

Attitudes toward the Promotion of Self-determination among Teachers in Special Needs Schools in Japan

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Abstract

Background: There is a growing need to support student self-determination in special needs education in Japan. No study has examined special needs education teachers' attitudes and perceptions toward promoting self-determination to understand what they knew about self-determination and what practices they were using in their instruction. **Specific aims:** The purpose of this study was to explore how Japanese special needs education teachers perceived self-determination and educational efforts and issues regarding self-determination support for students with disabilities. **Methods:** We translated the self-determination survey developed and widely used in the United States into Japanese to collect data on teachers' attitudes toward promoting self-determination. The sample included 176 teachers from two schools. **Findings:** All teachers were familiar with SD, but when explaining it, they simply used the word 'determination', and the concept of self-determination remained an abstract concept for teachers. The results indicated a discrepancy between the perceived importance of self-determination and the providing opportunities. Some of the reasons for not teaching self-determination skills included a lack of time for such instruction, the presence of other competing priorities, and lack of familiarity with specific self-determination teaching methods. **Discussion:** Although Japanese teachers are aware of the importance of self-determination, they do not sufficiently incorporate it in their specific educational activities. To support student self-determination, teachers must have a concrete understanding of self-determination and implement explicit self-determination instruction based on the theory and practice. To this end, it is necessary to widely educate teachers about knowledge and skills to promote student self-determination.

Keywords: Casual Agency Theory, special needs education, students with disabilities, Japan

Introduction

People with disabilities are ensured to have the basic human rights to engage in self-determined actions based on their own will (United Nations, 2006). According to Causal Agency Theory, self-determination is a psychological construct that is defined as "a dispositional characteristic manifested as acting as the causal agent in one's life" (Shogren et al., 2015, p. 258). Self-determined people engage in intentional decision making based on

their interests and preferences, act in a goal-directed manner, and hold a belief that the action will lead to furthering their goals (Shogren et al., 2015). In the United States, where Causal Agency Theory was developed, research on self-determination began in 1988 when the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services (OSERS) initiated system-wide activities to enable people with disabilities to participate in decision making that affect their lives (Ward, 1988). Since then, researchers have continued to expand the knowledge and evidence related to the importance and effectiveness of providing opportunities and supports to promote self-determination for children, youth, and adults with disabilities (Wehmeyer et al., 2017). Research conducted in the United States and across the countries has consistently shown that self-determination is valued across contexts (e.g., home, school, community). For example, self-determination has been identified as a key predictor of postsecondary success (Mazzotti et al., 2020), therefore, skills, abilities, and attitudes associated with self-determination are considered essential for achieving positive postsecondary outcomes (e.g., Shogren et al., 2015) and increased quality of life (Lachapelle et al., 2005; Nota et al., 2007) for people with disabilities.

On the other hand, in Japan, although the term ‘self-determination’ has been introduced in career education policy and guidelines, theoretical or research backgrounds have not been applied in practice. Recently, there has been a heightened interest in facilitating self-determination in special needs education in Japan (Utsumi, 2004; Kataoka, 2014; Sato, 2014). This may be because the National Guidelines for the Course of Study released by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (MEXT, 2019; 2020) state that teachers should provide opportunities for self-determination in education to enhance students’ ability to think, judge, and express themselves, particularly in the field of special needs education. Since every teacher and school is expected to follow the national guidelines to ensure the implementation of the same quality education throughout Japan, the focus on self-determination in daily instruction is explicitly assumed. Therefore, there have been several studies implemented instruction to promote skills, abilities, and attitudes associated with self-determination (e.g., self-awareness, self-advocacy, choice-making, decision-making, self-management) with students with disabilities and shown the growth in students’ communication skills (Hisakura & Aoyama, 2013), academic engagement (Hosoya, 2020), and secondary transition practices (Fujiwara, 2015). Hayashi and Nakajima (2020) proposed that student-centered education is critical to facilitate students with disabilities to become more self-determined.

As such, the educational policy and research highlight the importance of self-determination, and teachers’ role is considered significant in supporting self-determination for students with disabilities. Although researchers in Japan continuously explore ways to promote self-determination over the past two decades (Imaeda, 2020; Sasaki, 2020; Sato & Kudo, 2019; Nagahama, 2021), no study was conducted with special needs education teachers to investigate how they perceive the value of facilitating skills, abilities, and attitudes associated with self-determination and how often they use instruction practices to promote self-determination. Teshima (2003), who reviewed the U.S. self-determination research, noted the possibility of learning from the U.S. research findings and proposed the need to engage in self-determination research and develop teaching strategies to support student self-determination in special needs education in Japan. Teshima (2003) also referenced research findings from the survey developed by Wehmeyer et al. (2000) to analyze teachers’ perceptions toward self-determination. This nationwide survey study found that teachers working with students with intellectual disability were aware of the importance of self-determination, but their awareness did not translate to implementing instructional activities to promote self-determination (Wehmeyer et al., 2000).

Ongoing international work also emphasizes the necessity to understand that cultural, racial, and familial values, practices, and preferences influence how people perceive, express, and engage in self-determined actions (e.g., Hagiwara et al., 2021; Shogren, Gersimova et al., 2021; Xu et al., in press). However, there has been a criticism that practices to understand and promote self-determination need to be more culturally responsive and sustaining to further refine intentionality when providing opportunities and supports that align with people’s cultural identities,

values, and preferences (Scott et al., 2021). More research needs to be conducted with more students with disabilities from diverse backgrounds to examine the impact of self-determination practices.

As such, researchers in the U.S. and the world are paid close attention and continue to engage in self-determination research reflecting their cultural contexts. As the Japanese education guidelines and policy push for incorporating self-determination into daily teaching, this is a timely opportunity to investigate “what is self-determination?” within the Japanese context and contribute to expanding the knowledge of cultural and linguistic influence on self-determination. As such, this study aimed to understand the perceptions and educational practices of special needs education teachers in Japan regarding self-determination for students with disabilities. The following research questions were examined:

1. How do you value the importance of each of the skills related self-determination?
 - Where have these teachers learned about self-determination?
 - KH-coder – How do these teachers describe/interpret skills associated with self-determination?
2. How often do you provide opportunities for students to practice skills related to self-determination?
3. What are barriers do these teachers identify for not providing self-determination instruction and what possible solutions do they suggest?

Methods

Measure

Survey of Teachers’ Promotion of Self-Determination

This questionnaire was developed from a national survey conducted by Wehmeyer et al. (2000). The original questionnaire was in English, so it was translated into Japanese. In translation, we consulted our collaborators to ensure that the translation was appropriate to the social situation in Japan. This questionnaire was developed after a thorough examination of the content aspects. In addition, the reliability coefficient α of this questionnaire ranges from 0.86 to 0.83, indicating a high degree of internal consistency (Wehmeyer et al., 2000). Thus, this questionnaire has a well-established measure of validity and reliability. The educational actions based on the eight domains that constitute the performance of SD are as follows: choice-making, decision-making, goal-setting, problem-solving, self-awareness, self-management, goal achievement, and self-advocacy.

These eight educational actions were evaluated on a six-point scale, from 1 = not at all important to 6 = very important, and from 1 = no opportunities at all to 6 = very frequent opportunities. In addition, the questionnaire included open-ended questions about the recognition of SD, and optional questions about ‘opportunities to hear the term “self-determination”’, ‘reasons for not providing education on SD,’ and ‘methods and activities that can encourage SD’.

Participants

After receiving the Research Ethics Review Committee approval, the participants of teachers were recruited. The participants were teachers who belonged to two special needs schools with which the co-researchers had cooperative relationships. A letter of request with the URL to access the online questionnaire was distributed to all the teachers at each school, and they were asked to answer the questionnaire of their own free will. All respondents participated in the survey response free of charge. Study participants were 85 out of 176 teachers from Special Needs School X (n = 92) and Special Needs School Y (n = 84). Both schools are located in suburbs. The response rate was 48.3%. There were 9 elementary school teachers, 9 middle school teachers, 67 high school teachers. And all teachers are Japanese only. We did not collect demographic information to avoid identifiable information.

Procedure

The researchers contacted the special needs schools in their area and contacted the participants for their cooperation. An online survey was conducted with teachers and others from July 10 to September 9, 2020.

Data Analysis

In analyzing Japanese special education teachers' understandings of the meaning self-determination, we conducted a qualitative analysis of the content of their open-ended questions (Research Question 1). After tabulating the choices regarding the opportunity to hear about the teacher's self-determination, a qualitative analysis was conducted. In the qualitative analysis, the frequency of occurrence of words used in the written text was counted using the text-mining software KH-Coder (v.3) (Higuchi, 2014). The KH-Coder is a program that divides the Japanese text used into words and automatically counts the number of occurrences of each word. In addition, the semantic content of the responses was qualitatively classified using content analysis (Kyngäs et al., 2020). Using content analysis, each teacher's written explanations of self-determination were categorized based on the similarity of their explanations. Triangulation of word counting by text mining and qualitative analysis by content analysis to reveal special education teachers' understanding of self-determination in detail.

Next, to examine the relationship between teachers' perceptions of the importance of self-determination and the opportunity to provide educational actions, we compared the mean scores in the eight domains and calculated the percentage of perceptions selected (Research Question 2). First, a t-test of the difference in means between perception of importance and provision of action is conducted to examine the divergence between the two. Based on the percentage of each choice of perceived importance and provision of action, a ranking was created to show the differences in teachers' perceptions of the eight domains.

Finally, in order to identify strategies for teachers to provide instruction in self-determination, we tabulated the reasons why they were not able to provide instruction in self-determination and their choices of strategies needed to implement self-determination (Research Question 3).

Results

Research Question 1: The meaning of self-determination for teachers

All teachers (100%) answered 'yes' to the question, 'Do you know the term self-determination?' as shown in Table 1. Teachers indicated that they had the opportunity to hear the term 'self-determination' from 'work experience' (37.6%), an 'education textbook' (21.7%), and 'colleagues' (16.4%).

Table 1. Opportunities to hear the term 'self-determination'

Source	Frequency responding 'yes'	% of total respondents
Work experience	71	37.6
Education textbook	41	21.7
Colleagues	31	16.4
Conference or workshop	20	10.6
Undergraduate training	14	7.4
Professional journal articles	7	3.7
Graduate training	2	1.1
Other	3	1.6
Total	189	100.0

To answer the first research question, we measured the number of times the words appeared in the free responses of SD, as considered by the teachers using text mining. As a result, the top ten most frequently appearing words are, in order, 'jibun' (self, noun: 82), 'suru' (do, verb: 73), 'kimeru' (determine, verb: 45), 'handan' (judgement, noun: 21), 'kangaeru' (think, verb: 17), 'sentaku' (selection, noun: 16), 'kettei' (determination, noun: 15), 'jishin' (oneself, noun: 12), 'ishi' (intention, noun: 11), and 'aru' (be, verb: 8). Next, we conducted a content analysis of the free responses based on their meanings, and the results are shown in Table 2. Most teachers used the

word ‘determination’ to explain SD (45 sentences). In particular, a number of teachers gave simple explanations: ‘determining for yourself’ (36 sentences) and ‘selecting on your own’ (14 sentences). Some teachers then used phrases such as ‘based on intention or experience’ or ‘think about it thoroughly’.

Table 2. Teacher's recognition of the meaning of ‘self-determination’

Concept	Number of sentences	Sub-concept	Number of sentences
Determination	45	Determining for yourself	36
		Determining what you will do based on your own intentions	5
		Determining and acting on your own	4
Selection	23	Selecting your own	14
		Selecting for yourself based on your own experiences	3
		Making your own selections and taking action	2
		Making your own determinations and selections	2
		Making various selections based on your own intentions	1
		Selecting for yourself and presenting your intentions to others	1
Action	6	Acting on your own thoughts.	5
		Acting responsibly	1
Thought	5	Thinking and determining for yourself.	5
Intention	2	Intending to do what you want and need to do	2
Others	3	Others	3

Research Question 2: Recognizing the importance of and providing opportunities for self-determination

To examine the discrepancy between the perception of the importance and the provision of opportunities of self-determination, corresponding t-tests were conducted between the means of recognizing the importance and provision of opportunities for the eight educational actions. All educational actions had significantly higher means of recognizing importance ($p < .01$).

Japanese teachers saw the importance of these eight educational actions, but also recognized that they did not provide enough opportunities to educate students about them (see Table 3). They rated the importance of all eight

Table 3. Mean scores for recognizing the importance of and providing opportunities for educational action

Educational action	Importance % ranking			Mean	SD	Opportunities % ranking			Mean	SD
	1 or 2	3 or 4	5 or 6			1 or 2	3 or 4	5 or 6		
Instructional domain	Low	Moderate	High			Low	Moderate	High		
Choice-making	0.0	26.8	73.2	4.98	0.93	0.0	53.7	46.3	4.46	0.97
Decision-making	1.2	30.5	68.3	4.95	0.98	3.7	59.8	36.6	4.28	0.95
Goal-setting	0.0	29.3	70.7	4.98	0.85	3.7	48.8	47.6	4.44	0.86
Problem-solving	1.2	31.7	67.1	4.91	1.03	1.2	49.4	49.4	4.43	0.89
Self-awareness	1.2	36.6	62.2	4.79	0.97	1.2	58.0	40.7	4.21	0.97
Self-management	2.4	35.4	62.2	4.76	1.05	4.9	61.0	34.1	4.06	0.99
Goal achievement	1.2	32.9	65.9	4.72	0.92	3.7	52.4	43.9	4.34	0.89
Self-advocacy	1.2	45.1	53.7	4.59	1.02	4.9	64.2	30.9	4.15	0.98

actions at 5 or 6 out of a high of 6, while they rated the opportunity to carry out all eight actions at a more moderate 3 or 4. Regarding importance, choice-making, decision-making, and goal-setting were rated 5.0, while self-advocacy was rated the lowest at 4.6, garnering mostly moderate ratings (3 or 4). Among the provision of opportunities, choice-making was rated the highest at 4.5, while self-advocacy and self-management were rated the lowest at 4.1.

Research Question 3: Strategies for teachers to provide instruction in self-determination

To identify strategies for teachers to provide instruction in self-determination, we tabulated the reasons why they were not able to provide instruction in self-determination and their choices of strategies needed to implement self-determination. Firstly, the teachers selected multiple reasons for not providing education on SD, as shown in Table 4. Teachers chose ‘teacher does not have sufficient time to provide instruction in those areas’ (20.5%) and ‘students need instruction in other areas more urgently’ (18.8%) because of time limitations in schooling. ‘The teacher does not know about available programmes or tools for assessment, or is not familiar with teaching strategies for self-determination’, etc. received a score of 15.2%. Next, the teachers chose multiple responses, as shown in Table 5, as strategies that they thought could promote SD. The strategy most often selected by teachers was to provide an ‘educational environment that encourages students to learn autonomously’ (42.1%).

Table 4. Reasons for not providing education on SD

Reason for not providing instruction in SD	Frequency of ‘yes’	%
Teacher does not have sufficient time to provide instruction in those areas	23	20.5
Students need instruction in other areas more urgently	21	18.8
Teacher does not know about available programmes or tools for assessment, or is not familiar with teaching strategies for SD, etc.	17	15.2
Teacher has not received sufficient education in the past to teach SD, or is unfamiliar with the relevant information	13	11.6
Students already have adequate SD skills	12	10.7
Someone else responsible for instruction in those areas	8	7.1
Students do not benefit from being taught these things because of their own characteristics (degree of ability, ability to shape behaviour, etc.)	8	7.1
Teachers are unable to provide instruction on SD due to local circumstances (e.g., required curricular content, requests from the community, etc.)	1	0.9
Other	9	8.0
Total	112	100.0

Table 5. Methods and activities that can encourage SD

Methods and activities	Frequency of ‘yes’	%
Educational environment that encourages students to learn autonomously	69	42.1
Learning opportunities in out-of-school settings	33	20.1
Mentoring programmes as peer programmes, including dialogue and interaction with graduated students	33	20.1
Participation of students in meetings to develop individualized education plans	21	12.8
Other	8	4.9
Total	164	100.0

Discussion

This study is a first step toward applying the original SD support methods developed in the US to the Japanese context. Wehmeyer et al. (2011) state that the concept of SD is a developmental view of human functioning, and based on the fact that it has been widely applied in multiple studies around the world, it is a universally shared concept. We believe that SD is equally important in terms of its essential and developmental needs, although there

may be differences in the way SD is understood and the degree of recognition of the skills that constitute SD in social environments.

The results of this research showed that while Japanese special education teachers were familiar with the term 'SD,' they did not have a sufficient understanding of the content of SD. Most of the teachers had only an abstract understanding of what it means for students to take actions such as determination and selection. Wehmeyer et al. (2000) point out that expected self-determined actions are those that are based on the function (purpose) of the action. They state that it should not be based on what one does (e.g., get married, stay single), but on the purpose or function of the behaviour (control one's life, live as one pleases). It is important to understand that SD is not just about what to do, but about being able to act based on the purpose and function of the action.

As in this study, previous studies have also noted the discrepancy between realizing SD's importance and actually teaching it (Seo, 2014; Carter et al., 2008). The qualitative analysis of educators' perceptions of SD in this study suggests that this discrepancy reflects the abstract nature of educators' understanding of SD, in which they recognize the importance of SD but are unsure of specific actions to take. Self-advocacy was also the lowest rated skill, both in terms of recognition of its importance and provision of opportunities. Carter et al. (2008) noted that general education tends to underestimate the importance of rights advocacy when it comes to special needs education.

In particular, there is inadequate recognition of self-advocacy in Japan. Endo (2016) conducted a theoretical study on the content of support for the self-determination of persons with intellectual disabilities. She noted that supporters have an implicit belief that persons with disabilities lack the capacity to assess and determine options, and that there is insufficient recognition of the need to reach out to society to compensate for these deficiencies. Nishimura (2005), based on a literature review and case studies, pointed out the dangers of power relationships between persons with intellectual disabilities and their supporters, and stated the need for supporters to reflect on their own perceptions of persons with disabilities. As exemplified by these studies, special education teachers in Japan may not have sufficient awareness of self-advocacy, so they need to be more cognizant of it. Self-advocacy is an important skill for implementing SD. To improve this perception, it is believed that the essential perception of disability needs to be changed. In this sense, teachers need to be more broadly aware of empowerment and means of SD support.

Furthermore, teachers selected many reasons for not teaching about SD: lack of time in the school day, other priorities for education, and lack of familiarity with the teaching strategies. This indicates that teachers do not have a specific teaching strategy for SD. Special education teachers need to provide support for SD in educational settings. In fact, Tanimura (2011) points to the lack of options for students with disabilities and the fixation of choices as issues related to SD in special needs education in Japan. She further criticizes the resulting inequalities that make SD less useful in education.

Suzuki (2005a), based on an interview survey of staff at a community life support centre, reported that factors that ensure opportunities for SD include the need for supporters to provide opportunities for choice, decision-making, and independence. In addition, Suzuki (2005b), based on interviews with people with disabilities who use group homes, pointed out that to provide opportunities for SD, there needs to be the clear existence of programmes to support transition, sufficient awareness related to SD among the community and facility staff, and the understanding of parents and relatives. Yonamine et al. (2009) also noted the necessity of reframing support for SD as a task in interaction with the environment, such as the perceptions of supporters and the support methods they can provide, rather than simply as a task for individuals. For children with disabilities, the educational methods and roles of their supporters are especially significant.

For example, Watanabe and Kasahara (2012) conducted a survey of 420 parents of students at a special needs school regarding the availability of opportunities for self-determination in daily instruction. Three themes emerged from survey results to increase opportunities for self-determination: motivating students to want to do things

on their own; improving instructional and support environment; and educating families to become more aware of self-determination. Although teachers need to play a central role in making these improvements, they are not familiar or informed with theoretical understanding of self-determination and instructional practices and strategies to plan and implement for the purpose of promoting student self-determination. Based on such concerns, it is imperative to first understand how teachers perceive toward promoting self-determination for students with disabilities, what roles teachers play, and what instructional practices and strategies they use in promoting self-determination.

Introducing SD theory and the SD support programme discussed in this study to special needs education in Japan has particular strengths.

SD theory is a theoretical understanding of SD as a behaviour that is achieved through eight specific skills. Imaeda and Kanno (2017) stated that for persons with intellectual disabilities to make appropriate self-determinations, it is important that teachers set specific learning content that considers the cognitive processes and developmental characteristics of persons with intellectual disabilities. Hasebe (2019) noted that this is particularly important for the disabled person's supporters to remember.

The concept of SD as something that can be achieved through the acquisition of multiple skills will enable teachers to clarify the content that needs to be taught in actual educational situations, and to implement that teaching. This will allow teachers to provide more specific and planned support in their own classes. Carter (2008) reports that teaching for the promotion of SD is not only compatible with the general curriculum but appears to be fully aligned with it, dispelling concerns that the promotion of SD might fall outside a standards-based curriculum. This will help upgrade traditional Japanese educational practices rather than drastically changing them. Ohtake and Wehmeyer (2004) point out that the values embedded in the practices of the special needs education model prevalent in Japan overlap significantly with the value of SD, and that focusing on this commonality and introducing it is an effective strategy. Adopting the model in Japan in this way would be an advantage, as it would support the educational activities of teachers involved in special needs education in Japan.

Conclusion

This study was conducted among teachers at two special needs schools in Japan. In this sense, it may not be an accurate picture of the situation throughout Japan, though many teachers certainly echo the results of this study. As reviewed by Wehmeyer (2020), the concept of SD based on casual agency theory is already being applied widely, from the US to other parts of the world. To improve this approach in special support education in Japan, it is necessary to incorporate it so that it can be applied as soon as possible. In this sense, it is necessary to develop this into a programme that is useful in actual educational situations, while referring to the results of this study.

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Ethics Statement

Studies involving human participants were reviewed and approved by the Research Ethics Review Committee of the University of Takamatsu (No. 2020001). Informed consent for participants was clearly stated on the first page of the questionnaire. Responses to the questionnaire were considered to provide consent for participation in the study.

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