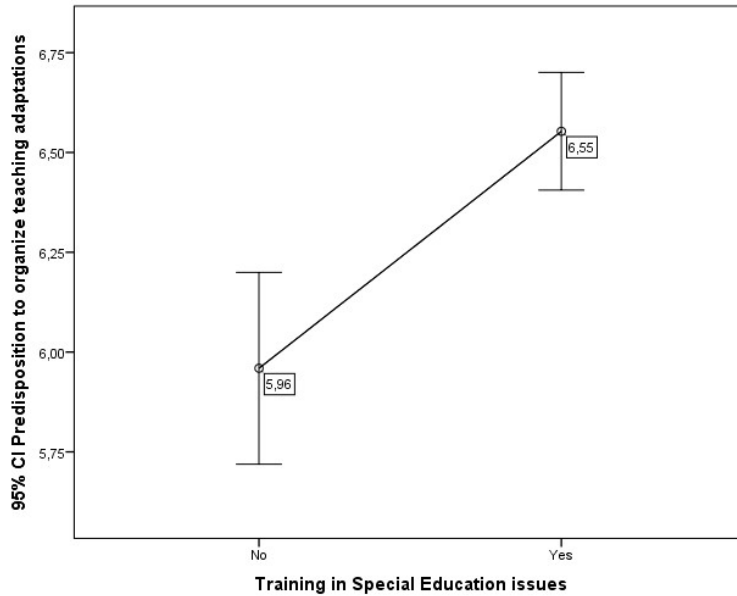
Graph 37: Errorbar "Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations" *Training in Special Education issues

- For the factor "The result of working with the final adjustments", the mean value of the participants that had not training in Special Educational issues (M=5,48) was statistically lower (t (263) =-2,996, p=0,003), than the mean of those that had (M=6,02).
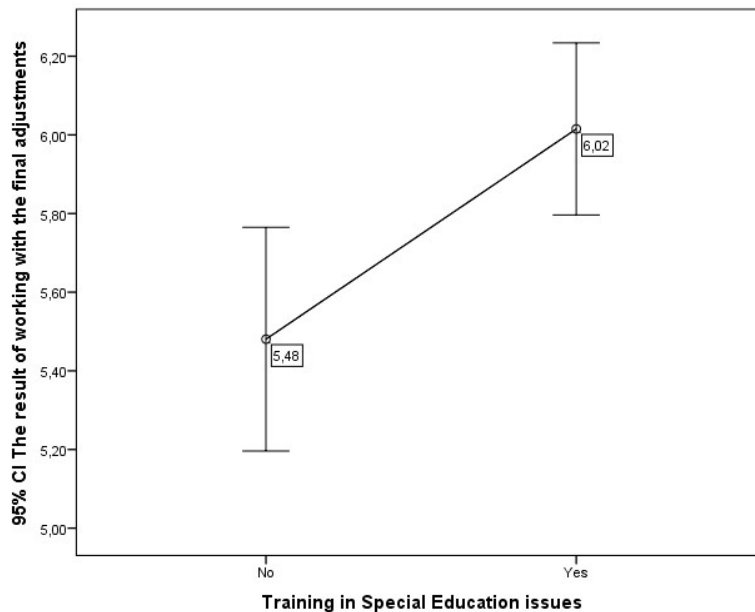
Graph 38: Errorbar "The result of working with the final adjustments" *Training in Special Education issues

- For the factor "Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation", the mean value of the participants that had not training in Special Educational issues (M=5,83) was statistically greater (t (263) =3,391, p=0,001) than the mean of those that had (M=4,92).
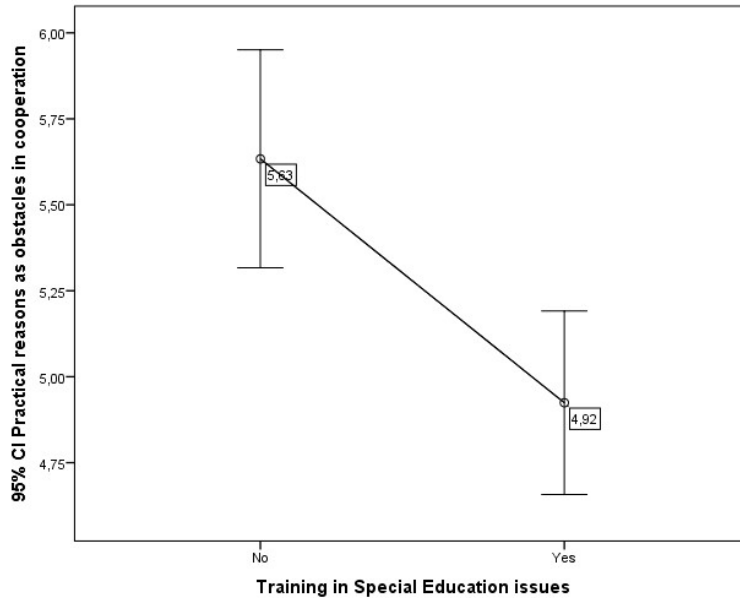
Graph 39: Errorbar "Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation" *Training in Special Education issues

- For the factor "Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation", the mean value of the participants that had not training in Special Educational issues (M=4,05) was statistically lower (t (263) =-2,053, p=0,041) than the mean of those that had (M=4,58).
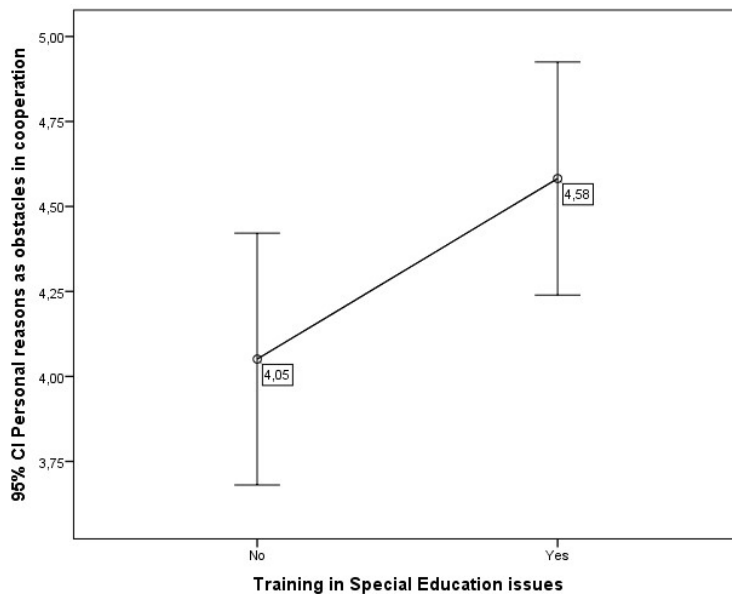
Graph 40: Errorbar "Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation" *Training in Special Education issues

Table 35: Factors*Training in Special Education issues, independent samples t-test (statistically significant results)

Factor	Special Education Training	N	M	t	df	p
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	No	111	4,59	-4,830	263	**<0,001**
	Yes	154	4,92			
Efficacy in collaboration	No	111	4,32	-4,746	263	**<0,001**
	Yes	154	4,70			
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	No	111	4,32	-3,213	263	**0,001**
	Yes	154	4,55			
Advantages of Inclusive Education	No	111	3,05	-5,326	211,206	**<0,001**
	Yes	154	3,55			
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	No	111	2,72	-12,013	189,003	**<0,001**
	Yes	154	3,88			
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	No	111	3,86	-3,151	263	**0,002**
	Yes	154	4,12			
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	No	111	3,51	-4,530	263	**<0,001**
	Yes	154	3,91			
Collaboration for teaching	No	111	5,14	-2,330	263	**0,021**
	Yes	154	5,58			
Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations	No	111	5,96	-4,169	189,607	**<0,001**
	Yes	154	6,55			
The result of working with the final adjustments	No	111	5,48	-2,996	263	**0,003**
	Yes	154	6,02			
Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation	No	111	5,63	3,391	263	**0,001**
	Yes	154	4,92			
Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation	No	111	4,05	-2,053	263	**0,041**
	Yes	154	4,58			

ii.Training in Educational Sciences generally

Table 36 presents the results of the independent samples t-test that were conducted between the factors and whether the participants had training in Educational Sciences generally (Doctorate, Master's degree or Seminar at least 300 hours in Educational Sciences generally).The results show that there were statistically significant differences in the means for the factors "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" (t (263) =1,986, p=0,048), "Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation" (t (263) =-2,819, p=0,005) and "Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation" (t (155,989) =-2,739, p=0,007).

Table 36: Factors*Training in Educational Sciences, independent samples t-test

Factors	t	df	p-value
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	-0,855	263	0,393
Efficacy in collaboration	0,115	162,961	0,909
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	-0,228	263	0,820
Advantages of Inclusive Education	-1,546	263	0,123
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	1,986	263	**0,048**
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	0,781	138,037	0,436
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	0,083	263	0,934
Collaboration for timely information	-1,274	263	0,204
Collaboration for teaching	-1,029	263	0,304
Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations	-0,188	263	0,851
The result of working with the final adjustments	-0,949	263	0,344
Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation	-2,819	263	**0,005**
Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation	-2,739	155,989	**0,007**

Specifically, from Table 37 (and Graphs 41-43) arises that:

- For the factor «Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education», the mean value of the participants that had not training in Educational Sciences generally (M=3,47) was statistically greater (t (263) =1,986, p=0,048) than the mean of those that had (M=3,23).
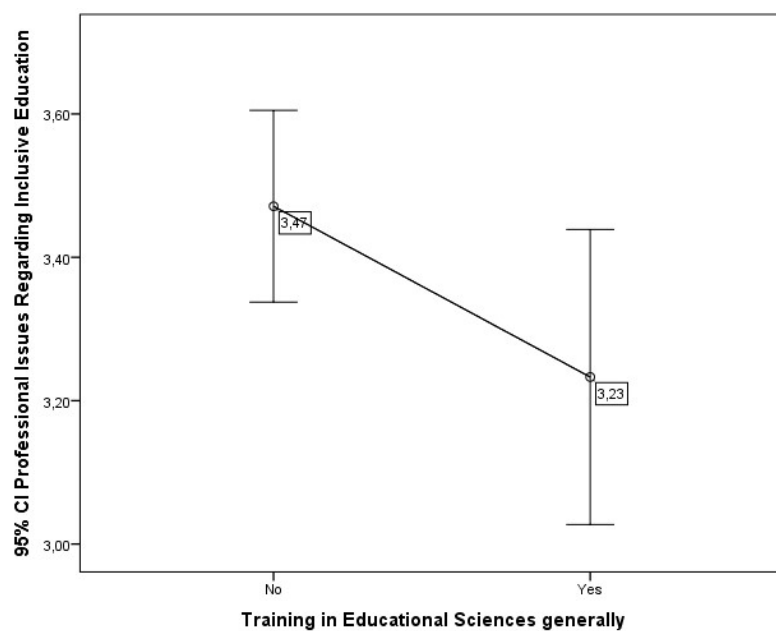
Graph 41: Errorbar "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" *Training in Educational Sciences generally

- For the factor «Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation», the mean value of the participants that had not training in Educational Sciences generally (M=5,01) was statistically lower (t (263) =-2,819, p=0,005) than the mean of those that had (M=5,63).
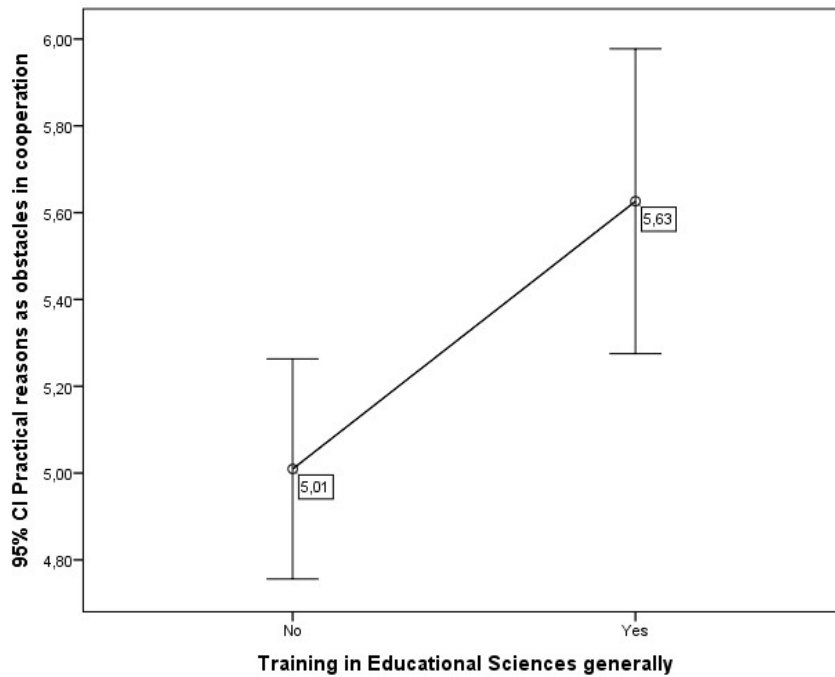
Graph 42: Errorbar "Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation" *Training in Educational Sciences generally

For the factor "Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation", the mean value of the participants that had not training in Educational Sciences generally (M=4,09) was statistically lower (t (155,989) =-2,739, p=0,007) than the mean of those that had (M=4,87).
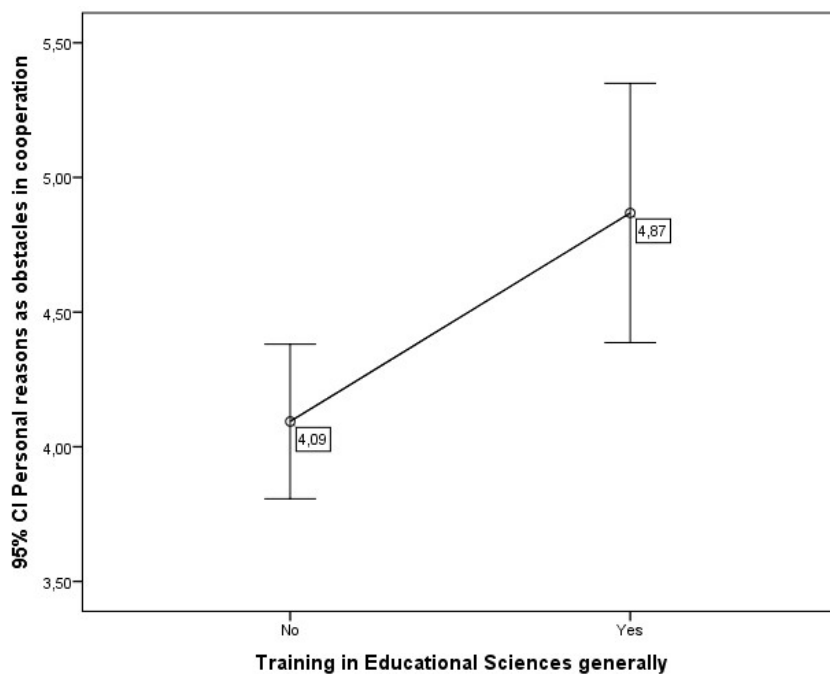
Graph 43: Errorbar "Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation" *Training in Educational Sciences generally

Table 37: Factors*Training in Educational Sciences generally, independent samples t-test (statistically significant results)

Factor	Training in Educational Sciences	N	M	t	df	p
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	No	174	3,47	1,986	263	**0,048**
	Yes	91	3,23			
Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation	No	174	5,01	-2,819	263	**0,005**
	Yes	91	5,63			
Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation	No	174	4,09	-2,739	155,989	**0,007**
	Yes	91	4,87			

iii. Training in another scientific field

Table 38 presents the results of the independent samples t-test that were conducted between the factors and whether the participants had training in another scientific field (Doctorate, Master's degree or Seminar at least 300 hours in another scientific field). The results show that there were statistically significant differences in the means for the factors "Efficacy in collaboration" (t (263) =-2,017, p=0,045), "Collaboration for teaching" (t (263) =-2,050, p=0,041) and "The result of working with the final adjustments" (t (263) =-2,248, p=0,025).

Table 38: Factors* Training in another scientific field, independent samples t-test

Factors	t	df	p-value
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	-0,360	263	0,719
Efficacy in collaboration	-2,017	263	**0,045**
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	-1,076	263	0,283
Advantages of Inclusive Education	0,583	263	0,561
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	-0,062	263	0,950
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	0,873	263	0,384
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	0,059	263	0,953
Collaboration for timely information	-0,621	263	0,535
Collaboration for teaching	-2,050	263	**0,041**
Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations	-1,491	263	0,137
The result of working with the final adjustments	-2,248	263	**0,025**
Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation	-0,876	263	0,382
Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation	0,219	263	0,827

Specifically, from Table 39 (and Graphs 44-46) arises that:

- For the factor "Efficacy in collaboration", the mean value of the participants that had not training in another scientific field (M=4,49) was statistically lower (t (263) =-2,017, p=0,045), than the mean of those that had (M=4,67).
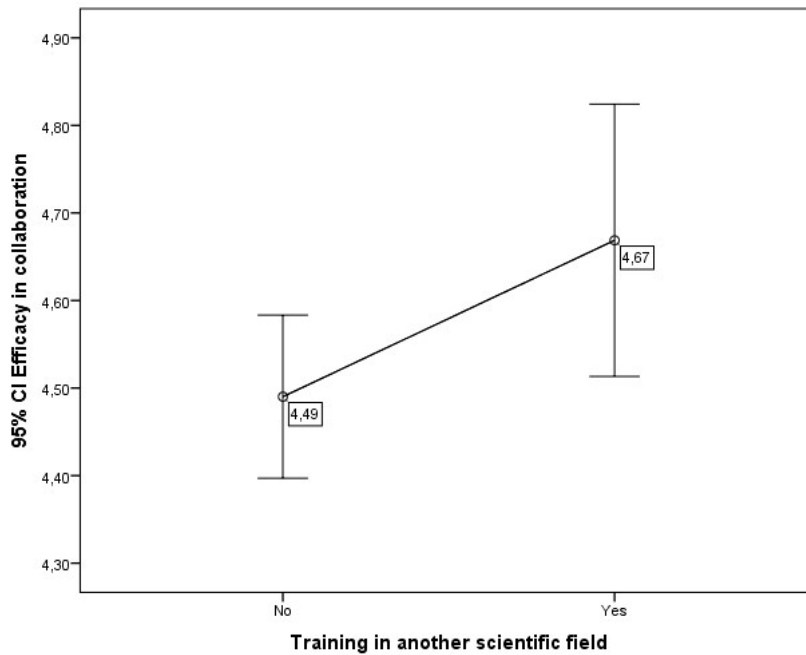
Graph 44: Errorbar "Efficacy in collaboration" *Training in another scientific field

- For the factor "Collaboration for teaching", the mean value of the participants that had not training in another scientific field (M=5,27) was statistically lower (t (263) =-2,050, p=0,041) than the mean of those that had (M=5,69).
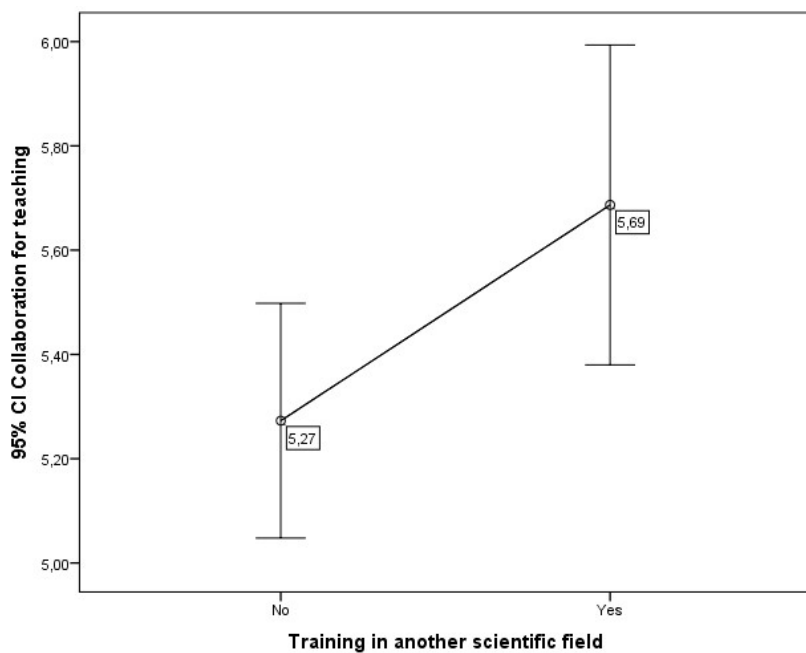
Graph 45: Errorbar "Collaboration for teaching" *Training in another scientific field

- For the factor "The result of working with the final adjustments", the mean value of the participants that had not training in another scientific field (M=5,66) was statistically lower (t (263) =-2,248, p=0,025) than the mean of those that had (M=6,10).
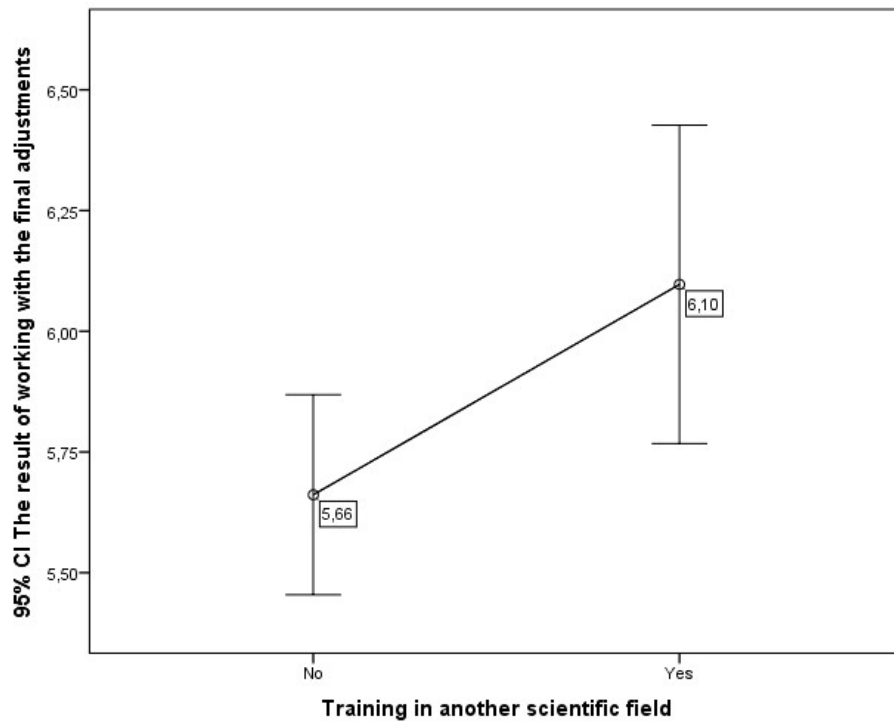
Graph 46: Errorbar "The result of working with the final adjustments" *Training in another scientific field

Table 39: Factors*Training in another scientific field, independent samples t-test (statistically significant results)

Factor	Training in another scientific field	N	M	t	df	p
Efficacy in collaboration	No	186	4,49	-2,017	263	**0,045**
	Yes	79	4,67			
Collaboration for teaching	No	186	5,27	-2,050	263	**0,041**
	Yes	79	5,69			
The result of working with the final adjustments	No	186	5,66	-2,248	263	**0,025**
	Yes	79	6,10			

iv. Other Seminar–Training

Table 40 presents the results of the independent samples t-test that were conducted between the factors and whether the participants had other seminar–training. The results show that there were statistically significant differences in the means for the factors "Efficacy in collaboration" (t (263) =-2,369, p=0,019) and "Advantages of Inclusive Education", (t (263) =2,254, p=0,025).

Table 40: Factors* Training in other seminar, independent samples t-test

Factors	t	df	p-value
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	-0,779	263	0,437
Efficacy in collaboration	-1,200	263	0,231
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	-2,369	263	**0,019**
Advantages of Inclusive Education	2,254	263	**0,025**
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	1,375	263	0,170
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	0,356	263	0,722
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	0,378	263	0,706
Collaboration for timely information	-0,679	263	0,497
Collaboration for teaching	1,899	263	0,059
Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations	0,617	263	0,538
The result of working with the final adjustments	-0,308	263	0,758
Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation	-0,944	263	0,346
Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation	-0,826	263	0,410

Specifically, from Table 41 (and Graphs 47-48) arises that:

- For the factor "Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors", the mean value of the participants that had no other seminar–training (M=4,39) was statistically lower (t (263) =-2,369, p=0,019) than the mean of those that had (M=4,57).
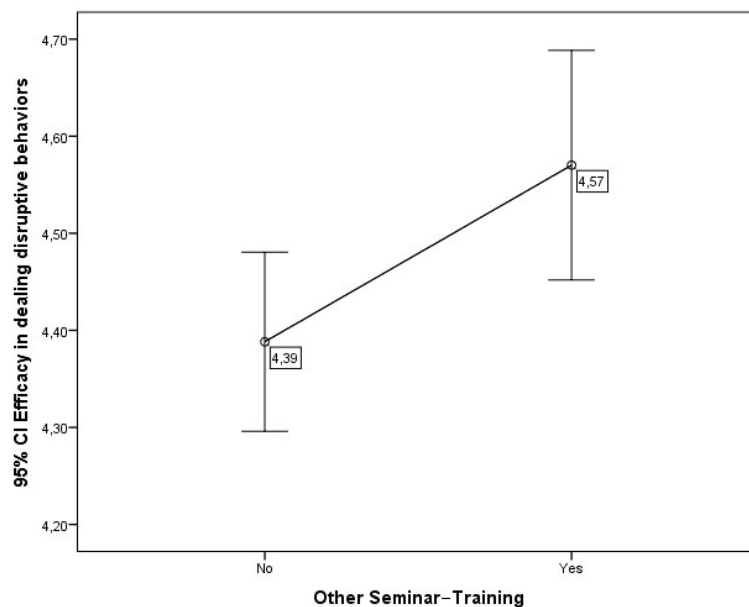
Graph 47: Errorbar "Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors" *Other Seminar–Training

- For the factor "Advantages of Inclusive Education", the mean value of the participants that had no other seminar–training (M=3,42) was statistically greater (t (263) =2,254, p=0,025) than the mean of those that had (M=3,20).
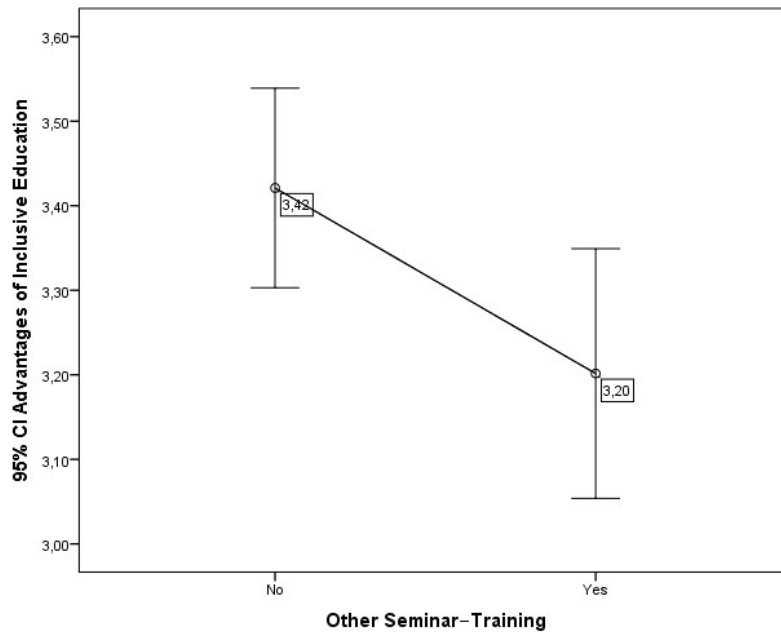
Graph 48: Errorbar "Advantages of Inclusive Education" *Other Seminar–Training

Table 41: Factors*Other Seminar–Training, independent samples t-test (statistically significant results)

Factor	Other Seminar–Training	N	M	t	df	p
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	No	170	4,39	-2,369	263	**0,019**
	Yes	95	4,57			
Advantages of Inclusive Education	No	170	3,42	2,254	263	**0,025**
	Yes	95	3,20			

v.Participation in a conference

Table 42 presents the results of the independent samples t-test that were conducted between the factors and whether the teachers had participation in a conference. The results show that there were statistically significant differences in the means for the factors "Efficacy to use inclusive instructions" (t (263) =-3,716, p<0,001), "Efficacy in collaboration" (t (263) =-3,075, p=0,002), "Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors" (t (263) =-4,331, p<0,001) and "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education" (t (263) =-2,599, p=0,010).

Table 42: Factors* Participation in a conference, independent samples t-test

Factors	t	df	p-value
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	-3,716	263	**<0,001**
Efficacy in collaboration	-3,075	263	**0,002**
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	-4,331	263	**<0,001**
Advantages of Inclusive Education	-1,832	171,485	0,069
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	-1,176	263	0,241
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	-1,751	263	0,081
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	-2,599	263	**0,010**
Collaboration for timely information	-1,768	263	0,078
Collaboration for teaching	1,541	263	0,124
Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations	-0,370	249,942	0,712
The result of working with the final adjustments	-0,517	263	0,606
Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation	-1,384	263	0,167
Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation	-0,662	263	0,509

Specifically, from Table 43 (and Graphs 49-52) arises that:

- For the factor "Efficacy to use inclusive instructions", the mean value of the teachers that had not participated in a conference (M=4,68) was statistically lower (t (263) =-3,716, p<0,001), than the mean of those that had (M=4,95).
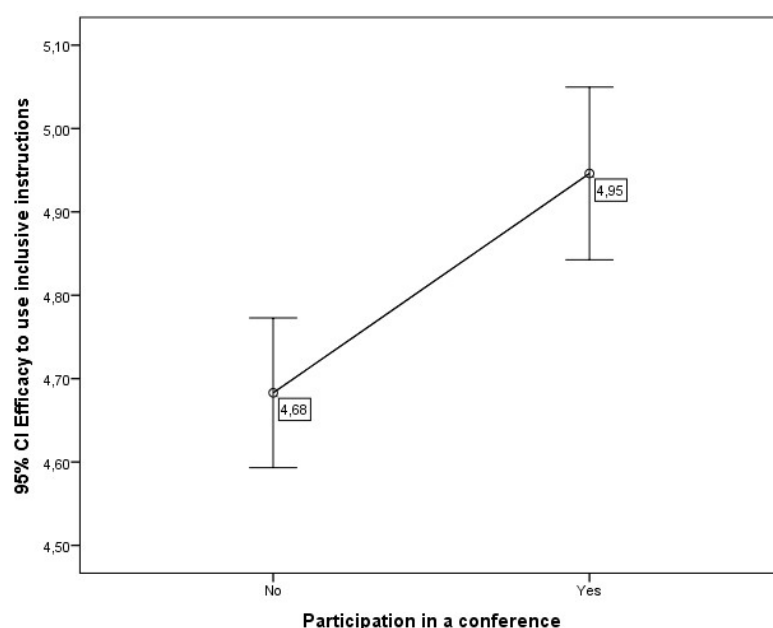
Graph 49: Errorbar "Efficacy to use inclusive instructions" *Conference Participation

- For the factor "Efficacy in collaboration", the mean value of the teachers that had not participated in a conference (M=4,45) was statistically lower (t (263) =-3,075, p=0,002), than the mean of those that had (M=4,70).
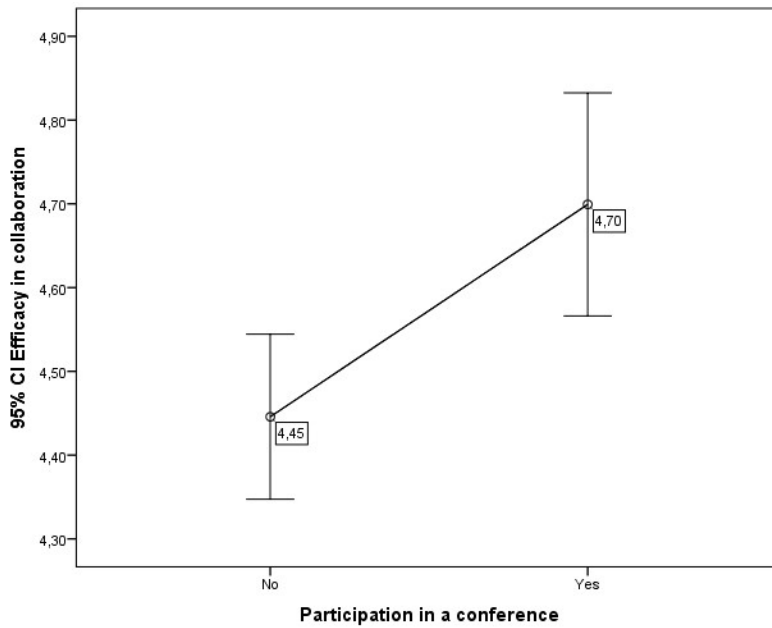
Graph 50: Errorbar "Efficacy in collaboration" *Conference Participation

- For the factor "Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors", the mean value of the teachers that had not participated in a conference (M=4,33) was statistically lower (t (263) =-4,331, p<0,001) than the mean of those that had (M=4,65).
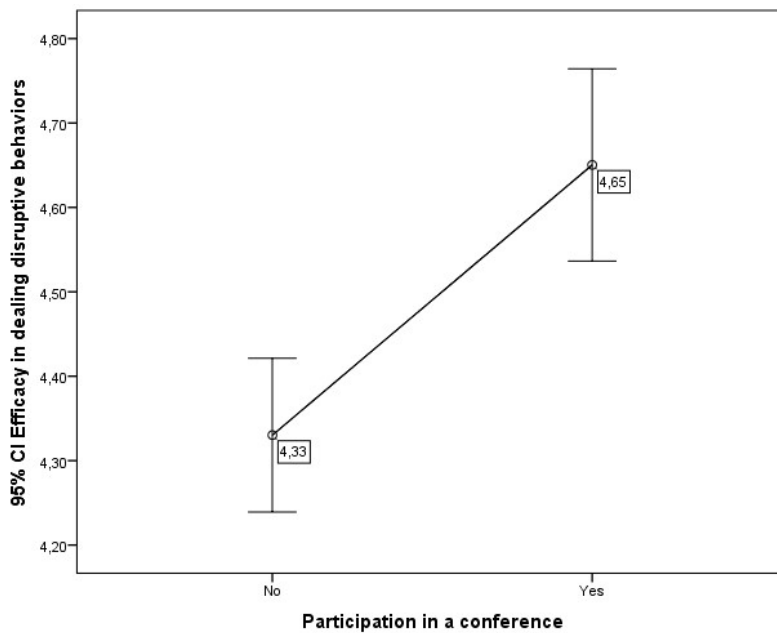
Graph 51: Errorbar "Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors" *Conference Participation

For the factor "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education", the mean value of the teachers that had not participated in a conference (M=3,65) was statistically lower (t (263) =-2,599, p=0,010) than the mean of those that hadn't (M=3,89).
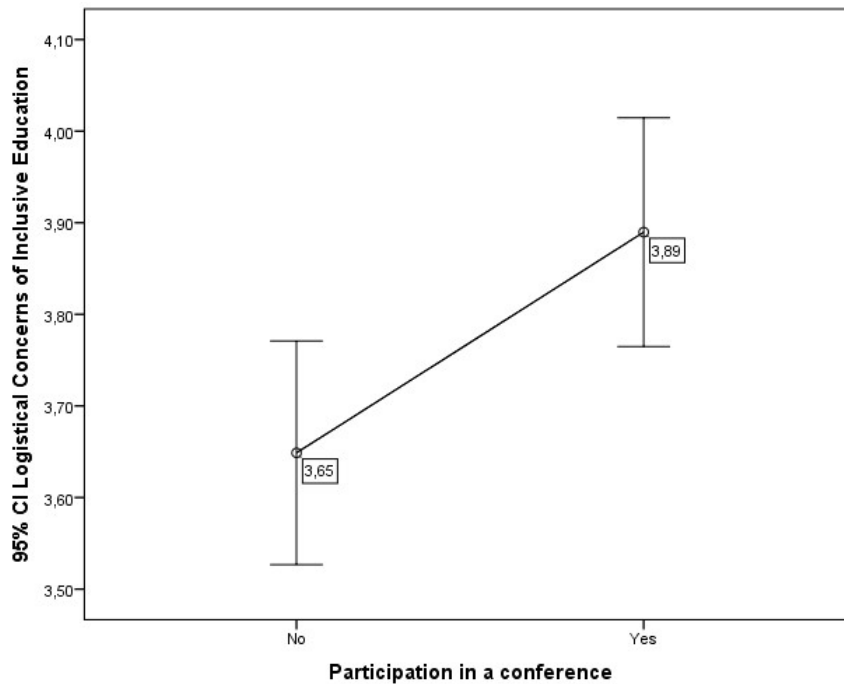
Graph 52: Errorbar "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education" *Conference Participation

Table 43: Factors*Conference Participation, independent samples t-test (statistically significant results)

Factor	Conference Participation	N	M	t	df	p
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	No	163	4,68	-3,716	263	**<0,001**
	Yes	102	4,95			
Efficacy in collaboration	No	163	4,45	-3,075	263	**0,002**
	Yes	102	4,70			
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	No	163	4,33	-4,331	263	**<0,001**
	Yes	102	4,65			
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	No	163	3,65	-2,599	263	**0,010**
	Yes	102	3,89			

vi.No Training

Table 44 presents the results of the independent samples t-test and Mann Whitney that were conducted between the factors and whether the teachers had no training. The results show that there were statistically significant differences in the means for the factors "Efficacy to use inclusive instructions" (t(263)=2,234, p=0,026), "Efficacy in collaboration" (t(263)=2,114, p=0,035), "Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors" (t(7,568)=4,523, p=0,002) and "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" (t(16,026)=12,622, p<0,001), while there were statistically significant differences in the mean ranks of the factors "Advantages of Inclusive Education" (U=328,5, p=0,004) and "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" (U=486, p=0,034).

Table 44: Factors*No Training, t-test and Mann-Whitney

Factor	Statistic	p	test
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	t (263) =2,234	**0,026**	t-test
Efficacy in collaboration	t (263) =2,114	**0,035**	t-test
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	t (7,568) =4,523	**0,002**	t-test
Advantages of Inclusive Education	U=328,5	**0,004**	M-W
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	t (16,026) =12,622	**<0,001**	t-test
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	U=486	**0,034**	M-W
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	t (263) =0,614	0,540	t-test
Collaboration for timely information	t (263) = 0,098	0,922	t-test
Collaboration for teaching	t (263) = -1,539	0,125	t-test
Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations	U=564	0,090	M-W
The result of working with the final adjustments	t (263) =-0,911	0,363	t-test
Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation	t (263) = -0,324	0,746	t-test
Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation	t (263) = 0,461	0,645	t-test

Specifically, from Table 45 (and Graphs 53-56) arises that:

- For the factor "Efficacy to use inclusive instructions", the mean value of the teachers that had training (M=4,80) was statistically greater (t (263) =2,234, p=0,026), than the mean of those that had not (M=4,31).
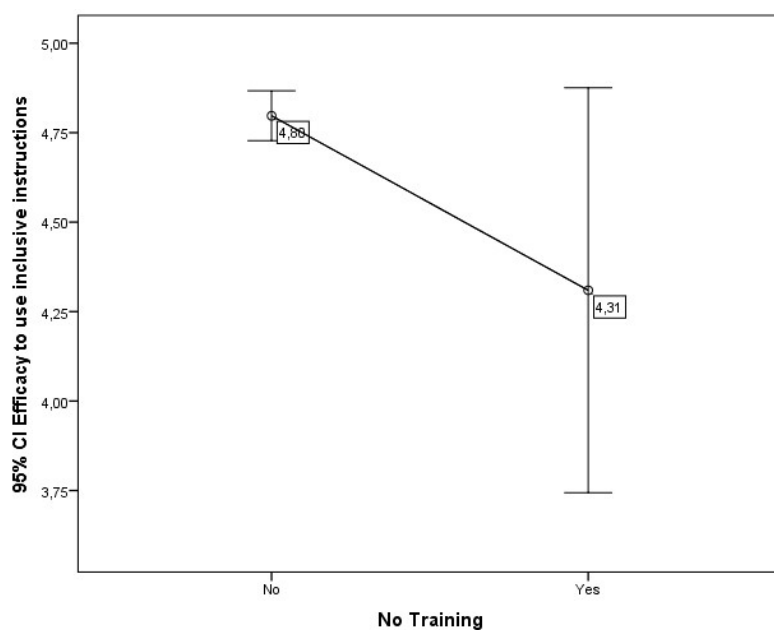
Graph 53: Errorbar "Efficacy to use inclusive instructions" *No Training

- For the factor "Efficacy in collaboration", the mean value of the teachers that had training (M=4,56) was statistically greater (t (263) =2,114, p=0,035) than the mean of those that had not (M=4,02).
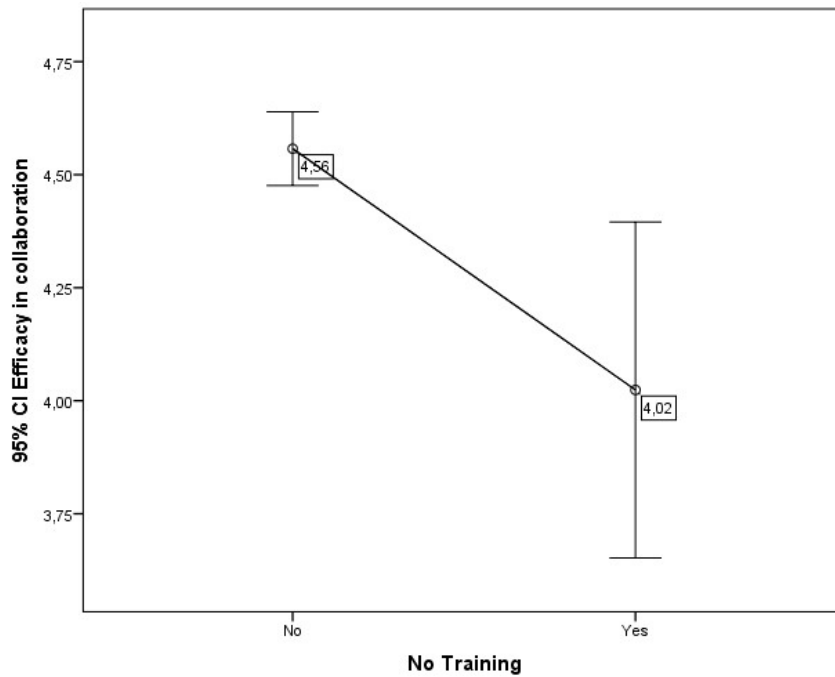
Graph 54: Errorbar "Efficacy in collaboration" *No Training

- For the factor "Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors", the mean value of the teachers that had training (M=4,47) was statistically greater (t(7,568)=4,523, p=0,002) than the mean of those that had not (M=3,95).
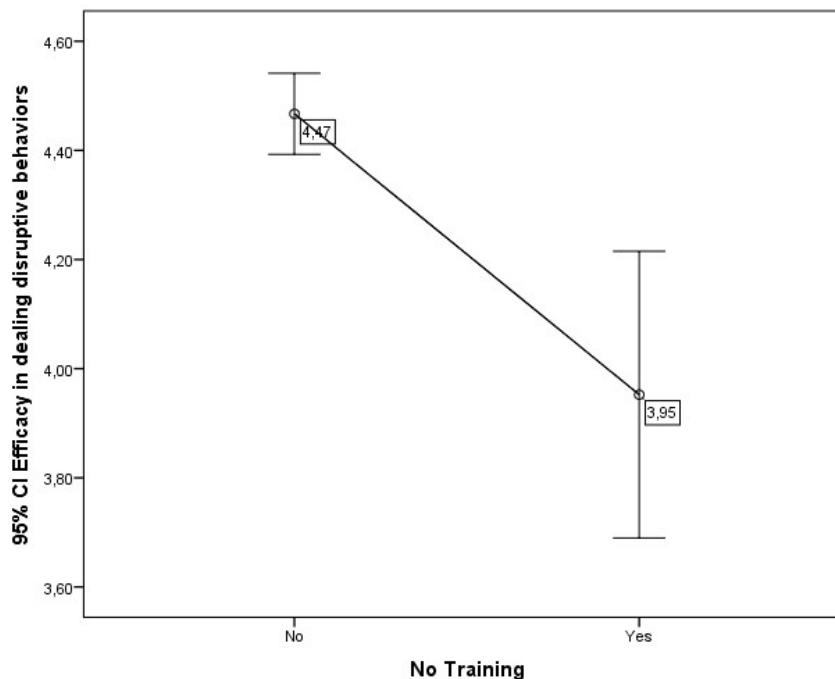
Graph 55: Errorbar "Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors" *No Training

- For the factor "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education", the mean value of the teachers that had training (M=3,42) was statistically greater (t (16,026) =12,622, p<0,001) than the mean of those that had not (M=2,26).
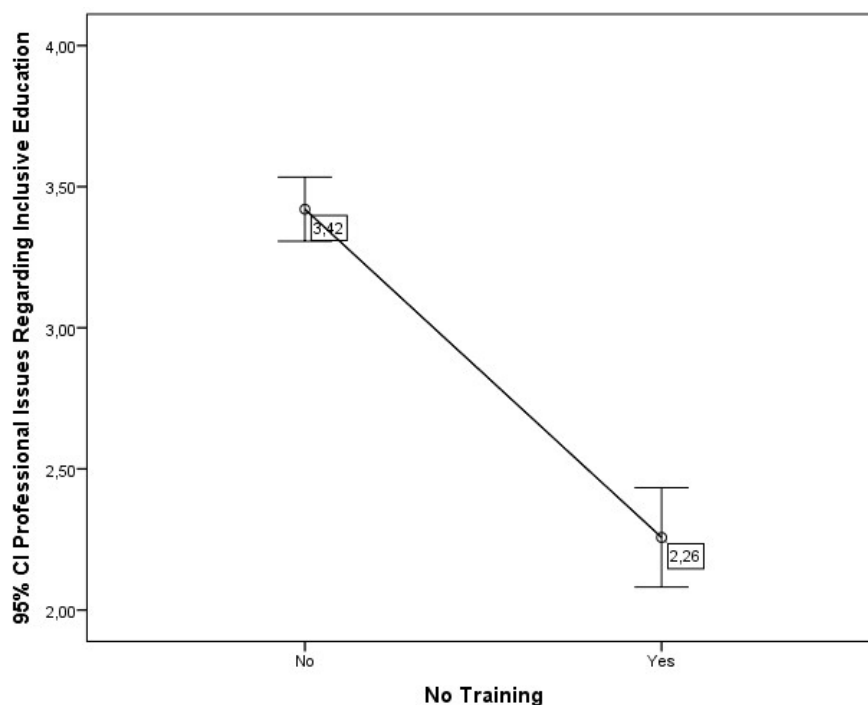
Graph 56: Errorbar "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" *No Training

Table 45: Factors*No Training, independent samples t-test (statistically significant results)

Factor	No Training	N	M	t	df	p
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	No	258	4,80	2,234	263	**0,026**
	Yes	7	4,31			
Efficacy in collaboration	No	258	4,56	2,114	263	**0,035**
	Yes	7	4,02			
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	No	258	4,47	4,523	7,568	**0,002**
	Yes	7	3,95			
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	No	258	3,42	12,622	16,026	**<0,001**
	Yes	7	2,26			

In addition, from Table 46 (and Graphs 57-58) arises that:

- In the factor "Advantages of Inclusive Education" the mean rank of the teachers that had training (M.R.=135,23) was statistically greater (U=328,5, p=0,004) than the mean of those that had not (M.R.=50,93).
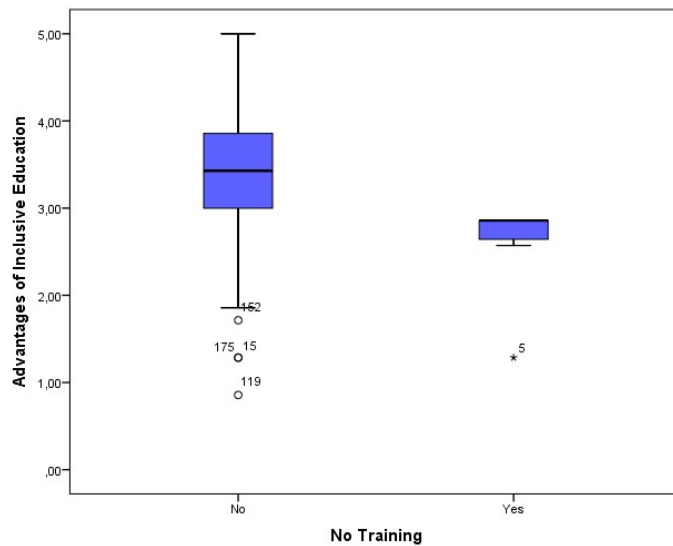
Graph 57: Boxplot "Advantages of Inclusive Education" *No Training

- In the factor "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" the mean rank of the teachers that had training (M.R.=134,62) was statistically higher (U=486, p=0,004) than the mean of those that had not (M.R.=73,43).
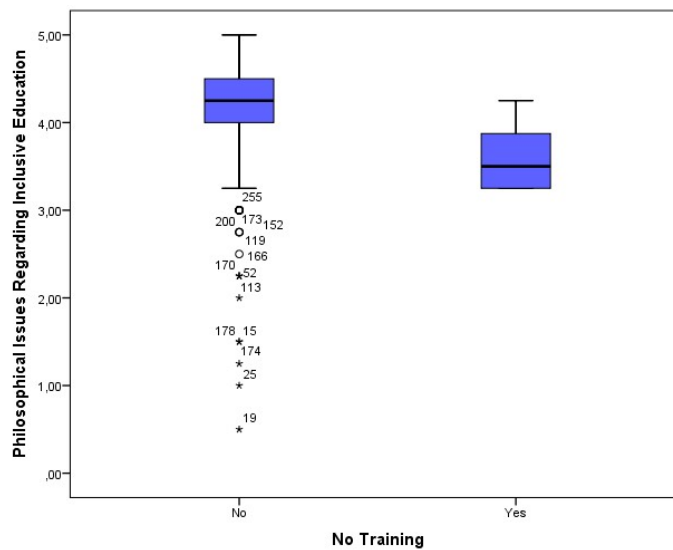
Graph 58: Boxplot "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" *No Training

Table 46: Factors*No Training, Mann-Whitney (statistically significant results)

Factor	No Training	N	Mean Rank	U	p
Advantages of Inclusive Education	No	258	135,23	328,5	**0,004**
	Yes	7	50,93		
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	No	258	134,62	486	**0,034**
	Yes	7	73,43		

8.2.3 3rd Research Question

Do the attitudes towards inclusion and the self-efficacy for inclusive practices of general and special education teachers' affect their collaboration with parents of students with special educational needs in the context of inclusive education?

i.General Education

Table 47 presents the results of the multiple linear regression model where the dependent variable is the «Collaboration for timely information» while the independent variables are the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice end of the teachers' attitudes towards inclusive classrooms for the teachers working in general education. It appears that the initial hypothesis of not-fitting of the model was rejected (F $(7,123)$ =8,779, p<0,001). The fit of the model is considered good, as AdjR^2=0,295>0,250. Also, the coefficients of the factors "Efficacy to use inclusive instructions" (t=2,316, p=0,022<0,05) and "Efficacy in collaboration" were considered statistically significant (t=5,133, p<0,001). Also, there was no collinearity (VIF<10). The multiple regression model is determined by the mathematical equation:

Collaboration for timely information=0,044+0,608*Efficacy to use inclusive instructions+1,115*Efficacy in collaboration-0,316*Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors-0,017*Advantages of Inclusive Education-0,292*Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education+0,055*Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education+0,186*Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education

Table 47: Results of the multiple regression model with dependent the variable "Collaboration for timely information" and independent variables the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice and of the teachers' attitudes towards inclusive classrooms (General Education teachers)

Dependent Variable	R	R^2	AdjR^2	F (7,123)	p
Collaboration for timely information	0,577	0,333	0,295	8,779	**<0,001**
Independent Variable	**B**	**Beta**	**t**	**p**	**VIF**
(Constant)	0,044	-	0,043	0,966	-
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	0,608	0,243	2,316	**0,022**	2,026
Efficacy in collaboration	1,115	0,534	5,133	**<0,001**	1,995
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	-0,316	-0,142	-1,330	0,186	2,106
Advantages of Inclusive Education	-0,017	-0,009	-0,108	0,914	1,269
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	-0,292	-0,172	-1,711	0,090	1,873
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	0,055	0,027	0,318	0,751	1,295
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	0,186	0,105	1,204	0,231	1,413

Table 48 presents the results of the multiple linear regression model where the dependent variable is the "Collaboration for teaching" while the independent variables are the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice end of the teachers' attitudes towards inclusive classrooms for the teachers working in general education. The initial hypothesis of not-fitting of the model was rejected ($F_{(7,123)}$ =5,462, p<0,001). The fit of the model is considered moderate, as $AdjR^2$=0,194<0,250. The coefficients of the factors "Efficacy in collaboration" (t=4,753, p<0,001) and "Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors" were considered statistically significant (t=-2,178, p=0,031<0,05). There was no collinearity (VIF<10). The multiple regression model is

Collaboration for teaching»=1,486+0,341*Efficacy to use inclusive instructions+1,189*Efficacy in collaboration-0,595*Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors+0,056*Advantages of Inclusive Education+0,075*Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education-0,125*Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education-0,080*Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education

Table 48: Results of the multiple regression model with dependent the variable "Collaboration for teaching" and independent variables the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice and of the teachers' attitudes towards inclusive classrooms (General Education teachers)

Dependent Variable	R	R^2	$AdjR^2$	$F_{(7,123)}$	p
Collaboration for teaching	0,487	0,237	0,194	5,462	**<0,001**
Independent Variable	**B**	**Beta**	**t**	**p**	**VIF**
(Constant)	1,486		1,264	0,209	
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	0,341	0,127	1,129	0,261	2,026
Efficacy in collaboration	1,189	0,529	4,753	**<0,001**	1,995
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	-0,595	-0,249	-2,178	**0,031**	2,106
Advantages of Inclusive Education	0,056	0,028	0,314	0,754	1,269
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	0,075	0,041	0,384	0,702	1,873
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	-0,125	-0,057	-0,634	0,527	1,295
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	-0,080	-0,042	-0,451	0,653	1,413

Table 49 presents the results of the multiple linear regression model where the dependent variable is the "Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations" while the independent variables are the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice end of the teachers' attitudes towards inclusive classrooms for the teachers working in general education. It appears that the initial hypothesis of not-fitting of the model was rejected ($F_{(7,123)}$ =7,970, p<0,001). The fit of the model is considered good, as $AdjR^2$=0,273>0,250. Also, the coefficient of the factor "Efficacy in collaboration" was considered statistically significant (t=4,487, p<0,001). Also, there was no collinearity (VIF<10). The multiple regression model is determined by the mathematical equation:

Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations=1,368+0,378*Efficacy to use inclusive instructions+0,824*Efficacy in collaboration-0,371*Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors+0,036*Advantages of Inclusive Education+0,088*Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education+0,182*Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education-0,023*Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education

Table 49: Results of the multiple regression model with dependent the variable "Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations" and independent variables the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice and of the teachers' attitudes towards inclusive classrooms (General Education teachers)

Dependent Variable	R	R^2	$AdjR^2$	F (7,123)	p
Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations	0,559	0,312	0,273	7,970	**<0,001**
Independent Variable	**B**	**Beta**	**t**	**p**	**VIF**
(Constant)	1,368	-	1,584	0,116	-
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	0,378	0,181	1,704	0,091	2,026
Efficacy in collaboration	0,824	0,474	4,487	**<0,001**	1,995
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	-0,371	-0,200	-1,847	0,067	2,106
Advantages of Inclusive Education	0,036	0,023	0,275	0,784	1,269
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	0,088	0,062	0,609	0,543	1,873
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	0,182	0,106	1,251	0,213	1,295
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	-0,023	-0,016	-0,176	0,860	1,413

Table 50 presents the results of the multiple linear regression model where the dependent variable is the "The result of working with the final adjustments" while the independent variables are the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice end of the teachers' attitudes towards inclusive classrooms for the teachers working in general education. It appears that the initial hypothesis of not-fitting of the model was rejected (F (7,123) =5,906, p<0,001). The fit of the model is considered moderate, as $AdjR^2$=0,209<0,250. Also, the coefficient of the factors "Efficacy in collaboration" (t=4,087, p<0,001) and "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education" were considered statistically significant (t=-2,209, p=0,029<0,05). Also, there was no collinearity (VIF<10). The multiple regression model is determined by the mathematical equation:

The result of working with the final adjustments=1,501+0,417*Efficacy to use inclusive instructions+0,983*Efficacy in collaboration-0,271*Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors+0,107*Advantages of Inclusive Education+0,144*Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education-0,088*Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education-0,379*Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education

Table 50: Results of the multiple regression model with dependent the variable "The result of working with the final adjustments" and independent variables the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice and of the teachers' attitudes towards inclusive classrooms (General Education teachers)

Dependent Variable	R	R^2	$AdjR^2$	F (7,123)	p
The result of working with the final adjustments	0,502	0,252	0,209	5,906	**<0,001**
Independent Variable	**B**	**Beta**	**t**	**p**	**VIF**
(Constant)	1,501	-	1,327	0,187	-
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	0,417	0,159	1,435	0,154	2,026
Efficacy in collaboration	0,983	0,450	4,087	**<0,001**	1,995
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	-0,271	-0,117	-1,032	0,304	2,106
Advantages of Inclusive Education	0,107	0,055	0,628	0,531	1,269
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	0,144	0,081	0,761	0,448	1,873
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	-0,088	-0,041	-0,462	0,645	1,295
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	-0,379	-0,205	-2,209	**0,029**	1,413

Table 51 presents the results of the multiple linear regression model where the dependent variable is the "Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation" while the independent variables are the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice end of the teachers' attitudes towards inclusive classrooms for the teachers working in general education. It appears that the initial hypothesis of not-fitting of the model was rejected (F (7,123) =3,005, p=0,006<0,01). The fit of the model is considered medium, as $AdjR^2$=0,097<0,250. Also, the constant coefficient (t=6,867, p<0,001) and the coefficient of the factor "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education" were considered statistically significant (t=-2,136, p=0,035<0,05). Also, there was no collinearity (VIF<10). The multiple regression model is determined by the mathematical equation:

Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation=9,159+0,177*Efficacy to use inclusive instructions-0,446*Efficacy in collaboration-0,491*Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors+0,077*Advantages of Inclusive Education+0,010*Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education+0,225*Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education-0,432*Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education

Table 51: Results of the multiple regression model with dependent the variable «Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation» and independent variables the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice and of the teachers' attitudes towards inclusive classrooms (General Education teachers)

Dependent Variable	R	R^2	$AdjR^2$	F (7,123)	p
Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation	0,382	0,146	0,097	3,005	**0,006**
Independent Variable	**B**	**Beta**	**t**	**p**	**VIF**
(Constant)	9,159	-	6,867	**<0,001**	-
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	0,177	0,061	0,516	0,607	2,026
Efficacy in collaboration	-0,446	-0,185	-1,571	0,119	1,995
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	-0,491	-0,191	-1,583	0,116	2,106
Advantages of Inclusive Education	0,077	0,036	0,384	0,702	1,269
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	0,010	0,005	0,046	0,963	1,873
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	0,225	0,095	1,006	0,316	1,295
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	-0,432	-0,212	-2,136	**0,035**	1,413

Table 52 presents the results of the multiple linear regression model where the dependent variable is the "Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation" while the independent variables are the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice end of the teachers' attitudes towards inclusive classrooms for the teachers working in general education. It appears that the initial hypothesis of not-fitting of the model was rejected (F (7,123) =4,123, p<0,001). The fit of the model is considered medium, as $AdjR^2$=0,144<0,250. Also, the constant coefficient (t=5,229, p<0,001) and the coefficients of the factors "Efficacy in collaboration" (t=-2,048, p=0,043), "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" (t=3,269, p=0,001) and "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education" were considered statistically significant (t=-4,349, p<0,001). Also, there was no collinearity (VIF<10). The multiple regression model is determined by the mathematical equation:

Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation=8,744+0,345*Efficacy to use inclusive instructions-0,728*Efficacy in collaboration-0,405*Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors+0,228*Advantages of Inclusive Education+0,913*Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education-0,102*Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education-1,102*Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education

Table 52: Results of the multiple regression model with dependent the variable "Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation" and independent variables the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice and of the teachers' attitudes towards inclusive classrooms (General Education teachers)

Dependent Variable	R	R^2	$AdjR^2$	F (7,123)	p
Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation	0,436	0,190	0,144	4,123	**<0,001**
Independent Variable	**B**	**Beta**	**t**	**p**	**VIF**
(Constant)	8,744	-	5,229	**<0,001**	-
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	0,345	0,093	0,802	0,424	2,026
Efficacy in collaboration	-0,728	-0,235	-2,048	**0,043**	1,995
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	-0,405	-0,123	-1,043	0,299	2,106
Advantages of Inclusive Education	0,228	0,083	0,909	0,365	1,269
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	0,913	0,363	3,269	**0,001**	1,873
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	-0,102	-0,034	-0,364	0,716	1,295
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	-1,102	-0,420	-4,349	**<0,001**	1,413

ii.Special Education

Table 53 presents the results of the multiple linear regression model where the dependent variable is the "Collaboration for timely information" while the independent variables are the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice end of the teachers' attitudes towards inclusive classrooms for the teachers working in special education. It appears that the initial hypothesis of not-fitting of the model was rejected F (7,126) =14,255, p<0,001). The fit of the model is considered very good, as $AdjR^2$=0,411>0,400. Also, the coefficients of the factors "Efficacy in collaboration» (t=6,108, p<0,001), "Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors" (t=-3,870, p<0,001), "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" (t=3,146, p=0,002<0,01) and "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education" were considered statistically significant (t=-2,122, p=0,036<0,05). Also, there was no collinearity (VIF<10). The multiple regression model is determined by the mathematical equation:

Collaboration for timely information=-0,385+0,057*Efficacy to use inclusive instructions+2,026*Efficacy in collaboration-1,198*Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors+0,325*Advantages of Inclusive Education+0,804*Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education-0,016*Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education-0,485*Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education

Table 53: Results of the multiple regression model with dependent the variable "Collaboration for timely information" and independent variables the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice and of the teachers' attitudes towards inclusive classrooms (Special Education teachers)

Dependent Variable	R	R^2	AdjR^2	F (7,126)	p
Collaboration for timely information	0,665	0,442	0,411	14,255	**<0,001**
Independent Variable	**B**	**Beta**	**t**	**p**	**VIF**
(Constant)	-0,385	-	-0,307	0,759	-
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	0,057	0,018	0,164	0,870	2,634
Efficacy in collaboration	2,026	0,723	6,108	**<0,001**	3,163
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	-1,198	-0,402	-3,870	**<0,001**	2,434
Advantages of Inclusive Education	0,325	0,141	1,788	0,076	1,403
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	0,804	0,293	3,146	**0,002**	1,961
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	-0,016	-0,007	-0,082	0,934	1,409
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	-0,485	-0,175	-2,122	**0,036**	1,543

Table 54 presents the results of the multiple linear regression model where the dependent variable is the "Collaboration for teaching" while the independent variables are the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice end of the teachers' attitudes towards inclusive classrooms for the teachers working in special education. The initial hypothesis of not-fitting of the model was rejected F (7,126) =5,928, p<0,001). The fit of the model is considered medium, as AdjR^2=0,206<0,250. Also, the coefficients of the factors "Efficacy to use inclusive instructions" (t=-2,104, p=0,037<0,05) and "Efficacy in collaboration" were considered statistically significant (t=4,384, p<0,001). There was no collinearity (VIF<10). The multiple regression model is

Collaboration for teaching=2,365-0,775*Efficacy to use inclusive instructions+1,556*Efficacy in collaboration+0,487*Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors+0,259*Advantages of Inclusive Education-0,295*Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education-0,272*Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education-0,301*Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education

Table 54: Results of the multiple regression model with dependent the variable "Collaboration for teaching" and independent variables the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice and of the teachers' attitudes towards inclusive classrooms (Special Education teachers)

Dependent Variable	R	R^2	AdjR^2	F (7,126)	p
Collaboration for teaching	0,498	0,248	0,206	5,928	**<0,001**
Independent Variable	**B**	**Beta**	**t**	**p**	**VIF**
(Constant)	2,365	-	1,761	0,081	-
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	-0,775	-0,264	-2,104	**0,037**	2,634
Efficacy in collaboration	1,556	0,603	4,384	**<0,001**	3,163
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	0,487	0,177	1,472	0,143	2,434
Advantages of Inclusive Education	0,259	0,122	1,333	0,185	1,403
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	-0,295	-0,117	-1,078	0,283	1,961
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	-0,272	-0,121	-1,324	0,188	1,409
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	-0,301	-0,118	-1,233	0,220	1,543

Table 55 presents the results of the multiple linear regression model where the dependent variable is the "Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations" while the independent variables are the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice end of the teachers' attitudes towards inclusive classrooms for the teachers working in special education. It appears that the initial hypothesis of not-fitting of the model was rejected ($F_{(7,126)}$ =8,761, p<0,001). The fit of the model is considered good, as $AdjR^2$=0,290>0,250. Also, the constant coefficient (t=3,321, p=0,001<0,01) and the coefficients of the factors "Efficacy in collaboration" (t=4,357, p<0,001), "Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors" (t=-2,271, p=0,025<0,05) and "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" were considered statistically significant (t=3,261, p=0,001<0,01). Also, there was no collinearity (VIF<10). The multiple regression model is determined by the mathematical equation:

Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations=2,852-0,147*Efficacy to use inclusive instructions+0,989*Efficacy in collaboration-0,481*Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors+0,198*Advantages of Inclusive Education+0,570*Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education-0,001*Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education-0,258*Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education

Table 55: Results of the multiple regression model with dependent the variable "Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations" and independent variables the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice and of the teachers' attitudes towards inclusive classrooms (Special Education teachers)

Dependent Variable	R	R^2	$AdjR^2$	F (7,126)	p
Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations	0,572	0,327	0,290	8,761	**<0,001**
Independent Variable	**B**	**Beta**	**t**	**p**	**VIF**
(Constant)	2,852	-	3,321	**0,001**	-
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	-0,147	-0,074	-0,622	0,535	2,634
Efficacy in collaboration	0,989	0,566	4,357	**<0,001**	3,163
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	-0,481	-0,259	-2,271	**0,025**	2,434
Advantages of Inclusive Education	0,198	0,138	1,593	0,114	1,403
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	0,570	0,334	3,261	**0,001**	1,961
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	-0,001	-0,001	-0,008	0,994	1,409
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	-0,258	-0,150	-1,651	0,101	1,543

Table 56 presents the results of the multiple linear regression model where the dependent variable is the "The result of working with the final adjustments" while the independent variables are the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice end of the teachers' attitudes towards inclusive classrooms for the teachers working in special education. It appears that the initial hypothesis of not-fitting of the model was

rejected (F (7,126) =5,456, p<0,001). The fit of the model is considered medium, as AdjR^2=0,190<0,250. Also, the coefficients of the factors "Efficacy in collaboration" (t=3,160, p=0,002<0,01), "Advantages of Inclusive Education" (t=2,445, p=0,016<0,05) and "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" were considered statistically significant (t=-2,062, p=0,041<0,05). Also, there was no collinearity (VIF<10). The multiple regression model is determined by the mathematical equation:

The result of working with the final adjustments=2,456-0,603*Efficacy to use inclusive instructions+1,063*Efficacy in collaboration+0,604*Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors+0,451*Advantages of Inclusive Education-0,190*Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education-0,402*Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education-0,112*Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education

Table 56: Results of the multiple regression model with dependent the variable "The result of working with the final adjustments" and independent variables the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice and of the teachers' attitudes towards inclusive classrooms (Special Education teachers)

Dependent Variable	R	R^2	AdjR^2	F (7,126)	p
The result of working with the final adjustments	0,482	0,233	0,190	5,456	**<0,001**
Independent Variable	**B**	**Beta**	**t**	**p**	**VIF**
(Constant)	2,456	-	1,928	0,056	-
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	-0,603	-0,218	-1,725	0,087	2,634
Efficacy in collaboration	1,063	0,439	3,160	**0,002**	3,163
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	0,604	0,234	1,924	0,057	2,434
Advantages of Inclusive Education	0,451	0,226	2,445	**0,016**	1,403
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	-0,190	-0,080	-0,735	0,464	1,961
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	-0,402	-0,191	-2,062	**0,041**	1,409
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	-0,112	-0,047	-0,484	0,629	1,543

Table 57 presents the results of the multiple linear regression model where the dependent variable is the "Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation" while the independent variables are the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice end of the teachers' attitudes towards inclusive classrooms for the teachers working in special education. It appears that the initial hypothesis of not-fitting of the model could not be rejected (F (7,126) =1,883, p=0,078>0,05). Also, there was no collinearity (VIF<10). Statistically significant was considered the effect of "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" (t=-2,065, p=0,041).

Table 57: Results of the multiple regression model with dependent the variable "Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation" and independent variables the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice and of the teachers' attitudes towards inclusive classrooms (Special Education teachers)

Dependent Variable	R	R^2	AdjR^2	F (7,126)	p
Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation	0,308	0,095	0,044	1,883	0,078
Independent Variable	**B**	**Beta**	**t**	**p**	**VIF**
(Constant)	7,352	-	4,284	**<0,001**	-
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	0,488	0,143	1,037	0,302	2,634
Efficacy in collaboration	-0,003	-0,001	-0,006	0,995	3,163
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	-0,521	-0,163	-1,232	0,220	2,434
Advantages of Inclusive Education	0,299	0,121	1,202	0,231	1,403
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	-0,721	-0,245	-2,065	**0,041**	1,961
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	-0,195	-0,075	-0,742	0,460	1,409
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	0,028	0,009	0,090	0,929	1,543

Table 58 presents the results of the multiple linear regression model where the dependent variable is the "Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation" while the independent variables are the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice end of the teachers' attitudes towards inclusive classrooms for the teachers working in special education. It appears that the initial hypothesis of not-fitting of the model was rejected (F (7,126) =2,770, p=0,010<0,05). The fit of the model is considered low, as AdjR^2=0,085<0,100. Also, the constant coefficient (t=5,962, p=0,001) and the coefficient of the factor "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" were considered statistically significant (t=-2,831, p=0,005<0,01). Also, there was no collinearity (VIF<10). The multiple regression model is determined by the mathematical equation:

Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation=12,033-0,809*Efficacy to use inclusive instructions -0,400*Efficacy in collaboration -0,097*Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors+ 0,238*Advantages of Inclusive Education+0,182*Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education-0,875*Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education+0,170*Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education

Table 58: Results of the multiple regression model with dependent the variable "Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation" and independent variables the factors of the teacher efficacy for inclusive practice and of the teachers' attitudes towards inclusive classrooms (Special Education teachers)

Dependent Variable	R	R^2	AdjR^2	F (7,126)	p
Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation	.365a	0,133	0,085	2,770	**0,010**
Independent Variable	**B**	**Beta**	**t**	**p**	**VIF**
(Constant)	12,033	-	5,962	**<0,001**	-
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	-0,809	-0,197	-1,461	0,147	2,634
Efficacy in collaboration	-0,400	-0,111	-0,749	0,455	3,163
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	-0,097	-0,025	-0,195	0,845	2,434
Advantages of Inclusive Education	0,238	0,080	0,815	0,417	1,403
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	0,182	0,051	0,442	0,659	1,961
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	-0,875	-0,279	-2,831	**0,005**	1,409
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	0,170	0,048	0,463	0,644	1,543

8.2.4   4th Research Question

What are the differences between general and special education teachers regarding their sense of self-efficacy in implementing inclusive practices and their perceptions about attitudes and collaboration?

Table 59 presents the results of the independent samples t-test that were conducted between the factors and where the participants are teaching at. Before the analysis, the categories "Special Education-Parallel Support" and "Special Education-Integration class" were grouped into the category "Special Education". The results show that there were statistically significant differences in the means for the factors "Efficacy to use inclusive instructions" ($t(263)=-6,233$, $p<0,001$), "Efficacy in collaboration" ($t(263)=-5,502$, $p<0,001$), "Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors" ($t(263)=-3,543$, $p<0,001$), "Advantages of Inclusive Education" ($t(263)=-5,024$, $p<0,001$), "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" ($t(231,329)=-13,196$, $p<0,001$), "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" ($t(263)=-2,919$, $p=0,004$), "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education" ($t(235,975)=-5,698$, $p<0,001$), "Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations" ($t(253,583)=-3,789$, $p<0,001$), "The result of working with the final adjustments" ($t(263)=-2,559$, $p=0,011$) and "Practical reasons as obstacle s in cooperation" ($t(263)=3,185$, $p=0,002$).

Table 59: Factors*Teaching at, independent samples t-test

Factor	t	df	p-value
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	-6,233	263	**<0,001**
Efficacy in collaboration	-5,502	263	**<0,001**
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	-3,543	263	**<0,001**
Advantages of Inclusive Education	-5,024	263	**<0,001**
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	-13,196	231,329	**<0,001**
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	-2,919	263	**0,004**
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	-5,698	235,975	**<0,001**
Collaboration for timely information	-0,626	263	0,532
Collaboration for teaching	-1,739	263	0,083
Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations	-3,789	253,583	**<0,001**
The result of working with the final adjustments	-2,559	263	**0,011**
Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation	3,185	263	**0,002**
Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation	0,579	263	0,563

Specifically, from Table 60 (and Graphs 59-68) arises that:

- For the factor "Efficacy to use inclusive instructions", the mean value of the participants teaching at general education (M=4,58) was statistically lower (t (263) =-6,233, p<0,001) than the mean of those teaching at special education (M=4,99).
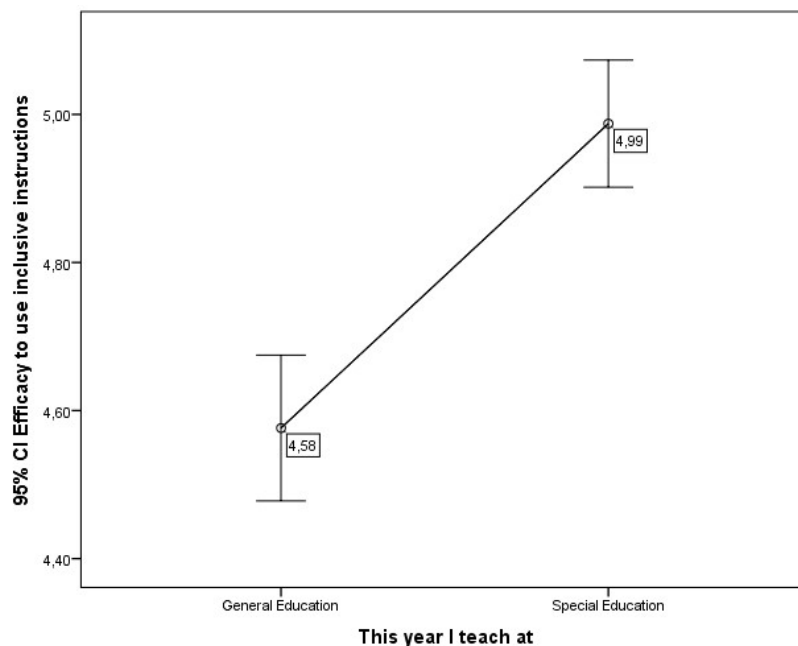
Graph 59: Errorbar "Efficacy to use inclusive instructions" *Teaching at

- For the factor "Efficacy in collaboration", the mean value of the participants teaching at general education (M=4,33) was statistically lower (t (263) =-5,502, p<0,001), than the mean of those teaching at special education (M=4,75).
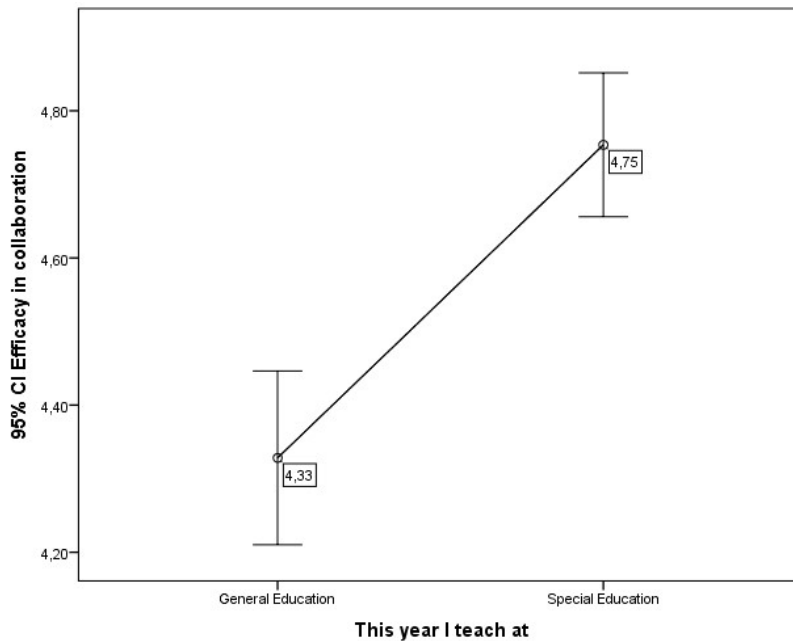
Graph 60: Errorbar "Efficacy in collaboration" *Teaching at

- For the factor "Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors", the mean value of the participants teaching at general education (M=4,32) was statistically lower (t (263) =-3,543, p<0,001), than the mean of those teaching at special education (M=4,58).
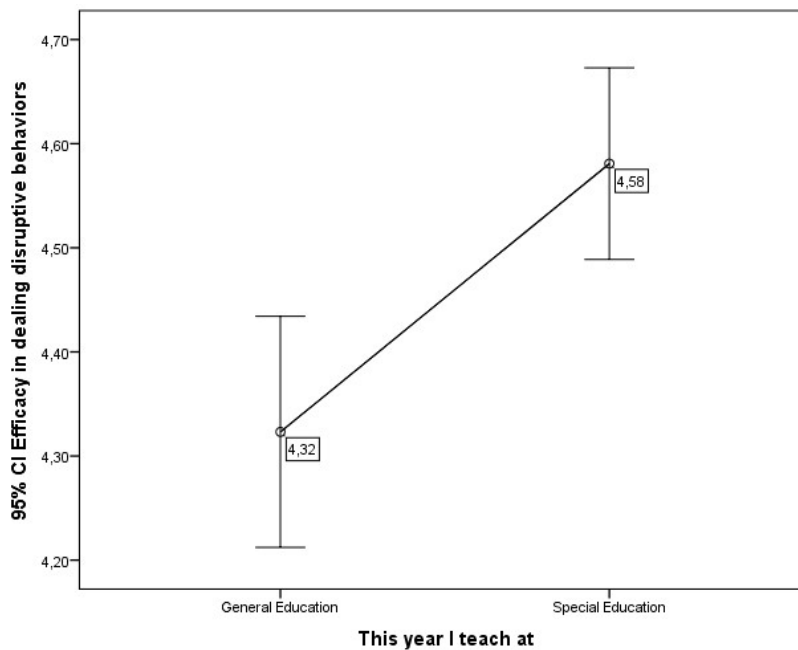
Graph 61: Errorbar "Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors" *Teaching at

- For the factor "Advantages of Inclusive Education", the mean value of the participants teaching at general education (M=3,11) was statistically lower (t (263) =-5,024, p<0,001), than the mean of those teaching at special education (M=3,57).
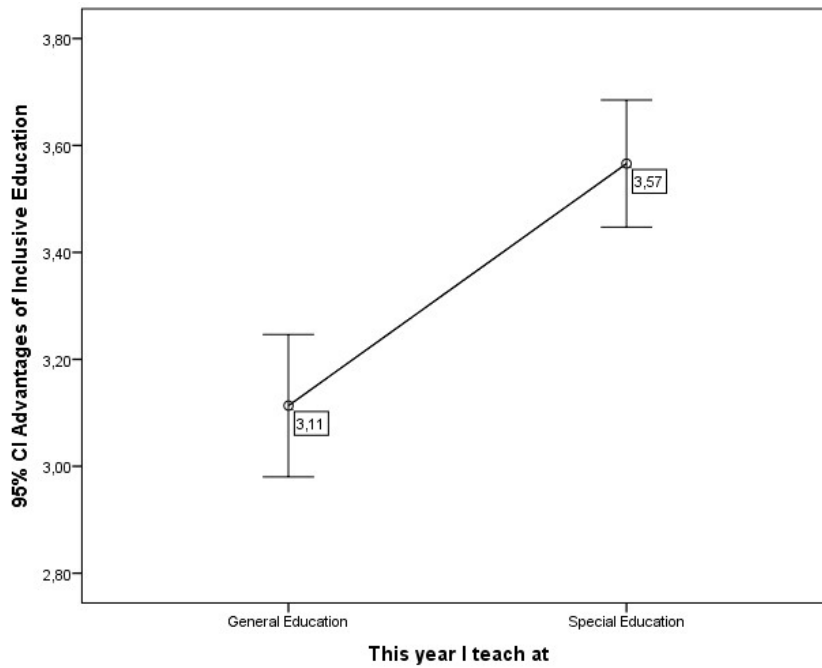
Graph 62: Errorbar "Advantages of Inclusive Education" *Teaching at

- For the factor "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education", the mean value of the participants teaching at general education (M=2,79) was statistically lower (t (231,329) =-13,196, p<0,001) than the mean of those teaching at special education (M=3,97).
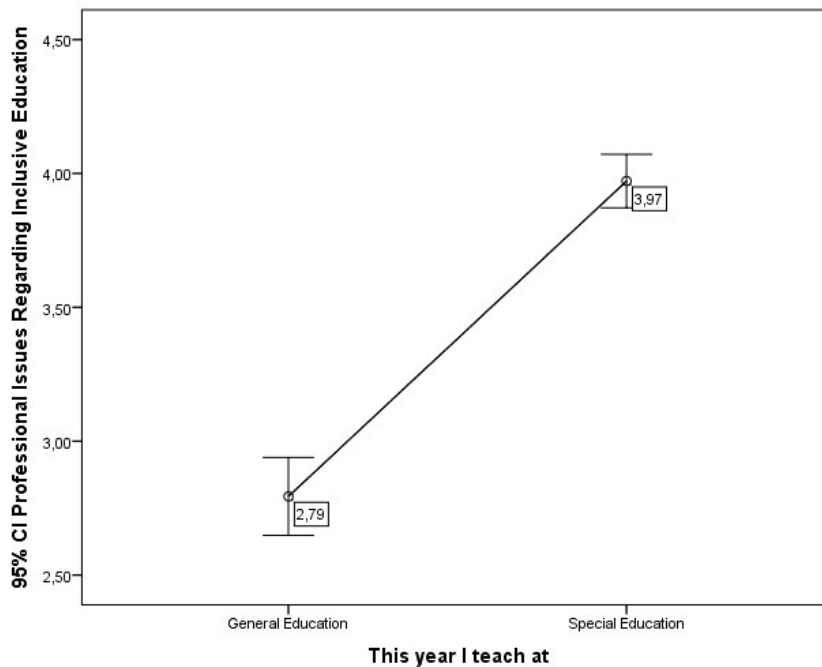
Graph 63: Errorbar "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" *Teaching at

- For the factor "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education", the mean value of the participants teaching at general education (M=3,89) was statistically lower (t (263) =-2,919, p=0,004) than the mean of those teaching at special education (M=4,13).
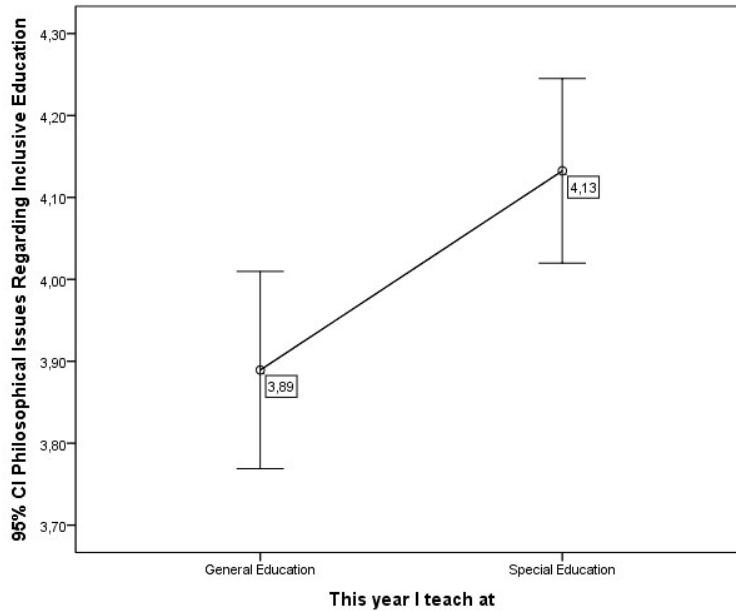
Graph 64: Errorbar "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" *Teaching at

- For the factor "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education", the mean value of the participants teaching at general education (M=3,49) was statistically lower (t (235,975) =-5,698, p<0,001), than the mean of those teaching at special education (M=3,99).
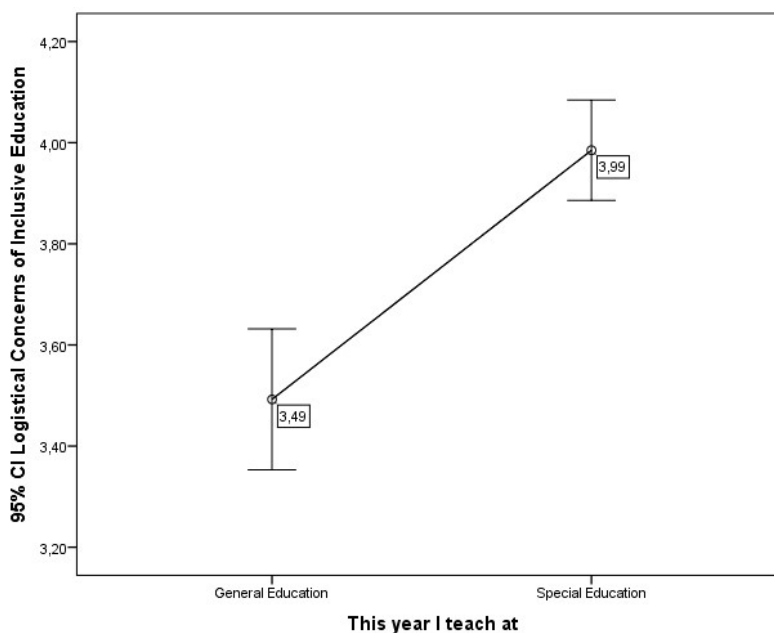
Graph 65: Errorbar "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education" *Teaching at

- For the factor "Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations", the mean value of the participants teaching at general education (M=6,05) was statistically lower (t (253,583) =-3,789, p<0,001), than the mean of those teaching at special education (M=6,56).
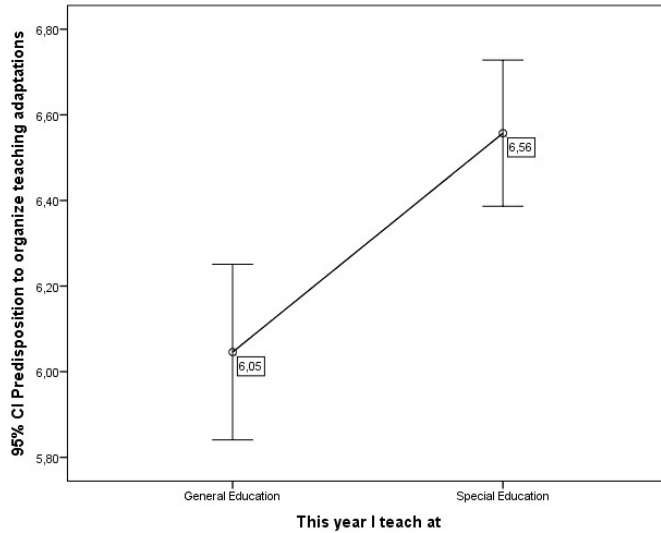
Graph 66: Errorbar "Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations" *Teaching at

- For the factor "The result of working with the final adjustments", the mean value of the participants teaching at general education (M=5,56) was statistically lower (t(263)=-2,559, p=0,011) than the mean of those teaching at special education (M=6,01).
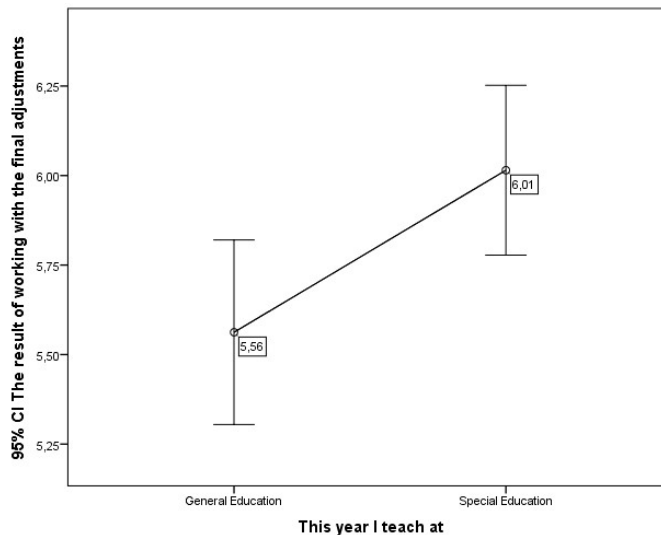
Graph 67: Errorbar "The result of working with the final adjustments" *Teaching at

- For the factor "Practical reasons as obstacle s in cooperation", the mean value of the participants teaching at general education (M=5,55) was statistically greater(t(263)=3,185, p=0,002) than the mean of those teaching at special education (M=4,90).
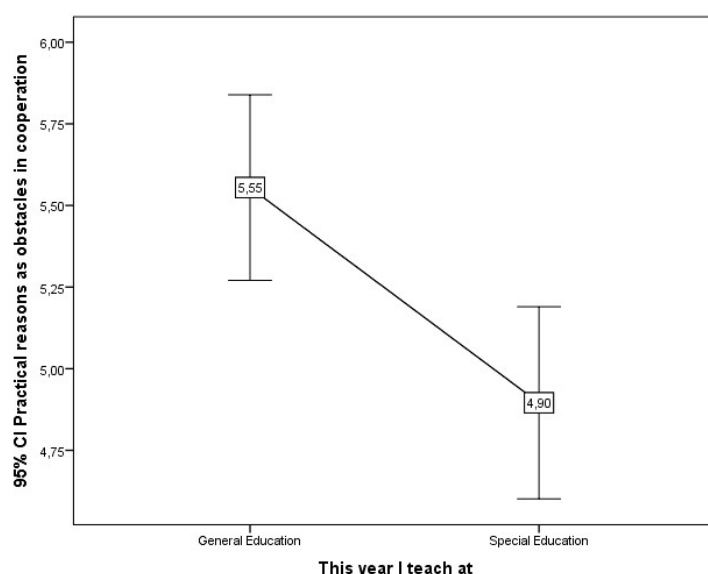
Graph 68: Errorbar "Practical reasons as obstacle s in cooperation" *Working at

Table 60: Factors*Teaching at, independent samples t-test (statistically significant results)

Factor	Teaching at	N	M	t	df	p
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	General Education	131	4,58	-6,233	263	**<0,001**
	Special Education	134	4,99			
Efficacy in collaboration	General Education	131	4,33	-5,502	263	**<0,001**
	Special Education	134	4,75			
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	General Education	131	4,32	-3,543	263	**<0,001**
	Special Education	134	4,58			
Advantages of Inclusive Education	General Education	131	3,11	-5,024	263	**<0,001**
	Special Education	134	3,57			
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	General Education	131	2,79	-13,196	231,329	**<0,001**
	Special Education	134	3,97			
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	General Education	131	3,89	-2,919	263	**0,004**
	Special Education	134	4,13			
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	General Education	131	3,49	-5,698	235,975	**<0,001**
	Special Education	134	3,99			
Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations	General Education	131	6,05	-3,789	253,583	**<0,001**
	Special Education	134	6,56			
The result of working with the final adjustments	General Education	131	5,56	-2,559	263	**0,011**
	Special Education	134	6,01			
Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation	General Education	131	5,55	3,185	263	**0,002**
	Special Education	134	4,90			

8.2.5 5th Research Question

What is the effect of demographic factors on general and special education teachers' sense of self-efficacy in implementing inclusive practices and on the formation of perceptions about attitudes and collaboration?

i.Gender

Table 61 presents the results of the independent samples t-test that were conducted between the factors and the participants' gender. The results show that there were statistically significant differences in the means for the factors "Advantages of Inclusive Education" (t (99,346) =-3,948, p<0,001) and "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" (t (94,692) =-2,836, p=0,006<0,01).

Table 61: Factors*Teaching at, independent samples t-test

Factor	t	df	p-value
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	-0,203	263	0,839
Efficacy in collaboration	1,000	263	0,318
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	1,633	263	0,104
Advantages of Inclusive Education	-3,948	99,346	**<0,001**
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	-0,917	263	0,360
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	-2,836	94,692	**0,006**
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	-0,933	263	0,352
Collaboration for timely information	-1,981	94,919	0,050
Collaboration for teaching	-0,289	263	0,773
Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations	-1,425	263	0,155
The result of working with the final adjustments	0,340	140,801	0,734
Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation	-1,127	263	0,261
Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation	-1,787	263	0,075

Specifically, from Table 62 (and Graphs 69-70) arises that:

- For the factor "Advantages of Inclusive Education", the mean value of males (M=3,00) was statistically lower (t (99,346) =-3,948, p<0,001) than the mean of females (M=3,46).
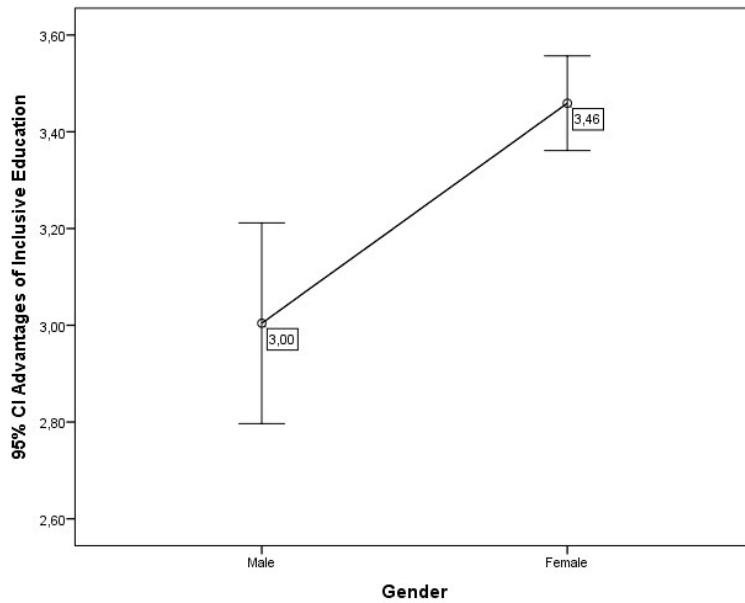
Graph 69: Errorbar "Advantages of Inclusive Education" *Gender

- For the factor "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education", the mean value of males (M=3,78) was statistically lower (t (94,692) =-2,836, p=0,006<0,01) than the mean of females (M=4,09).
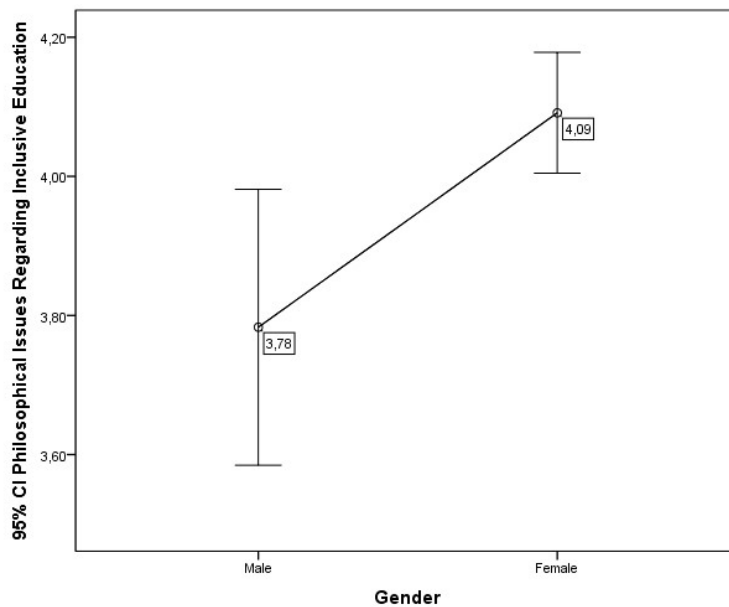
Graph 70: Errorbar "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" *Gender

Table 62: Factors*Gender, independent samples t-test (statistically significant results)

Factor	Gender	N	M	t	df	p
Advantages of Inclusive Education	Male	68	3,00	-3,948	99,346	**<0,001**
	Female	197	3,46			
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	Male	68	3,78	-2,836	94,692	**0,006**
	Female	197	4,09			

Table 63 presents the results of the ANOVA & Kruskal-Wallis tests that were conducted between the factors and the participants' age. The results show that there were statistically significant differences in the means of the factors "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" ($F(5,259)=6,620$, $p<0,001$), "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education" ($F(5,259)=2,875$, $p=0,015<0,05$), "The result of working with the final adjustments" ($F(5,259)=3,626$, $p=0,003<0,01$) and "Personal reasons as obstacle s in cooperation" ($F(5,259)=3,877$, $p=0,002<0,01$), while where were statistically significant differences in the mean ranks of the factors "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" ($H(5)=13,137$, $p=0,022<0,05$) and "Practical reasons as obstacle s in cooperation" ($H(5)=12,089$, $p=0,034<0,05$).

Table 63: Factors*Age, ANOVA & Kruskal-Wallis (statistically significant results)

Factor	Statistic	p	test
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	H (5) =4,713	0,452	K-W
Efficacy in collaboration	F (5,259) =0,652	0,660	ANOVA
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	F (5,259) =1,071	0,377	ANOVA
Advantages of Inclusive Education	F (5,259) =1,529	0,181	ANOVA
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	F (5,259) =6,620	**<0,001**	ANOVA
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	H (5) =13,137	**0,022**	K-W
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	F (5,259) =2,875	**0,015**	ANOVA
Collaboration for timely information	H (5) =9,019	0,108	K-W
Collaboration for teaching	F (5,259) =1,383	0,231	ANOVA
Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations	F (5,259) =1,380	0,232	ANOVA
The result of working with the final adjustments	F (5,259) =3,626	**0,003**	ANOVA
Practical reasons as obstacle s in cooperation	H (5) =12,089	**0,034**	K-W
Personal reasons as obstacle s in cooperation	F (5,259) =3,877	**0,002**	ANOVA

- From Tables 64-65 (and Graph 71) arises that in the factor "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" the mean of the participants with age 22-30 (M=4,02) was statistically greater than the mean of those with age 41-45 (M=3,32, p=0,024), 46-50 (M=3,11, p=0,002) and 51+ (M=3,06, p<0,001). Also, the mean of the participants with age 31-35 (M=3,82) was statistically greater than the mean of those with age 46-50 (M=3,11, p=0,010) and 51+ (M=3,06, p<0,001). Finally, the mean of the participants with age 36-40 (M=3,60) was statistically greater than the mean of those with age 51+ (M=3,06, p=0,006).

Table 64: "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" *Age, ANOVA (statistically significant results)

Factor	Age	N	M	df1	df2	F	p
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	22-30	11	4,02	5	259	6,620	**<0,001**
	31-35	44	3,82				
	36-40	55	3,60				
	41-45	45	3,32				
	46-50	37	3,11				
	51+	73	3,06				

Table 65: "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" *Age, Games-Howell post hoc

Factor	Age (I)	Age (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	P
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	22-30	31-35	0,20	0,859
		36-40	0,42	0,187
		41-45	0,69*	**0,024**
		46-50	0,91*	**0,002**
		51+	0,96*	**<0,001**
	31-35	22-30	-0,20	0,859
		36-40	0,23	0,663
		41-45	0,50	0,112
		46-50	0,71*	**0,010**
		51+	0,77*	**<0,001**
	36-40	22-30	-0,42	0,187
		31-35	-0,23	0,663
		41-45	0,27	0,731
		46-50	0,48	0,181
		51+	0,54*	**0,006**
	41-45	22-30	-0,69*	**0,024**
		31-35	-0,50	0,112
		36-40	-0,27	0,731
		46-50	0,21	0,947
		51+	0,27	0,730
	46-50	22-30	-0,91*	**0,002**
		31-35	-0,71*	**0,010**
		36-40	-0,48	0,181
		41-45	-0,21	0,947
		51+	0,06	1,000
	51+	22-30	-0,96*	**<0,001**
		31-35	-0,77*	**<0,001**
		36-40	-0,54*	**0,006**
		41-45	-0,27	0,730
		46-50	-0,06	1,000
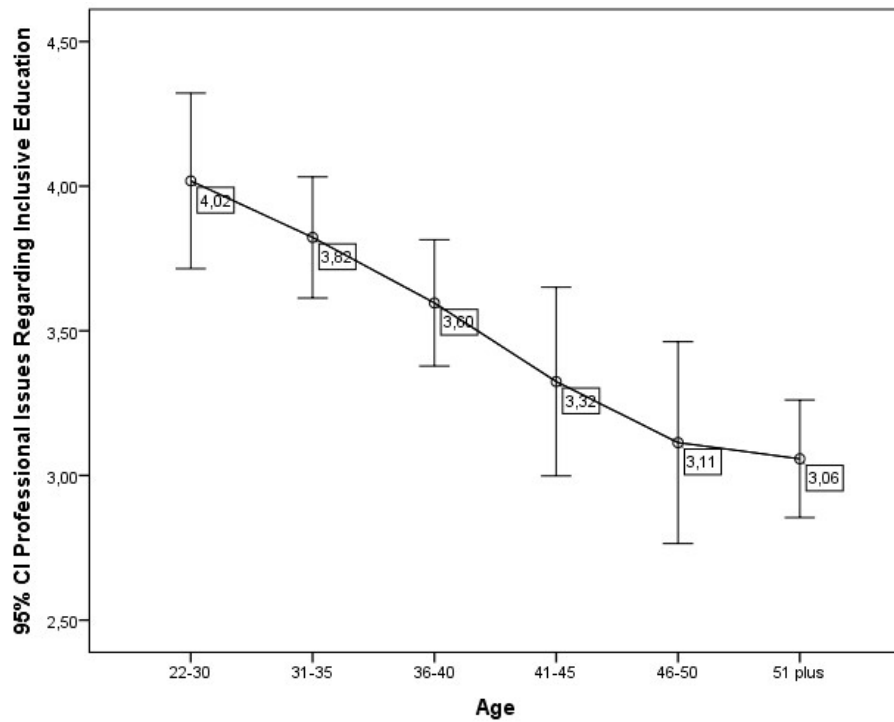
Graph 71: Means plot "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" *Age

- From Tables 66-67 (and Graph 72) arises that in the factor "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education" the mean of the participants with age 46-50 (M=3,41) was statistically significantly lower than the mean of those with age 22-30 (M=4,09, p=0,054) and 51+ (M=3,84, p=0,084) in a 90% confidence interval.

Table 66: "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education" *Age, ANOVA (statistically significant results)

Factor	Age	N	M	df1	df2	F	p
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	22-30	11	4,09	5	259	2,875	**0,015**
	31-35	44	3,82				
	36-40	55	3,82				
	41-45	45	3,59				
	46-50	37	3,41				
	51+	73	3,84				

Table 67: "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education" *Age, Games-Howell post hoc (c.i. 90%)

Factor	Age(I)	Age(J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	P
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	22-30	31-35	0,27	0,793
		36-40	0,27	0,704
		41-45	0,50	0,264
		46-50	0,68*	**0,054**
		51+	0,25	0,751
	31-35	22-30	-0,27	0,793
		36-40	0,00	1,000
		41-45	0,22	0,844
		46-50	0,41	0,268
		51+	-0,02	1,000
	36-40	22-30	-0,27	0,704
		31-35	0,00	1,000
		41-45	0,23	0,699
		46-50	0,41	0,108
		51+	-0,02	1,000
	41-45	22-30	-0,50	0,264
		31-35	-0,22	0,844
		36-40	-0,23	0,699
		46-50	0,18	0,942
		51+	-0,24	0,632
	46-50	22-30	-0,68*	**0,054**
		31-35	-0,41	0,268
		36-40	-0,41	0,108
		41-45	-0,18	0,942
		51+	-0,43*	**0,084**
	51+	22-30	-0,25	0,751
		31-35	0,02	1,000
		36-40	0,02	1,000
		41-45	0,24	0,632
		46-50	0,43*	**0,084**
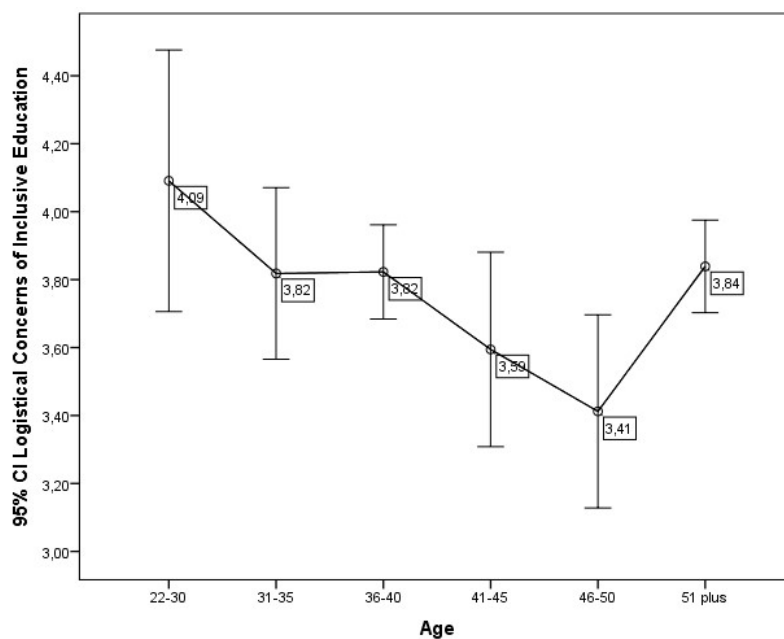
Graph 72: Means plot "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education" *Age

- From Tables 68-69 (and Graph 73) arises that in the factor "The result of working with the final adjustments" the mean of the participants with age 22-30 (M=4,88) was statistically significantly lower than the mean of those with age 36-40 (M=5,92, p=0,027), 41-45 (M=6,27, p=0,004) and 46-50 (M=6,16, p=0,009). Also, the mean of the participants with age 51+ (M=5,41) was statistically less than the mean of those with age 36-40 (M=5,92, p=0,043), 41-45 (M=6,27, p=0,002) and 46-50 (M=6,16, p=0,009).

Table 68: "The result of working with the final adjustments" *Age, ANOVA (statistically significant results)

Factor	Age	N	M	df1	df2	F	p
The result of working with the final adjustments	22-30	11	4,88	5	259	3,626	**0,003**
	31-35	44	5,70				
	36-40	55	5,92				
	41-45	45	6,27				
	46-50	37	6,16				
	51+	73	5,41				

Table 69: "The result of working with the final adjustments" *Age, LSD post hoc

Factor	Age (I)	Age (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	P
The result of working with the final adjustments	22-30	31-35	-0,82	0,089
		36-40	-1,04*	**0,027**
		41-45	-1,39*	**0,004**
		46-50	-1,28*	**0,009**
		51+	-0,53	0,252
	31-35	22-30	0,82	0,089
		36-40	-0,22	0,436
		41-45	-0,57	0,060
		46-50	-0,47	0,143
		51+	0,29	0,285
	36-40	22-30	1,04*	**0,027**
		31-35	0,22	0,436
		41-45	-0,35	0,227
		46-50	-0,24	0,426
		51+	0,52*	**0,043**
	41-45	22-30	1,39*	**0,004**
		31-35	0,57	0,060
		36-40	0,35	0,227
		46-50	0,10	0,740
		51+	0,86*	**0,002**
	46-50	22-30	1,28*	**0,009**
		31-35	0,47	0,143
		36-40	0,24	0,426
		41-45	-0,10	0,740
		51+	0,76*	**0,009**
	51+	22-30	0,53	0,252
		31-35	-0,29	0,285
		36-40	-0,52*	**0,043**
		41-45	-0,86*	**0,002**
		46-50	-0,76*	**0,009**
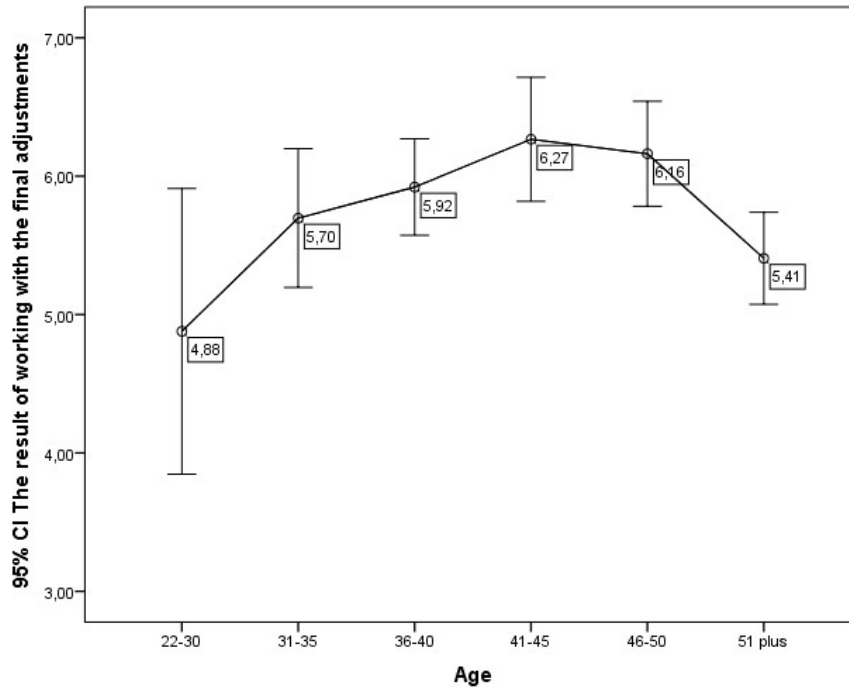
Graph 73: Means plot "The result of working with the final adjustments" *Age

- From Tables 70-71 (and Graph 74) arises that in the factor "Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation" the mean of the participants with age 51+ (M=3,72) was statistically significantly lower than the mean of those with age 31-35 (M=4,59, p=0,026), 36-40 (M=5,21, p<0,001) and 41-45 (M=4,50, p=0,046). Also, the mean of the participants with age 46-50 (M=3,91) was statistically significantly lower than the mean of those with age 36-40 (M=5,21, p=0,003).

Table 70: "Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation" *Age, ANOVA ((statistically significant results)

Factor	Age	N	M	df1	df2	F	p
Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation	22-30	11	4,36	5	259	3,877	**0,002**
	31-35	44	4,59				
	36-40	55	5,21				
	41-45	45	4,50				
	46-50	37	3,91				
	51+	73	3,72				

Table 71: "Personal reasons as obstacle in cooperation" *Age, LSD post hoc

Factor	Age (I)	Age (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	P
Personal reasons as obstacle s in cooperation	22-30	31-35	-0,23	0,741
		36-40	-0,85	0,208
		41-45	-0,13	0,847
		46-50	0,45	0,517
		51+	0,64	0,330
	31-35	22-30	0,23	0,741
		36-40	-0,62	0,133
		41-45	0,09	0,827
		46-50	0,68	0,135
		51+	0,87*	**0,026**
	36-40	22-30	0,85	0,208
		31-35	0,62	0,133
		41-45	0,72	0,082
		46-50	1,30*	**0,003**
		51+	1,49*	**<0,001**
	41-45	22-30	0,13	0,847
		31-35	-0,09	0,827
		36-40	-0,72	0,082
		46-50	0,59	0,196
		51+	0,78*	**0,046**
	46-50	22-30	-0,45	0,517
		31-35	-0,68	0,135
		36-40	-1,30*	**0,003**
		41-45	-0,59	0,196
		51+	0,19	0,647
	51+	22-30	-0,64	0,330
		31-35	-0,87*	**0,026**
		36-40	-1,49*	**<0,001**
		41-45	-0,78*	**0,046**
		46-50	-0,19	0,647
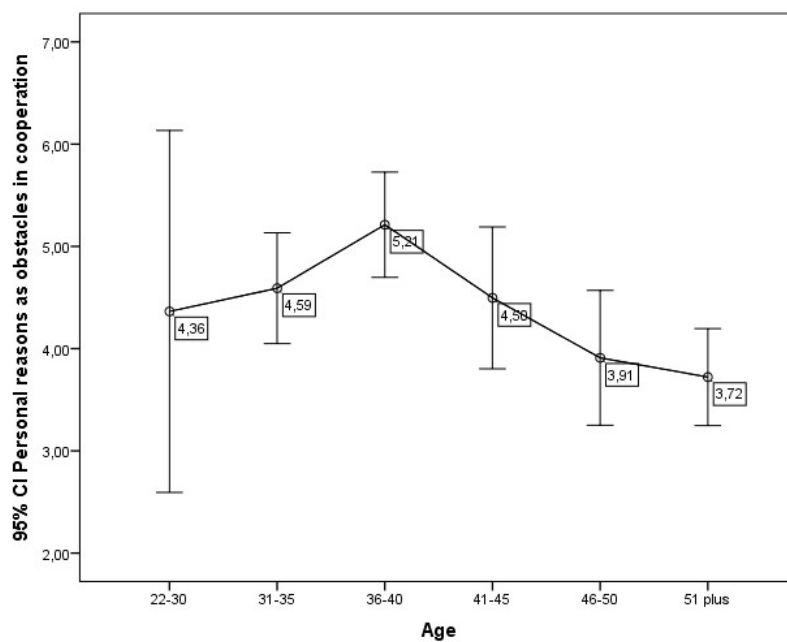
Graph 74: Means plot "Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation" *Age

- From Table 72 (Graph 75) arises that in the factor "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" the mean rank of the participants with age 46-50 (M.R.=113,19) was statistically significantly lower than the mean rank of those with age 22-30 (M.R.=185,41, p=0,005) and 36-40 (M.R.=148,91, p=0,026). Also, the mean rank of the participants with age 51+ (M.R.=121,09) was statistically significantly lower than the mean rank of those with age 22-30 (M.R.=185,41, p=0,008) and 36-40 (M.R.=148,91, p=0,039). Finally, the mean rank of the participants with age 41-45 (M.R.=126,93) was statistically significantly lower than the mean rank of those with age 22-30(M.R.=185,41, p= 0,021).

Table 72: "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" *Age, Kruskal-Wallis (statistically significant results)

Factor	Age	N	Mean Rank	df	H	p
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	22-30	11	185,41	5	13,137	**0,022**
	31-35	44	142,64			
	36-40	55	148,91			
	41-45	45	126,93			
	46-50	37	113,19			
	51+	73	121,09			
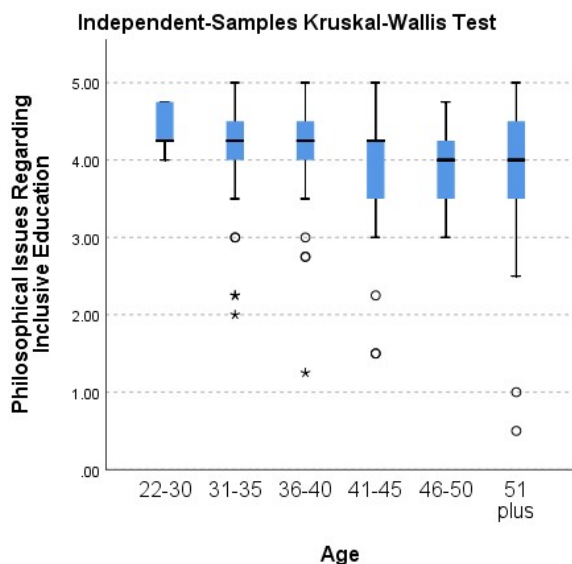
Graph 75: Boxplot "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" *Age

- From Table 73 (Graph 76) arises that in the factor "Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation" the mean rank of the participants with age 46-50 (M.R.=108,62) was statistically significantly lower than the mean rank of those with age 36-40 (M.R.=141,71, p=0,042) and 41-45 (M.R.=157,68, p=0,004). Also, the mean rank

of the participants with age 31-35 (M.R.=113,50) was statistically significantly lower than the mean rank of those with age 41-45 (M.R.=157,68, p=0,006).

Table 73: "Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation" *Age, Kruskal-Wallis (statistically significant results)

Factor	Age	N	Mean Rank	df	H	p
Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation	22-30	11	135,55	5	12,089	**0,034**
	31-35	44	113,50			
	36-40	55	141,71			
	41-45	45	157,68			
	46-50	37	108,62			
	51+	73	134,95			
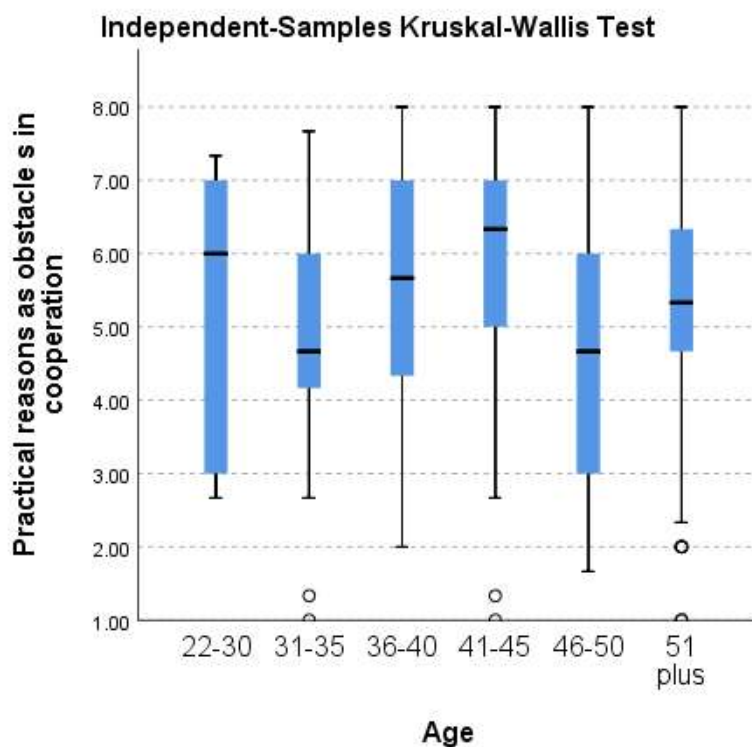
Graph 76: Boxplot "Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation" *Age

iii. Child with SEN at home

Table 74 presents the results of the independent samples t-test and Mann Whitney that were conducted between the factors and whether the participants have a child with SEN at home or not. The results show that there were statistically significant differences in the means for the factor "Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors" (t (263) =2,276, p=0,024<0,05).

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Table 74: Factors*Child with SEN at home, independent samples t-test and Mann Whitney

Factor	Statistic	p	test
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	t (263) =1,489	0,138	t-test
Efficacy in collaboration	t (263) =1,348	0,179	t-test
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	t (263) =2,276	**0,024**	t-test
Advantages of Inclusive Education	U=2754,5	0,500	M-W
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	t (263) =0,916	0,361	t-test
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	U=2556,5	0,217	M-W
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	t (263) =0,131	0,896	t-test
Collaboration for timely information	U=2596,5	0,263	M-W
Collaboration for teaching	U=2,930	0,848	M-W
Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations	t (263) = -0,581	0,562	t-test
The result of working with the final adjustments	t (263) = -0,401	0,689	t-test
Practical reasons as obstacle s in cooperation	U=2955,5	0,903	M-W
Personal reasons as obstacle s in cooperation	t (263) =0,703	0,482	t-test

Specifically, from Table 75 (and Graph 77) arises that:

For the factor "Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors", the mean value of the participants that have a child with SEN at home (M=4,71) was statistically greater (t (263) =2,276, p=0,024<0,05) than the mean of the participants that don't have one (M=4,43).

Table 75: Factors*Child with SEN at home, independent samples t-test (statistically significant results)

Factor	Child with SEN at home	N	M	t	df	p
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	Yes	25	4,71	2,276	263	**0,024**
	No	240	4,43			
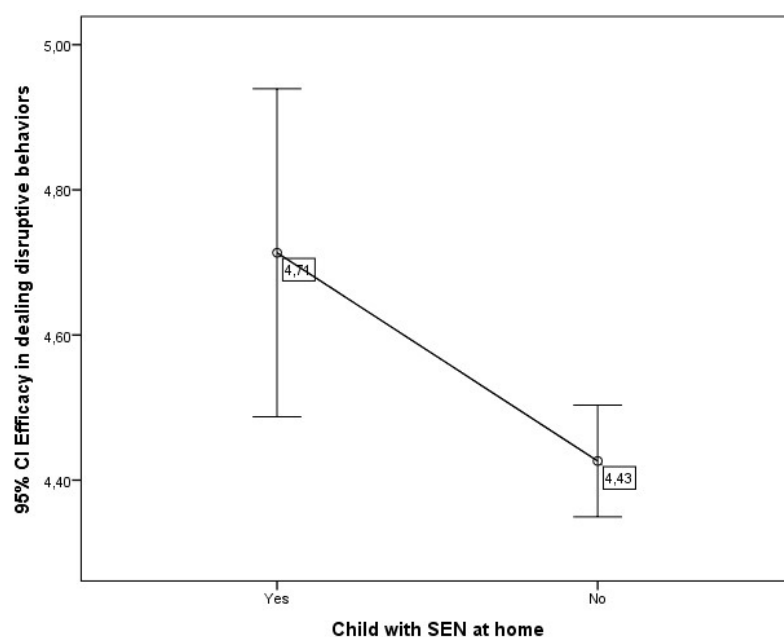
Graph 77: Errorbar "Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors" *Child with SEN at home

Table 76 presents the results of the Kruskal-Wallis tests that were conducted between the factors and the region in which the participants work. The results show that there were statistically significant differences in the mean ranks of the factors "Advantages of Inclusive Education" (H (12) =27,801, p=0,006), "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" (H (12) =40,235, p<0,001) and "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education" (H (12) =21,520, p=0,043).

Table 76: Factors*Region, Kruskal-Wallis

Factor	H (12)	p
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	14,305	0,282
Efficacy in collaboration	19,315	0,081
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	9,357	0,672
Advantages of Inclusive Education	27,801	**0,006**
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	14,143	0,292
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	40,235	**<0,001**
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	21,520	**0,043**
Collaboration for timely information	7,805	0,800
Collaboration for teaching	12,432	0,412
Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations	4,920	0,961
The result of working with the final adjustments	9,534	0,657
Practical reasons as obstacle s in cooperation	16,088	0,187
Personal reasons as obstacle s in cooperation	9,215	0,684

- From Table 77 (Graphs 78) arises that in the factor "Advantages of Inclusive Education", the mean rank of the teachers that work at the Ionian Islands (M.R.=90,33) was statistically significantly lower than the mean rank of those that work at Attica (M.R.=163,74, p=0,009), Crete (M.R.=171,20, p=0,021), Epirus (M.R.=173,17, p=0,014) and North Aegean (M.R.=177,30, p=0,041). Also, the mean rank of the teachers that work at Peloponnese (M.R.=96,74) was statistically significantly lower than the mean rank of those that work at Central Greece (M.R.=129,35, p=0,037), Attica (M.R.=163,74, p=0,001), Crete (M.R.=171,20, p=0,011), Epirus (M.R.=173,17, p=0,006) and North Aegean (M.R.=177,30, p=0,034). In addition, the mean rank of the teachers that work at West Macedonia (M.R.=98,31) was statistically significantly lower than the mean rank of those that work at Central Greece (M.R.=129,30, p=0,045), Attica (M.R.=163,75, p=0,001), Crete (M.R.=171,20 p=0,013), Epirus (M.R.=173,17, p=0,007) and North Aegean (M.R.=177,30, p=0,038). Finally, the mean rank of the teachers that work at Southern Aegean (M.R.=120,30) was statistically significantly lower than the mean

rank of those that work at Attica (M.R.=163,75 p=0,020) and Epirus (M.R.=173,17, p=0,045).

Table 77: "Advantages of Inclusive Education" *Region, Kruskal-Wallis (statistically significant results)

Factor	Region	N	Mean Rank	df	H	p
Advantages of Inclusive Education	Eastern Macedonia and Thrace	12	130,13	12	27,801	**0,006**
	Central Macedonia	30	129,35			
	West Macedonia	21	98,31			
	Epirus	12	173,17			
	Thessaly	10	125,30			
	Ionian Islands	9	90,33			
	West Greece	11	116,77			
	Central Greece	54	137,68			
	Attica	42	163,74			
	Peloponnese	21	96,74			
	North Aegean	5	177,30			
	Southern Aegean	28	120,30			
	Crete	10	171,20			
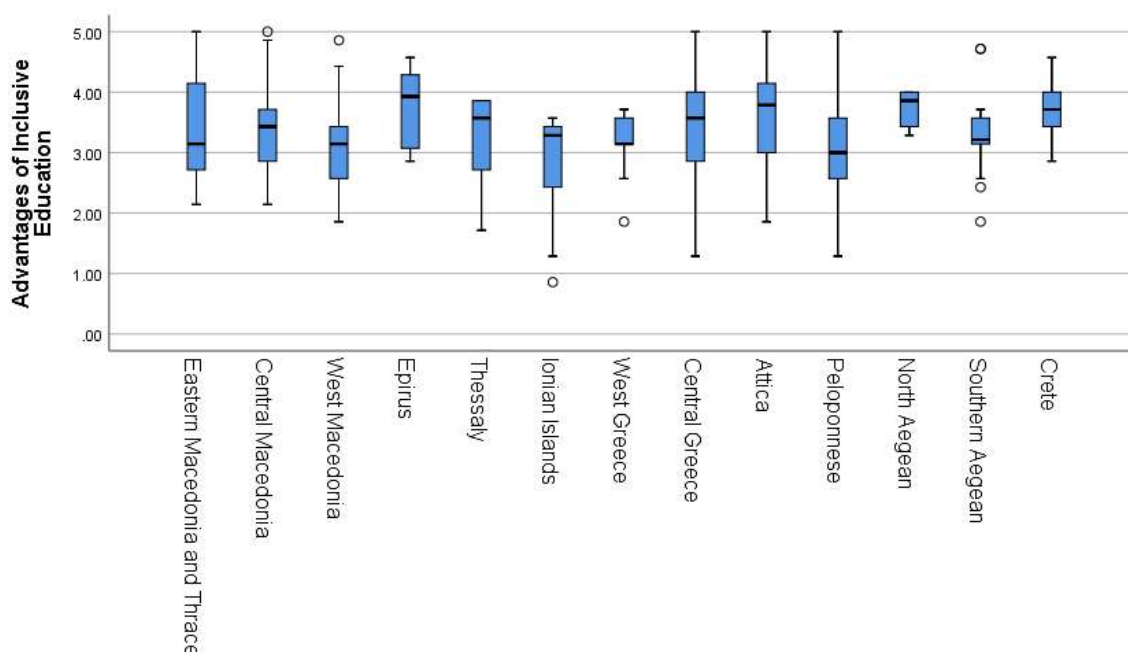
Graph 78: Boxplot "Advantages of Inclusive Education" *Region

- From Table 78 (Graphs 79) arises that in factor "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education", the mean rank of the teachers that work at the Ionian Islands (M.R.=64,28) was statistically significantly lower than the mean rank of those that work at Central Greece (M.R.=125,71, p=0,024), Peloponnese (M.R.=130,05, p=0,029), North Aegean (M.R.=150,10, p=0,041), West Greece (M.R.=162,68, p=0,004), Southern Aegean (M.R.=165,00, p<0,001), Attica (M.R.=166,64,

p<0,001) and Eastern Macedonia and Thrace (M.R.=171,13, p=0,001). Also, the mean rank of the teachers that work at Thessaly (M.R.=66,90) was statistically significantly lower than the mean rank of those that work at Central Greece (M.R.=125,71, p=0,024), Peloponnese (M.R.=130,05, p=0,029), North Aegean (M.R.=150,10, p=0,044), West Greece (M.R.=162,68, p=0,004), Southern Aegean (M.R.=165,00, p<0,001), Attica (M.R.=166,64, p<0,001) and Eastern Macedonia and Thrace (M.R.=171,13, p=0,001). In addition, the mean rank of the teachers that work at West Macedonia (M.R.=101,14) was statistically significantly lower than the mean rank of those that work at West Greece (M.R.=162,68, p=0,028), Southern Aegean (M.R.=165,00, p=0,003), Attica (M.R.=166,64, p=0,001) and Eastern Macedonia and Thrace (M.R.=171,13, p=0,010). The mean rank of the teachers that work at Crete (M.R.=111,95) was statistically significantly lower than the mean rank of those that work at Attica (M.R.=166,64, p=0,039). Furthermore, the mean rank of the teachers that work at Central Macedonia (M.R.=115,70) was statistically less than the mean rank of those that work at Southern Aegean (M.R.=165,00, p=0,013), Attica (M.R.=166,64, p=0,005) and Eastern Macedonia and Thrace (M.R.=171,13, p=0,031). Finally, the mean rank of the teachers that work at Central Greece (M.R.=125,71) was statistically less than the mean rank of those that work at Southern Aegean (M.R.=165,00, p=0,025) and Attica (M.R.=166,64, p=0,008).

Table 78: "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" *Region, Kruskal-Wallis (statistically significant results)

Factor	Region	N	Mean Rank	df	H	p
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	Eastern Macedonia and Thrace	12	171,13	12	40,235	**<0,001**
	Central Macedonia	30	115,70			
	West Macedonia	21	101,14			
	Epirus	12	129,25			
	Thessaly	10	66,90			
	Ionian Islands	9	64,28			
	West Greece	11	162,68			
	Central Greece	54	125,71			
	Attica	42	166,64			
	Peloponnese	21	130,05			
	North Aegean	5	150,10			
	Southern Aegean	28	165,00			
	Crete	10	111,95			
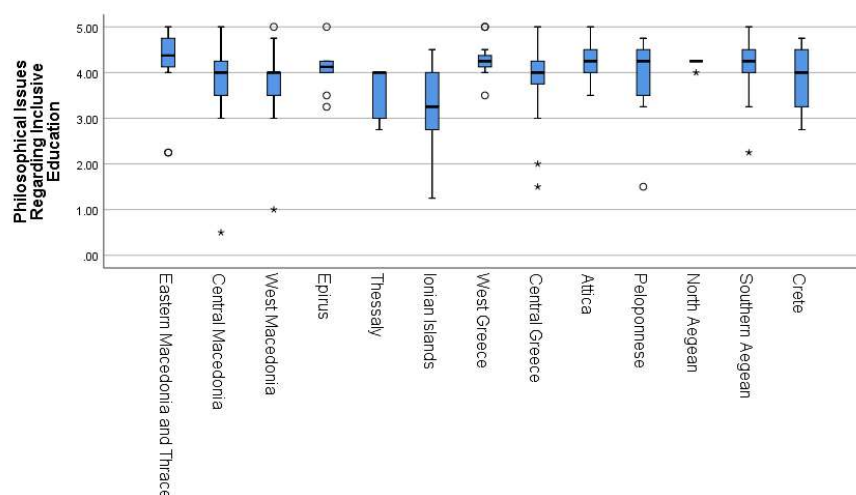
Graph 79: Boxplot "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" *Region

- From Table 79 (Graphs 80) arises that in the factor "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education", the mean rank of the teachers that work at Thessaly (M.R.=71,05) was statistically significantly lower than the mean rank of those that work at Attica (M.R.=132,77, p=0,021), Central Greece (M.R.=137,24, p=0,011), Eastern Macedonia and Thrace (M.R.=152,21, p=0,013), North Aegean (M.R.=153,10, p=0,049), Epirus (M.R.=154,42, p=0,010), Southern Aegean (M.R.=158,70, p=0,002) and West Greece (M.R.=122,90, p=0,002). Also, the mean rank of the teachers that work at Peloponnese (M.R.=71,05) was statistically significantly lower than the mean rank of those that work at Central Greece (M.R.=137,24, p=0,036), Eastern Macedonia and Thrace (M.R.=152,21, p=0,042), Epirus (M.R.=154,42, p=0,035), Southern Aegean (M.R.=158,70, p=0,004) and West Greece (M.R.=122,90, p=0,005).

Table 79: "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education" *Region, Kruskal-Wallis (statistically significant results)

Factor	Region	N	Mean Rank	df	H	p
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	Eastern Macedonia and Thrace	12	152,21	12	21,520	**0,043**
	Central Macedonia	30	123,75			
	West Macedonia	21	122,90			
	Epirus	12	154,42			
	Thessaly	10	71,05			
	Ionian Islands	9	132,22			
	West Greece	11	176,00			
	Central Greece	54	137,24			
	Attica	42	132,77			
	Peloponnese	21	96,33			
	North Aegean	5	153,10			
	Southern Aegean	28	158,70			
	Crete	10	121,60			
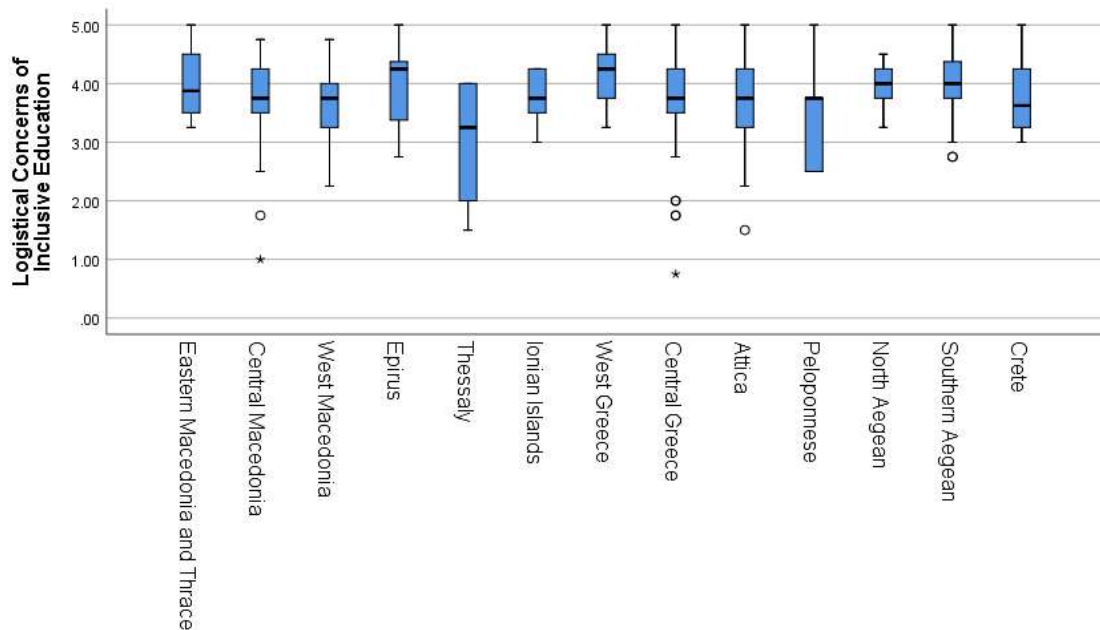
Graph 80: Boxplot "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education" *Region

v. Employment status

Table 80 presents the results of the independent samples t-test that were conducted between the factors and the employment status of the participants. The results show that there were statistically significant differences in the means for the factors "Advantages of Inclusive Education" (t(262)=-4,245, p<0,001), "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" (t(238,526)=-7,053, p<0,001), "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" (t(222,722)=-2,943, p=0,004), "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education" (t(229,040)=-2,137, p=0,034), "Collaboration for teaching" (t(236,878)=-2,357, p=0,019) and "Personal reasons as obstacle s in cooperation" (t(262)=-2,230, p=0,027).

Table 80: Factors*Employment status, independent samples t-test

Factor	t	df	p
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	-1,692	262	0,092
Efficacy in collaboration	-1,895	262	0,059
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	0,387	262	0,699
Advantages of Inclusive Education	-4,245	262	**<0,001**
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	-7,053	238,526	**<0,001**
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	-2,943	222,722	**0,004**
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	-2,137	229,040	**0,034**
Collaboration for timely information	0,389	261,571	0,698
Collaboration for teaching	-2,357	236,878	**0,019**
Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations	-1,494	262	0,136
The result of working with the final adjustments	-1,400	262	0,163
Practical reasons as obstacle s in cooperation	-1,043	262	0,298
Personal reasons as obstacle s in cooperation	-2,230	262	**0,027**

Specifically, from Table 81 (and Graphs 81-86) arises that:

- In the factor "Advantages of Inclusive Education", the mean value of the permanent teachers (M=3,14) was statistically lower (t (262) =-4,245, p<0,001), than the mean of the deputy teachers (M=3,52).
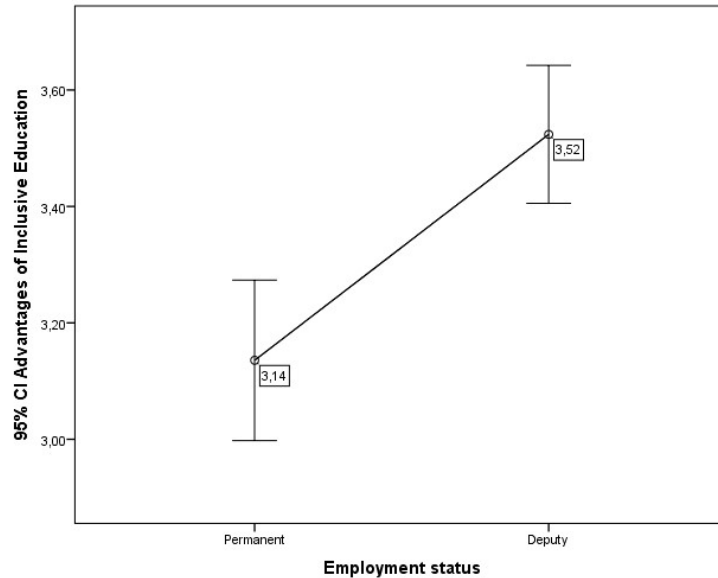
Graph 81: Errorbar "Advantages of Inclusive Education" *Employment status

- In the factor "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education", the mean value of the permanent teachers (M=2,99) was statistically lower (t (238,526) =-7,053, p<0,001), than the mean of the permanent teachers (M=3,74).
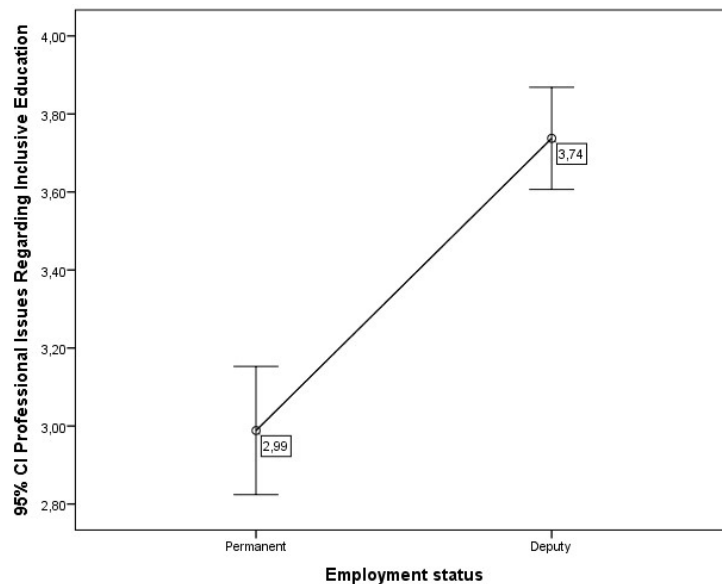
Graph 82: Errorbar "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" *Employment status

- In the factor "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education", the mean value of the permanent teachers (M=3,87) was statistically lower ((t (222,722) =-2,943, p=0,004), than the mean of the deputy teachers (M=4,13).
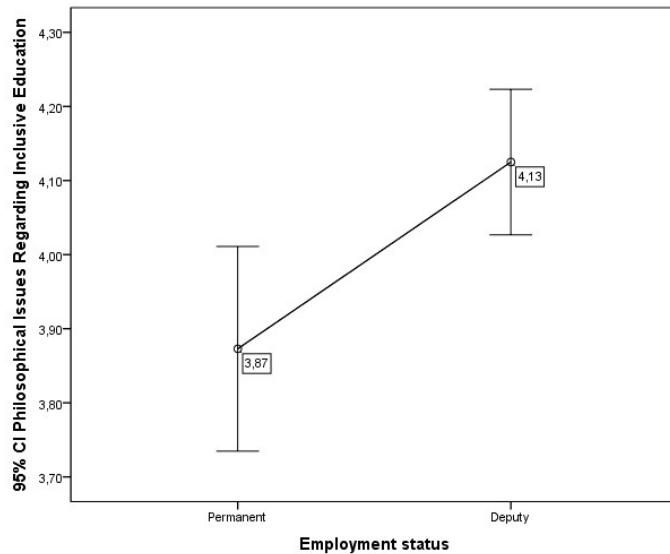
Graph 83: Errorbar "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" *Employment status

- In the factor "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education", the mean value of the permanent teachers (M=3,65) was statistically lower (t(229,040)=-2,137, p=0,034), than the mean of the deputy teachers (M=3,84).
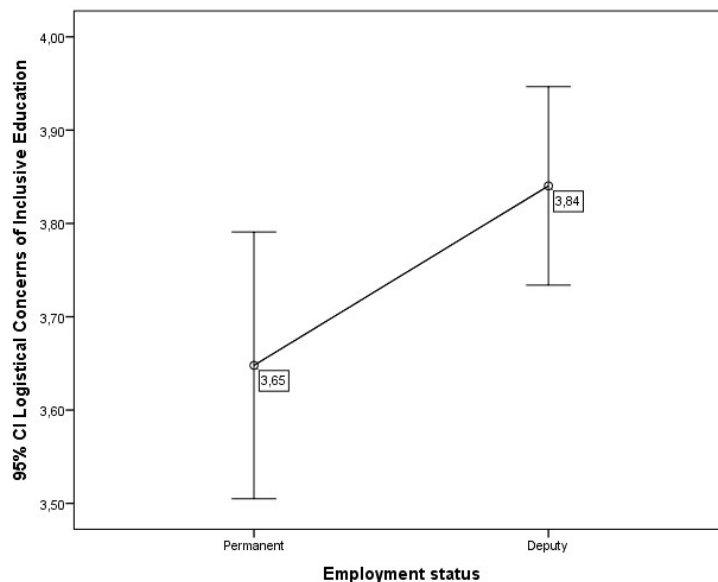
Graph 84: Errorbar "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education" *Employment status

- In the factor "Collaboration for teaching", the mean value of the permanent teachers (M=5,16) was statistically lower (t (236,878) =-2,357, p=0,019) than the mean of the permanent teachers (M=5,60).
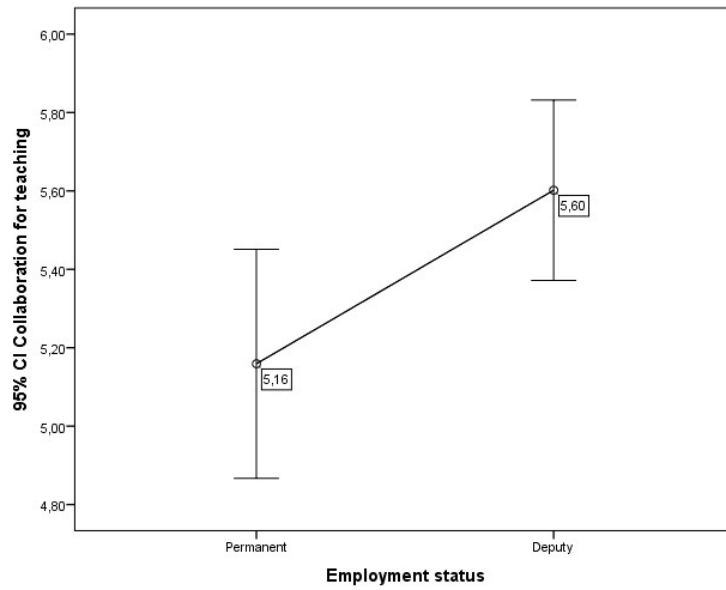
Graph 85: Errorbar "Collaboration for teaching" *Employment status

- In the factor "Collaboration for teaching", the mean value of the permanent teachers (M=4,05) was statistically lower (t(236,878)=-2,357, p=0,019) than the mean of the permanent teachers (M=4,62).
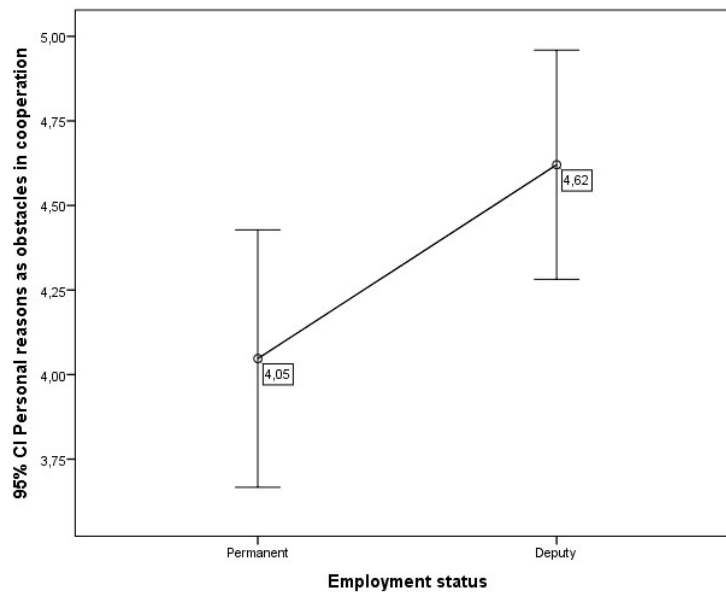
Graph 86: Errorbar "Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation" *Employment status

Table 81: Factors*Employment status, independent samples t-test (statistically significant results)

Factor	Employment status	N	M	t	df	p
Advantages of Inclusive Education	Permanent	120	3,14	-4,245	262	**<0,001**
	Deputy	144	3,52			
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	Permanent	120	2,99	-7,053	238,526	**<0,001**
	Deputy	144	3,74			
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	Permanent	120	3,87	-2,943	222,722	**0,004**
	Deputy	144	4,13			
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	Permanent	120	3,65	-2,137	229,040	**0,034**
	Deputy	144	3,84			
Collaboration for teaching	Permanent	120	5,16	-2,357	236,878	**0,019**
	Deputy	144	5,60			
Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation	Permanent	120	4,05	-2,230	262	**0,027**
	Deputy	144	4,62			

vi.Years of teaching experience in General Education

Table 82 presents the results of the ANOVA and Kruskal-Wallis tests that were conducted between the factors and the years of teaching experience that the participants had in General Education. The results show that there were statistically significant differences in the mean ranks of the factors "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" (H(5)=40,442, p<0,001), "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" (H(5)=17,014, p=0,004), "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education" (H(5)=12,318, p=0,031), "Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations" (H(5)=12,958, p=0,024), "Practical reasons as obstacle s in cooperation" (H(5)=14,039, p=0,015) and "Personal reasons as obstacle s in cooperation" (H(5)=14,437, p=0,013).

Table 82: Factors * Years of teaching experience in General Education, ANOVA and Kruskal Wallis

Factor	Statistic	p	test
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	F (5,208) =1,652	0,104	ANOVA
Efficacy in collaboration	H (5) =10,328	0,066	K-W
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	F (5,208) =1,215	0,303	ANOVA
Advantages of Inclusive Education	H (5) =6,616	0,251	K-W
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	H (5) =40,442	**<0,001**	K-W
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	H (5) =17,014	**0,004**	K-W
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	H (5) =12,318	**0,031**	K-W
Collaboration for timely information	H (5) =1,515	0,911	K-W
Collaboration for teaching	F (5,208) =1,352	0,244	ANOVA
Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations	H (5) =12,958	**0,024**	K-W
The result of working with the final adjustments	H (5) =4,853	0,434	K-W
Practical reasons as obstacle s in cooperation	H (5) =14,039	**0,015**	K-W
Personal reasons as obstacle s in cooperation	H (5) =14,437	**0,013**	K-W

- From Table 83 (Graph 87) arises that in the factor "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" the mean rank of the participants with 16-20 years of teaching experience in General Education (M.R.=71,42) was statistically significantly lower than the mean rank of those with 0-1 (M.R.=130,03, adj. p=0,001), 2-5 (M.R.=126,23, adj. p=0,021) and 6-10 years of experience (M.R.=143,52, adj. p=0,001). Also, the mean rank of the participants with over 20 years of teaching experience in General Education (M.R.=75,58) was statistically lower than the mean rank of those with 0-1 (M.R.=130,03, adj. p=0,007), 2-5 (M.R.=126,23, adj. p<0,001) and 6-10 years of experience (M.R.=143,52, adj. p<0,001). Finally, the mean rank of the participants with 11-15 years of teaching experience in General Education (M.R.=102,87) was statistically significantly lower than the mean rank of those with 6-10 years of experience (M.R.=143,52, p=0,025).

Table 83: "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" *Years of teaching experience in General Education, Kruskal-Wallis (statistically significant results)

Factor	Years	N	Mean Rank	df	H	p
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	0-1	62	130,03	5	40,442	**<0,001**
	2-5	28	126,23			
	6-10	21	143,52			
	11-15	26	102,87			
	16-20	24	71,42			
	over 20	53	75,58			
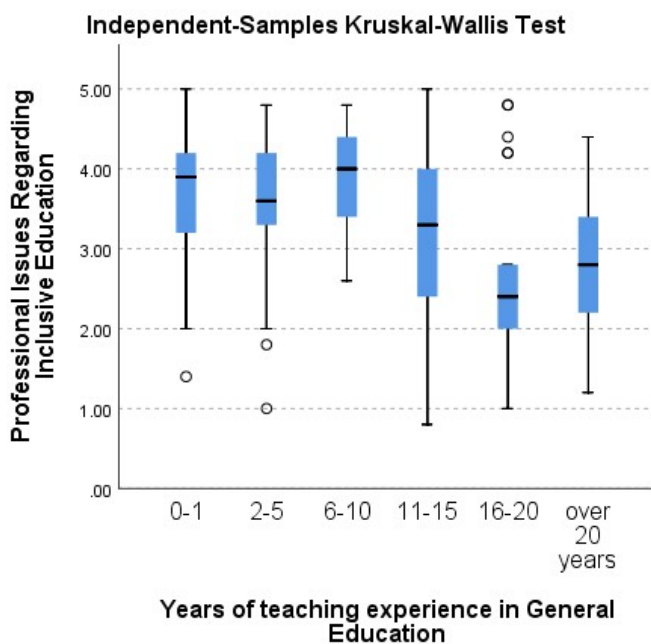
Graph 87: Boxplot "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" *Years of teaching experience in General Education

- From Table 84 (Graph 88) arises that in the factor "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" the mean rank of the participants with 16-20 years of teaching experience in General Education (M.R.=74,54) was statistically significantly lower than the mean rank of those with 0-1 (M.R.=124,81, p=0,020), 6-10 (M.R.=124,62, p=0,006) and over 20 years of experience (M.R.=109,40, adj. p=0,009). Finally, the mean rank of the participants with 11-15 years of teaching experience in General Education (M.R.=87,10) was statistically significantly lower than the mean rank of those with 0-1 (M.R.=124,81 p=0,036) and 6-10 years of experience (M.R.=124,62, p=0,008).

Table 84: "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" *Years of teaching experience in General Education, Kruskal-Wallis (statistically significant results)

Factor	Years	N	Mean Rank	df	H	p
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	0-1	62	124,81	5	17,014	**0,004**
	2-5	28	99,93			
	6-10	21	124,62			
	11-15	26	87,10			
	16-20	24	74,54			
	over 20	53	109,40			
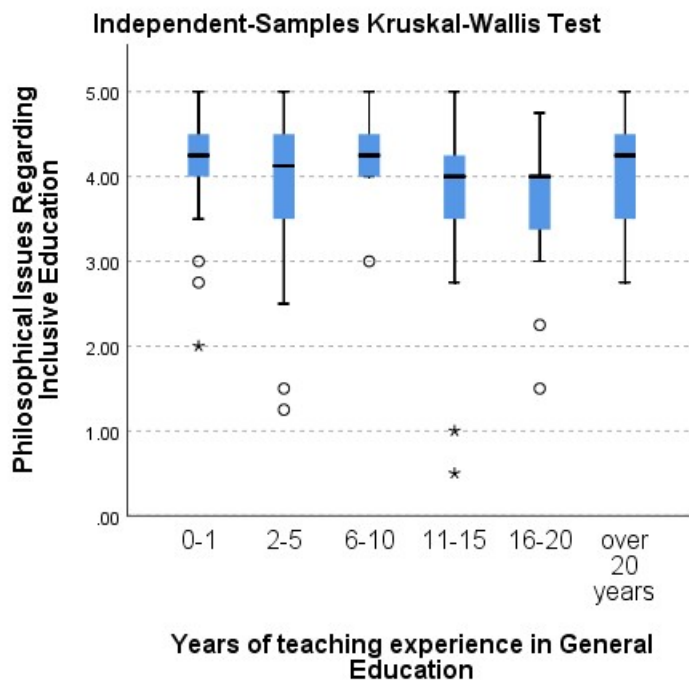
Graph 88: Boxplot "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" *Years of teaching experience in General Education

- From Table 85 (Graph 89) arises that in the factor "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education" the mean rank of the participants with 16-20 years of teaching

experience in General Education (M.R.=67,56) was statistically significantly lower than the mean rank of those with 0-1 (M.R.=115,92, adj. p=0,016), 2-5 (M.R.=104,79, p=0,029), 6-10 (M.R.=112,90, p=0,013), 11-15 (M.R.=117,25, p=0,004) and over 20 years of experience (M.R.=110,25, p=0,005).

Table 85: "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education" *Years of teaching experience in General Education, Kruskal-Wallis (statistically significant results)

Factor	Years	N	Mean Rank	df	H	p
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	0-1	62	115,92	5	12,318	**0,031**
	2-5	28	104,79			
	6-10	21	112,90			
	11-15	26	117,25			
	16-20	24	67,56			
	over 20	53	110,25			
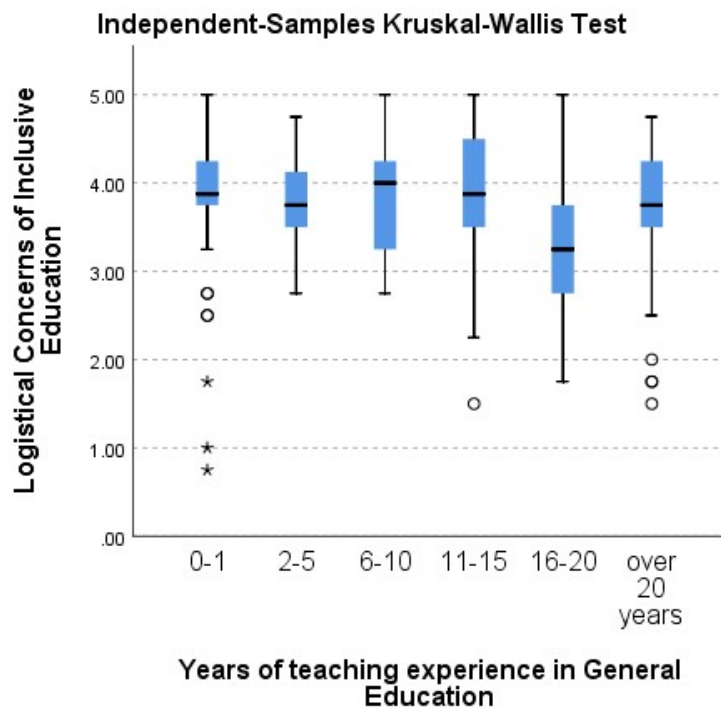
Graph 89: Boxplot "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education" *Years of teaching experience in General Education

- From Table 86 (Graph 90) arises that in the factor "Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations" the mean rank of the participants with 16-20 years of teaching experience in General Education (M.R.=75,52) was statistically significantly lower than the mean rank of those with 0-1 (M.R.=121,10, adj. p=0,032), 2-5 (M.R.=119,86, p=0,010) and 6-10 years of experience (M.R.=119,14, p=0,018).

Table 86: "Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations" *Years of teaching experience in General Education, Kruskal-Wallis (statistically significant results)

Factor	Years	N	Mean Rank	df	H	p
Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations	0-1	62	121,10	5	12,958	**0,024**
	2-5	28	119,86			
	6-10	21	119,14			
	11-15	26	94,77			
	16-20	24	75,52			
	over 20	53	101,17			
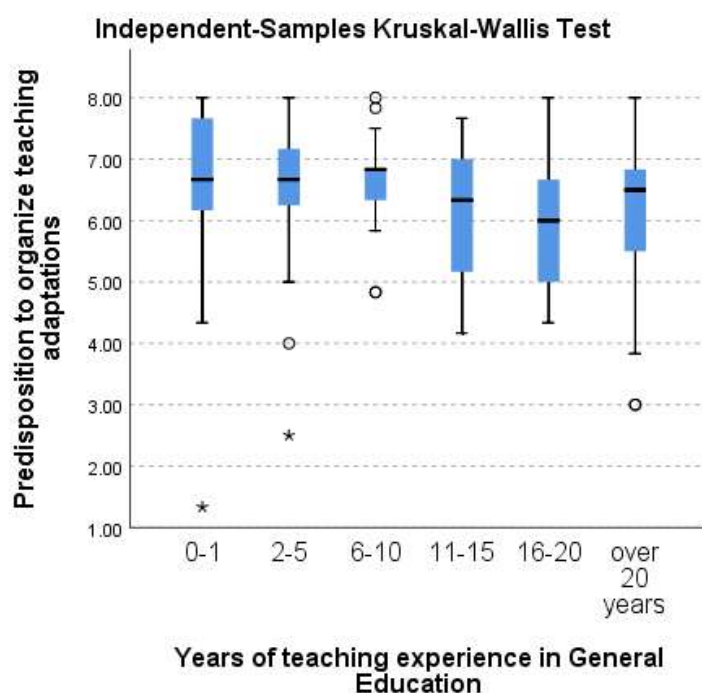
Graph 90: Boxplot "Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations" *Years of teaching experience in General Education

- From Table 87 (Graph 91) arises that in the factor "Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation" the mean rank of the participants with 6-10 years of teaching experience in General Education (M.R.=77,95) was statistically significantly lower than the mean rank of those with 0-1 (M.R.=116,96, p=0,012), 2-5 (M.R.=114,57, p=0,040), 11-15 (M.R.=118,87, p=0,024) and 16-20 years of experience (M.R.=126,73, p=0,008). Finally, the mean rank of the participants with over 20 years of teaching experience in General Education (M.R.=90,12) was statistically significantly lower than the mean rank of those with 0-1 years of experience (M.R.=116,96, p=0,020).

Table 87: "Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation" *Years of teaching experience in General Education, Kruskal-Wallis (statistically significant results)

Factor	Years	N	Mean Rank	df	H	p
Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation	0-1	62	116,96	5	14,039	**0,015**
	2-5	28	114,57			
	6-10	21	77,95			
	11-15	26	118,87			
	16-20	24	126,73			
	over 20	53	90,12			
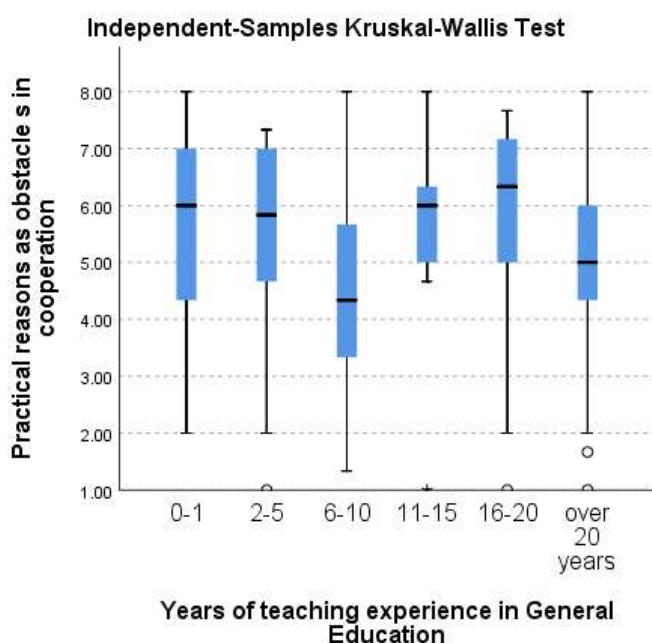
Graph 91: Boxplot "Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation" *Years of teaching experience in General Education

- From Table 88 (Graph 92) arises that in the factor "Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation" the mean rank of the participants with 6-10 years of teaching experience in General Education (M.R.=72,36) was statistically significantly lower than the mean rank of those with 0-1 (M.R.=113,73, p=0,008), 2-5 (M.R.=121,68, p=0,006), 11-15 (M.R.=122,60, p=0,006) and 16-20 years of experience (M.R.=120,92, p=0,009). Finally, the mean rank of the participants with over 20 years of teaching experience in General Education (M.R.=93,16) was statistically less than the mean rank of those with 2-5 (M.R.=121,68, p=0,048) and 11-15 years of experience (M.R.=122,60 p=0,047).

Table 88: "Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation" *Years of teaching experience in General Education, Kruskal-Wallis (statistically significant results)

Factor	Years	N	Mean Rank	df	H	p
Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation	0-1	62	113,73	5	14,437	**0,013**
	2-5	28	121,68			
	6-10	21	72,36			
	11-15	26	122,60			
	16-20	24	120,92			
	over 20	53	93,16			
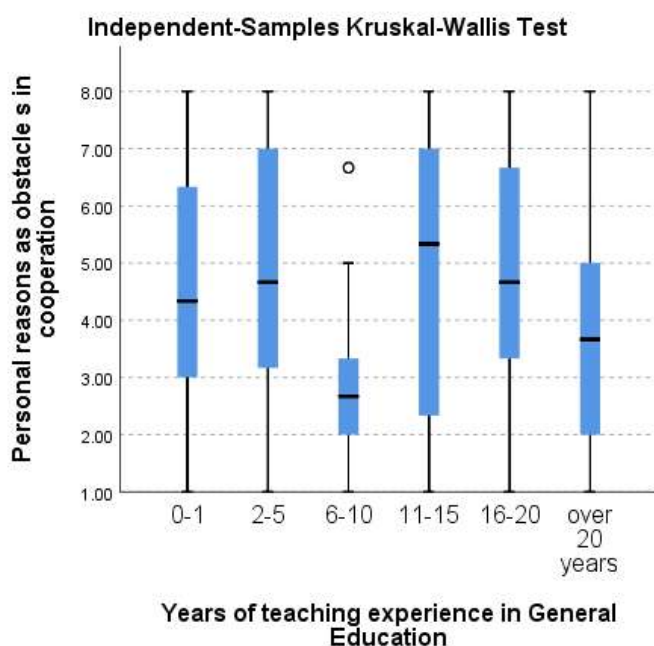
Graph 92: Boxplot "Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation" *Years of teaching experience in General Education

vii. Years of teaching experience in Special Education

Table 89 presents the results of the ANOVA & Kruskal-Wallis tests that were conducted between the factors and the years of teaching experience that the participants had in Special Education. Before the analysis, the categories «11-15» and «16-20» were grouped into the category «11-20». The results show that there were statistically significant differences in the means of the factors "Efficacy to use inclusive instructions" $(F(3,193)=5,794, p=0,001)$, "Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors" $(F(3,193)=2,832, p=0,040)$, "Advantages of Inclusive Education" $(F(3,193)=6,315, p<0,001)$, "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" $(F(3,193)=25,957, p<0,001)$, "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" $(F(3,193)=4,766, p=0,003)$, "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education" $(F(3,193)=4,720, p=0,003)$, "Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations" $(F(3,193)=3,981, p=0,009)$ and

"Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation" (F(3,193)=4,550, p=0,004), while there were statistically significant differences in the mean ranks of the factors "Efficacy in collaboration" (H(3)=25,464, p<0,001) and "Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation' (H(3)=16,626, p=0,001).

Table 89: Factors*Years of teaching experience in Special Education, ANOVA & Kruskal-Wallis

Factor	Statistic	p	test
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	F (3,193) =5,794	**0,001**	ANOVA
Efficacy in collaboration	H (3) =25,464	**<0,001**	K-W
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	F (3,193) =2,832	**0,040**	ANOVA
Advantages of Inclusive Education	F (3,193) =6,315	**<0,001**	ANOVA
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	F (3,193) =25,957	**<0,001**	ANOVA
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	F (3,193) =4,766	**0,003**	ANOVA
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	F (3,193) =4,720	**0,003**	ANOVA
Collaboration for timely information	F (3,193) =2,603	0,053	ANOVA
Collaboration for teaching	F (3,193) =1,466	0,225	ANOVA
Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations	F (3,193) =3,981	**0,009**	ANOVA
The result of working with the final adjustments	F (3,193) =1,701	0,168	ANOVA
Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation	H (3) =16,626	**0,001**	K-W
Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation	F (3,193) =4,550	**0,004**	ANOVA

- From Tables 90-91 (Graph 93) the factor "Efficacy to use inclusive instructions" the mean of the participants with 0-1 years of teaching experience in Special Education (M=4,71) was statistically significantly lower than the mean of those with 6-10 years of teaching experience in Special Education (M=5,13, p<0,001).

Table 90: "Efficacy to use inclusive instructions" *Years of teaching experience in Special Education, ANOVA (statistically significant results)

Factor	Years	N	M	df1	df2	F	p
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	0-1	92	4,71	3	193	5,794	**0,001**
	2-5	65	4,92				
	6-10	30	5,13				
	11-20	10	5,10				

Table 91: "Efficacy to use inclusive instructions" *Years of teaching experience in Special Education, Games-Howell post hoc

Factor	Years (I)	Years (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	0-1	2-5	-0,21	0,084
		6-10	-0,43*	**<0,001**
		11-20	-0,39	0,078
	2-5	0-1	0,21	0,084
		6-10	-0,22	0,107
		11-20	-0,18	0,586
	6-10	0-1	0,43*	**<0,001**
		2-5	0,22	0,107
		11-20	0,03	0,996
	11-20	0-1	0,39	0,078
		2-5	0,18	0,586
		6-10	-0,03	0,996
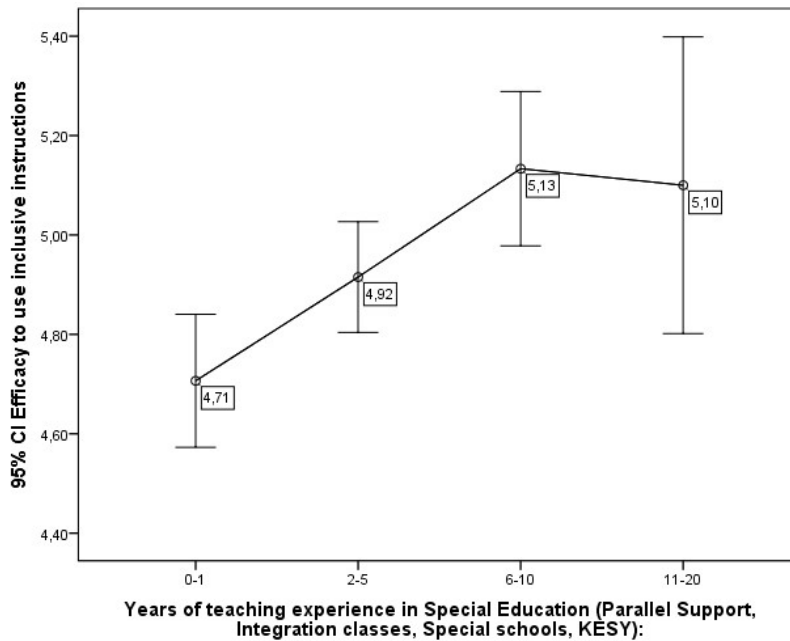
Graph 93: Means plot "Efficacy to use inclusive instructions" *Years of teaching experience in Special Education

- From Tables 92-93 (Graph 94) arises that in the factor "Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors" the mean of the participants with 0-1 years of teaching experience in Special Education (M=4,41) was statistically significantly lower than the mean of those with 6-10 years of teaching experience in Special Education (M=4,74, p=0,007).

Table 92: "Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors" *Years of teaching experience in Special Education, ANOVA (statistically significant results)

Factor	Years	N	M	df1	df2	F	p
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	0-1	92	4,41	3	193	2,832	**0,040**
	2-5	65	4,56				
	6-10	30	4,74				
	11-20	10	4,72				

Table 93: "Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors" *Years of teaching experience in Special Education, Games-Howell post hoc

Factor	Years (I)	Years (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	0-1	2-5	-0,15	0,466
		6-10	-0,33*	**0,007**
		11-20	-0,31	0,265
	2-5	0-1	0,15	0,466
		6-10	-0,18	0,256
		11-20	-0,16	0,749
	6-10	0-1	0,33*	**0,007**
		2-5	0,18	0,256
		11-20	0,02	0,999
	11-20	0-1	0,31	0,265
		2-5	0,16	0,749
		6-10	-0,02	0,999
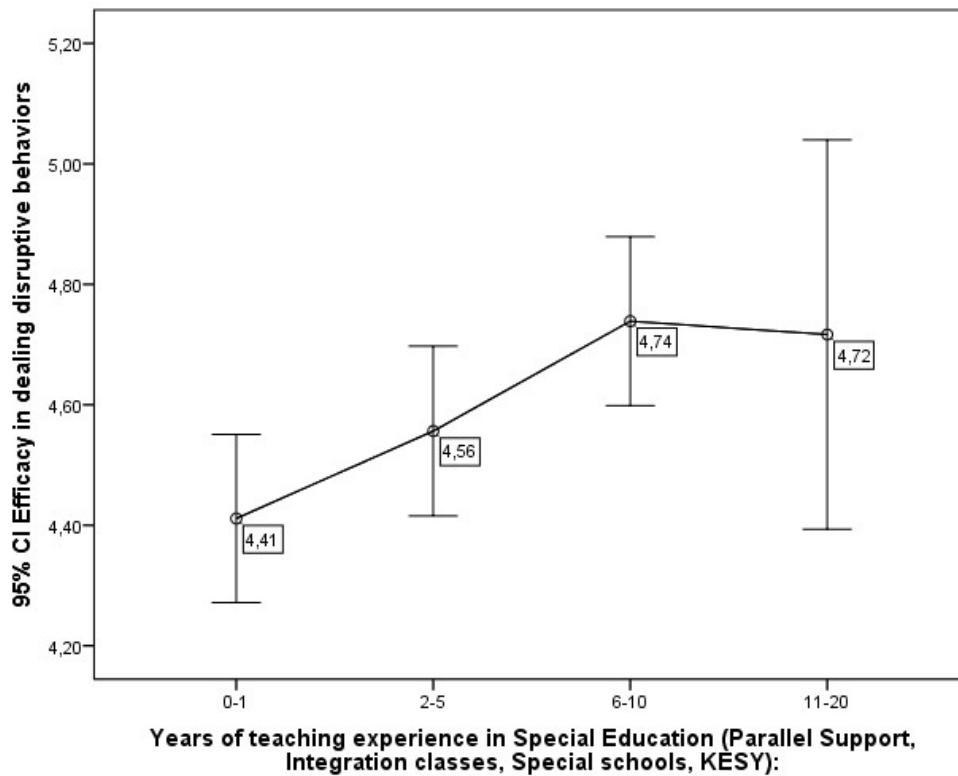
Graph 94: Means plot "Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors" *Years of teaching experience in Special Education

- From Tables 94-95 (Graph 95) arises that in the factor "Advantages of Inclusive Education" the mean of the participants with 0-1 years of teaching experience in Special Education (M=3,21) was statistically significantly lower than the mean of those with 2-5 (M=3,62, p=0,001) and 6-10 years of teaching experience in Special Education (M=3,64, p=0,005). Also, the mean of the participants with 11-20 years of teaching experience in Special Education (M=2,97) was statistically significantly lower than the mean of those with 2-5 (M=3,62, p=0,009) and 6-10 years of teaching experience in Special Education (M=3,64, p=0,012).

Table 94: "Advantages of Inclusive Education" *Years of teaching experience in Special Education, ANOVA (statistically significant results)

Factor	Years	N	M	df1	df2	F	p
Advantages of Inclusive Education	0-1	92	3,21	3	193	6,315	**<0,001**
	2-5	65	3,62				
	6-10	30	3,64				
	11-20	10	2,97				

Table 95: "Advantages of Inclusive Education" *Years of teaching experience in Special Education, LSD post hoc

Factor	Years (I)	Years (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p
Advantages of Inclusive Education	0-1	2-5	-0,41*	**0,001**
		6-10	-0,43*	**0,005**
		11-20	0,24	0,324
	2-5	0-1	0,41*	**0,001**
		6-10	-0,02	0,886
		11-20	0,66*	**0,009**
	6-10	0-1	0,43*	**0,005**
		2-5	0,02	0,886
		11-20	0,67*	**0,012**
	11-20	0-1	-0,24	0,324
		2-5	-0,64*	**0,009**
		6-10	-0,67*	**0,012**
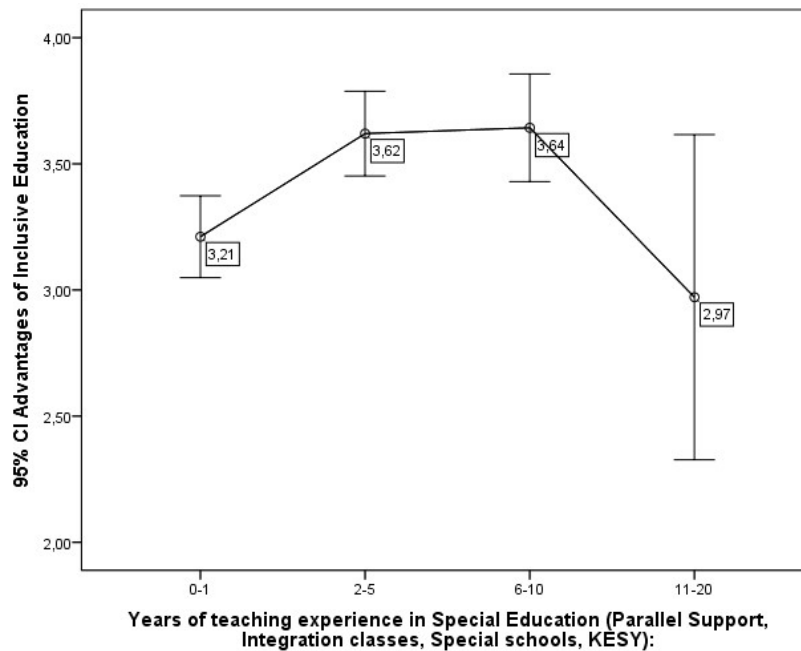
Graph 95: Means plot "Advantages of Inclusive Education" *Years of teaching experience in Special Education

• From Tables 96-97 (Graph 96), arises that in factor "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" the mean of the participants with 0-1 years of teaching experience in Special Education (M=3,12) was statistically significantly lower than the mean of those with 2-5 (M=3,94, p<0,001), 6-10 (M=4,21, p<0,001) and 11-20 years of teaching experience in Special Education (M=4,04, p=0,012). Also, the mean of the participants with 2-5 years of teaching experience in Special Education (M=3,94) was statistically significantly lower than the mean of those with 6-10 years of teaching experience in Special Education (M=4,21, p=0,034).

Table 96: "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" *Years of teaching experience in Special Education, ANOVA (statistically significant results)

Factor	Years	N	M	df1	df2	F	p
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	0-1	92	3,12	3	193	25,957	**<0,001**
	2-5	65	3,94				
	6-10	30	4,21				
	11-20	10	4,04				

Table 97: "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" *Years of teaching experience in Special Education, Games-Howell post hoc

| Factor	Years (I)	Years (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	0-1	2-5	-0,82*	**<0,001**
		6-10	-1,09*	**<0,001**
		11-20	-0,92*	**0,012**
	2-5	0-1	0,82*	**<0,001**
		6-10	-0,27*	**0,034**
		11-20	-0,10	0,968
	6-10	0-1	1,09*	**<0,001**
		2-5	0,27*	**0,034**
		11-20	0,17	0,894
	11-20	0-1	0,92*	**0,012**
		2-5	0,10	0,968
		6-10	-0,17	0,894
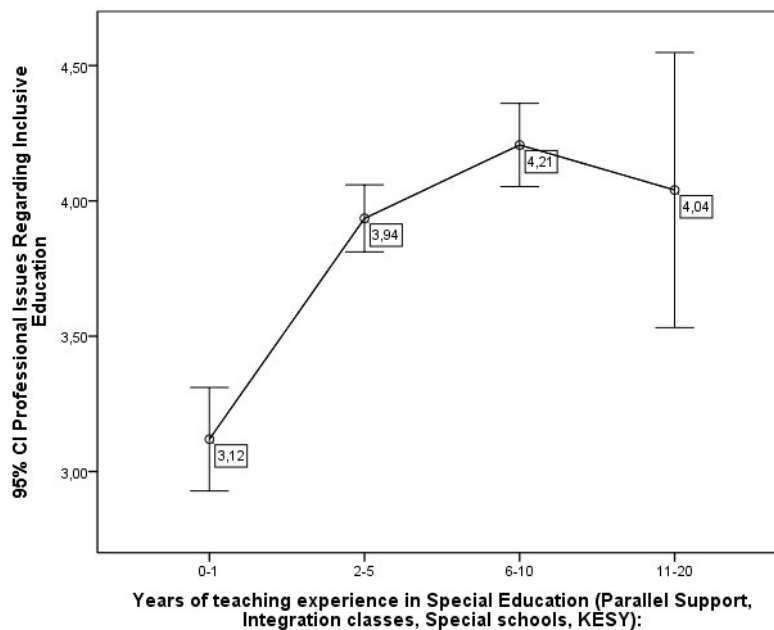
Graph 96: Means plot "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" *Years of teaching experience in Special Education

- From Tables 98-99 (Graph 97), arises that in the factor "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" the mean of the participants with 0-1 years of teaching experience in Special Education (M=3,98) was statistically significantly lower than the mean of those with 2-5 years of teaching experience in Special Education (M=4,22, p=0,069<0,1).

Table 98: "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" *Years of teaching experience in Special Education, ANOVA (statistically significant results)

Factor	Years	N	M	df1	df2	F	p
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	0-1	92	3,98	3	193	4,766	**0,003**
	2-5	65	4,22				
	6-10	30	4,11				
	11-20	10	3,38				

Table 99: "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" *Years of teaching experience in Special Education, Games-Howell post hoc (c.i. 90%)

| Factor	Years (I)	Years (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	0-1	2-5	-0,23*	**0,069**
		6-10	-0,12	0,801
		11-20	0,61	0,622
	2-5	0-1	0,23*	**0,069**
		6-10	0,11	0,843
		11-20	0,84	0,371
	6-10	0-1	0,12	0,801
		2-5	-0,11	0,843
		11-20	0,73	0,492
	11-20	0-1	-0,61	0,622
		2-5	-0,84	0,371
		6-10	-0,73	0,492
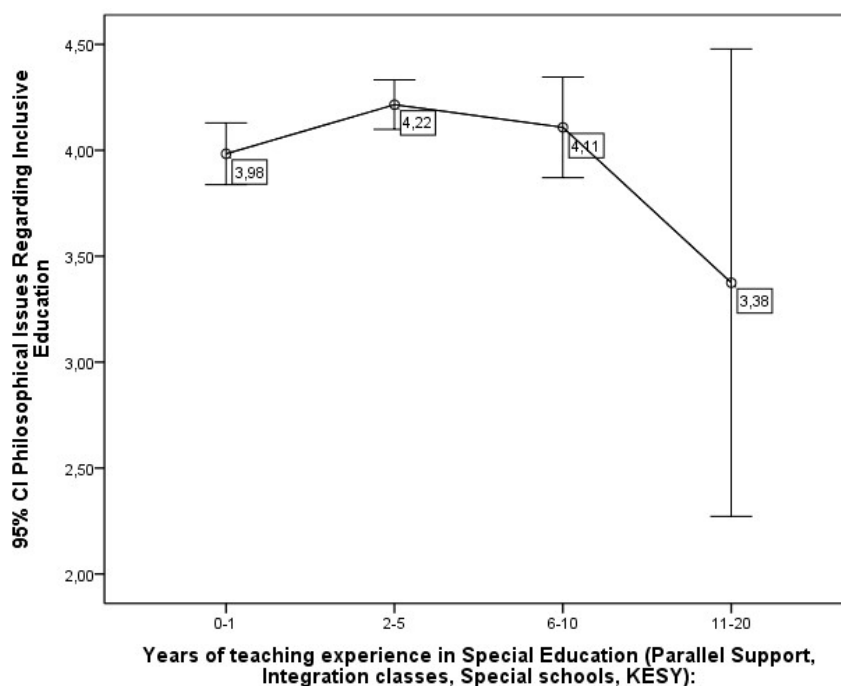
Graph 97: Means plot "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" *Years of teaching experience in Special Education

- From Tables 100-101 (Graph 98) arises that in the factor "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education" the mean of the participants with 0-1 years of teaching experience in Special Education (M=3,68) was statistically significantly lower than

the mean of those with 2-5 (M=3,90, p=0,046), 6-10 (M=4,13, p=0,002) and 11-20 years of teaching experience in Special Education (M=4,20, p=0,020).

Table 100: "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education" *Years of teaching experience in Special Education, ANOVA (statistically significant results)

Factor	Years	N	M	df1	df2	F	p
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	0-1	92	3,68	3	193	4,720	**0,003**
	2-5	65	3,90				
	6-10	30	4,13				
	11-20	10	4,20				

Table 101: "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education" *Years of teaching experience in Special Education, LSD post hoc

| Factor	Years (I)	Years (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	0-1	2-5	-0,22*	**0,046**
		6-10	-0,45*	**0,002**
		11-20	-0,52*	**0,020**
	2-5	0-1	0,22*	**0,046**
		6-10	-0,23	0,122
		11-20	-0,30	0,182
	6-10	0-1	0,45*	**0,002**
		2-5	0,23	0,122
		11-20	-0,08	0,759
	11-20	0-1	0,52*	**0,020**
		2-5	0,30	0,182
		6-10	0,08	0,759
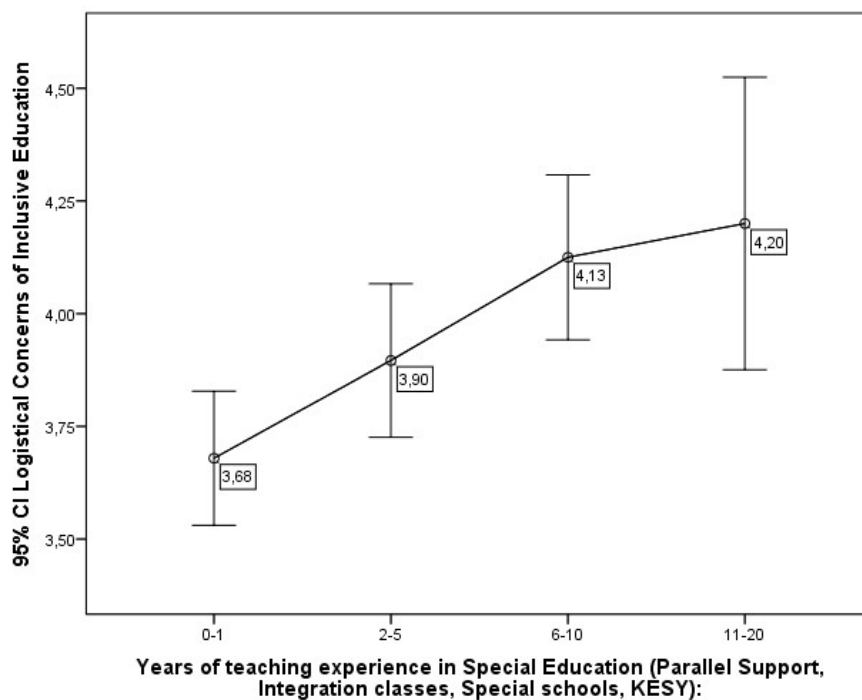
Graph 98: Means plot "Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education" *Years of teaching experience in Special Education

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- From Tables 102-103 (Graph 99) arises that in the factor "Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations" the mean of the participants with 0-1 years of teaching experience in Special Education (M=6,13) was statistically significantly lower than the mean of those with 2-5 (M=6,62, p=0,026) and 6-10 years of teaching experience in Special Education (M=6,72, p=0,019).

Table 102: Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations *Years of teaching experience in Special Education, ANOVA (statistically significant results)

Factor	Years	N	M	df1	df2	F	p
Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations	0-1	92	6,13	3	193	3,981	**0,009**
	2-5	65	6,62				
	6-10	30	6,72				
	11-20	10	6,62				

Table 103: "Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations" *Years of teaching experience in Special Education, Games-Howell post hoc

Factor	Years (I)	Years (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p
Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations	0-1	2-5	-0,49*	**0,026**
		6-10	-0,59*	**0,019**
		11-20	-0,49	0,126
	2-5	0-1	0,49*	**0,026**
		6-10	-0,10	0,953
		11-20	0,01	1,000
	6-10	0-1	0,59*	**0,019**
		2-5	0,10	0,953
		11-20	0,11	0,965
	11-20	0-1	0,49	0,126
		2-5	-0,01	1,000
		6-10	-0,11	0,965
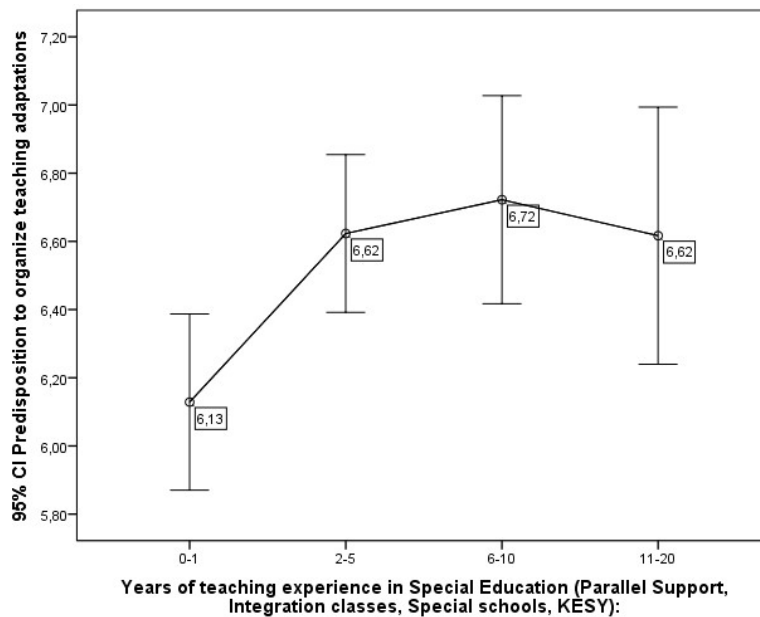
Graph 99: Means plot "Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations" *Years of teaching experience in Special Education

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- From Tables 104-105 (Graph 100) arises that in the factor "Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation" the mean of the participants with 6-10 years of teaching experience in Special Education (M=3,17) was statistically significantly lower than the mean of those with 0-1 (M=4,57, p=0,002) and 2-5 years of teaching experience (M=4,83, p<0,001).

Table 104: Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation *Years of teaching experience in Special Education, ANOVA (statistically significant results)

Factor	Years	N	M	df1	df2	F	p
Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation	0-1	92	4,57	3	193	4,550	**0,004**
	2-5	65	4,83				
	6-10	30	3,17				
	11-20	10	4,50				

Table 105: "Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation" *Years of teaching experience in Special Education, LSD post hoc

Factor	Years (I)	Years (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p
Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation	0-1	2-5	-0,26	0,449
		6-10	1,41*	**0,002**
		11-20	0,07	0,918
	2-5	0-1	0,26	0,449
		6-10	1,66*	**<0,001**
		11-20	0,33	0,643
	6-10	0-1	-1,41*	**0,002**
		2-5	-1,66*	**<0,001**
		11-20	-1,33	0,084
	11-20	0-1	-0,07	0,918
		2-5	-0,33	0,643
		6-10	1,33	0,084
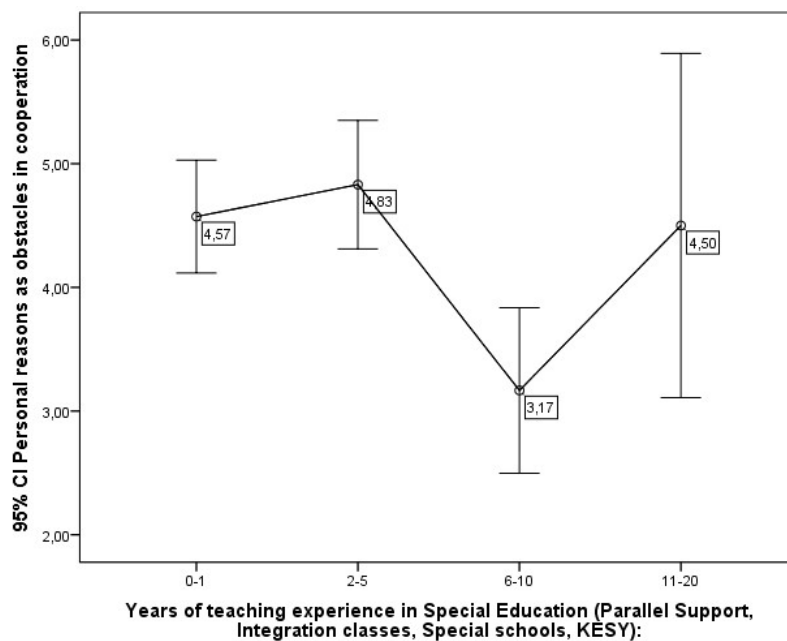
Graph 100: Means plot "Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation" *Years of teaching experience in Special Education

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- From Table 106 (Graph 101) arises that in the factor "Efficacy in collaboration" the mean rank of the participants with 0-1 years of teaching experience in Special Education (M.R.=78,95) was statistically significantly lower than the mean rank of those with 2-5 (M.R.=108,48, adj. p=0,008), 6-10 (M.R.=126,08, adj. p<0,001) and 11-20 years of experience (M.R.=140,60, adj. p=0,007).

Table 106: Efficacy in collaboration *Years of teaching experience in Special Education, Kruskal-Wallis (statistically significant results)

Factor	Years	N	Mean Rank	df	H	p
Efficacy in collaboration	0-1	92	78,95	4	25,464	**<0,001**
	2-5	65	108,48			
	6-10	30	126,08			
	11-20	10	140,60			
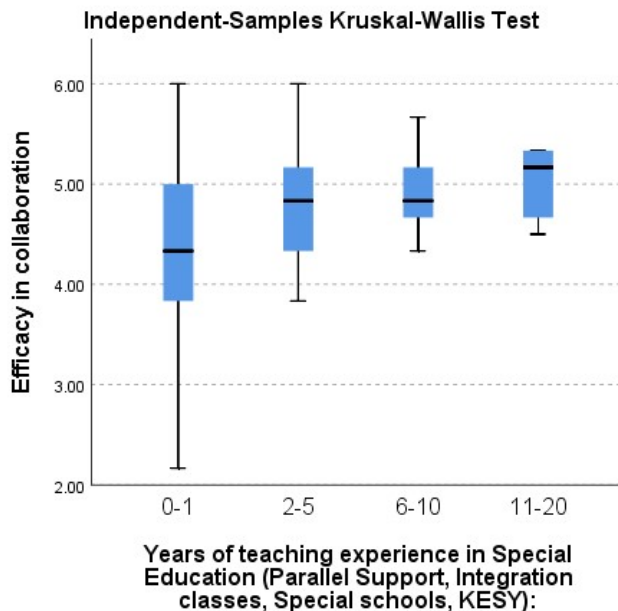
Graph 101: Boxplot "Efficacy in collaboration" *Years of teaching experience in Special Education

- From Tables 107 (Graph 102) arises that in the factor "Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation" the mean rank of the participants with 6-10 years of teaching experience in Special Education (M.R.=68,12) was statistically less than the mean rank of those with 0-1 (M.R.=114,25, adj. p=0,001) and 2-5 years of experience (M.R.=93,88, p=0,040). Also, the mean rank of the participants with 2-5 years of teaching experience in Special Education (M.R.=68,12) was statistically less than the mean rank of those with 0-1 (M.R.=114,25, p= 0,027) years of experience.

Table 107: Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation *Years of teaching experience in Special Education, Kruskal-Wallis (statistically significant results)

Factor	Years	N	Mean Rank	df	H	p
Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation	0-1	92	114,25	4	16,626	**0,001**
	2-5	65	93,88			
	6-10	30	68,12			
	11-20	10	84,65			
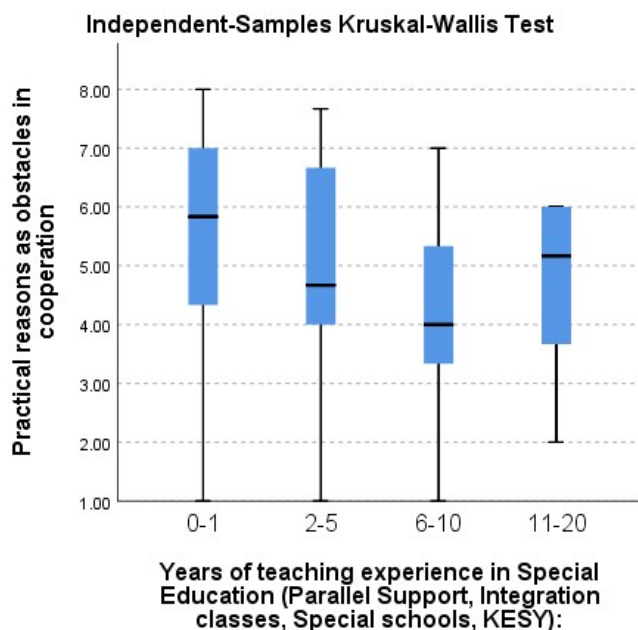
Graph 102: Boxplot "Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation" *Years of teaching experience in Special Education

viii. Specialty

Table 108 presents the results of the ANOVA & Kruskal-Wallis tests that were conducted between the factors and the specialty of the participants. Before the analysis, the categories "PE05 French language teacher", "PE06 English language teacher" and "PE07 German language teacher" were grouped into the category "Foreign language teacher", while the categories "PE01 Theologian", "PE08 Art teacher", "PE09 Economist teacher", "PE10 Sociologist teacher", "PE11 Sports teacher" and "Other (PE12.01 – PE91.02)" were grouped into the category "Other"

The results show that there were statistically significant differences in the means of the factors "Efficacy in collaboration" ($F_{(4,260)}$ =3,964, p=0,004), "Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors" ($F_{(4,260)}$ =2,781, p=0,027) and "Advantages of Inclusive Education" ($F_{(4,260)}$ =3,663, p=0,006), while where were statistically significant differences in the mean ranks of the factor "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" ($H_{(4)}$ =11,421, p=0,022).

Table 108: Factors*Specialty, ANOVA & Kruskal-Wallis

Factor	Statistic	p	test
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	F (4,260) =1,181	0,319	ANOVA
Efficacy in collaboration	F (4,260) =3,964	**0,004**	ANOVA
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	F (4,260) =2,781	**0,027**	ANOVA
Advantages of Inclusive Education	F (4,260) =3,663	**0,006**	ANOVA
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	H (4) =11,421	**0,022**	K-W
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	F (4,260) =2,364	0,053	ANOVA
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	F (4,260) =1,200	0,311	ANOVA
Collaboration for timely information	F (4,260) =0,805	0,523	ANOVA
Collaboration for teaching	F (4,260) =1,139	0,339	ANOVA
Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations	H (4) =3,515	0,476	K-W
The result of working with the final adjustments	H (4) =2,679	0,613	K-W
Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation	F (4,260) =0,876	0,479	ANOVA
Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation	F (4,260) =0,203	0,937	ANOVA

- From Tables 109-110 (Graph 103) arises that in the factor "Efficacy in collaboration" the mean of the foreign language teachers (M=3,82) was statistically significantly lower than the mean of the teacher with other specialties (M=4,61, p=0,097<0,1).

Table 109: "Efficacy in collaboration" *Specialty, ANOVA (statistically significant results)

Factor	Specialty	N	M	df1	df2	F	p
Efficacy in collaboration	PE02 Philologist	105	4,56	4	260	3,964	**0,004**
	PE03 Mathematician	40	4,57				
	PE04 Science teacher	53	4,59				
	Foreign language teacher	12	3,82				
	Other	55	4,61				
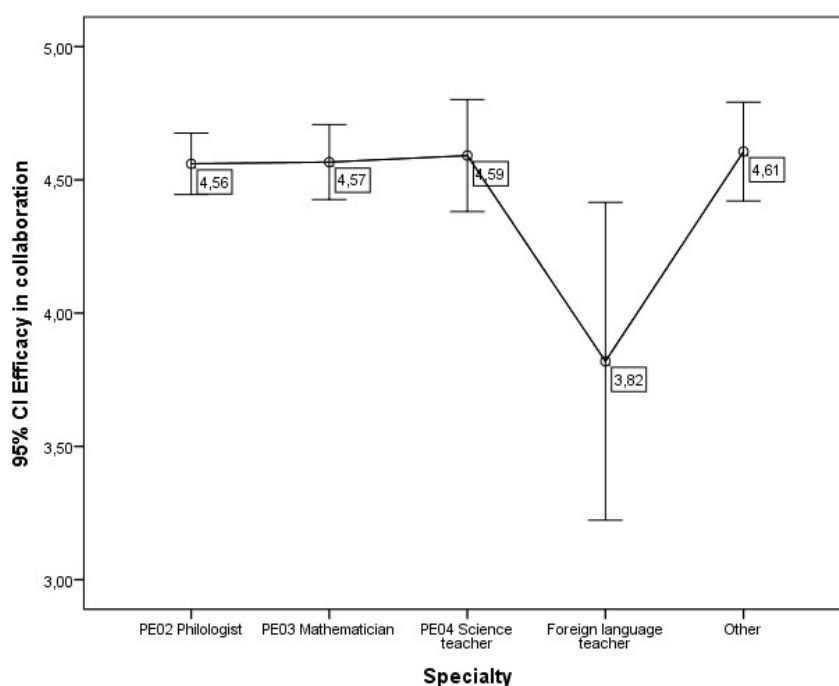
Graph 103: Means plot "Efficacy in collaboration" *Specialty

Table 110: "Efficacy in collaboration" *Specialty, Games-Howell post hoc (c.i. 90%)

Factor	Specialty (I)	Specialty (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p
Efficacy in collaboration	PE02 Philologist	PE03 Mathematician	-0,01	1,000
		PE04 Science teacher	-0,03	0,999
		Foreign language teacher	0,74	0,117
		Other	-0,05	0,993
	PE03 Mathematician	PE02 Philologist	0,01	1,000
		PE04 Science teacher	-0,02	1,000
		Foreign language teacher	0,75	0,116
		Other	-0,04	0,997
	PE04 Science teacher	PE02 Philologist	0,03	0,999
		PE03 Mathematician	0,02	1,000
		Foreign language teacher	0,77	0,111
		Other	-0,01	1,000
	Foreign language teacher	PE02 Philologist	-0,74	0,117
		PE03 Mathematician	-0,75	0,116
		PE04 Science teacher	-0,77	0,111
		Other	-0,79*	**0,097**
	Other	PE02 Philologist	0,05	0,993
		PE03 Mathematician	0,04	0,997
		PE04 Science teacher	0,01	1,000
		Foreign language teacher	0,79*	**0,097**

- From Tables 111-112 (Graph 104) the factor "Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors" the mean of the foreign language teachers (M=3,92) was statistically significantly lower than the mean of the philologists (M=4,47, p=0,003), mathematicians (M=4,42, p=0,011), science teachers (M=4,53, p=0,001), and teachers of other specialties (M=4,49, p=0,003).

Table 111: "Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors" *Specialty, ANOVA (statistically significant results)

Factor	Specialty	N	M	df1	df2	F	p
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	PE02 Philologist	105	4,47	4	260	2,781	**0,027**
	PE03 Mathematician	40	4,42				
	PE04 Science teacher	53	4,53				
	Foreign language teacher	12	3,92				
	Other	55	4,49				

Table 112: "Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors" *Specialty, LSD post hoc

Factor	Specialty (I)	Specialty (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	PE02 Philologist	PE03 Mathematician	0,05	0,642
		PE04 Science teacher	-0,07	0,510
		Foreign language teacher	0,55*	**0,003**
		Other	-0,02	0,820
	PE03 Mathematician	PE02 Philologist	-0,05	0,642
		PE04 Science teacher	-0,12	0,346
		Foreign language teacher	0,50*	**0,011**
		Other	-0,07	0,550
	PE04 Science teacher	PE02 Philologist	0,07	0,510
		PE03 Mathematician	0,12	0,346
		Foreign language teacher	0,62*	**0,001**
		Other	0,04	0,704
	Foreign language teacher	PE02 Philologist	-0,55*	**0,003**
		PE03 Mathematician	-0,50*	**0,011**
		PE04 Science teacher	-0,62*	**0,001**
		Other	-0,57*	**0,003**
	Other	PE02 Philologist	0,02	0,820
		PE03 Mathematician	0,07	0,550
		PE04 Science teacher	-0,04	0,704
		Foreign language teacher	0,57*	**0,003**
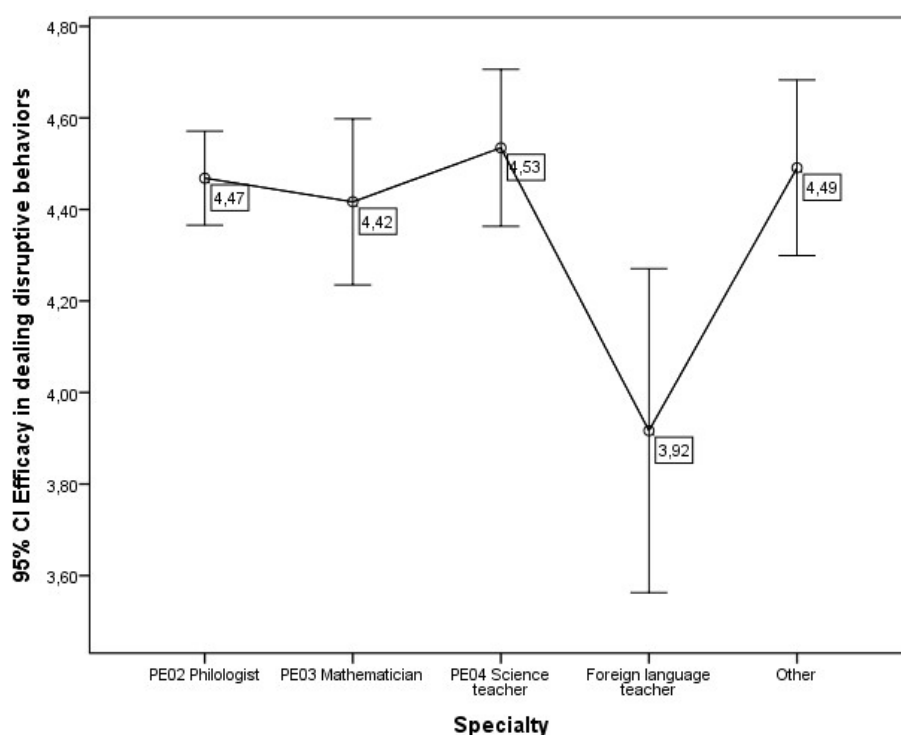
Graph 104: Means plot "Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors" *Specialty

- From Tables 113-114 (Graph 105) arises that in the factor "Advantages of Inclusive Education" the mean of the mathematicians (M=3,05) was statistically less than the mean of the philologists (M=3,50, p=0,001) and science teachers (M=3,45,

p=0,011), while the mean of teachers with other specialties (M=3,19) was statistically significantly lower than the mean of philologists (M=3,50, p=0,015).

Table 113: "Advantages of Inclusive Education" *Specialty, ANOVA (statistically significant results)

Factor	Specialty	N	M	df1	df2	F	p
Advantages of Inclusive Education	PE02 Philologist	105	3,50	4	260	3,663	**0,006**
	PE03 Mathematician	40	3,05				
	PE04 Science teacher	53	3,45				
	Foreign language teacher	12	3,15				
	Other	55	3,19				

Table 114: "Advantages of Inclusive Education" *Specialty, LSD post hoc

Factor	Specialty (I)	Specialty (J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p
Advantages of Inclusive Education	PE02 Philologist	PE03 Mathematician	0,45*	**0,001**
		PE04 Science teacher	0,05	0,722
		Foreign language teacher	0,34	0,135
		Other	0,31*	**0,015**
	PE03 Mathematician	PE02 Philologist	-0,45*	**0,001**
		PE04 Science teacher	-0,40*	**0,011**
		Foreign language teacher	-0,10	0,672
		Other	-0,14	0,363
	PE04 Science teacher	PE02 Philologist	-0,05	0,722
		PE03 Mathematician	0,40*	**0,011**
		Foreign language teacher	0,30	0,216
		Other	0,26	0,073
	Foreign language teacher	PE02 Philologist	-0,34	0,135
		PE03 Mathematician	0,10	0,672
		PE04 Science teacher	-0,30	0,216
		Other	-0,04	0,876
	Other	PE02 Philologist	-0,31*	**0,015**
		PE03 Mathematician	0,14	0,363
		PE04 Science teacher	-0,26	0,073
		Foreign language teacher	0,04	0,876
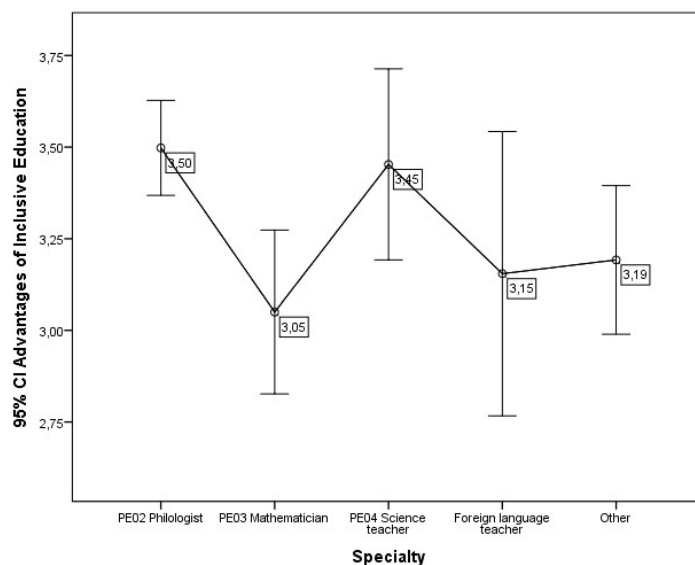
Graph 105: Means plot "Advantages of Inclusive Education" *Specialty

In addition, from Table 115 (and Graph 106) arises that:

- In the factor «Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education» the mean rank of the foreign language teachers (M.R.=64,63) was statistically significantly lower than the mean rank of the philologists (M.R.=137,14, adj. p=0,018), mathematicians (M.R.=134,90, p=0,005), science teachers (M.R.=144,51, adj. p=0,011) and teachers of other specialties (M.R.=127,55, p=0,010).

Table 115: "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" *Specialty, Kruskal-Wallis (statistically significant results)

Factor	Specialty	N	Mean Rank	df	H	p
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	PE02 Philologist	105	137,14	4	11,421	**0,022**
	PE03 Mathematician	40	134,90			
	PE04 Science teacher	53	144,51			
	Foreign language teacher	12	64,63			
	Other	55	127,55			
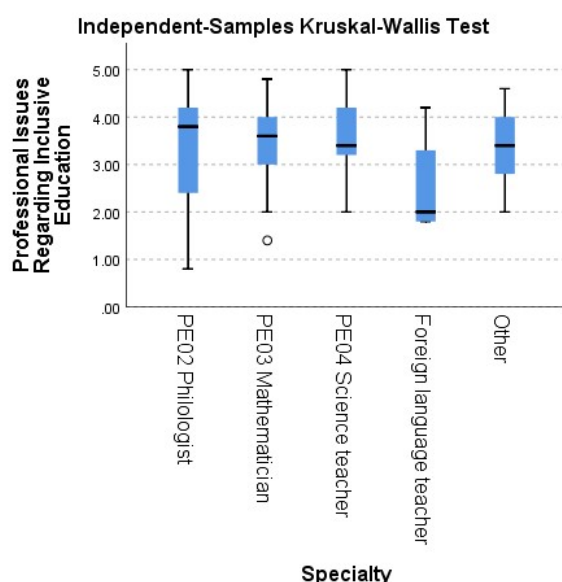
Graph 106: Boxplot «Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education»*Specialty

ix. Attended course or seminar on the education of students with SEN

Table 116 presents the results of the independent samples t-test that were conducted between the factors and whether the participants, as part of their undergraduate studies, had attended a course or seminar on the education of students with SEN. The results show that there were statistically significant differences in the means for the factors "Efficacy to use inclusive instructions" (t(263)=3,506, p=0,001), "Efficacy in collaboration" (t(263)=3,255, p=0,001), "Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors" (t(263)=2,897, p=0,004), "Advantages of Inclusive Education" (t(263)=2,874, p=0,004), "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education"

(t(263)=4,280, p<0,001), "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" (t(263)=2,098, p=0,037), "Collaboration for timely information" (t(251,484)=3,413, p=0,001), "Collaboration for teaching" (t(250,173)=5,037, p<0,001), "Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations" (t(263)=2,886, p=0,004) and "The result of working with the final adjustments" (t(263)=3,105, p=0,002).

Table 116: Factors*Attended course or seminar on the education of students with SEN, independent samples t-test

Factor	t	df	p
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	3,506	263	**0,001**
Efficacy in collaboration	3,255	263	**0,001**
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	2,897	263	**0,004**
Advantages of Inclusive Education	2,874	263	**0,004**
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	4,280	263	**<0,001**
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	2,098	263	**0,037**
Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education	1,473	263	0,142
Collaboration for timely information	3,413	251,484	**0,001**
Collaboration for teaching	5,037	250,173	**<0,001**
Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations	2,886	263	**0,004**
The result of working with the final adjustments	3,105	263	**0,002**
Practical reasons as obstacles in cooperation	0,080	263	0,936
Personal reasons as obstacles in cooperation	0,889	175,917	0,375

Specifically, from Table 117 (and Graphs 107-116) arises that:

- In the factor "Efficacy to use inclusive instructions", the mean value of the participants that as part of their undergraduate studies, had attended a course or seminar on the education of students with SEN (M=4,94) was statistically greater (t (263) =3,506, p=0,001), than the mean of those that didn't attend (M=4,69).
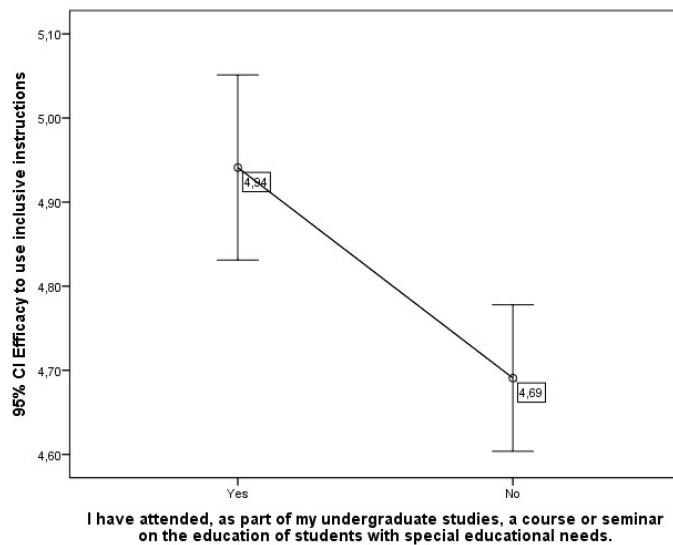
Graph 107: Errorbar "Efficacy to use inclusive instructions" *Attended course or seminar on the education of students with SEN

- In the factor "Efficacy in collaboration", the mean value of the participants that as part of their undergraduate studies, had attended a course or seminar on the education of students with SEN (M=4,71) was statistically greater (t (263) =3,255, p=0,001), than the mean of those that didn't attend (M=4,44).
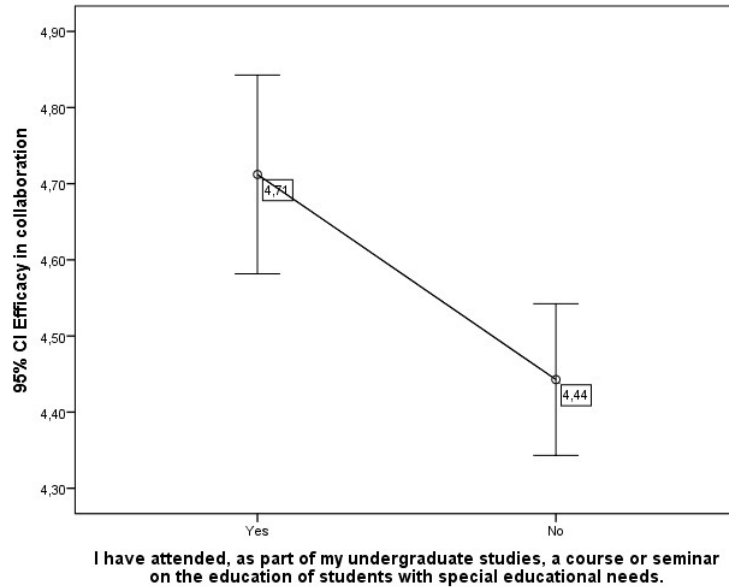
Graph 108: Errorbar "Efficacy in collaboration" *Attended course or seminar on the education of students with SEN

- In the factor "Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors", the mean value of the participants that as part of their undergraduate studies, had attended a course or seminar on the education of students with SEN (M=4,59) was statistically greater (t (263) =2,897, p=0,004), than the mean of those that didn't attend (M=4,37).
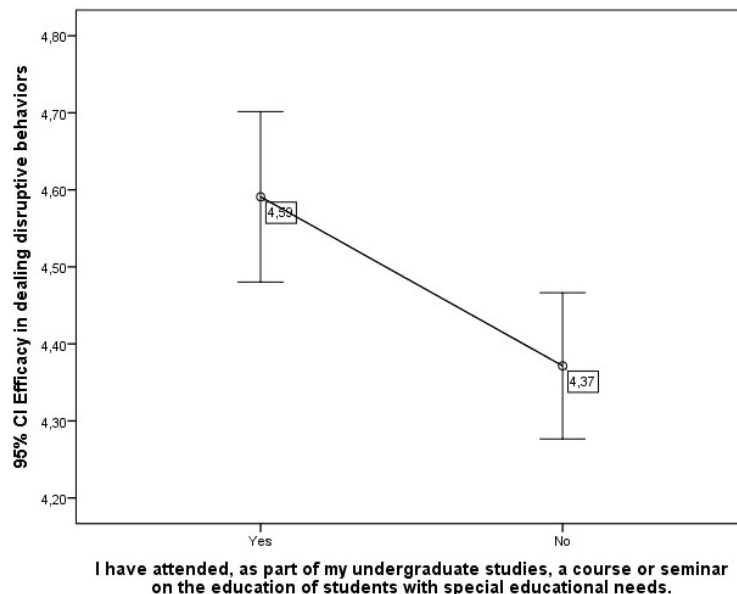
Graph 109: Errorbar "Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors" *Attended course or seminar on the education of students with SEN

- In the factor "Advantages of Inclusive Education", the mean value of the participants that as part of their undergraduate studies, had attended a course or seminar on the education of students with SEN (M=3,52) was statistically greater (t (263) =2,874, p=0,004), than the mean of those that didn't attend (M=3,24).
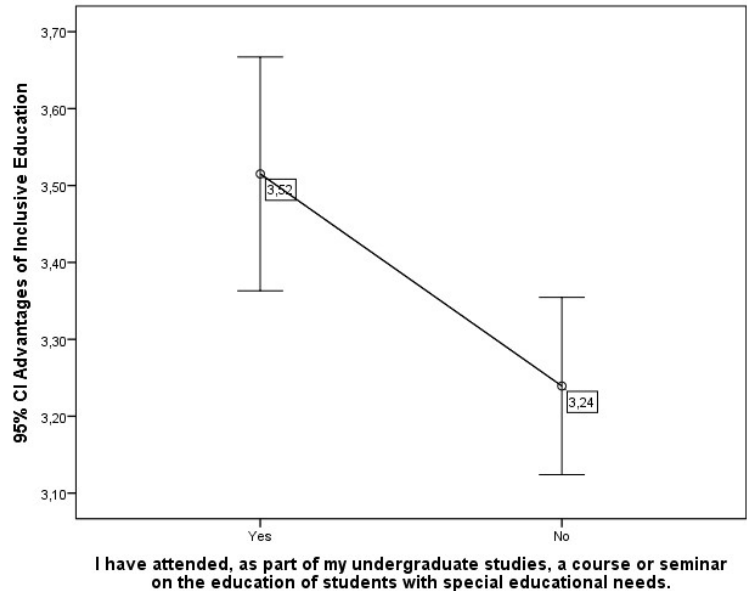
Graph 110: Errorbar "Advantages of Inclusive Education" *Attended course or seminar on the education of students with SEN

- In the factor "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education", the mean value of the participants that as part of their undergraduate studies, had attended a course or seminar on the education of students with SEN (M=3,70) was statistically greater (t (263) =4,280, p<0,001), than the mean of those that didn't attend (M=3,21).
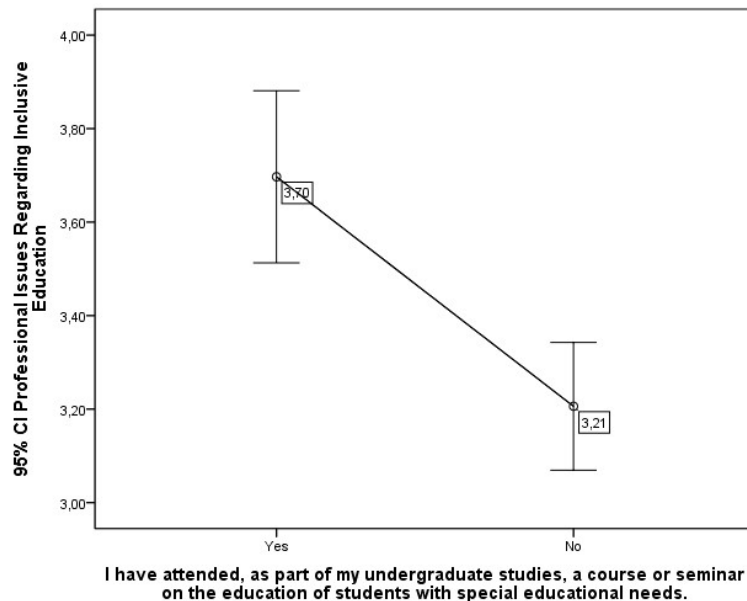
Graph 111: Errorbar "Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" *Attended course or seminar on the education of students with SEN

- In the factor "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education", the mean value of the participants that as part of their undergraduate studies, had attended a course or seminar on the education of students with SEN (M=4,13) was statistically greater (t (263) =2,098, p=0,037), than the mean of those that didn't attend (M=3,94).
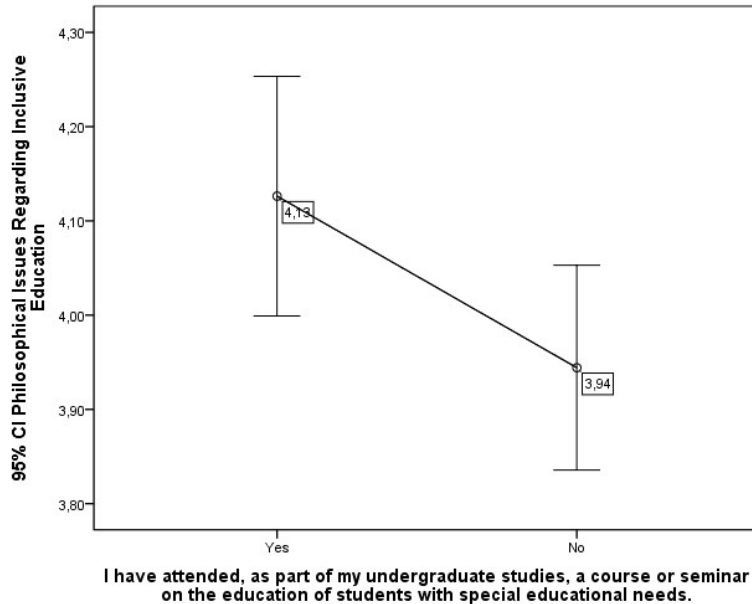
Graph 112: Errorbar "Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education" *Attended course or seminar on the education of students with SEN

- In the factor "Collaboration for timely information", the mean value of the participants that as part of their undergraduate studies, had attended a course or seminar on the education of students with SEN (M=6,72) was statistically greater (t (251,484) =3,413, p=0,001), than the mean of those that didn't attend (M=6,12).
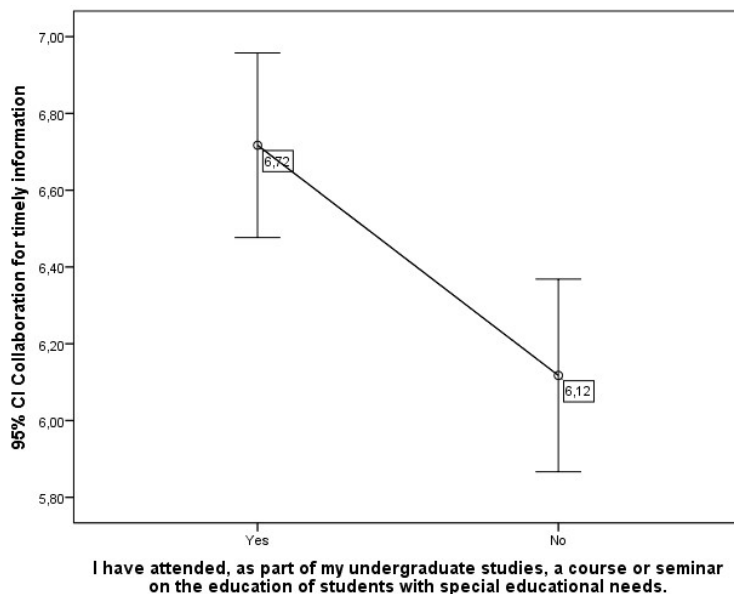
Graph 113: Errorbar "Collaboration for timely information" *Attended course or seminar on the education of students with SEN

- In the factor "Collaboration for teaching', the mean value of the participants that as part of their undergraduate studies, had attended a course or seminar on the education of students with SEN (M=5,94) was statistically greater (t (250,173) =5,037, p<0,001), than the mean of those that didn't attend (M=5,07).
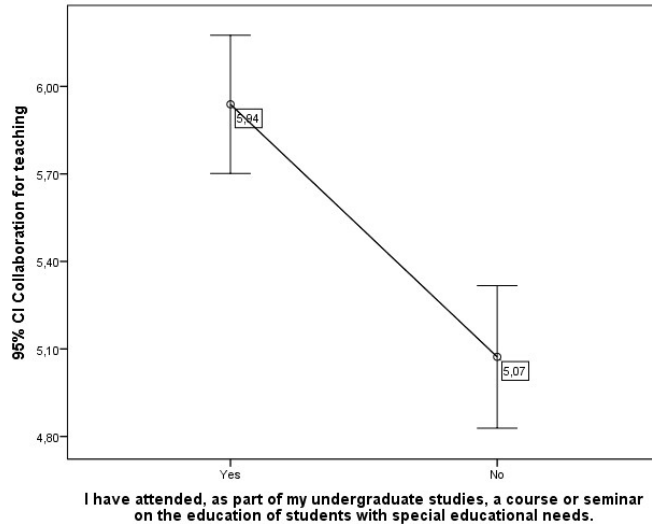
Graph 114: Errorbar "Collaboration for teaching" *Attended course or seminar on the education of students with SEN

- In the factor "Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations", the mean value of the participants that as part of their undergraduate studies, had attended a course or seminar on the education of students with SEN (M=6,56) was statistically greater (t (263) =2,886, p=0,004) than the mean of those that didn't attend (M=6,15).
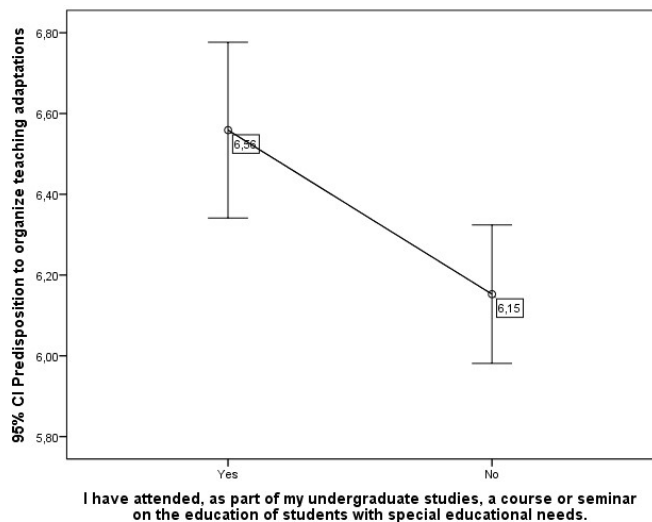
Graph 115: Errorbar "Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations" *Attended course or seminar on the education of students with SEN

- In the factor "The result of working with the final adjustments", the mean value of the participants that as part of their undergraduate studies, had attended a course or

seminar on the education of students with SEN (M=6,14) was statistically greater (t (263) =3,105, p=0,002) than the mean of those that didn't attend (M=5,58).
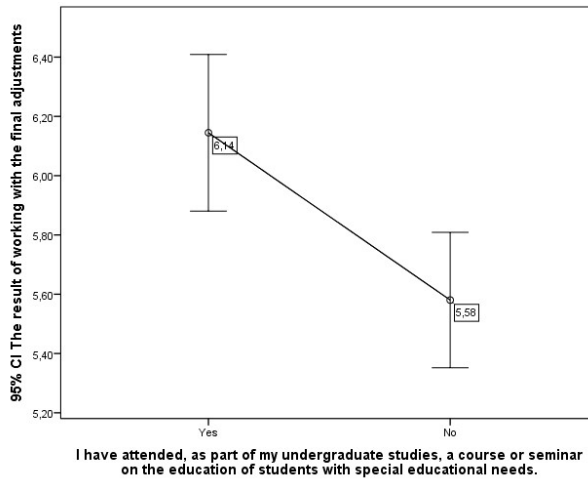
Graph 116: Errorbar "The result of working with the final adjustments" *Attended course or seminar on the education of students with SEN

Table 117: Factors*Attended course or seminar on the education of students with SEN, independent samples t-test (statistically significant results)

Factor	Attendance	N	M	t	df	p
Efficacy to use inclusive instructions	Yes	99	4,94	3,506	263	**0,001**
	No	166	4,69			
Efficacy in collaboration	Yes	99	4,71	3,255	263	**0,001**
	No	166	4,44			
Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors	Yes	99	4,59	2,897	263	**0,004**
	No	166	4,37			
Advantages of Inclusive Education	Yes	99	3,52	2,874	263	**0,004**
	No	166	3,24			
Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	Yes	99	3,70	4,280	263	**<0,001**
	No	166	3,21			
Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education	Yes	99	4,13	2,098	263	**0,037**
	No	166	3,94			
Collaboration for timely information	Yes	99	6,72	3,413	251,484	**0,001**
	No	166	6,12			
Collaboration for teaching	Yes	99	5,94	5,037	250,173	**<0,001**
	No	166	5,07			
Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations	Yes	99	6,56	2,886	263	**0,004**
	No	166	6,15			
The result of working with the final adjustments	Yes	99	6,14	3,105	263	**0,002**
	No	166	5,58			

Chapter IX. CONCLUSIONS-DISCUSSION

9.1. Discussion

In current research, 265 teachers participated, almost equally distributed between general or special education and permanent or temporary employment status, mainly teaching in Central Greece, Attica, Central Macedonia, and the Southern Aegean, and having the specialty of philologist, science teacher, or mathematician. Most of them have special education training, and nearly all (97.4%) have received training in at least one of the possible methods, including training in special education issues, educational sciences in general, another scientific field, a seminar, or participation in a conference. Most teachers are female, older than 35 years old, with 0–5 years of teaching experience in special education, and they do not have a child with special educational needs living at home. Almost half of the sample stated 0–10 years of teaching experience in general education, while 1 out of 4 referred to more than 20 years.

Teachers indicated high levels of efficacy for inclusive practices and used inclusive instructions to collaborate and deal with disruptive behaviors. Regarding the efficacy of using inclusive instructions, teachers agreed that they can provide an alternate explanation or an example when students are confused and provide appropriate challenges for very capable students. Moreover, they agreed that they are confident in their ability to get students to work together in pairs or small groups and can accurately gauge student comprehension of what they have taught. In addition, they stated that they can use a variety of assessment strategies and that they are confident in designing learning tasks so that the individual needs of students with disabilities are accommodated.

The teacher's confidence shows strong self-efficacy feelings. From the research conducted, it is observed that the existence of self-efficacy is one strong parameter that influences the individual's actions (Pajares & Schunk, 2001; Zimmerman, 2000). According to McWilliams (2004), "self-efficacy" is an emotion that has an influence on a person's general way of acting, showing, among other things, the way in which he or she reacts emotionally. Additionally, teachers' self-efficacy plays a role in predicting

the positive or negative attitude presented in contexts of the implementation of inclusion. Besides, the above is also confirmed by the research of Ahmmed et al. (2014), in which the writers conclude that teachers with higher feelings of self-efficacy tend to "hug" more children with special educational needs, compared to their peers who have a less strong sense of self-efficacy (Ahmmed et al., 2014). Based on the above, teachers' self-efficacy in applying inclusion principles and instructions is a significant factor in the realization of inclusive education.

Considering the teachers' efficacy to collaborate, they agreed that they can collaborate with other professionals in designing educational plans for students with disabilities, work jointly with other professionals and staff to teach students with disabilities in the classroom, make parents feel comfortable coming to school, and that they can assist families in helping their children do well in school.

According to Mylonakou-Keké (2009), the complexity and ongoing social, cultural, and economic changes of modern society, as well as developments in science and technology, make interaction between school, family, and community a necessity. The actions of co-education are necessary in the modern school, as they also recognize school-family cooperation as a very important issue for which it is necessary to take immediate initiatives by those involved, i.e., students, parents, and teachers. In addition, collaboration between schoolteachers is essential (Ainscow et al., 2004) to ensure effective lesson planning and evaluation. Through a fruitful collaboration, teachers could shape new pedagogy practices and situations, implement innovations, and create an environment of collegiality and trust that will help them overcome the difficulties that arise during the educational process. Naturally, an atmosphere of collaboration benefits not only the educators but also the entirety of society, given that cooperative efforts extend beyond the walls of the school (Tomlinson & Kalbfleisch, 1998). When working together on anything, teachers should consider all their students as well as the unique qualities of each student (strengths, weaknesses, etc.). Therefore, the process cannot be inclusive simply through the participation of instructors with other teachers, parents, and students, as collaboration with specialist scientists is frequently required. But if there is an environment of collaboration, controlled by the values of inclusiveness, then collaboration aids instructors in handling any circumstance (Ainscow, 2005).

Teachers agreed that they can get children to follow classroom rules and make their expectations about student behavior clear in terms of their efficacy in dealing with disruptive behaviors. In addition, they stated that they can control disruptive behavior in the classroom; they are able to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy; prevent disruptive behavior in the classroom before it occurs; and deal with students who are physically aggressive.

The teacher must evaluate various cognitive and perceptual abilities due to the involvement of complex processes in the use of spoken and written language in order to identify the behaviors presented by each child with learning difficulties. The inclusion of children with severe developmental disorders in the general school population is also noteworthy. The above category of children has characteristics of disruptive behaviors such as screams, outbursts of anger, etc. In this case, the child is considered responsible for hindering the teaching work and for the reduced performance of his or her classmates without special educational needs. Nevertheless, regarding the psycho-pedagogical support of children with special educational needs, teachers are obliged to manage the situations in their class without causing the stigmatization of these children (Doikou, 2000). The primary need, to achieve the above goal, is for the teachers to acquire knowledge not only in the field of special education but also of the children's needs (Hammond & Ingalls, 2003). They should also adopt a positive attitude toward behavior and show respect for diversity, since only in this way will the teacher be able to respond to children with behavioral difficulties (Jakupcak, 1998). In the research of Anderson et al. (2007), participating teachers reported that children with special needs and learning difficulties attending the general classroom demonstrate good behavior in the context of the educational process. Additionally, inclusive education enables them to develop skills, thus contributing to more effective communication with their classmates. Therefore, the implementation of inclusion practices is enough to address many of the children's behavioral problems.

The analysis of teachers' attitudes towards inclusive classrooms presented very high levels of agreement on philosophical issues and logistical concerns regarding inclusive education, as well as high levels of agreement on the advantages of inclusive education and their capabilities regarding professional issues.

Considering philosophical issues, teachers agreed that special in-service training in teaching students with SEND should be required for all regular education teachers, that academic progress is possible for those children, that they can adequately handle students with mild to moderate behavioral problems, and that all children can learn in most environments, even though they differ intellectually, physically, and psychologically.

As we have seen, the attitudes of teachers are described as relatively stable entities that comprise cognitive, affective, and behavioral components (Bizer et al., 2006; Savolainen et al., 2012). Teachers' attitudes and beliefs are two of the strongest predictors of their success in practice (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Forlin, 2010; Forlin et al., 2011; Miesera & Gebhardt, 2018; Opoku et al., 2020). At the same time, they can help to improve the learning environment in general and ultimately achieve high-quality inclusive education (Savolainen et al., 2020). This is because teachers' everyday practices in inclusive classrooms are significantly predicted by their intentions to implement inclusive strategies and their attitudes toward inclusive education (Hellmich et al., 2019). This means that the implementation of inclusive practices is compromised when teachers' beliefs, perceptions, and attitudes do not coincide with their philosophical backgrounds (Bryan, 2012).

Concerning the logistical concerns of inclusive education, teachers stated that they do not mind making special physical arrangements in their classrooms to meet the needs of students with special needs; they are comfortable teaching a child who is moderately physically disabled; and their principal is supportive of making necessary accommodations for teaching children with special needs.

Support from supervisors is also expected, as the concepts of "participation restrictions" and "activity barriers" denote the problems that a person may face in the process of engaging in life situations and the difficulties that may arise in the exercise of his activities (Shakespeare & Watson, 1997). This is because the human rights-based social model advocates adapting environmental (e.g., infrastructure), social, and political (e.g., legislation) conditions to the needs of people with disabilities (WHO, 2001). According to the Index for Inclusion (Booth & Ainscow, 2011), which is still used as a guide for educators, school practices and policies, as well as learning conditions and logistical infrastructure, such as sports facilities or research laboratories,

are emphasized to cover the different needs of students (Mastropieri & Scruggs, 2001; Tafa, 1998). Therefore, the implementation of inclusive education also requires reflection, redefinition, and reorganization of human and financial resources (European Agency for Special Needs and Inclusive Education, 2017).

As far as the advantages of inclusive education are concerned, teachers agreed that students with special needs learn social skills that are modeled by regular education students, should be included in regular education classrooms, and that their self-esteem is increased when included in the regular education classroom. In addition, they agreed somewhat that students with special needs have higher academic achievements when included in the regular education classroom. On the other hand, they disagreed that students with special needs should be placed in special education classes and that students with special needs in the regular education classroom hinder the academic progress of regular education students.

This happens because, when the student with special educational needs attends a school characterized by cooperation, he or she learns to cooperate with his or her classmates, to be actively involved in the groups, and, of course, to respect and accept all members. The adaptation of teaching is also of paramount importance, so that the needs of all students are met. According to Becker O'Keefe (2012), this can be realized through a significant number of pedagogical practices and strategies. Some of them are differentiated instruction, universal design for learning, individualized teaching, collaborative and investigative learning, collaborative process problem solving, teaching in informal learning environments, and holistic quality in education. Differentiated instruction is based on the recognition of the cognitive and learning diversity of each student and, through adaptations to daily lessons, aims to meet different students' needs (Tomlinson & Kalbfleisch, 1998). This strategy is characterized by flexibility, adaptability, and rigor in application and is designed to meet the needs and enhance the potential of a particular student (Tomlinson & Kalbfleisch, 1998). Essentially, the teacher recognizes the diversity of each student cognitively and academically and takes the same course, the same material mentioned in the syllabus, and changes or adapts it to the needs of the student in question. For this strategy to be successful, the teachers must use the skills of all the students in the class. Universal design for learning is an approach that aims to meet the needs of all students in a classroom and help them enhance their self-esteem (Rose & Meyer, 2002).

Analyzing capability in professional issues, they agreed that they are confident in their ability to teach children with special needs but disagreed that they become anxious when they learn that a student with special needs will be in their classroom and that they have problems teaching a student with cognitive deficits.

Remarkable are the results of research on the factors that influence the formation of teachers' perceptions and attitudes. The studies by Hellier (1988) and Avramidis et al. (2000) show that teachers' initial experience with students with learning difficulties is what forms a more positive attitude towards the inclusive school. In addition, studies in Greek schools (Batsiou et al., 2008; Symeonidou & Ftiaka, 2012) document that teachers, after their contact with children with special educational needs, overcome their initial doubts and form more positive attitudes towards inclusion. Still, a factor that plays an important role in the formation of a more positive attitude in teachers towards inclusion is the years of educational experience they have alongside the teaching skills they have already acquired. The research of Villa et al. (1996, as cited in Avramidis et al., 2000) confirms the above evidence.

The cooperation of teachers with the parents of students with special educational needs was analyzed. Results indicated high levels of collaboration for timely information and medium-to-high levels of collaboration for teaching. Considering the importance of collaborating for timely information, participants agreed that in their collaboration with the student's parent, he or she provides them with information about the student's background and helps them to understand his learning needs. Regarding collaboration for teaching, participants agreed that in their collaboration with the student's parents they evaluate issues related to his performance and that they develop teaching objectives, while they tended to agree that they work together with special educational staff.

Teachers' role in the cooperation with parents was characterized as important for the predisposition to organize teaching adaptations and for the result of working with the final adjustments. Considering the predisposition to organize teaching adaptations, teachers agreed that in their collaboration with the student's parents, they point out the strengths and not only the weaknesses of the student; they explain the teaching objectives; they offer practical help; they explain the teaching methods; they provide counseling guidance; and they include the parents' needs and desires in their

curriculum. Regarding the results of working with the final adjustments, teachers agreed that, based on the cooperation with the parent, they adapt their teaching to the learning needs of the student, the homework intervention activities, and the activities with his or her classmates.

As expected, teachers benefit from a productive parent-teacher relationship beyond the general support of the educational project as learning opportunities increase, and teachers and students have access to more resources and services. In addition, this cooperation offers a significant benefit through the reinforcement of appropriate behavior by the child in and out of school, with teachers and parents observing and regulating the child's behavior accordingly. On the other hand, as we have seen in the research, concern was expressed by the parents about the lack of special knowledge and teaching skills by the teachers and, consequently, anxiety about the treatment of the child with disabilities or special educational needs in the general classroom, which can lead to his exclusion at a cognitive level and isolation. Collaboration can address this concern as both teacher and parent knowledge is covered (Davern, 1999; Jenkinson, 1998; Leyser & Kirk, 2004; Lovitt & Cushing, 1999; Runswick-Cole, 2008).

Considering obstacles to cooperation, participants agreed somewhat that there are practical reasons, while they disagreed somewhat that there are personal reasons. Regarding practical reasons, a lack of time was the major reason. Little agreement was noticed due to the inability to meet other than the specified days and hours and their own lack of training in counseling. For personal reasons, little agreement was noticed about the existence of indifference. General obstacles were the lack of communication with parents, the lack of parental knowledge, and the inability of parents to admit some difficulties to their children.

Lack of time seems to be the biggest obstacle to more active involvement of the family in education. The increase in the number of families, in which either one parent is working, or both parents are working, or parents practice more than one profession, inevitably leads to a decrease in the time spent at home for children and their school obligations (Jigyel et al., 2018; Minsih et al., 2020; Papanikolaou, 2018). For example, in the US, 66% of parents say they don't have enough time to deal with their children's school. In addition, some parents feel that school-related activities are not their responsibility (12%), while others do not feel comfortable with the school

environment (16%). Others, again, do not know the ways in which they could get involved in education (21%). Many of those parents who feel uncomfortable in the school environment do not speak the official language of the state or have children with special needs. They need additional support to be involved in their children's education (Kyridis et al., 2011). Thus, parents, in the vast majority, remain uninformed about the existence of special teaching materials or methods that they could use to support their children at home. Parents today are more informed about education issues and can more easily understand any reform efforts when they have direct contact and first-hand knowledge of what is happening in schools. In the past, misconceptions and concerns regarding some modern teaching methods or innovative educational programs often caused public controversy, simply because an attempt was made to introduce practices different from those experienced by most parents when they were in school (Kyridis et al., 2011). Research shows that close collaboration and frequent communication are the best ways to deal with any concerns from parents.

Teachers, on the other hand, may often discourage parental involvement as they perceive it as a threat to their professional prestige, consider themselves solely responsible for the education of children, doubt that parents can contribute positively to their work, or they are reluctant to accept that they need parental help. At the same time, common negative beliefs of teachers are that parents are only interested in the child's school performance and do not care about his overall image at school. They also attribute the good performances of the students to the quality of their course, while holding the parents responsible for the bad ones or the students' insufficient abilities. Often, they may adopt the technocratic view and approach of educational work, according to which the "personal" problems of students and parents are considered their personal matters and dealing with them is not their obligation (Bruzos, 2009).

Confirmation of research hypotheses

1st RH

   Regarding the research hypotheses, we can claim that the first research hypothesis was confirmed. General and special education teachers' self-efficacy in implementing inclusive practices affected their attitudes toward inclusion positively. More specifically, considering teachers of general education, teachers that have a higher efficacy to collaborate have also a higher level of professionalism in issues regarding inclusive education, while teachers that have a higher efficacy to use inclusive instructions support more the logistical concerns of inclusive education.

   The above finding was also reported by Avramidis et al. (2019), who not only support the above hypothesis but also point out that self-efficacy in the implementation of inclusive practices increases the positive attitude and willingness to teach students with SEN. In addition, Pérez et al. (2017) note that the necessary practices to create an inclusive climate are: cooperation at all levels, training in special education and class management, reinforcing mechanisms from the state and school, as well as societal support to overcome resource issues (financial, technological but also cultural). Cooperation and interaction between the general education teacher, the special education teacher, and the assistance staff is highly beneficial for inclusive education, as all educational and school personnel strive to support all students (Scruggs & Mastropieri, 2001).

   In addition, the continuous training and education of teachers of the general class in matters of special education, intercultural education, diversity management, etc. is a very important benefit of inclusive education (Smith et al., 1998). The effort to provide more inclusive education requires cooperation of many separate and at the same time interconnected parties. Specifically, the cooperation of state officials, members of the local community and the parents of the students is essential for the inclusion. Unfortunately, there are many problems involved, if cooperation is not smooth (Rose, 2010). More specifically, society's culture problems, stereotypes, racist prejudices, religious beliefs in both state/local and school contexts stand in the way of promoting more inclusive practices (Stylianou, 2017). Beyond the culture of society, there are many times bureaucratic problems. Many states' policies are based on an aggregate way of administration, which prevents initiatives by school leaders and/or teachers, since all

actions are strictly planned and predetermined (Bhatnagar & Das, 2014). Trying to propose a change is particularly time-consuming and the process to follow is often a deterrent (Tange, 2016).

Furthermore, the relationships of the teachers with the parents of the students, with the educational support staff, with the managers, but also with the rest of the teachers, happen to be not easy (Angelides et al., 2009; Bualar, 2016). All this tension prevents the creation of any cooperation network between stakeholders to improve the school and promote the learning process, negatively charging the climate that prevails in the school with direct impact and turning it into a hostile environment for the student. As a result, the teacher's efficacy to collaborate also promotes feelings of "belonging" to students with special education needs (Tange, 2016).

Regarding special education teachers, those who have higher efficacy to collaborate also have higher professionalism in issues regarding inclusive education, while teachers who have higher efficacy to deal with disruptive behaviors also have higher professionalism in issues regarding inclusive education and support more of the philosophical issues regarding inclusive education.

The need for collaboration efficacy has been elaborated upon in the preceding analysis. Moreover, it has been revealed that teachers with strong teaching performance and specialization, such as special education teachers in the Greek setting, tend to better manage challenging student behaviors (Wang et al., 2015) and use more humane approaches to dealing with student behaviors (Sharma & Forlin, 2011; Woolfolk et al., 1990). Consequently, this once again links to the concept of "expectancy" and how it can relate to the individual's concept of self-efficacy. The first includes two components: "ability expectation" and "outcome expectation." These two components mediate the individual's behavior (Bandura, 1977). The difference between the two is that one can believe that a certain action will have a certain result. However, if he/she develops any doubts about whether he/she can achieve the desired outcome, this process will consequently affect the outcome (Bandura, 1977). Therefore, a high level of teacher self-efficacy contributes to the perception that they can deal with any behavior (Fackler & Malmberg, 2016).

Regarding the second research hypothesis, it can be concluded that it was justified. More specifically, teachers with special education training presented higher values in the indicators of self-efficacy, attitudes, and collaboration with the parents of children with SEND. Teachers with special education training have higher efficacy to use inclusive instructions, to collaborate, to deal with disruptive behaviors, to support more the advantages of inclusive education, the philosophical issues, and the logistical concerns regarding inclusive education, and to have higher professionalism in inclusive education issues. Furthermore, teachers with special education training believe that their role is more important regarding the predisposition to organize teaching adaptations and the result of working with the final adjustments. In addition, teachers with special education training face fewer obstacles for practical reasons but more obstacles for personal reasons. It appears that training in another scientific field improves the efficacy of collaboration in general and collaboration in teaching while increasing the teacher's role in the outcomes of working on the final adjustments. Seminars improved the efficacy of dealing with disruptive behaviors. Teachers that participated in the conference presented higher efficacy to use inclusive instructions, collaborate, and deal with disruptive behaviors, while supporting more the logistical concerns of inclusive education. Teachers with no kind of training presented lower efficacy to use inclusive instructions, to collaborate, and to deal with disruptive behaviors, as well as lower professionalism in inclusive education, while supporting less the advantages of inclusive education and the philosophical issues.

Special education instructors appear to employ more successful methods for children with learning difficulties since their academic training is focused on developing and implementing therapies for those children. As a result, they feel more effective. In contrast, while being well-informed about these interventions, general education instructors select those that pertain to the general classroom (Leyser, 2002). Several studies have found that general and special education teachers who attend seminars on the design, evaluation, and implementation of interventions, student teaching methods, and collaboration between general and special education teachers and other members of the school develop a strong belief in their ability to manage students with learning disabilities and behavioral issues (Tzivinikou, 2015; Giallo & Little, 2003).

The creation of lesson material, instructional tactics, and routines can also benefit from instructors receiving training in how to modify the curriculum and instruction to match the diverse requirements of their students. According to Kiel et al. (2020), inclusive curriculum development should pay particular attention to self-efficacy in such training. Teachers might test out novel approaches to handling differentiation and instruction while in training, and success-related sentiments could boost self-efficacy (Kiel et al., 2020).

Concerning the internal reorganization of the school and the roles of the teacher, it was previously stated that there should be continuous collaboration between the principal, the teacher, and the special pedagogue to define the respective educational objectives, adapt the curriculum as necessary, and make the decision to implement individualized teaching programs. Special education training is a vital condition for proper and successful collaboration between teachers and between teachers and students in their education (Scruggs & Mastropieri, 2001). The involvement of parents in the educational process is a vital element for the effective outcome of co-education, as it provides the necessary support and improves decision-making (Norwich, 2000). Classes should be small to effectively implement inclusive education, and current supervision tools should be used according to the special needs of children. In addition, all students should participate in a variety of activities both inside and outside the classroom, in collaboration with children from other departments and classes. In this way, the awareness and attitude change of all children towards children with disabilities and/or special educational needs is achieved (Tafa, 1998), a process that requires the necessary knowledge of teachers, which can only be obtained through mandatory training (Hellmich et al., 2019).

3rd RH

Continuing, regarding the third research hypothesis, it is possible to draw the conclusion that it was supported. Teachers of general and special education with higher levels of efficacy and attitudes presented higher levels of collaboration with parents of children with SEND.

Concerning teachers of general education, higher levels of efficacy in using inclusive instructions were correlated with higher levels of collaboration for timely information. In addition, teachers with higher efficacy to collaborate had better collaboration for timely information and teaching, supported more the teacher's role

regarding predisposition to organize teaching adaptations and the result of working with the final adjustments, and faced fewer obstacles to cooperation related to personal reasons. Teachers who support more the logistical concerns of inclusive education face fewer obstacles to cooperation related to practical and personal reasons.

Considering teachers of special education, higher levels of efficacy to collaborate were correlated with higher levels of collaboration for timely information and teaching, while supporting more the teacher's role regarding predisposition to organize teaching adaptations and the result of working with the final adjustments. In addition, teachers with higher professionalism in issues related to inclusive education presented better collaboration for timely information and supported more the teacher's role regarding predisposition to organize teaching adaptations. Teachers that support more the advantages of inclusive education also support more the teacher's role regarding the result of working with the final adjustments. Teachers who agree more about the philosophical issues regarding inclusive education face fewer personal reasons as obstacles to cooperation.

Along with the benefits of inclusive education for students with SEND, the teachers also benefit, as within the framework of inclusion, the potential of all students who have a key role in education is recognized. In addition, inclusive education contributes to the professional development of the teachers, since they attempt the design or adaptation of the educational process according to the needs of each child, without simply implementing the instructions given to them (Hardy & Woodcock, 2015). The above situation contributes to a more effective and creative way of approaching students with difficulties, especially with the help of their parents. Although there are no relevant surveys for Greece, research has shown that the cooperation between school and family has not been sufficiently developed. Usually, the approaches of the two agencies take the form of formal relations in the context of specific obligations (parents' information from the school or participation of parents in school events), and teachers are exhausted in the fulfillment of specific, mostly formal, obligations (Kyridis et al., 2001). The involvement of the family in education is mainly limited to monitoring the tasks that the child should prepare at home (especially in small classes). Only a small percentage of parents are involved in activities such as attending school board meetings or forming committees to discuss and promote school-related issues. However, the type of family involvement that appears to have the greatest

impact on student achievement has to do with the parent's physical presence at school, such as attendance and involvement in school activities (Kyridis et al., 2001).

Concerning the education of children with SEND, parents in Greece are eager to provide information regarding their child's special educational requirements, citing facts from his past. This is generally the beginning of the partnership between instructors and parents (Papanikolaou, 2018). However, according to Polychronopoulou (2003), instructors seldom provide parents with practical advice on how to assist their children in learning activities at home. At the same time, instructors rarely listen to parents and change the substance of their lessons based on their ideas. This necessitates the teacher cultivating favorable attitudes toward inclusion and being trained in this field, as is often the case with special education educators.

More specifically, teachers must approach their students to discover their skills as well as their weaknesses, interact with the children's parents, learn about their background on a social, economic, and cultural level, and collaborate with the interdisciplinary team of the school in which they work to shape a complete picture of their students (Heisssenbuttel, 2014).

The ability of teachers to recognize all the barriers that stand in the way of a student's achievement in their academic pursuits is the most important result of the procedures mentioned above (Schwab et al., 2016). When teachers have complete information about the capabilities, limitations, interests, and specific requirements of each child, they are in a better position to design their curriculum in a democratic manner, with the goal of catering to the requirements of every child without making any exceptions (Fuchs, et al., 2015). The foregoing has the effect of providing schools with equitable opportunities and, at the same time, reducing the academic achievement gap between students who succeed and those who do not (Schwab et al., 2016).

4ᵗʰ RH

Regarding the fourth research hypothesis, it was confirmed, as the analysis revealed that special education teachers exhibited greater self-efficacy in the implementation of inclusive education practices, greater formation of inclusive attitudes and perceptions, and better collaboration with parents of students with SEND. Results indicated that teachers of special education have higher efficacy to use inclusive instructions, to collaborate, to deal with disruptive behaviors, to support

more the advantages of inclusive education, the philosophical issues, and the logistical concerns regarding inclusive education, and to have higher professionalism in inclusive education issues. Furthermore, teachers of special education believe that their role is more important regarding the predisposition to organize teaching adaptations and the result of working with the final adjustments, while facing fewer obstacles for practical reasons.

This is also expected since a significant amount of research shows that the positive attitude of teachers towards inclusion promotes the increased use of similar practices in their classroom (Avramidis et al., 2019; Desombre et al., 2019; Gidlund, 2018). For example, the research of Özokcu (2018), which studied the relationship between teachers' efficacy and their attitude towards inclusion, showed that teachers with a positive attitude possessed abilities in inclusive teaching, collaboration with colleagues and parents, crisis management, and dangerous behaviors of students. Similar findings in the research of Hernandez et al. (2016) were highlighted, as it appeared that teachers' self-efficacy is correlated with the development of positive attitudes towards the inclusion of students with SEND in mainstream schools. To the same conclusion, but from the opposite side, is also concluded by Vaz et al. (2015), who found that the teachers with low self-efficacy in management skills of difficult and complex situations at school tended to maintain a negative attitude towards inclusive education. In fact, teachers seem to feel insecure about managing difficult situations with severe behavioral problems. Several studies support the idea that special education teachers feel more positive about managing serious problems of a psycho-emotional nature and behavior, since they have the training but also the positive attitude towards inclusive education (Gidlund, 2018).

5th RH

The fifth study question investigated the impact of demographic profile on a teacher's view of inclusive attitudes, self-efficacy, and collaboration with parents of students with SEND.

Regarding gender, the initial research hypothesis was that gender affects self-efficacy, attitudes, and the collaboration between teachers of general and special education and the parents of children with SEND. The hypothesis was partially affirmed, as gender showed statistically significant differences in terms of attitudes, while there were no significant differences in self-efficacy and collaboration with

parents. More specifically, females indicated more positive attitudes toward the inclusion of students with SEND, as they supported more the advantages of inclusive education and the philosophical issues regarding inclusive education. These findings are consistent with previous research, which found that female instructors were more favorable about implementing inclusive education practices (Alnahdi et al., 2019; Fakolade et al., 2009; Tsakiridou & Polyzopoulou, 2014; Mamah et al., 2011; Vaz et al., 2015).

The explanations attributed to this finding throughout time have varied. According to Lüke and Grosche (2018), male instructors feel that students compete in the classroom, which leads them to assume that it is difficult for students with special learning needs to be socially integrated (Lüke & Grosche, 2018). Additionally, several studies (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; de Boer et al., 2011; Navarro-Mateu et al., 2020) tend to link this difference between men and women to women's higher tolerance for inclusiveness and special education requirements (Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Galaterou & Antoniou, 2017; Morley et al., 2005). Other researchers dismiss this conclusion as fictional, claiming that there is no difference in the co-educational approaches used by male and female instructors (Avramidis et al., 2000; Avramidis & Norwich, 2002; Hofman & Kilimo, 2014).

Regarding age, the initial hypothesis was also partially confirmed, as it was found that age affects attitudes and collaboration with parents but not self-efficacy. Younger teachers presented higher professionalism on issues related to inclusive education. The teacher's role, considering the result of working with the final adjustments, was supported more by teachers 31–50 years old. Teachers over 45 face fewer personal reasons as obstacles to cooperation, while teachers 46–50 and 31–35 face fewer practical reasons as obstacles. The philosophical issues related to inclusive education were supported more by teachers 22–40 years old. Similarly, in the research of Rakap and Kaczmarek (2010), it appeared that younger teachers had a more positive attitude towards co-education. These findings are supported by the findings of Galaterou and Antoniou (2017) and Vaz et al. (2015), which found that young teachers have a more positive attitude than older teachers. This may be due to the fact that older instructors received little or no training in co-education (Galaterou & Antoniou, 2017), while co-educational practices help younger prospective instructors but not older ones (Forlin et al., 2009). On the other hand, Ćwirynkało et al. (2017) discovered that older

educators have a higher level of belief in the success of inclusive education approaches, while other research (Forlin et al., 2009; Martin et al., 2021) did not detect differences based on age.

Furthermore, the initial hypothesis that instructors who lived with special-needs children had more favorable attitudes toward inclusion, showed higher values in self-efficacy indicators, and were more collaborative with the parents of students with SEND was partially verified. Teachers who had a child with SEND at home presented higher indicators in terms of self-efficacy and, more specifically, of efficacy in dealing with disruptive behaviors. This finding is further supported by Sahin's (2018) study, which demonstrated a high correlation between teachers' prior experience with children with SEN (in the home environment) and their attitude towards them. Furthermore, Zoniou Sideri and Vlachou (2006) revealed in their study that instructors who had no prior experience with children with disabilities were less enthusiastic about teaching in courses when even one student with a disability or SEN was present.

Moreover, regarding the work relationship, deputy teachers have more positive attitudes about students with disabilities and are more collaborative with parents of students with SEND. Thus, we observe that in this case too, the original hypothesis is partially confirmed. Indeed, it was revealed that deputy teachers support more the advantages of inclusive education, the philosophical issues, and logistical concerns of inclusive education, present a higher level of professionalism in inclusive education, and collaborate with parents regarding teaching but face more personal reasons as obstacles to their cooperation. This conclusion may be explained, even though it seems to contradict the research (Duggleby & Badali, 2007; Vorell, 2012), which indicates that substitute teachers have lower expectations. According to Greek law (Law 3699/2008), special education instructors should be highly trained professionals who are hired from a special registry. So, due to the separate hiring process for these trainers, combined with the hiring freeze in the public sector in the last decade, brought about by the economic crisis, the result was that most of the special education teachers were substitutes.

The initial hypotheses that teachers who have professional experience with students with special educational needs in regular classrooms have more positive attitudes towards inclusive education, are more collaborative, and have fewer barriers

to collaboration with parents were partially confirmed by the results of the research. Teachers with 0–10 years' experience in general education presented higher professionalism in issues related to inclusive education. Philosophical issues regarding inclusive education were less expressed by teachers with 11–20 years' experience in general education, while teachers with 16–20 years' experience in general education supported less the logistical concerns of inclusive education and the importance of the teacher role considering the predisposition to organize teaching adaptations. Teachers with 6–10 years' experience in general education face fewer obstacles to cooperation related to personal and practical reasons compared with those with 16–20 years' experience. Indeed, according to Idol (2006), instructors with more general education teaching experience were more favorable about co-education than teachers with fewer years of service because they felt themselves to be more experienced. Koutrouba et al. (2008) discovered in a Greek study that the longer the tenure of the instructors who participated in the research, the more positive their opinion toward co-education was. Butakor et al. (2020) discovered that older instructors had unfavorable views regarding co-education, but Saloviita (2020a) discovered that younger teachers have a more positive attitude.

Additionally, teachers with 0–1 years of teaching experience in special education presented lower efficacy to use inclusive instructions, to collaborate, and to deal with disruptive behaviors, as well as lower professionalism in issues related to inclusive education, while supporting less the logistical concerns and the importance of the teacher's role regarding the predisposition to organize teaching adaptations. Advantages of inclusive education were more clearly expressed by teachers with 2–10 years of teaching experience in special education. Teachers with 0–5 years of teaching experience in special education faced more personal and practical reasons as obstacles to cooperation.

Regarding the area of work, advantages of inclusive education were less supported by teachers who work at Ionian Islands, Peloponnese, West Macedonia and in Southern Aegean. Philosophical issues regarding inclusive education were supported less by teachers who work at Ionian Islands, Thessaly, West Macedonia, Crete, Central Macedonia, /and Central Greece. Logistical concerns of inclusive education were less supported by teachers who work at Thessaly and Peloponnese. Usually, the teachers

who teach underprivileged areas to show a lower positive attitude towards inclusive education in relation to those who live in urban centers or in more densely populated areas (Chepel et al., 2016).

Moreover, foreign language teachers indicated lower efficacy in dealing with disruptive behaviors and lower professionalism in issues related to inclusive education, while mathematicians and other specialties supported the advantages of inclusive education less.

The findings corroborate the initial hypothesis that the degree of training in special education influences attitudes toward inclusive education, self-efficacy, and collaboration. Teachers who have attended a course or seminar on the education of students with SEND demonstrated higher efficacy in using inclusive instruction, collaborating, dealing with disruptive behaviors, supporting more the advantages of inclusive education, understanding the philosophical issues surrounding inclusive education, and having higher professionalism in inclusive education issues. Furthermore, teachers of special education believe that their role is more important regarding the predisposition to organize teaching adaptations and the result of working with the final adjustments, while also having better collaboration for timely information and teaching.

A similar study with 300 teachers showed that there were no differences in attitudes towards inclusion between those who had only a basic degree in general education and those who had progressed to further specialization in special education (Gupta & Tandon, 2018). However, many studies show opposite results, such as Lika's study (2016), in which 146 teachers participated, where it was observed that teachers with training in special education held more positive attitudes towards the inclusion of students with SEND in mainstream schools than those who did not. Similar findings were shown by the research of Sarris et al. (2018), in which 120 preschool and primary education teachers participated, who lived in areas of Northwestern Greece. The teachers who had received specialized knowledge in special education were more willing to accept students with SEND in their classroom. This position is reinforced by the research of Tsakiridou & Polyzopoulou (2014) with 416 preschool, primary, and secondary Greek teachers, which showed that those who had attended a seminar in the field of special education had more positive attitudes about presenting students with

physical, social, and behavioral difficulties than those who had not received additional training.

In the research of Dukmak (2013) with 455 teachers, significant differences in teachers' attitudes based on length of service were observed. As the years of service increased, the positive attitudes towards inclusion of children with SEN were declining. The study of Todorovic et al. (2011), where it was found that teachers with less than ten (10) years of experience in general education had a more positive attitude than teachers with more than 30 years of service, also supports this finding. Researchers believe that the result is probably related to the age of the teachers. The youngest in age teachers, from the beginning of their working lives, have contact with students with SEND in classes and are optimistic about their inclusion and co-education in mainstream schools. On the other hand, general education teachers with more than 20 years of experience may not have had contact with students with SEN in the beginning of their careers because they served in special school units, so they maintain a cautious attitude towards the effectiveness of inclusion (Dukmak 2013). The research of Ridarick and Ringlaben (2013) notes that teachers with 16–20 years of experience in special education are more negative about the inclusion of students with SEN than are teachers with less than 5 years' experience. Wood's (2017) research on the attitudes and self-efficacy of secondary school teachers found that there are no significant differences in teachers' attitudes based on their experience in special education. However, the researcher points out that teachers with 1–5 years of experience are more positive compared to those with 14–17 years of experience. Probably the teachers with fewer years of experience in special education and younger teachers feel enthusiastic about teaching and have attended university curriculum specialized courses for inclusiveness philosophy and practices of its promotion. Conversely, teachers with more years of previous service in special education, despite many years of experience, feel tired, and they resist any differentiation of their way of working, even if it is to the benefit of students with SEND.

Certainly, a significant amount of research also supports the opposite view. Abu Hamour and Muhaidat (2013), in their research on the attitudes of special education teachers for the inclusion of students with autism in mainstream schools, found that teachers with more than 5 years of experience maintained a more positive attitude compared to those who had 1-2 years of experience. The study by Kalyva et al. (2007)

showed similar results, and it was shown that teachers with more years of special education experience had more positive attitudes than those with less experience. You et al. (2019) explain that perhaps teachers with multi-year teaching experience with students with severe learning difficulties develop varied teaching methods and techniques to improve their effectiveness, so this experience allows them to form a positive attitude towards inclusion.

9.2. Conclusions

This study's primary goal was to investigate the relationship between general and special education teachers' attitudes and perceptions of inclusion and their self-efficacy to implement inclusive practices in Greek high schools, as well as whether these factors influence their perceptions of collaboration with parents of students with special educational needs in the implementation of inclusion in Greek high schools. The objectives of the study, as indicated in the first part, were attained.

In overall, teachers reported high levels of efficacy in inclusive activities, and their attitudes toward inclusive classrooms were generally positive. General and special education teachers' self-efficacy in implementing inclusive practices affected their attitudes toward inclusion positively. Moreover, considering teachers of general education, teachers that have a higher efficacy to collaborate have also a higher level of professionalism in issues regarding inclusive education, while teachers that have a higher efficacy to use inclusive instructions support more the logistical concerns of inclusive education. The efficacy of general education teachers to use inclusive instructions as well as the efficacy of special education teachers to deal with disruptive behaviors enhanced the attitudes towards inclusion.

In addition, special education training was a major factor in improving self-efficacy to implement inclusive practices, formulate perceptions about attitudes, and collaborate. Teachers who had received training in special education showed higher values in the indicators of self-efficacy, attitudes, and collaboration with the parents of children who had special educational needs or disabilities (SEND). Teachers who had not received any training showed a lower level of efficacy when it came to using inclusive instruction, collaborating, and dealing with disruptive behaviors. Furthermore, their professionalism in the field of inclusive education was also inferior.

Teachers of both general and special education who exhibited higher levels of efficacy and attitudes collaborated more effectively with the parents of children with special educational needs and disabilities (SEND). Furthermore, general teachers' efficacy to use inclusive instructions and a positive attitude towards logistical concerns increased levels of collaboration. Greater self-efficacy in the implementation of inclusive education approaches and improved collaboration with the parents of children who have special educational needs or disabilities is exhibited by special education teachers. General teachers' efficacy to use inclusive instructions and a positive attitude towards logistical concerns increased levels of collaboration. Moreover, regarding the content of collaboration, high levels of collaboration for timely information with parents of students with SEND appeared, while a lack of time was the major obstacle to cooperation.

Educators in special education have a better feeling of their own efficacy when it comes to cooperating, adopting inclusive curricula, and handling disruptive behaviors, according to the research. According to the investigation's findings, instructors in special education believe their function is more important in terms of the propensity to adapt teaching practices.

Finally, the effect of certain demographic factors on general and special education teachers (such as age, gender, and professional experience) on their sense of self-efficacy in implementing inclusive practices, on the formation of attitudes towards inclusive education, and on the content of their collaboration with parents of children with SEND was investigated. Females and younger teachers supported more inclusive attitudes, while middle-aged teachers had higher levels of collaboration and teachers who had a child with SEND at home displayed higher efficacy in dealing with disruptive behaviors. Furthermore, deputy teachers presented higher inclusive attitudes and better collaboration for teaching but cited more personal reasons as obstacles to cooperation. Teachers with more experience in special education indicated higher efficacy in implementing inclusive practices, while teachers of moderate experience presented higher inclusive attitudes and collaboration.

The general conclusion from all the above is that collaboration, at all levels, not only results from teachers' skills and knowledge about inclusive practices but also enhances their self-efficacy and their positive attitudes about inclusion. In other words,

it is not a one-way relationship, but as the knowledge, experience, and resources that help teachers integrate their inclusive practices increase, so does their effectiveness and positive perception. On the other hand, as teachers' self-efficacy increases, so does their willingness to cooperate and develop. Especially for Greece, the topic of cooperation with parents has not been researched enough, as the education system does not allow enough flexibility. Therefore, there is an obvious need to investigate ways to increase collaboration between teachers and parents, especially in the context of special education.

9.3. Limitations-Future research

The results, based on the sample examined, pertain to a population of women over the age of 35 with 0–5 years of teaching experience in special education, primarily from Central Greece, Attica, Central Macedonia, and the South Aegean, with a specialization in philology, a science or math teacher with special education training (Creswell, 2013). The sample size was not large enough to perform parametric tests in every case, which have higher power (Cohen, 1988). Although the questionnaires that were used were reliable, there was moderate construct validity in the factors of efficacy for inclusive practices. In addition, there was moderate reliability in the factors of logistical concerns for inclusive education and practical reasons as obstacles to cooperation. Furthermore, current research is not experimental considering the groups of special and general education teachers. It is recommended new research with stratified sampling of at least 300 teachers in an experimental design considering general and special education teachers and using a questionnaire of higher validity regarding efficacy for inclusive practices and higher reliability regarding logistical concerns of inclusive education and practical reasons as obstacles to cooperation.

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Appendix

Questionnaire

Demographics

1.Gender: Male _____   Female _____

2.Age: 22-30_____   31-35_____   36-40_____   41-45_____   46-50_____   51plus_____

3. Note the category in which you belong:

 I have a child with special educational needs living at home.___

 I do not have a child with special educational needs living at home.____

4. This year I teach at: General Education___Special Education-Parallel

Support__ Special Education- Integration class__

5. Region in which you work:

Eastern Macedonia and Thrace__

Central Macedonia__

West Macedonia__

Epirus__

Thessaly__

Ionian Islands__

West Greece__

Central Greece__

Attica__

Peloponnese__

North Aegean____

Southern Aegean__

Crete_

6. Employment status: permanent_____deputy_____hourly wage_____

7. Years of teaching experience in General Education: 0-1__2-5__6-10__11-15__16-20__over 20 years__

8. Years of teaching experience in Special Education (Parallel Support, Integration classes, Special schools, KESY): 0-1__2-5__6-10__11-15__16-20__over 20 years__

9. Specialty:

PE01 THEOLOGIAN

PE02 PHILOLOGIST

PE03 MATHEMATICIAN

PE04 SCIENCE TEACHER

PE05 FRENCH LANGUAGE TEACHER

PE06 ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHER

PE07 GERMAN LANGUAGE TEACHER

PE08 ART TEACHER

PE09 ECONOMIST TEACHER

PE10 SOCIOLOGIST TEACHER

PE11 SPORTS TEACHER

Other (PE12.01 – PE91.02)

10. I have attended, as part of my undergraduate studies, a course or seminar on the education of students with special educational needs.   Yes_____   No_____

11.Training:

Doctorate in Special Education_____

Doctorate in Educational Sciences generally_____

Doctorate in another scientific field_____

Master's degree in Special Education_____

Master's degree in Educational Sciences generally_____

Master's degree in another scientific field_____

Seminar at least 300 hours in Special Education_____

Seminar at least 300 hours in Educational Sciences generally_____

Seminar at least 300 hours in another scientific field_____

Other Seminar – Training_____

Participation in a conference_____

No Training _____

Teacher Efficacy for Inclusive Practice (TEIP) Scale**.**

<u>Factor 1</u>(Question No:15,18,10,5,6,14): **Efficacy to use inclusive instructions**.
<u>Factor 2</u>(Question No:4,13,9,3,12,16): **Efficacy in collaboration**
<u>Factor 3</u>(Question No:7,8,2,11,17,1): **Efficacy in dealing disruptive behaviors**

1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly disagree	**Disagree,**	**Disagree somewhat**	**Agree somewhat**	**Agree,**	**Strongly agree**

		SD	D	DS	AS	A	SA
1.	I can make my expectations clear about student behavior.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2.	I am able to calm a student who is disruptive or noisy.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3.	I can make parents feel comfortable coming to school.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4.	I can assist families in helping their children do well in school	1	2	3	4	5	6
5.	I can accurately gauge student comprehension of what I have taught.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6.	I can provide appropriate challenges for very capable students.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7.	I am confident in my ability to prevent disruptive behavior in the classroom before it occurs.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8.	I can control disruptive behavior in the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9.	I am confident in my ability to get parents involved in school activities of their children with disabilities	1	2	3	4	5	6
10.	I am confident in designing learning tasks so that the individual needs of students with disabilities are accommodated	1	2	3	4	5	6
11.	I am able to get children to follow classroom rules	1	2	3	4	5	6
12.	I can collaborate with other professionals (e.g., Itinerant teachers or speech pathologists) in designing educational plans for students with disabilities	1	2	3	4	5	6
13.	I am able to work jointly with other professionals and staff (e.g., aides, other teachers) to teach students with disabilities in the classroom.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14.	I am confident in my ability to get students to work together *in pairs or in small groups*.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15.	I can use a variety of assessment strategies (e.g., portfolio assessment, modified tests, performance-based assessment, etc.)	1	2	3	4	5	6
16.	I am confident in informing others who know little about laws and policies relating to the inclusion of students with disabilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17.	I am confident when dealing with students who are physically aggressive.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18.	I am able to provide an alternate explanation or example when students are confused	1	2	3	4	5	6

Scale of Teachers' Attitudes towards Inclusive Classrooms (STATIC)

Factor 1(Question No:7,11,12,13,14,15,20): *Advantages and Disadvantages of Inclusive Education*.
Factor 2(Question No:1,2,3,4,9): *Professional Issues Regarding Inclusive Education*.
Factor 3(Question No:5,6,10,16): *Philosophical Issues Regarding Inclusive Education*.
 Factor 4(Question No:8,17,18,19): *Logistical Concerns of Inclusive Education*.

		SD	D	DS	AS	A	SA
1.	I am confident in my ability to teach children with special needs	0	1	2	3	4	5
2.	I have been adequately trained to meet the needs of children with disabilities.	0	1	2	3	4	5
3.	I become easily frustrated when teaching students with special needs.	0	1	2	3	4	5
4.	I become anxious when I learn that a student with special needs will be in my classroom.	0	1	2	3	4	5
5.	Although children differ intellectually, physically, and psychologically, I believe that all children can learn in most environments.	0	1	2	3	4	5
6.	I believe that academic progress is possible in children with special needs.	0	1	2	3	4	5
7.	I believe that children with special needs should be placed in special education classes.	0	1	2	3	4	5
8.	I am comfortable teaching a child that is moderately physically disabled.	0	1	2	3	4	5
9.	I have problems teaching a student with cognitive deficits.	0	1	2	3	4	5
10.	I can adequately handle students with mild to moderate behavioral problems.	0	1	2	3	4	5
11.	Students with special needs learn social skills that are modeled by regular education students.	0	1	2	3	4	5
12.	Students with special needs have higher academic achievements when included in the regular education classroom.	0	1	2	3	4	5
13.	It is difficult for children with special needs to make strides in academic achievement in the regular education classroom.	0	1	2	3	4	5
14.	Self-esteem of children with special needs is increased when included in the regular education classroom.	0	1	2	3	4	5
15.	Students with special needs in the regular education classroom hinder the academic progress of the regular education student.	0	1	2	3	4	5
16.	Special in-service training in teaching special needs students should be required for all regular education teachers.	0	1	2	3	4	5
17.	I don't mind making special physical arrangement in my room to meet the needs of students with special needs	0	1	2	3	4	5
18.	Adaptive materials and equipment are easily acquired for meeting the needs of students with special needs.	0	1	2	3	4	5
19.	My principal is supportive in making needed accommodations for teaching children with special needs.	0	1	2	3	4	5
20.	Students with special needs should be included in regular education classrooms.	0	1	2	3	4	5

Collaboration of teachers with the parents of students with special educational needs

1. Strongly disagree………8. Strongly agree

Factor 1 *Content of collaboration*
Timely information**: (**Question No:1,2)
Collaboration for teaching**:** (Question No:9,10,11,12)
Factor 2 *Content of teachers' role in cooperation with parents*
Predisposition to organize teaching adaptations: (Question No:3,4,5,6,7,8)
The result of working with the final adjustments (Question No:13,14,15)
Factor 3. Obstacles to cooperation between teacher-parent
Practical reasons: (Question No:16,17,18):
Personal reasons: (Question No:19,20,21):

1.	In my collaboration with the student's parent (with SEN) he provides me with information about his background.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
2.	In my collaboration with the student's parent (with SEN) he helps me to understand his learning needs.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
3.	In my collaboration with the student's parent (with SEN) I provide counseling guidance.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
4.	In my collaboration with the student's parent (with SEN) I include his needs and desires in my curriculum.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
5.	In my collaboration with the student's parent (with SEN) I point out the strengths and not only the weaknesses of the student.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
6.	In my collaboration with the student's parent (with SEN) I offer practical help.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
7.	In my collaboration with the student's parent (with SEN) I explain the teaching methods.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
8.	In my collaboration with the student's parent (with SEN) I explain the teaching objectives.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
9.	In my collaboration with the student's parent (with SEN) we develop teaching objectives.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
10.	In my collaboration with the student's parent (with SEN) we plan educational activities.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
11.	In my collaboration with the student's parent (with SEN) we evaluate issues related to his performance.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
12.	In my collaboration with the student's parent (with eea) we work together with special educational staff (eg speech therapist / occupational therapist / psychologist).	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
13.	Based on the cooperation with the parent (of student with SEN) I adapt my teaching to the learning needs of the student.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
14.	Based on the collaboration with the parent (student with disability) I adapt activities with his classmates.	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8

15.	Based on the collaboration with the parent (student with disability) I adapt the homework intervention activities.		1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
16.	One obstacle in my cooperation with the student parent (with SEN) is the lack of time.		1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
17.	One obstacle in my cooperation with the student's parent (with SEN) is the inability to meet other than the specified days and hours.		1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
18	One obstacle in my cooperation with the student's parent (with SEN) is my lack of training in counseling.		1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
19	One obstacle in my cooperation with the student parent (with SEN) is the lack of trust.		1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
20	One obstacle in my cooperation with the student parent (with SEN) is the existence of indifference.		1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
21	One obstacle in my cooperation with the student parent (with SEN) is the existence of poor interpersonal communication		1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8
22	Write another obstacle in your collaboration with the student's parent (with SEN). ……………………………………………………………………………		