

**PERSONALITY TRAITS OF LEARNERS WITH SPECIAL EDUCATION NEEDS:
IMPLICATIONS IN AN INCLUSIVE EDUCATION SETTING**

by

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the

**MASTERS DEGREE IN EDUCATION – WITH SPECIALISATION IN
GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING**

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SUMMARY

An American study used the High School Personality Questionnaire (HSPQ) as a predictive tool when placing learners in special classes. The personality characteristics of these learners were found to have a pervasive influence on learning. As the policy regarding the provision of education in South Africa has changed, with the emphasis on the accommodation of all learners in one inclusive education system, further study of the personality traits of South African learners with special education needs was deemed necessary, before devising classroom management strategies that could be employed within an inclusive education system.

This study provides the results of a literature and an empirical investigation into the personality traits of learners with special education needs. The educational implications are addressed, with specific reference to the education of learners with special education needs in an inclusive education system, and practical strategies for educators, parents and the Educational Psychologist are presented.

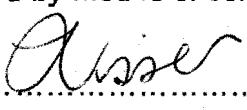
KEYWORDS: personality; learners; special education needs; education; inclusive education; High School Personality Questionnaire; barriers to learning; strategies for parents; strategies for educators; strategies for the Educational Psychologist.

DECLARATION

I, Tracey Visser (student number 3072 844-4), declare that

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*is my own work and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated
and acknowledged by means of complete references.*

Signature: 

Date: 2003 - 04 - 13..

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CHAPTER 1

BACKGROUND AND ORIENTATION

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The policy regarding the provision of education in South Africa has changed, with the emphasis on the accommodation of all learners, regardless of disability, in one education system. This is known as an inclusive education system, implying that no one be excluded or left out.

Traditionally South Africa has excluded learners who they thought could not be accommodated in mainstream classes. Examples of learners who were considered to fall outside the boundaries of mainstream education were those learners with neurological handicaps; sensory handicaps (blind and deaf learners); physical and cerebral handicaps; mild, moderate or severe mental handicaps; specific learning difficulties; chronically ill learners; scholastically deprived learners and learners with behaviour problems.

Most of these learners were treated as needing remediation (implying a remedy for a flaw or sickness) and were labelled as special. They would be placed in a special class where a teacher would follow a revised curriculum with them. Often these learners would find themselves in special classes or special schools for the rest of their school career.

In the past, most literature emphasised the cognitive and learning problems of these learners. In the special class or special school where they were placed the learning difficulties could range from mild to severe. However, diverse academic levels are not the only challenge faced by educators of learners with difficulties. The classroom management of the learners with learning difficulties alone poses a challenge to any educator in the field of Special Education.

Since 1995, the Western Cape Education Department (WCED) has stopped using terms that label or stigmatise learners. Terms such as special education, remedial classes, adaptation class education and specialised education have been replaced by

one concept – Education of Learners with Special Education Needs (ELSEN). Currently, the WCED defines learners with special education needs (LSEN) as those learners who "experience barriers to learning and development and who need support in addition to that normally offered in an ordinary class" (Department of Education 2001b:1).

1.2 AWARENESS OF THE PROBLEM

The reality of the proposed inclusive education process in South Africa came to the researcher's attention while working as an educator at a special school in the Western Cape. This special school has been in existence for more than 25 years. It is categorised by the WCED as a school for learners with mild to moderate mental handicaps with most of the learners having intellectual quotients in the range of 60 to 85. Their scholastic functioning is specifically hampered in the acquisition of basic skills regarding reading, spelling and mathematics. They further present with poor logic and reasoning skills.

While many of the educators recognise and appreciate the benefits of inclusion of such learners in mainstream education, there exists some evidence that these learners manifest problem behaviour trends in the classroom situation. The significance of this was brought to the attention of the researcher, in her capacity as LSEN educator, through day-to-day discussion with teachers who previously taught in mainstream education before LSEN education. Comments such as "they experience a wider range of emotions", "often fluctuating from one extreme of emotions to the other" and "more aggressive and more easily frustrated" are common when considering the classroom behaviour trends of the learners that were traditionally accommodated in special classes or schools.

Since 1995 more and more learners were admitted to special schools that would not necessarily fall into the category of having an IQ between 60 and 85. Some learners were transferred from mainstream school after having failed grade 8 twice. Others came to the schools because they offered training as artisans in various domains. Some learners were culturally and socially deprived. The bulk of the learner demographics at the end of 2000 at the school known to the researcher consisted of:

- Learners with mild to moderate mental handicaps (general learning disabilities)
- Learners from poor economic backgrounds;
- Xhosa-speaking learners who were struggling at school due to not being taught in their home language;
- Learners with specific learning disabilities (average to above average intellectual abilities, and yet not performing scholastically according to their potential);
- Learners whose intellectual abilities fell in the average to above average range, but scored significantly higher (more than 15 scaled points) in the non-verbal subtests of the SSAIS-R than verbal subtests.

This change in the school demographics has given this particular school a foretaste of an inclusive education system, although in this case learners who were not traditionally classified as LSEN learners were being accommodated in an ELSEN school. The educators appeared to successfully adapt to the new demographics on an academic level with relative ease, as they were used to working without textbooks as such books were not written specifically for them. The advent of Outcomes-Based Education made this process easier, on an academic level. In the past, mainstream curricula were often adapted to suit the unique circumstances, and in some cases, new material was developed to suit the academic needs of the learners.

However, the educators at this particular ELSEN-school found that the greatest challenge was to manage classroom behaviour effectively. Various USA studies (Kravetz, Faust, Lipshitz & Shalvav 1999:248) have already highlighted that the classroom behaviour of learners with specific learning disabilities differs from learners without disabilities in the areas of on-task behaviour, off-task behaviour, conduct disorder, distractibility and shy/withdrawn behaviour.

Kravetz, Faust, Lipshitz and Shalvav (1999:248) also document convincing evidence of serious behaviour, social and emotional problems that learners with special education needs manifest within the classroom. With inclusion becoming a reality in South Africa, a mainstream educator may find himself or herself faced with unfamiliar classroom behaviour problems (Gous & Mfazwe 1998:6). The researcher believes further investigation into these issues within the South African context would prove fruitful, in the light of the current changes within the South African education system.

1.3 PRELIMINARY LITERATURE STUDY

An American study by Andersen and Murphy (1986) used the High School Personality Questionnaire (HSPQ) as a predictive tool when placing learners in special classes. The personality characteristics of learners with learning difficulties were found to have a pervasive influence on learning and progress (Andersen 1986:408). The HSPQ was chosen by Andersen because "*it covers the major dimensions of personality needed to describe individual differences adequately, because it is supported by extensive research and norm procedures and because it yields psychologically meaningful and predictively important traits having demonstrable functional unity*" (Andersen 1986: 408).

Six of the fourteen HSPQ variables proved to be very strong indicators (significant at the 0.01% level) of personality differences between learners with learning difficulties and learners without learning difficulties (factors A, B, E, F, I and Q2). Two additional factors (Factors D and G) were found to be significant at the 0.5 % level and could be considered as strong indicators of valid personality differences.

Briefly, the learners with learning difficulties were described as:

- Reserved, detached, critical, cool (Factor A-)
- Less intelligent, concrete-thinking, of lower scholastic mental capacity (Factor B-)
- Assertive, independent, aggressive, stubborn, dominant (Factor E+)
- Sober, prudent, serious, taciturn (Factor F-)
- Tough-minded, self-reliant, realistic, no-nonsense (Factor I-)
- Self-sufficient, prefers own decisions, resourceful (Factor Q2+)

This study emphasized the need for further work in the area of testing learners with special education needs, since few diagnostic devices exist which differentiate between learners with or without learning difficulties (Andersen 1986:408). The researcher, in her capacity as LSEN educator, believes that such an investigation is significant in the light of the proposed inclusion process within the South African education system.

Bender (1987:280) noted the lack of information readily available regarding the personality and behaviour of LSEN learners and proposed that further investigation

into the personality and behaviour of such learners be conducted. A study by Pullis (1991:15) found that the behaviour problems of learners with learning difficulties correlated significantly and negatively with two dimensions of temperament, namely task-orientation and reactivity. These learners were found to exhibit higher rates of disruptive behaviour that negatively affected task-orientation. Pullis found that these behaviour trends of learners with learning difficulties placed significant demands on the educator's attention and required the use of intensive strategies for behaviour management (Pullis 1991: 17).

Based on Bender's previous research, Martin (1992:99) developed a model identifying temperament characteristics in the social, emotional and attention behaviour domains that he maintains affect the education of learners with special education needs (see chapter 2 section 2.4.1).

International literature (Bender 1987, Bender and Smith 1990 and Pullis 1991) suggests certain strategies for teaching ordinary learners, based on their learning disabilities, as well as other strategies for teaching learners with special education needs. Such strategies will work more effectively within an exclusive education system, where the two types of learners are educated in separate groups.

South Africa is currently moving towards an inclusive education system and the aforementioned strategies are more suited to an exclusive setting. The researcher is of the opinion that further study of the personality traits and related classroom behaviour trends of South African learners with special education needs is necessary, before devising classroom management strategies that can be employed within an inclusive education system.

1.4 PROBLEM STATEMENT

1.4.1 General Problem Statement

The proposed investigation focuses on the following question:

- *Which personality traits of learners with special education needs differ significantly from those of the general population?*

1.4.2 Specific Problem Statements

The specific problem statements are:

- *How will these personality traits manifest in an education setting?*
- *What are the implications of including these learners in an inclusive education system?*

1.5 AIMS OF THE STUDY

The principle aim of this study was to determine the personality traits that are characteristic to learners with special education needs currently accommodated in a LSEN school.

Having pinpointed these traits, the secondary aims of this study are then to determine the classroom behaviour associated with the personality traits and the implications of including such learners in an inclusive education setting.

1.6 RESEARCH METHOD

1.6.1 Literature study

A literature study was undertaken in two parts. The first part focused on a study of the personality, theory and the manifestation of personality in the classroom.

The second part investigated current trends in the provision of education for learners with special education needs, both nationally and internationally. Both exclusive and inclusive education systems were discussed and the benefits and challenges of including learners with special education needs were highlighted.

1.6.2 Quantitative Research: Empirical study

The research design used for the purposes of this study was a quantitative non-experimental research design. A non-experimental research design describes

conditions, without suggesting cause-and-effect relationships (McMillan & Schumacher 1993:34). This research made use of the survey type of non-experimental research design, whereby a questionnaire was administered to a sample of subjects in order to collect data. The results of this data were presented in statistical form, with the aim of describing the personality traits profile of grade 8 learners attending a special school.

1.6.2.1 Administration of the High School Personality Questionnaire

a. Participants

Grade 8 learners were selected from a special school in the Western Cape. There are many such schools in the Cape Metropolitan area. The specific school was chosen, as the school was not community-bound, that is the learners came from various primary schools and from a wide range of ethnic, social and economic backgrounds. The sample was then more representative of the population.

The ages of the learners ranged from 14 to 17 years. Their learning difficulties ranged from reading, spelling and maths problems to lack of skills in logic, handwriting difficulties and inability to express themselves in writing. Most learners had a combination of learning difficulties.

The learners had all been referred to the school through the appropriate channels of the Western Cape Education Department.

b. The Administration Process

Before the administration of the measuring instrument, namely the High School Personality Questionnaire (HSPQ), a preliminary investigation regarding testing accommodations was conducted and changes to the standard administration technique of the measuring instrument were deemed necessary, in order to accommodate the participants' specific learning difficulties.

The HSPQ test was then administered, scored and the results were converted to stens.

1.6.2.2 Analysis of the results of the empirical investigation and their relation to the school setting

A summary of the test results was presented in graph form. These results were analysed by comparing the profile of the participants with the norm group. The educational implications of the results of the research were addressed, with specific reference to the education of LSEN learners in an inclusive education system.

1.7 CLARIFICATION OF CONCEPTS

1.7.1 Personality

When considering a particular person's personality, we are often referring to characteristics that are either unique to him (individual differences) or that common to a specific group (commonalties) that enables us to compare humans and categorise them (Boeree 2000:1). Personality theorists try to define the psychological structure a person; how people are "put together", how they "work" and how they "fall apart" (Boeree 2000:2).

1.7.2 Behaviour

Quite simply put: behaviour is "what someone does or how someone acts" (Rosnow & Rosenthal 1996:402). Behaviour can be labelled appropriate or inappropriate, depending on the situation or the values set by a particular culture. Behaviour can also be characteristic (determined by personality traits) or uncharacteristic (motivated by outside factors).

1.7.3 Specific Learning Disability (LD)

"Learning disability is a performance deficit in one or more of the processes involved in understanding and/or using spoken or written language wherein there exists a measurable discrepancy between academic potential and actual performance." (Anderson 1986:408).

1.7.4 Learner with Special Education Needs (LSEN)

The Western Cape Education Department defines learners with special education needs (LSEN) as those learners who "experience barriers to learning and development and who need support in addition to that normally offered in an ordinary class" (Department of Education 2001b:1).

1.7.5 Barriers to Learning

A barrier to learning is something that prevents the learner from benefiting from education. The NCSNET/NCESS commission lists the following barriers to learning (Unisa 1999:1):

- barriers within the learner;
- barriers within the centre of learning (e.g. school) or education system;
- barriers in the broader social, economic and political context.

1.7.6 Education for Learners with Special Education Needs (ELSEN)

Terms such as special education, remedial classes, adaptation class education and specialised education have been replaced by one concept - ELSEN (education of learners with special education needs). ELSEN refers to the additional support given to a learner who experience barriers to learning and development (Western Cape Education Department 1999:1).

1.7.7 Exclusive Education

Exclusive education involves the identification and assessment of learners that are not benefiting from the curriculum of ordinary schools and the placement of such learners within separate schools providing specialised services and following a separate curriculum (Department of Education 1999:7).

1.7.8 Inclusive Education

Inclusion is the equal and optimal education of all learners within one school system. All learners are recognised as having diverse needs, but are valued for their shared humanity. Inclusive education is a system where all learners can be educated together and where personal diversity is seen to be enriching (Leyden & Miller 1998:192).

1.7.9 Assessment Accommodations

An assessment accommodation is a change or alteration in the way a test is administered (Elliott, Ysseldyke, Thurlow & Erickson 1998:22), in order to accommodate a disability that will otherwise exclude the participant from being tested.

1.8 DEVELOPMENT OF THE STUDY

Chapter One provided the background and orientation of the study.

Chapter Two consists of a review of the literature regarding the key concept of personality, including a discussion of personality theories, personality traits and addressing personality as it manifests within the classroom.

Chapter Three consists of a literature study of the provision of education for learners with special education needs. This chapter highlights current trends in education in South African context. Specific reference is made to the benefits and challenges of educating learners with special education needs in an inclusive system, based on the international perspective on inclusive education.

Chapter Four provides a description of the empirical investigation and methodology, including a description of the research participants, measuring instruments and research methods, as well as the actual test administration procedures followed due to the need for assessment accommodations.

In Chapter Five the results of the research are presented and discussed, with particular emphasis on the relation of the results to an education setting.

Chapter Six consists of a summary of the results; the educational implications of the results of the research are addressed, with specific reference to the education of learners with special education needs in an inclusive education system. Recommendations regarding further research conclude this study.

CHAPTER 2

PERSONALITY THEORY AND THE MANIFESTATION OF PERSONALITY IN THE CLASSROOM

2.1 PERSONALITY

2.1.1 Introduction

When referring to a person's personality, we are often referring to characteristics that are either unique to him (individual differences) or that are common to a specific group (commonalities) that enables us to compare humans and categorise them (Boeree 2000:1). Personality theorists try to define the psychological structure of a person; how people are "put together", how they "work" and how they "fall apart" (Boeree 2000:2).

Humans are complex, unique beings and this is why it is difficult to describe them or explain their behaviour. For years scholars have attempted to pinpoint certain traits and characteristics in an attempt to define human personality. In undergraduate psychology courses, much emphasis is put on the study of personality and personality development theories. To date, there are many different definitions of personality and many divergent theories of personality development.

A few examples of attempts to describe personality are as follows:

- Personality refers to the characteristic structure, combination and organisation of behaviour patterns, thoughts and emotions that make each person unique, and that enable the person to adapt to his unique daily circumstances (Möller 1987:3).
- In the course of time, the personality is moulded into a relatively consistent pattern of behaviour that constantly comes to the fore in all personal action (Van Rensburg & Landman 1988:440).

So which one is the correct definition? Does a correct definition exist? These are the core issues that are discussed in the first section of this literature study.

2.1.2 Why so many theories?

A theory is a framework that attempts to explain why an event or process occurs (Baron & Byrne 2000:28). A theory organises existing knowledge and attempts to make predictions regarding future events or processes. It is important to note that a theory is not the absolute truth. It can, however, be generally accepted, depending on the confidence one has in the theory. This confidence usually develops from the reliability of the evidence that the theory is based upon.

When studying human beings, there are so many aspects to consider: similarities and differences in the way humans act; reasons for acting as they do; factors that influence the manner in which they behave; whether the environment plays a role in determining who they are or whether they are a product of their genetic backgrounds... the list is seemingly endless. It appears to be difficult to integrate all aspects that are involved in studying humans in a single model (Meyer, Moore & Viljoen 1997:8). Some theorists concentrate exclusively on environmental determinism, others on psychic and some are even prepared to accommodate both in their view of humans.

2.1.3 Philosophical assumptions on which personality theories are based

Each approach to personality theory emphasises a particular aspect, including the view of humankind and the determinants of personality. Thus, a variety of personality theories developed, based on philosophical assumptions (Boeree 2000:6). The following are the main philosophical assumptions, according to Boeree (2000:6-8). They are in question form, as the answers are not clear - hence the term "assumptions":

- a. **Free will vs. determinism:** Are we able to freely choose our course in life, or is our life determined by forces such as the environment (environmental determinism) or forces within ourselves (psychic determinism)?
- b. **Uniqueness vs. universality:** Are we unique beings, or is it possible that universal laws may exist that can explain how we behave?

- c. **Physiological vs. purposeful motivation:** Are we motivated by our basic needs (physiological motivation) or by our goals, values and purpose in life?
- d. **Conscious vs. unconscious motivation:** Is our behaviour and experience determined by forces we are unaware of? How much of that which determines our behaviour is conscious?
- e. **Nature vs. nurture:** What role does genetic inheritance play in our lives? Are we products of our upbringing and other experiences? This argument brings up the issue of the role of instincts and also the nature of our temperament, the genetic portion of our personalities.
- f. **Stage vs. non-stage theories:** Physiological development goes through predetermined stages of development. Can we say the same for our psychological development?
- g. **Cultural determinism vs. cultural transcendence:** Are we products of cultural influences, or can we rise above our upbringing?
- h. **Early or late personality formation:** This question is related to the issues of genetics, stages and cultural determination. Is personality established in early childhood, and does it remain fixed for the rest of our lives? Or is personality flexible and subject to change throughout our lives?
- i. **Optimism vs. pessimism:** Are we all essentially "good" or "bad"? Is there any hope for our future, or is everything out of our hands?

2.2 CLASSIFICATION OF PERSONALITY THEORIES

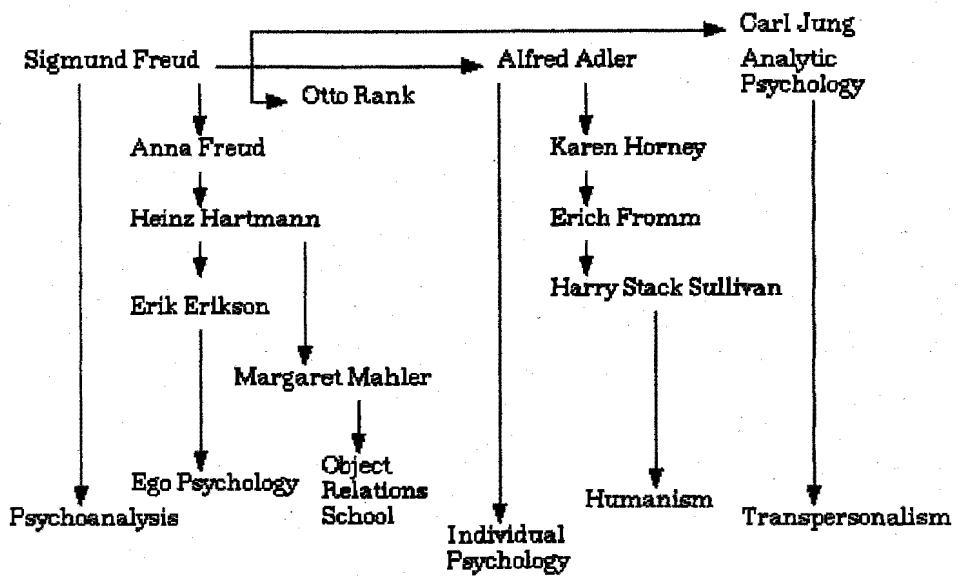
2.2.1 Introduction

Boeree (2000:9) classifies the various personality theorists and their theories under three broad headings, called the THREE FORCES.

2.2.1.1 The FIRST FORCE

The following diagram indicates the major personality theorists classified under the heading "The First Force" (Boeree 2000:9).

FIGURE 2.1: THE FIRST FORCE



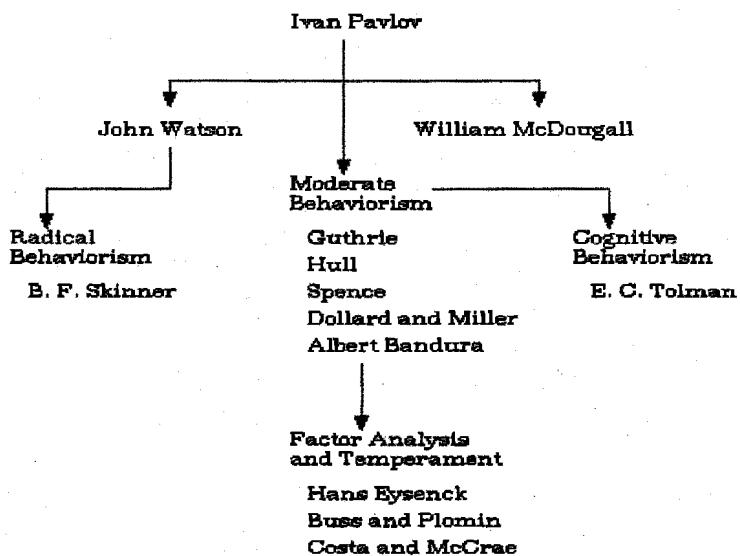
This classification includes the personality theory of Sigmund Freud, together with others who were strongly influenced by Freud, for example Carl Jung (analytical psychology) and Erik Erikson (Ego Psychology). What these theorists have in common is the belief that the answer to who we are is *hidden in the unconscious*. There is a focus on the "bad side" of human nature (Elliott 2002:1) e.g. lust, aggression, greed, power, etc.

For the purposes of this study, not all of the theorists can be presented. Three views are highlighted, namely those of Sigmund Freud, Erik Erikson and Carl Jung.

2.2.1.2 The SECOND FORCE

The following diagram indicates the major personality theorists classified under the heading "The Second Force" (Boeree 2000:9):

FIGURE 2.2: THE SECOND FORCE



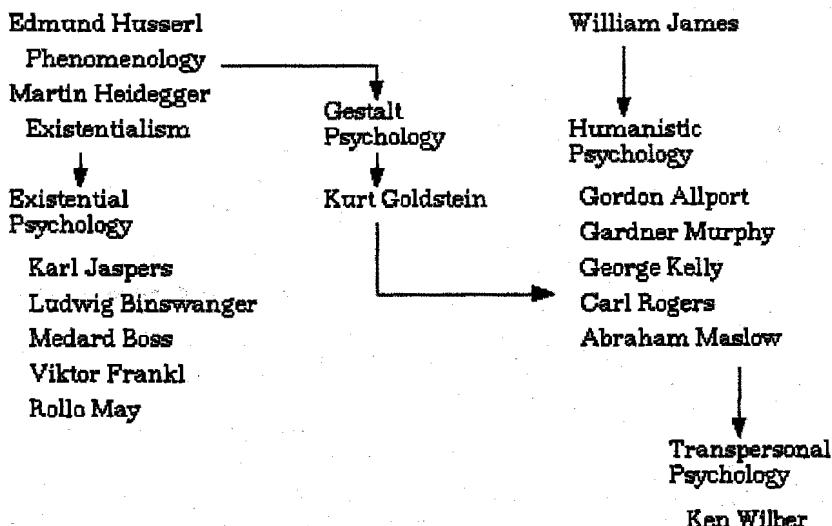
This classification groups together the theorists that share the perspective that the answers to who we are can be determined by careful observation of *the relationship between behaviour and the environment*. The second force focuses on human nature as being a “Tabula Rasa” - a clean slate (Elliott 2002:2).

Behaviourism focuses its attention on what is observable - the environment and behaviour - rather than that which is subjective, immeasurable, and therefore can never lead to an objective science (Boeree 2000:11-19). For the purposes of this study, three views will be presented, namely radical behaviourism (B.F. Skinner), moderate behaviourism (Albert Bandura) and factor-analysis (Hans Eysenck).

2.2.1.3 The THIRD FORCE

This classification groups together the personality theories that developed in reaction to the FIRST and SECOND FORCES, with an emphasis shift from the unconscious to the conscious and the role of experience. The Humanistic approach is the more recent of the three approaches to personality. Carl Rogers was one of many contributors to this field of study. The third force focuses on the “goodness” of human nature (Elliott 2002:2). The following diagram indicates the major personality theorists classified under the heading “The Third Force” (Boeree 2000:10)

FIGURE 2.3: THE THIRD FORCE



There are two streams of the humanistic approach. The first is humanism proper, represented for the purposes of this study by Carl Rogers. The second is existentialist psychology, a philosophy-based humanism, represented for the purposes of this study by Viktor Frankl.

2.2.2 Valuable contributions to the field of personality theories

2.2.2.1 The First Force

a. Sigmund Freud

Sigmund Freud focused on the role of inner factors such as instincts, drives and conflicts on determining behaviour. He believed that the observable actions of humans provide us with valuable clues as to what is happening "inside" the person (Meyer, Moore & Viljoen 1996:218). This was quite controversial at a time when the role of rationality and a God-determined personality were more popular beliefs.

One of Freud's most significant contributions was the identification of the role of the id, ego and the superego in our lives. The id represented the influence of the biological aspect, and the superego represented the impact of society on who we are

(Boeree 2000:15). The psychic manifestations of society and biology (the superego and the id) are two powerful forces that make demands on humans.

The issue of the “ego defences” used by humans when wishing to manipulate reality to suit our needs, especially if the needs are extremely strong, is a further significant contribution. The ego defences are (Boeree 2000:15-16):

- Denial - the blocking of threatening events from awareness;
- Repression - the inability to remember a threatening event, person or situation
- Isolation - the acknowledgement of a threatening event, but without any of the emotion associated with it;
- Displacement - the redirection of an unacceptable desire onto a symbolic substitute; or back to themselves (turning against the self)
- Projection - seeing one's own unacceptable desire in other people;
- Reaction formation - changing an unacceptable desire into the opposite;
- Undoing - using rituals in an attempt to cancel out the unacceptable desire;
- Introjection - assuming characteristics of another person to meet a need in ourselves;
- Regression - psychologically moving back to a stress-free time in our lives when faced with a stressful event;
- Rationalization - distorting the facts of a situation in order to make them seem less threatening;
- Sublimation - the channelling of an unacceptable desire into a socially acceptable form.

Freud identified developmental stages (oral, anal, phallic, latent and genital) and identified personality types that become evident in adulthood when someone becomes “stuck” at one of the developmental stages (Freud 2002:8). This is also known as fixation (Boeree 2000:12).

The oral-passive character is a rather dependent person who retains an interest in oral satisfaction of needs, such as eating, drinking and smoking. This person is characterised by being overindulged, optimistic, gullible and passive (Freud 2002:8).

The oral-aggressive character is a verbally abusive, argumentative and sarcastic person. They can also be pessimistic, suspicious, frustrated and manipulative (Freud 2002:8).

The anal-aggressive character is a sloppy, disorganised person who may be cruel and destructive. Other characteristics include overly generous, messy, dirty and vague (Freud 2002:9).

The anal-retentive character is an especially clean, perfectionist, stubborn and stingy person. Other characteristics include being excessively controlled, meticulous, orderly and precise (Freud 2002:9).

On the positive side, Freud has been praised for his contribution to the development of personality psychology (Möller 1987:51). Many other theorists based their theories on Freud's work, while others totally rejected his work and developed new theories in reaction. Freud stimulated thought in areas of psychology that had previously been neglected, such as the role of the unconscious, motivation and the influence of childhood experiences on personality development.

Möller (1987:48-50) cites the following negative criticisms: research has proven that it is doubtful that all human behaviour is motivated only by sexual and aggressive urges and the need to reduce the tension that occurs due to the presence of these instincts; the role of free will is not acknowledged by Freud and the theory is rather pessimistic, possibly influenced by Freud's own pessimistic personality. Furthermore, there do not appear to be any scientific grounds on which the theory is based. The objectivity of the method of observation is questioned and there appears to be insufficient reliable proof of Freud's theory, making empirical investigations fruitless. Particularly the generalisation of observations regarding the behaviour of a group of disturbed women to the general population is questionable.

b. Carl Jung

Psychological type is a theory that developed as a means of classifying differences in people. According to Jung, people differ due to the way that they use their minds. Two mental activities, namely *perceiving (P)* and *judging (J)* were isolated. These mental activities denote a person's involvement with information. Four essential mental processes were also observed, namely *sensing (S)*, *intuition (N)*, *thinking (T)* and *feeling (F)* (Myers-Briggs Type Indicator:1).

According to Jung, there are two worlds: extraversion (E) - the external world of people, objects and experiences and introversion (I) - the internal world of inner processes and reflection. Jung believed that all people have preferences for being more drawn to either the external or internal world, and also preferences for which mental processes a person uses to process information in the mind (Myers-Briggs Type Indicator:1).

Based on the theories of Jung, the Myers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) was developed by Katherine Briggs and her daughter Isabel Myers. 16 personality types were isolated that are 16 combinations of the preferences for mental processes and the external and internal worlds (Myers-Briggs Type Indicator:3).

There are basically 4 scales, namely the EI, SN, TF, and JP scales. The *EI scale* denotes where a person prefers to focus his or her attention, for example on the external or internal world. The *SN scale* denotes whether a person takes in information through his or her senses (Sensing) or by looking at the big picture (Intuition). The *TF scale* describes how a person makes decisions, for example by analysing and through logic (Thinking) or by making decisions based on person-centred values (Feeling). The *JP scale* describes how a person orientates himself or herself to the outside world, that is by living a structured organised lifestyle (Judging) or living in a spontaneous and flexible manner (Perceiving). A person functions at a particular point on each scale.

This personality theory is dynamic - changes can occur and a person is not merely categorised. There are, in other words, certain mental processes that are more developed and others that are underdeveloped in every person (Myers-Briggs Type Indicator:3).

Jung's approach was praised for its more optimistic view of humankind, although it suffered the same criticism as Freud's, in terms of it being unscientific (Möller 1987:53).

c. Erik Erikson

Erikson is probably most well known for his work in expanding Freud's theory of stage development. Development, he says, functions by the epigenetic principle. Erikson believes that humans develop through an 8 stage unfolding of our personalities

(Boeree 2000: 3-10) and that each stage involves certain developmental tasks or crises.

The first stage, infancy or the oral-sensory stage, is approximately the first year or year and a half of life. The task is to develop trust without completely eliminating the capacity for mistrust. The second stage is the anal-muscular stage of early childhood, from about eighteen months to three or four years old. The task is to achieve a degree of autonomy while minimizing shame and doubt.

Stage three is the genital-locomotor stage or play age. From three or four to five or six, the task confronting every child is to learn initiative without too much guilt. Stage four is the latency stage, or the school-age child from about six to twelve. The task is to develop a capacity for industry while avoiding an excessive sense of inferiority. Children must "tame the imagination" and dedicate themselves to education and to learning the social skills their society requires of them.

Stage five is adolescence, beginning with puberty and ending around 18 or 20 years old. The task during adolescence is to achieve ego identity and avoid role confusion. The sixth stage of young adulthood lasts from about 18 years to about 30 years of age. The task is to achieve some degree of intimacy, as opposed to remaining in isolation.

The seventh stage is that of middle adulthood, somewhere between the middle twenties and the late fifties. The task here is to cultivate the proper balance of generativity and stagnation. This last stage is referred to delicately as late adulthood or maturity. The task is to develop ego integrity with a minimal amount of despair.

Each stage has a certain optimal time, which emphasizes that it is no use trying to rush through the eight stages of personality development. Each person will either carry a virtue to the next stage, which will help him or her through the rest of the stages of his or her life, or may develop maladaptations and malignancies that may be impair future development.

2.2.2.2. The SECOND FORCE

a. Radical Behaviourism: B.F. Skinner

B.F. Skinner focused on external forces as determinants of behaviour, disregarding the "inner" and only considering that which is scientifically observable and measurable as being important. This was an attempt to 'excise from psychology all that is subjective and unobservable' (Funder 2001:6). Skinner's theory does not explain the development of personality, nor is the role of cognition (thinking, feeling and reasoning) recognised. Ironically, this scientific approach later served as a basis for the development of cognitive behaviourism and social cognitive learning. It also makes a valuable contribution in the area of behaviour control.

Behaviourists believe that the environment determines behaviour (Meyer, Moore and Viljoen 1996:293-296). This implies that behaviour can be changed, since it is possible to manipulate external factors and so bring about a change in behaviour. If behaviour were not changeable, then discipline, punishment and rehabilitation would not show any positive results (Martin 1992:101).

Skinner studied overt (observable) behaviour (Meyer, Moore and Viljoen 1996:296-303). He distinguished between two types of behaviour, namely respondent and operant behaviour. Respondent behaviour is reflexive and spontaneous, involving the autonomic nervous system. It is preceded by a stimulus. An example is the reflexive eye blinking that occurs when a light is suddenly switched on in a previously darkened room. The environment controls operant behaviour, that is the events that follow a behaviour. A behaviour is performed based on the expected consequences of a behaviour (Möller 1987:58-59).

Skinner maintained that if the environment encouraged a desirable behaviour, then such a behaviour would probably be repeated in future. This encouragement or reinforcement can either be positive (administering a positive stimulus) or negative (removing an aversive stimulus). A behaviour would be unlikely to recur if the environment discouraged it. This is known as punishment and involves the removal of a pleasant stimulus or the administration of an unpleasant stimulus.

Extinction is also known as non-reinforcement (Sue, Sue & Sue 1994:75), where the reinforcement for behaviour is discontinued and so the behaviour disappears.

Systematic desensitisation involves gradually exposing the person to the stimulus that evokes an undesirable reaction so that the person becomes desensitised to the stimulus and gradually unlearns the undesirable reaction. These behaviouristic techniques can play an important role in therapeutic situations, particularly when cognitive therapies are ineffective, such as in the case of a learner who is intellectually-challenged or when the situation is so emotionally charged that clear thinking is virtually impossible.

Skinner believes that the cause of inappropriate behaviour is mainly due to incorrect reinforcement during development (Möller 1987:89). He distinguishes between three types of behaviour problems: (a) certain expected responses that occur in most humans were not learnt e.g. social skills, and can be rectified by means of reinforcement; (b) the person is capable of certain behaviour responses, but they were not reinforced by the environment and (c) inappropriate behaviour that was reinforced positively by the environment.

b. Moderate Behaviourism: Albert Bandura

Albert Bandura, based his work on that of B.F. Skinner, and provided further insight into eliciting a change in behaviour by merely observing the behaviour being performed (Sue, Sue & Sue 1994:76). It is believed that humans learn how to behave by observing the behaviour of others (Durkin 1995:22). This explains why children may imitate behaviours that have never been reinforced (modelling), and also avoid behaviours that they have seen other children get into trouble for (vicarious learning). The role of reinforcement is not seen as insignificant, but Bandura emphasises that observation speeds up the process of discovery when learning a new behaviour.

The process of observing someone and later copying their behaviour is known as modelling (Sue, Sue & Sue 1995:78). The factors that influence modelling are the nature of the modelled behaviour, the characteristics of the model, the characteristics of the observer, the results of the model's behaviour and self-efficacy - the beliefs a person has regarding his or her capabilities will determine how he or she chooses to behave, how long he or she perseveres and his or her motivations behind the behaviour.

Albert Bandura acknowledges the role of the environment, but he also believes that the "inner" forces, called cognitions, are important in describing a person's functioning. His approach is also known as the Social Cognitive Learning Approach.

Bandura believes that the person, his or her environment and the person's behaviour interact and determine the person's functioning. This is called reciprocal determinism. He stresses that a person's behaviour is influenced by what he or she expects the consequences of the behaviour to be (Meyer, Moore & Viljoen 1996:272). These consequences can be external (from the environment) or internal (the person's own evaluation of the behaviour).

Bandura does not give an exposition on the structure of personality, nor does he identify developmental stages, but he does define the personality functions of observation, planning, control and evaluation that influence behaviour. These personality functions are products of the interaction of genetics and the environment (Meyer, Moore & Viljoen 1996:273). He describes personality development as "a life-long process of change in the individual, which is the result of continuous interaction between genetic and environmental factors and which continuously produces new forms of behaviour" (Meyer, Moore & Viljoen 1996:301).

c. Factor Analysis - Hans Eysenck

Hans Eysenck is essentially a behaviourist who considered learnt behaviour to be of great value. He does, however, consider the differences that occur in personalities to be genetically determined. His research was based on extracting factors from a mass of information, called factor analysis. Factor Analysis involves a person rating him or herself by choosing from long lists of adjectives such as shy, outgoing, depressed, extroverted and so on. Dimensions are then extracted from the lists, called factors (Booree 2000:9).

Eysenck found two major dimensions of temperament called *neuroticism* and *extraversion-introversion*. Neuroticism ranges from normal to quite nervous. People that score high on the neurotic scale are more susceptible to nervous problems, such as panic attacks. Extraversion-introversion refers to the level of inhibition, or the ability to calm the brain in traumatic situations in order to protect itself. An extrovert has high inhibition and can more easily blank out a trauma, whereas an introvert has

weak inhibition and is more likely to remember all the details of a trauma, no matter how painful (Boeree 2000:11).

Eysenck found that these two dimensions interacted. Highly neurotic people who are introverts are more likely to generalise a fearful stimulus to all situations and develop phobias, or learn behaviours that cancel out the fear that is compulsions like hand washing. Highly neurotic extraverts are good at ignoring traumas and make use of repression and denial to deal with the situation. They are more likely to develop hysterical paralysis (forgetting the use of a limb) or develop amnesia (Boeree 2000:9).

2.2.2.3. The THIRD FORCE

a. Carl Rogers

Carl Rogers is well known for his "client-centred" approach to therapy. He is an optimist who regards humans as basically good. Although he does not distinguish between various personality types, he does emphasise that all humans have an actualising tendency, also called the "force of life" which is a form of motivation present in all living creatures to develop their potential to the fullest extent. He does not distinguish between various personality types, but he does provide us with the ultimate sense of being: the fully functioning person (Boeree 2000:2).

The characteristics of a fully functioning person are (a) openness to experience - someone who accepts reality and accurately perceives the world and his or her experiences, including his feelings; (b) existential living - experiencing the present and not living in the future or the past; (c) organismic trusting - trusting the real self; (d) experiential freedom - feeling free to make choices when they become available to us and take responsibility for the choices made and (e) creativity - participating creatively in the world to the actualisation of others, to life itself(Boeree 2000:4).

Rogers distinguishes between the real self (the "you" that you will become, if all goes well) and the ideal self (the "you" that is not real, that is a standard that cannot be reached). The real self is nurtured by unconditional positive regard and unconditional positive self-regard and is on the road to actualisation. The ideal self develops when a person is exposed to the conditions of worth of others - the society around us. The gap between the real and ideal self is called incongruity. The more incongruity - the more we suffer and the less likely we are to be functioning fully (Boeree 2000:4).

Like Freud, Rogers believes that humans use defences when faced with a threatening situation. The role of these defences is to reduce the anxiety experienced. There are two defences that Rogers distinguishes are ((Boeree 2000:4):

- i) denial - a combination of Freud's denial and repression were, for example, an anxiety-provoking event can be blacked out (denial) or kept out of awareness (repression) and
- ii) perceptual distortion - similar to Freud's rationalization involving the reinterpretation of a situation in order to make it less threatening.

The more a person makes use of defences, the greater the incongruency between the real and the ideal self. This leads to more anxiety-provoking situations and the use of more defences... a vicious circle (Boeree 2000:5).

b. Viktor Frankl

Viktor Frankl's theory focuses on the search for meaning in life. According to Frankl "...meaning must be found and cannot be given." (Frankl 1975:112). Meaning is like laughter, he says: You cannot force someone to laugh, you must tell him a joke. The same applies to faith, hope, and love - they cannot be enforced by an act of will. "...(M)eaning is something to discover rather than to invent" (Frankl 1975:113). This striving after meaning can be frustrated, and this frustration can lead to *noogenic neurosis*, or existential neurosis, where life is experienced as empty, meaningless, purposeless and aimless. Humans then seem to respond to these experiences with unusual behaviors that hurt themselves, others, society, or all three.

Frankl discusses three broad approaches to finding meaning. The first is through experiential values, that is, by experiencing something or someone we value. The most important example of experiential values is the love we feel towards another. Frankl points out that many people confuse sex with love. A second means of discovering meaning is through creative values - Frankl views creativity as a function of the spiritual unconscious: the conscience. The third means of finding meaning is attitudinal values, which includes compassion, bravery, a good sense of humour, and so on. But Frankl's most famous example is achieving meaning by way of suffering (Frankl 1975:113).

In the end, however, experiential, creative, and attitudinal values are merely manifestations of something much more fundamental, called supra-meaning or transcendence. Supra-meaning is the idea that there is, in fact, ultimate meaning in life, meaning that is not dependent on others, on our projects, or even on our dignity. It is a reference to God and spiritual meaning (Frankl 1975:114).

Viktor Frankl is well known for techniques known as paradoxical intention: wishing for the very thing you are afraid of. A second technique is called de-reflection. Frankl believes that by shifting attention away from oneself and onto others, problems often disappear. Frankl insists that, since Freud, there has been far too much emphasis on self-reflection - Frankl refers to this as "collective obsessive neurosis" (Frankl 1975:95) and it only serves to turn us away from meaning.

2.2.3 Addressing inappropriate behaviours based on personality theories

By analysing the causes and nature of behaviour, in terms of the approaches to personality theories, the means of addressing inappropriate behaviour can be summarised as follows (Sue, Sue & Sue 1994:96-97):

a. FIRST FORCE - from a psychoanalytic viewpoint:

Unconscious influences motivate behaviour and problem behaviour can be treated by finding the unconscious conflict from early childhood, solving the problem and reintegrating the personality.

b. SECOND FORCE - from a behaviouristic viewpoint:

Behaviour is motivated by external influences only. Analysing and effecting a change in the environmental factors that control the behaviour can modify problem behaviour.

c. SECOND FORCE - from a cognitive viewpoint:

Behaviour is motivated, according to the cognitive theorists, by the interaction of external and cognitive influences (Sue, Sue & Sue 1994:97). Problem behaviour can be changed by effecting a change in the irrational assumptions and maladaptive thought process of the person, using methods such as Rational Emotive Therapy (RET).

d. THIRD FORCE - from a humanistic viewpoint:

The motivation behind behaviour is the self-actualisation process. Problem behaviour results from increasing incongruity between the real self and experience. This can be rectified in a therapeutic situation in a climate of unconditional positive regard.

2.3 ADDITIONS TO THE TRADITIONAL THREE FORCES PARADIGMS

2.3.1 Introduction

Historically, the study of personality has been based on the *three forces* paradigms: psychoanalytic, behaviourist and humanistic (Funder 2001:1). Renewed interest has shown in Hans Eysenck's belief that hereditary plays an important role in personality theory, that is the role of genetics and biology. Furthermore, cross-cultural concerns are now regarded as the fourth force on personality development.

2.3.2 Personality, biology and genetics

The issue of the role of genetics is not a new one, but is currently undergoing a revival among personality psychologists (Funder 2001: 7). This field of study is also known as *socio-biology* and focuses on the role that genetics and brain function may play in forming and maintaining personality and behaviour (Elliott 2002:2). Socio-biology, in fact, examines the role of nature in the "nature versus nurture" debate.

Temperament represents the genetic part of our personality. Boeree (2000) defines temperament as the genetic part of our personality that is "founded in hormones and neurotransmitters" which develops during the foetal and infant stages of our lives. There are many temperament theories, each one with its own set of traits and resulting temperament related behaviours.

a. The ancient Greeks

The ancient Greek theory, which holds that there were four temperament types, became popular during the Middle Ages. This theory was based on "humors" - the kind of fluids a person has too little or too much of (Boeree 2000).

A *sanguine* person is someone with an abundance of blood (sanguis: latin for blood) who has a rosy complexion and a healthy look. This type of person is cheerful and optimistic. A *choleric* person has a yellow complexion and tension in the muscles (choleric refers to bile which aids digestion). This type of person is aggressive and has a hot temper. The *phlegmatic* type is someone who is a physically cold person with cold hands (phlegmatic refers to phlegm). This type of person is slow, lazy and dull. The *melancholic* type is someone who has too much "black bile" - something that actually does not exist medically. But, according to the Greeks, such a person is sad and pessimistic.

b. The study of baby twins - ARNOLD BUSS AND ROBERT PLOMIN

If temperament is genetically based, then answers should be found in the study of humans that have similar genetic material, that is twins. This formed the basis for a study by Buss and Plomin (Boeree 2000:8).

Parents of twins were asked to complete questionnaires about the behaviours and personalities of the twins. Buss and Plomin then used statistical methods similar to factor analysis and distinguished between learned descriptions and genetic descriptions, leading to the isolation of four temperament dimensions.

Buss and Plomin referred to these four factors as their EASI model (Boeree 2000:8) and are descriptive of the behaviour observed, namely emotionality-impassiveness (level of emotional exhibited), sociability-detachment (social interaction level), activity-lethargy (level of physical movement exhibited and impulsivity-deliberateness (level of sustained interest in a task).

2.3.3. The influence of culture

The role of culture has recently been acknowledged as playing a vital role in determining the appropriateness of behaviour responses. Culture can be defined as "the organised system of shared meanings, perceptions and beliefs held by persons belonging to any group" (Baron & Byrne 2000:11).

Behaviour is strongly influenced by cultural norms (social rules regarding how to behave in certain situations). In South Africa's multicultural society, it is important to understand that differences do exist between the various cultures. Once the cultural

and ethnic factors that influence behaviour have been defined, then it is easier to understand the motivation behind the behaviour (Baron & Byrne 2000:17).

At present, most teachers are faced with a variety of unfamiliar cultural and ethnic norms within their classroom. Managing classroom behaviour is not an easy task, especially when there may be a number of conflicting cultural norms and values. A more multicultural approach in dealing with learners is the solution to managing such a classroom, with emphasis on mutual respect and tolerance.

2.4 PERSONALITY AND BEHAVIOUR IN THE EDUCATION SETTING

The social context is important when analysing personality traits and related behaviour trends. Behaviour is often labelled as inappropriate, depending on the social context, for example aggression can be considered an appropriate response during participation in a boxing match and inappropriate in a classroom situation.

Pullis (1991:15) found that learner behaviour problems correlated significantly and negatively with two dimensions of temperament, namely task-orientation and reactivity (see section 2.3.2). These learners were found to exhibit higher rates of disruptive behaviour that negatively affected task-orientation. Pullis found that these behaviour trends of learners with learning difficulties placed significant demands on the educator's attention and required the use of intensive strategies for behaviour management (Pullis 1991: 17).

Educators have long recognised that classroom behaviour can influence the academic performance of learners (Gable, Quinn, Rutherford & Howell 1998:1). Often the arguments of educators for and against inclusion are based on commonsense - this often presents an inconsistent view of human behaviour (Baron & Byrne 2000:8).

2.4.1 The classroom as social context

Roy Martin identified what he terms temperament characteristics in the social, emotional and attention behaviour domains that play an important role regarding learning in the classroom context (Martin 1992:99):

a. Social behaviour

There are two aspects to social behaviour (Martin 1992:100): the ease or speed of adjustment to an altered social environment (social adaptability), and the tendency to either participate in or withdraw from social interaction (social inhibition).

b. Emotional behaviour

Martin (1992:100) maintains that the frequency and intensity of the expression of emotions such as anger, hostility and other related emotions is an important temperament domain. He refers to this domain as negative emotional behaviour. The higher the level of emotional intensity experienced by the learner, the more likely that behaviour problems will occur (Martin 1992:107).

Every individual has an emotional threshold. This is the level of sensory stimulation (auditory, visual, olfactory and tactile) necessary to cause an emotional response. This emotional threshold is also known as the emotional reactivity level. The tendency to respond to low levels of sensory stimulation was associated with behaviour problems in learners (Martin 1992:108).

c. Attention behaviours

One aspect of attention behaviour is the activity level of an individual, that is the amount and intensity of gross and fine motor movements exhibited in any given period of time. Another aspect of attention behaviour is the tendency to carry on with tasks without being distracted. This is also known as task persistence and distractibility (Martin 1992:100).

2.5 SUMMARY

Research shows that there are a variety of views on the concept of personality. None of them are either right or wrong, due to the fact that they are merely attempts by scholars to describe something so complex. Each definition or theory of personality was based on certain assumptions and possibly reflect the knowledge of humankind at the time when the theories were developed.

What is evident is the link between personality and behaviour. Behaviour appears to provide us with clues regarding personality. Humans are often labelled as a personality type based on their characteristic behaviour. Personality, which is relatively constant, manifests itself as *characteristic behaviour*. Van Rensburg and Landman (1988:440) maintain that, in the course of time, personality is moulded into a relatively consistent pattern of behaviour, which constantly comes to the fore in all personal action. Likewise, a person can be classified as having a certain personality trait, by determining the person's characteristic behaviour.

Personality tests include questions regarding how a person would act in a particular situation, and one is often asked to choose the reaction (behaviour) that is nearest to how one would normally react or behave. The social context is important when analysing personality traits and related behaviour trends. Previous research, specifically regarding learners with special education needs, has identified temperament characteristics related to the social, emotional and attention behaviours exhibited in the classroom. For the purposes of this research the social context would be the educational setting. The next chapter focuses on the provision of education for learners with special education needs.

CHAPTER 3

LEARNERS WITH SPECIAL EDUCATION NEEDS: CURRENT NATIONAL AND INTERNATIONAL TRENDS IN THE PROVISION OF EDUCATION

3.1 LEARNERS WITH SPECIAL EDUCATION NEEDS

3.1.1 Introduction

The term *learners with special education needs (LSEN)* describes those learners who "experience barriers to learning and development and who need support in addition to that normally offered in an ordinary class" (Western Cape Education Department 1999:1). This can range from those with severe learning difficulties to extremely gifted learners. Terms such as special education and specialised education have been replaced by one concept – Education of Learners with Special Education Needs (ELSEN). ELSEN refers to the additional support given to a learner who experience barriers to learning and development. SEN is the accepted abbreviation of the term "special education needs".

A joint commission consisting of the National Commission on Special Needs in Education and Training (NCSNET) and the National Committee for Education Support Services (NCESS) gives preference to the term *learners who experience barriers to learning and development* as opposed to *learners with special education needs* for a variety of reasons.

This joint commission believes that the term *learners with special educational needs (LSEN)* is still, in essence, a discriminatory term. The commission claims that the term LSEN labels those learners who somehow do not "fit into" the mainstream education system. They also claim that LSEN is used as an umbrella term to describe the complex array of needs that these learners may exhibit and not provide sufficient insight into what causes a learning breakdown or why such learners have been excluded from the mainstream education system. The joint commission prefers the term *barriers to learning and development*, which refers to those factors that lead to the inability of the system to accommodate diversity, and in turn prevent learners from accessing educational provision (Unisa 1999:1).

3.1.2 The barriers to learning

The NCSNET/NCESS commission lists the following barriers to learning (Unisa 1999:1):

- barriers within the learner;
- barriers within the centre of learning (e.g. school) or the education system;
- barriers in the broader social, economic and political context.

The commission also reports that the barriers "*manifest themselves in different ways such as inattentiveness, frequent absence from school, progress below potential, et cetera and only become obvious when learning breakdown occurs, learners drop out of the system or learners are excluded from the regular education system*" (Unisa 1999:1).

3.1.2.1 Barriers to learning and development within the learner

Barriers could be located within the learner. Examples of such barriers are (Gous & Mfazwe 1998:7):

a. Difficulties in hearing or seeing properly (sensory problems)

This includes learners who are blind, partially blind, deaf and partially deaf.

b. Suffering from a physical disability

This includes learners who experience any physical defect that may hamper learning.

c. Suffering from a chronic illness

This includes illnesses such as TB, HIV/Aids, diabetes, cancer, asthma, rheumatic fever and nutrition diseases such as anorexia nervosa and bulimia.

d. Experiencing emotional and behaviour problems

This includes behaviours that are symptoms of emotional problems such as inferiority feelings, anxiety, depression, withdrawal, daydreaming, stealing, truancy, vandalism, gang-related activities, disobedience, noisiness and aggression, etc.

e. Exhibiting specific learning difficulties

If a discrepancy exists between a learner's intellectual ability and the learner's actual performance, then the learner is said to exhibit specific learning difficulties. Difficulties often manifest themselves in the areas of reading, writing, spelling and mathematics.

f. Having been Identified as being intellectually challenged.

Learners who are well below the average of 100 are considered intellectually challenged.

3.1.2.2 Barriers to learning and development within the centre for learning and the education system

The NCSNET/NCESS commission has found the following to be barriers within the centre of learning and the education system (Unisa 1999:1):

a. Inflexible curriculum.

An inflexible curriculum which may not meet the diverse needs of all learners in class may lead to learning breakdown; inadequately trained educators may use teaching styles that limit the initiative and involvement of learners; what is taught through the curriculum may be inappropriate to the learners' life situation, and so on.

b. Language and communication.

Classroom communication may be inhibited by teaching and learning via a second or third language.

c. Inaccessible and unsafe built environment.

Such environments may make it impossible for physically disabled learners to have access to centres of learning, that is no ramps for wheel chairs, inappropriate furniture placement possibly impeding the movement of blind learners, and so on.

d. Lack of parental recognition and involvement.

Often parents are not given recognition as primary caregivers. Sometimes negative attitudes towards parental involvement exist, thus contributing to barriers to learning and development.

e. Inappropriate and inadequate provision of support services.

Support services have, in the past, been focused on the problems of learners rather than on the barriers within the education system, leading to inappropriate labelling. Intervention has lead to learners being placed in special schools instead of dealing with the inadequacies of the learning environment. In rural areas, support services are still virtually non-existent.

f. Lack of human resource development strategies.

"Lack of ongoing in-service training of educators may lead to low self-esteem, insecurity and lack of innovative practices in the classroom" (Unisa 1999:1).

g. Discriminatory attitudes.

Most past intervention practices have involved the categorising and labelling of learners with learning problems. Ignorance and the negative connotations surrounding an illness such as AIDS may lead to learners with an HIV-positive diagnosis being expelled from centres of learning.

3.1.2.3 Barriers to learning and development within the broader social, economic and political context

These barriers include a lack of access to basic services (medical services, homes), poverty and underdevelopment, factors which place learners at risk (violence and abuse) and the lack of enabling and protective legislation and policy (legislation regarding age limits, which prevents learners from entering school or continuing in the education system).

3.1.3 The importance of identifying learners with special education needs

Although the current trend is to include all learners in one education system, it is still important to identify learners with special education needs. Accurate identification ensures that:

- the learner can receive appropriate aid from professionals;
- continuous support when changing classes or schools;

- provides feedback to the school as to whether their special education needs curriculum is effective and whether the school has successfully included the learners with special education needs.

A medical professional normally identifies physical disabilities, chronic illness, deafness and blindness earlier in a learner's life. However, some learners only begin to exhibit signs of special education needs when they start school. In cases such as these, the identification process usually begins with either the parent or the subject/class teacher. Such learners may require "*different interventions or strategies to prevent them from causing learning breakdown or being excluded from the system. This can be done by effective monitoring and meeting of the different needs among the learner population and within the system as a whole*" (Unisa 1999:1).

3.2 THE PROVISION OF EDUCATION FOR LEARNERS WITH SPECIAL EDUCATION NEEDS

3.2.1 Introduction

Basically, there are two options: either include all learners within one school system (inclusive education) or exclude those who do not "fit in" from the mainstream education system and provide for their varied needs in special schools or programmes (exclusive education). At present, most countries are moving away from an exclusive model to a more inclusive model of education.

3.2.2 Exclusive education

The Oxford Dictionary defines exclusion as "a denial of membership or participation" (Leyden & Miller 1998:190). This implies that a person is denied active participation based on some discriminatory criterion. Exclusive education involves the identification and assessment of learners that are not benefiting from the curriculum of ordinary schools and the placement of such learners within separate schools providing specialised services and following a separate curriculum (Department of Education 1999:7).

Taking the definition of exclusion into account, the current education system in South Africa would have been considered an exclusive one. The education system in South Africa consists of two separate types of schools that cater for two groups of learners, namely ordinary public schools and LSEN schools (Learners with Special Education Needs).

Ordinary public schools provide education for learners that do not require any formalised special education programmes or facilities (Department of Education 1999:7). These schools are also commonly known as mainstream schools. Within a mainstream school there may well be learners that are struggling academically, but that are not classified as having severe learning difficulties (Department of Education 1999:4). As long as the learner could cope with the curriculum, they are accommodated in ordinary public schools.

LSEN schools, on the other hand, provide educational support services to learners that could not benefit fully from the programmes offered by ordinary public schools.

3.2.3 Inclusive education

Inclusion is the equal and optimal education of all learners within one school system. It is a system where all learners are recognised as having diverse needs, but are valued for their shared humanity. It is a system where all learners can be educated together and where personal diversity is seen to be enriching (Leyden & Miller 1998:192). It promotes the development of learners on personal, academic and professional levels. It is free of harassment and discrimination and recognises the value of the learners as partners in the education process.

3.3 TO INCLUDE... OR NOT TO INCLUDE

3.3.1 Introduction

The debate about inclusive education is extremely topical, not only in South Africa, but also throughout the world. South Africa has decided to forgo exclusion in favour of inclusion and is currently in a transitional phase. Other countries, such as USA, the

United Kingdom and several European countries have already gone that route and South Africa can learn from these already established systems.

3.3.2 International policies

The following statements from a few international policy documents give us a clear indication of the most recent approaches (Unisa 1999:1):

a. THE UNESCO Salamanca Statement (1994)

Policies of the United Nations, such as the Salamanca Statement stress that all learners have the right to education that is equal and non-discriminatory.

At an UNESCO international conference in Spain during 1994, the Salamanca Statement was adopted. The agencies of the United Nations that specifically work with special needs education base their work on this statement, which is as follows:

'Every child has a fundamental right to education and must be given the opportunity to achieve and maintain an acceptable level of learning... Every child has unique characteristics, interests, abilities and learning needs... Education systems should be designed, and educational programs implemented to take into account the wide diversity of these characteristics and needs...those with special education needs must have access to regular schools that should accommodate them within a child-centred pedagogy capable of meeting these needs...Regular schools with this inclusive orientation are the most effective means of combating discriminatory attitudes, creating welcoming communities, building an inclusive society and achieving education for all. Moreover, they provide an effective education to the majority of children and improve the efficiency of the education system.'

b. United Nations Convention on the Rights of the Child (1989)

Article 23 ... '*a mentally or physically disabled child should enjoy a full and decent life in conditions which ensure dignity, promote self-reliance and facilitate the child's active participation in the community.*'

c. Jomtien World Conference of Education for All: Meeting Basic Learning Needs (1990)

"Meeting basic learning needs relates to the inherent right of all children to a full cycle of primary education; the commitment to a child-centred concept of education in which individual differences are accepted as a source of diversity, a challenge and not a problem; the improvement of the quality of primary education including improvements in professional training, the provision of more flexible and primary schooling, with respect to organisation, process and content; greater parental and community participation in education; recognition of the wide diversity of needs and patterns of development of primary school children, demanding a wider and more flexible range of responses and a commitment to a developmental and holistic approach to education and care of primary school children".

3.3.3 SOUTH AFRICAN POLICY

The following statements from South African policy documents highlight the human rights of all South Africans that are to be respected when making provision for education (Unisa 1999:1):

a. The South African Constitution

Equality (point 8):

- Every person has equal rights in the eyes of the law.
- There may be no discrimination against any person on the grounds of race, gender, ethnic or social descent, colour, sexual orientation, age, disability, religion, faith, culture or language.

Human dignity (point 10)

- Every person has the right to respect and to the protection of his or her human dignity.

Education (point 32)

- Everyone has the right to basic education and equal access to education.

b. South African Schools Act, no 84 of 1996

"The member of the executive council must, where reasonably practicable, provide education for LSEN at ordinary public schools and provide relevant educational support services for such learners... the member of the executive council must take reasonable measures to ensure that the physical facilities at public schools are accessible to disabled persons (12.3,4,5)...the rights and wishes of the parents of LSEN should be taken into account (5.6)."

3.4 CURRENT TRENDS IN EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICA**3.4.1 Introduction**

In October 1996, a commission was appointed to investigate aspects of special needs and support services in South Africa. The findings were published in February 1998. The central findings of these investigations (Department of Education 2001b:5) described an education system where:

- Special education and support was provided for a small percentage of learners within special classes or schools;
- Special education and support was provided with the best resources being reserved for white learners;
- Most learners with disabilities had remained behind in ordinary public schools and had not been channelled to LSEN schools;
- The curriculum and education system had failed to respond to the diverse needs of the learner population, resulting in massive numbers of dropouts and failures.

3.4.2 Towards an inclusive education system: the first steps

The Ministry of Education published the Education White Paper No 1 in 1995, in which concern was expressed regarding the provision of education for learners with special education needs. The Ministry is of the opinion that the current education system does not adequately accommodate the needs of all learners. A national commission was appointed to provide recommendations as to how the needs of all learners could be met within a seamless and inclusive education and training system.

The recommendations were published during August 1999. This paper outlined the plan for the establishment of an inclusive education system.

More recently, the Education WHITE PAPER 6 (Department of Education 2001b) provides the latest details regarding the transformation process.

3.4.2.1 Why is transformation necessary?

The Ministry of Education maintains that transformation is necessary in the light of the Constitution of South Africa (Act 108 of 1996) which states that everyone has the right to a basic education as well as further education "which the state, through reasonable measures, must make progressively available and accessible" (Department of Education 1999:1). Section 9 (2) of the Constitution emphasises the commitment of the state to equality and Section 9 (3 to 5) commits the state to non-discrimination.

In the light of this, the system of excluding learners who experience learning difficulties by placing them in separate schools is unconstitutional and is to be replaced with a new education system based on the concepts of equality and non-discrimination.

The following is an extract, outlining the reasons for a move towards a more inclusive education system (Department of Education 1999:2):

"Such an understanding of what causes learning difficulties and exclusion locates the problem within the education and training system - the teaching and learning strategy, the classroom, the school, the district, the provincial and national organisations and systems - and suggests that the education and training system should undergo change so that it can meet the full range of learning needs. It is also consistent with new international approaches that focus on providing quality education for all learners. It recognises that developing learners' strengths, and empowering and enabling them to participate actively and critically in the learning process involve identifying and overcoming the causes of learning difficulties. It follows therefore that to contribute to effective learning and to ensure the inclusion of all learners in the learning process, the education and training system should be structured

and function in such a way that it is able to accommodate a diversity of learner needs."

3.4.3 The proposed plan for transformation

Education WHITE PAPER 6 (Department of Education 2001b) outlines the most recent details regarding the establishment of an inclusive education and training system. Apart from listing long-term and short-term goals, the paper also identifies 12 strategic areas of change (Department of Education 2001b:45-56). The details in this White Paper reflect a 20-year developmental perspective.

The long-term goal is the development of an inclusive education system that will uncover and address barriers to learning and recognise as well as accommodate the diversity of learning needs in South Africa (Department of Education 2001b:45).

The short-term to medium term goals focus on laying the foundations for an inclusive education system to be built over the next 20 years. Immediate attention will be given to addressing the weaknesses in the current education system, as well as expanding access and provision to learners who are currently not accommodated within the education system (Department of Education 2001b:45).

This White Paper 6 also makes the following distinction between mainstreaming and inclusion (Department of Education 2001b:17):

TABLE 1: DISTINCTION BETWEEN MAINSTREAMING & INCLUSION

Mainstreaming	Inclusion
Learners are integrated into an existing education system.	Learner differences are recognised and respected; inclusion is about focusing on learner similarities.
Learners are given extra support. Specialists assess learners and then diagnose and prescribe placement in programmes.	Learners, educators and the system are supported as a whole so that the full range of learning needs can be met.

The focus is on the learner and the changes that need to take place within the learner in order to "fit in".	Inclusion focuses on overcoming barriers in the system that prevent it from meeting the full range of learning needs. The focus is on the adaptation of and support systems available in the classroom.
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Learners are integrated into the existing education system. Learner differences are recognised and respected; building on learner similarities. Extra support is given to learners. Specialists assess learners and then diagnose and prescribe placement in programmes. Learners, educators and the system are supported as a whole so that the full range of learning needs can be met. The focus is on the learner and the changes that need to take place within the learner in order to "fit in". Inclusion focuses on overcoming barriers in the system that prevent it from meeting the full range of learning needs. In order to transform the education system, many changes are required.

3.4.3.1 Strategic areas of change

As mentioned previously immediate attention is to be given to addressing the weaknesses in the current education system, as well as expanding access and provision to learners who are currently not accommodated within the education system (Department of Education 2001b:45). This involves the following:

a. Building capacity in all education departments

The Department of Education is to assist all nine provincial departments of education in developing effective management strategies with regard to planning, management information systems, financial management and curriculum development and assessment. The Minister of Education and the nine Members of the Provincial Executive Councils are to, in the spirit of co-operative governance, oversee the foundation of an inclusive education system.

b. Strengthening the capacities of all advisory bodies

The advisory bodies are to be reviewed and, where appropriate, strengthened. These advisory bodies are to play a critical role, together with the Minister of Education, regarding the goals, targets and priorities of the inclusive education system.

c. Establishing district support teams

District support teams are to consist of staff from provincial district, regional and head offices as well as staff from special schools. Their role is to build the capacity of schools and all other learning institutions to recognise and address severe learning difficulties and also to accommodate a wide range of learning needs.

d. Auditing and improving the quality of and converting special schools to resource centres

An audit of the provision of education by public and independent special schools is to be undertaken, in order to determine the quality of service provided. On the basis of these audits, special schools can then become resource centres.

The aims of these resource centres will be to provide improved educational service, as well as to provide specialised support to other schools as part of the district support teams. This will necessitate the upgrading and training of staff and the revision of conditions of service for educators.

e. Identifying, designating and establishing full-service schools, public adult learning centres, and further and higher education institutions

Model inclusive schools, called full-service schools, are to be equipped to provide for diverse range of learning needs. Initially, 30 schools are to become full-service schools, one from each of the 30 districts. The programmes at these schools are to be monitored and the lessons learnt will guide the extension of this model to other learning institutions (Department of Education 2001b:22).

Later, 500 schools will be selected to be converted to full service schools, based on factors such as parent participation and mobilisation of the community as partners in the education process.

f. Establishing institutional-level support teams

The function of an institutional level support team is to establish and co-ordinate learner support services by identifying and addressing learner, educator and institution needs. This team can draw on expertise from the local community, district support teams and other institutions.

g. Assisting in establishing mechanisms at community level for the early identification of severe learning disabilities

An investigation is to be undertaken by the Ministries of Education, Health and Welfare regarding the early identification and support of learners that experience severe barriers to learning during the pre-school years.

h. Developing the professional capacity of all educators in curriculum development and assessment

The 80 hours annual in-service training requirements of the Government regarding educators is to be structured in such a way that the educators will be required to complete courses pertaining to curriculum development, assessment and instructional development programmes. District support teams and institutional support teams will play a vital role in this process. The standards of educator training programmes will be revised.

i. Promoting quality assurance and quality improvement

Programmes of quality assurance are to be developed, taking into account the current and future access to educational services for learners with disabilities, with emphasis on addressing the barriers to learning.

j. Mobilising public support

At the Ministry level, an information campaign is to be launched to communicate the proposals of the WHITE PAPER 6. Discussions will continue with health professionals, community -based organisations, non-government organisations and other members of the public involved in the establishment of the inclusive education system.

At institutional level, the role of the parents will be supported by empowering them to effectively participate in the education of their children.

k. HIV/AIDS and other infectious diseases

The Ministry of Education will collaborate with the provincial education departments, the departments of Social Development, Health and the Public Service Administration regarding the development of programmes to co-ordinate support for learners whose education is affected by HIV/AIDS and other infectious diseases.

1. Developing an appropriate funding strategy

During the first eight years, a three-pronged approach to funding is proposed. The emphasis is on cost-effectiveness, and a realistic strategy that recognises the fiscal capacity of South Africa. Further investigation regarding expenditure and the phasing-in of expenditure over the eight-year period is proposed.

3.4.4 The vision, principles and strategies of the proposed South African inclusive education system

The following summarises the report of the National Commission on Special Needs in Education and Training and the National Committee for Education Support Services (Unisa 1999:1):

a. Vision

The vision entails an education and training system that promotes education for all and fosters the development of inclusive and supportive centres of learning that enable all learners to participate actively in the education process so that they can develop and extend their potential and participate as equal members of society.

b. Principles

The principles include the acceptance of principles and values contained in the constitution and in the White Papers on education and training, human rights and social justice for all learners, participation and social integration, equal access to a single, inclusive education system, access to the curriculum, equity and redress and a community responsive education system.

c. Strategies

The strategies include the development of an integrated system of education, providing for the holistic development of learners and support services, transforming the system, a more holistic approach to institutional transformation, barrier-free access to all centres of learning, developing a flexible curriculum to ensure access, the promotion of the rights and responsibilities of parents, the promotion of the rights

and responsibilities of teachers and learners, the provision of effective development programmes for educators and other human resources, a preventative and developmental approach to support, embedding support services within the system and community-based services.

3.5 WHAT CAN SOUTH AFRICA LEARN FROM INTERNATIONAL EXPERIENCES REGARDING INCLUSION?

3.5.1 Introduction

During the 1960's there was a move towards integration in education among the Scandinavian countries, followed during the 1970's by the UK and the USA and then even later by Italy and Spain. This move towards integration of mainstream and special education was the first significant development internationally (Florian 1998:104).

The second significant development was the transformation of the integration movement into the inclusion movement. The integration movement was considered a limited attempt to accommodate disabled learners in schools that remain relatively unchanged. The inclusion movement is seen as a more committed effort to create schools capable of educating all learners (Florian 1998:104).

The move towards inclusive education will differ in each country, depending on the needs of each country. The inclusion practises and policies of a developed country cannot be implemented in a developing country, due to the differing educational, social and economic contexts. Education systems can be expected to share their experiences with each other, but that does not necessarily imply that these experiences can be generalised to all countries practising inclusion.

When considering the proposed vision, strategies and principles of the South African inclusive education system, it is important to look at international experience regarding policy development, the role of community, the benefits and challenges of inclusion for the learners. South Africa can learn from the teaching strategies that are currently employed in existing inclusive education systems.

3.5.2 Education policy in the United Kingdom - an overview

In Britain during the 1870's, the school systems began to enforce compulsory school attendance. The idea of providing education for all was revolutionary at the time, but the policy had serious implementation implications such as not enough desks, too many learners and too few teachers (Florian 1998:105). The education of children with problems or disabilities could, however, only be provided in special classes or schools. As time went by, special teaching methods were devised and a special education system was developed. Therefore, the British education system was historically an exclusive one.

Inclusive education has recently become a central theme in government policies in the United Kingdom. The first White Paper of the new Labour Government, called Excellence in Schools, was published by the British Department for Education and Employment, outlining the "priorities for raising the standards" of education for all learners, including those with special education needs. This was followed by a Green Paper called Excellence for all Children, which included proposals to reduce the number of learners requiring special education and also increase the accommodation of these learners within mainstream schools (Florian 1998:106).

The Green Paper officially states that inclusion is now recognised as a priority in the United Kingdom (Johnstone & Warwick 1999:2). However, this proposed policy of inclusion is within the framework of special education. The aim is to create a system in which the provision of special services is seen as part of the overall provision of education (Florian 1998:108).

Florian (1998:105) maintains that the practical implementation of the inclusion policies will not be an easy one, as many teachers have their doubts regarding the widespread placement of LSEN in mainstream education. Their reservations are mainly due to the fact that many issues regarding teaching and learning in inclusive schools remain unaddressed.

3.5.3 The role of the community as a partner in the provision of education within inclusive education

Through practical experience it has been discovered that inclusion is not the sole responsibility of the education system, but that the community has a vital role to play (Johnstone & Warwick 1999:10). One of South Africa's principles is a community responsive education system (Unisa 1999:1).

Warwick identified several effective models of providing services consistent with the principles of inclusion in the United Kingdom and Europe in a report in 1997 (Johnstone & Warwick 1999:10):

a. Norway and Spain

Norway has resource centres that are established to ensure that inclusive education is a "lifelong reality" (Johnstone & Warwick 1999:10). The main functions of a resource centre is to assist with the identification and assessment of LSEN, to advise learners, parents, teachers and other professionals and to ensure the local provision of learning opportunities for people with LD. Resource centres also aim to improve knowledge of special education needs through advice and training.

The Basque region of Spain has a network of similar resource centres called COPS. In this region, there is a strong commitment to inclusion. The government funds the COPS system and the system is co-ordinated by CEI (a Basque advisory and inspection service). The CEI also monitors the implementation of educational policies (Johnstone & Warwick 1999:10).

In both Norway and Spain the steady development of an inclusive system is due to state funded and state developed policies. The community-based resource centres are fundamental to the success of mainstreaming, and there is a great emphasis on empowering the communities to devise their own programmes and solutions (Johnstone & Warwick 1999:11).

b. Italy

The Marconi Project has been developed in Bologna consisting of an information technology-based network of "Pole schools". These Pole schools are centres of

information and resources for the schools in a specific area. They exchange expertise and resources with other Pole schools within a network. The results are that all schools in the network are developing their own approaches to inclusion and they are co-operating with neighbourhood schools in this regard (Johnstone & Warwick 1999:10).

c. Denmark

Denmark has been practising a policy of inclusion for the past 15 years. The educational psychology service in Hinnerup and Hadsten is the resource centre for the country. They have devised a link (the TESS network) via the Internet with other resource centres in Europe and The United Kingdom. The role of the community is also encouraged and supported. A "Curator Service" has been developed within the communities that assist the transition of LD learners to adult facilities when they leave school. This "Curator Service" brings together the services of local businesses, housing departments, social services and colleges for further study (Johnstone & Warwick 1999:11).

3.5.4 Benefits and challenges of inclusion regarding the barrier to learning located within the learner

Available international literature provides a wealth of information regarding the advantages and disadvantages of inclusive education for a disabled learner, a barrier to learning located within the learner. However, the barriers to learning are not limited to the barriers located within the learner, but also include barriers to learning and development within the centre of learning and education system and barriers within the broader social, economic and political context.

The experience of the UK and USA can serve as a starting point for the South African educator, particularly regarding classroom and teaching strategies.

a. Benefits of inclusion

i. United States of America

Most studies conducted regarding inclusion in the USA focus on the child who is learning disabled (LD learner), a barrier to learning located within the learner.

Schultz (1996:6) reports benefits such as a reduced fear of human differences accompanied by increased comfort and awareness; growth in social cognition; improvement in the self concept of previously excluded learners; development of personal principles and ability to assume an advocacy role towards their peers with disabilities; and warm and caring friendships.

Hobbs and Westling (1998:13) found that inclusion offered benefits specifically for the previously excluded learner, such as: more opportunities to socialise with regular learners, the extent of their disability not having as profound an effect on their popularity as expected and benefits in the area of tolerance of others.

A study by O'Shea and O'Shea (1998:40) found that when learners are given inclusion opportunities, 'good things' happen. Among the 'good things' that LD learners experienced were: increased awareness of the abilities of both LD and non-LD learners, an improvement in communication skills especially in activities were participation and co-operation between LD and non-LD learners is encouraged, and improved social and academic achievements.

However, inclusion does not only benefit the LD learner. The very important "good thing" that students without disabilities learnt was to accept diversity (O'Shea & O'Shea 1998:40).

ii. Canada

Jackson (1995:117) cites the following arguments in favour of inclusion:

- Increase in social acceptance of people with disabilities;
- Reduced stigmatisation and elimination of compromised expectations of the learner placed in a special education class;
- Ensures civil liberties (separation is not equal);
- Educational outcomes of those placed in segregated classes were variable and did not justify separation.

For inclusion to work, Jackson (1995:117-118) notes that the reorganisation of staff and educational programs are required. This entails increasing staff development and collaboration, planning priorities and modifying curricula.

It is important to acknowledge the needs of the learners in an inclusive education system. The following needs have been identified (Jackson 1995:118):

- The need to be actively engaged in meaningful and enriching activities;
- The need for a classroom that promotes trust, respect and successful outcomes;
- The need for appropriately assigned and designed tasks, the setting of clear expectations, frequent assessments and feedback;
- The need for consistently enforced consequences for inappropriate behaviours;
- The need for an orderly and secure atmosphere.

iii. United Kingdom

'Inclusive Education is a human right, it's good education and it makes good social sense' (Ten Reasons for Inclusion:1)

The Centre for Studies on Inclusive Education (CSIE) lists specific reasons for inclusion (Ten Reasons for Inclusion:1)

Regarding human rights, the CSIE advocates that:

1. All children have a right to learn together;
2. Exclusive education may be considered a form of discrimination;
3. Disabled adults from the traditionally exclusive system are demanding an end to segregation;
4. All children belong together - there are no legitimate reasons to protect children from each other.

Regarding good education, the CSIE maintains that:

5. Research shows that learners are better off academically and socially in integrated settings;
6. Ordinary schools are capable of providing the same teaching and care provided by special schools;
7. Given commitment and support, inclusive education uses educational resources more efficiently.

Regarding social sense, the CSIE reports that:

8. Exclusion breeds prejudice;
9. Children require an education that prepares them for life, which is not segregated;

10. Only inclusion has the potential to build friendship, respect and understanding.

b. Challenges of inclusion

A USA study conducted in 1997 (Hobbs & Westling 1998:15) listed some of the most common problems that arose when accommodating disabled learners in an inclusive education system:

Behaviour problems:

The learners were found to exhibit disrupting and distracting behaviours. They were also found to lack the social skills normally required in a classroom setting (Hobbs & Westling 1998:15).

Peer and social acceptance:

Incidents of bullying, teasing and rejection of the learners with learning difficulties were reported. These learners often became isolated from the rest of the class.

Instructional problems:

A study conducted by Scruggs and Mastropieri (Hobbs & Westling 1998:13) synthesised 28 previous studies that had been conducted over a period of 37 years from 1958 to 1995. It was found that, on average, only 28% of the teachers said they had enough time to practise inclusion and only 29% felt that their training was adequate to deal with inclusion.

Some of the teachers, who had previously only taught regular learners found themselves in uncharted territory. At times, the teachers participating in the study thought they were "uninformed and unprepared" regarding the special needs of the learners (Hobbs & Westling 1998:15). O'Shea and O'Shea (1998:40) found that the education of the learners without learning problems lost some of its quality, in an attempt to accommodate the learners with problems.

Assessment accommodations

A study by Elliott, Ysseldyke, Thurlow & Erickson (1998:22) found that without assessment accommodations, it is practically impossible to assess learners with special education needs, especially those with reading difficulties. An assessment

accommodation is defined by Elliott, Ysseldyke, Thurlow & Erickson (1998:22) as a change or alteration in the way a test is administered.

An important issue to consider is whether assessment accommodations may provide learners with an unfair advantage. The effect on test validity and test reliability should be nominal, since an accommodation would be considered inappropriate if the validity of the test was threatened (Elliott, Ysseldyke, Thurlow & Erickson 1998:23). Although the issue of assessment accommodations is controversial, in most cases regarding learners with special education needs it is justified to use accommodations, since, without accommodations, most learners with special education needs would not be testable - arguably another form of exclusion.

Criteria, such as what the test is supposed to measure and the appropriateness of an accommodation, should be considered. A practical example of an inappropriate accommodation would be to allow the learner reading accommodations, when the aim of the test is to determine reading level. An accommodation would be considered controversial when the accommodation is closely related to the skill being assessed (Landau, Vohs & Romano 1998:01).

Once the decision has been made to assess learners with special education needs, there are lists of accommodation-related questions that may be used that guide the tester in determining which accommodations, if any, are necessary. An article by Landau, Vohs and Romano (1998:23) lists four categories of accommodations that should be considered when assessing learners with special education needs. Further research includes a 20-question list devised by Reetz, Ring and Jacobs (1999:117-118) and a table of sampling questions from research by Thurlow, Elliott, Ysseldyke, Thurlow & Erickson and Ysseldyke (1998). The most important question is: *Can the learner with special education needs do the same test at the same level as learners without special education needs?*

If the answer is yes, then no accommodations are necessary. If the answer is no, then suitable accommodations can be employed.

The following is a synthesis of the available literature regarding ways of determining exactly which accommodations should be employed:

a. Timing/Scheduling Accommodations

- Can the learner do the same test with different time constraints?
- Can the learner do the same test with flexible scheduling?
- Does the learner take medication that dissipates after a certain period of time, and so
- scheduling to suit optimal performance would be needed?

b. Setting Accommodations

- Can the learner focus on the test in a group setting?
- Does the learner display behaviours that would be distracting to others?
- Does the learner experience anxiety in an unfamiliar setting?

c. Presentation Accommodations

- Can the learner do the same test with more simple directions?
- Can the learner do the same test with a different delivery system?
- Can the learner respond appropriately with an example provided?

d. Response Accommodations

- Can the learner complete objective tests if the multiple choice items are adapted?
- Can the learner complete matching items on objective tests if appropriate adaptations are made?
- Can the learner complete the objective test if the true-false items are adapted?
- Can the learner complete the objective test if the completion items are adapted?
- Can the learner respond to essay questions if appropriate adaptations are made?
- Can the learner complete only certain parts of the same test?
- Can the learner do the same test with additional maths tools (that is calculator)?
- Can the learner do the same test with additional written language learning tools (e.g. dictionary, spell-check, word processor)?
- Can the learner do the same test with additional memory tools (e.g. study guide, textbook)
- Can the learner do the same test if the language level is varied?

3.6 CONCLUSION

A learner who experiences any barrier to learning has special education needs. These learners learn things differently. A barrier to learning is something that prevents the learner from benefiting from education. The more widely known barriers to learning are those located within the learner, such as neurological handicaps; sensory handicaps (blind and deaf learners); physical and cerebral handicaps; mild, moderate or severe mental handicaps; specific learning difficulties, emotional and behavioural problems and chronic illnesses.

Recently other barriers to learning have been identified, such as those factors that lead to the inability of the system to accommodate diversity, and in turn prevent learners from accessing educational provision. These barriers include barriers within the centre of learning and education system and within the broader social, economic and political context.

A study by Elliott (1998:22) found that without assessment accommodations, it is practically impossible to assess learners with special education needs at all, especially those with reading difficulties.

Terms such as special education, remedial classes, adaptation class education and specialised education have been replaced by one concept - ELSEN (education of learners with special education needs). ELSEN refers to the additional support given to a learner who experience barriers to learning and development.

Basically, there are two options when providing education for learners: an inclusive education system (the equal and optimal education of all learners within one school system) or an exclusive education system (the placement of learners within separate schools providing specialised services and following separate curriculum). South Africa has decided to forgo exclusion in favour of inclusion and is currently in a transitional phase. Other countries, such as the USA, the United Kingdom and several European countries have already gone that route.

The focus of most international literature appears to be on the barriers to learning and development located *within the learner*. The international perspective on inclusion is noteworthy and valuable lessons can be learned, particularly regarding the need to

involve the community in education, behaviour and social strategies and instructional strategies.

CHAPTER FOUR

EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION: METHODOLOGY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

As mentioned in chapter 1 (section 1.6.2) the research design used for the purpose of this study is a quantitative non-experimental research design. A non-experimental research design describes conditions, without suggesting cause-and-effect relationships (McMillan & Schumacher 1993:34). This research made use of the survey type of non-experimental research design, whereby a questionnaire is administered to a sample of subjects in order to collect data. The results of this data are presented in statistical form, with the aim of describing the personality traits profile of grade 8 learners who attended a special school.

4.2 A DESCRIPTION OF THE RESEARCH DESIGN

4.2.1 The research participants

For the purposes of this study, it is necessary to define the *sample group* and the *population*.

A *sample group* is defined as a subset of a population (Rosnow & Rosenthal 1996:411). In the case of this study the sample group consisted of 73 Grade 8 learners who were currently attending a school for learners with special education needs.

A *population* is defined as the universe of elements from which the sample elements are drawn (Rosnow & Rosenthal 1996:411). In the case of this study, the population is defined as Grade 8 learners in South Africa.

The researcher, in her capacity as an educator (Western Cape Education Department) approached the principal for permission to use the grade 8 learners as subjects for this study. The principal was informed of the nature of the study through a presentation of the research proposal and permission was granted. The learners were approached and 75 of the 81 learners agreed to participate in the study. On the

actual day of administration of the measuring instrument, 2 of the learners were absent.

4.2.1.1 Description of the research participants:

It is important to note that not all of the learners had English as their home language. Some of the learners were Xhosa, but had been schooled in English from grade 1. Hence the decision to test the group using the English version of the HSPQ. Please refer to table 2 in Appendix A for data regarding the participants.

The majority of the learners fell in the age group of 14 to 15 years, which is the minimum intake age of learners at this special school (that is the learner should be at least 14 years of age before January of the intake year). Regarding gender, a ratio of 2:1 in the favour of boys is evident.

Only 73% of the learners IQ scores were available at the time of this research. The majority of the group with available IQ scores fell in the below average range of intelligence (that is 89 and below). Those learners for whom IQ scores were not available are those learners from previously disadvantaged population groups, for whom no Xhosa equivalent of the measuring instrument was available at the time of testing.

The IQ scores were obtained from data in the Ed Lab cards of each learner, with the permission of the principal of the school. The specific intelligence tests administered included the Senior South African Individual Scale (SSAIS-R) - Revised, the Junior South African Individual Scale (JSAIS) and the Group Senior Aptitude Test (GSAT). When the SSAIS and SSAIS-R were devised, the rationale was that intelligence is composed of related mental abilities that, when combined, represent a general intelligence factor. The SSAIS-R is based on the American WISC-R and is standardised for the South African population.

4.2.2 The measuring instrument: The High School Personality Questionnaire (HSPQ)

A study in the USA has already used the High School Personality Questionnaire (HSPQ) successfully when drawing up a profile of learning disabled learners (see

chapter 1 section 1.3). The researcher deemed it more relevant to test South African learners, and not merely use the USA results, as this research focuses on the South African education process. The test used is an adaptation for South Africa of R.B. Cattell's "High School Personality Questionnaire" by E.M. Madge, an adaptation considered to be suitable for use when assessing learners in the South African context.

USA studies have shown that it is possible to obtain a reliable profile of the personality traits of learning disabled learners using the HSPQ, and it has proven to be a useful predictive tool when placing learners in special classes (see chapter 1 section 1.3).

However, the education trend in South Africa is leaning more towards including rather than excluding these learners from mainstream classes. Therefore, for the purpose of this study, the HSPQ was used in order to understand learners and their personality better; as a diagnostic rather than predictive tool of which the purpose is to describe the personality traits of learners with special education needs.

4.2.2.1 Description of the measuring instrument: The HSPQ

The High School Personality Questionnaire (HSPQ) is a standardised test that provides a general assessment of personality development. The HSPQ is designed to test learners between the ages of 12 and 18 years. It is a parallel test of the 16 Personality Factors test (16PF), a test used to determine the personality traits of people older than 18 years; and the Children's Personality Questionnaire (CPQ), designed for those learners between the ages of 8 and 12 years. The HSPQ can be administered to groups or individuals. The aim of the test is to give the maximum information regarding the greatest number of personality dimensions in the shortest time (Cattell & Beloff 1967:25).

The HSPQ gives an objective analysis of a person's personality. It measures 14 distinct traits of personality, each with a technical name, a common name (or names) and a symbol for easy reference (e.g. factor B). The HSPQ can be utilised when predicting school achievement, determining leadership qualities, making career decisions, determining neurotic conditions and danger of delinquency. Please refer

to table 3 in the Appendix A for descriptions of the 14 personality factors of the HSPQ (Cattell & Beloff 1967:6).

The HSPQ used for the purposes of this study has been specifically adapted for use with South African learners by E.M. Madge and is acknowledged as a valid and reliable tool when assessing personality traits of learners in South Africa. An extract from the HSPQ manual in this regard is included in Appendix B.

4.2.3 Test administration - standard procedures

a. Test administration

Each learner is given a test booklet, an answer sheet, a pencil and eraser. The tester assists the learners to complete the particulars at the top of the answer sheet. The test instructions can be read aloud to the learners. The test consists of multiple-choice questions. The learners answer the questions by choosing either a, b or c and indicating their choice by colouring the corresponding block on the answer sheet. Before the test commenced the following aspects were emphasised:

- There are no right or wrong answers.
- Honesty is of utter importance.
- Participation in the study is voluntary.

During the test, the meanings of words may be explained, if necessary. However, the vocabulary is at 12-year old level and the minimum of explanation should be required. Even the slowest reader should finish the test in 40-50 minutes.

b. Scoring and standardization

The tests are scored by means of two stencils, which are carefully positioned by means of aligning the two holes over the two stars on the answer sheet. Raw scores are obtained for each personality factor (A - Q4) and then converted to stens (a score out of 10) by means of a table. The stens can also be converted to percentiles; in order to show what rank the learner would have in 100 learners. Please refer to table 4 in Appendix A for the conversion table used when converting to stens (Cattell & Beloff 1967:10).

c. Interpreting the scores

Each of the 14 personality traits has a symbol for easy reference (see table 2). Two poles define each personality trait. It is important to note that neither pole is regarded as "good" nor "bad", but rather as opposite poles of a particular personality trait. The left-hand pole (called the negative pole) is indicated by stens of 1, 2 and 3 and the right-hand pole (called the positive pole) is indicated by stens of 8, 9 and 10.

A profile can then be drawn up of each person's personality traits. Scores that lie at either the negative (sten 1,2,3) or positive (8,9,10) poles of a trait, indicate personality traits that differ significantly from the general population, and are therefore characteristic to that person.

4.2.4 Actual test administration procedure followed

The researcher found it necessary to make the accommodations when administering the HSPQ to learners with special education needs. The relevant questions that identified the need for accommodations have been presented under each heading, for clarification purposes.

a. Timing:

- *Can the learner do the same test with different time constraints?*
- *Can the learner do the same test with flexible scheduling?*

The test is usually completed within 45 minutes. However, this is at a reading speed that is much faster than the average speed of the learners in the sample group. The concentration levels of the learners fluctuate. Resulting accommodation for the purposes of this study:

- The test was administered in 2 x 30 minute sessions, with a break of 5 minutes after each 30-minute session. Even with this accommodation, some learners were given an extra 15 minutes to complete the test.

b. Presentation (Reading):

- *Can the learner do the same test with a different delivery system?*

For the purposes of this study, the researcher conducted a practical investigation in order to determine the reading speed of the learners. The learners were tested using the UCT One Minute Reading Test, a test that gives an indication of reading speed. A summary of these results is presented in table 5 in the Appendix.

The average reading speed was calculated as being 81 words per minute, indicating a reading level of Grade 3-4. 47% of the learners were reading at this level. 7% of the learners read slower than grade 3-4. The majority of the learners have reading speeds equivalent to those of grade 3 - 4 learners (ages 9 - 10 years) or less (ages 7 - 8 years). The test is designed for adolescents aged 12 - 18 years. Resulting accommodation for the purposes of this study:

- It was decided that the researcher was to read the test aloud (different delivery system).
- Although the test was read aloud by the researcher, each learner was given a test booklet and those who were capable were allowed to work ahead at their own speed.

c. **Setting:**

- *Can the learner focus on the test in a group setting?*
- *Does the learner display behaviours that would be distracting to others?*
- *Does the learner experience anxiety in an unfamiliar setting?*

From experience in working with learners in a special school, the researcher has found that the learners appear to find it more difficult to focus on the task at hand in a setting with learners other than their own register class members. They appear to be more insecure when others are present whom they ordinarily do not work with. Working in a group did not appear to be a serious problem, provided that the group was familiar with the individual's way of working. Resulting accommodation for the purposes of this study:

- It was decided to test the learners in their register class group, which is a familiar setting.

d. **Response:**

- *Can the learner complete objective tests if the multiple choice items are adapted?*

It was determined that the learners were capable of tracking from a test booklet to a test form, as well as being able to manipulate a pencil. When all three responses were read aloud for the first few items of the test, the learners appeared to be confused by all the options. Many of the testees were not capable of calculating their age in years and months. Resulting accommodation for the purposes of this study:

- The researcher discovered that only reading the "a" response and the "c" response" was less confusing. However, it was emphasised at the start of the test that response "b" could be chosen if neither response "a" nor "c" was acceptable. Learners still continued to mark "b" although it was not being read aloud, thus not compromising the test results in any way.
- The age (in years and months) of each learner was calculated by the researcher.

4.3 SUMMARY

This research made use of the survey type of non-experimental research design, whereby a questionnaire is administered to a sample of subjects in order to collect data. The results of this data are presented in statistical form in chapter 5, with the aim of describing the personality traits profile of grade 8 learners who currently attend a special school (identified population). It is important to note that the standard test administration procedures of the High School Personality Questionnaire were adapted in accordance with the results of an investigation into testing accommodations. The significance of the need for testing accommodations will be discussed in chapter 6.

CHAPTER 5

RESULTS OF THE RESEARCH

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The research design used for the purposes of this study was a quantitative non-experimental research design. This research made use of the survey type of non-experimental research design, whereby a personality questionnaire was administered to a sample of subjects in order draw up a group profile.

Please refer to figure 5.1 in Appendix A of the graph of the group profile of the sample group, based on the sample group mean.

The mean was calculated by adding the sten scores for a particular factor, and dividing that score by the number of subjects (in this case $n = 73$).

When interpreting the profiles of individuals, the range of what is termed "normal or average scores" includes scores from 4 to 7. Scores falling below 4 and above 7 would be considered a significant deviation from the average (Cattell & Beloff 1967: 4). The sigma (σ) used in individual cases is 2 stens.

However, when considering the profile of groups (see figure 5.1), the profile tends to be flatter and nearer the mean, following the statistical principle that the sigma of a set of means of a group is much less than that of the individuals comprising the group. The conventional s-sten scale (standard-score-based sten) takes the raw score mean of the population as the central value. The average score on a sten scale (from 1 to 10) would be 5.5 and not 5, since there is no 0 score in the ten point range (Cattell, Eber & Tatsuoka 1970:63-66).

5.2 COMPARING THE SAMPLE AND POPULATION MEANS (THE t-TEST)

The mean of a sample group can be compared to a population mean using a *one sample t-test*.

"The t-test is an inferential statistical procedure for determining the probability level of rejecting the null hypothesis that two means are the same" (McMillan & Schumacher 1993:600).

The hypotheses to be tested by means of the t-test:

Null hypothesis (H_0): There is no significant difference between the mean of the population and the mean of the sample.

Alternative Hypothesis (H_a): There is a significant difference between the mean of the population and the mean of the sample.

The following formula was used:

$$t = \frac{\text{sample mean} - \text{population mean}}{\text{standard error of difference}}$$

In order to determine the level of significance, the value of t was compared to the critical values for the t-test:

Critical $t >$ calculated t value: reject null hypothesis and conclude that the means differ significantly

Critical $t <$ calculated t value: accept null hypothesis and conclude that the means do not differ significantly

5.2.1 Rejection criteria

For the purposes of this study, the following rejection criteria were used:

- Degrees of freedom: $n-1 = 72$
- Level of Confidence: 2-tailed t-distribution critical values
- $\text{ALPHA}= 0.05 (95\%)$: critical values for 60 df = 2.00 and for 120 df = 1.980
- $\text{ALPHA}= 0.01 (99\%)$: critical values for 60 df = 2.660 and for 120 df = 2.617

5.2.2 Statistical significance: p value

The p value refers to the level of probability that the means differ to the extent calculated. If the P value is small (usually considered to be less than 0.05), then it is unlikely that the discrepancy observed between the sample mean and the population mean is due to a coincidence arising from random sampling. The null hypothesis can be rejected and it can be concluded that the difference between the population means is statistically significant.

If the p value is large, the data does not give any reason to conclude that the sample mean differs significantly from the population mean.

For the purposes of this study, the p-value is used to determine the level of probability that the mean of each personality factor of the sample group (grade 8 learners who attended a special school) differ from the mean of the general population.

5.3 RESULTS

The results of the statistical investigation are presented in tabular form in Appendix A. Table 6 presents the results of the t-test and table 7 presents the levels of probability (p-value) that the means of the sample group and the general population differ significantly.

5.4 DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

5.4.1 Comparing the means in order to determine significant differences

In this section, a core description of each factor is presented, together with the two-tailed p value. The significance of the difference between the means of the sample group and general population is then determined.

• Factor A

<u>Reserved</u> , detached, critical, cool	A	<u>Outgoing</u> , warm-hearted, easy-going, participating
--	---	---

The two-tailed p value is less than 0.0001. The difference between the population mean and the sample mean for Factor A is considered to be **statistically significant at both the 95% and 99% levels.**

• Factor B

<u>Less intelligent</u> , concrete-thinking, of lower scholastic mental capacity	B	<u>More intelligent</u> , abstract-thinking, bright, of higher scholastic mental capacity
--	---	---

The two-tailed p value is less than 0.0001. The difference between the population mean and the sample mean for Factor B is considered to be **statistically significant at both the 95% and 99% levels.**

• Factor C

<u>Affected by feelings</u> , emotionally less stable, easily upset, of lower ego strength	C	<u>Emotionally stable</u> , faces reality, calm, of higher ego strength
--	---	---

The two-tailed p value = 0.0671. The difference between the population mean and the sample mean for Factor C is considered to be **not statistically significant.**

• Factor D

<u>Phlegmatic</u> , deliberate, inactive, stodgy	D	<u>Excitable</u> , impatient, demanding overactive
--	---	--

The two-tailed p value = 0.8010. The difference between the population mean and the sample mean for Factor D is considered to be **not statistically significant.**

• Factor E

<u>Obedient</u> , mild, conforming, submissive	E	<u>Assertive</u> , independent, aggressive, stubbom, dominant
---	---	--

The two-tailed p value = 0.8300. The difference between the population mean and the sample mean for Factor E is considered to be **not statistically significant**.

• Factor F

<u>Sober</u> , prudent, serious, taciturn	F	<u>Happy-go lucky</u> , gay, enthusiastic, impulsively lively
---	---	--

The two-tailed p value = 0.0220. The difference between the population mean and the sample mean for Factor F is considered to be **statistically significant at the 95% level**.

• Factor G

<u>Expedient</u> , evades rules, feels few obligations, has weaker superego strength	G	<u>Conscientious</u> , persevering, staid, rule-bound, has stronger superego strength
--	---	---

The two-tailed p value = 0.0218. The difference between the population mean and the sample mean for Factor G is considered to be **statistically significant at the 95% level**.

• Factor H

<u>Shy</u> , restrained, diffident, timid	H	<u>Venturesome</u> , socially bold, uninhibited, spontaneous
---	---	---

The two-tailed p value = 0.6318. The difference between the population mean and the sample mean for Factor H is considered to be **not statistically significant**.

• Factor I

<u>Tough-minded</u> , self-reliant, realistic, no-nonsense	I	<u>Tender-minded</u> , dependent, over- protected, sensitive
---	---	---

The two-tailed p value = 0.0945. The difference between the population mean and the sample mean for Factor I is considered to be **not statistically significant**.

• Factor J

<u>Vigorous</u> , goes readily with the group, zestful, given to action	J	<u>Doubting</u> , obstructive, individualistic, reflective, internally restrained, unwilling to act
--	---	---

The two-tailed p value is less than 0.7850. The difference between the population mean and the sample mean for Factor J is considered to be **not statistically significant**.

• Factor O

<u>Placid</u> , confident, serene, untroubled	O	<u>Apprehensive</u> , worrying, depressive, troubled, guilt-prone
--	---	--

The two-tailed p value = 0.2502. The difference between the population mean and the sample mean for Factor O is considered to be **not statistically significant**.

• Factor Q2

<u>Group-dependant</u> , a "joiner", and sound follower	Q2	<u>Self-sufficient</u> , prefers own decisions, resourceful
--	----	--

The two-tailed p value = 0.0324. The difference between the population mean and the sample mean for Factor Q2 is considered to be **statistically significant at the 95% level**.

• Factor Q3

<u>Undisciplined self-conflict</u> , careless of protocol, follows own urges, has low integration	Q3	<u>Controlled</u> , socially precise, self-disciplined, compulsive, has high self-concept control
---	----	---

The two-tailed p value = 0.0034. The difference between the population mean and the sample mean for Factor Q3 is considered to be **statistically significant at both the 95% and 99% levels.**

• Factor Q4

<u>Relaxed</u> , tranquil, torpid, unfrustrated	Q4	<u>Tense</u> , driven, overwrought, frustrated
---	----	--

The two-tailed p value = 0.2331. The difference between the population mean and the sample mean for Factor Q4 is considered to be **not statistically significant.**

5.4.2 Conclusions drawn

For factors A, B, F, G, Q2 and Q3, the null hypothesis is rejected and the alternative hypothesis is accepted that there exists a significant difference between the population and sample means for these factors. Therefore, the sample group of Grade 8 learners with special education needs differs significantly from the general population regarding the personality traits of:

Factor A: The ability to adjust

Factor B: Persistence and interest in schoolwork

Factor F: The Attitude Factor

Factor G: Superego Strength and Guilt Factor

Factor Q2 – The level of Independency

Factor Q3 – The Level of Self-Sentiment

For all other factors of the HSPQ, there does not appear to be a significant difference between the population and sample means.

5.5 FACTOR LOADING

Each factor of the HSPQ is bipolar. The factor load of a particular personality trait is determined by identifying whether the sample mean is positioned closer to the negative or positive pole, in relation to the population mean. By determining the factor load, it is possible to determine on which end of the continuum the sample group lies. By consulting figure 5.1 in Appendix A, the personality factors of the sample group that differ significantly from the population are loaded as follows:

A-	B-	F+	G-	Q2-	Q3-
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5.5.1 Sample group personality trait descriptions

Based on the results of this study, the sample group can be described as follows:

Factor A:- Low ability to adjust

Factor A represents a bipolar trait of high ability to adjust (A+) versus low ability to adjust (A-). Factor A- is often interpreted as "social maladjustment". The A- child prefers to work alone, and prefers things or words to people. This child is more dependable in precision work and are often more inventive. Most of the A- factor descriptions describe a state of general level of frustration.

Factor B:- Low levels of persistence and interest in schoolwork

Factor B measures general mental capacity and correlates positively with persistence and interest in schoolwork. The B- child is likely to exhibit less task persistence than the B+ child.

Factor F+: The Attitude Factor

F+ children are more optimistic and have a more cheerful and positive attitude to their environment. They also are more accident-prone. They are less likely to achieve academic success, possibly due to a less conscientious attitude to schoolwork.

Factor G:- Lower Superego Strength and Guilt Factor

In ratings of children, G- correlates with lying, showing off, stealing, destruction of property and lack of control of temper.

Factor Q2:- Lower level of Independence

Q2- children are dependant on the group and are sound followers.

Factor Q3:- High level of self-sentiment

Q3- children tend to follow their own urges and are careless of social rules. The rejection of cultural demands is associated with teenage delinquency.

5.7 SUMMARY

The results of the empirical study have been discussed in this chapter. The personality profile of the sample group was compared to that of the general population by means of the t-test. A description of the significantly different personality traits of the sample group was presented in core description form. An exposition on the classroom implications of the manifestation of these traits within the school setting are presented in chapter 6, with specific reference to the education of learners with special education needs in an inclusive education system.

CHAPTER 6

SUMMARY OF THE STUDY, STRATEGIES FOR EDUCATORS, STRENGTHS AND LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY AND RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

6.1 AIMS OF THE STUDY

South Africa is currently moving towards an inclusive education system. The researcher is of the opinion that further study of the personality traits and related classroom behaviour trends of South African learners with special education needs was necessary, before devising classroom management strategies that can be employed within an inclusive education system.

An American study by Andersen and Murphy (1986) used the High School Personality Questionnaire (HSPQ) as a predictive tool when placing learners in special classes. As mentioned in chapter 1 of this research, the proposed investigation focused on the following question:

- *Which personality traits of learners with special education needs differ significantly from those of the general population?*

The following issues were also to be considered:

- How will these personality traits manifest in an education setting?
- What are the implications of including these learners in an inclusive education system?

6.2 STUDY DEVELOPMENT

In Chapter Two the relevant literature was reviewed regarding the key concept of personality, including a discussion of personality theories, personality traits and addressing personality as it manifests within the classroom. Chapter Three consisted of a literature study of the provision of education for learners with special education needs. Current trends in education in South African context were explored. The benefits and challenges of educating learners with special education needs in an

inclusive system were highlighted, based on the international perspective on inclusive education.

A description of the research design, including a description of the research participants, measuring instruments and research methods was presented in Chapter Four, and the issue of the need for assessment accommodations was investigated. The results of the empirical investigation were presented in chapter Five. The purpose of the empirical part of this research was to determine the personality traits of South African learners, using the same tool, namely the High School Personality Questionnaire (HSPQ) and then to investigate the implications for educating these learners in an inclusive education setting.

6.3 SUMMARY OF THE RESULTS OF THE LITERATURE STUDY

6.3.1 Summary of the literature study on PERSONALITY

Having sifted through all the viewpoints, assumptions and approaches, the researcher has not found it possible to isolate one definition of personality that would be universally acceptable. Each specific personality theorist has contributed to the field of personality in his own unique way; even if only serving to encourage other researchers to refute the views presented.

A classification of the available personality theorists was presented (see section 2.2), based on the traditional THREE FORCES paradigm. The FIRST FORCE classification included the personality theory of Sigmund Freud, together with others who were strongly influenced by Freud, for example Carl Jung (analytical psychology) and Erik Erikson. What these theorists have in common is the belief that the answer to who we are is *hidden in the unconscious*. There is a focus on the "bad side" of human nature (Elliott 2002:1) e.g. lust, aggression, greed, power, etc. The SECOND FORCE classification grouped together the theorists that share the perspective that the answers to who we are can be determined by careful observation of *the relationship between behaviour and the environment*. The THIRD FORCE classification grouped together the personality theories that developed in reaction to the FIRST and SECOND FORCES, with an emphasis shift from the unconscious to the *conscious and the role of experience*. The third force focuses on the "goodness" of human nature.

More recent advances in the study of personality note that the role of personality, genetic factors, the environment and cognition are further important influences to consider when referring to the cause and nature of behaviour (see section 2.3).

The recent acknowledgement that culture plays a vital role in determining the appropriateness of behaviour responses was presented. It was found that behaviour is strongly influenced by cultural norms (social rules regarding how to behave in certain situations). In South Africa's multicultural society the implication is that, once the cultural and ethnic factors that influence behaviour have been defined, then it would be easier to understand the motivation behind the behaviour. It was found that at present, most teachers are faced with a variety of unfamiliar cultural and ethnic norms within their classroom. A more multicultural approach in dealing with learners appears to be the solution to managing such a classroom, with emphasis on mutual respect and tolerance.

The environment, or social context, was found to be important when analysing personality traits and related behaviour trends, as behaviour is often labelled or inappropriate depending on the social context (see section 2.4). Martin identified what he terms temperament characteristics in the social, emotional and attention behaviour domains that play an important role regarding learning in the classroom context namely: social adaptability, social inhibition, negative emotional behaviour, emotional reactivity level, activity level and task persistence and distractibility).

A study by Pullis found that learner behaviour problems correlated significantly and negatively with two dimensions of temperament, namely task-orientation and reactivity.

6.3.2 Summary of the results of literature study on LEARNERS WITH SPECIAL EDUCATION NEEDS

A learner who experiences any barrier to learning has special education needs (see section 3.1.2). A barrier to learning is something that prevents the learner from benefiting from education. The more widely known barriers to learning are those located *within* the learner, such as neurological handicaps; sensory handicaps (blind and deaf learners); physical and cerebral handicaps; mild, moderate or severe mental

handicaps; specific learning difficulties, emotional and behavioural problems and chronic illnesses. These barriers may manifest themselves in different ways such as inattentiveness, frequent absence from school, progress below potential, et cetera and only become obvious when learning breakdown occurs, learners drop out of the system or learners are excluded from the regular education system.

Other barriers to learning have been identified, such as those factors that lead to the inability of the system to accommodate diversity, and in turn prevent learners from accessing educational provision (see section 3.1.2.2 and 3.1.2.3). These barriers include barriers within the centre of learning and education system and within the broader social, economic and political context.

Although the current trend is to include all learners in one education system, it is still important to identify learners with special education needs (see section 3.1.3). Such learners may require different interventions or strategies to prevent them from causing learning breakdown or excluding learners from the system. This can be done by effective monitoring and meeting of the different needs among the learner population and within the system as a whole.

6.3.3 SUMMARY OF THE RESULTS OF LITERATURE STUDY ON THE PROVISION OF EDUCATION FOR LEARNERS WITH SPECIAL EDUCATION NEEDS

6.3.3.1 Inclusion vs. Exclusion

The policy regarding the provision of education in South Africa has changed, with the emphasis on the accommodation of all learners, regardless of disability, in one education system. This is known as an inclusive education system, implying that no one be excluded or be left out.

Inclusive education is the equal and optimal education of all learners within one school system. It is a system where all learners are recognised as having diverse needs, but are valued for their shared humanity. It is a system where all learners can be educated together and where personal diversity is seen to be enriching. It promotes the development of learners on personal, academic and professional levels.

It is free of harassment and discrimination and recognises the value of the learners as partners in the education process.

6.3.3.2 Transformation in the South African Education System

The long-term goal of the South African transformation process is the development of an inclusive education system that will uncover and address barriers to learning and recognise as well as accommodate the diversity of learning needs in South Africa. The short-term to medium term goals focus on laying the foundations for an inclusive education system to be built over the next 20 years. Immediate attention is to be given to addressing the weaknesses in the current education system, as well as expanding access and provision to learners who are currently not accommodated within the education system.

In order to transform the education system, many changes are required. The strategic areas of change include the areas of vision, principles and strategy (see section 3.4.4). The vision entails an education and training system that promotes education for all and fosters the development of inclusive and supportive centres of learning that enable all learners to participate actively in the education process so that they can develop and extend their potential and participate as equal members of society.

The principles include the acceptance of principles and values contained in the constitution and in the White Papers on education and training, human rights and social justice for all learners, participation and social integration, equal access to a single, inclusive education system, access to the curriculum, equity and redress and a community responsive education system.

The strategies include the development of an integrated system of education, providing for the holistic development of learners and support services, transforming the system, a more holistic approach to institutional transformation, barrier-free access to all centres of learning, developing a flexible curriculum to ensure access, the promotion of the rights and responsibilities of parents, the promotion of the rights and responsibilities of teachers and learners, the provision of effective development programmes for educators and other human resources, a preventative and

developmental approach to support, embedding support services within the system and community-based services.

6.3.3.3 What South Africa can learn from already established inclusive education systems

When considering the proposed vision, strategies and principles of the South African inclusive education system, it is important to look at international experience regarding policy development, the role of community, the benefits and challenges of inclusion for the learners. South Africa can learn from the teaching strategies that are currently employed in existing inclusive education systems.

Through practical experience it has been discovered that inclusion is not the sole responsibility of the education system, but that the community has a vital role to play. Norway and Spain's resource centres are focused on the assisting with the identification and assessment of LSEN, advising learners, parents, teachers and other professionals and ensuring the local provision of learning opportunities. The community-based resource centres are fundamental to the success of mainstreaming, and there is a great emphasis on empowering the communities to devise their own programmes and solutions.

The Italian Pole Schools are centres of information and resources for the schools in a specific area. They exchange expertise and resources with other Pole schools within a network. The Danish TESS network links the Internet with other resource centres in Europe and the United Kingdom. A "Curator Service" has been developed within the communities that assist the transition of LD learners to adult facilities when they leave school.

Available international literature provides a wealth of information regarding the advantages and disadvantages of inclusive education for a learning disabled learner, a barrier to learning located within the learner (see section 3.5.4). Most studies conducted regarding inclusion in the USA focus on the barrier to learning located within the learner. The following benefits are noted:

- A reduced fear of human differences accompanied by increased comfort and awareness;
- Growth in social cognition;
- Improvement in the self concept of previously excluded learners;
- Development of personal principles and ability to assume an advocacy role toward their peers with disabilities;
- Warm and caring friendships;
- Acceptance of diversity.

A Canadian Study emphasises the acknowledgement of the needs of the learners in an inclusive education system. The following needs were identified

- The need to be actively engaged in meaningful and enriching activities;
- The need for a classroom that promotes trust, respect and successful outcomes;
- The need for appropriately assigned and designed tasks, the setting of clear expectations, frequent assessments and feedback;
- The need for consistently enforced consequences for inappropriate behaviours;
- The need for an orderly and secure atmosphere.

The most common problems that arose when including learners with disabilities were found to be:

- Behaviour problems - the learners were found to exhibit disrupting and distracting behaviours. They were also found to lack they social skills normally required in a classroom setting;
- Peer and social acceptance - Incidents of bullying, teasing and rejection of the learners with learning difficulties were reported. These learners often became isolated from the rest of the class.
- Instructional problems - the education of the learners without learning problems was found to have lost some of its quality, in an attempt to accommodate the learners with problems.

6.4 SUMMARY OF THE RESULTS OF THE EMPIRICAL STUDY

6.4.1 General problem statement

- *Which personality traits of learners with special education needs differ significantly from those of the general population?*

The empirical study found that the personality traits profile of Grade 8 Learners with special education needs differs significantly from that of the general population for 10 out of the 14 personality factors. The following factors described the sample group:

- A- Reserved, detached, critical, cool.
- B- Less intelligent, concrete-thinking, of lower scholastic mental capacity.
- F+ Happy-go lucky, gay, enthusiastic, impulsively lively.
- G- Expedient, evades rules, feels few obligations, has weaker superego strength.
- Q2- Group-dependant, a "joiner", and sound follower.
- Q3- Undisciplined self-conflict, careless of protocol, follows own urges, has low integration.

6.4.2 Specific problem statements

Having pinpointed the personality traits characteristic to the group, the following specific problems were identified:

- *How will these personality traits manifest in an education setting?*
- *What are the implications of including these learners in an inclusive education system?*

6.4.2.1 *The manifestation of the personality traits in an education setting*

As mentioned in chapter 3, the disadvantages of inclusion when educating learners with disabilities included evidence of behaviour and emotional problems; peer and acceptance problems and instructional problems.

i. Behaviour and emotional problems

This study confirms the existence of disruptive behaviours that may hamper inclusive education. Grade 8 learners with special education needs are more likely to be easily annoyed by people and things; have more difficulty restraining themselves and keeping quiet; be guilty of tale-telling and are likely to be attention-demanding; be guilty of lying, stealing, destroying property; be unable to control their tempers; be socially more venturesome, uninhibited, spontaneous and impulsive; have a tendency not to see danger signals and more likely to act irresponsibly. They are more inclined to having no fears and are less likely to suffer from feelings of guilt.

On the emotional side, these learners like to avoid rough activities. They also can be easily tired and complain of nightmares and headaches. These children are described as worried, tense, irritable and in turmoil. Being criticised by others for being untidy, for fantasising and neglecting personal goals, frustrates them. They are often overwrought and fretful.

ii. Peer and social acceptance:

These children tend to follow their own urges and are careless of social rules. They are characterised by social maladjustment and a preference for working alone and for things or words rather than for people.

When working in groups, they are more likely to slow down a group's performance by fussing and not being able to make a decision. These children are dependant on the group and are sound followers.

They are described as untroubled, adequate, placid and serene, may possibly be more cheerful, resilient and self-confident, which may be a positive point. However, this may be attributed to their tendency to have a "do not care" attitude, as well as being insensitive to the approval/disapproval of others.

iii. Instructional problems:

This study found that the participants in general might not adjust well to an educational setting. They have lower task persistence and little interest in schoolwork. Their attitude to schoolwork is not very conscientious and they are less likely to achieve academic success. They are more likely to be dependant on the teacher. They are, however, likely to be more artistic and neat.

One of the motivations behind this research is the belief of the ELSEN educators at the school chosen for this research that the mainstream educator will not be able to cope with the classroom behaviour of the sample group, in an inclusive education setting.

Based on the results of this research, it would appear that, by excluding these learners from mainstream education and educating them as a homogenous group, the task of teaching them in a formal education setting would be more difficult, since the incidence of personality traits that correlate to general adjustment in an educational setting is lower. The ELSEN educator has, in effect, a more difficult task of educating the whole group formally.

The fact that the sample group was taken from a non-community bound ELSEN school would lead to the assumption that, should the learners be mainstreamed, they would be spread over a number of schools. Thus, the mainstream educator would have to deal with a few learners who do not adjust easily to the formal setting, compared with high incidence as seen in the more homogeneous sample group. It could then be deduced that the classroom management of the sample group in an exclusive setting would be more difficult than "spreading the load" by including the learners.

6.4.2.2 Implications of educating learners with these traits in an inclusive education system

a. The need to create a learning environment that maximises learning, focusing on the strengths of the learners (Factors A, B F and Q2):

The fact that these learners prefer to work alone will negatively affect working in groups within the classroom. They tend to adjust less easily and therefore for maximum results, if group work were attempted, it would probably be better to keep the

group composition the same over a period of time and not to re-divide the groups with each activity. Participation as a member of the group would have to be actively encouraged by the educator, as these learners prefer things to people and are less likely to take the lead when working in groups. However, they are sound followers. These learners may work better if the groups are small; working with only one partner may be even better.

When assigning tasks, these learners would be more inventive and dependable. Assigning suitable precision tasks that require inventiveness would be working with the strengths of these learners. The educator should also aim at reducing the level of frustration experienced by these learners, in order to maximise their learning capacity and classroom participation.

Due to their lower levels of task persistence, these learners will have to be regularly encouraged to focus on the task at hand. It may be necessary to adapt the time allowed for task completion for these learners, and the amount of assistance from peers or the educator may need to be increased. Distractions will have to be minimised, as any distraction may cause the learner be less focused on the schoolwork.

Larger tasks could be split up into smaller sections. Each learner could be provided with a "daily task checklist" and they could indicate their progress on a checklist, which would be a means of providing immediate positive reinforcement. If procrastination still occurs, the learner could be given a "behaviour-consequence" choice (when you have completed two tasks within a certain period of time, you will have time left to draw/play a game for 10 minutes) that may encourage him to focus on the task at hand.

If the learning task is carefully chosen and connected to something that these learners are interested in, or curious about, they are more likely to be interested in the work.

The educator would have attentive to the accident-proneness of these learners and ensure that the classroom is a safe learning environment.

Strengths that the educator should focus on:

- The more positive, cheerful and optimistic attitude of these learners;
- Inventiveness and precision.

b. Dealing effectively with behaviour problems (Factors G and Q3)

Due to these learners tending to follow their own urges and being careless of social rules, they may be guilty of the following inappropriate behaviours: lying, showing off, stealing, destruction of property and lack of control of temper.

The following guidelines can assist the educator in dealing with problem behaviours:

- Consistently acknowledge the worthiness of the learners. Bring attention to their strengths and special abilities;
- Agree upon and use nonverbal signals that will draw the learner's attention to problem behaviour, without making a spectacle of him in front of the class. For example: "When I nod at you, it means you are behaving appropriately. When I look at you and touch my nose, this means you are not behaving appropriately."
- In order to minimise distracting behaviours, such as showing off, it would be better to ignore the incident. The "showing off" is often a cry for attention. Draw the focus away from the showing off and give the learner consistent positive reinforcement for more appropriate behaviour.
- It may be necessary to physically restrain the learners during temper outbursts that could cause harm others in their actions. The destruction of property and stealing can be addressed by teaching the learners to respect the belongings of others. This will not be an easy task, but is one worth working on daily. Adopting a "zero tolerance" attitude towards stealing and destruction of property, and following up immediately with strict behaviour-consequences is advisable. These learners need to learn to accept social rules.

6.5 STRATEGIES

6.5.1 Strategies for Educators

Bearing the challenges of inclusion in mind, South African educators can learn valuable strategies from existing inclusive systems (see 6.3.3.3).

a. Behaviour and social strategies

The inclusive classroom can be compared to a small community, representing diversity in learning styles, behaviours and cultures. A good starting point at the beginning of a year would be to establish and implement clear classroom rules and consequences. This will serve as a means of tackling both inappropriate behaviours and socialising problems. The steps in this process are: identify rules, identify consequences, teach and review rules, enforce and reinforce rules, evaluate and modify rules and consequences as needed. The most important rule in an inclusive classroom is: *mutual respect* (see section 3.6).

Inappropriate behaviour is a reaction to unmet needs. The four basic needs are: *to belong* - to be accepted as you are, *to feel worthy and important* - to feel that your abilities are appreciated and that success is attainable, *to be able to have the freedom to make choices* - to feel in control and to experience fun and enjoyment. Behaviour psychologists such as William Glasser believe that adults can shape learners behaviour in positive ways by observing the inappropriate behaviour, diagnosing what unmet need it reflects, intervening to meet the need and avoiding situations that reinforce inappropriate behaviours. Winebrenner (1996:186-190) elaborates on this model by presenting the following guidelines:

TABLE 8: THE NEED FOR BELONGING, ATTENTION, FRIENDSHIP & LOVE

Inappropriate behaviours	Interventions	Actions/responses to avoid
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Attention-seeking • Class clown who shows off • Nosy • Expresses anger by bullying • Destruction of property • Complaining that 'no-one likes me' • Excessively shy and fearful 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Acknowledge the personal strengths of the learner • Immediately recognise positive behaviours • Give the learner a job that showcases' a personal strength 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Making use of threats and punishment • Giving in to power struggles • Giving too much help – encourages helplessness

TABLE 9: THE NEED FOR SELF-WORTH

Inappropriate behaviours	Interventions	Actions/responses to avoid
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Negative self-talk • Procrastination • Rarely producing work • Directing attention away to others • Withdrawal • Frequent absences • Tardiness • Expecting failure • Giving up easily 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Create a risk-free environment where mistakes are 'invited' • Model a positive attitude • Teach the link between effort and outcomes • Present tasks that match the learners strengths • Help the learner set short-term daily goals that are worth reaching 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rejection • Repetition and drill • Threats, punishment, sarcasm and public teasing

TABLE 10: THE NEED FOR FREEDOM, CHOICES AND AUTONOMY

Inappropriate behaviours	Interventions	Actions/responses to avoid
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pushes rules to the limits • Accuses the teacher and the system of being unfair • Challenges authority • Argumentative • Does not adhere to school uniform rules 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Offer meaningful choices whenever possible • Model, teach and reinforce desirable behaviours, including anger control strategies • Use non-verbal cues to signal recognition of negative behaviours 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Power struggles • Authoritarian statements such as 'I told you so' or 'Because I say so' • Ignoring learner's appropriate behaviour • and only focussing on the inappropriate behaviour

(strange hairstyles, shirt hanging out, etc.)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Apply consequences without anger 	
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TABLE 11: THE NEED FOR FUN AND ENJOYMENT

Inappropriate behaviours	Interventions	Actions/responses to avoid
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Silliness and giggling • Class clown • Playing with toys and other objects • Tells lots of personal stories 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Understand that the giggling may be a release of excess anxiety • Incorporate fun into regular school tasks • Add variety to school work • Make use of games 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Being serious all the time • Predictable tasks that do not allow for variety

b. Instructional strategies

There are many adaptations necessary when accommodating all learners in an inclusive classroom. Giangreco (1996:56-59) offers some recommendations for educators who are faced with including a learner with special education needs in a mainstream class:

- Work with other team members. Clarify shared expectations with other team members;
- Welcome the learner in the class. The attitude of the educator serves as a model for the other learners;
- Be a teacher of all students;
- Ensure that all learners belong to the classroom community and that everyone participates;
- Adapt activities to the learner's needs and provide active learning experiences;
- Adapt classroom strategies and materials;

- Enlist the help of support services;
- Evaluate your teaching regularly.

TABLE 12: NINE CORE ADAPTATIONS

Adaptation	Example
1. Volume of work	Adapt the number of items that a learner is expected to complete.
2. Time allocation	Adapt the time allocated for completing a task.
3. Level of support	Assign teaching assistants and peer tutors.
4. Instruction delivery	Vary the visual aids used, make use of concrete examples, and provide hands-on activities.
5. Difficulty level	Adapt the skill level to suit the learner, allow the use of a calculator, and simplify task instructions.
7. Participation	Adapt the extent to which a learner is involved; make use of areas of strength.
8. Individual goals	Adapt learning goals e.g. learn only the provinces in SA, while others also learn the Premiers.
9. Curriculum materials	Provide different materials to meet the needs of the individual.

(INCLUSION INSTITUTE. UNIVERSITY OF NORTHERN IOWA:5)

6.5.2 Strategies for Parents

6.5.2.1 Behaviour Modelling by Parents

Jackson (1995: 125-127) emphasises that the development of appropriate behaviour competencies is largely based on the relationships with others who have acquired these skills. Parents should model the desired appropriate behaviour responses – a case of practicing what you preach.

6.5.2.2 Parent-training Program

A parent-training program may be followed that focuses on the concepts underlying child management training (Barkley 2001: 1-7). Briefly, these concepts are:

- Make consequences immediate;
- Make consequences specific;
- Establish incentive programs before punishment;
- Anticipate and plan for misbehaviour;
- Recognise that family interactions are reciprocal.

There are 10 topics covered by the parent-training program. The sequence of these topics within the training program is as follows:

1. Why Children Misbehave – teaching parents the typical causes of misbehaviour and how to identify such causes in their own children's lives;
2. Paying Attention – parents are taught to eliminate ineffective attending and are shown how to increase the use of effective forms of paying attention to their children;
3. Increasing Compliance and Independent Play – the focus is on paying more attention to and appreciating the good behaviour of the children;

4. When Praise is not Enough: Poker Chips and Points – parents are trained in the use of a variety of rewards and incentives;
5. Time Out and Other Disciplinary Methods – at first only applied to one or two chosen misbehaviours;
6. Extending Time Out to Other Forms of Misbehaviour;
7. Anticipating Problems: Managing Children in Public Places;
8. Improving School Performance from Home;
9. Handling Future behaviour Problems;
10. Assessment of the Program: booster sessions and follow-up meetings.

6.5.2 Strategies for the Educational Psychologist

Apart from the role of the Educational Psychologist in the identification of learners with special education needs, the Educational Psychologist can be effective in supporting the parents of these learners.

Parents of learners with special education needs are often the driving force behind the push for inclusive education. Mara Sapon-Shevin, Professor of Education at Syracuse University remarks:

"I have never, ever met a parent of a child with disabilities who did not hope that the child would someday have friends and connections with the broader community" (Preparing for Inclusion 2002: 1).

Parents are a vital part of the team for inclusive education. Parent guidance is important, particularly regarding the educational expectations of their children. Parents should be informed of the advantages of inclusion, such as keeping their child in a neighbourhood school, where their siblings are also learners.

On the other hand, parents are often concerned about the disadvantages of inclusion, such as that the children may be teased, harmed or labelled. The Educational Psychologist can play a vital role in supporting the parents by helping them to deal with their fears. They can support parents by putting them into contact with other parents of learners with special education needs, thus forming parents support groups, with the aim of uplifting morale and providing mutual understanding and a pooling of resources.

6.6 CONCLUSION

6.6.1 Limitations of the study and recommendations for further research

The sample group was limited to learners in the English-medium classes. A similar study of a larger sample group is advised, including learners of all language groups.

Research into the feasibility of the assessment accommodations necessary for learners with special education needs within an inclusive education setting is highly recommended.

The focus of most of the available international literature appears to be on the barriers to learning and development located *within the learner*. However, there appears to exist a need for further South African research regarding the barriers to learning and development *within the center of learning and education system* and barriers *within the broader social, economic and political context*.

The international perspective on inclusion is noteworthy and valuable lessons can be learned, particularly regarding the need to involve the community in education. A study regarding how the communities in South Africa can be involved would be fruitful.

The need for easy access to resources regarding inclusion is evident. The use of the Internet may prove fruitful in this regard, as there are many such examples of websites dedicated solely to learning disabilities and the inclusion process. The design of a website listing resource books, website addresses, institutions, workshops and organizations *available in South Africa* would be invaluable to those interested in the education and welfare of South African learners.

Further studies regarding the success of the transformation process in South African Education, focusing on the inclusion of learners with special education needs, is highly recommended.

6.6.2 Significance of this study

The empirical portion of this study focused solely on South African learners with special education needs. The results of this study provided a clear picture of the personality trait profile of these learners.

Furthermore, this study has isolated the personality factors that differ significantly from the general population and has provided an exposition on the manifestation of these traits within the classroom.

Although available literature (mostly international) appeared to focus on managing learners with learning disabilities, as opposed to learners with special education needs, by taking note of the results of the personality traits of the sample group, an educator in the inclusive South African education system could learn from international perspectives and teaching strategies, calling upon the information relevant to our learners. This study provided strategies for the educator, parents and the Educational Psychologist.

APPENDIX A

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FIGURE 5.1 GROUP PERSONALITY PROFILE OF A SAMPLE GROUP OF GRADE 8 LEARNERS WITH SPECIAL EDUCATION NEEDS

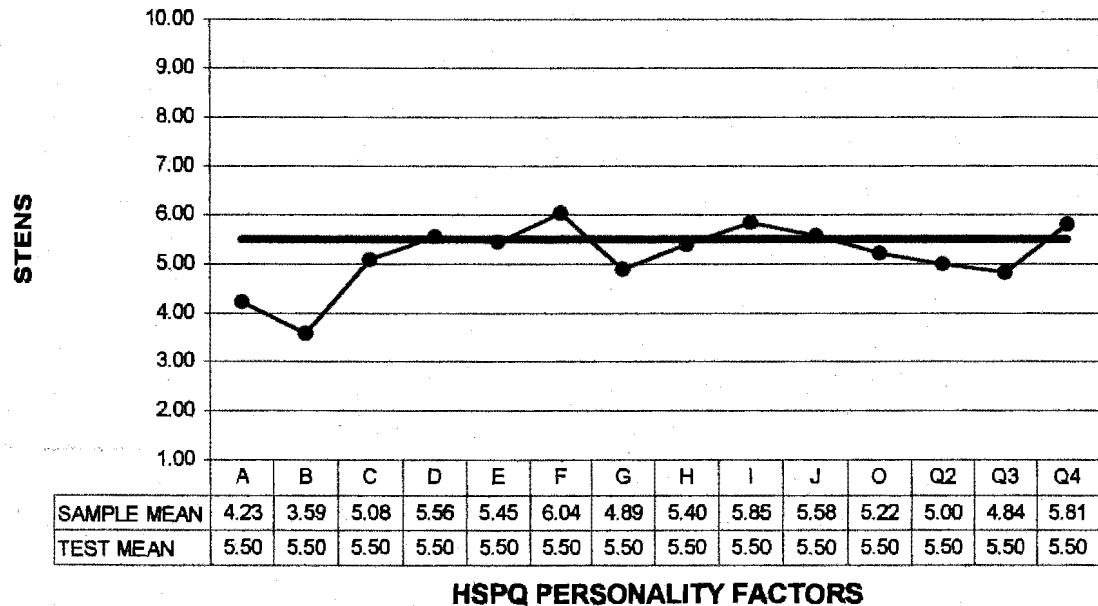


TABLE 2: DISTRIBUTION OF THE RESEARCH GROUP

VARIABLE	CATEGORY	N	% (to the nearest %)
Age	14 years	25	34%
	15 years	36	49%
	16 years	10	14%
	17 years	2	3%
	TOTAL	73	100%
Gender	Male	49	67%
	Female	24	33%
	TOTAL	73	100%
IQ Interval	69 and below	9	12%
	70 - 79	22	30%
	80 - 89	12	17%
	90 – 109	10	14%
	scores unavailable	20	27%
	TOTAL	73	100%

TABLE 3: HSPQ 14 FACTORS

Low Sten Score (1 – 3)		High Sten Score (8 – 10)
<u>Reserved</u> , detached, critical, cool	A	<u>Outgoing</u> , warm-hearted, easy-going, participating
<u>Less intelligent</u> , concrete-thinking, of lower scholastic mental capacity	B	<u>More intelligent</u> , abstract-thinking, bright, of higher scholastic mental capacity
<u>Affected by feelings</u> , emotionally less stable, easily upset, of lower ego strength	C	<u>Emotionally stable</u> , faces reality, calm, of higher ego strength
<u>Phlegmatic</u> , deliberate, inactive, stodgy	D	<u>Excitable</u> , impatient, demanding overactive
<u>Obedient</u> , mild, conforming, submissive	E	<u>Assertive</u> , independent, aggressive, stubborn, dominant
<u>Sober</u> , prudent, serious, taciturn	F	<u>Happy-go lucky</u> , gay, enthusiastic, impulsively lively
<u>Expedient</u> , evades rules, feels few obligations, has weaker superego strength	G	<u>Conscientious</u> , persevering, staid, rule-bound, has stronger superego strength
<u>Shy</u> , restrained, diffident, timid	H	<u>Venturesome</u> , socially bold, uninhibited, spontaneous
<u>Tough-minded</u> , self-reliant, realistic, no-nonsense	I	<u>Tender-minded</u> , dependent, over-protected, sensitive
<u>Vigorous</u> , goes readily with the group, zestful, given to action	J	<u>Doubting</u> , obstructive, individualistic, reflective, internally restrained, unwilling to act
<u>Placid</u> , confident, serene, untroubled	O	<u>Apprehensive</u> , worrying, depressive, troubled, guilt-prone
<u>Group-dependant</u> , a "joiner", and sound follower	Q2	<u>Self-sufficient</u> , prefers own decisions, resourceful
<u>Undisciplined self-conflict</u> , careless of protocol, follows own urges, has low integration	Q3	<u>Controlled</u> , socially precise, self-disciplined, compulsive, has high self-concept control
<u>Relaxed</u> , tranquil, torpid, unfrustrated	Q4	<u>Tense</u> , driven, overwrought, frustrated

TABLE 4: CONVERSION TO STENS

STEN	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
A	0-4	5-6	7	8-9	10-11	12	13-14	15-16	17	18-20
B	0-2	3	4	5-6	7	-	8	9	-	10
C	0-3	4-5	6	7-8	9-10	11-12	13	14-15	16-17	18-20
D	0-2	3	4-5	6-7	8	9-10	11-12	13	14-15	16-20
E	0-2	3-4	5	6-7	8	9-10	11	12-13	14-15	16-20
F	0-3	4	5-6	7	8-9	10-11	12-13	14-15	16	17-20
G	0-5	6-7	8-9	10	11-12	13-14	15-16	17	18-19	20
H	0-2	3-4	5-6	7	8-9	10-11	12-13	14-15	16-17	18-20
I	0-3	4-5	6	7-8	9-10	11-12	13-14	15	16-17	18-20
J	0-3	4	5	6-7	8	9	10-11	12	13-14	15-20
O	0-4	5	6-7	8-9	10-11	12	13-14	15-16	17	18-20
Q2	0-3	4	5-6	7	8-9	10-11	12	13-14	15	16-20
Q3	0-4	5-6	7-8	9-10	11-12	13	14-15	16-17	18	19-20
Q4	0-3	4-5	6-7	8	9-10	11-12	13-14	15	16-17	18-20

TABLE 5: ACTUAL READING SPEEDS OF THE SAMPLE GROUP

Reading Speed (Grade)	% of testees
Grade 1 and lower	3%
Grade 2	4%
Grade 3	28%
Grade 4	19%
Grade 5	6%
Grade 6	9%
Grade 7	23%
Grade 8	8%
	Total = 100%

TABLE 6: RESULTS OF THE T-TEST

FACTOR	SAMPLE MEAN	SD	SEM	t
A	4.23	2.32	0.271	4.6695
B	3.59	1.34	0.157	12.1663
C	5.08	1.92	0.225	1.8589
D	5.56	2.08	0.244	0.2530
E	5.45	1.90	0.222	0.2155
F	6.04	1.98	0.231	2.3407
G	4.89	2.22	0.26	2.3452
H	5.40	1.82	0.213	0.4813
I	5.85	1.76	0.206	1.6946
J	5.58	2.35	0.275	0.2739
O	5.22	2.07	0.242	1.1591
Q2	5.0	1.96	0.229	2.1819
Q3	4.84	1.87	0.219	3.0340
Q4	5.81	2.19	0.256	1.2025

SD: Standard Deviation SEM: Standard error of measurement

Population mean = 5.5

Degrees of freedom = 72

n = 73

TABLE 7: P-VALUES & STATISTICAL SIGNIFICANCE

FACTOR	Two-tailed P-value	Significant at 95% level	Significant at 99% level
A	Less than 0.0001	Yes	Yes
B	Less than 0.0001	Yes	Yes
C	0.0671	No	No
D	0.8010	No	No
E	0.8300	No	No
F	0.0220	Yes	No
G	0.0218	Yes	No
H	0.6318	No	No
I	0.0945	No	No
J	0.7850	No	No
O	0.2502	No	No
Q2	0.0324	Yes	No
Q3	0.0034	Yes	Yes
Q4	0.2331	No	No

APPENDIX B

- EXTRACTS FROM:

HANDLEIDING VIR DIE HOëRSKOOLPERSOONLIKHEIDSVRAEELYS (Visser, Garbers-Strauss & Prinsloo 1995: 18, 43-55)

SUID-AFRIKAANSE NORMS

Die HSPV is deur die RGN gestandaardiseer vir hoëskoolleerlinge. Norms vir vorm A en B is beskikbaar vir leerlinge tussen die ouderdomme 12 en 18 jaar. Norms word gegee vir die groep as geheel sowel as vir seuns en meisies.

Tydens die 1989-toepassing is die vraelys toegepas op leerlinge van die Departement van Onderwys en Kultuur.

Weens die onrussituasie en praktiese probleme in die skole van die Departement Onderwys en Opleiding kon leerlinge van hierdie departement nie in die 1989-steekproef ingesluit word nie. Die norms wat gebaseer is op die 1989-data en die norms wat in 1974 en 1979 opgestel is vir leerlinge van die Departement Onderwys en Opleiding (Minnaar, 1976; Van Dijk, 1982a), is met mekaar vergelyk. Daar is enkele verskille gevind, soos bespreek in afdeling 5.2. Met die nodige omsigtigheid kan die 1989-norms gebruik word vir alle leerlinge in Suid-Afrikaanse hoëskole.

Indien norms vir leerlinge in die Departement Onderwys en Opleiding spesifiek benodig word, kan die norms wat in 1974 (Minnaar, 1976) vir St. 10 leerlinge en die norms wat in 1979 vir St. 6 - 9 leerlinge (Van Dijk, 1982a) opgestel is, gebruik word.

TABEL : BESKIKBARE NORMS

	Vorm	Skaal	Geslag
12 - 18 jaar	A	Stiene	Manlik Vroulik
	A	Staneges	Manlik Vroulik
	B	Stiene	Manlik Vroulik
	B	Staneges	Manlik Vroulik

STATISTIESE BESONDERHEDE

6.1 BETROUBAARHEID

Die betroubaarheid van 'n meetinstrument kan beskryf word as die konsekwentheid waarmee die instrument van een geleentheid na 'n ander meet, mits die eienskap wat gemeet word nie verander nie. Die betroubaarheid verwys dan na die mate waarmee ongewenste faktore die metings beïnvloed. Hoe hoër die betroubaarheid is, hoe kleiner is die invloed van sulke faktore en omgekeerd. Betroubaarheid kan op verskeie maniere bepaal word en is 'n funksie van die toets self, maar ook van die bepaalde groep persone wat die toets afle (Van den Berg & Vorster, 1982).

6.1.1 Hertoetsbetroubaarheid

Die HSPV se hertoetsbetroubaarheid is bepaal deur die vraelys by twee verskillende geleenthede op dieselfde persone toe te pas. Die hertoetsbetroubaarheid is in verskillende toepassings en by verskillende geleenthede vir die onderskeie bevolkingsgroepe bereken (Laubscher, Steyn & Wolvaardt, 1976; Madge & Du Toit, 1984; Minnaar, 1976). In tabel 6.1 word die hertoets-betroubaarheidskoëffisiënte van elke faktor vir die leerlinge van die onderskeie onderwysdepartemente en vorms weergegee.

Die koëffisiënte vir vorms A en B het gewissel tussen 0,53 en 0,78 vir die leerlinge van die Departement Onderwys en Kultuur. By die leerlinge van die Departement Onderwys en Opleiding was die betroubaarheidskoëffisiënte by enkele skale laer. Die betroubaarheidskoëffisiënte kan as bevredigend beskou word vir 'n vraelys van hierdie aard. Toetsresultate van persoonlikheidstoetse word beïnvloed deur die omstandighede waarin die persoon homself bevind. Die Angsskaal word beïnvloed deur die persoon se gemoedstoestand en spanning tydens die toetssituasie kan die tellings beïnvloed. Hierteenoor blyk sogenaamde "temperamentskale" soos ekstraversie wat sterk geneties bepaal is, meer konsekwent te wees (kyk tabel 6.1).

6.1.2 Parallelle vormbetroubaarheid

Die betroubaarheid van 'n instrument kan ook bepaal word deur parallelle vorms van die instrument op dieselfde groep persone toe te pas en die korrelasiekoëffisiënte tussen die twee tellings te bereken. Die A en B vorm van die HSPV is opgestel as parallelle vorms en kan vir hierdie doel gebruik word.

Die parallelle vormbetroubaarheid is bereken deur die toepassing van die A en B vorms van die vraelys op dieselfde groep 16-jarige leerlinge wat vir die 1989-toepassing op ewekansige wyse geselekteer is. Die tydsverloop tussen die toepassings van die vraelyste was veertien dae. Vorm B is eerste toegepas. Die samestelling van die groep word in tabel 6.2 uiteengesit.

TABEL 6.1: HERTOETS BETROUABAARHEIDS Koeffisiënte

Groep	N	Vorm	Periode verloop	Faktore														
				A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	O	Q ₂	Q ₃	Q ₄	
DOK **: Volksraad, vroulik (1967)	442	A	1 week	74*	71	74	73	73	75	72	78	75	69	72	69	69	74	
DOK: Volksraad, manlik (1967)	438	A	1 week	66	66	75	66	67	69	62	72	68	65	63	61	64	67	
DOK: Verteen- woordigers, Manlik en vroulik (1976)	868	A	2 weke	64	53	64	63	56	59	60	65	69	56	54	55	60	63	
DOO: ** St. 10 Manlik en vroulik (1974)	233	A	10 dae	64	53	58	56	53	60	44	67	52	23	43	47	32	57	
DOK: Volksraad, vroulik (1967)	492	B	1 week	74	62	72	79	60	83	73	81	66	67	75	65	73	73	
DOK: Volksraad, manlik (1967)	519	B	1 week	74	60	67	72	61	78	74	69	71	57	70	66	64	66	

* Desimale tekens is weggelaat

** DOK: Departement Onderwys en Kultuur.
DOO: Die Departement Onderwys en Opleiding.

TABEL 6.2: SAMESTELLING VAN DIE GROEP WAT PARALLELLE VORMS AFGELê HET

Taal	Geslag		Totaal
	Manlik	Vroulik	
Afrikaans	80	59	139
Engels	25	54	79
Totaal	105	113	218

Die betroubaarheidskoëffisiënte wat uit bogenoemde toepassing bereken is, word in tabel 6.3 saamgevat.

Uit tabel 6.3 blyk dat elke faktor van vorm B bykans deurgaans met dieselfde of ooreenstemmende faktor uit vorm A (kyk die diagonaal) korreleer met 'n koëffisiënt wat hoër is as koëffisiënte vir korrelasies met nie-ooreenstemmende faktore. Elke faktor korreleer dus beter met homself as met enige ander faktor. Waar daar wel ander hoe korrelasies voorkom (hetsy positiewe of negatiewe waardes), is dit in ooreenstemming met die tweedeorde-patrone wat vir die HSPV bekend is. (Kyk ook by 4.4.5.)

Die korrelasies tussen die faktore op vorm A en B is deurgaans redelik laag. Dit kan daaraan toegeskryf word dat die A- en B-vorm van die HSPV konseptueel maar nie statisties parallelle vorms is nie (Cattell & Cattell, 1975).

TABEL 6.3: BETROUABAARHEIDSKOËFFISIËNTE VIR PARALLELLE VORMS TUSSEN FAKTORE VAN VORMS B EN A VAN HSPV

		Vorm A														
Vorm B		A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	O	Q ₂	Q ₃	Q ₄	
	A	52*	16	28	-13	19	36	19	35	21	-27	-24	-38	07	-20	
	B	01	22	04	-11	10	10	01	11	00	-02	00	-02	01	-04	
	C	12	-01	52	-22	02	10	28	36	-01	-13	-36	-12	26	-34	
	D	10	09	-31	26	24	18	-26	-11	-05	03	24	02	-17	29	
	E	20	10	11	-10	24	23	-02	20	-07	01	01	-16	-02	-09	
	F	35	15	-21	03	37	43	-17	03	03	-22	22	-26	-42	13	
	G	09	13	23	-09	-18	-03	39	25	18	02	-28	-05	37	-12	
	H	31	01	42	-23	31	32	13	45	-01	-17	-25	-25	01	-35	
	I	16	-03	-19	12	-22	-09	08	-21	51	-07	19	-19	06	14	
	J	-22	-04	15	06	-27	-33	15	-14	04	34	00	17	17	05	
	O	-27	02	-41	23	-21	-17	-17	-43	03	05	40	09	-03	32	
	Q ₂	-34	-14	04	12	-26	-37	02	-27	-01	26	06	28	10	06	
	Q ₃	-20	07	25	-17	-25	-28	27	05	02	09	-15	10	28	-14	
	Q ₄	10	07	-31	23	02	10	-27	-22	16	-02	39	-09	-24	27	

* Desimale weggelaat

Die gemiddeldes en standaardafwykings vir elke faktor van die A- en B-vorm in die toepassing om die betrouwbaarheid vir parallelle vorms te bepaal, word in tabel 6.4 gegee. Die gemiddeldes en standaardafwykings vir ooreenstemmende faktore van die twee vorms van die vraelys dui daarop dat die twee vorms van die HSPV dieselfde konstrukte op 'n konsekwente wyse evalueer. Die verskil tussen die gemiddelde routellings van dieselfde toetslinge op ooreenstemmende faktore van die twee vorms is deurgaans oortuigend kleiner as die betrokke standaardafwyking. Dit is 'n aanduiding dat die twee vorms dieselfde konstrukte meet.

TABEL 6.4: GEMIDDELDE ROUPUNTE EN STANDAARDAFWYKINGS VIR FAKTORE VAN PARALLELLE VORMS (N = 218)

Veranderlike	Vorm A		Vorm B	
	Gemiddeld	Standaardafwyking	Gemiddeld	Standaardafwyking
A	10,68	3,97	10,78	3,54
B	7,17	1,64	7,01	1,38
C	10,46	3,82	9,83	3,59
D	10,59	3,52	10,01	3,31
E	8,76	3,74	9,73	3,05
F	10,35	3,66	10,35	3,67
G	12,12	3,36	12,12	4,02
H	9,28	3,92	10,07	3,37
I	11,07	4,23	11,76	3,35
J	8,27	3,00	8,25	3,03
O	10,33	3,56	11,36	3,38
Q ₂	9,05	3,12	8,77	3,00
Q ₃	11,30	3,02	12,10	3,05
Q ₄	9,85	3,24	11,46	3,34

Die korrelasie tussen die tweedeorde-faktortellings soos bereken uit die parallelle vormtoepassing word in tabel 6.5 weergegee en weerspieël 'n baie goeie ooreenstemming tussen die metings, verkry met die verskillende toetsvorms. Dit dui ook aan dat die vier tweedeorde-faktore onafhanklik van mekaar is. Die feit dat konsekwente patronen oor vorms heen vertoon word, dien as getuienis dat die toets 'n betroubare meting van die betrokke eienskappe is.

TABEL 6.5: BETROUABAARHEIDSKOËFFISIËNTIE VIR PARALLELLE VORMS TUSSEN TWEEDOEORDE-FAKTORE VAN VORM B EN VORM A

		Vorm A			
Vorm B		Ekstraversie	Angs	Faktor III	Abstraksie
	Ekstraversie	69 *	-13	-23	15
	Angs	-22	70	-33	-02
	Faktor III	-12	-17	52	06
	Abstraksie	08	-07	-04	21

*Desimale weggelaat

6.1.3 Interne konsekwentheid

Die interne konsekwentheid van 'n toets is "die mate waarin toetslinge ooreenstemmende tellings in verskillende dele van die toets behaal" (Gouws et al., 1979:136). Persoonlikheid is egter nie 'n homogene verskynsel nie en omdat verskeie aspekte van persoonlikheid deur die HSPV gemeet word, het dit gevvolglik nie veel nut om die interne konsekwentheid van die HSPV as geheel te bepaal nie. Die homogeniteit van items is daarom vir elke primêre faktor afsonderlik bereken.

Die interne betroubaarheidskoëffisiënte bereken vir vorms A en B van die HSPV word in tabel 6.6 opgesom. Die betroubaarheidskoëffisiënte, bereken volgens Kuder-Richardson (formule 8) word vir die 1989-toepassing gegee (steekproef in tabelle 5.3 en 5.4). Die betroubaarheidskoëffisiënte word ook as deel van die normtabelle in afdeling 7 vir elke normgroep gegee.

Die betroubaarheidskoëffisiënte wat 'n aanduiding van die interne konsekwentheid van faktore gee, is oorwegend laag. Dit beteken dat die items binne 'n bepaalde faktor nie homogeen is nie. Indien die omvang van die betekenis van elke faktor in ag geneem word, is hierdie heterogeniteit van die items binne 'n faktor bykans voor die hand liggend. 'n Toets of vraelys wat 'n komplekse kriterium moet voorspel, het trouens volgens Guilford (1954) 'n groter kans op geldigheid wanneer dit 'n lae interne konsekwentheid toon, want *in the language of information theory, items with lower intercorrelations have less redundancy; they duplicate one another in prediction less than items with higher intercorrelations* (Guilford, 1954:361). In die lig hiervan en die klein aantal items per skaal, word die interne konsekwentheid van die skale van die HSPV as bevredigend beskou.

6.2

GELDIGHEID

Die geldigheid van 'n meetinstrument verwys na die mate waarin dit meet wat dit bedoel om te meet (Plug, et al., 1986:117). Die evaluering van die geldigheid van 'n meetinstrument geskied daarom altyd met betrekking tot 'n spesifieke gebruik van die instrument. Dis belangrik om te kyk na die geldigheid van die *afleidings* wat uit die toetstellings gemaak word eerder as om slegs na die geldigheid van die toets as sodanig te kyk (Madge, 1982). Verskillende soorte geldigheidsindeks is nodig voor meetinstrumente met vertroue vir besondere doeleindes gebruik kan word. Die geldigheidsgegewens word onder drie hoofde bespreek naamlik konstruktgeldigheid, inhoudsgeldigheid en kriteriumverwante of empiriese geldigheid.

TABEL 6.6: INTERNE KONSEKWENTHEIDSKOëFFISIËNTE VAN HSPV-SKALE

Groep	N	Vorm	Faktor													
			A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I	J	O	Q ₂	Q ₃	Q ₄
1989 steekproef 13-18 jaar	2 332	A	0,541*	0,588	0,565	0,557	0,521	0,546	0,508	0,629	0,674	0,440	0,517	0,432	0,452	0,480
1989 steekproef 13-18 jaar	2 307	B	0,546	0,487	0,588	0,508	0,445	0,616	0,605	0,586	0,565	0,400	0,571	0,429	0,460	0,494

* Bereken met KR-8.

6.2.1 Konstrukgeldigheid

Konstrukgeldigheid verteenwoordig die mate waarin 'n meetinstrument daarin slaag om die teoretiese konstruk wat dit onderlê, te meet (Plug et al., 1986:187).

Korrelasies tussen die roupunte van die HSPV-faktore is in die jare 1967 tot 1979 vir verskeie steekproewe bereken. Statisties nie-beduidende of negatiewe korrelasies tussen die faktore is gevind. Hierdie gebrek aan duidelike korrelasies gee 'n aanduiding van die konstrukgeldigheid, aangesien dit impliseer dat die HSPV vir Suid-Afrikaanse groepe dieselfde faktore as vir die Amerikaanse groepe op wie dit ontwikkel is, identifiseer. 'n Intratoets-metode is egter (veral waar faktoranalise in die geval van die HSPV so 'n integrerende deel van die teoretiese onderbou daarvan uitmaak) nie voldoende om die konstrukgeldigheid van 'n instrument te bewys nie (Madge, 1982:169). Veral intertoets- en kriteriumgerigte metodes behoort ook vir konstrukvalidering gebruik te word. Laasgenoemde metodes is egter sover bekend nog nie in die Suid-Afrikaanse konteks gebruik nie.

Gedurende die 1989-toepassing is faktorontledings weer gedoen om die konsekwentheid van die faktorpatroon soos deur Cattell geïdentifiseer, te ondersoek. In hierdie sin kan ooreenstemmende tweedeorde-faktorpatrone oor subgroepe (byvoorbeeld geslag, taal, kultuur) heen as 'n redelike mate van bevestiging van die konstrukgeldigheid van die instrument dien.

Met 'n verskeidenheid statistiese procedures is die faktorpatroon onderliggend aan die vraelys ondersoek, en telkens is die faktorpatroon bevestig. 'n Faktorontleding, uitgevoer volgens die maksimum aanneemlikheidsmetode op die interkorrelasiematriks van die 14 HSPV-skale (kommunaliteite = 1) het vier tweedeorde-faktore opgelewer. Die tweedeorde-faktore het konsekwent gebly ongeag , die geslag, die toetstaal en die toetsvorm wat gebruik is. (Scree toets en eiewaardes groter as een dui op vier faktore wat 54 % van die variansie verklaar.) Die faktorladings word in tabel 6.7 weerspieël.

TABEL 6.7: TWEEDOEORDE-FAKTORLADINGS (Quartimax, Priors one, PFA)

Faktor I Angs	Faktor II Ekstraversie	Faktor III	Faktor IV Abstrakte denke
-C 0,73	+A 0,68	-E 0,62	+B 0,94
+D 0,63	+F 0,65	-F 0,32	
-G 0,50	+H 0,48	+G 0,49	
-H 0,57	-J 0,57	+I 0,74	
+O 0,66	-Q ₂ 0,70	+Q ₃ 0,34	
-Q ₃ 0,46			
+Q ₄ 0,70			

- Faktorladings groter as 0,3 is as genoegsaam beskou om 'n lading van 'n veranderlike op 'n faktor te staaf.

- By vorm A het HSPV-faktor 1 die neiging getoon om soms ook op faktor 2 te laai.
- By die B-vorm het die volgende vier bykomende neigings soms voorgekom: HSPV-faktor F laai positief op faktor 1, O laai negatief op faktor 2, A laai positief op faktor 3, en Q₃ laai positief op faktor 4.

Die faktorpatroon is verder bevestig deur die resultate van 'n bevestigende faktorontleding met die LISREL-program. Die effektiwiteit van die passingsindeks was 0,930 wat dui op 'n goeie passing. Dieselfde patroon is gevind met 'n meervoudige battery faktorontleding van Cudeck (Universiteit van Suid-Californië, Los Angeles, 1980).

Die feit dat dieselfde bevindings rakende die struktuur en inhoud van die HSPV se faktorpatrone deur meer as een tegniek verkry is, lewer oortuigende getuienis van die konstruktgeldigheid van die HSPV.

6.2.2 Inhoudsgeldigheid

Inhoudsgeldigheid gee 'n aanduiding van die mate waarin die items van 'n meetinstrument die universum van gedragswyses verteenwoordig wat die instrument veronderstel is om te meet. Die inhoudsgeldigheid word nie as 'n kwantitatiewe indeks uitgedruk nie en berus grootliks op deskundiges se oordeel van die inhoud aan die hand van die definisie van die universum van items (Madge, 1982). Die wyse waarop Cattell die HSPV ontwikkel het (sien 1.1 vir 'n kort uiteensetting hiervan), dra by tot die inhoudsgeldigheid van die HSPV.

6.2.3 Kriteriumverwante of empiriese geldigheid

Kriteriumverwante geldigheid gee 'n aanduiding van die akkuraatheid waarmee die tellings wat deur middel van 'n meetinstrument verkry is, tellings in 'n kriterium voorspel (Madge, 1982). Daar is twee soorte empiriese geldigheid, naamlik gelykydige of saamvallende en voorspellingsgeldigheid. Die voorspellingsgeldigheid van 'n meetinstrument beteken dat 'n voorspelling van bepaalde toekomstige gedrag gemaak kan word op grond van die resultate met die instrument verkry, terwyl saamvallende geldigheid beteken dat 'n diagnose van 'n huidige gedragsvorm met behulp van die instrument gemaak kan word.

In sy handleiding gee Cattell (1975:43-69) 'n uiteensetting van die diagnostiese en voorspellingsvermoë van die HSPV ten opsigte van faktore soos skoolprestasie, kreatiwiteit, misdadigheid, aanpassing, gedragsprobleme, verslavingstoestande, gewildheid, leierskap en aspekte van sosiale status. Hierdie inligting kan as aanduidings van die moontlikhede van die HSPV, en as moontlike riglyne vir interpretasie gebruik word. Die uiterste versigtigheid moet egter aan die dag gelê word indien van hierdie inligting op Suid-Afrikaanse leerlinge van toepassing gemaak sou word.

Enkele ontledings wat saamvallende geldigheid betref, is deur die 1989-toepassing moontlik gemaak. Aangesien die Algemene Skolastiese Aanlegtoets (ASAT, Claassen et al., 1990)

in dieselfde toetsing op die leerlinge toegepas is, kon t-toetse gedoen word om te bepaal of lae teenoor hoë tellings op die verbale IK-telling asook geskatte totale IK-telling saamhang met verskillende tweedeorde-faktortellings. Vir hierdie doel is IK-tellings ongeveer by die mediaan verdeel (tellings van 95 en laer is as laag, en 96 en hoër as hoog gereken).

Die volgende is gevind:

- Hoër ekstraversie- en abstrakteredeneervermoëtellings op die HSPV gaan met hoër verbale IK-tellings op die ASAT gepaard.
- Hoër superegotellings op die HSPV hou verband met laer verbale IK-tellings op die ASAT. As kriterium is die draapunt waar die verskille tussen die gemiddeldes van die subgroepe 'n kwart tot 'n derde van die standaardafwyking begin oorskry, gebruik. Dieselfde patroon is vir die totale IK-telling gevind.
- Daar is ook na die primêre faktore se verhouding met die ASAT gekyk. Soos verwag is, het die HSPV se abstrakteredeneervermoëtelling (faktor B) goed met die ASAT se IK-tellings gekorreleer (Pearson r van 0,41). Hoë tellings op faktore E en F het ook volgens toetsontledings met hoër verbale en totale IK-tellings saamgeheng.

Die feit dat geselecteerde skaaltellings uit verskillende meetinstrumente, waarvan sommige konstrukte op konseptuele gronde ooreen behoort te stem, wel goed met mekaar korreleer, gee dus in hierdie geval 'n bepaalde mate van bevestiging van die saamvallende geldigheid van die HSPV.

6.3 NAVORSING WAARIN DIE HSPV GEBRUIK IS

Die HSPV is reeds suksesvol in 'n wye verskeidenheid navorsingsprojekte gebruik. In Bylae A word die literatuurverwysings van 'n aantal projekte gegee. Die HSPV is veral gebruik om akademiese gedrag en prestasie te voorspel of te verklaar, 'n bydrae te lewer in beroepsvoortetting en om verskeie vorms van gedrag te evalueer byvoorbeeld leiersgedrag, aggressie, eetgewoontes en die effek van psigoterapie.

STANDAARDISERING

Standaardisering is die prosedure waarvolgens 'n sielkundige toets of vraelys vir algemene gebruik in 'n bepaalde gemeenskap gereed gemaak word. Aangesien die HSPV van Amerikaanse oorsprong is, is die vraelys aangepas en gestandaardiseer vir gebruik in Suid-Afrika deur itemontleding, normbepaling en die ontleding van die statistiese eienskappe van die vraelys.

5.1 ITEMONTLEDING

Itemontleding is vir die leerlinge van die verskillende onderwysdepartemente uitgevoer om die waarde van elke item vir die betrokke groep te ondersoek. Die datums van toepassing en grootte van die steekproewe van hierdie eksperimentele toepassings, asook die vorms van die HSPV wat gebruik is, word in tabel 5.1 uiteengesit. Die items het telkens bevredigend bygedra tot die skaaltelling en daar is besluit dat al die items in die vraelys vir gebruik in die Suid-Afrikaanse gemeenskap, behou word (De Villiers, 1978; Laubscher, Steyn & Wolfaardt, 1976; Madge & Du Toit, 1984; Minnaar, 1976; Van Dijk, 1982a; 1982b).

TABEL 5.1: BESONDERHEDE VAN DIE ONDERSKEIE TOEPASSINGS VAN DIE HSPV VIR ITEMONTLEDING EN NORMBEPALING

Onderwys-departement	Datum van toepassing	Vorm van die vraelys	Ouderdomme of standerds van respondeente	Grootte van die steekproef	Gevolgtrekking ten opsigte van HSPV-items
Departement Onderwys en Kultuur: Volksraad	1967	A B	13-18 jaar 13-18 jaar	2 155 2 150	Behou al 142 items onveranderd
Department Onderwys en Kultuur: Afgevaardigdes	1976	A	14-19 jaar	2 583	Behou al 142 items onveranderd
Departement Onderwys en Kultuur: Verteenwoordigers	1968	A	14-19 jaar	1 835	Behou al 142 items onveranderd
	1976	B	St. 7 & 8	984	Behou al 142 items onveranderd
		A & B	St. 9 & 10	892	Behou al 142 items onveranderd
Departement Onderwys en Opleiding	1974	A & B	St. 10	2 237	Behou al 142 items onveranderd
	1979	A	St. 6-9	3 050	Behou al 142 items onveranderd

5.2 NORMBEPALING

Die eerste normbepalings vir die HSPV in Suid-Afrika het in die periode van 1967 tot 1979 plaasgevind, met normgroepe soos uiteengesit in tabel 5.1. In daardie stadium is norms met betrekking tot albei die toetsvorms vir die leerlinge van die onderskeie onderwysdepartemente afsonderlik bereken. Omdat die norms vir sekere groepe reeds 23 jaar gelede bepaal is en daar 'n groot behoefte aan resente norms bestaan, is 'n normbepalingstoepassing vir 1989 beplan. Vorms A en B van die HSPV is in 1989 as deel van 'n omvattende toetsprogram (Claassen et al., 1990) op 4 769 hoërskoolleerlinge van 13 tot 18 jaar toegepas met die doel om resente norms vir die HSPV beskikbaar te stel. *Weens onrus in die skole van die Departement Onderwys en Opleiding (DOO) in hierdie tyd, kon hierdie skole nie in die steekproef ingesluit word nie.* 'n Steekproef, gestratifiseer volgens die volgende veranderlikes: onderwysdepartement, provinsie, skoolbeheer (privaat/regeringsondersteun), area (stad/platteland), medium van onderrig (Afrikaans/Engels) en geslag is gebruik. Binne elke stratum is skole en leerlinge ewekansig gekies.

Tydens die normbepaling is daar ondersoek ingestel na die moontlik betekenisvolle verband van biografiese veranderlikes en toetstellings. Daar is eerstens gekyk na die kovariansiematrikse, wat 'n aanduiding van die eendersheid al dan nie, van die faktorpatrone van verskeie subgroepe gee. Vir hierdie ontledings is die Box-toets en DISCRIM-prosedures van die "Statistical Analysis System" (SAS Institute, 1982) gebruik. Tweedens is die verskil of ooreenstemming tussen die vektore van gemiddeldes vir al die betrokke subgroepe met die Hotelling T^2 -prosedure en die "General Linear Models"- (GLM) prosedure van SAS ondersoek. Die invloed van die volgende veranderlikes is ondersoek: toetsvorm, huistaal, geslag, onderwysdepartement, ouderdom, area (stad/platteland) en milieugestremdheid (sosio-ekonomiese deprivasie). Daar is bevind dat toetsvorm, geslag en huistaal die grootste verband met die toetstellings gehad het.

Die blote feit dat die gemiddelde toetstellings op 'n toets vir twee of meer groepe verskil, duï nie noodwendig op sydigheid van die toets ten opsigte van die veranderlike waarmee die groepe gevorm word nie. Met die uitsondering van toetsvorm as veranderlike om twee groepe te vorm, wil dit voorkom of in die onderhawige geval geeneen van die ander waargenome groepverskille in toetsgemiddeldes betekenisvol anders is as wat die meeste sielkundiges, wat die betrokke sielkundige konstrukte en groepe ken, sou verwag nie. Verdere navorsing oor moontlike sydigheid ten opsigte van etniese groep, taal en geslag is egter aangewese.

Huidige insigte van die toetsopstellers duï daarop dat in die onderhawige geval dit aangewese is om -

- (i) in alle gevalle afsonderlike norms vir die twee toetsvorms te verskaf,
- (ii) gesamentlike en aparte norms vir geslagte te verskaf, en
- (iii) verdere onderverdeling van groepe met die oog op afsonderlike norms nie tans te oorweeg nie.

Die samestelling van die normgroep word in tabelle 5.2 en 5.3 aangedui. Die onderverdeling in taalgroepe en onderwysdepartemente in hierdie tabelle word slegs vir volledigheid gegee.

TABEL 5.2: SAMESTELLING VAN DIE NORMGROEP VIR VORM A (1989)

Onderwys-departement	Geslag				Totaal
	Manlik		Vroulik		
Departement Onderwys en Kultuur: Volksraad	702	Taalgroep	598	Taalgroep	1 300
		Afrikaans 503		Afrikaans 404	
		Engels 199		Engels 194	
Departement Onderwys en Kultuur: Ver-teenwoordigers	368	Afrikaans 321	403	Afrikaans 330	771
		Engels 47		Engels 73	
Departement Onderwys en Kultuur: Afgevaardigdes	161	Engels 161	140	Engels 140	301
Totaal	1 231		1 141		2 372

TABEL 5.3: SAMESTELLING VAN DIE NORMGROEP VIR VORM B (1989)

Onderwys-departement	Geslag				Totaal
	Manlik		Vroulik		
Departement Onderwys en Kultuur: Volksraad	659	Taalgroep	600	Taalgroep	1 259
		Afrikaans 471		Afrikaans 409	
		Engels 188		Engels 191	
Departement Onderwys en Kultuur: Ver-teenwoordigers	378	Afrikaans 335	398	Afrikaans 325	776
		Engels 43		Engels 73	
Departement Onderwys en Kultuur: Afgevaardigdes	139	Engels 139	158	Engels 158	297
Totaal	1 176		1 156		2 332

As 'n tussentydse maatreël, totdat norms vir 'n verteenwoordigende steekproef van die hele bevolking beskikbaar is, kan die norms in afdeling 7 ook gebruik word vir leerlinge uit die Departement van Onderwys en Opleiding (DOO). Dit moet egter met die nodige omsigtigheid gedoen word en die verskille wat hieronder genoem word, moet in ag geneem word by die interpretasie van toetsresultate.

Die gemiddelde tellings van die 1989 normgroep, is vergelyk met dié van leerlinge van DOO in 1974 en 1979. Waar verskille groter as ongeveer 'n halwe standaardafwyking is, word dit as sielkundig betekenisvol beskou. Die volgende betekenisvolle verskille in gemiddelde tellings is geïdentifiseer en moet by die interpretasie in ag geneem word:

- **Faktor B:** Die gemiddelde telling van leerlinge in die DOO is laer as die in dié huidige normgroep.
- **Faktor E:** Die gemiddelde telling van leerlinge in die DOO is laer as dié van die huidige normgroep veral in die geval van seuns.
- **Faktor F:** Die gemiddelde telling van leerlinge in die DOO is laer as dié van die huidige normgroep.
- **Faktor I:** Die gemiddelde telling van leerlinge in die DOO is hoër as dié van die huidige normgroep.
- Verskille is ook gevind ten opsigte van faktore J en Q₃. Hierdie faktore moet met omsigtigheid geïnterpreteer word.

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**PERSONALITY TRAITS OF LEARNERS WITH SPECIAL EDUCATION NEEDS:
IMPLICATIONS IN AN INCLUSIVE EDUCATION SETTING**

by

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submitted in part fulfilment for the requirements for
the

**MASTERS DEGREE IN EDUCATION – WITH SPECIALISATION IN
GUIDANCE AND COUNSELLING**

SUPERVISOR: DR G E PIENAAR

SUMMARY

An American study used the High School Personality Questionnaire (HSPQ) as a predictive tool when placing learners in special classes. The personality characteristics of these learners were found to have a pervasive influence on learning. As the policy regarding the provision of education in South Africa has changed, with the emphasis on the accommodation of all learners in one inclusive education system, further study of the personality traits of South African learners with special education needs was deemed necessary, before devising classroom management strategies that could be employed within an inclusive education system.

This study provides the results of a literature and an empirical investigation into the personality traits of learners with special education needs. The educational implications are addressed, with specific reference to the education of learners with special education needs in an inclusive education system, and practical strategies for educators, parents and the Educational Psychologist are presented.

KEYWORDS: personality; learners; special education needs; education; inclusive education; High School Personality Questionnaire; barriers to learning; strategies for parents; strategies for educators; strategies for the Educational Psychologist.