

**GRADUATE PRE-SERVICE PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHER PREPARATION FOR
INCLUSION IN EDUCATION IN ZIMBABWE**

by:

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25 FERUARY 2021

DECLARATION:

I, Charles Govero Chipika (Student Number 57667241) declare that the thesis titled **“GRADUATE PRE-SERVICE PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHER PREPARATION FOR INCLUSION IN EDUCATION IN ZIMBABWE”** is my original work and that all the sources used in this study have been acknowledged by way of complete references.

I further declare that I submitted the thesis to originality checking software and that it falls within the accepted requirements for originality.

I also declare that I have not previously submitted this work, or part of it, for examination at UNISA for another qualification or at any other higher education institution.

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DEDICATION:

I dedicate this thesis to my 'no-nonsense' late father, Johnlife Nyambirai Chipika and my ever-loving mother, Agnes Sharai Gatora for their desire to see all their children achieving the highest academic and professional qualification possible. Your love and realisation of the value of education steered me to this climax. Thank you so much for your vision, unwavering support and parental guidance.

I also pay special tribute to my late daughter, Ashley Sharai: all this I did on your behalf, fulfilling your quest for education as you were a shining pupil in all grades that you completed and the one you could not due to God's calling.

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ABSTRACT

Proficient and appropriate preparation of pre-service teachers is a decisive milestone in guaranteeing inclusion in education in addressing Zimbabwe's teacher education challenges as pitfalls in this service by its universities contribute to exclusion of the traditionally marginalised learners. These institutions have been mandated by the Zimbabwean government to promote educational equity as a social justice issue. Entrenched in an interpretivist research paradigm, this qualitative single case study examined the university graduate pre-service primary school teachers' professional preparation for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe as the context for proposing strategies to enhance their professional preparation. A sample of sixteen university graduate pre-service primary school teachers was purposively drawn from the Masvingo Province of Zimbabwe. Semi-structured individual interviews, non-participant observations, document analysis and follow-up discussions were used to collect data. Braun and Clarke's (2006) qualitative thematic approach was used to analyse the data. The study found that university graduate pre-service primary school teachers had divergent and limited understandings of inclusion in education that resulted in them engaging in various practices. University graduate pre-service primary school teachers also engaged in various individual and collaborative practices that were grounded in the social, cultural and religious space and the niche area of the university in inclusion in education which is preservation of African culture and heritage. Individual and institutional capacity building, including the training of university pre-service teachers on comprehensive theory and practice of inclusion in education coupled with adequate financial, technological and materials resources as well as sufficient time in schools could enhance their professional preparation for inclusive practice. The current study provides a rich description of the lived experiences of graduate pre-service primary school teachers and thus serves as a basis for further studies on university graduate pre-service primary school teacher professional preparation for inclusion in education. Data analysed in this qualitative single case study was gathered from only graduate pre-service primary school teachers. A multiple-case study with a broad spectrum of stakeholders as research participants would provide a collection of multiple perceptions

of inclusion in education regarding the professional preparation of graduate pre-service primary school teachers for the philosophy.

Keywords: Educators, inclusive education, learners, mainstream classes, primary school, professional preparation, university

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

Acronym	Description
AASCU	American Association of State Colleges and Universities
APE	Adapted Physical Education
API	Annual Plan for Inclusion
AT	Activity Theory
ASD	Autism Spectrum Disorder
BCODP	British Council of Organisations of Disabled People
BEAM	Basic Education Assistance Module
B. Ed	Bachelor of Education
CAEDD	Convention of American Educators of Disabled People
CAST	Chicago Center for Applied Special Technology
CDU	Curriculum Development Unit
CHAT	Cultural Historical Activity Theory
CHE	Council on Higher Education
CRS	Curriculum Reformation Strategy
CSS	Cadetship Support Scheme
DBSTs	District Based Support Teams
DfE	Department for Education
DfES	Department for Education and Skills
DLP	Detailed Lesson Plan

DoE	Department of Education
DoTEUZ	Department of Teacher Education of the University of Zimbabwe
ECC	Ethical Clearance Certificate
ECD	Early Childhood Development
ECD 1	Early Childhood Development Level One
ECD 2	Early Childhood Development Level Two
ECE	Early Childhood Education
EFA	Education for All
ESEA	Elementary and Secondary Education Act
FAREME	Family Religious and Moral Education
FSSs	Full Service Schools
GATE	Global Alliance for Transnational Education
GCT	Gifted, Creative and Talented
GoZ	Government of Zimbabwe
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
ID	Intellectual Disability
IDEA	Individuals with Disabilities Education Act
IDEIA	Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act
IEDC	Integrated Education of Disabled Children Scheme
IEP	Individualised Educational Programme
ILSTs	Institutional Level Support Teams
IRB	Institutional Review Board

ISS	Independent Schools Strategy
LRE	Least Restrictive Environment
LSEs	Learning Support Educators
MDG	United Nations Millennium Development Goals
MoHTES&TD	Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education Science and Technological Development
MoPSE	Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education
MSAIE	Multi-sectoral Approach to Inclusive Education
NCID	National Council on Intellectual Disability
NCLB	No Child Left Behind
NESP	National Education Sector Plan
NSTED	National Strategy for Teacher Education
OATL	Office of Association of Teaching and Learning
OAU	Organisation of African Union
PGDE	Professional Graduate Diploma in Education
PIED	Project Integrated Education for the Disabled
PSIL	Primary School Infant Level
PSJL	Primary School Junior Level
PWD	People with Disabilities
REC	Research Ethics Committee
RNPE	Revised National Policy on Education
RTE	Right to Education

SAQA	South African Qualifications Authority
SASL	South African Sign Language
SPS&SNE	Schools Psychological Services and Special Needs Education
SSA	Schools Self-Assessment
STEM	Science Technology Engineering and Mathematics
TEAB	Teacher Education Advisory Board
TEDP	Teacher Education Development Programmes
TP	Teaching Practice
UBE	Universal Basic Education
UDL	Universal Design for Learning
UEE	Universal Elementary Education
UK	United Kingdom
UN	United Nations
UNESCO	United Nations Educational Scientific and Cultural Organisation
UNICEF	United Nations Children's Education Fund
UNISA	University of South Africa
USA	United States of America
UZ	University of Zimbabwe
WHO	World Health Organisation
ZGCE	Zimbabwe General Certificate of Education
ZGCE A Level	Zimbabwe General Certificate of Education Advanced Level
ZGCE O-Level	Zimbabwe General Certificate of Education Ordinary Level

ZIMCHE	Zimbabwe Council for Higher Education
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CHAPTER 1: THE PROBLEM AND ITS CONTEXT

1.1 Introduction

The most important factor influencing the success of inclusion in education are teacher attitudes, knowledge and skills in relation to it (Pantic & Florian, 2015; Majoko, 2019). Embedded in the interpretivist research paradigm, this qualitative single case study thus examined the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe as the context for proposing strategies to enhance their professional preparation. This chapter presents the problem and its context. This includes the background to the study, statement of the problem, research aim and objectives, main research question and sub-questions and the rationale for the study. The chapter also presents an overview of the theoretical framework and a brief description of the research methodology including the research paradigm, research approach, research design, population, sampling technique and sample as well as the data collection and data analysis methods. This chapter further presents an overview of the trustworthiness of the study, the ethical considerations that guided it, the significance of the study, limitations of the study, measures to overcome these limitations, delimitations of the study, definition of key terms, organisation of the research programme and summary of the chapter.

1.2 Background to the study

In 1994, the world shifted paradigm from exclusion to the inclusion of learners with diverse and unique needs in education in compliance with the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (UNESCO, 1994; Eunice, Nyangia & Orodho, 2015:39; Majoko, 2017:671). The statement reaffirmed the basic right to education of every individual as enshrined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (United Nations [UN], 1948) and renewed the pledge made by the world community at the World Conference on Education for All (UNESCO, 1990) to ensure that right for all despite individual differences (Donnelly & Watkins, 2011). The Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education

(UNESCO, 1994) also recalled several declarations of the UN which culminated in the Standard Rules on the Equalisation of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities (UN, 1993) which urges countries to guarantee the education of people with disabilities as an integral component of their regular education systems. The Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (UNESCO, 1994) and the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UN, 1948) are in alignment with civil rights movements as expressed in several other global and African human rights instruments on or related to inclusion in education. These include the Convention on the Rights of the Child (UN, 1989), the World Declaration on the Education for All (EFA) (UN, 1990), the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (Organisation of African Union [OAU], 1990) and the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UN, 2006).

Other global human rights instruments that underpin inclusion in education include the International Year of Disabled Persons (UN, 1981), the World Programme of Action Concerning Disabled Persons (UN, 1982) and the Decade of the Disabled Persons (UN, 1983-1992). Despite the adoption of these global and African human rights instruments on or related to inclusion in education, several factors have negatively influenced its practice (Hui Ng, 2015:32). These include “insufficient collaboration, lack of awareness and knowledge, teacher responsibility, tension among authority figures, large class sizes and teacher attitudes towards inclusion” (Hui Ng, 2015:32). Other factors militating against inclusion in education include the lack of policy and legal support, school resources and facilities, teacher training in inclusive thinking and techniques, poor pedagogical techniques, rigid curriculum, unsupportive school and district leadership as well as socio-cultural attitudes towards school and disability (Schuelka, 2018: 7).

Since 1994, several countries have institutionalised measures including the adoption of relevant policies, legislation and guidelines on or related to inclusion in education to advance education for people with disabilities. These include both the Public Law 108-446 of 2004 and the Individuals with Disability Education Improvement Act of 2004 in the United States of America (USA) (Hodkinson, 2009:104), the Disability Standard for Education of 2005 in Australia (Forlin, Chambers, Loreman, Deppeler & Sharma, 2013:4), the Education Act: 58:01 of 2002 in Botswana (Mukhopadhyay, 2013:74) and

Law 62 of 2000 in Italy (Petrella, 2012:7). They also include the British Education Act of 1996 as revised in 2001 (Armstrong et al, 2010:8) and the Code of Practice of 2001 in the United Kingdom (UK) (O'Brien et al, 2013:2), the Education White Paper 6 of 2001 of South Africa (Mumford, 2013:72), the Right to Education Act of 2009 in India (Kohama, 2012:26) and the National Policy on Education of 2004 in Nigeria (Adetoro, 2014:1777). The passing of these policies and legislation does not necessarily guarantee inclusion in education as the foregoing factors including inadequate collaboration, large class sizes (Hui Ng, 2015:32) and lack of supportive policy and curriculum rigidity (Schuelka, 2018:2) among others influence its success.

In alignment with the foregoing international human rights instruments and examples from various countries, Zimbabwe adopted several policies and legislation to advance inclusion in education since 1994 (Majoko, 2020; Musengi & Chireshe, 2012:107). These include the Zimbabwe Education Act of 1987 as amended in 1996 and 2006 respectively (Wadesango, Machingambi & Mutekwa, 2012:528), the Disabled Persons Act of 1996, the Zimbabwe Constitution Amendment Number 20 of 2013 Section 75 (Majoko, 2017) and the Zimbabwe Child Protection Act of 2004 (Masuka, Banda, Mabvurira & Frank, 2012:60; Chitiyo et al, 2016:467). These mandate the fundamental right of all children, including those with disabilities, to education.

Across countries, several international and national guidelines inform inclusion in education. These include the Standard Rules on the Equalisation of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities (UN, 1993), the Guidelines for Inclusion (UNESCO, 2005), the Dakar Framework for Action (UN, 2000), the Tallinn Guidelines for Action on Human Resources Development in the Field of Disability (UN, 1989) and the United Nations Principles for the Protection of Persons with Mental Illness (UN, 1991). In the Republic of South Africa, there are guidelines for special schools as resource centres and guidelines for full-service schools (Engelbrecht, Nel, Smit & Deventer, 2015:4). In several countries such as South Africa, Nigeria, the UK, Finland and Norway, guidelines on inclusion in education provide parameters within which pro-inclusion policies and legislation are framed and mandate governments to prioritise the fundamental right of people with disabilities to education (Armstrong, Armstrong & Spandagou, 2011:33). In

spite of the existence of the guidelines on inclusion in education in several countries, its realization falls short of stated commitments primarily because of teachers' negative attitudes and lack of knowledge and skills for effective implementation (Pantic & Florian, 2015).

Consistent with the above-mentioned countries among others, several policy circulars inclusive of the Director's Circular Numbers 1 and 2 of 2001, 1 of 2004, 7 of 2005 and the Secretary's Circulars Number 2 of 2000 and 14 of 2004 underpin inclusion in education in Zimbabwe (Jenjekwa, Rutoro & Runyowa, 2013:23). These circulars mandate teachers to practice inclusion in education and provide guidelines on its practice. Unlike several other countries including South Africa, the UK and the USA, Zimbabwe lacks clear and specific policies and legislation on inclusion in education. According to Soneni (2016:31), the above mentioned Zimbabwean policies and legislation among others lack specificity and clarity as to who, where, when and how provisions for learners with disabilities should be implemented to realise the inclusion of these learners in education. This can prevent the provision of appropriate services to learners with diverse and unique needs to be meaningfully included in education because of the lack of legal accountability of the stakeholders including the government, parents and teachers.

The permanent secretary of the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education (MoPSE) of Zimbabwe also imposes the Directors' circulars on teachers since a top-down approach is applied in the management of education in the country. This can compromise ownership of the circulars as teachers ultimately disassociate themselves with their implementation. Despite the promulgation of the above mentioned policies, legislation and circulars on inclusion in education in Zimbabwe, its practice is far from being a reality because of various factors including the lack of appropriate teaching and learning resources and inadequate levels of funding more generally (Chireshe, 2013) and teachers' failure to design and deliver lessons and select suitable objectives, materials and pedagogy that addresses the diversity of learners (Majoko, 2018).

Various countries have developed strategies that underpin inclusion in education and offer strategic guiding principles for the formulation of policies on inclusion in education in addition to accelerating equality and eliminating discrimination against children with diverse and unique needs in regular pedagogical settings. These include Sweden (Swedish Government Official Report, 2014), Rwanda (MoE, 2015), Nigeria (Obi, 2015:43), India (Sharma & Das, 2015:58) and Argentina (Costin & Coutinho, 2018:61). There is also Malawi (Banks et al, 2015:8), Australia (Forlin & Chambers, 2015:19), Cyprus (Symeonidou, 2017:403), China (Malinen, 2013:8) and Bulgaria (Guidi, 2016:4). Regardless of the specific strategies in different countries, inclusion in education remains an unrealised objective because of various challenges in different countries. For instance, in the USA, the lack of special education training of school leaders and infrequent adoption of best practices compromises its realisation (Hodkinson, 2009:104). In South Africa, a school-fees payment framework exists for quintile 4 and 5 schools that pay fees unlike quintile 1-3 schools that do not pay fees. The framework involves partnership between government and local communities to promote access to compulsory basic education for all children (Murungi, 2015:3175). Also, in South Africa the District-Based-Support-Teams (DBSTs), Special Schools as Resource Centres (SSRCs), Full Service Schools (FSSs), Institutional Level Support Teams (ILSTs) and Learning Support Educators (LSEs) play supplementary and complementary roles including pooling inclusive teaching and learning curriculum materials and resources and staff development of teachers to guarantee that individual needs of diverse learners in mainstream and special schools are addressed (Nel, Tlale & Engelbrecht, 2016:1).

Site-based programs in Australia (Forlin & Chambers, 2015:19) afford teacher trainees practical experience in educational settings with learners with diverse and unique needs (Kennedy, Billett, Gherardi & Grealish, 2015:4). In China, the 10th (2001-2006) Five-Year Action Plan and the 11th (2006-2010) Five-Year Action Plan guarantee the provision of resources for teacher professional preparation and development for inclusion in education (Li, Whalley, Zhang & Zhao, 2012:3) while the Long-term Education Reform and Development Plan (2010-2020) enshrines equity and social justice in education, from pre-school education to tertiary education level, inclusive of professional preparation of pre-service teachers (Feng, 2016:1393). The National

Education Sector Plan (NESP) and the National Strategy for Teacher Education (NSTED) Plans in Malawi guarantee the fundamental right to relevant and quality education of every learner as embodied in its 2020 Vision (Mwanza, Moyo & Maphosa, 2016:64). Despite the institutionalisation of the foregoing plans and policies, there is a contention that they are not effective, for instance, the District-Based-Support Teams (DBSTs) in South Africa are not professionally prepared for their roles and responsibilities (Nel et al., 2016).

Consistent with several other countries, Zimbabwe established structures in support of inclusion in education (Chireshe, 2013:223). The Schools Psychological Services and Special Needs Education Department within the MoPSE of Zimbabwe identifies, diagnoses and screens children with disabilities for appropriate educational placement (Majoko, 2017:1; Mugweni & Dakwa, 2013:4) in consultation with other stakeholders including regular teachers, parents, psychologists and occupational therapists (Majoko, 2019:2). The Inclusive Curriculum Framework for Primary and Secondary Education (2015-2022) obligates teachers to afford quality education to all learners regardless of their individual differences (Zimbabwe MoPSE, 2017). The Basic Education Assistance Module (BEAM) of 2001 pays school fees, levies and examination fees for vulnerable and disadvantaged learners and 10% of this module is meant specifically for learners with special needs (Mugweni & Dakwa, 2013:3; Mavhunga, Madondo & Phiri, 2009:39). The Cadetship Support Scheme (CSS) of 2006 pays fees for post A-level university education for learners from low-income backgrounds (Munanga & Matandike, 2013:420). Although these education schemes are meant to mitigate dropping out of schools of learners who are vulnerable and disadvantaged they are under-funded due to the government's prioritisation of other social and natural disasters such as drought, hunger and cyclones that are perennial in Zimbabwe (Majoko, 2018).

Countries are in pursuit of teacher education for inclusion in education to support its implementation. In Finland, the Basic Education Act (Act 628 of 1998) mandates all universities to professionally prepare teachers for inclusion in education (Sahlberg, 2010:2). Consequently, Finnish universities train teachers for inclusion in education at undergraduate and post-graduate levels (Ingvarson & Rowley, 2014:56; Sahlberg,

2010:3). In Luneburg, Germany, at the Leuphana University, the content for training pre-service teachers includes differentiation of instruction, task-based learning, computer assisted learning, plurilingualism and inter-cultural competence to professionally prepare them for inclusion in education (Blume, Gerlach, Roters & Schmidt, 2019:4). In the USA, pre-service teachers are obliged to train in a component of special education to be certified as teachers as part of their professional preparation for inclusion in education. The American Association of State Colleges and Universities (AASCU) has the mandate to ensure that all pre-service teachers are equipped with 21st century technological skills needed to provide quality inclusion in schools (AACTE, 2010:3). AASCU has since 2016, established a Teacher Education Task Force that informs teacher training institutions on current international practices on inclusion in education (AASCU, 2016:2).

The International Islamic University of Malaysia, in collaboration with its Ministry of Education, has offered pre-service and in-service training of teachers for inclusion in education since 2010 (Saad, Ibrahim & Nayan, 2013:674). Pakistan's universities train teachers in both special and general education programs, providing a wide range of skills to cater particularly for learners with disabilities (Sharma, Shaukat & Furlonger, 2014:6). In Ghana, teacher training colleges offer general knowledge in special education at diploma level to pre-service teachers while universities provide specialist training to teachers in special needs education to professionally prepare them for inclusion in education (Nketsia, Saloviita & Kofi, 2016:7). Most universities in South Africa provide pre-service and in-service training of teachers on inclusion in education (Majoko & Pasha, 2018). In Botswana, the Revised National Policy on Education (Government of Botswana, 1994) mandates universities to train pre-service and in-service teachers on inclusion in education with the support of appropriate governmental and non-governmental organisations (Government of Botswana, 2011:5; Mongwaketse & Mukhopadhyay, 2013:37) guided by its five central principles of "unity, democracy, self-reliance, development and 'botho' (common humanity) (Mukhopadhyay, 2014:33). Despite the provision of teacher education for inclusion in education in several countries, pre-service teachers are not adequately prepared for the philosophy to be

applied in practice (Florian, 2015). This is because of failing to equip them with the requisite professional knowledge and skills (Pantic & Florian, 2015).

Consistent with the above-mentioned countries, Zimbabwe supports pre-service and in-service training of teachers for inclusion in education. She mandates her universities and teacher training colleges to train pre-service and in-service teachers in inclusion in education. In partnership with the MoPSE, the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development (MoHTES & TD) presides over both the pre-service and in-service teacher training for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe (Chireshe, 2011:157; Majoko, 2018:2). At least 11 primary school teachers' training colleges and six universities train pre-service and in-service teachers for inclusion in education at diploma and degree levels in Zimbabwe (Majoko, 2019:2). The MoPSE and the MoHTES&TD, in collaboration with the Department of Teacher Education of the University of Zimbabwe (DoTEUZ) and the Schools' Psychological Services and Special Needs Education (SPS&SNE) Department, guarantee the professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education through the provision of support services (MoPSE, 2017) including that the necessary financial support is provided.

National qualifications accreditation bodies safeguard quality teacher professional preparation and development for inclusion in education across countries. In South Africa, the South African Qualifications Authority (SAQA) manages the articulation between education, training and work premised on three fundamental pillars for educational success, namely, democratic participation of stakeholders, intellectual scrutiny and resourcing meant to enhance leadership and management of educational processes (Walters, 2015:151). The Department of Higher Education and Training (DHET) of South Africa established in 2009, monitors and evaluates human skills development (Walters, 2015:150). These two institutions comprise South Africa's framework for communication, coordination and collaboration of all higher education processes including teacher education (SAQA Annual Report, 2011). In collaboration with other stakeholders of the South African education system, experts in higher education provide professional support services in curriculum evaluation, modification and resource mobilisation for inclusion in education (Nel et al, 2016:3).

In Típei, China, the Ministry of Education's Teacher Qualification Assessment Board screens graduate teachers before they are tenured. Graduate teachers write a test that assesses their education and knowledge and an interview is conducted where they should demonstrate their teaching competence (Ingvarson & Rowley, 2017:180). In Australia, the Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation (CAEP, 2013) assesses and accredits teacher education programmes with emphasis on measuring the quality of university graduate pre-service teachers. In Europe, the European Association for Quality Assurance in Higher Education assesses and accredits teacher education programmes (EAQAHE, 2009). In Wales, the United Kingdom, Teacher Education Advisory Board (TEAB) which is guided by the principle of university-school partnership for research-informed inclusive practices, ensures the quality of pre-service teacher education (Gomendio, 2017:20).

In the USA, the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards (NBPTS, 2002) ensures quality training of teachers for inclusion in education in universities. The board is constituted of analysts, policy designers and education practitioners of teaching and teacher education who are mandated to guarantee expertise and skilful professional education (Hammond, 2010:36). The North American universities in particular, which implement diversity plans for cross-cultural teaching are regulated by the Global Alliance for Transnational Education (GATE) which stipulates standards to be met by transnational educators (Gopal, 2011:374).

Similarly, the Zimbabwe Council of Higher Education (ZIMCHE) ensures and maintains quality university education (Majoni, 2014:20) through determining the Minimum Body of Knowledge and Skills (MBKs) to be taught to students in respective study programmes including pre-service teacher preparation for inclusion in education at each institution of higher learning. The ZIMCHE regulates and verifies lecturer qualifications, research output and university ranking (Chinamasa, 2012:165). However, retaining qualified lecturers and teachers remains a challenge due to poor conditions of service and low remuneration (Munjanganja & Machawira, 2014:36) and top-down decision making (World Data on Education, 2011:3). The involvement of the government in promoting inclusion in education remains minimal (National Action Plan of Zimbabwe, 2005:11) in

terms of policy implementation, minimum funding and limited trained professionals (Chitiyo, 2006:26).

Since the adoption of inclusion in 1994, guided by the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (UNESCO, 1994), significant percentages of children with diverse and unique needs including disabilities are being educated in regular schools in different countries. In Greece, 26 350 children with disabilities out of a total of about 36 011 are enrolled in the mainstream school system (Pappas, Papoutsi & Drigas, 2018:5). Australia has 193 182 out of 292 700 learners with disabilities attending regular schools (National Council on Intellectual Disability (NCID), 2013:5, Forlin, Chambers, Loreman, Deppeler & Sharma, 2013:17). According to Okongo et al (2015:145), Indonesia has over 89 000 children with disabilities in mainstream schools out of three million children with disabilities. In Hong Kong, there are more than 904 304 children with disabilities in regular schools out of about 11.6 million children with disabilities (Lian, Tse & Li, 2007:6). Saudi Arabia has at least 30 618 children with disabilities in regular classrooms out of about 80 000 children with disabilities (Alawfi, 2017:5). According to UNICEF (2016:41) in 2008, Kenya had 45 000 children with disabilities in regular education out of 1 776 064 while Ethiopia in 2015 had 72 000 children with disabilities in mainstream schools out of 2.4 million children with disabilities. In 2008, Malawi had 15 000 children with disabilities in mainstream schools out of 61 992 children with disabilities while Uganda had an increase from 222 390 in 2009 to 231 002 in 2010 of children with disabilities in its mainstream schools (UNICEF, 2016:41).

Table 1.1 below summarizes some of the statistics for children with disabilities in fully inclusive schools from selected countries as at the general survey by the European Agency for Development in Special Needs Education (EADSNE, 2012).

TABLE 1.1: Statistics for children with disabilities in fully inclusive schools from selected countries

Country	Number in regular education	Possible number for regular education
Austria	16 943	29 242
Cyprus	4 860	5 796
Italy	187 728	189 563
Malta	2 507	2 572
Norway	47 097	52 179
UK	201 383	342 484

(Source adapted: EADSNE, 2012:7)

The above figures are consistent with previous studies which revealed that, as a result of the influence of the global human rights instruments inclusive of charters, declarations and conventions discussed in the previous paragraphs (see Section 1.2 paragraphs 1 to 5), the population of diverse children in mainstream schools increased differently from one country to another (Vislie, 2008:24).

Consistent with the above-mentioned countries, Zimbabwe has registered growth in enrolment figures with over 150 000 children with diverse disabilities out of about 600 000 being catered for in mainstream classrooms (Chakuchichi, 2013:1; Charema & Eloff, 2011:17). Such a positive development is in compliance with the previously mentioned global and African human rights instruments on or related to inclusion in education among others. In light of this, the United Nations Secretary General’s 2007 address complemented principles of the named instruments such as the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UN, 2006) and the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education by mentioning that, “the 2nd United Nations Millennium Goal (MDG) is non-achievable without the inclusion of diverse children in schools” (Croft, 2012:2). The foregoing trend resonates with the assertion that, all ten educational provinces of Zimbabwe reported a significant increase in the number of children with disabilities educated in mainstream schools since the government’s adoption of inclusion in education in 1994 (Mpofu & Shumba, 2012:327; Mubika & Bukaliya, 2011:315; Chireshe, 2011:157). All educational provinces in Zimbabwe have reported a significant increase in the number of children with diverse

and unique needs in regular classrooms (Majoko, 2018) with Chakuchichi's (2013) study revealing a total of about 600 000 children with disabilities in schools. Physical access does not mean inclusion in education as the philosophy encompasses other aspects such as equality, equity, quality, social justice, democratic values, unity and celebration of diversity (Majoko, 2017:32; Sharma et al, 2006:8; Norwich, 2013:9; Rofrano, 2007: 56).

The realisation of inclusion in education is a global challenge to teachers as they struggle to practice it (Pantic & Florian, 2015). Several researchers have examined the professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education in different countries. In India, Abdul and Muhammed's (2009:5) comparative survey study on 91 pre-service teachers found that these pre-service teachers had a better understanding of inclusion in education and more positive attitudes towards it following their completion of a B. Ed degree programme. However, these pre-service teachers labelled learners with exceptionalities with derogatory terms such as "stupid" because they lacked basic knowledge regarding inclusion in education coupled with a lack of exposure to its practice. Similarly, all the 20 pre-service teachers in a case study in Jordan interviewed in Fayed, Dababeneh and Jumilian's (2011) qualitative study reported that they were taught limited content and pedagogy courses on children with diverse and unique needs including those with disabilities. These pre-service teachers also revealed that their professional preparation for inclusion was more theoretical than practical as it lacked specific instruction for practicing the acquired knowledge. In the same vein, Romi and Leyser's (2006:26) qualitative study on Jordanian primary school teachers using individual interviews established that these teachers could not include learners with diverse and unique needs including those with disabilities in regular classes because they lacked the content and pedagogy on how to plan for and assess these learners. Jewell, Stephane, Ceola and Ada's (2008:159) quantitative study in North Carolina established that most of the 72 teacher trainees who participated in their study lacked the knowledge and skills for teaching children with disabilities in regular classrooms.

In Kafedzic, Pribisev and Dzemidzic's (2010:3) quantitative study on 300 pre-service teachers from Bosnia and Herzegovina, utilising document analysis, individual

interviews, focus groups and an on-line survey, more than half of these pre-service teachers reported that they were facing serious challenges in teaching children with diverse and unique needs. This resulted in them demanding more support in areas such as individualised approaches to teaching and learning, group management related knowledge and skills and cooperative attitudes. Less than half of these pre-service teachers furthermore felt that they did not meet the goals of inclusion in education since their universities continued to use traditional or outdated instructional pedagogy delivered by traditional professors who were in charge of the teacher education faculty.

Brooke's (2014:4) exploratory study on Malawian rural primary school teachers established that these teachers lacked the professional knowledge to teach children with disabilities in regular classes. All the 146 Tanzanian pre-service teachers interviewed in Kapinga's (2014:14) qualitative study reported that they were unable to meet the individual needs of learners with diverse and unique needs in their regular classrooms as they were taught a limited number of courses on inclusion in education in addition to receiving inappropriate information and knowledge.

Malinen, Savolainen and Xu's (2012) quantitative study on 40 Chinese primary and middle school teachers in Beijing's municipality, using a questionnaire, found that these teachers had low self-efficacy and unfavourable attitudes towards inclusion in education because they lacked positive learning experiences of its practice due to their lack of adequate training and preparation to implement it. Kempf's (2018) case study on nine elementary teachers in Texas, USA using individual interviews, reflective journals and observational notes found that these teachers were unable to select instructional reading strategies for children with various unique needs during team-teaching because of their lack of professional preparation for inclusion in education. In Germany, an exploratory mixed methods study on 46 pre-service teachers by Blume, Gerlach, Roters and Schmidt (2019) using pre and post intervention questionnaires, descriptive statistics and qualitative content analysis established that these teachers' attitudes towards inclusion in education did not change despite having developed reflective competence. Although most of the foregoing international studies were primarily embedded in qualitative research, fewer of them were embedded in qualitative single case study

research design as is the case with my study. The transferability of the findings of the above cited studies to Zimbabwe is also unknown since they were executed in other countries.

A number of studies have also examined the professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe. Jenjekwa, Rutoro and Runyowa's (2013:21) qualitative study on 12 randomly selected Zimbabwean pre-service primary school teachers using individual interviews, non-participant observation and document analysis found that, although these teachers had some theoretical content on managing children with special needs, they lacked the practical experience and grounding in skills to manage children with diverse categories of disabilities. Mafa and Chaminuka's (2012:36) qualitative case study in Zimbabwe using individual interviews on 20 purposively sampled pre-service primary school teachers on teaching practice, established that these teachers were unable to prepare lessons for learners with various unique needs including those with disabilities because they were not properly prepared to address learner diversity. The majority of these pre-service teachers reported that they needed basic methodology including pre-requisite instructional skills for managing unique needs of individual children in regular classrooms. This was because they perceived that their training was theory-oriented instead of practice-oriented. In a qualitative study, Musengi and Chireshe (2012:107), using individual interviews and non-participant observations of Zimbabwean mainstream pre-service primary school teachers found that these teachers could not meaningfully interact with children who were deaf in the mainstream classrooms as a result of their lack of training in Sign Language. Majoko's (2017) descriptive qualitative study on 28 Zimbabwean Early Childhood Education (ECE) pre-service teachers using individual interviews, non-participant observation and document analysis established that these teachers had theoretical grounding on inclusion in education that did not help them to practically address the diversity of learners in their mainstream classes. Other studies on professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe include, "The State of Inclusive Education in Zimbabwe: Bachelor of Education (Special Needs Education) Students' Perceptions" (Chireshe, 2013:223); "Inclusive education practices in Zimbabwe" (Mtefpa, Mpofu & Chataika, 2007:342) and "Challenges of

implementing inclusion in Zimbabwe's education system" (Mafa, 2012). These studies found that pre-service teachers were ill-equipped to teach learners with diverse and unique needs in regular classrooms because of their lack of appropriate professional preparation for inclusion in education. The above studies were conducted on pre-service teachers who trained in different teachers' training colleges and universities in the country. My study therefore sought to examine the professional preparation for inclusion in education of graduate pre-service primary school teachers from a selected public university in Zimbabwe as the context for proposing strategies to enhance their professional preparation.

1.3 Statement of the problem

As revealed in the background to the study, Zimbabwe adopted inclusion in education in 1994 in compliance with global human rights instruments including the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (UNESCO, 1994) and the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (CRPD) (United Nations, 2006; Majoko, 2017). Consistent with countries that passed policies and legislation on or related to inclusion in education including the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 in the USA (Hodkinson, 2009), the Disability Standard for Education of 2005 in Australia (Forlin et al, 2013:4), the Education Act (Act 58:01 of 2002) in Botswana (Mukhopadhyay, 2013:74), the Law 62 of 2000 in Italy (Petrella, 2012:7) and the Education White Paper 6 (EWP6) of 2001 of South Africa (Mumford, 2013:72), the country has passed the Zimbabwe Education Act of 1987 as amended in 1996 and 2006 respectively, (Wadesango, Machingambi & Mutekwa, 2012), the Disabled Persons Act of 1996 and the Zimbabwe Constitution Amendment Number 20 of 2013, Section 75 in compliance with the above-mentioned global and African regional human rights instruments, among others. Thus, Zimbabwe has an international and national legal mandate to safeguard the inclusion of all learners in education regardless of their individual differences.

In alignment with other countries, including Finland (Sahlberg, 2010), Malaysia (Saad, Ibrahim & Nayan, 2013:674), Pakistan (Sharma, Shaukat & Furlonger, 2014:6),

Germany (Blume, Gerlach, Roters & Schimidt, 2019:4) and Ghana (Nketsia, Saloviita & Kofi, 2016), Zimbabwe professionally prepares pre-service teachers for inclusion in education in its teachers' training colleges and universities (Majoko, 2018). Nevertheless, as revealed in the background to the study, even after the completion of the professional preparation for inclusion in education, pre-service teachers in different countries, including Zimbabwe, report that they lack the positive dispositions, knowledge and skills to meet the individual needs of learners with diverse and unique needs in regular classes (World Report on Disability, 2011:5; Fayez, Dababneh & Jumilian, 2011:322). This can result in the wastage of national resources in teacher education institutions and impoverished pedagogy of learners with diverse and unique needs whose number is significantly increasing in mainstream classrooms as revealed in the background to the study. Unlike in other countries, including Ghana (Nketsia, Saloviita & Gyimah, 2016:1), the USA (Goff, Yang, Yang, Batt, Xie & You, 2020:1), Saudi Arabia (Rashed, 2020:1) and South Africa (Walton, 2017:101), there seems to be a dearth of research of teacher education institutions on the professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe. This may comprise research evidence-based professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwean universities. Thus, this study examined the professional preparation of graduate pre-service primary school teachers from a selected public university in Zimbabwe for inclusion in education as the context for proposing strategies to enhance their professional preparation.

1.4 Research aim

This study examined the professional preparation for inclusion in education of pre-service primary school teachers who graduated from a public university in Zimbabwe as the context for proposing strategies to enhance their professional preparation.

1.5 Research objectives

This study sought to:

- explore the understanding of inclusion in education of pre-service primary school teachers who graduated from a public university in Zimbabwe;

- examine the practices of inclusion in education of pre-service primary school teachers who graduated from a public university in Zimbabwe and
- propose strategies to enhance the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education.

1.6 Main research question

- How professionally prepared for inclusion in education are pre-service primary school teachers who graduated from a public university in Zimbabwe?

1.7 Research sub-questions

- How do pre-service primary school teachers who graduated from a public university in Zimbabwe understand inclusion in education?
- How do pre-service primary school teachers who graduated from a public university in Zimbabwe practice inclusion in education?
- What strategies can enhance the professional preparation of Zimbabwean university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education?

1.8 Rationale of the study

Scholarship, personal, policy and practice based reasons prompted me to undertake this study. Comparable to other countries including Jordan (Amr, 2011:399), South Africa (Donohue & Bornman, 2014:4), Bangladesh, Chile and Nepal (Sharma et al, 2013:5), Namibia (Chitiyo et al, 2016:16), Western America (Ajuwon, Zhou and Mullins, 2012:101) and Australia (Bloomfield & Nguyen, 2015:23), the professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe is a relatively recent innovation in teacher education. A study of this nature is therefore imperative. This study will reveal whether teacher professional preparation for inclusion in education offered at the participating university adequately prepares graduate pre-service primary school teachers for its practice. This is because universities are perceived as academically oriented to professionally prepare teachers to practice inclusion in education. Teachers are entrusted with the care of learners in mainstream schools and should adopt inclusion principles to achieve equality, access to education and the celebration of differences in these settings (DeLue, 2006: 117; Rofrano, 2007: 56).

Teacher education institutions in Zimbabwe are restructuring their pre-service teacher professional preparation curriculum to incorporate inclusion in education (Majoko, 2018:11). This study will reveal whether such realignment of pre-service teacher professional preparation for inclusion in education curriculum at the studied public university is consistent with international best practices in initial teacher education.

The professional preparation of pre-service teachers is integral for their practice of inclusion in education as it is foundational to access, participation, success and acceptance of all learners in regular classes regardless of their individual differences (World Report on Disability, 2011:222). This study will reveal the progress of professional preparation of pre-service teachers for the realization of inclusion in education. The Government of Zimbabwe has institutionalized, pro-inclusion policies and legislation (MoPSE, 2017). This study sought to ascertain if the professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe is in compliance with government policies and legislation and the international fraternity.

This study will draw upon lessons learnt from other countries that are successfully practicing inclusion in education. Unlike several countries including Finland (Lees & Schmidt, 2016:5), Canada (Smith, Villegas, Abrams, Moreno, Mills & Stern, 2015:109), Ghana (Akyeam, 2017:1), Malaysia (Hussin, 2016:85), Victoria and Queensland (Kline & Gibbs, 2015:67), there are limited case studies on the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe. This study will add to the literature given the limited base of case studies on the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe. As revealed in the background to the study, several previous studies on the professional preparation of pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe primarily focused on teacher training colleges while this study was carried out at a university. I have undergraduate and post graduate qualifications in special needs education. I also have 27 years of experience teaching children with diverse and unique needs but have been confronting instructional challenges. Consequently, I am interested in soliciting research and evidence-based

information on the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe.

1.9 An overview of the theoretical framework

The Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT) underpinned this study. According to Hasan and Kazlauskas (2014:9) CHAT is a lens through which human consciousness and reasoning are understood as manifestations of purposeful practical activity that occur in real life through the use of tools such as language. CHAT provides an opportunity to understand the inter-link between the human mind (consciousness), human activity (what humans do) and the outcome (desired goal) (Jones, Edwards & Filhi, 2014:7). Central to CHAT is the subject-object relationship, in this case, the university lecturer (doer) and teacher education (deed) that determines the outcome (professional preparation of graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education).

Lecturers use what Hasan and Kazlauskas (2014:11) call 'primary, secondary and tertiary tools' to realize their outcomes. These tools include media (primary), models and language (secondary) and environments (tertiary). Using the CHAT lens, the dynamics between lecturers and pre-service primary school teacher trainees and strategies of collaboration of lecturers in the professional preparation of pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education can easily be understood as they carry out purposeful activities aided by varied tools available in their institutional environments. Jones, Edwards and Filho, (2014:3) assert that CHAT situates action in the context in which language and cultural practices mediate all social action. Historical and cultural practices mediate the CHAT and is focused on individuals' actions which are best perceived inside a society in which they occur. Mediation involves individuals in a given social setting interacting with objects in a social environment by means of artifacts or practical instruments (Hardman, 2008:65). Thus, mediation determines the nature of external behaviour of human beings and his/her mental functioning in routine practices. In this context, mediation determines how graduate pre-service primary school teachers behave as they carry out their roles and responsibilities. CHAT is

relevant to educational pedagogy as it is centred on practical activities that cultural tools mediate (Jones et al, 2014:3). The professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education is a social system as societal factors influence it. Surrounding the teacher educator-teacher trainee relationship are social factors that influence the professional preparation of teachers (Bloomfield & Ngunyen, 2015:28; Jones et al., 2014:5). Consequently, CHAT is relevant for this study.

1.10 A brief description of the research methodology and design

1.10.1 Research paradigm

This study is embedded in the interpretivist/constructivist research paradigm. The ontological assumption of the interpretivist research paradigm is that there are multiple subjective realities which are relative and holistic in social life and cannot be studied in isolation but in totality (Szyjka, 2012:111; Yilmaz, 2013:314). The professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education was understood from their individual perspectives and practices as they carried out their roles and responsibilities. The epistemological assumption of the interpretivist/constructivist research paradigm is that the knower and the known are interlocked in the creation of knowledge during a research process (Rodwell, 2015:17). Individual interviews and non-participant observations were used to solicit data on the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education.

The methodological assumption of the interpretivist research paradigm is that, an interpretivist inquiry is multi-method in focus (Yilmaz, 2013:314). Individual interviews, non-participant observations and document analysis were used to collect data in this study. The interpretivist methodological focus is on understanding the uniqueness of individual cases in their natural settings (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011:8; Yilmaz, 2013:315) that are studied from an emic perspective (Szyjka, 2012:112). This study examined the professional preparation of graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education using non-participant observation, follow-up discussions and other methods.

The axiological assumption of the interpretivist research paradigm is that, a qualitative study's findings are subjective and value bound (Creswell, 2007:17; Yilmaz, 2013:314). The researcher should therefore understand participants as different individuals with different views and also as people with social roles (Juha, 2017:46). I was empathetic to understand the participants' world from their view point in the collection, presentation, analysis and discussion of the findings of the study. The rhetorical assumption of interpretivism is that, a study's findings are personalized in word form as there exists in qualitative research, an interactive researcher role (Yilmaz, 2013:314). Representative selected excerpts are used to present the findings of this study.

1.10.2 Research approach

This study is embedded in the qualitative research approach. According to Creswell (2009:176), "qualitative research is a form of interpretive inquiry in which researchers make an interpretation of what they see, hear and understand. Their interpretations cannot be separated from their own backgrounds, history, contexts and prior understandings". Thus, a qualitative research approach yields non-statistical research findings that are quality narrations of participants' views and experiences (Reiter & Bruce, 2010:3; Creswell, 2009:5). The findings of this study constitute narratives of individual participants. According to Shuttleworth (2010:2), a qualitative research approach provides a holistic understanding of phenomena by means of flexible data collection procedures. The qualitative research approach is holistic in nature (Kumar, 2011:123, Yin, 2012:14), uses multiple methods of data collection (Yin, 2013:9), uses an emergent design (Creswell, 2009:175; Taylor, Bogdan & DeVault, 2016:8) and the researcher is a key instrument (Merriam, 2009:15). Individual interviews, follow-up discussions, non-participant observations and document analysis were used to collect data.

1.10.3 Research design

A single case study research design was used in this study. This is a qualitative strategy of inquiry where the researcher explores an individual case in-depth through information gathering using different data collection procedures over a period of time (Creswell,

2014:43; Kumar 2011:123). A single case study research design examines a phenomenon in its real life natural context (Creswell, 2014:234). Graduate pre-service primary school teachers who were drawn from one public university were observed delivering lessons in their daily teaching and learning context, without manipulation of any variable. A single case study research design researches the 'how and why questions' for clarity (Hurley et al, 2011:113) and makes use of researchers as observers (Kurmar, 2011:123). This study examined how and why pre-service primary school teachers who graduated from a public university in Zimbabwe were professionally prepared for inclusion in education.

1.11 Population, sampling technique and sample

This study utilised typical case sampling to select both the study case of a university as well as pre-service primary school teachers who graduated from it. This sampling technique is ideally used when there is a deliberate need to gather data from those who are "information-rich" (Yin, 2011:88). According to Fick (2010:123), typical case sampling is used to select participants with vital knowledge and experience of the phenomenon studied. The university graduate pre-service primary school teachers who participated in this study were anticipated to demonstrate their professional preparation for inclusion in education through their practices in teaching of learners with diverse and unique needs in their regular classrooms.

The sample for this study was made up of 16 pre-service primary school teachers who graduated from a public university in Zimbabwe with a B. Ed Honours Degree with specialization in primary school education. Graduate pre-service primary school teachers who were eligible for participation in this study had: one year of teaching practice, a B. Ed Honours Degree in Education (Primary Pre-service) from the participating university, teaching at least one child with unique needs during the time of the study and the willingness to participate in the study based on informed consent. This purposive sample constituted teachers possessing what Kumar (2011:178) calls typical attributes of the population represented.

1.12 Data collection method

Qualitative research uses multiple methods to collect data (Yin, 2011:8; Pavan & Nagarekha, 2014:168). Individual interviews, document analysis, non-participant observation and follow-up discussions were used to collect data in this study. Natural dialogue transpiring during qualitative individual interviews, offer a thick and comprehensive understanding of the experiences of the participants of a study (Edwards & Holland, 2013:53). I interrogated the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education and gained an in-depth understanding of it.

Documents analysed included university academic regulations, university prospectus, university course outlines, learners' workbooks, teaching practice supervision forms and the contents of teaching practice files. Documents analysed in a qualitative study are authentic and provide contextual meanings (Flick, 2010:257). In this study, all documents had traceable authors, with some bearing the official logo and or stamp of the university. Non-participant observations of lessons were carried out to ascertain the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education.

1.13 Data analysis method

This study used Braun and Clarke's (2006) six-phase strategy of thematic analysis of data. These included becoming familiar with the data by reading and re-reading transcripts; generating initial codes through systematic organisation of data; searching for themes by way of collating similar codes into a theme, reviewing themes by ascertaining coherence and distinction of themes; defining themes to establish the essence of it and writing-up a report (Braun & Clarke, 2012:57). Thematic analysis takes a glance at all data gathered from all sources utilised in order to identify recurring issues in an effort to establish themes summative of participants' views (Hancock, 2009:24).

1.14 Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness in qualitative research is the degree of confidence in data interpretation and methods utilised to guarantee the quality of a study (Connelly, 2016:435; Patton, 2015:11). I observed trustworthiness pillars of transferability, credibility, dependability and conformability in this study. Data triangulation can be used to ensure credibility in qualitative research (Yin, 2011:8). Individual interviews, document analysis and non-participant observation were used in this study for triangulation of data. I also ensured credibility of the findings through what Mike (2011:6) calls prolonged engagement with participants. For participants to freely share data during its collection through individual interviews, I developed and maintained a cordial relationship with them through building a relationship with them before data collection. Transcribed data was sent to participants for verification of their contributions, promoting member-checking (Trochim & Donnelly, 2009:149). I then ensured dependability through providing a detailed and methodical report of the research process followed to execute this study. Conformability was ensured through submission of accurate and verbatim excerpts of the views of participants who were identified by pseudonyms. Qualitative research is based on evidence consisting of participants' actual language expressed (Willig, 2009: 162) and is regarded as representative of reality.

1.15 Ethical considerations

Research ethics are the norms and values that guide the conduct of the researcher and the participants of a study (American Psychological Association, 2010:1060). While it is significant that all researchers be aware of and observe research ethics, participants of the study should know their rights for a fair process of research. Research ethical issues observed in this study included permission, confidentiality, anonymity, informed consent, protection from harm and honesty with professional colleagues (Melbourne School of Psychological Sciences, 2015:1). These issues ensure that studies are executed in the best interest of individual, organisational and institutional research participants and are comprehensively presented in chapter 5.

1.15.1 Permission

According to Creswell (2014:134), “researchers need to have their research plans reviewed by an Institutional Review Board (IRB) on their college and university campuses.” In order to secure the approval of the research participants, I first completed the REC ethical clearance application form of UNISA to secure permission to carry out this study (see Appendix D). Thereafter, I applied for permission from the Head Offices of the MoHTES&TD and the MoPSE of Zimbabwe respectively (see Appendices F & M). With permission letters from the MoHTES&TD as well as the MoPSE, I visited the provincial and district education offices of Masvingo province respectively requesting permission to carry out this study in their schools. Permission was granted where both the provincial and district offices provided their stamps of authorization on one letter (see Appendix L). Thereafter, I applied through the registrar of the studied university, for the permission to carry out this study. As appended (see Appendix N), permission was secured from the Ethics Committee of the university from which the graduate pre-service primary school teachers who participated in this study were drawn.

1.15.2 Anonymity and confidentiality

Any researcher should respect the right to confidentiality of the participants of a study (Leedy & Ormrod, 2009:129; Neuman, 2011:116). I firstly informed participants that the information they provided will not be disclosed. Individual interviews were carried out after working hours in the classrooms of the participants to avoid interfering with their daily teaching and learning schedules and interference of other stakeholders. I stored all tape recordings in a locked cabinet for safe keeping and retained all soft copies of data gathered on a password protected computer. It is an ethical obligation of any researcher to observe and maintain the right to anonymity of the participants of a study (Leedy & Ormrod, 2009:124). I used pseudonyms to identify study participants. Anonymity was also realized through the thematic presentation of the data.

1.15.3 Informed consent

In a study, participants should willingly volunteer to take part after being provided with information regarding the likely benefits or otherwise of participating (Grix, 2010:144). All the university graduate pre-service primary school teachers who participated in this study were informed about the associated risks as well as advantages and disadvantages. I clarified to the participating university graduate pre-service primary school teachers that they could withdraw from this study should they wish to do so for any reason without providing an explanation. Consent Forms (see Appendix H) were issued to participants, requesting them to sign and confirm their willingness to participate in this study. Similarly, parents were requested to sign assent forms and parental consent forms for their minor children to participate in this study.

1.15.4 Protection from harm

Participants of a study should not be exposed to undue physical or psychological harm (Creswell, 2009:96). University graduate pre-service primary school teachers and the learners in their classrooms were not exposed to any form of harm such as anger, insecurity, emotional torture and prejudice. Safety of participants was kept and maintained by observing them in their natural settings and not asking them about potentially sensitive issues in the interviews.

1.15.5 Honesty with professional colleagues

According to Punch (2009:313), it is the ethical responsibility of any researcher to report findings of a study in a complete and honest manner without misrepresentation of the facts. I safeguarded honesty with professional colleagues through non-fabrication of data to support particular conclusions. I fully acknowledged all use of ideas from cited authors used in this study.

1.16 Significance of the study

This study is expected to add to the literature base on the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education in

Zimbabwe. This study is envisaged to yield strategies that teachers may use to inform their practices in inclusion in education which can improve the teaching and learning of all children in regular classrooms. Teacher education institutions in Zimbabwe and other countries are expected to be afforded strategies that could improve their professional preparation of pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education. The study is also envisaged to yield information that can inform universities on their strengths and shortcomings in the professional preparation of pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education that can enable them to cope with the ever changing needs of children with diverse and unique needs in regular pedagogical settings.

Furthermore, this study is expected to enhance the quality of the education provided to diverse children including those with disabilities given the inclusive practices recommended for adoption by teachers. To policy makers, the study is expected to afford valuable information for decision-making with regards to the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education. The MoHTES&TD and teacher education institutions in Zimbabwe and elsewhere can use the knowledge and information from this study to inform their formulation and/ or amendment of policies and changing of practices in the professional preparation of pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education for improved delivery of services.

1.17 Limitations of the study

This study focused on one university that professionally prepares pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe. Nevertheless, several other universities in the country professionally prepare pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education. Graduate pre-service primary school teachers who participated in this study could have been drawn from all teacher education universities in the country. Thus, the transferability of the findings of the study to these universities is unknown. Due to constraints of time, finance and material resources, this study was confined to a single case. Data was gathered from only graduate pre-service primary school teachers who trained at the studied university. However, other stakeholders, including school administrators, district education officers, parents and university

lecturers could also have illuminated on the professional preparation of graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education.

1.18 Overcoming the limitations of the study

Typical case sampling in a qualitative study promotes the collection of unique and rich information of value to the study based on the study's purpose (Flick, 2010:124). Members of the target population possess similar characteristics in a sample conveniently selected (Etyikan, Musa & Alkassim, 2016:4). This results in transferability of the findings of a study to other contexts. In this study, typical case sampling was used to select the graduate pre-service primary school teachers who trained at the studied university since they were perceived to be information-rich about their professional preparation for inclusion in education. Using this sampling technique in this study also reduced challenges of time and financial constraints. Typical sampling is least costly in terms of time, money and effort (Marshall, 2010:523).

1.19 Delimitation of the study

The study was carried out on a university that offers teacher education in the Masvingo District in the Masvingo province of Zimbabwe. It explored the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education. It used individual interviews, document analysis, non-participant observation and follow-up discussions to collect data from 16 graduate pre-service primary school teachers.

1.20 Definition of key terms

1.20.1 Teacher professional preparation

Teacher preparation refers to the systematic, theoretical and practical training of prospective teachers through inculcating knowledge and skills that are required to perform their duties more meaningfully in and outside the classroom (Zascavage & Winterman, 2009:46). According to Schmidt, Blomeke, Tatto et al (2011:2), teacher professional preparation is a process involving teacher training institutions designing varied and complementary courses as well as field experiences that are meant to equip

prospective teachers with relevant and appropriate competencies applicable in classroom situations. In this study, teacher professional preparation refers to university training of classroom practitioners meant to equip them with pre-requisite positive dispositions, knowledge and skills to meet the diverse and unique needs of learners in ordinary primary school classrooms.

1.20.2 Inclusion in education

Inclusion in education is a practice where all children feel accepted by their school communities through supported teaching and learning for them to equally participate for meaningful learning (Australian Department for Education and Child Development, 2018:4). Florian (2011:320) refers to inclusion in education as a means of increasing the participation of diverse children including those with disabilities at the same time reducing their exclusion from the culture and curriculum of their school communities. Inclusion in education is the accommodation of all children, regardless of the physical, intellectual, social, emotional, linguistic or other conditions, in regular schools and the provision of child-centred pedagogy capable of successfully educating all of them (Foreman & Arthur-Kelly, 2008:109).

According to Farrell (2010:3), inclusion in education is a process in which school communities with collaboration from local and government authorities eliminate barriers to interaction, participation and learning in schools. UNESCO (2009:126) refers to inclusion in education as a response to children's diversity and their unique needs and abilities through the promotion of individual participation and the elimination of all types of discrimination. In this study, inclusion in education or inclusive education is a process that promotes acceptance by teachers and the school system of children with diverse backgrounds through removal of barriers to their access, participation, acceptance and success in ordinary/mainstream/regular classrooms in their neighbourhood schools.

1.20.3 Children with disabilities

According to UNICEF (2017:1), children with disabilities are those who are vulnerable to marginalization, exclusion and discrimination manifested by lack of supportive legislation to an extent of failure to realise their human rights. The World Report on

Disability (2011:5) defines children with disabilities as those with physical, sensory, cognitive, language and health impairments that interfere with their learning. In this study, children with disabilities are learners with challenges in their physical, cognitive, communication and social adjustment.

1.20.4 Disability

Disability is defined by the WHO (2011:7) as the negative aspects of the interaction between individuals with a health condition and their personal and environmental factors. Trolley, Haas and Patti (2009:3) define disability as the disadvantage or restriction of activity caused by society that takes no consideration of individuals with impairments leading to their exclusion from mainstream activities. In this study, disability is a functional limitation in individuals which is a result of physical, intellectual or sensory disabilities.

1.20.5 Pre-service teacher professional preparation

Pre-service teacher professional preparation is the initial teacher training which equips trainee teachers with a regular type of education (Ngwarai & Ngara, 2013:318). In this study, professional preparation of pre-service teachers is the initial training of teachers that equips them with positive attitudes, knowledge, skills and competencies to address the diversity of learners/children/students in regular/mainstream/ordinary classrooms in their neighbourhood schools.

1.20.6 Typically developing learners

Typically developing learners are those in general education classrooms who are non-disabled and do not receive special education services (Hines, 2018). Learners who are referred to as typically developing are those who perform within a standard deviation of the mean of all learners' performance and do not get special education services (Webster, 2019). In this study, typically developing learners are those in regular classrooms who do not have developmental challenges and do not require specialised support.

1.20.7 Average learners

According to Tabour (2009), average learners are children who need their teachers to identify and develop their interests and create opportunities to learn using varied teaching approaches. Rau (2015) defines average learners as those who work progressively and modestly and do not require too much intervention as they can achieve middle grades. In this study, average learners shall be taken to mean those who can gradually progress with minimum support.

1.21 Organisation of the research programme

Chapter 1 has outlined the research problem and its context which constitutes the introduction, background to the study, statement of the problem, main research question, research sub-questions, research aim, research objectives, rationale for the study, significance of the study, an overview of the theoretical framework, a brief description of the research methodology, delimitations, limitations and overcoming the limitations of the study and definition of the key terms. Chapter 2 will focus on the theoretical framework that informed this study.

Chapter 3 will present a review related to the international literature on historical development of inclusion in education and professional preparation of pre-service teachers. This constitutes the historical background to inclusion in education, definition of inclusion in education, models of conceptualising inclusion in education and the future of inclusion in education. It furthermore discussed contradictions associated with inclusion in education, how inclusion is understood and practices in education in selected developed and developing countries, pre-service teachers' understanding of inclusion in education, pre-service teachers' practices in inclusion in education and strategies to enhance the professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education.

Chapter 4 will present a review of related Zimbabwean literature on historical development of inclusion in education and professional preparation of pre-service teachers. This constitutes the historical background of inclusion in education in

Zimbabwe with a review of pre-service teachers' understanding of inclusion in education in Zimbabwe, pre-service teachers' practices in inclusion in education in Zimbabwe and strategies to enhance the professional of preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe.

Chapter 5 will present the research methodology of the study constituting the research paradigm, research approach, research design, research methods, recruitment of participants and the study's sample. It also includes data collection instruments, data collection procedures, data analysis, the ethical considerations as well as trustworthiness of the study.

Chapter 6 will present and analyse data constituting the profile of study participants and the themes and sub-themes of the findings of the study. Chapter 7 will present a discussion of the findings. These constitute the graduate pre-service primary school teachers' understanding of inclusion in education, graduate pre-service primary school teachers' practices in inclusion in education as well as the strategies that could enhance the professional preparation of graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education. Finally, Chapter 8 will present the summary of study's findings, conclusions and recommendations.

1.22 Summary of chapter

This chapter presented the study problem and its context. This included the background to the study, statement of the problem, research aim and objectives, main research question and research sub-questions and the rationale for the study. The chapter also presented an overview of the theoretical framework and a brief description of the research methodology of the study including the research paradigm, research approach, research design and the population, sampling technique and sample, data collection methods and the method of data analysis. This chapter further presented the trustworthiness of the study, ethical considerations, significance of the study, limitations of the study, overcoming the limitations, the delimitation of the study, definition of key

terms and organisation of the research programme. The subsequent chapter will present the theoretical framework that informed this study.

CHAPTER 2: THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK FOR THE STUDY

2.1 Introduction

This study examined the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe as the context for proposing strategies to enhance their professional preparation. The previous chapter presented the study problem and its context. This chapter presents the theoretical framework for the study. The subsequent section presents the CulturalHistorical Activity Theory (CHAT) that underpinned the study.

2.2The Cultural-Historical Activity Theory

CHAT, developed by Engestrom (1987), is the theoretical framework for this study. According to Asghar (2013:22) CHAT is a product of the Activity Theory (AT) of the psychologist Vygotsky that has undergone a series of generational evolutions. While Walt and Wolhuter (2018:115) reveal that CHAT evolved from the sociologist Parson's work, Postholm (2015:43) asserts that it was derived from Vygotsky's ideas as interpreted by Engestrom. The latter's assertion was that the content and process of thinking takes place in relationship to others, rather than in isolation within one person's mind (Cole & Engeström, 1993:1).

CHAT is an expansion of various theories coined together (Plakitsi, 2013:3) and is therefore a combination of psychological and sociological ideas that help to explain the nature of human activities in social, cultural, historical and educational contexts (Walt & Wolhuter, 2018:116). This includes the professional preparation of graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education. These activities in educational discourse are regarded as activity systems where an activity is defined by Shepel (2008:214) as a social construct that is mediated by culture.

The developmental psychologists and sociologists referred to above explored the ways in which individuals interact with the broad cultural and historical context in which they participate (Vygotsky, 1978; Leontiev, 1978). An extension of this theory by Engeström (1987) brought in the aspect of a community resulting in changing attention from an

individual's activities to those of a group-based activity system. Based on Vygotsky's (1978) work, human tools or instruments were viewed as critical elements used to mediate the relationship that exists between the subject (individual) and the object (motive). Engeström (1987) extended the focus of CHAT by proposing what he termed "rules" that mediate this relationship involving the subject, the community and division of labour which in turn mediate the relationship between the community and the object. A model of an activity system was developed by Engeström (1987) comprising seven key interconnected elements that include the subject, object, community, instruments, division of labour, rules and outcome as illustrated in the diagram below (see Figure 2.1).

CHAT is underpinned by the works of the Russian scholars Leontiev and Vygotsky; German scholars Engels, Hegel, Kant and Marx as well as the French scholar Luria (Blomfield & Nguyen, 2015:28) who argued that Engestrom's (1987) development of CHAT from these theorists manifests three generations in its progression. The first generation is characterised by Vygotsky's ideas centered on actions and agency of individuals and the relationship between subject and object as mediated by cultural tools also called artefacts (Hasan & Kazlauskas, 2014:9; Hardman, 2008:65). Vygotsky (1978) believed that it is difficult to understand individuals outside their cultural environments. CHAT therefore situates action in context as it believes that an individual's actions cannot be understood in isolation of the environment in which they are practiced (Jones, Edwards & Filho, 2014:3). Similarly, society without its individual members who design, produce and make use of tools can also not be understood (Engestroom, 2001:134). From Vygotsky's perspective, all social action is seen as mediated action premised on the idea that humans are not passive participants but act within a shared social environment that is characterised by interactions towards meaning-making (Jones, Edwards & Tium, 2014:7).

In this study, CHAT views the professional preparation of graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe as an activity that constitutes varied elements as depicted in Figure 2.1 below. The core of an activity is characterised by three complementary features (Abella, 2016:30; Knor, 2010:8), namely, the subject

(human doer) represented in this study by the university lecturers who are teacher educators who train pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education. Teacher educators who are in a position to inculcate in pre-service primary school teachers the necessary knowledge and skills for inclusion in education should be supportive of the transformation of an activity system (Waitoller & Kozleski, 2013:35). Other subjects, including stakeholders in the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe are the government, education ministers, non-governmental organisations, primary school administrators, education officers, mentors, parents and learners.

According to Foot (2014:5), in an activity system, there is collective activity of different actors. In this study, the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education is a collective and multi-dimensional object (Lund & Eriksen, 2016:58). This object occurs in an institutional setting with many actors who mediate it using different tools to realise its practice. In principle, actors possess a similar object (realisation of inclusion in education) in mind. The actors also have different practices towards the realisation of their aim or object. In this case, the government of Zimbabwe provides funding to public universities and its MoHTES&TD through the ZIMCHE which monitors the professional preparation of graduate pre-service primary school teachers while parents meet the tuition fees for the training of these graduates. According to Walt and Wolhuter (2018:121), practices differ from subject to subject since the different subjects possess diverse mediating inputs including the quality of lecturers, instructional methodology, human, material and financial resources, motivation and infrastructure. CHAT is an ideal framework for this study since it lays the bedrock for examining praxis that values the complex interactional nature of teacher education (Leko & Brownell, 2011:229) including the professional preparation of graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education.

Central to an activity system is the object or purpose of the activity which is also regarded as the deed or what is being done by the subject (Abella, 2016:29) and the outcomes which could be intended or unintended (Dolonen, 2014:3). In this study, the

object was the professional preparation of graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education. It is the relationship between the subject and the object that makes the core of an activity as these are interlinked (Jones et al, 2014:7). In this study, the relationship between the university lecturer or teacher educator (doer) and teacher education (deed) determines the outcome (the professional preparation of graduate pre-service primary school teacher for inclusion in education/inclusive teacher). The human doer's actions in executing an activity forms the focus and purpose of an activity, that is, while the object of an activity makes up an activity's focus and purpose, the subject of an activity brings with it the subject's different motives (Hasan & Kazlauskas, 2014:9).

The main idea of CHAT is that all human activity is mediated (Hardman, 2008:65; Jones, Edwards & Filho, 2014:7), including the professional preparation of graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education. Lampert-Shepel (2008: 214) asserts that an activity is a socially constructed and culturally mediated human action. The vertices to Engestrom's triangle in Figure 2.1, below depict mediations occurring within an activity system, that is, the tools mediating interaction between the subject and object while rules mediate interactions between the community and the subject. Similarly, the division of labour mediates interactions between the community and the object (Georg, 2011:2).

Mediation in this study involves lecturers (individuals) in the university from which graduate primary school teachers were drawn interacting with the motives behind the activity (object) in a social environment by means of practical artifacts (Hardman, 2008:65). Mediation, which is the interaction taking place between the subject and the object through the use of tools represented in this study by lecturers equipping primary school teacher trainees with pre-requisite attitudes, skills and knowledge on inclusion in education, determines the nature of external behaviour of people, namely, graduate pre-service primary school teachers and their mental functioning in routine practices.

From a CHAT perspective, human actions are mediated by cultural tools as interaction occurs in social activities (Vygotsky, 1978:56; Abella, 2016:29). Thus, individual action of graduate pre-service primary school teachers is socially mediated as their

consciousness and meaning-making are constructed in social activities. Interaction offers individuals a platform for learning, hence collaboration promotes cognition (Vygotsky, 1978:57). As CHAT theorises the significance of context in learning, three common concerns have to be taken into account when applying it in practice. These, according to Danish (2018:2), are that every contextual detail of CHAT matters and there is a dialectical relationship between individuals and the collective as individuals cannot be understood without understanding the group in which they live. Individuals furthermore perform better when those more capable support them, and thus teacher trainees practice inclusion in education if they are trained by competent teacher educators.

The second generation of CHAT is credited to Engestrom (1987) (Nussbaumer, 2012:39). While Vygotsky (1978) focused on the concept of mediation where human beings are catalysts who react to mediating objects of the environment like tools that are instrumental in bringing about an outcome, Engestrom focused on the inter-relationships that exist between the individual and his community. He also paid attention to human beings' history, context as well as the interaction of the situation and activity (Nussbaumer, 2012:39). The second generation also focuses on the collective and how the activity itself influences both the individual development of subjects and the growth of society (Dolan, 2017:57). The essence of the second generation of the CHAT theory is in the interaction amongst its seven elements of the subject, instruments, rules, community, division of labour and objects to produce an outcome (Engestrom, 1987:78). In this case, it is the subject that works to realise an object resulting in an outcome while the rules, instruments, community and division of labour influence or mediate attainment of the object and the resultant outcome (Nussbaumer, 2012:39). Thus, Engestrom (1987) factored in CHAT, the organisational aspect of an activity in a workplace (Dolan, 2017:57).

The third generation is dominated by Loentiev's (1978) postulation that located individual group activity within the confinements of a collective and collaborative activity system since learning is regarded as a social experience. Loentiev asserts that human activity is never isolated as it occurs in context and is, in turn, influenced by society

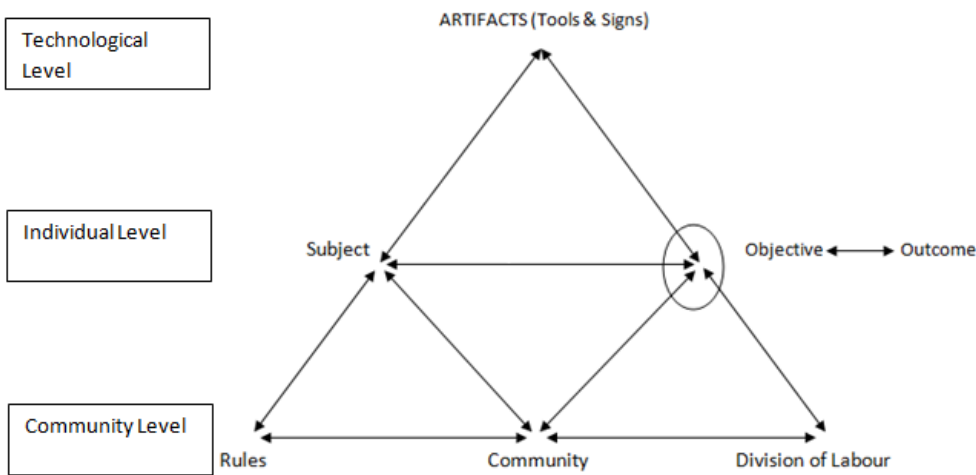
(Georg, 2011:2). In this study, teacher education and pre-service primary school teachers' learning is an activity or process that is grounded within socio-cultural and historical contexts (Anderson & Stillman, 2013:1). There was a shift in focus from an individual meaning making to a collective activity system. Engestroom thus developed the CHAT framework to demonstrate the connectedness and dynamics of elements of an activity system particularly community, rules and the division of labour, in terms of group actions and their cultural mediation (Bloomfield & Nguyen, 2015:29). In this model, the object is the goal of the activity which is signified by an oval shape to illustrate existence of space in an activity system that can be characterised by possible tensions and changes. The third generation emphasises a joint activity system with a minimum of two interacting activity systems resulting in possible contradictions historically accruing between activity systems and the need to change systems through the establishment of partnerships.

CHAT is a significant theoretical instrument for an in-depth and holistic analysis of activity systems and their possible complexities and contradictions (Walt & Wilhuter, 2018:122). Accordingly, CHAT is a viable tool in the realm of qualitative educational research (Knor, 2010:32). For this reason, CHAT has been instrumental in aiding varied actors in educational settings to understand their individual roles or subject positions (Asghar, 2013:19). CHAT is thus characterised by a number of assumptions (Tkachenko & Louis, 2017:145) including 'object-orientation', meaning that activity systems are open, ever-changing and skewed towards objects of human activities which are socially constructed. The object of an activity makes up the focus or purpose of an activity (Hasan, 2014:9). The object of an activity goes beyond its goal to becoming robust concerns and carriers of motives and generators and "foci of attention, volition, effort, and meaning" (Engeström, 2015: xvi). Multi-voicedness is another assumption meaning that activity systems contain multiple actors who bring different perspectives (Foot, 2014:5). There is also historicity implying that activity systems evolve and develop over times during which tensions arise that need to be understood in the context of their historical background. According to Danish (2018:2) CHAT theorises the significance of context in learning. Contradictions also characterise CHAT as they are the main drivers of change and the development of activity systems.

Contradictions among activities provide tension needed to cause evolution (Georg, 2011:2) and these contradictions are historically accumulating structural tensions that take place both within and beyond activity systems (Engeström, 2001). Transformation potential is also an assumption of CHAT which implies that activity systems move through long cycles of transformation. In so doing, they create a dynamic framework that is applicable to both formal and informal processes in groups which supports a sociological approach to studying collective learning within structured social relationships (Young, 2008). While carrying out the activity, the subject transforms the environment as well as developing itself (Abella, 2016:30).

FIGURE 2.1: A Theoretical structure of the activity theory

Engeström's (1999) ACTIVITY THEORETICAL STRUCTURE of a Human Activity System and its 3 levels influencing participation



[Adapted from Engeström, 1987: 78]

CHAT is applicable to many specific and collaborative disciplines including education and organisational learning (Georg, 2011:1) and it is a relevant framework for this study as it examines pre-service teachers' learning for inclusion in education (Hancock & Miller, 2017:2). In essence, CHAT is the ideal lens for this study through which stakeholders could better comprehend human activity occurring in a social environment since it is relevant to pedagogy given its focus on practice that is mediated by cultural

tools (Jones et al, 2014:3). Hardman (2008:65) views pedagogy as a sophisticated social system whose course is influenced by socio-cultural factors. The same applies to the professional preparation of pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education as a social process that is executed in the Zimbabwean context. This is premised on the fact that the professional preparation of pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education is interwoven with teaching and learning of students within specific situational limitations. According to Jones et al (2014:5), surrounding the educator-student relationships are social factors that influence teacher professional preparation activities. Thus, teacher education pedagogy becomes a social system as it is influenced by social factors. From the CHAT perspective, university lecturers are the teacher educators while the professional preparation of primary school teachers for inclusion in education should be seen as a complex pedagogical activity.

According to Blarke and Pope (2008:62), social life is critical in the learning process. Consistently, Bloomfield and Nguyen (2015:28) aver that actions, learning and meaning-making are premised on the culture of the society in which the learner belongs and not on individual perception. Individuals are therefore best understood in the context of their culture. Unlike animal activity as in Pavlov's stimulus-response model, human activity is purposeful and is achievable through actions that involve the use of either physical or psychological tools. It is the central idea of CHAT that all social action is mediated mainly by language and other cultural means (Jones et al, 2014:3). According to Hasan and Kazlauskas (2014:9), language is one such useful tool used to realise collaborative human activity. CHAT is a lens through which human consciousness and reasoning are understood as manifestations of purposeful practical activity occurring in real life through the use of tools such as language (Jones, Edwards & Filho, 2014:3). This is applicable to the professional preparation of graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education.

From a CHAT perspective, an activity is a dynamic and collaborative holistic construct that is goal-oriented and should be contextually understood in cultural and historical environments (Hasan & Kazlauskas, 2014:10). Teaching a university course for example, is a holistic activity. For purposes of this thesis, the professional preparation of

graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe is such a good example of this high level construct. Its dynamic nature is explained by the kind of inter-relationship existing between activities, actions and operations that accompany it. In an activity (professional preparation of pre-service primary school teachers), the doer (teacher educator or lecturer) has an object for graduate pre-service primary schoolteachers to practice inclusion in education (inclusive primary school teachers) set before carrying out a series of actions (providing inclusion in education information, instructional pedagogy, TP visits, etc.) to realise it. Actions taken are consciously and purposely executed. During the professional preparation of pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education by university lecturers, a number of operations determined by the conditions of the education environment that are cultural or historical (policy, legislation, attitudes, etc.) influence the activity taking place.

Mediation is a two-way concept where an activity is mediated by and also mediates the physical and psychological tools used and the social context of the activity (Hasan & Kazlauskas, 2014:11). Activity tools are facilitating devices that provide signs to the subject in directing them towards the execution of a particular action (Er, 2017:387). In the professional preparation of pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education, the tools used by lecturers were (i) primary or physical which included modules, course outlines, lecture notes, (ii) secondary such as media, technological devices such as videos, models, assignments and human first language and (iii) tertiary or environmental factors such as the policies, academic regulations as well as cultural norms and values to achieve their outcomes. With regards to the use of tools, actors are required at each level of the activity system to make use of them (Dolonen, 2014:4). Using the CHAT lens, lecturer-teacher trainee dynamics as well as how lecturers collaborate in the professional preparation of pre-service primary school teachers, can easily be understood as they carry out purposeful activities aided by various tools available in their institutional environments.

In designing the curriculum for the professional preparation of pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education, it is critical that teacher educators be actively involved as co-designers who would defend and exercise ownership of their ideas to

policy makers and colleagues. Classroom teachers likewise, need be considered as they would suggest features they feel are critical for practicing inclusion in education. The professional preparation of pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education should therefore be implemented through involving both the universities and schools as partners in influencing the teacher education curriculum. Bringing in different actors, however, has not been without its demerits. Structural tensions exist where there are human practices though they are a potential source of development as they provide new insights into the activity undertaken (Dolonen, 2014:4).

CHAT advocates for the creation of partnerships between universities and schools which have the potential to transform activity systems. Collaboration and professionalism in the interactions between two activity systems towards a shared objective help reduce tensions (Bloomfield & Nguyen, 2015:31). Teacher education universities should work hand in glove with schools that accommodate teacher trainees on TP so that school administrators and mentors, for example, are informed of the university's expectations with regards to supporting and assessing mentees. CHAT also offers a deep understanding of how people collaborate in carrying out purposeful and collective activities as they are assisted by complicated tools in today's complex and dynamic environments in organisations.

Sophisticated tools applicable to the professional preparation of pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education include computers with jaws for teacher trainees who are blind that are voice-activated as well as embossers for printed material in Braille. While those who are hard of hearing need hearing aids that are ear-planted to amplify sound, those with physical disabilities and motor disabilities may need automated wheel chairs. CHAT provides practitioners an opportunity to understand the patterns of activities, situations or problems in varied cultural contexts (Hasan & Kazlauskas, 2014:12).

2.3 Principles of the Cultural Historical Activity Theory

Six interrelated principles underpin CHAT including the orientation of the object, subjects as actors occupied in activities (Barhoumi, 2015:224), multi-voicedness of activity, historicity of activity, contradictions as driving forces of change in activity and expansive cycles as possible forms of transformation in activity (Engestrom, 2001:134). Orientedness advances that all artefact-mediated actions by individuals or group members of a community making up an object-oriented activity system are goal-directed (Engestrom, 2001:136). Thus, CHAT focuses on the interrelationship between the subject, mediating tools and object orientation (Hancock & Miller, 2017:4). The collaborative work of university lecturers (subject) in an activity system use tools such as lecture-room materials and instructional strategies to realise the object of professional preparation of pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education. The teaching by lecturers and participation by teacher trainees during lectures and TP are collective operations that are directed towards achieving an object with socio-cultural properties such as the inclusion in regular primary school settings or collaborative curriculum design for professional preparation of pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education.

Secondly, subjects as actors operate at the individual level of CHAT (Engestrom, 1987:78) where teacher trainees, for example, in the teacher professional preparation programme for inclusion in education are contextual subjects engaged in collaborative learning. The third principle is the multi-voicedness of activity systems (Barhoumi, 2015:224). This means that an activity system is always a community of multiple points of view, traditions and interests (Hancock & Miller, 2017:4). The professional preparation of graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education as an activity system involves several perspectives from its community of university administrators, lecturers, supportive staff and teacher trainees. While the government may be interested in promoting educational equity for all its citizens, the university administration may view the professional preparation of pre-service primary school teachers as an opportunity to promote its niche area of inclusion in education. Similarly, lecturers may have different perceptions of inclusion in education. According to Dolonen

(2014:7), lecturers in this case can be regarded as both co-analysts and co-designers of the curriculum and whatever challenges they encounter during teaching will be subject to discussion during their design meetings. When subjects (lecturers) are involved in transformational action, they engage in a certain type of praxis that facilitates their development of critical awareness or reflection of their experiences (lecture-deliveries) that ultimately result in them being able to solve or reduce tensions associated with their questioning of oppressive structures (Friere, 2010:10). According to Engestrom (2001:137), multiple-voicedness increases in networks of interacting activity systems thereby promoting contradictions and innovations that bring about transformation of an activity system. The multi-voicedness is multiplied in networks of interacting activity systems and this is a source of trouble and innovation, demanding actions of translation and negotiation (Dolonen, 2014:5).

The fourth principle of CHAT is historicity. According to Engestrom (2001:136) activity systems are established and become transformed with time as their problems and potential can only be understood against their own history. This should in turn be studied as local history of the activity and its objects, and as history of the theoretical ideas and tools that have shaped the activity. Hancock and Miller (2017:5) posit that an activity system should be seen in its historical context characterised by past personal and cultural experiences that influence activity. The professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education was analysed against the teacher educators' and teachers' practices, attitudes of the activity system's community towards the philosophy as well as how these have evolved to establish the activity system. Graduate pre-service primary school teachers' previous coursework and experiences, their exposure and induction to inclusion, the history of local societies, the climate of and for teacher accountability, the global history of the inclusion concept, procedures and tools employed and accumulated in the local activity were also considered. According to Jones et al (2014:12), within a community, there is a given division of labour with responsibilities and power constantly negotiated. Therefore, historicity holds that because of the division of labour in an activity that creates different positions for community participants, each participant carries his or her own diverse

history while the activity system itself carries multiple-layers of history depicted in its mediating artifacts and rules.

The fifth principle of CHAT involves contradictions as driving forces of change in activity. Contradictions occur in every collaborative and collective activity and are sources of innovation that result in re-thinking, re-designing and executing the activity (Foot, 2014:16). Thus, deep structural tensions exist in human practices inclusive of the professional preparation of graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education.

The last principle is that of expansive cycles as possible forms of transformation in activity. When contradictions happen due to different perceptions and interest in an activity, tensions arise but can promote expansive learning (Engestrom, 2001:133). This is specifically learning acquired through the development of new insights or extensive transformations in activity systems where they undergo lengthy periods of change. As contradictions of an activity system multiply, some individual actors start to question and deviate from its established norms to establish a collective change effort (Engestrom, 2001:136). When lecturers, for example, question the applicability of inclusion in education without relevant mediating artifacts, they may start to improvise and advocate for the use of locally available resources including the use of culturally acceptable artifacts. Similarly, when teachers notice the contradiction between school practices as a result of school rules, tool appropriation and division of labour, versus the object (practicing inclusion in education), far reaching learning takes place. According to Lund and Eriksen (2016:58), an expansive transformation is realised when the object and motive of the activity are re-conceptualised to embrace a more robust spectrum of possibilities than in the previous mode of the activity. These six principles provided a framework for analysis of the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe as the context for proposing strategies to enhance their professional preparation.

2.4 Summary of chapter

The current chapter presented the theoretical framework that informed the present study. A diagrammatic structure of CHAT as a human activity system was also presented and explained, followed by an outline of its principles. In the following chapter, a review of related international literature on professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education will be presented.

CHAPTER 3: REVIEW OF RELATED INTERNATIONAL LITERATURE ON THE HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF INCLUSION IN EDUCATION AND THE PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION OF PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS

3.1 Introduction

This study examined the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe as the context for proposing strategies to enhance their professional preparation. The previous chapter presented the theoretical framework for the study. This chapter presents a review of the related international literature on the historical development of inclusion in education and the professional preparation of pre-service teachers illuminating the research gaps this study will fill. This includes the international historical development of inclusion in education by reviewing inclusion in education in selected developed and developing countries and its relationship to the focus of this study. The chapter also presents a review of the international literature on professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education.

The literature review is presented based on the sub-headings derived from the sub-questions of the study, namely, pre-service teachers' understanding of inclusion in education; pre-service teachers' practices in inclusion in education and the strategies to enhance the professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education. The sub-section that follows presents the historical background to the international development of inclusion in education and its relationship to the professional preparation of pre-service teachers for its implementation in different countries.

3.2 Historical background to international development of inclusion in education

The treatment of children with disabilities has evolved through several eras (Fryson & Cromby, 2013:1164, Staniland, 2011:17). These include the Era of Extermination or Fatalism also called the Dark Ages (Staniland, 2011:17) which was characterised by the practice of killing these children (Wagithunu, 2014:117) perceived as possessed by evil spirits or cursed (Johnston, 2005:22). This was because of the dominance of the medical

discourse of disability that advanced that exceptionality was ingrained in people (Majoko, 2016). Such a practice could be attributed to the lack of knowledge and information on aetiology and management of disabilities. The era of extermination violated the right of children with disabilities to life as enshrined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, Chapter II, Section 4, Article 3 which states that, “Everyone has the right to life, liberty and security of person” (UN, 1948:2). The right to life is a moral principle which safeguards one’s life from being taken away by another human being.

In Africa, the nature of treatment and management of children with disabilities is not properly documented though some countries regarded such children as possessed with ancestral spirits, cursed or as some magical forces beyond the scope of human understanding (Wagithunu, 2014:117). Disability though a social construct, was closely associated in Africa with “idiocy and the evils of mankind” (Mapuranga & Mutswanga, 2014:8). The treatment of children with disabilities in African countries during the extermination era was however almost identical to the European, Asian or American continents.

In Europe inhumane treatment particularly of children with intellectual disabilities prevailed until 1972 (Clement, 2013:59; Gifford & Zezulka, 2003:194) when the Sexual Sterilization Act of Alberta (1928) was repealed and the Rights Revolution in both Canada and Australia took centre stage (Clement, 2013:88). The Rights Revolution in both countries was transformative in the lives of children with disabilities in compliance with the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UN, 1948). This declaration and its subsequent policies after its ratification by Canada could be attributed to her cessation of inhuman treatment of people with disabilities.

In the Middle Ages, there was the Era of Ridicule in which children with physical and motor disabilities such as those termed ‘dwarfs’ and those with intellectual disabilities were made clowns of the court (Fryson & Cromby, 2013:1165).

There was then the Era of Social Conscience which is also known as the Era of Asylum (Staniland, 2011:18). This era was premised on the belief that, “once disabled, always

disabled” (Staniland, 2011:18; Fryson & Cromby, 2013:1164). It was characterised by exclusion through institutionalisation in the form of asylums (Mangal, 2007:58; Vaughan, 2015:9). During the Era of Asylum, there was no education for children with disabilities (Staniland, 2011:18). Instead, they were only accorded humane treatment that was premised on the religio-philanthropism philosophy. This was entrenched in patronage, sympathy, compassion, humanity, benevolence and charity (Findlaw, 2015:2; Wagithunu, 2014:117). A dominant and most significant manifestation of the Era of Asylum was positive discrimination (Marshall, 2016:1). This was also known as ‘affirmative action’ or ‘reverse discrimination’ as positive discrimination involved preferential treatment to all minority groups of society that had been disadvantaged and isolated for long in the past (Findlaw, 2015:1; Marshall, 2016:1).

There was furthermore the Era of Special Education. With regards to educational provisions for children with disabilities during the special education era, scholarship refers to it as a range of educational instructions and social services provision to individuals with disabilities who were three to 21 years of age (Norwitz, 2016:3; Heller & Tumlin, 2004:150). For one to qualify for special education, a child was to be diagnosed as having a disability that adversely affected educational performance so as to warrant special services involving physical assistance and therapy, counselling and psychotherapy, modified learning environments and assistive learning devices (Dalton, 2002:859; Norwitz, 2016:2). This was embedded in the medical model of disability. Disabilities that qualified for special education included deafness and blindness, intellectual disabilities, Down’s Syndrome and Autism Spectrum Disorder (Noritz, 2016:3; Heller & Tumlin, 2004:150). Special education was designed to afford children with disabilities environments that permitted them to be educated effectively.

Then incepted the Era of Normalisation which entailed making the education and living environment of children with disabilities as close to normal as possible (Chaurasia, 2014:1; Konza, 2008:39). This era was one of the strongest and long-lasting periods characterised by integration theories of special education (Konza, 2008:39). The acceptance of people with disabilities in society and in school settings was the essence of normalisation. People with disabilities were offered similar conditions as were offered

to the rest of the citizens (O'Brien, Breedlove, Degeneffe & Bishop, 2013:2). Instead of society emphasising the protection of people with disabilities, it offered them decent shelter (O'Brien, Breedlove, Degeneffe & Bishop, 2013:2; Llewellyn, 2000:106) as enshrined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UN,1948). Thus, people with disabilities were also afforded the right to freedom of association.

As societies across the world confronted children who had a diversity of disabilities, it was prudent for each and every society in the international fraternity to realise and recognise children with disabilities as part of the society to which they belonged (Winzer, 2006:21; Wagithunu, 2014:118). Thus, societies were obliged to fully incorporate such children in all activities including education so that they equally felt belonging and could participate in their development. Europe provided educational services for children with disabilities by mid-18th century with France leading the pack. Three categories of disabilities, namely, deafness, blindness and intellectual disability in succession were catered for, an approach later adopted by both Britain and North America under the pioneer evangelical clergy men (Winzer, 2006:21). This was the genesis of a religio-philanthropic movement that was in accord with John Locke's sensationalist philosophy as innovative approaches to teaching children with deafness were developed. Sign language came into use for the deaf, followed by braille or raised print for children with visual impairment with the USA and Canada similarly adopting these provisions for their natives (Smith & Kozileski, 2005:270). These developments could have been a result of the Enlightenment period which positively influenced special education.

From 1817 and throughout the 19th century, the American government established institutionalized formal special education that catered for different categories of disabilities (Winzer, 2006:23). Marc Gaspard Itard (1775-1838) developed special education and formulated basic instructional principles guiding it that included individualised instruction, educational environment re-structuring and sequencing of instruction in functional skills for independence (Hallahan & Sayeski, 2010:6; Armstrong, Armstrong & Spandagou, 2009:6). The end of the 19th century witnessed the growth and development of placing children with disabilities in isolated/segregated institutions.

Special classes were introduced in the early 20th century, for instance, in New York City, Elizabeth Farrell, a specialist teacher, advocated for the introduction of classes for children with disabilities (Fergus, 2008:110; Hallahan & Sayeski, 2010:7). This period also witnessed the sterilization of people with disabilities in segregated institutions (Omidvar & Richmond, 2003:2; Weiss, 2015:3; Hallahan & Sayeski, 2010:7). In 1912 and 1933, the USA and Germany respectively, passed policies and legislation on the sterilisation of children with disabilities (Sangal, 2010:13; Hallahan & Sayeski, 2010:7; Weiss, 2015:3). This was founded on the prevention of the hereditary spread of disability to future generations. Though a noble idea, institutionalisation perpetuated the exclusion of children with disabilities. Such institutions were however two-fold in purpose as they protected and saved children with disabilities from being treated inhumanely as guided by their evangelical charity model (Winzer, 2006:24). Though a special class was introduced for non-conforming children with disabilities to model exemplary school behaviour, efforts to establish common schools were fruitless due to a number of factors including the shortage of trained teachers, funding, material and political commitment (Winzer, 2006:26). This was because of the lack of policies and legislation in the USA that mandated government to fund the education of children with disabilities from the treasury (Skiba, Simmons, Ritter et al, 2008:264).

By 1840, both Europe and the USA had established professional teaching, especially for children who were deaf, as mandated by the Convention of American Educators of the Deaf and Dumb (CAEDD). This led to 10 American states establishing colleges and universities for teacher training where certification began as early as 1930. This was the inception of a professional paradigm. The New York University was the first to train special education teachers in 1906, supported by all states recognising education as a human right in 1918 (Blackhurst & Berdine (1993:13). The USA comparable to Europe, implemented in advance the provisions of both the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UN, 1948) and the Convention of the Rights of the Child (UN, 1989). In the late 20th century, special education policies and legislation were passed mandating the right of all children with disabilities to special education. The Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 in the USA guided the implementation of special education. During this period, the use of language shifted from a disability centred discourse to a

people centred discourse. “Disability”, for example, replaced “handicapped” while “individual with disability” replaced “disabled person” (Fergus, 2008:110; Hallahan & Sayeski, 2010:8). In the early 20th century, due to increased heterogeneity in classroom populations, 218 USA cities registered over 52 000 children with intellectual disabilities in special classes (Winzer, 2006:27). Such developments were founded on improving the quality of education of children with disabilities. Funding was availed through the passage of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 that mandated schools to create a conducive teaching and learning environment for children with disabilities (Winzer, 2004:65). This Act was in turn boosted by the subsequent passage and enforcement of the Education of Handicapped Act of 1966 which granted funds to schools to provide teacher training services (Johnston, 2005:3; Winzer, 2006:30). With reasonable numbers of trained teachers in schools, children with disabilities could benefit from education as was enshrined in the landmark prescriptive legislation passed in 1975. This was the Public Law 94-42: the Education for All Handicapped Children Act that enshrined the concept of a least restrictive environment (Skiba, Simmons, Ritter, Gibb & Kar, 2008:264; Winzer, 2006:30). The 20th century therefore could be regarded as the turning point in the provision of special education as it was characterised by the passage, enforcement and implementation of multiple laws and legislation that guaranteed the provision of education to children with disabilities.

Notable pioneers of special education included Jean Jacques Rousseau (1712-1778) who advocated for individualisation of instruction based on the learning pace of the child, Charles Michel L’Epee, founder of France’s first public school for children with deafness and blindness in 1760, Valentin Haüy, founder of the world’s maiden school for the blind called Institution Nationale des Jeunes Aveugles that produced the world’s first blind teacher and Jean Marc Gaspard Itard who emphasised the need to use different pedagogical approaches to teach children with disabilities. In the USA, Rev. Thomas Gallaudet, found the first school for the deaf in 1817 which was named the American Asylum for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb and Samuel Gridley Howe who established the first school for the blind in the USA, in Massachusetts in 1829 called the Perkins School for the blind. He also founded the Massachusetts School for ‘Idiotic and Feebleminded Children’ in 1848 and many other similar schools were

established across the USA following the footsteps of both Gallaudet and Howe (Johnston, 2005:2; Winzer, 2006:23).

A paradigm shift occurred in American educational systems in the 1930s as some 16 American states legalised special education in addition to 100 legislative instruments already in effect (Winzer, 2006:29). As more supportive legislation and funding were availed, teacher training was accelerated with a focus on strategies to integrate and increase the participation of children with unique needs, guided by the historic PL 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 that enshrined the concept of a least restrictive environment (Skiba, Ritter, Gibb & Kar, 2008:264). In the USA, the premise of promoting and perpetuating normalisation gave birth to the new concepts of the Least Restrictive Environment (LRE) and Mainstreaming (Chaurasia, 2014:2, Llewellyn, 2000:106). LRE entailed the classroom placement of children with disabilities in educational settings in which they could have the most freedom desired (Logsdon, 2014:1; Special Education Newspaper, Thursday 31 March 2016). In order to guarantee appropriate educational services and eliminate unnecessary isolation and discrimination of children with disabilities from the regular classroom (Logsdon, 2014:1), the American Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) of 2004 promulgated the enrolment and education of all children with disabilities in the LRE that was relevant and appropriate for them.

It was the Western World that led the rest of the world in providing improved educational provisions and services for children with disabilities (Winzer, 2006:21). The individual learning needs of every child informed the LRE decisions (Skiba, Simmons, Ritter, Gibb & Kar, 2008:264; Winzer, 2006:30) as they varied from child to child. Some children with disabilities were offered extra support through mainstreaming (Chaurasia, 2014:5). This provision was a learner-centred approach that gave some of the learners the necessary support so that they could easily fit in or be integrated into the normal classroom routine (O'Brien, et al, 2013:2; Chaurasia, 2014:5). Concepts of mainstreaming and integration focused on changes that needed to take place in learners with disabilities so that they could fit in (Mangal, 2007:71) as they were founded on the medical model of disability. It

was the learner and not the environment that needed to be transformed so as to access education.

Comparable to the western countries, special education as a service in Nigeria that was meant to cater for children with disabilities has undergone three distinct phases of development, namely, the Pre-Christian era, the Christian era and the Post-Christian era (Powell, 2014:21). During the pre-Christian era, traditional education existed in Nigeria that was conducted by families in social settings for all children (Obiakor & Offor, 2011:25). Adults were instrumental as role models who passed on societal norms and values from generation to the next (Obiakor, 2008). Both nuclei and extended families were instrumental in child care and growth putting more attention on development of physical and vocational skills, character and respect for cultural heritage of communities as the traditional education was not exclusively academic (Ozaji, 2005). This type of education recognised human diversity considering that children are born with different attributes (Obiakor, 2011:25; Ozaji, 2005).

The Christian era was dominated by acts of benevolence, manifested by demonstrations of love and charitable work towards children with disabilities resulting in the disappearance of inhuman and barbaric treatment of such children. During the Post-Christian era, Nigeria established its first special school for children with disabilities in 1950 in Gindiri, spearheaded by the Sudan Interior Mission in the Plateau State (Adekunle, 2017:3; Obiakor & Offor, 2011:27). More such schools were established across Nigeria, including the Wesley School in Surulere run by the Methodist Church in 1958 and the Pacelli School for the Blind in Lagos owned by the Catholic Church in 1962 (Fareo, 2012:1; Adekunle, 2017:3; Ajavon, 2006:1). Christian missionaries were instrumental in the provision of special education in Nigeria and their efforts culminated in the birth of the concept of inclusive education. Reforms by Nigerian policy makers in the 1990s, following her ratification of the 1994 Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action, could explain such developments.

Children with disabilities had an opportunity to access education though they were expected to change to fit in existing educational environments with limited adaptations

and material support (Vaughan, 2015:11). This was the medical approach to teaching and learning for children with disabilities. Integration was however provided on condition that children with disabilities could fit in with pre-existing structures and attitudes (Vaughan, 2015:11; Wagithunu, 2014:117). Unfortunately, the academic performance, achievement and social interactivity of children with disabilities integrated did not improve despite their physical placement in classrooms that had their peers without developmental delays (Sabatello & Schilze, 2014:13; Kenward, 2013:20). Integration brought in more harm than good to the education of children with disabilities. Such a failure could be a result of the lack of qualified teachers and negative attitudes towards integration. This resulted in advocacy groups calling for and initiating change towards the concept of inclusion in education (Sabatello & Schilze, 2014:13; Kenward, 2013:20). This study will examine the influence of the foregoing eras, if any, on the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe.

Welfare pioneers who pushed for a non-segregated schooling system advocated for inclusion in education (O'Brien, 2002:10; Hodkinson, 2010:61; Hallahan, Kauffman & Pullen, 2009:163; Fergus, 2008:109). The origins of inclusion in education can be traced back to debates between academic and the emerging politics of disability which raised questions in the 1990s (Hausstatter & Connolley, 2012) about the construction of normality through everyday interactions of cultural, social, economic and institutional life (Armstrong, Armstrong & Spandagou, 2010:vii; Florian & Rouse, 2009:596). Human rights movements in the USA and Europe embraced the philosophy of inclusion in education, in the process challenging the traditional view and role of special education (Florian & Rouse, 2009:596; Omidvar & Richmond, 2003:10). There has been a shift in focus by disability movements which have traditionally attended the rights of adults but now are concerned with children, joining forces with organisations campaigning for inclusion in education (Armstrong, Armstrong & Spandagou, 2010:6; Florian & Rouse, 2009:596). In Lesotho, disability movements, in conjunction with other organisations and parents, advocated for inclusion in schools, pressurising the government to adopt the philosophy (Mittler, 2012:5). In the UK, the British Council of Organisations of

Disabled People (BCODP) also partnered with other organisations to campaign for the phasing out of special schools (Stubbs, 2008:22; Mittler, 2012:10).

The adoption of inclusion in education globally is the current trend where governments are committed to its practice. What remains questionable is whether countries professionally prepare their teachers for inclusion in education (Winter & O'Raw, 2010:6; Thomas, Walker & Webb, 1998:4). Inclusion in education sought to demolish socially constructed impediments so that children with disabilities would benefit from the regular education system. Inclusion in education represents a whole-school concern and works to align special education with general education to realise quality education to "all" learners (Grima-Farrell, Bain & McDonagh, 2011:118; Loreman, 2009:21). Children with special educational needs have the right to be educated alongside their peers who do not have special educational needs in all schools that adopt a philosophy of inclusion to meet their social and moral obligation to educate all children (Mitchell, 2008:27; Forbes, 2007:66). Monad-Amaya and Mendan (2008:162) and Spencer (2006:204) posit that a supportive environment can be created where the classroom community must be culturally responsive by being disability aware and accepting and where the teacher must teach problem-solving skills and enhance self-knowledge of the strengths of learners so as to promote their self-determination and self-advocacy.

Inclusion in education has a wide array of benefits for both children with and without unique needs. For instance, when children with disabilities are afforded the opportunity to learn together in the regular classroom with their typically developing peers, this exposes them to teaching and learning in a culture that is both supportive and conducive to their educational needs (Forbes, 2007:66; Mitchell, 2008:27). In inclusion in education, children with diverse backgrounds, including those with and without disabilities are all brought together in a single classroom setting or single learning community irrespective of their strengths or weaknesses. Under this scenario where diversity can be celebrated, regular classroom teachers are expected to put the value of pluralism, tolerance and equality into practice (Boyle et al, 2011:73; Spencer, 2006:204). When inclusion in education is practiced, children with diverse and unique needs, including those with disabilities are offered an opportunity to equally participate

and achieve both socially and academically. In addition, all children are afforded and assured community membership where they feel welcomed, tolerated and accepted as individual learning styles are attended to and greatly valued (Boyle, Scriven, Durning & Downes, 2011:73; Nevada Partnership for Inclusive Education, 2015:1).

Inclusion in education responds to all learners based on their individual needs (Mitchell, 2008:27; Forbes, 2007:66), optimizes their social networks, social initiations and social relationships (Kids Together, 2009:1). It also affords those with unique needs, including disabilities peer-role models for their academic, social and behaviour skills in addition to increased social inclusion in their after school environments (Kids Together, 2009:1; UNESCO, 1994:22). Similarly, children with diverse backgrounds including those with disabilities will experience increased educational achievement of Individualised Educational Programme (IEP) goals; increased access to the general curriculum; increased school staff collaboration and even greater opportunities for interaction with both community and school environments (Boyle et al, 2011:73; UNESCO, 1994:22). All exclusionary forms of education, including institutionalisation are now rapidly losing value and prominence as their real benefits for diverse children over inclusion in education are indefensible (Loreman, 2007:22; Forlin, 2006:265). Based on the literature, there are no clear benefits of any segregated and discriminatory type of education. Instead, most regular classroom teachers are currently engaged in educational settings where the majority of the children with diverse educational needs are enrolled (Sobsey, 2005:4; Loreman, 2007:22).

In inclusion in education, all regular classroom teachers have the duty to address and fully cater for child diversity through expertly managing and directing the teaching and learning process (Dinh Thi & Le Thu, 2010:4). Simultaneously, they should be in charge of the teaching and learning content, environment, assessment and process to meet the full range of individual needs of children with diverse and unique needs including those with disabilities (Dinh Thi & Le Thu, 2010:4; Gafoor & Muhammed, 2009:3). All the good intentions of inclusion in education are rendered invalid and worthless if the regular classroom teacher is unable to educate all children with diverse and unique needs in their mainstream classrooms. For inclusion in education, regular classroom teachers

are not only expected to learn and acquire new and relevant pedagogy, knowledge and skills but also acquire positive dispositions and competencies to advance research in the latest methodological approaches. As the inclusive school movement is gaining momentum in education discourse as the preferred system of educating children with diverse backgrounds, its adoption therefore places more and new demands on the teaching and learning fraternity as mainstream classrooms are now composed of a more heterogeneous mix of learners from diverse backgrounds (Loreman, 2007:22; Loreman, Sharma & Forlin, 2013:27; Forlin & Chambers, 2011:17).

According to Konza (2008:40), inclusion in education can be equated to normalisation since it promotes social justice in neighbouring school communities where children with diverse backgrounds are easily assimilated as equal partners. This is consistent with Wills and Jackson (2000:5) who argued that, transporting children daily to distant schools reduces social interactivity with their local communities. Westhood and Graham (2003) therefore assert that, as interaction occurs, the general populace will appreciate children with diverse backgrounds and at the same time, realise that they are not unlike them as they also have strengths and weaknesses. Differences are natural and common features of humanity. According to Konza (2008:41), inclusion in education promotes mainstream teachers' knowledge and understanding of diversity in educational settings.

As teachers are obliged to address the diversity of children, inclusion in education not only requires teachers to change teaching and learning techniques but demands teacher education institutions to shift in paradigm from traditional teacher training methods to modern teacher training methods that cater for learners with diverse and unique needs in regular classrooms (Boyle et al, 2011:72; Kuyini & Desai, 2007:104). With the advent of inclusion in education, teachers are confronted with a myriad of challenges in managing pedagogical content, processes, environments and products in regular classrooms. Teacher education institutions therefore need to adequately prepare teachers for inclusion in education to address such challenges. Teacher education programmes at university level have the potential to change and improve in

order to equip teachers with the ability to include diverse learners in regular classrooms. (Mitchell, 2008:27; Jeon & Peterson, 2003:171).

The professional preparation of an effective and competent classroom teacher is a prerequisite for inclusion in education and in compliance with the current education discourse (Movkebaieva, Oralkanova & Uaidullakzy, 2013:549; Kuyini & Desai, 2007:104; Jeon & Peterson, 2003:171). When teacher professional preparation is appropriately carried out by teacher education institutions, it becomes instrumental in positively impacting on classroom practitioners' attitudes, knowledge base, practical skills, awareness and ideological commitment (Fayez, Dababneh & Jumilian, 2011:330; Das, Kuyini & Desai, 2013:30; Wagithunu, 2014:123). It is also essential to train regular classroom teachers by facilitating the development of appropriate beliefs and professional competencies for inclusion in education (Fayez et al, 2011:330; Wagithunu, 2014:123). Consequently, inclusion in education is realised if mainstream teachers are able to effectively educate diverse learners to equitably and competently contribute towards the development of society as the school, in turn, becomes inclusive in nature (Boyle et al, 2011:72; Sharma et al, 2008:5). Thus, the professional preparation of teachers by teacher education institutions is an essential and integral component of the success of inclusion in education (World Report on Disability, 2011:5; Sharma, Forlin & Loreman, 2008:5; Forlin, 2010:3). The professional preparation of teachers therefore needs to be premised on the implementation of effective practices in regular settings for learners with diverse and unique needs as it is foundational for inclusion in education.

Several international policy and legislative frameworks underpin inclusion in education. The World Declaration on Education for All (EFA) (UNESCO, 1990) advocates that education is a basic human right that should be equally accessible to all children regardless of their differences. The Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (UN, 1994) could arguably be used as the springboard that legitimised the practice of inclusion in education in many countries. The statement resulted in countries such as India, Lesotho, Uganda, South Africa, UK, Canada, Queensland, Australia, Pakistan, Sri Lanka and Bangladesh adopting policies and

legislation on inclusion in education (UN Special Rapporteur, 2007:2; Charema, 2010:87).

The social and legal changes subsequently led to a shift in perspectives and values concerning the inclusive school movement and improved the availability of resources, increased tolerance and placement options of learners in least restrictive environments. As an international perspective, the philosophy of inclusion in education has its origins in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UN, 1948) Article 26 that states that every child has the fundamental right to education which should be free and compulsory to promote its access for the realisation of everyone's full potential. Other instruments subsequently influenced inclusion in education such as the African Charter on the Rights of the Child (OAU, 1981), the International Year of Disabled Persons (UN, 1981), the World Programme of Action Concerning Disabled Persons (UN, 1982) and the Decade of Disabled Persons (UN, 1983-1992). The Convention on the Rights of the Child (UN, 1989), the Jomtien Conference (UN, 1990), and the Standard Rules on the Equalisation of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities (UN, 1993) which set the context to promote more equitable forms of schooling (Hodkinson, 2010:61; UNESCO, 1990:2) further promoted inclusion in education. Article 28 of the Convention on the Rights of the Child (UNESCO, 1989) enshrines education as a basic, compulsory and free human right for all children which demands an active commitment to eliminate educational disparities.

In broadening the philosophy of the right to education, this convention adopted four principles, namely, non-discrimination, the best interest of the child, the right to life and the right of the child to freedom of expression (UNESCO, 2007:118). The adoption of these principles by signatory governments is an indicator of the firm recognition of the rights of children in terms of their diversity, participation, universality, respect and inclusion (UNESCO, 2007:8). This convention became the first legally binding international agreement to draw a positive response to human rights with a specific focus on children (Hodkinson, 2009:93; Thomas & Loxley, 2007:11), redefining the policy direction of the UN through which children with disabilities were regarded as pivotal to societal productivity and development.

3.3 Debate on inclusion in education

It has been noted that when schools are inclusive, cases of discrimination against learners with disabilities can potentially be eliminated (Forlin et al, 2013:6; UNESCO, 2009:8). Against this background, Forlin et al (2013:6) observed that inclusion in education lacks clear conceptual definition, a situation which leads to haphazard practice. The lack of a universally accepted definition has led to multiple competing definitions and plurality of views on how inclusivity can be practiced (Allan & Slee, 2008:27; D'Aessio, 2011:23; Ainscow, Booth & Dyson, 2006:27). The difficulty in reaching a universally accepted definition of inclusion in education arises from the many similar and related terms that have been used in special needs education. Such terms include integration, least restrictive environment, mainstreaming and deinstitutionalisation that have been in use long before the inception of inclusion in education (Armstrong, Armstrong & Spandagon, 2010:98; Forlin et al, 2013:6). While the terms are used interchangeably, they refer to different concepts. Furthermore, inclusion in education is distorted in the developing world which lacks a history of institutionalisation and industrialisation as it faces economic challenges that hinder the development of an educational system suitable for learners with diverse needs (Singh, 2009:12; Armstrong et al, 2010:98). Above all, different global cultures define inclusion in education differently depending on its purpose such as social, historical, political or economic use (Malinen, 2013:5; Landin, 2010:2).

Different technological levels of development between the developed and developing world has also led to different practices of inclusion in education. In 1997, the new Labour-led government in the UK closed down special schools, replacing them with mainstream schools, to gain political mileage. In the UK, their political and socio-economic issues are interwoven. To this end, inclusion in education has been associated with school attendance and behaviour, thereby deviating from its reference to learners with disabilities or special needs. In addition, the term inclusion in education has been used in England to refer to what happens in special school settings (Ainscow et al, 2006:15; Spurgeon, 2007:5). There is therefore conceptual confusion in defining and practicing inclusion in education across the globe.

In the post-Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (UNESCO, 1994) period, inclusion in education has taken on a multitude of meanings across different continents (Miles & Singal, 2008:9; Slee, 2004:11). The term has lost its original meaning that went against medical and psychological explanations for the difficulties encountered in education. The debate on inclusion in education can be considered along moral and ideological lines where the argument is how to make mainstream classrooms accessible to learners with disabilities (Charema, 2010:87; Sharma et al, 2011:12). Such a view tallies with that of the EADSNE (2010) which acknowledged that, inclusion in education is a basic human right pivotal to the attainment of more just and equal society. While one view of inclusion in education is that it is a disability issue, another view is that it as a human rights issue. Yet another view considers it as a mere Western ideology (Johnstone & Chapman, 2009:131; Forlin et al, 2013:9). When considered a disability issue, inclusion in education concerns itself only with children with disabilities in need of special education. Hence, it becomes a code for special education and its definition should be viewed as a continuum rather than a static condition (D'Alessio, 2011:29; Forlin et al, 2013:9).

In light of the universally binding nature of international agreements, UNESCO (2012:1) defined inclusion in education as teaching and learning that is alive to the identification of barriers and obstacles encountered by learners as they attempt to access quality education and which makes efforts to eradicate those obstacles that lead to exclusion. Inclusion in education further embraces participation of all children including those who may be socially discriminated against due to gender, disability, religion, ethnicity or any other inequalities in mainstream school classes (UNESCO, 2006:2). Inclusion in education therefore, is not only centred on access to schools by those marginalised, but goes further to include barrier identification and removal for quality education.

Inclusion is not only a process but also a goal to ensure the education of all children including the vulnerable, the marginalised and those with disabilities so that they become participants who are valued and respected members of the society with a sense of belonging and acceptance (Omidvar & Richmond, 2003:1; Hodkinson, 2009:91; Thomas, 2013:474). This view is philosophically a departure from admitting

learners with special needs into a 'normal' system, but moves towards seeing every learner as 'normal' and strives to cater for the needs of all (Kona, 2008:39; Hodkinson, 2009:91). Thus, inclusion in education seeks to merge special and regular education. Inclusion in education is part of a wide social justice drive which proposes that equality for all has to embrace rights, opportunity, belonging, acceptance, participation, achievement and access for all learners to their local school (Ashman & Merrotsky, 2009:73; Foreman, 2011:548; Woodcock et al, 2012:1). This trend finds support in policies of the UN concerned with children's rights such as the Convention on the Rights of the Child (UN, 1989), the Standard Rules on the Equalisation of Opportunities for Persons with Disabilities (UN,1993) and the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (UNESCO, 1994) (Konza, 2008:40; UNESCO, 1994:6).

Inclusion in education entails participation and reduction of the culture of exclusion of learners with diverse and unique needs in communities (Mittler, 2012:11; Omidvar & Richmond, 2003:1). Furthermore, inclusion in education is a process that involves a break with the norm and radically transforming the school curriculum, assessment, pedagogy and grouping of learners (Konza, 2008:39; Mittler, 2012:10; Armstrong et al, 2010:6). Such transformation seeks to enable access for all learners and participation in all educational and social opportunities the school offers (Chitiyo & Wheeler, 2007:49; Mittler, 2012:2). The aim is the restructuring of schools so that they are able to cater for needs of all learners including those with disabilities in a manner where they experience full membership and unconditional belonging to the regular school and community (Abosi, Mukhopadyay & Nenty, 2012:2; Mittler, 2012:10; Antia et al, 2002:214). Inclusion in education provides the most effective way of eliminating exclusionary practices against learners with disabilities hence it is crucial that regular schools should accommodate all learners regardless of their individual differences (UNESCO, 1994; 2009:8).

It is therefore important that all teachers receive training and continuous professional development so that they are able to attend to the needs of all learners. In Western societies, according to Vislie (2003:19), inclusion in education was originally equated to

meaning integration as it was a yard stick of the quality of education that was provided for children with disabilities enrolled in integrated educational settings. Thus, inclusion traditionally entailed schools addressing individuality, reconstruction of curricula, effectiveness in teaching and learning and addressing the diversity of children (Sebba & Ainscow, 1996:7). The idea of measuring what constituted inclusion in education is consistent with the foregoing literature (Echevarria et al, 2010:195; Booth & Ainscow, 2002). This study examined the understanding of inclusion in education of Zimbabwean university graduate pre-service primary school teachers in view of its different meanings.

3.4 Models of conceptualizing inclusion in education

For children with disabilities, there are two conflicting models of inclusion in education, that is, the psycho-medical model and a socio-political model (Mittler, 2012:2; Mitchell, 2001:319). There is a conceptualisation that views special needs as a social construct. Special education becomes a system that reproduces macro-social inequalities in an institutional form (Mittler, 2012:2). In both the developed and developing world, different meanings are given to inclusion in education (Armstrong, Armstrong & Spandagou, 2010:7; Armstrong & Barton, 2007:6). When the policy of Education for All (UNESCO, 1990) is implemented, inclusion in education is framed as a quest for social justice.

Countries implement different models of inclusion in education. This includes India where the model is called the Integrated Education of Disabled Children Scheme (IEDC) of 1974. The model is concerned with availing financial support to learners with disabilities which may cater for materials such as uniforms, stationery, transport and equipment (Kohama, 2012:18). In Canada, the Ontario Ministry of Education has implemented the Alternative Service Delivery Model. The model aims at eliminating systems of categorisation, reducing segregated classrooms or ability groups and implements an Instructional Consultation Team (ICT) (Parekh, 2013:11). While the UK, France, Iceland, Belgium, Portugal, the Netherlands, Switzerland and Norway have adopted the Cooperative Teaching Model which promotes the development of academic and social skills of children with disabilities (Meijer, 2003:22).

Sweden, Ireland, Finland and Austria have adopted the Heterogeneous Grouping Model or Differentiated Approach where alternative routes for learning and flexible instruction are used when dealing with diverse children in the classroom (Meijer, 2003:27). In spite of the international acknowledgement of the need to adopt inclusion in education, there is no one size fits all regarding the model that each country can adopt. As much as countries learn from each other, there is need for careful consideration of the socio-economic, political, cultural and historical circumstances of individual countries. There is a need for those countries that import inclusion in education models and practices to consider how far their “countries’ indigenous philosophies, ideologies and practices should be encouraged, respected, challenged, overthrown or blended with those from outside” (Mittler 2012:3) while, on the other hand, exporters similarly have to respect local values.

Educational policies in developed countries have responded to inclusion in education as a social justice issue in different ways (Konza, 2008:40; Forlin & Chambers, 2011:17). In the USA, the Education for all Handicapped Children Act (1975) and the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (1990) are used to protect the rights of children with disabilities. In Australia, there are also two pieces of legislation, that is, the Disability Discrimination Act (1992) and the Disability Standards for Education Act (2005) that mandates support for children with disabilities to enrol and participate in mainstream schools. In Great Britain, the Education Act (1981), its subsequent amendment in 1993 and Special Educational Needs and Disability Act (2001), provide for the enrolment of learners with disabilities in regular schools. The social model of disability therefore promotes inclusion through acknowledging human diversity and seeks to ensure that all learners in their diversity have their needs catered for in mainstream classrooms (Ahsan & Mullick, 2013:152; Ainscow & Miles, 2008:15).

Loreman (2007:24) provides seven pillars that justify support for inclusion in education which are “positive attitudes, policy and leadership, school and classroom pedagogy, the community, meaningful reflection, training and finally resources”. In spite of these pillars being independent from each other, they hardly work in isolation, but work together to advance the cause for specific classroom practices and strategies that

enhance inclusion in education. Other key characteristics of inclusion in education are that “children should attend their neighbourhood school; are welcome and valued through a ‘zero-rejection’ policy; learn in regular, heterogeneous classrooms with same-age peers; follow similar study programs with varied and responsive modes of instruction and have adequate resources to support inclusion” (Loreman, 2009:43; Kafedzic et al, 2010:22; UNESCO, 2015:3). Thus, inclusion in education means that, regular schools should accommodate all children regardless of their physical, intellectual, social, emotional, linguistic or other conditions (The Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education, 1994: para 3; UNESCO, 2015:3). This study examined the model of inclusion in education implemented in Zimbabwe.

3.5 Future of inclusion in education

While many countries such as Scotland (Rouse, 2007:3), England (Glazzard, 2014:27; Goodley, 2007:322), Sweden, Ireland, Finland, Belgium (Meijer, 2003:27) and Nigeria (Eunice & Nyangia, 2015:42) seem committed to inclusion in education in their rhetoric and even in their legislation, policies and practices often fall short (Mwamwenda, 2013:477; Mittler, 2012:4). Many countries have therefore struggled with bringing policies on inclusion in education into practice. The reasons for this disjuncture between policy and practice include “barriers arising from societal values and beliefs, economic factors, lack of measures to ensure compliance with policies, conservative traditions among teachers, parental resistance, lack of skills among teachers, inadequate educational infrastructure, large class sizes, a top-down introduction of inclusive education without adequate preparation of schools and communities” (Mittler, 2012:3). Thus, inclusion in education exists in historical contexts in which vestiges of older beliefs co-exist with newer beliefs. Models of inclusion in education that each country uses are significantly influenced by economic considerations. Therefore, inclusion in education can be viewed as a reflection of the interplay amongst a country’s social, political, cultural and historical context (Chimhenga, 2014:1; Mwamwenda, 2013:477).

Inclusion in education seeks to ensure that all children with disabilities attend their neighbourhood schools (Utton, 2011:54; UNESCO, 1004) so that equality can be achieved in these settings. Current social inequalities and injustices may end if all children have access to education. The discussion on inclusion in education has now shifted from justifying why it is necessary to how it can be practiced successfully (Loreman, 2007:22; Forlin et al, 2006:265). As a result, segregated forms of education have become difficult to justify as inclusion in education is becoming more dominant (Loreman, 2007:22; Sobsey, 2005:1).

While taking away children that are marginalised from regular classrooms contradicts inclusion in education, human rights activists argue that any form of restriction to any individual is against equal rights (Jenjekwa et al, 2013:21; Zindi, 2004:15). Institutionalisation, such as has happened in the USA, enables a least restrictive environment and programmes such as IEPs to be effectively utilised (Stone-Macdonald, 2012:26; UNESCO, 1994). Inclusion in education involves transforming the education system by working towards attitude change towards children with disabilities. However, emerging economies such as Zimbabwe do not have the capacity to rapidly practice inclusion in education. Attitudes of people in these countries towards children with disabilities cannot change overnight (Charema, 2010:87). Despite the challenges, it is imperative for developing countries to practice inclusion in education that has become a global trend (Zindi, 2004:17). But for inclusion in education to be at the core of teaching and learning, it has to be truly inclusive and broadly re-defined as Thomas (2013:473) stated: “the term ‘inclusive education’ now refers to the education of all children, not just those with disabilities”. Furthermore, while inclusion in education previously focused on learners’ characteristics or the location of learning, it is evolving to embrace concepts of participation and power (Stubbs, 2008:12). This means inclusion in education is about diversity and social justice just as much as it is about disability and mainstreaming. This study examined the professional capacity of Zimbabwean teachers to practice inclusion in education.

3.6 Contradictions

Worldwide, education systems have faced challenges in incorporating principles of inclusion in education in spite of the philosophy becoming widespread (Srivastava, de Boer & Pijl, 2015:179; Florian & Linklater, 2010:369). Different interpretations of the practice are found across different countries because the term 'inclusion' in education circles is fairly recent (Stubbs, 2008:11; Norwich, 2013:9). While the term 'inclusion' is recent, "it is based on old and contemporary mixture of established values of equal opportunity, social respect and solidarity, access and quality, equity and social justice, democratic values and participation, unity and diversity" (Norwich, 2013:9). The wide array of values to which it appeals is the reason for significant ambiguities or misconceptions with which it is interpreted and used. The ambiguities though have not stopped the global adoption of inclusion in education (Florian, 2010:11; Norwich, 2013:11).

Inclusion in education requires support that facilitates full participation of learners in their diversities within the mainstream least restrictive school environment (Green & Engelbrecht, 2007:4; Mukhopadhyay & Musengi, 2012:9). While school environments that enable learners of diverse capabilities to fully participate can be seen as least restrictive, it is not automatic that regular classrooms are least restrictive environments for children with disabilities. An enquiry in the UK chaired by Baroness Warnock in the 1970s, revisited in 2005, recommended that discussions on inclusion in education be based on what kind of educational placement best suits children with disabilities (Warnock, 2005:20; Hodkinson, 2009:91). Thus, inclusion is not about mere placement of children with disabilities from special to mainstream schools, but rather the quality of education they receive. Consequently, Warnock (2005:21) argued for an increase in special rather than mainstream schools, a view that is against resolutions made at both the World Education Forum (UNESCO, 1990) and the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (UNESCO, 1994). This betrays the move to encourage acceptance and tolerance of diversity by having all children learn together. Ironically, it was the Warnock Report (1978) that hastened the adoption and

practice of inclusion in education not only in the UK but other countries as well (Cigman, 2007:3; Hornby, 2011:321).

Inclusion in education has sometimes been interpreted to mean special education leading to the problem of differing opinions concerning how it is practiced in ordinary schools (Stubbs, 2008:38; Norwich, 2008:2). The differences are around three major concerns, that is, "Placement, that is, can appropriate learning occur in ordinary schools or not? Identification, that is, whether to identify learners as having special education needs/disabilities or not? and Curriculum, that is, how much of a common curriculum is relevant to these learners with disabilities?" (Stubbs, 2008:2). At a basic level, the main concern relates to whether to recognise and respond or not to diversity, considering that "there are some risks associated with stigma, devaluation, rejection or denial of relevant and quality opportunities" (Norwich, 2008:12). What causes the diversity of opinions maybe historical, political and social contexts and similarities may relate to shared values on political and educational issues (Stubbs, 2008:19; Norwich, 2008:13). Inclusion in education involves transforming the system so that it adapts to the child not vice versa. Inclusion in education approaches the resolution of difficulties that arise in schools while, on the other hand, special education stands as a hindrance to inclusivity in schools (Norwich, 2008:2; Stubbs, 2008:38). Inclusion in education shifts away from a concentration on a particular group to emphasising the elimination of barriers to learning and participation (Stubbs, 2008:38; Armstrong et al, 2010:7).

Inclusion in education has often been interpreted to relate to the opposite of its core principles (Sharma, Forlin, Loreman & Earle, 2006:80; Loreman, 2007:23), leading to a lack of consensus on its practice. Inclusion in education "has become a contentious term that lacks a tight conceptual focus leading to misconceptions and confused practice" (Voss & Bufkin, 2011:339). Giving a single conceptual definition of inclusion in education presents challenges since some definitions are determined by movements in educational practices, culture, context and even circumstances that may render some aspects of the philosophy outdated (Forlin et al, 2013:8; Voss & Bufkin, 2011:339). If inclusion in education is taken to refer to disability and not as a whole-school issue, it can easily be seen as a code for 'special education', which contradicts its practices

(Ainscow et al, 2006:15; Johnston, 2010:34; Forlin et al, 2013:9). As part of efforts to address the needs of children with disabilities, it has been mainstreamed into the global development agenda as a priority area (Miller & Albert, 2005:5; UN, 2012). Nevertheless, the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) made no explicit provision for the inclusion of people with disabilities (Sefotho, 2015:1). Consequently, Sustainable Development Goal 4 (SDG-4) redressed this anomaly by proclaiming that, by 2030, the world should “ensure inclusive and quality education for all and promote lifelong learning” thus “entailing commitments with students’ diversity, quality learning and education along the life course” (Rambla & Langthaler, 2016:7). This study will examine the understanding of inclusion in education of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers in Zimbabwe in view of its various conceptualisations presented above.

3.7 Inclusion in education in selected developed and developing countries and the professional preparation of pre-service teachers

3.7.1 Australia

Australia, comparable to several other developed countries including the USA, has policies and legislation that support inclusion in education (UN Special Rapporteur, 2007:1; Forlin, Chambers, Loreman, Deppler & Sharma, 2013:4). The Disability Discrimination Act (1992) and the Disability Standard for Education (2005) guide inclusion in education in the country (Forlin et al, 2013:4). Forbes (2007:66) states that “Australia has a diversity of approaches to instituting inclusive education, amongst them being use of documents such as the Australian Curriculum, the National Disability Strategy, the National Quality Framework, the Australian Professional Standards of Teachers and the Early Years’ Learning Framework for Australia, all emphasising the value of tolerating and recognising diversity of school children”. The Disability Standards for Education in Australia ensure accessible education and training of learners with disabilities by encouraging participation, supporting learners and eliminating all forms of harassment and victimisation. Australia also granted autonomy to individual states to interpret and practice inclusion in education informed by the national Constitution (Forbes, 2007:66; Lebona, 2013:32).

TABLE 3.1: Australian student population with disabilities

LOCATION	NUMBER OF CHILDREN WITH DISABILITY	%
Special school	28900	9.9
Special class	71000	24.3
Mainstream classes	192800	65.9
Total	292700	100

Source: Australian Bureau of Statistics (ABS), 2009.

Australia has an estimated 292 700 learners with disabilities attending school with about 66% of them being in regular classrooms while the remainder is in segregated schools (National Council on Intellectual Disability (NCID), 2013:5, Forlin, et al, 2013:17). The Australian government supports inclusive practices in education through legislating policy initiatives (National Council on Intellectual Disability, Australia, 2013:10; Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2009).

Policies on inclusive education are a responsibility of Australia education authorities who are guided by the Commonwealth Disability Discrimination Act (1992) which bars any form of discrimination against learners with disabilities in education. The Australian education authority is mandated to ensure inclusion in education (NCID, 2013:6). Australian policies are therefore made by learned and informed decision makers. In spite of this, negative attitudes and practices towards children with disabilities still prevail in Australia with some children being denied equal educational opportunities (National Council on Intellectual Disability, Australia, 2013:6). In Australia, inclusion in education unified special and regular education by ensuring that all children access local and adapted educational settings (Konza, 2008:39). When local schools enrol children with disabilities, they quickly become acceptable community members of their school since their peers are also local and familiar people (Konza, 2008:39). Inclusion in education thus serves as a social justice issue. According to Forlin (2010:155), inclusion in education is crucial in teaching and learning circles as it ensures the provision of accessible quality education to diverse children. Symeonidou (2017:403) posits that, if all schools adopt inclusion in education, children with disabilities will receive quality education. Inclusion in education therefore guarantees access and quality. Inclusion in

education aims to eradicate schools' traditional inequalities while simultaneously reforming their physical and institutional structures (Winzer, 2006). According to Allday, (2013:298) for many decades globally, the inclusion of children with disabilities in general education classrooms has dominated special education discourse aimed at promoting equality and in the same vein, integrating them into school communities. Inclusion in educational spheres therefore involves re-orientation and re-organization of the school environment to accommodate diversity.

According to Sharma et al. (2006:81), Australian pre-service teacher education is offered in all its 36 universities which insufficiently train teachers for inclusion as they produce them without the prerequisite skills to cater for diversity in regular classrooms. The same study reports that Australian pre-service teachers need more training and experience with learners who have disabilities for successful practice of inclusion in education. Consistently, Boyle's (2011:72) qualitative study revealed that, Australian universities are scaling up their teacher education programmes to include inclusive education subjects as compulsory. According to Gooch, Rigaus, Hickey and Fien (2008:175) teacher education in Australia is focused on producing graduates with action competence as they confront diversity. This teacher preparation is premised on education for sustainability which entails "participatory, praxis-oriented, place-based and holistic approaches to teaching and learning" that promotes marriage between theory and practice (Tomas, Girgenti & Jackson, 2017:324). This study examined the mode of professional preparation of university pre-service teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe against the background of Australia.

3.7.2 The United Kingdom

Developments in the last half of the twentieth century in the UK paved the way for other countries to emulate the inclusion of learners with disabilities in education in compliance with the UN's framework of promoting social justice for all humanity (Gray, 2009:20). The UK Warnock Report of 1978 with the subsequent 1981 Education Act, abolished disability categories and replaced them with the term Special Needs Education. The Warnock Report emphasised mainstream integration and reduced barriers between

children with disabilities and those without disabilities. New terminology was introduced by the Warnock Report including the use of three types of integration, that is, locational, social and functional (Nenty, 2012:2; Gray, 2009:20). While locational integration moved a child with disability into a regular school system, social integration promoted interaction with peers. On the other hand, functional integration promoted educational activity between a learner with disability and the school leading to a reduction in the number of special schools in preference of mainstreaming (Armstrong et al, 2010:8; Gray, 2009:21). The advent of the Education Act of 1981 brought about a shift from special schools towards integration of children with disabilities into regular schools (Mittler, 2012:10; Voss & Bufkin, 2011:339). The Education Act of 1981 (Section 2, sub-section 3) provided for the integration of children with special educational needs into mainstream schools taking cognisance of adverse effects that could result on such children. This paradigm shift culminated in the transformation of schools to fit the learner and not vice versa (Armstrong & Barton, 2007:6; Gray, 2009:22). A whole school approach was therefore inevitable.

The introduction of the Schools Self-Assessment (SSA) in the UK through the enactment of the Education Act of 1988 accelerated the adoption of a new Special Education Needs Code of Practice (1994) which acknowledged parental involvement in decision making (Stubbs, 2008:21; Gray, 2009:29). In the same year, the UK government adopted inclusion in education after signing the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (UNESCO, 1994) which became the global standard for the philosophy. The subsequent Education Act (1996) obliged parents to comply with requirements of the Code of Practice (Hodkinson, 2008:244; Aldaihani, 2010:35) mandating inclusivity in education.

In 1997, a new Labour government came into office and swiftly implemented inclusion in education in a bid to eliminate social exclusion (Hodkinson, 2008:243; Gray, 2009:30). Inclusion in education was politicked and regarded as pivotal to government reforms through the publication of the first Green Paper, 'Excellence for All Children-Meeting Special Educational Needs' in 1997 which aimed at improving the general welfare of children with disabilities (Armstrong et al, 2010:7; Nenty, 2012:2). The paper defined

inclusion in education as “where all children are included as equal partners in the school community” (Department for Education and Employment (DfEE), 1997:5; Hodkinson, 2008:247). All learning environments were obliged to value and welcome all children.

Other documents were developed in support of the Green Paper, including ‘Meeting Special Educational Needs: A Programme of Action (1998) (Department for Education and Skills, UK, 2001:1) which was a refinement of a policy published in 1996 by the Council for Disabled Children meant to map out inclusion in education. Next was the Special Educational Needs and Disability Act (2001) which was an amendment to the Education Act of 1996, meant to cement the rights of children with disabilities in regular education (Armstrong et al, 2010:8; Department for Education and Skills, UK, 2001:1). There was also Inclusive Schooling (DfES, 2001) that guided inclusion in regular education. The Department for Education and Skills documents (DfES) (1997; 2004) encouraged academic performance and achievement in mainstream school systems (Glazzard, 2014:24) leading to parents withdrawing their children with disabilities from mainstream schools as they also objected to their children being labelled “disruptive” (Goodley, 2007:322; Glazzard, 2014:27). These documents have reversed the gains achieved by preceding legislation.

In pursuit of social justice, movements for people with disabilities advocated for technical approaches to the practice of inclusion in education through school improvements and diversity of provision for different needs to promote quality education (Armstrong & Barton, 2007:6; Armstrong et al, 2010:6). The vision for the UK government is educational excellence nationwide premised on quality education which enables diverse children from diverse backgrounds to determine their own destiny (DfE, 2016:5). In the UK, education is a symbol of civilisation and social justice (Hodkinson, 2008:246). In 2010, the devolution of power occurred without existing school leaders being mandated to manage inclusion in education which was the accountability of local and central governments, aimed at promoting autonomy for educational excellence everywhere (DfE, 2016:10). Seven elements of the White Paper that buttress education excellence nationwide include: “great teachers, great leaders, a great school-led system, preventing underperformance, high expectations, accountability and the right

resources in the right hands” DfE (2016:11). Thus, education excellence everywhere is a factor of adequate and great teachers supported by great school leaders.

Findings from Ainscow’s (2006:15) study observed that inclusion in education now concerns special school practices such as attendance and academic behaviour and not disability or special needs as before. This was confirmed by Slee (2004) who categorically stated that, inclusion has “lost its original radical meaning”. To further clarify this issue, Donnelly (2010:7) also pointed out that, inclusion in education has shifted in both meaning and use from being a means of doing away with disability challenges to embracing human aspects of race, religion, gender, social status and health. The shift in meaning and use of the term inclusion in education is in accordance with the definition of the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action (UNESCO, 1994) that launched and introduced it to the international community as education of all children without access to basic education including those poverty-stricken, disadvantaged, remote, in the minority linguistically, vulnerable, terminally ill as well as those with special educational needs.

In the UK, teacher education provides for sustainability as it aims at transforming classroom practices to become more inclusive by adopting learning pathways (Robertson, VanWynsberghe & Ford, 2020:50). To achieve sustainability, the UK teacher education programs have adopted an “updated apprentice-based approach” called the Role Reversal Approach in order to equip pre-service teachers with relevant and appropriate skills for inclusion in education (Walter, 2010). Richards (2010:110) established that the UK has also encouraged specialised placement on TP for pre-service teachers which increases their confidence and skills when dealing with diverse learners. Teacher education has also included training of Teaching Assistants (TA) who provide support especially for learners with high levels of special needs (Webster, 2014:233). This study will examine the mode of professional preparation of university pre-service teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe against the background of the UK.

3.7.3 USA

In the USA, policies and legislation centred on achieving equality in education were institutionalized in the 20th century. From the time that the USA's PL 42-142, Education for All Handicapped Children Act was passed in 1975, schools re-strategised to attain quality education for learners with disabilities (Voss & Bufkin, 2011; Valiquette, 2009; Charema, 2010). The USA is a 50-member state country with five territories and a single District of Columbia whose education system is highly decentralised (Valiquette, 2009). Policy implementation is autonomous, guided by the USA Constitution (Federal Law) (Spellings & Justesen, 2008) and both the State and local authorities are mandated to run the education system of the country. The USA Congress passed legislation to establish the Department of Education (DoE). On 4 May 1980, the Congress legislated the establishment of the DoE obliged to create a conducive environment for achievement of students that would guarantee their global competitiveness through access and excellence in education (Landin, 2010; Spellings & Justesen, 2008). Inclusion in education is understood as “a commitment to educate every child to the maximum extent possible in a school with support services brought to the child rather than bringing the child to the support services” (Spellings & Justesen, 2008:9).

Inclusion in education is not a recent development in the USA but it gained currency in the early 20th century when ethnic group differences were abolished to ensure access and instructional equity in mainstream pedagogical settings (Landin, 2010; Zinn, 2005). Inclusion in education can be traced back to the American Declaration of Independence, where the buzzwords ‘with liberty and justice for all’ propelled its initiation when it became apparent in national politics, religious practice, economics and education (Shea, 2006). The Declaration of Independence guaranteed equity, hence the push for inclusion in America.

Besides advocating for educational freedom, religious freedom as well as socio-economic opportunities increased at the turn of the 20th century (Rorabaugh, 2008; Landin, 2010). In 1930 the process of establishing inclusion in education in the USA began, followed by the Civil Rights Act in 1960 aimed at advancing both societal and

educational inclusiveness. These were followed by the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965 which provided educational opportunities and funding to ethnic minorities (Landin, 2010) as alluded to earlier, IDEA of 1990, was an extension of ESEA which introduced special programs for children with physical and mental disabilities. In 2004, IDEA (1990) was amended to the Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act (IDEIA) aimed at establishing inclusion in education particularly for children with disabilities (Garba, 2004; Mark & Weber, 2006). The IDEIA (2004) improved the No Child Left Behind Act (2001) through mandating that schools attain excellence in education while at the same time enhancing opportunities both in school and society for those with disabilities (Mark & Weber, 2006).

The enactment of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 and amended in 2001 also known as the No Child Left Behind (NCLB) Act of 2001 was based on what Spellings and Justesen (2008:39) call the 'four common-sense pillars': accountability of results, expanded parental options, research-based instruction and increased local control and flexibility. Accountability of results is concerned with being able to identify those schools and districts that require improvement. There is an assessment of the ability of learners in reading and Mathematics so that schools are able to identify those that need further assistance in order to reach the level of academic excellence required by the state. Research-based instruction is focused on 'what works'. Rigorous scientific research should be the basis for instruction. Expanded parental options entail timeous engagement with parents in relation to performance of their child in school. Such engagement allows for awareness of the strength and weaknesses of a child. Flexibility and control is centred on the NCLB Act. It holds that, in exchange for accountability, both the school and local authority are entitled to more flexibility in how they administer their expenditure of federal funding. In essence, the schools are challenged by being given autonomy in decision making about the use of federal funding. Inclusion in education therefore was meant to embrace all learners irrespective of ethnicity, socio-economic status as well as mental and physical disabilities.

The USA is at present making use of two laws to ensure inclusion in education, namely, NCLB (2001) Act and IDEA amended in 2004. The two Federal Laws have enshrined in

them the principle that every child can access free education. IDEA is not necessarily about inclusion in education but mandates that a Least Restrictive Environment (LRE) and quality teachers be provided so that children with disabilities can access education without hindrances (Spellings & Justesen, 2008). Since inclusion has been practiced in the education system of the USA which has had policies on the philosophy in place for a very long time, Americans pursue special education instead. The IDEA (2004) is concerned with governing special education and has seen 96% of learners with disabilities enrolled in mainstream schools with the remainder placed in other institutions (Cheung, Wu & Hui, 2015; Spellings & Justesen, 2008). Eunice et al (2015) reveal that at least 50 percent of learners with disabilities spend about 80% of their time in regular classrooms in the US. Landin (2010:5) postulates that "as the USA's 21st Century education is underlined by the No Child Left Behind concept, possibly the next century will be characterized by the buzzword: "All Children Included".

Spellings (2008) established that in the USA inclusion is regarded as the commitment of the state to educate all children to their fullest extent possible in the mainstream classroom setting where the child is supported rather than looking for their own support services. Dukes and Lamar-Dukes (2006:4) postulate that Americans regard inclusion in education as "all children with disabilities being educated where they would be educated if they did not have a disability with necessary supports provided to children, educators and families so that all can be successful". The probable reason why the USA supports inclusion in education is its sound economic base. However, as noted in the Iowa City by Boston-Kemple (2012:3), inclusion in education, mainstreaming and LRE are used interchangeably. In this city, besides being a whole school philosophy of everybody, inclusion in education is believed to also be concerned about the placement option of children with disabilities. Boston-Kemple (2012) noted that, inclusion in education in Iowa City is anchored on the belief that it is in the general education classroom where diverse children learn. In the USA, teacher education is state funded and schools are obliged to recruit highly qualified teachers with state certification licences that permit practice teaching in regular classrooms (Sleeter, 2008:216). According to Cannon and Luckner (2016:100), the teacher education curriculum constitutes research-based, interdisciplinary approaches and diverse methodologies such as co-teaching and

collaboration. This study examined the state of inclusion in education and the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service teachers for the philosophy in Zimbabwe and what lessons could be learned from the USA.

3.7.4 Italy

Italy is far ahead of many countries that are only discussing and starting to practice inclusion in education in compliance with the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UN, 2006) aimed at eliminating exclusionary practices in mainstream educational settings. Italy had already adopted the philosophy in 1977 by crafting a policy called *Integrazione Scolastica* meaning student integration (D'Alessio, 2011:2). *Integrazione Scholastic* created a widely inclusive environment with social, legislative, educational and pedagogical impetus to tackle challenges associated with practicing inclusion in education such as discrimination and exclusion. The Italian integrationist ideology can be traced back to the democratic Italian Constitution of 1948. As the constitution marked a turning point in abolishing discriminatory legislation, it became necessary to pass laws that provided for social integration (D'Alessio, 2011:6). The constitution was meant to promote reconciliation through integration to end the practice of denying minority groups their freedom and rights. Article 34 of the Constitution provided all Italian citizens the right to education without any discrimination. Article 3 of the Constitution prohibits any form of discrimination against any citizen and safeguards their equal social dignity regardless of their social conditions. Italy is constitutionally required to eliminate socio-economic barriers to the freedom and equality of all citizens (Petrella, 2012:7). In accordance with Italian Law 62/2000, Article 34 obliges all schools, whether special or ordinary to accept learners with disabilities, including those with severe disabilities.

According to Camerini (2011:8), Italian education took a crucial turn in the 20th century as inclusion in education was gradually developed to what it is at present, “spanning from exclusion, medicalisation, insertion, integration to inclusion”. Law 118/71 was enacted to promote the compulsory provision of education to children with mild to moderate disability in regular schools. This law was however not the first to provide for

integration in Italy. Another law was passed in 1977, 517/77 and its key focus was on ensuring that 6-14-year old children with disabilities were included in regular schools. As learners started lower secondary education, separated classes became less popular resulting in learners with disabilities being moved to regular schools and the necessary support was provided for them in these institutions (Kohama, 2012:44). This resulted in some special schools closing. Inclusion in education was adopted in Italy in 1977 with law 517/77 mandating the closure of separate or special schools (Camerini, 2011:8). The Constitutional Court of Italy amended the constitution in 1987 to include a provision for children with severe disabilities to have unconditional access and acceptance in regular secondary schools. Law 104/92 was later enacted and encompassed all concerns of children with disabilities, becoming a milestone in integration. The Law “spelt out principles of quality school inclusion: need for Individualised Educational Plans, clinical diagnosis, functional diagnosis and a dynamic profile that describes the relationship between skills taught and disability reaction” (Petrella, 2012:6).

Inclusion in education in Italy is an ethical issue practiced everyday based on respecting human rights and embracing diversity and celebrating it as normal (Petrella, 2012:2; Camerini, 2011:2). After Law 104/1992 led to the shutting down of separated secondary education, separated primary schools were closed fifteen years later. Inclusion in education is therefore fully operational at both levels of education, that is, the primary and secondary levels (Petrella, 2012:10). Thus, for Italy, inclusion in education is not a recent development since it began to be practiced several years before the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (UNESCO, 1994) that introduced it globally. Article 6 of Law 104/92, enabled the provision of free prevention, diagnosis and early rehabilitation. Principles of subsidies and autonomy of schools underpin the education system in Italy (D’Alessio, 2011:15).

In 2009, the Italian Ministry of Education developed guidelines for inclusion in education that sought to improve the quality of educational interventions (Ministry of Education, 2009; Petrella, 2012:8). After a year, special teachers became irrelevant through Law 170/2010 which sought to facilitate the empowerment of regular teachers so there would be a paradigm shift from a method of instruction that is clinical to one that is more

pedagogical. On 27 December 2012, there was a ministerial directive to effect inclusive practices in classrooms by offering tailor-made educational plans where at most two children with disabilities would be put in a class not exceeding 20 learners (Petrella, 2012:13).

Law 128/2013 was passed to ensure compulsory in-service training for teachers in regular schools so that the Italian inclusive education model could be of a high quality. The organisational structure of schools in Italy is spelt out in the country's Specific Guidelines (2014) that include an Annual Plan for Inclusion (API) which describes core and extra-curricular activities as well as organisational resources available (Ministry of Education, 2009; Petrella, 2012:13). According to Petrella (2012:18), the model of inclusion in education in Italy has the potential to keep getting better with laws being crafted that are meant to encourage the establishment of ordinary classes at rehabilitation institutions and hospitals across the country. The study examined the quality of the professional preparation of graduate pre-service teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe against a background of the Italian teacher education system which is supported by legislation.

3.7.5 India

In India, the Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment is responsible for the education of children with disabilities, instead of the Ministry of Education. Education of children with disabilities largely remains the responsibility of individual families as well as non-governmental organisations (Sanjeev & Kumar, 2007:1). Ironically, India has more than 36 million children with disabilities, the majority of whom are part of the 78% of its population living in rural areas where provision of special education is limited. Consequently, children with disabilities in India are more vulnerable to exclusion, which is exacerbated by inadequate resources to cater for the needs of children without disabilities in regular schools. (Kohama, 2012:12; Sanjeev & Kumar, 2007:2). Education is a human rights issue hence the country has a duty to provide it to all citizens. Sanjeev and Kumar (2007:2) argue that, if the country adopts inclusion in education, then it should be pursued as a value issue not as an experiment. The Constitution of India of

1950 does not explicitly spell out social justice for children with disabilities. Children with disabilities are therefore consistently discouraged from attending mainstream schools as that makes parents of typically developing children uncomfortable (Kohama, 2012:11; Sanjeev & Kumar, 2007:2).

Separate and institutional special education in India can be traced back to 1883 with the opening of the first school for deaf children in Bombay. In 1887 a school for children with visual impairment was opened at Amritsar (Kohama, 2012:14). According to Sanjeev and Kumar (2007:2), as India gained independence in 1947, there was a sharp rise in the number of special schools with 30 opened for learners with deafness, 32 for learners with visual impairment and three for those with intellectual disabilities. Three thousand similar institutions had been opened in the country by the year 2000 (Sanjeev & Kumar, 2007:3). Special education became more segregated as most of these institutions were located in urban settings. A disability culture was developed. The Constitution was amended in 2001 to enshrine equality and the rights for all citizens as well as making education free and compulsory for children under the age of 14.

The changes in 2001 were developed over time. For instance, a scheme called the Integrated Education for Disabled Children (IEDC) was introduced in 1974 to increase their levels of achievement and retention by focusing on attendance (Sanjeev & Kumar, 2007:3). In 1986 a National Policy on Education was introduced enshrining the integration of children with disabilities in regular classrooms but it was not implemented. In 1992 a Programme of Action was developed to advance the preparation of children with disabilities for community life (Kohama, 2012:19; Sanjeev & Kumar, 2007:3). In 1987, Project Integrated Education for the Disabled (PIED) was adopted that shifted from integration at school level to a composite area approach which involved clustering, and this approach would dominate for a decade (Kohama, 2012). This led to communities changing their attitudes which then resulted in a rise in retention of children with disabilities in school (Sanjeev & Kumar, 2007:4). After five years, the Rehabilitation Council of India Act (1992) was passed and ordered that special teachers could only practice if they were qualified and had a license to teach.

India became a signatory to the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (UNESCO, 1994) in 1994. It passed the Persons with Disability Act in 1995 which requires that the government guarantees inclusion in education through non-discrimination and barrier removal in regular schools where participation is promoted in compliance with the statement (Kohama, 2012:13; Das, Kuyini & Desai, 2013:27). A new era was ushered in, in India, which transformed the education of diverse children including those with disabilities. All schools in India were required to create a conducive environment for learners with disabilities by 2020. This Act provided for equal opportunities for all children as well as safeguarding their rights and guaranteeing participation. The Persons with Disability Act (1995) also introduced free education until the age of 18 through “providing free transport, removal of barriers, material supplies, scholarships and restructuring of the school curriculum” (Sanjeev & Kumar, 2007:4).

India adopted inclusion in education in 1997 following the development of the District Primary Education Programme (DPEP) whose main thrust was a child-centred pedagogy that emphasised curriculum issues as well as modifications vital to enhance curriculum access (Kohama, 2012:5; Sanjeev & Kumar, 2007:4). A Tenth Plan (2002-2007) was created by India and it sought to provide universal primary education, particularly to those children residing in remote areas difficult to access. India offers inclusion in education through a programme called Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) (2002) which translates to Education for All (2002) (Kohama,2012:22). This programme was premised on the attainment of Universal Elementary Education (UEE) by 2010 through guaranteeing that no child was rejected by any school (Sanjeev & Kumar, 2007:8; Kohama, 2012:22). The policy also focused on access, enrolment and retention of children with disabilities. However, due to the lack of attainment of targeted goals, the programme has been extended. In 2005, a National Curriculum Framework was developed and its focus was on making schools platforms for life-training through beneficial education.

In 2009, India passed the Right to Education (RTE) Act which had initially been drafted in 2005 to enable equal access for all citizens to quality education. While the Act

became effective in 2010, the Supreme Court of India confirmed its constitutionality on 12 April 2012 (Kohama, 2012:26). This latest piece of legislation reaffirms the country's commitment to equality within a landscape of socio-economic diversity. While India's policies seem to lean towards inclusion in education, they have not been perfectly inclusive. This is demonstrated in the high percentage of children with disabilities, that is, about 94% who are not in school. According to the World Bank (2010:2), almost all children with disabilities in the country do not progress beyond primary education. Tagore (2016:19) notes that, as a country in transition, India's problem is not the elimination of differences but uniting while recognising and acknowledging those differences.

According to Singal (2005:331), Indian universities offer a Bachelor of Education degree programme in special education as an elective whose study units have a disability orientation. Das et al's (2013:27) quantitative study established that pre-service teachers had no experience of practicing inclusion in education as they had not been trained for it and had no access to support services for teaching diverse learners. India needs to train pre-service teachers in the relevant teaching methodology for the success of inclusion in education (Kohama, 2012:3). This study examined the state of professional preparation of university graduate pre-service teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe against the background of India.

3.7.6 China

China has not yet fully embraced inclusion in education and is still widely practicing a whole school approach to integrated education (Cheung, Wu & Hui, 2015:3). While children with disabilities attend regular schools, they do not learn in the same classes as their typically developing peers. There are three choices for children with disabilities, namely, "special needs children attending separate special classrooms, special needs children being fully included in the mainstream classrooms or special needs children attending special education classes that emphasise on subjects for self-reliance rather than regular curriculum" (Cheung et al, 2015:3). Inclusion in education in China is therefore still underdeveloped.

China adopted inclusion in education in the 1980s with legislation that was meant to support it as a result of the socio-economic challenges that its citizens were facing. These challenges included, inter alia, transportation difficulties and strained financial resources (Malinen, 2013:6; Liu & Jiang, 2008:13; UNESCO, 2007:2). By 1990, the government had passed a new policy meant to educate children with disabilities in mainstream schools called Suiban Jiudu, meaning 'Learning in regular classrooms' (Xu, 2012:2; Malinen, 2013:6). By 2010, approximately 60.1% of children with disabilities had been able to access education through this policy. Although this is a positive development, the country is still catering for special needs children through the whole school approach to integration (Malinen, 2013:7). China therefore does not fully and holistically support inclusion in education. Bach (2009:30) observed that China's failure to practice inclusion in education in a widely accepted form demonstrates that, in spite of the ideas being internationally recognised, educational practices, steeped in a people's culture, cannot be easily transformed.

Although China is a signatory to the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (UNESCO, 1994), the country was already practicing inclusion in education in its own way which may not be too different from what was regarded as ideal at the conference. The education system in place was characterised by 'special' children learning in regular schools (UNESCO, 2007:2). China therefore supports both special education and mainstream schools. Between 1985 and 2010 China witnessed a drop in the number of regular primary schools by over 500000 units in preference of special education schools (Malinen, 2013:8). This is in line with the Chinese statement:

"Yi teshujiaoyuxuexiaoweiguan, yisuibanjiudu he tejiao ban weizhuti" that is, 'Special education school as backbone, learning in regular classrooms as main body' (Malinen, 2013:8).

In 2003, China drafted the Action Plan of Education for All (2002-2015) through which significant progress has been made in inclusion in education and continues to be pursued. The Plan has been widely touted as cost effective in the education of children with disabilities (Malinen, 2013:8). In 2006, China revised and approved the Compulsory

Education Law making the implementation of nine years of free education for all children compulsory (UNESCO, 2007:3) and the government was obliged to fund education. In 2007 the policy was expanded to cater for children from rural poor backgrounds by providing them with free textbooks and subsidizing their boarding expenses (Malinen, 2013).

The Compulsory Education Law was noted by UNESCO (2007:6) to be China's critical guarantee for the practice of inclusion in education. This law works together with the country's New Curriculum Reform Scheme which makes it mandatory for teachers to respect the individual personalities of students. "The scheme is premised on principles of appreciation, tolerance and respect as key themes of the relationship expected to exist between teachers and learners" (UNESCO, 2007:10). As an environment of trust was being created, schools in China were becoming child friendly and learners with disabilities were finding comfort in the recognition of their dignity and independence.

Though education is not a fundamental right in China, teacher preparation programs are experiencing a paradigm shift in catering for learners with disabilities from a charity model to a social model as disability is currently perceived as a societal issue that requires a holistic approach (Yu, Su & Liu, 2011:360). This perception is in line with the national practice of 'sui ban du' meaning 'learning in a regular classroom' (Yu et al. 2011:355). There is a serious shortage of appropriately trained teachers for inclusion in education in China as there are no national teacher education programmes that are focused on promoting inclusion (Sharma et al, 2013:9). Plans exist to transform the teacher education curriculum in China to be more practical in approach while promoting collaboration between specialist and regular teachers (Sharma et al, 2013:11). The study examined the curriculum of the professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education and the state of its practice in Zimbabwe.

3.7.7 South Africa

An estimated five percent of the South African population has some disability and close to 70 percent of school-going age children with a disability are not going to school (Statistics South Africa, 2011; Majoko & Phasha, 2018). With the end of apartheid in

1994, South Africa adopted a new Constitution that recognised the rights of children with disabilities. Education became compulsory and racially segregated schools were abolished as evidenced in numerous government initiatives that followed (Donohue & Bornman, 2014:2; Maher, 2009:19). Inclusion has been regarded as an ideal model for education in South Africa. The country adopted it following the global Education for All (1990) initiative in the wake of the enhanced human rights discourse (Sukhraj, 2006:1; Donohue & Bornman, 2014:1).

The South African government published Education White Paper 6 [EWP6] (Department of Education [DoE], 2001) that explicitly spelt out its drive towards inclusion in education (DoE, 2001:10). In spite of this policy, a large percentage of children with disabilities remain enrolled in special schools (Sukhraj, 2006:1; Donohue & Bornman, 2014:3) This has been exacerbated by the lack of consensus pertaining to what constitutes a disability in the country (Heap, Lorenzo & Thomas, 2009:857; Statistics South Africa, 2011). EWP6 also lacks clear and specific guidelines on inclusion in education. The White Paper on Education and Training in South Africa (DoE, 1995; Eunice & Nyangia, 2015:42), enshrines the vision of a transformed education system based on equal access and non-discrimination (Naicker, 2005:232; Swart & Pettipher, 2007:16). The South African Schools Act (1996) enshrines compulsory primary education and afford parents the choice of where to place their children with disabilities (Naicker, 2005:232; Mumford, 2013:71). The Integrated National Disability Strategy (Ministerial Office of the Deputy President, 1997) mandates the provision of specialised support system thus departing from a charity model to a social model of disability (Swart & Pettipher, 2007:17; Mumford, 2013:71). The Green Paper on Emerging Policy on Inclusive Education of 1999 sought to provide solutions to difficulties encountered in accessing education particularly by children with disabilities and then adopted the South African Sign Language (SASL) as a medium of instruction (Mumford, 2013:72; Storbeck, Magongwa & Parkin, 2009:140). EWP6 (2001), with a thrust on building an inclusive education and training system, is the guiding document for the practice of inclusion in education in South Africa (Eunice & Nyangia, 2015:42; DoE, 2001).

EWP6 spells out that the adoption of inclusive education in the country is aimed at eliminating barriers to learning that children with disabilities were encountering (Storbeck et al, 2009:140; Mumford, 2013:72) and transforming the education system through the development of integrated education where there are no separate special and ordinary schools (Donohue & Bornman, 2014:2). The implementation of the plan was given a 20-year span but has suffered from inadequate funding from government since independence and has largely depended on donor funding (Sukhraj, 2006:2). The situation is compounded by the current status of education in South Africa which is marked by violence in schools, high dropouts and child sexual abuse leading to teenage pregnancies, thus making provision of access to quality education for children with disabilities a deferred goal (Hay & Beyers, 2011:234; Van der Berg, 2007:849). Such a state is the after-effects of apartheid education policies which encouraged discrimination and a divided society (Donohue & Bornman, 2014:2; DoE, 2001:16).

In South Africa, 26 public institutions, including universities, provide pre-service teacher professional preparation for inclusion in education which however, is inefficient in catering for diverse learners (Centre for Education Policy Development, 2005:1). A shift from a content-based to a competence-based approach is apparent in the South African teacher education where the curriculum, quality assured by the Council on Higher Education (CHE), should promote marriage between theory and practice (South African Institute for Disability and Education, 2005:4). Despite these efforts, “too few teachers are entering the teaching profession, too many are leaving the profession, and too many are inappropriately deployed in the teaching profession” to cater for diverse learners’ needs (Human Sciences Research Council, 2005:7). This study examined the marriage between theory and practice in the professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe against the context of South Africa.

3.7.8 Botswana

Botswana is a signatory to a number of global human rights instruments which seek to promote access of children with disabilities to quality education (Mukhopadhyay, 2013:73; Ministry of Education and Skills Development, 2008:4). In the aftermath of the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education

(UNESCO, 1994) Botswana passed the Revised National Policy on Education (RNPE) of 1994 which sought among other things, “to increase access and equity in education in addition to developing a responsive training (system) by effectively preparing children with disabilities for life after school” (Mukhopadhyay, 2013:4). The RNPE recommended the placement of children with disabilities in regular educational settings. Previously, NGOs funded education for children with disabilities after the Botswana government had instituted a policy called Education for Kagisano in 1977 which afforded children the right to education although it was unclear in relation to children with disabilities (Government of Botswana, 1997; Mukhopadhyay, 2013:74). After noting some gaps in education of Kagisano, the government mandated the National Commission on Education in 1992 to address such gaps, a process that culminated in the RNPE in 1994 (Mukhopadhyay, 2013:74). The RNPE sought to integrate into the curriculum contemporary issues including HIV and AIDS, gender awareness and life skills (Ministry of Education and Skills Development [MoESD], 2008:6). The Department of Special Support Services whose responsibility is the provision of inclusive education oversees these issues (MoESD, 2008:9; UNICEF, 2009). The RNPE of 1994 was complemented by Vision 2016 which aimed to see it become a nation “which is educated and informed as well as being just, caring, safe, democratic, tolerant and united”(MoESD, 2008:4). Vision 2016 considered education an empowerment tool that would spur national economic development and no citizen living below the poverty datum line by 2016. The RNPE and Vision 2016 promote inclusion in education under the Ministry of Education which derives its mandate from the Education Act: 58:01 Section 3(i) revised in 2002 to encourage primary and post primary education with the aim of achieving education for all (MoESD, 2008:31).

To cater for children with disabilities, Botswana passed other policies “that include provision of free and compulsory basic education, international scholarships, transport and social support for all vulnerable children” (MoESD, 2008:32). The Ministry introduced the use of Setswana from pre-school up to Standard 2 to ensure that no child including those with disabilities, is excluded from education due to cultural issues and language (MoESD, 2008:34). There is also an initiative to include children in all their diversities through tailor-made teaching and learning content. This initiative

involves curriculum development through involving stakeholder representatives from diverse geographical, political and cultural backgrounds (Mukhopadhyay, 2009:4; MoESD, 2008:34). Teachers are discouraged from using traditional methods of teaching including 'chalk and talk' but to devise innovative strategies such as group activities or peer instruction (MoESD, 2008:36). In 2011, Botswana developed a policy document for the implementation of inclusive education (Government of Botswana, 2011). The policy advocates that vulnerable children pass basic education with the support of trained teachers who are able to prepare them for life after school (Mukhopadhyay,2013:74; Government of Botswana, 2011).

Mukhopadhyay's (2013:73) qualitative study established that Botswana's university teacher preparation programmes ill-prepared regular classroom teachers as they could not implement inclusion in education due to a lack of familiarisation with issues of the philosophy, lack of supportive services and lack of skills and knowledge. According to Mukhopadhyay, Molosiwa and Moswela (2009:57), Botswana proposed a three-and-a-half-year teacher preparation model for those with a passion to become specialist teachers in two study areas with support. The first 12 months would be focused on special education and educational foundation courses while the last 30 months would be for specialisation in the chosen two areas (Mukhopadhyay et al, 2009: 57). This study examined the model of professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in Zimbabwe against the backdrop of how it is implemented in Botswana.

3.7.9 Nigeria

Nigeria has not made much headway in inclusion in education as can be seen from its lack of policies and legislation that guarantees the rights of children with disabilities (Obi & Ashi, 2016:168). Special needs education is largely institutionalised and mostly funded by individual philanthropists and church missionaries who mostly cater for children with visual and other physical impairments. Negative attitudes at both political and social levels affect the practice of inclusion in education in the country (Jacob & Olisaemeka, 2016:193). Obi and Ashi (2016:169) argue that success for inclusion in education can be realised if there is a change of attitudes in Nigeria towards children

with disabilities. It has failed to have a census of all categories of its citizens, an indication of the lack of concern for persons with disabilities (Adetoro, 2014:1779).

With primary education for special needs children being institutional, secondary schools use an integration model, which largely caters for children with visual impairment, physical and motor disabilities. This is available only in a few selected mainstream schools that receive funding from the renowned St. Joseph's Centre in Obudu (Obi & Ashi, 2016:169). Some medically trained missionaries started the centre in 1972 to care for children with visual impairment. It was later transformed to become a centre for reverse integration in 1990 through the administration of Sister Mary Ashi. For those with hearing impairment, a different centre, the Good Shepherd Special Education Centre was established as an integrated model for secondary school children (Adetoro, 2014:1779; Obi & Ashi, 2016:169). The two centres have been noted in the Nigerian Education Plan as models for the practice of inclusion in education in future with provision of relevant support services.

In spite of them being few, institutions that cater for children with disabilities are also named after a particular disability (Adetoro, 2014:1779). This is against the spirit of inclusion in education as it potentially leads to stigmatisation of children who enrol in these centres. These institutions are however accepted according to the National Policy on Education (2004) which view special education as intended for both children and adults to have separate training (Jacob & Olisaemeka, 2016:189; Federal Government of Nigeria, 2004:7). The education system of Nigeria does not therefore support and embrace diversity amongst all learners. This is contrary to international practices which consider inclusion in education as welcoming learners from diverse backgrounds and conditions (UNESCO, 2001). The National Policy on Education (2004) compliments Nigeria's philosophy of Universal Basic Education (UBE). According to Adesina (2006:1), UBE is about developing citizens while integrating individuals into their communities. UBE is also about granting equal access to education for all Nigerians regardless of their level of study and whether formal or informal education.

Two and half decades after the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (UNESCO, 1994), credited with promoting the cause of

inclusion in education, Nigeria was yet to amend any of its laws or policies to practice the philosophy. Instead, its National Policy on Education (2004) introduced a programme named Special Education which was meant to provide for three groups of individuals but not in an inclusive way. The groups were individuals with disabilities, the disadvantaged and the gifted-talented individuals. Free education would be provided to these groups at all levels to promote access (Federal Government of Nigeria, 2004:47). Nigeria also seeks to provide financial and material support, particularly to children being trained in different skills, an initiative meant to empower them for employment. Obi (2008:81) has cautioned that continuous charity to people with disabilities can breed laziness.

Some scholars (Adetoro, 2014:1777; Obi & Ashi, 2016:170) have argued that for inclusion in education to be realised in Nigeria, there should be strategies such as the state demonstrating political will complimented by relevant legislation and policies that acknowledge the rights of people with disabilities. State funding and relevant material equipment should also be availed for all categories of disabilities. Above all this, continuity of policies should be guaranteed from the time the state decides to practice inclusion in education. Nigeria needs policy reform through an overhaul of all its educational policies to demonstrate its commitment to inclusion in education. There is the need for a census so that prevalence of disability in the country is known to enable effective planning in preparation for the adoption of inclusion in education. Stakeholders, including parents of children with disabilities, special educators, policy makers and other interested members of both the local and international community are engaging in discussions on strategies to realise inclusion in education considering its benefits and challenges of practicing it (Jacob & Olisaemeka, 2016:189; Ajuwon, 2008:11). Adetoro's (2014:1780) qualitative study recommended that, despite Nigeria's continued establishment of special schools across the country, there is a need for extensive initial teacher education for regular teachers to enhance their skills and pedagogy for inclusion in education. The focus is now on teacher education programs that promote information provision to counter negative attitudes towards learners with disabilities (Obi & Ashi, 2016:169). This study examined the state of professional

preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe against the Nigerian situation.

3.8 Teachers' understanding of inclusion in education

Inclusion is perceived differently, leading to conceptual confusion in its understandings and interpretations since the use of the term 'inclusion' in educational discourse is fairly recent (Norwich, 2013:9). The term inclusion has taken multiple meanings across the international fraternity as a result of the influence of the landmark Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (UNESCO, 1994) (Miles & Singal, 2008:9) which is its global descriptor. Consequently, despite being a relatively recent phenomenon, inclusion is premised on a traditional and contemporary mixture of established values of equal opportunity, social respect and solidarity, access and quality, equity and social justice, democratic values and participation and unity and diversity in education (Norwich, 2013:9). This mixture of values leads to significant ambiguities or misconceptions in its meaning and resultant use.

The adoption of inclusion in education worldwide however, has occurred despite these ambiguities in use and meaning (Florian, 2010:11; Norwich, 2013:11). Inclusion in education is a philosophical and methodological approach that refers to securing and guaranteeing the fundamental human right of all children to access, acceptance, presence, participation and success in their neighbourhood regular schools which should be designed in such a manner that they reduce barriers to quality and meaningful education (UNESCO, 2018:8). According to Mukhopadhyay and Musengi (2012:9), inclusion in education is focused on the provision of support services and resources that enhance diverse learners' ability to participate fully within the mainstream least restrictive school environment. Similarly, the Warnock Report (1978) for example, gave rise to efforts towards the practice of inclusion in education in the UK and other parts of the world (Hornby, 2011:321). Thus, inclusion in education is an evolving philosophy because of its re-conceptualisation. Inclusion in education has been used interchangeably to mean special education hence there are dilemmas of differences in

opinion as to how it is practiced in regular schools in terms of placement, identification and the curriculum considered ideal for diverse learners (Armstrong et al, 2010:8).

As a philosophy, inclusion in education is overall characterised by values of acceptance and belonging of learners to their communities where the schools are adapted to accommodate their individualities (Gal, Schreur & Engel-Yeger, 2010:89). The differences in meaning, however, may be related to historical, political and social contexts while similarities may be conceptualised in terms of what is shared as regards the field and common political and educational issues (Stubbs, 2008:19; Norwich, 2008:13). A paradigm shift from charity to a human rights approach to disability characterised by the introduction of non-stigmatising language was a great milestone towards inclusion in education (Bartolo, 2010:140). The key issue however is that inclusion in education is based on the rights and social models where the school system should adapt to the learners and not the learners adapting to the school system. Inclusion in education represents a shift from being pre-occupied with a particular group to a focus on overcoming barriers to learning and participation (Armstrong et al, 2010:7; 2008:38). Inclusion in education has become a contentious term that lacks a tight conceptual focus leading to misconceptions and confused practice (Voss & Bufkin, 2011:339; Forlin et al, 2013:6).

Several international studies have examined the understanding of inclusion in education of pre-service teachers and yielded inconsistent findings. Liggins (2016:1) conducted a qualitative study of 10 teachers from 10 elementary regular schools in a county school district in North-west Georgia using face-to-face semi-structured interviews. He found that these teachers understood inclusion in education as a worthwhile practice of teaching learners with disabilities together with their typically developing peers in regular classrooms. Nevertheless, the majority of these teachers perceived inclusion in education as an unfair challenge as they could not practice it in their regular classrooms. Similarly, a qualitative survey was conducted by Richmond, Irvine, Loreman, Cizman and Lupart (2013:198) of 123 rural Canadian elementary to secondary school teachers from Alberta District sampled from two secondary schools (Gr. 7-12), three K-9/10 schools, six elementary (Gr. K-6) schools and one middle-

school (Gr. 7-9) using in-depth interviews. They found that, while elementary teachers regarded inclusion in education as the contemporary and normal way of embracing diversity through the provision of an environment that caters for all learners, secondary teachers referred to it as a practice that only occurred to a certain level as determined by the individuality of learners. Inclusion is beyond the physical placement of learners with diverse and unique needs in regular classrooms and includes their participation, success and acceptance in these settings.

In Japan, Sanagi's (2016:103) quantitative survey of 182 regular and special school teachers, using questionnaires established that these teachers viewed inclusion in education as an extension of the environment of the school so as to provide education to learners who experience barriers to learning in resource units. Similarly, in Tanzania, Udoba (2014:63) conducted a qualitative study where four special needs education primary school teachers were informally observed teaching three separate classes with a unit for learners with unique educational needs and also interviewed them together with two parents. He found that all the teachers did not understand inclusion and that they felt under-qualified to teach learners with diverse and unique needs in regular primary schools.

In a qualitative study by Shevlin, Kearns, Ranaghan, Twomey, Smith and Winter (2009:2), using semi-structured interviews with Irish primary and secondary school teachers, support staff and principals, it was established that teachers defined inclusion differently though they overall conceptualised it as an extension of special education or an infusion of regular education and special education. In contrast, in the USA, Hong Kong, Canada and India, a quantitative survey by Forlin, Earle, Loreman and Sharma (2011:50) on 542 pre-service teachers from nine institutions in these countries who completed a questionnaire established that inclusion in education was understood as a way of meeting the educational needs of all learners enrolled in the regular classroom irrespective of individual differences.

At Haifa University in Northern Israel, a quantitative study by Gal, Schreur and Yeger (2010:89) on 53 Israeli-Jewish female pre-school teachers working in the Israeli state

education system was conducted using self-administered questionnaires. They found that these teachers equated inclusion in education to participation as they perceived that it was intertwined with the concept of human rights and equal opportunities for participation of individual learners in their social environments. This study also established that, although these teachers had positive attitudes towards inclusion in education, they were concerned about ideal accommodations required for different categories of disabilities since they felt that learners with disabilities were less successful than their peers without disabilities. Thus, inclusion in education was conceptualised as a process subject to determination by type and severity of disability. A more recent Canadian quantitative snapshot survey by Specht (2016:2) of 1490 pre-service teachers from 11 faculties of education using individual interviews found that these teachers understood inclusion in education as a right and an opportunity for all learners to be successful in life. These teachers' understanding of inclusion in education was rooted in the humanistic perspective as it was founded on respecting and valuing human dignity.

A quantitative study by Ali, Mustapha and Jelas (2006:36) of 235 Malaysian regular and special education teachers using self-administered questionnaires established that these teachers understood inclusion in education as interaction occurring amongst learners with disabilities and their peers without developmental delays in common regular classrooms. These teachers reported that such a setup had the potential to reduce negative stereotypes of learners with disabilities. Thus, inclusion in education was conceptualised as mainstreaming. Similarly, Ahmed, Sharma and Deppeler (2012:132) conducted a quantitative study on a sample of 738 teachers from Dhaka in Bangladesh using survey questionnaires. They found that these teachers understood inclusion in education as a practice that involved only learners with disabilities being brought into the regular classrooms for interaction. Gurgur and Uzuner (2010:311) in the same vein conducted a qualitative phenomenological study in Turkey involving pre-service teachers using semi-structured interviews. They established that inclusion in education was understood as a classroom practice where learners with different educational needs interact together in regular schools. The findings of the foregoing studies on pre-service teachers' understanding of inclusion in education are

inconsistent. These studies were also conducted in different countries hence the transferability of their findings to Zimbabwe is unknown. This study examined the understanding of inclusion in education of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers in Zimbabwe.

3.9 Teachers' practices in inclusion in education

Inclusive practices are based on the premise that “education systems and schools assume responsibility for organising curriculum and teaching around a diverse group of pupils in such a way that the learning environment is appropriate for the pupils' inherent resources” (Guojonsdottir & Oskarsdottir, 2016:5). This section reviews the literature on teachers' practices in inclusion in education.

3.9.1 Co-teaching

Co-teaching, small group instruction and one-to-one instruction are some of the inclusive education practices pre-service teachers can utilise in regular educational settings with learners with diverse and unique needs (Hartlep, Porfilio and O'Brien, 2015:135). Its utility is determined by such aspects as the size of the class, number of learners with diverse and unique needs as well as the type and nature of their needs (Press, Foote & Rinaldo, 2010:43). Co-teaching is a collaborative and flexible partnership between regular and special education teachers that is meant to deliver instruction to a regular education class so that learners' unique learning needs are fully catered for (Friend, Cook, Chamberlain & Shamberger, 2010:11). Its practice is premised on special education philosophy and legislative mandates such as the American No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 that stipulates that learners receive quality education as they interact with peers in a least restrictive environment. Co-teaching can assume six different approaches of professional planning and instruction delivery, including, one-teach-one-observe, station teaching, parallel teaching, alternative teaching, team teaching and one-teach-one-assist (Friend & Bursuck, 2009:92; Friend et al, 2010:10) whose selection is determined by the needs of the learner and instructional intent (Friend & Cook, 2010:9).

Gurgur and Uzuner's (2010:311) action research using semi-structured interviews and observations on one regular teacher with 37 learners in a school certified by the Ministry of National Education and located in a poor socio-economic neighbourhood of Ankara in Turkey established that all co-teaching approaches were applicable to regular classes. Co-teaching helped teachers to be more informed during the process as teachers collectively planned instructional materials during meetings as they believed that success could not be achieved where they did not have a plan to follow. Co-teaching approaches ensured professional development of teachers and successful practice of inclusion in education. A qualitative study by Laarhoven, Munk, Lynch and Wyland, (2006:209) using presentations to introductory classes and focus group interviews with 84 pre-service teachers in Northern Illinois established that co-teaching greatly improved their capability to work with diverse learners in regular classes. The study also established that co-teaching enhanced learners' classroom achievement at the same time increasing teachers' positive attitudes, knowledge and skills to handle the diversity of learners in regular classrooms. In the same vein, Kamens (2007:155) carried out a qualitative case study using individual interviews and non-participant observations of two teams of four teachers placed in two K-3 and K-6 elementary schools with 450 and 890 learners respectively in central New Jersey, USA. The study found that co-teaching provided teachers with a platform to share ideas during planning which ultimately created a context for reflective discussion about the impact of instruction on the learners in regular classrooms. This study also established that co-teaching practices afforded teachers support to motivate learners with unique needs to participate and improve in achievement in regular classrooms. Using a mixed method research approach that included a survey of 101 conveniently sampled teachers in Tanzania, Frey and Kaff (2014:4) established that co-teaching supported evidence-based inclusive practices in addressing unique educational needs of learners with disabilities in regular classrooms. The study also established that these teachers were quite positive about the future use of both inclusive practices of co-teaching and collaboration in their regular classroom settings.

In contrast, Chitiyo and Brinda's (2018:38) quantitative study using questionnaires with 77 conveniently sampled general and special education teachers in inclusive South-

eastern USA classrooms revealed that learners of those teachers who were underprepared in co-teaching failed to realise the desired outcomes as teachers were adopting other non-inclusive practices such as separate placement which infringed learners' rights to be educated in the least restrictive environment. Similarly, Wong and Chik's (2016:195) qualitative multiple case study on 10 purposefully sampled government-funded Hong Kong primary school music teachers using semi-structured interviews found that teachers who were not adequately prepared in co-teaching and lacked training in special education and music for learners with special educational needs excluded such learners from participation in regular classrooms. In Portland, a qualitative study by Ruben, Rigelman and McParker (2016:14) using focus group interviews with five special education teachers, eight regular education teachers, three administrators and eight teacher-candidates, established that co-teaching and collaboration had multiple-benefits for both learners and professionals. However, teacher candidates expressed concern over being required to work harder than other cohort members in addition to being regarded by the school administrators as an extra burden to the school. The foregoing studies primarily used semi-structured interviews or focus group interviews, presentations and self-administered questionnaires and surveys. This study used individual interviews, non-participant observation, document analysis and follow-up discussions.

3.9.2 Universal design for learning (UDL)

UDL is a practice that is entrenched in the philosophy of inclusion for effective instructional pedagogy and is an approach to curriculum design and a blueprint for the formulation of strategies, resources and assessment tools to teach diverse learners in regular classrooms (Hall & Murray, 2010:2). UDL framework is grounded in three principles of multiple-means of representation, multiple-means of action and expression as well as multiple-means of engagement, emphasising a flexible curriculum and a wide range of instructional practices in regular classrooms (Hartman, 2015:59). Capp's (2017:791) meta-analysis of literature in Southern Queensland involving nine quantitative, seven mixed-method and two qualitative international studies that entailed pre- and post-testing, published in peer-reviewed journals between 2013 and 2016

established that the implementation of UDL framework improved the learning process for all learners in regular classrooms. While video games and supplementary texts provided learners with multiple-means of representation, the use of symbols as a means of expression, allowed learners to successfully construct questions while increasing their academic and social engagement, promoted their inclusiveness and autonomy in regular classrooms. Contrarily, in Marin, California, with 13 conveniently sampled middle school teachers, Gavin's (2017:78) quantitative study found that, while UDL improved lesson plan design and addressed unique needs of learners with disabilities in regular classrooms, it did not positively influence academic achievement of learners with significant intellectual disabilities who showed no gains in the classroom climate and their sense of belonging. The teachers however reported that training in UDL increased chances of its use in regular settings. Consistently, a qualitative study in Southern California by Black, Weinberg and Brodwin (2015:1) involving 12 learners with disabilities and three learners without disabilities using face-to-face interviews revealed that learners with visual impairment had limited independence in library use as the UDL principle of multiple-means of engagement imposed additional learning barriers for them. These learners resorted to relying on library staff assistance to meaningfully engage with library resources, an experience that further limited their independence.

In the Chicago metropolitan area, Mavrovic-Glasser (2017:1) used an electronically polled quantitative survey of 33 purposively sampled licensed regular and special education teachers. He used a self-administered questionnaire and found that there was a need for all teachers to receive pre-service or in-service training on UDL as an inclusive practice since UDL was utilised for inclusion purposes in regular classrooms more by teachers who were familiar with it and had received formal training on its use. Almost half (45%) of the teachers who participated in the study were not familiar with UDL principles and did not use it in their classrooms as they were not trained to use UDL. This was despite the Chicago Center for Applied Special Technology (CAST) having guidelines for its implementation to improve inclusion of diverse learners. This reinforced the finding that teachers can only apply inclusive practices they are knowledgeable about.

In Singapore where 75 pre-service special education teachers responded to a quantitative survey questionnaire, Yang, Tzuo and Komara (2011:212) found that the teachers did not realise curricular specific goals using UDL as they did not teach and model what they theorised. These teachers reported that modelling would assist them to observe inclusive practices at work, thus enhancing their understanding and skills acquisition for inclusion purposes. In Colombia, Baldiris, Zervas, Fabregat and Sampson (2016:17) administered an online quantitative questionnaire to 47 primary and secondary teachers. They established that teachers needed context specific training on the application of UDL principles for them to efficiently design, develop and evaluate inclusive lesson plans for their varied and complex demographic profile of learners in their regular classrooms. However, in Canada, Specht's (2016:1) qualitative study using an open-ended questionnaire with 1490 pre-service teachers found that, UDL was an effective instructional approach and strategy that was successfully and holistically incorporated in all curricular course work in pre-service teacher education programmes. These teachers expressed the significance of incorporating UDL as it further supported their understanding of inclusion and improved their skills and confidence in teaching regular classes that were constituted of learners with diverse and unique needs. The findings of the above studies on the professional preparation of teachers to use UDL in inclusion in education are inconsistent.

3.9.3 Collaboration

Collaboration is a practice where teachers work together with other interested stakeholders such as colleagues, psychologists, parents, local authorities, policy makers and funders to realise common educational goals through planning for academic and social needs of diverse learners in regular classrooms (Meadan & Amaya, 2008:159). It is also the art of teaching that professionals choose for use that is based on mutuality, shared resources, responsibility and accountability for educational outcomes leading to the development of trust and respect in the school community (Cook & Friend, 2010:3). Collaboration can take several forms such as co-planning, planning support, university-school partnership and co-assessing (Press, Foote & Rinaldo, 2010:43). Manabri, Sharhan, Elbeheri, Jasem and Everatt's (2013:130) mixed

method research using closed-ended questionnaires compared to group interviews, document analysis and classroom observations of 90 teachers from 28 mainstream primary schools in one educational district of Kuwait found that collaboration improved empathy and understanding of diverse learners in regular classrooms as well as developed support networks within the school. The study also established that collaboration increased parental and wider community engagement with the school which ultimately benefited both the teachers and their learners in regular classrooms. Similarly, in Australia, Farrell, Long, Williams and Laws' (2014:88) interpretive approach used a qualitative multi-site case study with an individual survey and semi-structured interviews with 10 4th year B. Ed primary pre-service teachers working with school leaders and special education mentors in five selected schools. The study revealed that collaboration promoted congruence of purpose, language and positive professional relationships that facilitated successful inclusion in education. The study also demonstrated that collaboration allowed improvement of the outcomes of the learners as partner-stakeholders used common language that was understood by all.

Ali, Mastapha and Jelas' (2006:36) quantitative study using questionnaires completed by 235 regular and special education teachers in Malaysia established that collaboration between regular and special education teachers was significant as it facilitated the practice of inclusion in education. The study found that collaboration provided teachers opportunities to share and discuss guidelines for practice of inclusion in regular classrooms as it strengthened teamwork for inclusion in education. Gafoor and Muhammed (2009:1) carried out a comparative study using the survey method on two groups of teachers where they randomly selected participants on the basis of their teacher education status. The sample was made up of 55 teachers whose studies were still in progress and 36 teachers who had completed the B. Ed programme. The study established that collaboration facilitated learning through peer tutoring and cooperative learning. The group who had completed their B. Ed indicated significant positive impact on both their knowledge and attitudes towards inclusion in education although some teachers indicated a lack of basic knowledge concerning its practice even after successfully completing their B. Ed programme. Collaboration and peer influence can

therefore have a positive impact on knowledge acquisition and attitudes towards inclusion in education.

In the USA, Collier, Keefe and Hirrel's (2015:117) qualitative study of 28 teacher candidates and 14 host families using open-ended questionnaires found that collaboration between teachers and families provided an opportunity for teachers to listen and learn from parents' social and educational experiences of their children. These teachers better understood the negative and positive impact that teachers and the education system had on learners and their families. Das, Kuyini and Desai's (2013:8) quantitative study on 223 and 130 Indian primary and secondary school teachers respectively using questionnaires, established that pre-service programmes offered needed more emphasis on collaboration competences as these teachers expressed relatively lower skill levels in it. In Bangladesh, Mullick, Deppeler and Sharma's (2012:2) qualitative study using semi-structured interviews with 79 teachers from Bangla's 10 regular primary schools found that collaboration between teachers and leadership, when decision-making was decentralised, facilitated school growth and improvement through practice aligned to implementation of policies on inclusion in education. This study examined the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for collaboration in education.

3.9.4 Differentiation of instruction

Differentiation of instruction is a pedagogical means of affording learners different ways of acquiring and processing information through individualised pacing and matching learning content with their individual needs (Tomlinson, 2011:2). Differentiated instruction is how teachers design and adopt accommodations that support learners' unique strengths and needs through personalising the content taught, the learning process and the environment in which learning occurs (Sugishita & Adresser, 2019:46). Methodology, pacing and matching of learning material as well as assessment and evaluation of the learning output underpin differentiation (Mafa & Chaminuka, 2012:38). A quantitative study by Sharma (2012:53) in Victoria, Australia where questionnaires were administered to 27 purposely sampled 4th year pre-service

teachers established that differentiated instruction was utilised as a strategy to include all learners in regular classrooms. These teachers reported that inclusion should be every teacher's responsibility, that they are required to identify the strengths of each learner and know how each learner is different.

In Canada, a quantitative study using 1490 randomly selected pre-service teachers from 11 Faculties of Education using focus group interviews by Specht (2016:1) found that differentiated instruction served all learners in regular classrooms. Differentiation of instruction allowed the teachers to improve their skills and confidence and optimally prepared them for regular settings with learners with diverse and unique needs to demystify the belief that inclusion is utopian or unrealistic. Similarly, Ko and Boswell's (2013:223) qualitative case study on seven purposely selected General Physical Education teachers in East Carolina, using individual interviews, observed that differentiation of instruction aided teachers to make appropriate modifications needed based on the individual's learning needs in regular classrooms. Differentiation created an opportunity for teachers to consider every learner and use a diversity of instructional and adapted equipment as critical considerations for successful inclusion in education. This study used a qualitative approach with individual interviews, document analysis and non-participant observations to ascertain the relevance of the above findings to the Zimbabwean context.

3.9.5 Guided notes

Guided notes are a skeleton of teacher presented lesson outlines in which learners actively respond during class lectures that offer central ideas with standard cues and prepared blank spaces for learners to fill in definitions, key concepts and additional information (Larwin, Dawson, Erickson & Larwin, 2012:109; Blackwell & McLaughlin, 2005:2). Effective note taking is often a challenge for many learners as these notes take varied forms including handouts, electronic and PowerPoint slides (Heward, 1994:304), at the same time demanding complicated skills of listening, short-term memory, prioritizing and transcribing for future use (McLeskey, Rosenberg & Westling, 2010:10).

In the states of Kent and Youngstown, USA, a quantitative study by Larwin et al (2012:108) involving a meta-analysis with 412 K-12 learners established that guided notes produced a moderate impact on the achievement of general education learners but no impact for special needs learners whose instructional obstacles of pacing and comprehension were not removed. The study also revealed that, guided notes however offered a viable solution to meet the increased pressure to reach standards for all learners in spite of decreasing budgets. Contrarily, Haydon, Mancil, Kroeger, McLeskey and Lin's (2011:226) quantitative study in the three states of Florida, Louisville and Cincinnati, USA, using electronic and archival searches with 332 K-12 learners of whom 79 had disabilities, found that the use of guided notes produced positive effects on learner outcomes as this practice improved accuracy of note-taking and learner test scores. Consistently, in a quantitative study using computer data base searches on 125 school age learners of whom 26 had disabilities in the Ohio state of the USA, Konrad, Joseph and Eveleigh (2009) established that, guided notes were an effective and socially valid method for multiplying note-taking accuracy as well as improving academic performance for school age learners.

A quantitative study in Cyprus by Kourea, Konrad and Kazolia (2019:47), using an experimental design on five learners with learning disabilities, found that a strong functional relationship between learners' academic performance and the guided notes programme was evidenced as the learners' academic performance increased as well as their note taking accuracy by 23.5% during intervention. While the above studies were more quantitative in approach and used meta-analysis from an American perspective, this study will adopt a qualitative approach and use thematic analysis from a Zimbabwean perspective.

3.9.6 Culturally and linguistically responsive pedagogy

According to Gay (2010:31), culturally responsive pedagogy refers to the utilization of cultural knowledge before experiences and performance styles of ethnically diverse learners so as to make learning more relevant and effective for them. Some of the features of culturally responsive learning include viewing differences as an asset,

valuing individual traditions, cultivating an ethos of academic excellence and incorporating multiculturalism (Hammond, 2015:9). Multiculturalism is a sociological phenomenon that refers to the existence of multiple cultures in a single nation where groups within a society may have their own cultural patterns which form its basis (Gulay, 2016:361). Multicultural education concerns valuing respect for others and being sensitive to diverse perceptions as it aims at providing equal educational chances for all learners from diverse socio-economic backgrounds (Hsu & Thomson, 2010:199).

Cuneyt and Mustafa's (2014:220) quantitative study in which they administered questionnaires to 201 teacher candidates at Usak University in Turkey found that, these teacher candidates had positive attitudes towards multiculturalism as a culturally responsive pedagogy in education as they had acquired enough knowledge and awareness about it yet their behavioural practice was not aligned to its requirements. The teacher candidates noted multiple benefits of practicing multiculturalism, including development of positive personality, understanding other nations and reducing racial prejudices. These study findings were corroborated by those from a mixed-methods research conducted by Gulay (2016:361) on 341 teachers at educational institutions in the Tokat province of Turkey. Using both closed-ended and open-ended questionnaires as well as content analysis revealed that, while teachers had positive attitudes and positive perceptions of their competency towards a culturally responsive pedagogy like multiculturalism, this practice was not evidenced in real classroom situations. These teachers needed training for the acquisition of pre-requisite skills and sensitivity to learners from diverse income groups and their different levels of potential. Silva (2016:171) used a qualitative case study of California's Strawberry Fields Corporate Charter School, involving 41 learners, one 53-year old heterosexual middle-class white female teacher and one 25-year old heterosexual middle class Chicana graduate participant observer. The study found that the teacher appreciated multiculturalism as culturally responsive form of learning. The teacher echoed its significance in facilitating learning and understanding of how diverse people are treated and managed globally, practices which should resonate with compassion and respect for humanity. The participant observer also noted that multiculturalism facilitated a sense of social activism in learners. The above studies were located in the strongest global economies but the

current study was focused on ascertaining and contextualising these findings to one of the world's weakest economies, Zimbabwe with cultural diversity.

3.9.7 Parental involvement

According to Kim, An, Kim and Kim (2018:128), parental involvement refers to parents' dedication and the activities they undertake during the course of their children's lives at home and/or in school through communication with their children's teachers and others so as to influence their children's overall school performance and personal development. Components of parental involvement include communication between parents and children regarding school, checking, monitoring and assisting with homework, parental educational expectations and aspirations for their children as well as attendance and participation in school activities (Cabus & Aries, 2017:286).

In the Oromia Regional State of Ethiopia, Assefa and Sintayehu's (2019:46) mixed methods study on 30 top scoring and 30 low scoring students purposefully selected from the 8th, 10th and 12th grades and their 52 parents using questionnaires, document analysis and interviews established that a significant positive relationship between parental involvement and students' achievement existed. The study also found that, while the top 10 performers from the three respective grades where parents were highly involved by supporting and monitoring their children's education, the bottom 10 performers and those who scored below 50% were students with less involved families. Similarly, de Apodaca, Gentling, Steinhaus and Rosenberg's (2015:35) quantitative study using questionnaires to quantify 82 parents' involvement in the education of their 82 7th and 8th grade students in Santiago, USA, established that there was a significant relationship between parental involvement and students' academic performance. This study also revealed a more complicated relationship between parental involvement and academic achievement since resource room confined students (those who received specialist attention in isolation) had significantly lower grades than special day students in non-inclusive classrooms. Similarly, Roy and Garcia's (2018:29) quantitative study using questionnaires administered to 276 parents from Rotterdam, Netherlands, and their 286 students selected from the 16 Dutch schools' Grades 7 - 10 found a

significantly positive relationship between parental involvement and student performance.

Conversely, a Swedish quantitative study by Niiia, Almquist, Brunnberg and Granlund (2015:297) using questionnaires on 786 children, 143 teachers and 666 parents found that, while teachers' and parents' ratings of parental involvement in school demonstrated a higher agreement, parental involvement correlated negatively with academic achievement of students as communication was more frequent between teachers and parents of underachieving students than those who demonstrated high academic performance. This study also found that, while teachers viewed students' participation in school as related to activity and academic performance, students perceived of their participation as related more to social interaction and not academic performance. Similarly, Echaune, Ndiku and Sang (2015:46) carried a quantitative survey of 30 head teachers and 30 parents purposively sampled and 192 teachers and 280 pupils proportionately sampled from 30 randomly sampled schools in Teso North Sub County, Busia-Kenya. They used questionnaires, semi-structured interviews and document analysis and found that, while parental involvement in homework positively correlated with school academic performance, parents provided limited help in areas of reading, writing and calculating Mathematical problems. The study also established that, female parents were more cooperative in helping children with their homework. These findings are consistent with Cabus and Aries' (2017:285) quantitative study using questionnaires in the Netherlands on 9126 Grade 7 students from 721 classrooms in 122 schools and 4222 parents that established that academic achievement of children was buttressed in a school supportive home environment that was often created by mothers who may however have sought the father's assistance in working out challenging sums. The study also established that the involvement of parents from poor socio-economic backgrounds was less effective in influencing their children's educational outcomes. The findings of the above studies are inconsistent.

3.9.8 Individualised Educational Programme

According to Baesler (2018:46), an Individualised Educational Programme (IEP) is “a statement of measurable annual goals including academic and functional goals” designed to address educational needs of the learner by enabling one to attain academic achievement in the regular education curriculum. A qualitative case study by Rodriguez (2017:70) in the Western State, USA on four special education teachers using open-ended individual interviews and classroom observations established that use of IEPs promoted progress for learners on an individualised basis. However, the teachers reported that IEPs alone, without instructional strategies, were non-beneficial to learners. Elder, Rood and Damiani’s (2018:116) quantitative study on a single American learner using a questionnaire established that, while IEPs were widely applied and were often the first introduction of the learners to their teachers, they remained largely deficit-focused with only peripheral level attention given to documenting the learners’ strengths and potentialities. The learner however reported that, strength-based IEPs have the transformative potential to reconstruct learners to become equal partners in contributing towards economic development of their communities.

Conversely, in North Georgia, a qualitative study by Pounds and Cuevas (2016:21) using in-depth individual interviews with three 1st, 2nd and 3rd grade learners found that the use of IEPs yielded no beneficial learning outcomes due to the cognitive learning disabilities of these children who were too young and had less school experience and who, at the same time, lacked awareness about their own learning needs. The findings of the above studies are inconsistent.

3.9.9 Active learner engagement

Active learner engagement involves learners in a lesson or activity talking, writing or acting in some way to reinforcing participation, encouraging them to stay on task, be more attentive and involved in the instruction (Sigishita & Dresser, 2019:44). A Saudi Arabian qualitative multiple-case study by Alsalim (2019:1) using methodological triangulation of document analysis, staffroom and classroom observations as well as non-structured and semi-structured individual interviews with three female high school

Mathematics teachers observed that, since Mathematics is a hands-on subject that required more practice, constant and active learner engagement promoted active participation and resulted in increased learner achievement. The participant teachers reported that the engagement of learners during teaching and learning offered them more control, direction and support in the pedagogical situation thereby affording them the opportunity to practice more often. Consistently, Stiffler's (2018:153) qualitative study using open-ended individual interviews with 33 formal and non-formal teacher-leaders from 10 schools in four districts of Northern California found that engagement benefited learners and should be executed in an honest and reflective dialogue with individual learners. These teacher-leaders reported the criticality of identifying the unique needs of learners so as to engage meaningfully and reduce the achievement gap. This study ascertained and contextualized these international findings to Zimbabwe.

3.9.10 Classroom management

Classroom management is a critical strategy and skill for classroom practitioners which involves actions taken by teachers to establish a supportive and user-friendly environment for social, emotional and academic learning of learners aimed at increasing their positive behaviour in the classroom (Korpershoek, Harms, de Boer, van Kuijik & Doolaard, 2014:11). In a systematic review of 37 articles of literature published in peer-reviewed journals about inclusive education focused on teacher education from a sample of 13 developing countries within the Asia-Pacific region, Sharma, Forlin, Deppeler and Guang-xue (2013:3) established that regular education teachers were experiencing increased stress as they undertook inclusion where classes were overcrowded. In addition, they had no awareness and orientation on inclusion in education, no pre-requisite resources as well as lacking an inclusive curriculum for organised classroom activities. General education teachers expressed the need for appropriate training that facilitates changes in pedagogy for them to become more accepting and effectively manage diversity. Inferentially, these teachers had poor classroom management skills. Similarly, Ficarra and Quinn's (2014:71) quantitative survey of randomly selected certified and practicing public school teachers of grades K-

12 within each of the 10 geographic regions of New York State, established that effective classroom management strategies support students' academic and social outcomes that depend on the teacher's knowledge and skill. Classroom management fosters desired learning and behavioural outcomes of learners. In yet another survey using several research methods to review the literature, policy scan, document and historical analysis with 40 Columbianstate educational leaders, Cohen, McCabe, Michelli and Pickeral (2009:180) established that positive school climate and good classroom management are associated with a conducive learning environment, resonating with academic achievement of learners, school success and students' healthy development. The leaders expressed the need and significance of maintaining a positive school climate given its social and academic benefits for both the school and the learners.

In China, a survey conducted by Hu (2010:12) on a sample of 276 teachers from 12 inclusion pilot kindergartens, using in-depth interviews consisting of open-ended questions, found that these teachers needed training in classroom behaviour management. The teachers chose to guide and model their learners' classroom behaviour and manage any situation arising in a manner that assists the child to be able to address their own problems and learn self-control. These international findings were based in Asian and American states where the survey method was predominantly utilised. This study was executed in an African state, Zimbabwe, where it investigated the relevance of these findings using a qualitative research approach.

3.9.11 Adaptation

Adaptations are changes made in special needs education and general education that allow learners to meet set objectives in regular settings where learners with diverse and unique needs have often experienced challenges (Kurth, 2013:35). Adaptations assume many forms that include physical, social, cultural, educational, classroom climate and process tailoring to the individual learner (Kargin, Guldenoglu & Sahin, 2010: 2456). In the Northeast USA, a qualitative study by Sahin and Yorek (2009:19) where one science teacher was observed teaching science and interviewed together with a

counsellor, found that classroom environmental adaptation increased mastery of abstract science concepts by learners with visual impairment. In the same study, the classroom for learners with visual impairment was adapted with stuffed animal figures, rocks, embossed maps and talking computers since they needed mostly tactile and more hands-on experiences where they learnt by feeling and 'read' materials by touch to learn abstract science concepts. Similarly, a quantitative study by Perales (2019:39) using class record analysis on 45 seven to 12-year old Spanish primary school children, established that teachers' instructional adaptation, through the use of vertical enrichment programmes, increased the academic performance of children who were highly gifted and talented. The study also observed that such children were not easily and formally identified in a regular class by their teachers leading to a lack of specific educational responses for these children. Consistently, in Ankara, Turkey, a quantitative study by Gozen (2015:35) using questionnaires on 177 six to 11-year old children from 12 randomly selected classes of a primary school, established that teachers implemented instructional design sessions which were adapted into Turkish culture and improved the design skills of these children. The same study also found that architectural design skills taught to these children provided them with a rich learning environment psychologically, socially and educationally.

Contrarily, Colombo-Dougovito's (2015:160) qualitative study, using observations and interviews with a purposeful sample of four pre-service Adapted Physical Education (APE) specialist teachers working one-on-one with a child with Autism Spectrum Disorder (ASD) during a training workshop in Virginia, US, found that these teachers had limited knowledge to effectively train such children as they were unable to make significant instructional and environmental adaptations needed to reduce barriers. The study also demonstrated that, the training room where APE sessions were regularly conducted was too restrictive as it was too small to accommodate all participants at the same time and too noisy as many other activities occurred there at the same time. Given these inconsistent findings, this study sought to ascertain whether Zimbabwean pre-service teachers had knowledge to adapt both instruction and the learning environment for learners' diverse needs.

3.10 Strategies to enhance the professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education

Studies reveal different strategies that can be used to enhance professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in regular education. These include the use of ICT, institutionalization of legislation that is pro-teacher education for inclusion, deploying teachers for TP and training teachers to reflect on their TP experiences. They also include infusing and merging special needs education and regular education. The subsequent section presents the use of ICT in teacher education.

3.10.1 Use of Information and Communication Technology

Integration of technology into pedagogy enhances learning (Wright & Wilson, 2012:48). With the widespread use of the internet and mobile technology, it has been realised that ICT instruments augment broader change in the practice of inclusion in education (Stilz & Wissenbach, 2016:3). As such, teacher training institutions are incorporating ICT into the teacher education curriculum to support pre-service teachers (Angeli & Valanides, 2009:154). ICT encompasses a broad range of computing and networking tools and applications that can be used both in teacher professional preparation and the teaching-learning process to promote inclusion in education (Gomez, Sherim, Griesdorn & Finn, 2008:117).

In their exploratory study in the USA, on a purposely selected group of pre-service teachers, Gomez et al (2008:117) found that these teachers used a variety of ICT inclusive of word processors, spread sheets, presentation managers, e-mail, web-browsers, text-based conferencing as well as audio and video conferencing. These teachers reported that video tools enabled them to reflect on their own practices as well as those of others in the profession and they mentioned the need to connect theory and practice as technology strengthens practical knowledge needed by pre-service teachers.

In Spain, a quantitative study by Batanero, Tadeu and Cabero (2018:332) using 36 expert educators and judges who completed a questionnaire, found that educators

lacked training and knowledge of different types of technologies that could be used by teachers of learners with disabilities. This study also found that, in the Spanish context, teachers have positive attitudes towards the use of ICT but felt insecure to incorporate it into their teaching and learning process as they implemented it more from a methodological perspective than from a technological perspective. In India, Awadhiya, Miglani and Gowthaman's (2014:242) quantitative study in which they administered questionnaires to 342 student teachers found that the use of ICT is a common practice that enabled teacher trainees to receive support services provided by universities, thereby promoting inclusive content delivery.

Similarly, Hanne and Elsebeth (2017) conducted a qualitative study in Denmark of 46 teachers, 56 focus learners with extensive developmental or Attention Deficit Disorders and their 444 classroom peers purposefully selected from 11 public mainstream schools' 1st to 10th grades. The participants were subjected to adhoc interviews and classroom activity observations where after they established that the conscious use of ICT-based intervention facilitated the development of skills needed by teachers to address individual learners' challenges. The teachers expressed the significance of ICT in regular classrooms as their bewilderment and frustration associated with teaching learners with special educational needs were eliminated. Consistently, Dipace's (2013:153) exploratory research in Italy using individual interviews with a sample of 25 education experts from 25 countries, found that ICT fostered high quality inclusive teaching and learning and teachers needed to be relevantly supported in their daily instructional practices. ICT constitutes a significant tool for reinforcing and promoting inclusive education practices as well as supporting communication and learning.

Tondeur, Braak, Sang, Voogt, Fisser and Leftwich's (2011:1) meta-ethnographic qualitative study, used a systematic review focusing on strategies to professionally prepare pre-service teachers to integrate technology into their lessons. They studied 19 articles, from eight journals from six countries, including the USA, UK, Turkey, Taiwan, Finland and Cyprus. The study found that, despite the extensive use of ICT as an integral part of pre-service teacher education programmes in these countries, teacher trainees had negative attitudes towards its use in teacher education as they were not

being prepared to apply technology which they had limited access to, leading to the majority of them developing very low self-efficacy. These pre-service teachers reported that extra planning and preparation was needed to implement lessons that incorporated ICT and also emphasised the need to change students' attitudes towards ICT if they intended to benefit from ICT related courses. Consistently, a quantitative comparison study in North Texas, USA, by Christensen, Knezek, Tyler-Wood and Gibson (2011:201) which used pre-post assessment instruments on 32 pre-service teacher candidates in a reading/language arts methods course for professional development, established that ICT produced benefits in instructional self-efficacy and a significant gain in teaching skills of teachers of learners with disabilities in regular classrooms. ICT promoted positive learning outcomes for pre-service teachers. In contrast, in yet another quantitative study using survey questionnaires and case-study discussions with 75 pre-service teachers in Singapore, Yang, Tzuo and Komara (2011:209) found that, while all participants recognised the importance of ICT in accommodating individual differences and learning styles, a limited number of teachers (29.3%) used ICT in their teaching after attaining their qualification. ICT use for teaching purposes ranked second from least to 'google and seek information' (86.7%), 'news and entertainment' (62.7%) 'social networking' (58.7%), 'daily life functioning' (32%) and 'others like assignment' (14.7%). While these studies were more quantitative and exploratory in nature, they reinforced the significance of using ICT for enhancing the professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education. This study used a qualitative research approach.

3.10.2 Policy and/or legislation

Policy is a practical accomplishment constructed through human interaction meant to transform intentions (Ruff, 2018:6). In Finland, Naukkarinen's (2010:185) qualitative study of 110 staff members from the Department of Teacher Education at the University of Jyväskylä using face-to-face interviews, established that there is teacher education legislation and policies leading to the design of programmes and plans such as the Basic Education Act of 2010, the Finnish Teacher Education Development Programme (TEDP) of 2001 and the Education and Research Development Plans of 2003-2008 and 2007-2012. These support the essence of inclusive education in teacher preparation

programmes and mandate universities to continuously review and structure teacher education content in line with inclusive education. The staff however criticised some ambiguity in the policy documents of the Basic Education Act of 2010 for creating a new student category based on intensive support in line with the medical model and not decreasing segregation.

Inversely, a quantitative study by Kapinga (2014:1) involving 146 randomly selected Tanzanian university students using questionnaires, found that only three out of 28 universities in Tanzania train teachers for inclusion as the nation had no policy or legislation that mandates them to prepare teachers for inclusion in education. These teacher trainees expressed the need for policy makers to shift away from traditional teacher training that was premised on exclusive to inclusive education. Similarly, Fernandez (2016:1) conducted a qualitative study of 146 university faculty members and students from Chile using document analysis and semi-structured interviews. It was established that there were new accountability policies and legislation on inclusion in regular education being implemented that were related to teacher preparation and explaining how teachers should be trained. The study also revealed that policies developed and enacted at both national and teacher preparation levels promoted equity in educational access.

In Saudi Arabia, Murray and Alqahtani's (2015:57) quantitative survey with 52 pre-service teachers, established that the majority of the teachers were unable to implement inclusion in education as they were ignorant of the existence of pro-inclusion policy and legislation which they were not taught during their preparation at university. The study also found that, these teachers did not even know that the Saudi Arabian Constitution protected the rights of children with disabilities hence they did not know the rights of these children. Only a few teachers who knew of the existence of Saudi Arabia's Special Education Law No. 224 which emphasises educational rights of children with disabilities indicated their intention to implement it in their teaching. These teachers reported that, children with disabilities must receive their education in regular schools. Similarly, in Bangladesh, a qualitative study by Mullick, Deppeler and Sharma (2012:1) in which they administered semi-structured interviews with 79 teachers and school

leaders, found that there was lack of legislative authority and policy development and decision making for practice of inclusion in teacher professional preparation was centralised, thus negatively affecting classroom practices. These teachers criticised the centralised management system that does not allow the involvement of all stakeholders including parents and teachers in policy development and decision making.

Collier, Keefe and Hirrel's (2015:117) quantitative study in the USA using Likert-scale questionnaire on 28 teacher candidates established that, the existence of policies on teacher training and legislation like the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA, 2005) encouraged teacher training for children with disabilities as well as mandating parental participation in the education system. Contrarily, in India, Das, Kuyini and Desai's (2013:1) quantitative study using questionnaires from 223 teachers established that although policies and Acts on teacher training and inclusion were in place, other Acts like the People with Disability Act (PWD Act, 2011) which facilitated some educational reforms, lacked clarity about the conditions under which some services, including teacher training and inclusive education could be provided and also on what inclusion meant. Using a qualitative case study design, the current study sought to ascertain whether teacher preparation in Zimbabwe is supported by clear policies and legislation.

3.10.3 Teaching Practice

Teaching Practice is a field experience involving pre-service teacher basically observing expert teachers and trialling teaching in real classroom settings under mentorship of experienced teachers (Honeyman, 2016:46). In a mixed method survey constituting descriptive analysis and inferential statistics of data collected using self-administered questionnaires distributed to 123 Australian pre-service teachers, Main and Hammond (2008:28) established benefits of TP. TP provided an opportunity for pre-service teachers to observe, emulate and practice teaching which they later reflected upon as they shared with peers best practices in inclusive education. These teachers' field experiences acknowledged diversity of the classroom population. Donnelly's (2011:34) quantitative survey of a sample of 14 European nations with 55 experts from 25

countries across Europe, using self-administered questionnaires, yielded inconsistent findings as the practice varied with regards to how school placements for TP was managed in different nations. While some countries used a centralized placement system, others afforded student teachers the autonomy to identify their own placement settings such as special schools or regular schools in their local communities. This study established that, while in Latvia TP was an opportunity for pre-service teachers to develop skills of evaluating, making sound decisions and becoming responsive to diverse needs, in Spain TP promoted reflection under mentorship of both a professional and an academic tutor.

In Finland, however, teachers reported the need for the existence of a close and positive partnership between universities and schools if pre-service teachers were to optimally benefit from TP experiences. Similarly, in Canada, Sokal, Woloshyn and Funk-Unrau's (2013:285) quantitative study of 60 pre-service teachers using self-administered questionnaires, found that pre-service teachers on TP in an inclusive school developed increased teacher efficacy in classroom management unlike those students who had no TP. The above studies mainly made use of surveys only or together with questionnaires. In the current study, individual in-depth semi-structured interviews were used alongside non-participant lesson observations, document analysis and follow-up discussions.

3.10.4 Reflection

The strategy of reflection in education is grounded in the pedagogical context of Dewey (1933) who believed that teachers should think during the course of their actions while, at the same time, engaging in a deeper meditation about their interventions in the teaching-learning process (Pellerin&Paukner, 2015:48). In Chile, Pellerin and Paukner (2015:46) conducted a qualitative case study of six teachers who were individually interviewed. The study established that reflection empowered teachers to be vibrant catalysts of pedagogical transformation through their own actions. It also established that teachers needed reflection in establishing new ways and habits of inquiry about their own instructional pedagogical practices. Consistently, in a mixed approach study

that surveyed 155 kindergarten and 123 Western Australia secondary pre-service teachers using self-administered questionnaires, Main and Hammond (2008:28) established that, while teachers should have more opportunities to reflect on their experiences and share their best practices after observing and identifying critical features of classroom management in educational settings, reflection would not be sustainable if teachers are deficient of its pre-requisite skills. The current study sought to examine whether reflection is a common practice in Zimbabwe's teacher education system.

3.10.5 Merged model

The merged model is one of the teacher professional preparation options which brings together regular and special education into a single pre-service curriculum designed in such a manner that all course content focuses on a diverse student population inclusive of those with disabilities (Naukkarinen, 2010:192; Turner, 2009:1). In a qualitative study using focus group interviews with two groups of 18 final year special education student teachers in Botswana, Mukhopadhyay, Molosiwa and Moswela (2009:51) established that the merged model was used to professionally prepare teachers for inclusion in education. The teacher candidates reported that merging regular and special education was critical for successful practice of inclusion in education as it assisted them to meet the individual learning needs of different children. Similarly, in Portland, in a qualitative study on 44 teacher candidates, four education faculty members, seven supervisors and three principals who were all interviewed, Fullerton, Ruben, McBride and Bert (2011:45) found that merging regular and special education content was an opportunity to become aware of the whole class and of those with different learning needs and an opportunity to develop empathy. A qualitative Greek study was conducted by Fragouli and Rokka (2017:753) using open-ended questionnaires and participant observations involving 558 students (182 4th Grade, 186 5th Grade and 190 6th Grade students) within 27 classes (nine classes of each Grade) and their 27 in-service teachers. They found that the merged varied activities of the merged model of teacher professional preparation offered greater flexibility for both the teacher trainees to gain new knowledge and diverse skills and for in-service teachers in selecting how to deliver information.

Implementation of the infusion model increased the numbers of teacher trainees whose participation and competence greatly increased.

Contrarily, Akbaba and Baskan's (2017:1) quantitative survey of 19 students from the Izmir University of Economics, Turkey and 25 students from Gettysburg College in the USA, established that merging as a teacher preparation strategy did not bring total success in knowledge acquisition as ironing out details of a collaborative course was time-consuming in addition to demanding the fast exchange of ideas so as to get solutions to unexpected problems that cropped-up. The teacher candidates revealed that their instructors had to meet face-to-face for over 15 months in an effort to effectively get coordinated in syllabi development, assignment creation and pedagogical selection. Consistently, a mixed methods approach adopted by Symeonidou and Phtiaka (2014:110) in which self-administered questionnaires and face-to-face interviews were used with three groups of Greek-Cypriot teachers revealed that merging regular and special education was not a common practice of teacher education in Cyprus. Florian and Linklater (2010:369) adopted a mixed method approach using self-administered questionnaires and focus group with the 2007-2008 course cohort in Scotland. Their study found that, Professional Graduate Diploma in Education (PGDE) Primary (5-11) and Secondary (11-17) programmes had been merged into a single pre-service teacher education programme. It also found that merging ensured that all topical issues of inclusion were catered for within the core of this teacher preparation program. Merging as a pedagogical philosophy promoted inclusion.

In the preceding studies, questionnaires, focus group and individual interviews were predominantly used. In this study, individual in-depth semi-structured interviews were used alongside non-participant lesson observations, document analysis and follow-up discussions.

3.10.6 Discrete model

Discrete model is a pre-service non-collaborative teacher education programme characterised by a minimal relationship, if any, between general and special education courses as general and special education teachers are independently professionally

prepared for different certification (Young, 2011:484; Blanton & Pugach, 2007:16). In Singapore, a quantitative study by Yang, Tzuo and Komara (2011:217) on 75 pre-service special education teachers using questionnaires found that, inferentially, the discrete model of teacher professional preparation they underwent only exposed them to teacher-centred pedagogy which enabled them to appreciate the value of inclusion in education as they were then able to accommodate diversity in their classrooms. In the South-eastern region of the USA, Pitner, Priester, Lackey and Duvall's (2018:49) quasi-experimental design in which they surveyed 286 students established that, a discrete course offered was significantly more instrumental in improving the level of cultural responsiveness of teacher trainees than an infusion model as they were more aware about how their cultural history influenced their cognition and actions.

In a qualitative study of best practices in teacher-education in South Africa and Australia, Vermeulen, Klopper and van Niekerk (2011:199) established that, the discrete model did not promote synergy or high level capacity and probability of success in team-work as compared to tasks undertaken individually. These researchers indicated the need to adopt an integrated approach to teacher professional preparation instead which promotes synte-gration characterised by greater achievement of outcomes as a result of infusing inclusive education concepts in professional and academic content. Similarly, Naukkarinen's (2010:185) qualitative study on 110 staff members of which 80 were educators from the Department of Teacher Education at the University of Jyväskylä, Finland, using face-to-face interviews, found that the discrete model of professional preparation of teachers compromised inclusion in education as it perpetuated segregation tendencies premised on the medical perspective of disability. These staff members recommended an urgent transformation from a discrete to a merged model of teacher training in Finland as the university approach required every educator to redesign his/her course grounded in principles on inclusion in education.

In Portland, a qualitative study by Fullerton, Ruben, McBride and Bert (2011:54) using 44 teacher candidates, two faculty members, seven supervisors and three principals who were all interviewed, revealed that the discrete model of teacher professional preparation did not train teachers for inclusive practices and accommodations. The

study also revealed that teacher candidates had no idea about differentiation and were less sensitised to manage diversity in their classrooms resulting in some of them looking down upon some learners. The above studies condemned the discrete model of teacher preparation more than applauding it. The current study sought to ascertain the relevance of these findings in the context of Zimbabwe.

3.10.7 Integrated model

Integrated or unified teacher training is a model where regular and special education course content is effectively and coherently integrated (Nketsia, 2016:45). Content is presented in a manner that requires all regular and special educators in every course to take responsibility to encourage inclusive educational practices. This required them to work collaboratively to deliver integrated courses, jointly attended by students from the two faculties thereby reducing the possibility of duplication of course content and encouraging students' application of techniques for a diverse range of learners (Nketsia, 2016:45; O'Neill, Bourke & Kearney, 2009:590). In the South-eastern USA, a quantitative survey involving 87 purposefully sampled students by Hou and Pereira (2017:170) established that implementation of the integrated teacher professional preparation model was a challenge given its time-consuming commitment required from all faculty members. The teacher trainees also expressed the need for commitment from the teacher training institutions.

In Egypt, Alshamy's (2016:281) mixed method case study in which questionnaires were administered to 384 non-probability sampled pre-service teachers and semi-structured interviews set for 10 academics, found that integration produced gaps in instructional service delivery which could be minimized by teachers' effort and intentional strategies of addressing diverse needs of learners. Inversely, Wallace and Georgina's (2014:165) quantitative survey in Minnesota of 15 pre-service teachers using questionnaires, found that integration had a positive impact on teachers' lesson delivery as it facilitated engagement with learners given the knowledge and skills they acquired from the programme. Integration promoted the practice of inclusion. Similarly, Collier, Keefe and Hirrel's (2015:117) quantitative study using questionnaires from 12 American teachers,

found that undertaking integrated courses created an opportunity for outreach where they developed an understanding of the significance of engagement with families of children with disabilities. The integrated model promoted mastery of family dynamics. Consistently, using a qualitative study in the US in which focus-group and individual interviews were utilised with 16 under-graduate teacher trainees, Eckman, Williams and Silver-Thorn (2016:76) found that the integrated model of professional preparation of teachers properly prepared them in multiple aspects of classroom teaching. The teachers voiced the significance of the model in providing instruction to support diverse learners while, at the same time, promoting their understanding of learners' barriers to learning.

These findings are consistent with Eckman, Williams and Silver-Thorn's (2016:75) qualitative study in which they utilised open-ended survey questions, interviews and focus group sessions with 10 STEM scholars and six under-graduate students in the USA. They found that the integrated model of teacher preparation increased teacher trainees' understanding of the art of teaching as they could address the needs of diverse learners, provide supportive instruction for all learners and reduce barriers that hindered academic achievement of their learners. These students reported that the integration model prepared them quite well in many aspects of classroom teaching. The above studies focused mainly on America and one Northern African state. This study sought to ascertain the applicability of these findings in the context of a Southern African state.

3.11 Summary of chapter

The present chapter presented a review of related international literature on the professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education. This included the historical development of inclusion in education and inclusion in education in selected developed and developing countries. The next chapter will present a review of Zimbabwean literature on the professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education, that is, a Zimbabwean perspective will be offered.

CHAPTER 4: REVIEW OF RELATED ZIMBABWEAN LITERATURE ON THE HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF INCLUSION IN EDUCATION AND THE PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION OF PRE-SERVICE TEACHERS

4.1 Introduction

This study examined the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in regular education in Zimbabwe as the context for proposing strategies to enhance their professional preparation. The previous chapter presented a review of international literature on the historical development of inclusion in education and the professional preparation of pre-service teachers. This chapter presents a review of related Zimbabwean literature on inclusion in education and the professional preparation of pre-service teachers.

Zimbabwean context

Zimbabwe is a landlocked country of 390, 580 square kilometres in the south-central region of Africa, south of the Sahara (Marist International Solidarity Foundation, 2011:2). It is a former British colony, known between 1965 and 1979 as Southern Rhodesia. Zimbabwe is a Shona name that means 'houses of stones.' The name is derived from the ruins of the country that were constructed out of stones. Zimbabwe is located between the Zambezi to the north and the Limpopo River to the south (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011:3). The country borders Zambia to the North, Mozambique to the East, South Africa to the South, Botswana to the South-West and Namibia to the North-West. Based on the 2012 census data availed by the Central Statistical Office, Zimbabwe has a total population of about 13.061 million (GoZ, 2018:5). The national literacy rate is about 92 percent which is amongst the highest in the world (Mukhopadhyay & Musengi, 2012:7; UNESCO, 2011:1). It is however faced with a myriad of educational, economic, social, political and cultural challenges. For instance, Magumise and Sefotho (2018:11) established that there is limited awareness of concepts of learner diversity and disability, inadequate resources, inappropriate teacher training and a lack of teacher motivation to implement inclusive education because of poor remuneration. According to Chitiyo and Muwana (2018:96), there is the lack of specific policy and legislation on

inclusion in education, negative attitudes of stakeholders towards inclusive education, poor infrastructure and limited funding of inclusive education. There is also a lack of understanding of the philosophy of inclusion as teachers are ill-prepared for inclusion in education, there is widespread lack of individual and institutional needs met in order to practice the philosophy, ineffective management of learners' behaviour and incompetency in using assistive technology (Majoko, 2018:8).

About 10 percent of children in Zimbabwe have a disability (WHO, 2004; 2012) but it does not have comprehensive statistical data on learners with disabilities since there exists conflicting information on the prevalence of disability as revealed in different studies undertaken in the country (Majoko, 2017:672). The 1997 Inter-Censal Demographic Survey Report which was the last comprehensive disability survey in the country estimated that 57 232 children had disabilities while the United Nations Children Emergence Fund Report of 1997 approximated that 150 000 children had disabilities (Mandipa & Manyatera, 2014). This was almost thrice the number as in the former survey. This inconsistency in figures makes the need apparent for Zimbabwe to undertake a disability survey to establish the correct incidence of disability in the country as more children continue to be born with terminal illnesses besides being orphaned (Majoko, 2016; Education for All, 2015).

4.2 Historical background of inclusion in education in Zimbabwe

Zimbabwe was not an exception in the inhumane treatment of children with disabilities during the extermination era revealed in Chapter 3. Comparable to other countries, the pre-Christian era in Zimbabwe was characterized by intolerance of disability as a result of traditional and conservative attitudes that regarded disability as a punishment from one's ancestral spirits or some gods afflicted upon the parents who would have transgressed African rituals and practices (Jenjekwa, Rutoro & Runyowa, 2013:22). To appease the gods, there was the need therefore to terminate the life of the child who would further invite trouble for the family (Hapanyengwi, 2009:3). Death was inevitable for such an abomination. However, other forms of treatment could be enforced depending on the nature of disability and stage of observation of the child's disability. A

child could be shunned and cloistered from society by keeping secret the existence of the child if disability was detected later (Mashiri, 2000:170; Chitiyo, 2006:22). While children with physical and motor disabilities were abandoned and left to die, those with mental disabilities were killed instantly (Jenjekwa et al, 2013:22). Thus, comparable to the international fraternity, the extermination era in Zimbabwe was characterised by the violation of the right of children with disabilities to life.

Consistent with several other countries, the education provided for those with disabilities was both institutionalised and separate. No single approach to education was provided but dualistic as special education was separated from general education (Sibanda, 2015:186; Mubika, 2011:313). The majority of children were excluded and marginalised as their parents could not afford the high costs of education (Chitiyo, 2006:22; Chitiyo & Wheeler, 2004:46). This could have been because the majority of black people survived well below the poverty datum line in colonial Zimbabwe. By then, the education system could not take cognisance of the fact that the most successful system of education was inclusion than the dual system (Elliot & McKenny, 2003:6; Samkange, 2013:954). Consistent with other countries mentioned in Chapter 3, special education in Zimbabwe was introduced during the Era of Asylums which coincided with the colonial era during which the British took over Zimbabwe in 1890 (Hapanyengwi, 2013:2; Jenjekwa, Rutoro & Runyowa, 2013:22).

Missionaries and other philanthropic individuals principally established special education institutions (Deng & Harris, 2008:195; Ault, 2010:176; Nkansah & Unwin, 2010:191). Hardly available however, were the formal special education provisions and services, serve for a few that were meant to cater for the minority white students who were affluent and thus afforded payment of the exorbitant fees charged (Chitiyo & Wheeler, 2004:46; Chitiyo, 2006:22). Special education facilities and provisions available were exclusionary and in favour of the white population (Chitiyo, 2006:22). During the colonial period, education for the white child was declared compulsory and received 20 times more funding than for the black child (Ministry of Education, Sports and Culture, 2001; Kanyongo, 2005:66). This was a clear manifestation of racial discrimination aimed at perpetuating white supremacy and subjugation of the black

majority. According to Hapanyengwi (2015:13), white supremacy was the essence of the colonial type of education in Zimbabwe. The majority of children with disabilities were excluded and marginalised as their parents could not afford the high costs of education (Chitiyo, 2006:22; Chitiyo & Wheeler, 2004:46). By then, the education system could not take cognisance of the fact that the more successful system of education was inclusion than the dual system (Elliot & McKenny, 2003:6; Samkange, 2013:954).

Comparable to several other countries, during the special education era, children with disabilities in pre-independent Zimbabwe were educated through the efforts of churches, individuals and missionaries who had a passion to assist the marginalised (Chitiyo & Wheeler, 2004:46; Kanyongo, 2005:65). There were a number of special schools in colonial Zimbabwe including Margareta Hugo School for the Blind, Henry Murray School for the Deaf, Waddilove Institution for the blind and Jairos Jiri Association for those with physical disabilities. Children with hearing impairment as well as those with visual impairment were more prominent probably because of the European Enlightenment that also gave priority to these two forms of disability. It was the Dutch Reformed Church missionaries who founded special education as far back as 1927 (Jenjekwa, Rutoro & Runyowa, 2013:22; Hapanyengwi, 2013:2), when the female missionary Margareta Hugo started with three children with visual impairment at Chibi Mission. Later in 1947, the same church established Henry Murray school for the Deaf at Morgenster Mission (Chitiyo & Wheeler, 2004:49; Jenjekwa et al, 2013:22). Special education was institutional and thus perpetuated the exclusion of learners with disabilities from mainstream society. Despite all these efforts, the provision of special education by the colonial government to Africans was not a priority (Hapanyengwi, (2013:3). The lack of priority was due also to the lack of a specific inclusion legislation or policy for the education of children with disabilities in Zimbabwe (Chitiyo & Wheeler, 2004:47; Mtefpa et al, 2007:2).

On attainment of political independence from the UK in 1980, Zimbabwe inherited a dual system of education with separate institutions for learners with disabilities (Samkange, 2013; Jenjekwa, Rutoro & Runyowa, 2013). Charitable organisations and

churches continued to provide education for children with special needs, mostly in rural boarding schools, equipping children with visual impairments, hearing impairment, cognitive and physical disabilities with practical skills (Wheeler & Chitiyo, 2007; Maunganidze & Kasayira, 2002) despite the lack of skills for teachers in special schools (Chitiyo & Wheeler, 2004; Mutepfa et al, 2007). In pursuit of segregated placement of learners with disabilities, a new concept of integration was introduced (Jenjekwa et al., 2013:23). In alignment with this development, Zimbabwe institutionalised several policy circulars including the Director's Circular Minute Number P36 of 1985 which obliged all heads of schools to unconditionally accept all learners with mild to moderate disabilities. These learners would be placed in isolated classrooms for educational activities staffed by specialist teachers but would mix and interact with their typically developing peers outside the learning platforms (Musengi & Chireshe, 2012). Subsequently, Director's Minute Circular Number 3 of 1989 and P36 of 1990 mandated all special schools to adopt a similar school curriculum as followed by general schools and that resource rooms should be made available for severe cases of disability (Jenjekwa et al. 2013:23).

It was not until 1980 that Zimbabwe had a national policy governing the provision of special education (Chitiyo & Wheeler, 2004:47). According to UNESCO (1995), Zimbabwe's special education system was guided by the very regulations that governed regular education. The Education Act of 1987 formed the basis of education provision for learners with disabilities as it spelt out that education is a fundamental human right (Chitiyo, 2006:23). To meet the individual educational needs of learners with disabilities, specialist teachers received their training overseas; a position that necessitated the establishment of a separate department responsible for teacher education for special needs children at the Bulawayo-based United College of Education in 1983 (Peresuh & Barcham, 1998). According to Chitiyo and Wheeler (2006:50), in 1994, the University of Zimbabwe introduced a Bachelor of Education Degree in Special Education to complement government efforts towards making education more accessible to all humanity.

TABLE 4.1: Number of children receiving special education in Zimbabwe

Area of disability	Female	Male	Total
Hearing impairment	759	773	1532
Mental Retardation	758	1206	1964
Physical disability	609	615	1224
Visual impairment	526	851	1377
Total	2652	3445	6097

Source: Ministry of Education, 1996.

The Zimbabwe National Disability Survey of 1981 had established that there were 54 900 children with disabilities in the country and in 1996, only 6 097 of them had received special education services (Chitiyo, 2006; Ministry of Education, 1996). There is no current and reliable statistics on the subject. Disability incidence was high in Zimbabwe as it was emerging from a protracted war of independence that resulted in many injuries (Mutepfa et al, 2007). Due to escalating pressure from human rights movements, international trends changed resulting in a shift from separate schools for children with disabilities to inclusive settings in education (Musengi & Chireshe, 2012; Mawire, 2011; Mutepfa et al, 2007). Zimbabwean practitioners re-strategised the implementation of inclusion in education in line with democratic principles and human rights (Majoko, 2016). Consequently, Zimbabwe adopted inclusion in regular education in 1994, consistent with the international fraternity (Chitiyo & Wheeler, 2004; Chitiyo, 2006; Majoko, 2013).

Various legislative and policy frameworks were crafted to facilitate inclusive education including the Secretary of Education Policy Circular Minutes No. P12 and P36 of 1987 and No. P36 of 1990 which call for access to basic primary education for all children regardless of disability, race, gender, religion or doctrine (Mutepfa et al, 2007:342; Musengi & Chireshe, 2012:107), the Director's Circular No. 1 and No. 2 of 2001, the Education Act of 1986 as revised in 1996 and 2006 respectively, the Disabled Persons Act of 1992 as amended in 1996 and the Zimbabwe Constitution Amendment No. 20 of 2013 section 75. These policies and legislation granted rights to people with disabilities in Zimbabwe to equal care, employment, education and health among other rights (Mutepfa, Mpfu & Chataika, 2007; Ncube & Hlatywayo, 2014; Charema & Eloff, 2011; Samkange, 2013). With the passage of Education for All Act in 1987, Zimbabwe

adopted universal primary education that was free and compulsory as it moved from institutionalisation to integration (Chitiyo& Wheeler, 2004; Samkange, 2013). The policy however did not specifically provide for special needs education leaving it relying on the general education budget.

The passing of policies in support of inclusive education is meant to help children with disabilities in regular schools by influencing attitudes of teachers towards such children (Mentis, Quinn & Ryber, 2005:74; Rombo, 2006:30). Inclusive education policies are necessary for creating an environment where all children, including those with disabilities, have equal status (Mitchell & Desai, 2005:166). Legislating inclusive education aids its implementation as laws and policies provide safeguards and guarantees for beneficiaries to access specific services, consequences for non-compliance, room for litigation, accountability, evaluation and monitoring procedures (Charema, 2007:92; UNESCO, 1996). Thus, legislation is needed to protect the rights of people with disabilities (UNESCO, 1996; Stubbs, 2008:38). Furthermore, resources can be mobilised to ensure that abstract rights become reality. The lack of relevant legislation and policies in Zimbabwe as in other developing countries, has served to ensure that inclusive education remains at an embryonic stage (Charema, 2007:92) worsened by prevailing economic challenges in Zimbabwe that hinder its realisation. Achieving a Western type of inclusive education in Zimbabwe will remain idealistic (Charema, 2007:93). The section below presents the system and structure of education in Zimbabwe (Table 4.2) and the structure and organisation of the education system in Zimbabwe (Figure 4.1).

TABLE 4.2: The system and structure of education in Zimbabwe

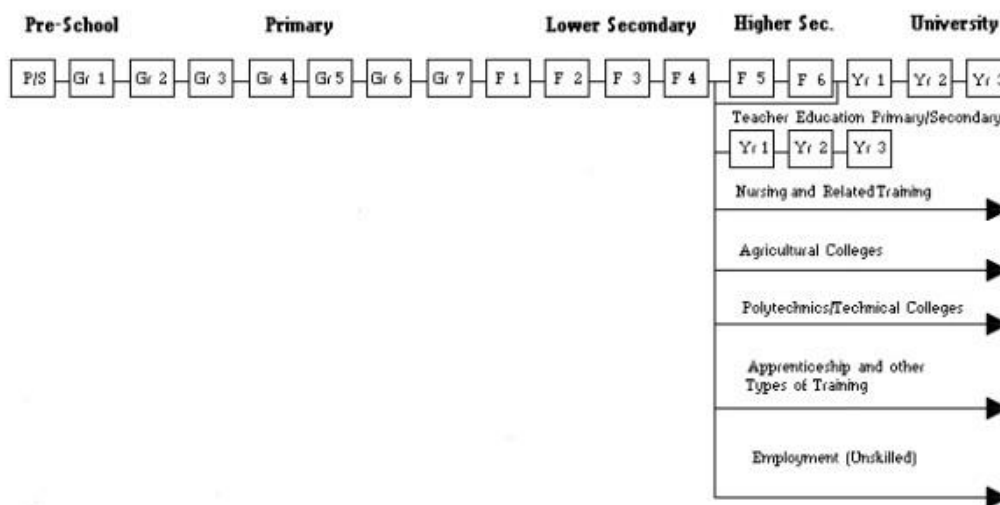
Level/Type	Age-group (years)	Study period/Length of studies (years)	Academic year
Early Childhood Development	3-5	3	January-December
Primary School	6-12	7	January-December
Lower Secondary	13-14	2	January-December
Upper Secondary ('O' Level)	15-16	2	January-December
'A'Level/Form 5	17-18	2	January-December

and 6 (High School)			
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Source: Adapted from Ministry of Education Report, 1999

FIGURE 4.1: Structure and organisation of the education system in Zimbabwe

Structure and organization of the education system



Source: Adapted from World Data on Education (2015:4).

The Zimbabwean education system illustrated above, that spans from ECD to degree level, is made up of three distinct phases, namely, primary education, secondary education and higher and tertiary education (Kanyongo, 2005:67). These phases fall under two complementary ministries of education, that is, the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education (MoPSE) and the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development (MoHTES&TD) (World Data on Education, 2011:3). While the former ministry is responsible for the education of learners in all ECD centres, primary schools and secondary schools, whose curricula are designed by the Curriculum Development Unit (CDU), the later embraces all vocational skills training centres, technical colleges, polytechnic colleges, teachers' training colleges and universities (Kanyongo, 2005:68).

The MoPSE organogram constitutes a minister at the top who is followed by the deputy minister then the permanent secretary, provincial education directors, district education officers and then school heads (Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture, 2012). The district education officers, are appointed on the strength of having at least a Bachelor's Degree in Education (Government of Zimbabwe, 2015) and mandated to administer inclusion in education in regular education (Majoko, 2013). The MoPSE's education curriculum is designed by the Curriculum Development Unit in Zimbabwe (Kuyayama-Tumbare, 2013). This curriculum aims at promoting the core-principles of inclusivity, relevance, respect and diversity (Dokora, 2015). This same curriculum is believed to produce graduates who exhibit critical thinking, leadership, problem solving, technological, communication and team building skills (Gasva & Moyo, 2017:456). The curriculum framework provides an outline of different learning areas meant for each level (Gasva & Moyo, 2017) as outlined below:

Primary School Infant Level (PSIL) has Indigenous Language, Visual and Performing Arts, Physical Education, Mass Displays, Mathematics and Science, Social Studies, and Information and Communication Technology.

Primary School Junior Level (PSJL) has Languages, Mathematics, Social Studies; Science and Technology, Agriculture, Information and Communication Technology; Visual and Performing Arts; Family, Religion and Moral Education and Physical Education, Sport and Mass Displays (GoZ, 2015:34).

The Ordinary Level (Form 1-4) has the following: Heritage Studies, Mathematics, Sciences (Physics, Chemistry, Biology option General Science), Humanities (History, Geography, Religious Studies, Sociology, Economic History, Literature in Indigenous Languages and in English, Indigenous Languages and English Language, Foreign Languages (French, Swahili, Chinese, Portuguese), ICT: Programming Language and Packages, Agriculture, Commercials (Accounting, Commerce, Economics, Business and Enterprise Skills, Practical subjects (Wood, Metal, Textile Technologies), Physical Education, Sport and Mass Displays).

At the Advanced Level (Form 5-6), five pathways exist with an inclination towards Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM). The rest include Humanities and Languages, Commercials, Visual and Performing Arts and Design and Technology.

According to Kanyongo (2005:67) primary education in Zimbabwe has the following main features: It is basically free and compulsory though parents or guardians are expected to pay school levies. A child should first complete two years of ECD 1 and ECD 2 before undertaking seven years of Grade 1 to Grade 7 which is punctuated by a national examination offered by the Zimbabwe Schools Examination Council (ZIMSEC).

At secondary level, a learner should normally complete the first four years (Forms 1 to 4) before sitting for an 'Ordinary Level national examination from ZIMSEC and parents are usually required to pay school fees for their children which vary from one school to another (Kanyongo, 2005:67). Those privileged to pursue their education proceed to complete two more years before sitting for an 'Advanced Level' examination from the same national examining body. At the former stage, one is awarded a Zimbabwe General Certificate of Education - Ordinary Level (ZGCE O-Level) while at the latter; one is awarded a Zimbabwe General Certificate of Education - Advanced Level (ZGCE A-Level) (Kanyongo, 2005:68). According to the World Data on Education (2011:4), three terms constitute a school year, each having on average twelve working weeks.

The MoHTES&TD encompasses 12 universities, nine polytechnic colleges and 12 teachers' training colleges (Education for All, 2015). According to the Zimbabwe National Statistical Agency (2013), while universities award degrees (bachelor's, honours, master's and doctoral degrees), colleges award diplomas and certificates. For learners who pass their 'O' level examinations but fail to proceed with education to 'A' level, they have options at their disposal to follow which include joining teacher education, nursing, agricultural colleges, polytechnic colleges, apprenticeship or becoming unskilled employees (World Data on Education, 2015).

The MoHTES&TD organogram comprises a minister, deputy minister and the permanent secretary (MoHTES&TD, 2013). At higher and tertiary education levels, the

following features, according to the World Data on Education, 2011:5) are evidenced in Zimbabwe. All training colleges offer three to four year courses leading to an award of certificates or diplomas while universities award both diplomas and degrees on either a part-time or full-time basis after successful completion of their three to four year undergraduate programmes. A post-graduate degree lasts one year, Master's degree one and a half years on average while Doctoral degrees require a minimum of two to three years to complete. All university academic years constitute two semesters. According to the Education for All National Review (2015:18), the MoHTES&TD, in collaboration with the ZIMCHE which is the quality assurer in higher education, provide both pre-service and in-service teacher education both at teacher training colleges and at university level.

In spite of the foregoing ministerial arrangements, inclusion in education is not yet fully implemented in many developing countries, including Zimbabwe (Frey & Kaff, 2014:4; Charema, 2010:87), yet inclusive education programmes are most sought after in developing countries where about 80% of the world's population of people with disabilities live including countries in Africa, Asia, the Caribbean, Latin America and the Middle East (Stone-MacDonald, 2012:26). Of over 150 million children living with disabilities, only two percent are accessing special needs support services (Frey & Kaff, 2014:4; Charema, 2010:87). This is despite the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education's emphasis on commitment to craft policies and have budgetary provisions for inclusive education (UNESCO, 1994; Charema, 2007:90).

Inclusion in education has been practiced for centuries in Africa, including Zimbabwe, with communities adopting various forms of it (Stubbs, 2008; Norwich, 2008). Indigenous education was and remains inclusive based on the African view that an individual is part of a family where one participates in its social activities with support from the community (Stubbs, 2008). When Zimbabwe therefore adopted inclusion education in 1994, it was not necessarily borrowing a western ideology but partly revisiting the concept of integration that had just not been fully exploited in the modern education system (Chitiyo, 2006; Chitiyo & Wheeler, 2004). The indigenous ideology came to reality as the Zimbabwean government adopted the provisions of the

Convention of the Rights of Children, the Copenhagen Declaration on Social Development, the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action (Chireshe, 2013; Hapanyengwi, 2009) which all sought to promote education for children with disabilities.

In Zimbabwe, inclusion in education is known to involve children with disabilities and is regarded as one of the ways of ensuring children with disabilities fully enjoy their rights as citizens (Mpofu, 2007; Chireshe, 2011) but previously it meant providing education for children with physical disabilities such as the deaf, those with visual impairment and those with intellectual disability in separate institutions (Peters, 2004; Jenjekwa et al, 2013). This changed with the Jomtien and Salamanca Conventions of 1990 and 1994 respectively which promoted integration. Zimbabwe now views inclusive education as the way to achieve Education for All as it integrates children with disabilities into mainstream schools (Zindi, 2004; National Action Plan of Zimbabwe, 2005). What remains to be discussed is the extent to which children with disabilities are included in the mainstream education system.

While integration is appreciated in Zimbabwe, institutionalisation continues to exist in the country with schools such as Nzeve Centre for the Deaf in Mutare, Henry Murray School for the Deaf in Masvingo, Copota School for those with visual impairment in Masvingo and Jairos Jiri Centre for those with physical impairments in Bulawayo (Zindi, 2004; Chitiyo, 2006). The Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action (UNESCO, 1994) Article 6 advocates for a shift to encourage integration and the involvement of children with disabilities so as to reduce exclusion. Institutionalisation therefore, perpetuates the exclusion of children with disabilities.

In contrast to other countries such as South Africa with its policy document, EWP6of 2001 (Mumford, 2013; Storbeck et al, 2009),Australia's Children with Disability Act (Sharma et al, 2006; Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2009), Botswana's Revised National Policy of 1994 (Mukhopadhyay, 2013; Charema, 2007; Ministry of Education and Skills Development, 2008:4) and England's Special Educational Needs and Disability Act of 2001 (Department for Education and Skills (DfES) 2004;Glazzard, 2014; Goodley, 2007), most developing countries, Zimbabwe included, lack clear,

mandatory and specific policy and legislation on inclusion (Chireshe, 2013; Mutepfa et al, 2007; Chireshe, 2011). The failure to offer adequate support for children with disabilities in mainstream schools continues to make implementation of inclusive education difficult in Zimbabwe (National Action Plan of Zimbabwe, 2005; Zindi, 2004; Chitiyo, 2006). Differently, gender imbalance in Zimbabwe saw the girl child experiencing limited access to education unlike the boy child as society shunned investment in the girl child's education (Mubika & Bukaliya, 2011).

In pursuit of the professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education, Zimbabwe established several initiatives to support it (Chireshe, 2013:223). The establishment of a department of special education at the United College of Education in Bulawayo in 1983, the introduction of the B. Ed Degree in Special Education at the University of Zimbabwe in 1994 (Chitiyo & Wheeler, 2004:50) and the adoption of inclusion in education in 1994 following the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (UNESCO, 1994), provided the impetus for professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe.

Six universities in Zimbabwe are mandated to offer professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education (Education for All, 2015) out of the 14 private and state universities (Hapanyengwi-Chemhuru, 2015:12). The pre-service teacher education curriculum was revised in 2001 in addition to promoting teacher development programs for those already in service to enhance quality inclusion in education (Wadesango, Machingambi, Ndofireyi & Maphosa, 2012:528). The Zimbabwean teacher education curriculum for both regular and special needs teachers now has some elements of training on inclusion in education practices (Mutepfa, Mpofu & Chataika, 2007:342). These inclusive practices are supported by government policies and legislation including the Zimbabwe Education Act of 2006 (Majoko, 2016) and the Disabled Persons Act of 1996 (Chireshe, 2011:162). They also include the Zimbabwe Constitution Amendment Number 20 of 2013, Section 75 (Mugweni & Dakwa, 2013).

In partnership with the MoPSE, the MoHTES&TD offers pre-service teacher preparation for inclusion in education (Chireshe, 2013; Mpfu & Shumba, 2012) and has extended it to offer strategic support services, particularly for inclusion in ECD (Majoko, 2016). The University of Zimbabwe's (UZ) teacher education department complements efforts of the two ministries; MoPSE and MoHTES&TD in partnership with the Schools' Psychological Services and Special Needs Education by supporting both pre-service and in-service teacher training that largely occurs at the UZ's 18 affiliate teachers' training colleges (Majoko, 2016; Ministry of Education, Sport, Arts and Culture, 2012). Different programmes, support services and provisions are put in place by the Schools' Psychological Services and Special Needs Education Department in an effort to reinforce and promote inclusion in regular education of learners living with a disability (Ministry of Education, Sports and Culture, 2009). According to Chakuchichi (2013), the Flemish Association for the Development and Technical Assistance, in partnership with other national and international donors and the government of Zimbabwe, solicit material, technological, financial and human resources to promote inclusion in education of learners with disabilities.

In 2013, the government of Zimbabwe provided legal status to Sign Language as one of the 16 official languages recognised nationally (Mutswanga & Mapuranga, 2014:59) thereby obligating the pre-service teacher preparation curriculum to include training on Sign Language for meaningful inclusion in education of deaf learners. During teacher preparation, teacher training institutions (both colleges and universities), deploy pre-service teachers for micro-teaching at the beginning of their first term to give them the opportunity to marry theory with practice as they develop relevant skills and competencies required for inclusion in education (Majoni, 2017:31). Zimbabwe has also adopted an inclusive curriculum framework for both primary and secondary education in 2015 called the Zimbabwe Curriculum Framework for Primary and Secondary Education 2015-2022. This framework obliges all primary and secondary school teachers to provide affordable quality education to all learners irrespective of their individual differences (Zimbabwe, MoPSE, 2017). To this end, teacher preparation curriculum is required to align itself with the aims of this inclusive curriculum. Zimbabwe has also established a Cadetship Support Scheme (CSS) in 2006 that pays fees for post A-level

university education for learners from low-income backgrounds (Munanga & Matandike, 2013:420), thus more graduates could be trained for inclusion in education given the high fees at university level.

4.3 Pre-service teachers' understanding of inclusion in education in Zimbabwe

In Zimbabwe, inclusion in education involves the need to reduce all forms of barriers to access, acceptance, participation and academic achievement of learners with disabilities in both school communities and workplaces (Majoko, 2017). In Zimbabwe, learners with disabilities are classified as those who have specific learning disabilities, visual impairment, hearing impairment, speech and language impairment, autism, orthopedic impairments, emotional disturbances, traumatic brain injury and health-related impairments (Chakuchichi, 2013). Against this background, inclusion in education is understood differently by Zimbabwean pre-service teachers.

According to Chireshe (2011), inclusion in education is understood by pre-service teachers as the level to which a school community receives learners with special educational needs as valued group members who have a stake in the development of inclusion in education. While Samkange's (2013) qualitative study established that pre-service teachers understand inclusion in education as a strategy for empowering learners through the provision of resources such as assistive devices for all learners, including those with disabilities, irrespective of their academic performance, Chikwature et al's (2016) study revealed that, inclusion in education was understood by teachers as the practice of ubuntu/unhu in the teaching and learning process in regular classrooms of learners with disabilities together with their peers without developmental delays. Majoko's (2017) qualitative study, inconsistently, revealed that, inclusion in regular education is understood by pre-service teachers from an African and European perspective as a philosophy that promotes achievement of diverse learners in regular classroom settings. This definition was informed by the key principles of human rights and social justice as teachers referred to inclusion in education as a human rights based approach meeting the pedagogical needs of all learners (Majoko, 2017). The

current study sought to examine whether inclusion in education is understood in Zimbabwe's teacher education system.

4.4 Pre-service teachers' practices in inclusion in education in Zimbabwe

Previous studies showed that Zimbabwean pre-service teachers had different practices of inclusion in education. For instance, Chireshe's (2011) qualitative study noted that pre-service teachers reported the need for curriculum change in order to promote equal educational opportunities. In contrast, Samkange's (2013) study noted that teachers reported the need to offer individual instruction so as to cater for unique needs of diverse learners. The same study also revealed that most schools in Zimbabwe have ramps and not steps in order to cater for those with physical disabilities, especially those who use wheelchairs. Inconsistently, Jenjekwa et al's (2013) study established that when teachers paid more attention to one special learner during lesson delivery, classroom management became a challenge with large class sizes contributing to learner ill-discipline.

Majoko's (2017) study revealed a wide range of practices in inclusion in education that pre-service teachers made use of in their regular ECE classrooms. These practices included the use of inclusive pedagogy to optimise learning while at the same time promoting learner achievement and the acceptance of all learners premised on the belief that teaching children with disabilities in regular classrooms was their professional obligation. The pre-service teachers also practiced focusing on the strengths and not deficits of learners and interacted with learners with special needs, thus developing sensitivity and celebration of human diversity. In addition, female teachers used motherly approaches especially in managing temper tantrums of learners.

From a placement perspective, Mpfu's (2000) study established that pre-service teachers at different regular Zimbabwean primary schools practiced locational inclusion in education, inclusion in education with partial withdrawal, inclusion in education with clinical remedial instruction and or unplanned inclusion. The present study sought to examine whether placement options are common practices in pre-service teacher education.

4.5 Strategies to enhance the professional pre-service teacher preparation for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe

Previous studies established that, in Zimbabwe, pre-service teachers suggested several strategies that could enhance their professional preparation for inclusion in education. For instance, Majoko's (2017) study in the Midlands province revealed that, pre-service primary school teachers suggested many different strategies that could enhance the professional preparation of pre-service teachers in Zimbabwe. These include: providing sufficient training that entails marrying theory and practice of inclusion in education; deploying students for TP in mainstream schools with diverse and unique needs; training on critical inclusion in education components such as diversity, curriculum differentiation and how to manage mainstream educational settings with learners with diverse and unique needs. They also suggested incorporating disability issues in all subjects, training on understanding and acceptance of human diversity and to include socio-cultural aspects of disability in the ECE curriculum to promote the development of positive attitudes. In addition, the pre-service teachers also suggested the creation of partnerships with stakeholders such as parents, donors, universities and communities to solicit the necessary human and material resources to support training in inclusion in education.

Similarly, Majoko's (2017) study in Mashonaland West suggested three strategies for successful inclusion, namely (i) establishing supportive collaborative structures for inclusion in education, for example through the creation of partnerships with parents, donors and institutions for consultation and information sharing, (ii) exposing students to individuals with special needs as well as integrating TP and the learning of theory to create a balanced inclusive teacher with both knowledge and practical skills and (iii) continuous professional development for university lecturers to keep abreast of developing theory and practice. Consistently, Chireshe's (2011) study established that teachers reported the need to train those already qualified in special needs for successful inclusion in regular settings. Inconsistently, teacher preparation for inclusion in regular classroom settings was not enhanced as teachers were receiving theory and not practice in inclusive education (Jenjekwa et al's, 2013). Consistently, Mafa and

Makuba's (2013) study revealed that there was a need for teachers to gain practical teaching skills and practical experience with children who have disabilities as teacher education institutions in Zimbabwe are failing to equip teachers with inclusive pedagogy. Mafa and Mukuba's (2013) study also revealed that there is a need for skills training on how to plan and prepare for lessons. However, the Leonard Cheshire Zimbabwe Trust assists in training inclusive teachers who are equipped with inclusive pedagogy and the potential to develop teaching-learning materials for use in regular classrooms (Samkange, 2013; Jenjekwa et al, 2013).

In Zimbabwean universities, there is a need for restructuring the teacher education curriculum in line with inclusivity in education (Peresuh, 2000). Contrarily, previous research revealed that there is a need to revise the school curriculum to provide individualized instruction in regular classrooms (Samkange, 2013; Chireshe, 2011). This study sought to ascertain ways in which the deployment of teacher trainees for TP, provision of practical skills, inclusive pedagogy and lesson preparation have been implemented in Zimbabwe as strategies to enhance the professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education.

4.6 Summary of chapter

This chapter presented the Zimbabwean perspective of the professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education. The perspective included the historical background of inclusion in education in Zimbabwe followed by the pre-service teachers' understanding of inclusion in regular education. It also included pre-service teachers' practices of inclusion in education as well as strategies that enhance the professional pre-service teacher preparation for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe. The next chapter will present the research methodology and design that this study adopted.

CHAPTER 5: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

5.1 Introduction

The previous chapter presented a review of related Zimbabwean literature on inclusion in education and the professional preparation of pre-service teachers. This chapter presents the research methodology and design of the study. This includes the research paradigm, research approach, research design, study setting, programme description, recruitment of participants of the study and the sample of the study. The chapter also presents data collection instruments, namely, individual interviews, non-participant observations and document analysis. It further presents the data collection procedures, data analysis methods, ethical considerations, trustworthiness and a summary of the chapter. Entrenched in the interpretivist research paradigm, this qualitative single case study aimed to examine the professional preparation of graduate pre-service primary school teachers from a public university in Zimbabwe for inclusion in education as the context for proposing strategies to enhance their professional preparation. It was guided by three research objectives, thus it sought to:

- explore the understanding of inclusion in education of pre-service primary school teachers who graduated from a public university in Zimbabwe;
- examine the practices of inclusion in education of pre-service primary school teachers who graduated from a public university in Zimbabwe and
- propose strategies to enhance the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education.

5.2 Research paradigm

According to Guba and Lincoln (1994:107) a research paradigm is

“a set of basic beliefs (or metaphysics) that deal with ultimate or first principles. It represents a worldview that defines, for its holder, the nature of the ‘world’, the individual's place in it, and the range of possible relationships to that world and its parts, as, for example, cosmologies and theologies do. The beliefs are

basic in the sense that they must be accepted simply on faith (however well argued); there is no way to establish their ultimate truthfulness”.

A research paradigm can therefore be viewed as a philosophical component of the research that shapes the researcher’s worldview or approach to perceiving reality guided by the researcher’s beliefs and value systems as well as methods within which research is conducted. Constructivism is a term often used interchangeably with interpretivism. This study adopted an interpretivist research paradigm. This paradigm is also called the constructivist, naturalistic or hermeneutic paradigm (Guba & Lincoln, 1989: 83).

Cresswell (2007:20) explains a constructivist/interpretive paradigm as follows:

“In this worldview, individuals seek understanding of the world in which they live and work. They develop subjective meanings of their experiences. ... These meanings are varied and multiple, leading the researcher to look for the complexity of views... Often these subjective meanings are negotiated socially and historically. In other words, they are not simply imprinted on individuals but are formed through interaction with others (hence social constructivism) and through historical and cultural norms that operate in individuals’ lives.”

The constructivist/interpretivist research paradigm is premised on the belief that the knowledge of reality is an entity constructed and hidden in the mind of an individual (Creswell, 2014:6) whose meaning must be revealed through one’s interaction with the environment. Truth of what constitutes reality therefore is relative as individuals perceive and experience life differently hence there are multiple constructions to any given situation. The philosophical assumptions of the interpretivist research paradigm align with the principles of the theoretical framework for this study, namely, Cultural Historical Activity Theory (CHAT).

Similar to the multi-voice construction (Engestrom, 2001:134) of CHAT, the interpretivist research paradigm aligns itself to the notion of multiple-subjective realities. The interpretivist research paradigm postulates that knowledge is co-created between the

researcher and the researched (Silverman, 2015). Similarly, CHAT advances that the subject, mediating tools and object orientation are interrelated (Hancock & Miller, 2017:4). Individual interviews with participants were used to co-create knowledge on their professional preparation for inclusion in education. The interpretivist research paradigm advances that research is value-laden (Creswell & Clark, 2011:43). The interpretivist research paradigm postulates that the interaction between the researcher and the researched is a pre-requisite for a deeper understanding of the lived experiences of participants (Cohen et al, 2013:15). CHAT is founded on orientedness of the object and subjects as actors occupied in activities (Barhoumi, 2015:224). The interpretivist research paradigm also postulates the centrality of the use of a formal language and literal style in qualitative research. This aligns with CHAT which asserts that an activity system should be seen in its historical context characterised by past personal and cultural experiences that influence activity (Hancock & Miller, 2017:5). I examined and understood the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education in their individual and institutional domains inclusive of social-cultural contexts. The following is a presentation of the philosophical assumptions of the constructivist/interpretivist research paradigm that underpinned this study.

5.2.1 Ontological assumption

Ontology is how reality is perceived and understood based on what constitutes it (Damien, 2016:16). This perception of reality is either objective or subjective (Pandey, 2016:3) as an interpretivist research paradigm views reality as relative. According to Guba (1990:27), the ontological assumption of the interpretivist research paradigm is that, “realities exist in the form of multiple mental constructions, socially and experientially based, local and specific, dependent for their form and content on the persons who hold them.” There are thus many socially constructed realities that are relativistic and holistic in social life which can be studied in isolation or in totality (Yilmaz, 2013:314; Szyjka, 2012:111). Selected quotes from individual university graduate pre-service primary school teachers were used in this study to convey their

multiple and divergent perspectives and experiences on their professional preparation for inclusion in education.

5.2.2 Epistemological assumption

Epistemology refers to the type of relationship between the researcher and the participants in terms of how knowledge is acquired (Antwi& Hamza, 2015:219). Within the interpretivist research paradigm, the researcher and participants are inseparable as they mutually interact to influence each other in creating reality, hence there is no subject-object dualism (Rodwell, 2015:17; Yilmaz, 2013:314). According to Denzin and Lincoln (2011:11), “a constructivist/interpretivist paradigm assumes a subjectivist epistemology where the knower and the respondent co-create understandings”. I interviewed university graduate pre-service primary school teachers individually for at least 45 minutes to discern their professional preparation for inclusion in education. Reality revealed by this study is a mirror-image of participants’ natural lived experiences (Andrade, 2009:44) which were a combined creation of the interaction between the researcher and the participants.

5.2.3 Axiological assumption

Axiology is concerned with the nature of values and belief systems of the researcher and the researched (Pandey, 2015:10). A constructivist/interpretivist research paradigm acknowledges and controls values of both the researcher and the participants of a study (Creswell & Clark, 2011:43). Axiologically, the interpretivism or constructivism research paradigm is subjective and bound by values peculiar to the social environment of the case studied (Creswell, 2007:17; Yilmaz, 2013:314). The values of the researcher were acknowledged through adherence to ethical procedures of conducting a qualitative study. Adherence to the research protocol included the researcher obtaining firstly, a clearance letter from the Research Ethics Committee (REC) of the University of South Africa (UNISA) to carry out this study and then ensuring adherence to all ethical considerations in a bid to protect and guarantee rights of participants. The values of the participants were respected in this study. I also observed the need to avoid potential bias by using bracketing when recording any issues related to my personal values and viewpoints.

5.2.4 Methodological assumption

Guba and Lincoln (1994:108) reveal that methodology asks the question: “how can the inquirer go about finding out whatever they believe can be known?” According to Creswell (2009: 8), the interpretive research paradigm is directed at “understanding phenomenon from an individual’s perspective, investigating interaction among individuals as well as the historical and cultural contexts which people inhabit.” The methodological assumption of interpretivism is that the researcher and participants are inseparable as they mutually interact to influence each other in creating reality, hence there is no subject-object dualism (Rodwell, 2015:17; Yilmaz, 2013:314). The interpretivist research methodological focus is on understanding the uniqueness of the individual case studied from an emic perspective (Szyjka, 2012:112). In this study, I understood the professional preparation for inclusion in education of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers from their individual perspectives and experiences using individual interviews that are grounded in a highly interactive open-ended process about a studied phenomenon. The interpretivist inquiry is characterized by a naturalistic set of methodological procedures wherein subjects are studied in their natural settings (Denzin& Lincoln, 2005:27; Yilmaz, 2013:315). In addition, an interpretivist inquiry is multi-method in focus, involving a naturalistic approach to its subject matter that is studied in its natural settings, seeking to interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings participants attach to it (Creswell, 2006:1; Denzin& Lincoln, 2005:14). Embedded in a single case study research design, this study used individual interviews, non-participant observations, document analysis and follow-up discussions to examine the professional preparation of graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education.

5.2.5 Rhetorical assumption

Qualitative researchers write in a literary, informal style using the personal voice and use qualitative terms and limited definitions (Yilmaz, 2013:316; Creswell, 2007: 13). It is for this reason that the “I” or first-person pronoun is used at times in this study. Constructivist/interpretivist researchers provide deeper understanding of reality through first hand experiences, honest reporting and actual quotations of insiders’ views(Antwi& Hamza, 2015:219). Selected excerpts gleaned from individual interviews with the

participants are presented in this study embedded in themes and sub-themes. A narrative form of analysis (Vohra, 2014:55) are used to describe the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education as a highly detailed account of this particular social reality is adopted. Findings reported in this study are therefore idiographic or personalized (Neuman, 2011:5).

5.3 Research approach

According to Creswell (2014:31), research approaches are “plans and the procedures for research that span the steps from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection, analysis, and interpretation.” It is essentially a blueprint for the collection, measurement and analysis of data. In this study, a qualitative research approach was used. The term ‘qualitative’ means the search for meanings instead of experimentation or search for quantities (Vohra, 2014:55; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005:10). This is not to suggest that qualitative research is based on an individual’s point of view but rather its findings are rigorous and dependable (Hogan, Dolan & Donnelly, 2009:4). According to Denzin and Lincoln (2011: 6) qualitative research “is difficult to define clearly. It has no theory or paradigm that is distinctively its own ... nor does qualitative research have a distinct set of methods or practices that are entirely its own.” The interpretivist research paradigm adopted in the current study however speaks to the chosen qualitative research approach. While Merriam (2009:5) asserts that qualitative researchers are basically interested in “understanding how people interpret their experiences, how they construct their world and what meaning they attribute to their experiences”, Percy et al. (2015:78) postulate that qualitative inquiry is used to “investigate people’s reports of their subjective opinions, attitudes, beliefs, or reflections on their experiences, of things in the outer world.” These assertions of the qualitative research approach resonate with the ontological assumption of the interpretivism research paradigm which advances that research participants reveal multiple-subjective realities about a studied phenomenon as they give meanings and understanding to their lived experiences. Thus, the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education was understood from their individual frame of reference. The

guiding set of beliefs underlining the qualitative approach is that knowledge and reality are constructed, multiple realities exist, the researcher creates knowledge through subjective analysis of participants in a naturalistic setting (Creswell, 2009; 2013). This similarly applies to the epistemological assumption of the interpretivist research paradigm that the researcher and the researched are inter-dependent as they co-create knowledge.

In the same vein, the co-creation of knowledge is a form of human empowerment that aligns with the premise that the qualitative research approach empowers individuals to share their stories, hear their voices and minimise the power relationship that often exists between the researcher and the participants in a quantitative study. Qualitative research is contextual and is used to provide a complex and detailed understanding of a researched issue (Yin, 2011:7). According to Yilmaz (2013:316), qualitative researchers report their findings in a literary, informal style and also use personal voices. The rhetorical assumption of the interpretivist research paradigm aligns with the premise that the qualitative research approach is used to write in a literary, flexible style that conveys stories without the restrictions of a formal academic structure of writing.

According to Merriam (2009:15), "a qualitative researcher is the primary instrument for data collection and analysis." I personally collected data using individual interviews, non-participant observation, document analysis and follow-up discussions with the participants of this study on their professional preparation for inclusion in education. Yin (2013: 9) postulates that "qualitative research strives to use multiple sources of evidence rather than relying on a single source alone." The foregoing instruments were used to collect data in this study. According to Creswell (2009:176), "qualitative research is a form of interpretive inquiry in which researchers make an interpretation of what they see, hear and understand. Their interpretations cannot be separated from their own backgrounds, history, contexts and prior understandings." I gleaned the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education in their individual contexts, including individual and systemic influences of such preparation including their socio-economic circumstances. Taylor, Bogdan and DeVault (2016:8) reveal that "qualitative research is inductive as qualitative

researchers develop concepts, insights and understandings from patterns in the data rather than collecting data to assess pre-conceived models, hypotheses or theories.” The constructivist/interpretive phenomenological data analysis was used in this study. According to Creswell (2009:176), “qualitative researchers often use a theoretical lens to view their studies.” CHAT is the theoretical lens for this study. Celano (2014:10) asserts that “qualitative research is concerned with developing explanations of social phenomena through a holistic perspective by answering questions which begin with “Why? How? and in what way?” This study examined why, how and in what way were university graduate pre-service primary school teachers professionally prepared for inclusion in education.

According to Merriam (2009:5), “qualitative researchers are interested in understanding how people interpret their experiences, how they construct their worlds and what meaning they attribute to their experiences”. University graduate pre-service primary school teachers were individually interviewed to reveal their professional preparation for inclusion in education. According to Creswell (2009:175), “the research process for qualitative researchers is emergent. This means that the initial plan cannot be tightly prescribed and all phases of the process may change or shift after the researcher enters the field and begins to collect data.” In this study, the initial study sample was changed from 26 participants to 16 due to the realization of data saturation, particularly redundancy of data. Follow-up discussions were also held with individual participants after each non-participant observation to secure clarity on observed aspects as warranted.

In spite of adopting the qualitative research approach in this study, it has its shortcomings. Small sample sizes that are usually used in qualitative studies limit the transferability of their findings (Tompson, 2016:102). A thick description of the research methodology and the setting of the study were provided to enable readers to determine the transferability of the findings of this study to their contexts on their own. According to Rahman (206:105), policy makers prefer and give credibility to quantitative and not qualitative findings as they work more with numerical figures than words. I therefore provided detailed illustrative information in the form of thick descriptions of the findings

of the study that are clearly articulated to guide decision making. Qualitative in-depth interviews are time-consuming and costly (Andre, Daniel & Fernando, 2017:379). To counter this, I conducted individual interviews outside the working hours of the university graduate pre-service primary school teachers using an interview guide. Qualitative findings cannot be tested to determine certainty as in quantitative research (Ochieng, 2009:17). I observed trustworthiness in this study and triangulated data through using individual interviews, non-participant observations, document analysis and follow-up discussions with the participants as data collection instruments.

5.4 Research design

This study adopted a single case study research design. Yin (2009: 14) defines a case study as “an empirical enquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly evident.” Real life context of case studies are natural settings that qualitative researchers study. Case studies are therefore ideal to situations where it is impossible to separate a phenomenon’s variables from their context. In this study, the viewpoints and experiences of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers on their professional preparation for inclusion in education as phenomenon within the context of teacher education was provided. A single case study research design was suited to explore university graduate pre-service primary schoolteachers’ constructions of their professional preparation for inclusion in education as a social–contextual phenomenon. A single case study research design involves intensive analysis of an individual unit such as an organisation or community leading to the researcher obtaining a deeper and holistic view of the research problem (Kumar, 2011:123; Yin, 2012:14). This study examined the professional preparation for inclusion in education of pre-service primary school teachers who graduated from a public university in Zimbabwe. A single case study is an in-depth study of an instance of a phenomenon in its natural setting from the perspective of the participants concerned (Kumar, 2011:123). Pre-service primary school teachers who graduated from a public university in Zimbabwe were the participants of this study.

The type of single case study research design used in the present research was a typical case study with an interpretive focus. According to Kumar (2013:123), “a single case study should focus on a bounded subject/unit that is either very representative or extremely atypical.” It is this boundness that implies a holistic approach of a qualitative research approach. According to Centellas (2017:20), typical case studies “are those that match broader patterns or theoretical expectations.” Similarly, Baskarada (2013:4) refers to a typical case as “an instance chosen to represent a typical case.” Yin (2009:43) recommends qualitative researchers to select a representative/typical case since in doing so they may obtain deeper layers and new hypothesis that previous theory missed. The underlining cause for adopting this type of case study design is that what is valid for these participants are more likely to be valid for others elsewhere too (Merriam, 1998:27). Thus, the study examined the professional preparation of graduate pre-service teachers for inclusion in education from a public university. This studied university is one of the institutions in the country that has a national mandate for professional preparation of pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education.

The case study research method supports theory building (Yin, 2009:44) and theory testing (Eisenhardt, 1989). Insights that arise from case-based theory building can be utilized as propositions in further research. Qualitative case study research therefore is crucial in advancing a field’s body of knowledge (Merriam, 2009:7). This study was therefore carried out on pre-service primary school teachers who graduated from one of the biggest public teacher education universities in Zimbabwe. The chosen research design for this study aligns with interpretivism as both are founded on the construction of new knowledge about a researched phenomenon.

According to Starman (2013:29), “case studies have been largely used in the social sciences and have been found to be especially valuable in practice-oriented fields (such as education, management, public administration, and social work),” demonstrative of the design’s versatility and are also typical of flexibility of qualitative research approaches. Education is a social discipline which calls for information gathering through case studies (Vohra, 2014:55). The ability of case studies to investigate cases

in depth and to employ multiple sources of evidence makes them a useful tool for descriptive research studies where the focus is on a specific situation or context where transferability is less important. Case studies are also important in applied research, for example, in describing the implementation of a programme or policy (Neuman, 2014). This study examined the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education as this is a relatively recent educational policy in Zimbabwe and in other countries. The current study used thematic analysis of data which, according to Neuman (2014:176) “proceeds by extracting themes and organizing data to present a coherent and consistent picture.”

A single case study research design should be considered “when: (a) the focus of the study is to answer “how” and “why” questions; (b) you cannot manipulate the behaviour of those involved in the study; (c) you want to cover contextual conditions because you believe they are relevant to the phenomenon under study; or (d) the boundaries are not clear between the phenomenon and context” (Rose et al, 2015:3; Yin 2003:13), hence adaptability of a qualitative research approach. The adaptability to different types of research questions and to different types of research settings constitutes one of the greatest strengths of a case study design (Rose, 2015:9). This study examined how and when graduate pre-service primary school teachers were professionally prepared for inclusion in education from a public university in Zimbabwe. It also examined why graduate pre-service primary school teachers were professionally prepared for inclusion in education from a public university in Zimbabwe.

The unit of analysis is what Centellas (2017:20) regards as “what the case is, a problem or event or entity.” In this study, the case is the public teacher education university in Zimbabwe and its programme of professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education. Berg and Lune (2012:325) assert that a case study design involves choosing a study site that is analysed and extensively described. A public university in Zimbabwe was chosen and analysed and extensively described with respect to how it professionally prepared its graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education. The study afforded the researcher an opportunity to analyse multiple views of participants on their professional preparation for inclusion in

education from this teacher education university so as to gain an understanding of the research problem. The use of a single case study research design facilitated obtaining data and information that is embedded in real life teacher professional preparation content, process, environment and outcome/product. According to Yin (2013:235), “an essential ingredient of a qualitative study will, at some point, include narrative information about one or more of the individuals who are part of or participants in the small group, culture, or collective process.” A narrative report was produced in this study as I used narratives from participants’ directly quoted material to reveal their professional preparation for inclusion in education.

A single case study research design has a number of disadvantages. To the researcher, for instance, reporting case study findings is a tough and strenuous task (Gustafsson, 2017:4). I thematically reported findings of this study based on its research sub-questions. According to Starman, (2013:35), single case studies emphasise identifying the subject (research unit) leading to a lack of wider description or simplified description of a research piece. I provided a detailed description of the setting of the study and invited 16 participants to share their personal experiences and perceptions of their professional preparation for inclusion in education at the university they studied at with me since Thomas (2011:513) asserts that in a case study, the research unit and the research participants mutually influence each other. Single case studies are associated with selection bias (Georg & Bennett, 2005:24). The study case of this research was selected on the basis that it is among the universities that professionally prepare pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education. Similarly, Starman (2013:36) postulates that prior knowledge of a case selected is critical for enhancing the establishment of a sound theoretical base for the study.

5.5 Study setting

The studied public university is located in the periphery of one of Zimbabwe’s oldest cities. It was established at a host teachers’ college in 1999, on the 1st of June, as the culmination of the Chetsanga Report of August 1995 that recommended transformation of both teachers’ and technical colleges that would ultimately become autonomous and

independent universities. This public university had an initial enrolment of slightly above a hundred students who completed a two-year Bachelor of Education primary in-service degree as an affiliate of the University of Zimbabwe. The institution is accredited by MoHTES&TD of Zimbabwe. The ZIMCHE is the watch dog for the regulation of standards of this and other universities in the country. Thus, the university studied complies with the standards of the ZIMCHE in its provision of programs from Bachelor's degree to PhD level in education and other fields of study. This university trains pre-service and in-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education at undergraduate and post-graduate degree levels. At the time of this study, the university had adopted a multi-campus approach with a wide range of schools. Besides teacher education programmes, the university offers different programmes such as Agriculture, Natural Sciences, Hospitality, Tourism and Culture, Law, African and Asian Studies as well as Gender and Cultural Studies. It also has schools of Education and Culture, Social Sciences, Arts, Culture and Heritage Studies, Commerce and the School of Business. It has various departments of education inclusive of Special Needs Education and Curriculum Studies. The niche area of the studied public university is the preservation of African culture and heritage.

Other teacher education programs that the studied university offers include Bachelor of Adult and Continuing Education Honours Degree, Bachelor of Education Honours Degree (Early Childhood Development In-service), Bachelor of Education Honours Degree (Early Childhood Development Pre-service), Bachelor of Education Honours Degree (Educational Leadership and Management), Bachelor of Education Honours Degree (Primary In-service) and Bachelor of Education Honours Degree (Secondary In-service). The university also offers a Bachelor of Education Honours Degree (Secondary Pre-service), Bachelor of Education Honours Degree (Sociology); Bachelor of Education Honours Degree (Special Needs Education), Bachelor of Education Honours Degree (Philosophy), Bachelor of Education Honours Degree (Psychology) and a Diploma in Adult and Continuing Education. The university offers both conventional and block release programs to promote access to higher education in Zimbabwe.

5.5.1 The Bachelor of Education Honours Degree (Primary Pre-service) programme structure

The duration of the degree program offered at the studied university is four (4) years of full-time study including a year of TP. Each teacher trainee is required to take a total of thirty-eight (38) out of 42 possible modules in four (4) parts allocated as follows: Part 1: fourteen modules are registered that include a communication studies course; Part 2: twelve modules are registered including one specialization course; Part 3: a student registers for TP which is equivalent to one module and Part 4: eleven modules are registered for, including a research project which is equivalent to two modules. The subsequent paragraphs show how congested the curriculum is with information not directly related to inclusion in education. In each part, modules covered are categorized into nine areas. These are: 11 Educational Foundations modules (EFM); 2 Faculty modules (FM); 6 Areas of Specialization modules (ASM); 11 Professional Studies modules (PSM); 3 Compulsory modules (CM); 2 Curriculum Studies (CS) modules; 1 Research module (RM); 1 Micro Teaching module and 1 Practicum module. (See Appendix O).

Each of the modules was taught face-to-face for 36 hours before a final 3-hour examination at the end of each academic semester that constitutes 12 weeks. Pre-service teacher-trainees wrote three assignments; had one class presentation, one research assignment and an end of semester 3-hour examination. Assessment was continuous, contributing 30% while examinations were formal, contributing 70% of the final mark. The pass mark was at least 50% in the examination and assignments respectively. Students who failed assignments in a module could not write an examination in that module. Students who failed an examination wrote a supplementary examination.

5.5.2 Population, sampling procedure and sample

While Vonk (2016:2) refers to a population as all the individuals or units of a group that a researcher wishes to study and generalize findings due to their having common traits (Bret & Bret, 2011:7; Schumacher, 2006:15; Vonk, 2016:2), McMillan and Schumacher

(2010:489) state that a population includes all the individuals from which a sample is drawn and where results of a study can be generalized/transferability. The population for this study comprised of 221 pre-service graduate pre-service primary school teachers who constituted the 2013-2016 cohort of the participating public university in Zimbabwe.

This study used typical case sampling to select the public university, primary schools and graduate teachers who participated in it. Omona (2013:180) defines typical case sampling as “one in which the researcher studies an individual, group or setting that is typical where the researcher should consult several experts in the field of study in order to obtain a consensus as to what example(s) is typical of the phenomenon and should, therefore, be studied.” In typical case sampling, an individual or group is studied (Omona, 2013:180). This study investigated a public university that professionally prepares pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe. Of the seven public universities in Zimbabwe, at the time of study, only the selected university had a standalone Department for Special Needs Education hence it was likely to be dedicated to professionally prepare pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education. Its graduates were likely to be information rich as regards the focus of this study. This university is also one of the nation’s seven public higher education institutions that train pre-service primary school teachers at degree level (Coltart, 2013:3), hence its selection for this study. A typical case is ideal for large organizational or institutional programs, whose selected study participants display similar behaviour (Etikan, Musa & Alkassim, 2015:3) or are experts in the area of study who should be consulted (Omona, 2013:180). Pre-service primary school teachers (2013-2016 cohort) who were trained on inclusion in education and graduated with a B. Ed Honours Degree with specialization in primary school education from the studied university and had the same teaching experience of one year after graduation, participated in this study. The sample comprised 16 graduate pre-service primary school teachers, two males and fourteen females. Data saturation informed the size of the sample. Purposive sample sizes can be based on data saturation, the point in data collection when new data no longer brings additional insights to the research questions (Gord, 2012:5; Guetterman, 2015:16). Caution should be maintained to ensure the

sample size does not become too large or too small, rather it should be optimum (Gord, 2012; 30; Kothari, 2004:30). While there is no fixed sample size in qualitative research however, a range of six to 26 participants is recommended (Zaidatun, 2012:13) as it depends on what a researcher tries to investigate and what different informants or perspectives he or she tries to investigate.

According to De Vos, Srydom, Fouche and Delport (2011:194), a sample are those elements of the population that are considered to be included in the study or a subset of measurements derived from a population that a researcher is interested in. Sampling assumes that the researcher wishes to gain insight hence selects a representative group from which the most can be learned (Gord, 2012:27). A purposive typical case sampling technique was used to select university graduate pre-service primary school teachers who participated in this study.

Masvingo province in which this study was carried out consists of seven educational districts, namely, Bikita, Chiredzi, Chivi, Gutu, Masvingo, Mwenezi and Zaka (Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency, 2013) each with mainstream public primary schools that serve learners with diverse and unique needs with low to medium support needs. Of the seven districts, Masvingo District was purposely selected. This is because it was the host district to the studied university that could minimise transport costs between the university and the participating mainstream primary schools, the majority being urban in location. This educational province has a total population of 865 mainstream public primary schools of which the Masvingo District has a population of 152 such schools (Education for All, 2015). From Masvingo District, schools were purposely selected. In pursuit of addressing the focus of this study, a sample of public mainstream primary schools was selected from the ones that included learners with diverse and unique needs taught by university graduate pre-service teachers who met the inclusion criteria to participate in this study presented below.

I first secured ethical clearance and permission to carry out this study from UNISA REC, MoHTES&TD, MoPSE of Zimbabwe, Masvingo Provincial and Masvingo District as spelt out in Section 5.10.1 of this thesis. Thereafter, I personally visited the Masvingo

District Education office and secured a list of primary schools in which graduate pre-service primary school teachers from the 2013-2016 cohort of the studied university were employed. The inclusion criteria for the participants were: having a Bachelor's Honours Degree in Education specializing in primary school education from the studied public university; teaching in Masvingo District of Masvingo province; having undergone initial teacher training in the 2013-2016 cohort at the participating public university; experience of one year of teaching at least one child with unique needs in a regular classroom; having done TP for a full year in accordance with the regulations of the participating university; one teacher participant per participating primary school and willingness to participate in the study.

I identified 26 schools with the graduate pre-service primary school teachers from the list that I secured from Masvingo District education office in person that had telephone numbers of the head teachers. All the twenty-six teachers, one per primary school consented to participate in line with the inclusion criteria to tap into the various contexts that they were practicing inclusion in education in, particularly urban, peri-urban and rural settings. Nevertheless, 16 teachers participated in this study following the realization of data saturation whose demographic information is illustrated in Table 5.1 below. Eight of these schools were located in urban settings, four in peri-urban setting while the other four were located in rural settings. This table presents the name, gender, age and qualification of participants.

I made telephonic calls to the head teachers of these schools and introduced myself, explained my study and sensitized them on the prospective participants of my study who were at their institutions. I also cordially scheduled with the respective school heads the dates and time for my visit to their institutions to introduce myself and my study in person and to meet the prospective participants of this study. I would also use the opportunity of the visits to leave the informed consent forms, parental and child assent forms for the signatures of the relevant parties should they consent to participate. I further sought and secured the telephone numbers of the prospective participating teachers from these head teachers.

As agreed with the head teachers in our telephone conversations, they had a week to inform the prospective teacher participants at their schools about this study. Thereafter, I phoned one prospective teacher participant per school to introduce myself and explain my study. All participants were individually informed that taking part in this study was voluntary and attracted no penalty for declining to participate or withdrawing from taking part. As agreed with the heads of schools in my conversation with them, I telephonically scheduled dates and time for my visits to introduce myself in person to the prospective participants and distribute the informed consent, child and parental assent forms for their signatures should they agree to participate. In the following week after my telephonic engagement with the prospective teacher participants, I visited their schools and personally introduced myself and explained my study to their head teachers and each one of them, learners and distributed informed consent forms, parental and child assent forms for their signatures should they consent to participate. Teachers distributed the parental assent forms to the parents through their children and introduced them to me and my study using teacher-parent communication books. The full explanation of the focus and process of the study as well as the associated risks and benefits of participating in it were detailed in the parental assent forms. Visits to schools took me a week since I visited at least three institutions per day.

Two weeks thereafter, I went back to the schools I had visited to collect the signed informed consent forms, parental and child assent forms, scheduled individual interviews and non-participant observation venues, and dates as well as modalities for the collection of documents from the parties who had consented to participate in the study. The two weeks' period afforded all the participants, including parents to sign parental assent forms since they had their own commitments. Parents completed and signed assent forms on behalf of their children (see Appendix N) and parental consent letters for their minor children (see Appendix K) and children signed their assent forms as well. To guarantee protection of identity of research participants, pseudonyms were assigned to each participant as illustrated in Table 5.1 below.

TABLE 5.1: Demographic information of study participants

NAME	MALE	FEMALE	AGE
Tr1		X	30
Tr2		X	24
Tr3			30
Tr4	X		30
Tr5		X	35
Tr6		X	30
Tr7		X	31
Tr8		X	27
Tr9		X	28
Tr10	X		36
Tr11		X	27
Tr12		X	36
Tr13		X	31
Tr14		X	26
Tr15		X	36
Tr16		X	27

5.6. Participant description

All the 16 participants of this study were teaching at primary schools in Masvingo District of Masvingo province. Those who entered university with an 'O' level certificate where considered on maturity entry as an 'A' level certificate is the basic entry qualification. The 16 classes taught primarily had three distinct groups of learners, i.e. learners who were gifted, talented and creative; those with learning disabilities and those typically developing learners but with other specific individual variations as presented in Table 6.1. Twelve of the 16 classes observed had more males than female learners as demonstrated in Table 5.2 below:

Table 5.2: Participant description

Participant	School location	University entry qualification	Male learners	Female learners
Tr1	Urban	'O'level	27	23
Tr2	Urban	'A'level	22	26
Tr3	Rural	'O'level	29	22
Tr4	Urban	'O'level	26	19
Tr5	Urban	'O'level	21	13
Tr6	peri-urban	'O'level	28	20
Tr7	Urban	'O'level	17	23
Tr8	peri-urban	'O'level	26	20
Tr9	Urban	'O'level	25	21
Tr10	Urban	'O'level	25	27
Tr11	peri-urban	'O'level	27	22
Tr12	Urban	'O'level	20	24
Tr13	peri-urban	'O'level	28	19
Tr14	Rural	'O'level	27	21
Tr15	Rural	'O'level	23	17

Tr16	Rural	'O'level	25	21
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5.7 Data collection instruments

A qualitative case study researcher is required to promote data triangulation since this approach does not rely on a single source of information, but often makes use of multiple sources of evidence (Yin, 2011:8; Creswell, 2012:33). I used three data collection instruments, namely, individual interviews, non-participant observations and document analysis. According to Ansari (2011:15), interviews are quite fundamental in "...getting the story behind a participant's experiences." Consistent with the interpretivist research paradigm which postulates that, reality is subjective, individual university graduate pre-service primary school teachers who participated in this study freely expressed their subjective opinions on their professional preparation for inclusion in education.

5.7.1 Face-to-face semi-structured individual interviews

Interviews involve oral interaction between the interviewer and interviewee with the former asking questions meant to extract relevant information from the interviewee (Annum, 2016:2). This study used a semi-structured interview guide (see Appendix A). The semi-structured interview guide used in this study aligns with the interpretive paradigm which is concerned with narrative descriptions and explanations of participants' views (Lincoln & Lynham, 2011:5). The semi-structured interview questions assisted me to unearth meanings of life experiences as presented by those who lived it, particularly in relation to the professional preparation of graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education.

Qualitative interviews allow researchers to get meanings of participants' lived experiences (Baskarada, 2013:1). Semi-structured interview questions were preferred for the context of this study because of their flexibility that afforded the participating university graduate pre-service primary school teachers the liberty to express their perceptions and experiences on how their institution professionally prepared them for inclusion in education. Semi-structured interviews are appropriate when a researcher

seeks to obtain detailed perceptions, experiences, views and attitudes of the participants of a study about a researched phenomenon (Marshall, 2016:1; Creswell, 2014:190). I sought university graduate pre-service primary school teachers' understanding of inclusion in education, their practices in inclusion in education and strategies that could enhance their professional preparation for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe. Semi-structured individual interviews allow the researcher to probe for explanations of responses (Marshall, 2016:5). I probed deeper into university graduate pre-service primary school teachers who participated in this study about their experiences regarding their professional preparation for inclusion in education. For instances, I probed for different understandings of inclusion in education; what they meant when they expressed that "inclusion is about all children in mainstream classrooms". I also probed participants on their strengths and shortcomings in practicing inclusion in education and intervention strategies.

The most important aspect of in-depth interviewing is accessing study participants who are information rich (Elmusharaf, 2012:13). Sixteen university graduate pre-service primary school teachers who underwent professional preparation for inclusion in education at the same university who were teaching children with diverse and unique needs in their mainstream classes participated in this study. Qualitative research regards knowledge as situated or contextual (Yin, 2011:7). Thus, I contextualised the interview through asking individual university graduate pre-service primary school teachers who participated in this study questions on their professional preparation for inclusion in education with respect to the content, process, environment and product of such preparation with respect to their delivery of services in their primary schools. For instance, I asked them how their professional preparation was undertaken to serve in their rural, peri-urban or urban school settings. I asked follow-up questions including the impact of the availability of financial resources on their professional preparation for inclusion in education.

According to Edwards and Holland (2013:13), semi-structured interviews lead to the creation of meanings and understandings through co-production of knowledge by both the interviewer and interviewee. Thus, university graduate pre-service primary school

teachers who participated in this study and I constructed and re-constructed knowledge on their professional preparation for inclusion in education through a dialogical process. McMillan and Schumacher (2010:40) posit that semi-structured interviews are phrased to allow unique responses from each interviewee. Semi-structured individual interviews were used in this study. The interview questions were developed based on the reviewed literature and interview questions of previous studies on professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education including Majoko's (2018) study in alignment with the objectives of this study. My supervisor checked the interview guide to ensure that its content addressed the focus of this study. The interview questions were pilot-tested with three university graduate pre-service primary school teachers who met the inclusion criteria to participate in this study. The interview questions were adjusted including rephrasing them and reducing their number based on the responses of these pre-service teachers. Questions were reduced from 19 to 9 as some sought similar answers, for instance, "How do you manage inclusive teaching and learning in your classroom?" and "What are your strategies in inclusion in education?"

According to Kothari (2009:47) and Ansari (2011:17), interviews promote personal encounter with interviewees while at the same time encouraging them to gladly share the required information. Participants had the opportunity to address any uncertainty regarding questions leading to more accurate information being provided. For instance, participants were asked to explain how they worked with other stakeholders for inclusion in education.

Despite their popularity and ability to capture appropriate information due to interviewer control of the process (Wyse, 2014:2), interviews are not without limitations. According to Jacobson, Pritt and Rugeley (2009:1) interviews are time consuming and expensive, at the same time, they seem intrusive to the interviewees. I stopped the collection of data once data saturation was realised after interviewing 16 participants instead of the initially projected 26 participants. When individual interviews are used in a study, there is a greater chance of personal bias and prejudice as compared to when other methods are used (Jacobson et al 2009:47). I used bracketing to eliminate my bias and prejudice in the study.

5.7.2 Non-participant observation

I also used non-participant observations to collect data in this study. Soon after the completion of interviews, I engaged with the head teachers for permission to observe lessons for me to become familiarised with the learners. It took 16 days for observations and discussions for this process. The purpose of non-participant observation is to perceive the nature and extent of significant interrelated elements within complex social phenomena or human conduct (Hancock et al, 2009:18; Akash, 2016:2). Non-participant observations were used to ascertain the professional preparation of graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education through discerning the inclusivity of the content, process, environment and product of the lessons they delivered. Non-participant observation is a process in which the researcher passively notices real life situations of participants without taking part in their activities and then classifies and records pertinent occurrences according to some planned schemes (Akash, 2016:1; Kumar, 2011:134). I observed each participant delivering a lesson without active involvement in the lesson for 30 minutes in line with the duration prescribed by the MoPSE of Zimbabwe.

I conducted non-participant lesson observations with graduate university pre-service primary school teachers in their respective classrooms during working hours. Participants were observed teaching different subjects, including Indigenous Language (Shona); Mathematics; English; Family, Religious and Moral Education (FAREME) and Heritage Studies. A structured non-participant observation guide was used to realise its alignment with the semi-structured interview guide to guarantee triangulation of data and expedite its analysis. The structured non-participant observation was developed based on a review of guides of previous studies including Majoko's (2018) study.

Non-participant observations (see Appendix B) allowed usual lessons to proceed without my interference with the teaching and learning process while I was strategically positioned as an eyewitness to see how university graduate pre-service primary school teachers practiced inclusion in education. Non-participant observation facilitates the collection of data when and where an event or activity is occurring (Jacobson, et al

2009:1). I observed teaching lessons delivery to ascertain their professional preparation for inclusion in education. During non-participant lesson observations, I took notes on the observation guide form to assist me compile accurate post-observation remarks. Observational data helps the researcher to overcome inconsistencies between actual action and what was said by participants and exposes behaviours that participants were not aware of (Green, 2009:20).

I was able to directly observe the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education during their teaching of children with diverse and unique needs and their typically developing peers. For instance, I observed some teachers changing sitting positions of some learners with low vision and positioned them closer to the chalkboard to enhance visualization of the material written on it. Another participant was observed making use of ICT to show magnified pictures of different workers in their professional attire while Tr2 was observed differentiating reading comprehension tasks to meet the diverse abilities of her learners. Thus, I did not rely on only their narratives in individual interviews. According to Yin (2014:255), non-participant observation can be used to augment the use of individual interviews in the collection of data in qualitative research. Thus in this study, face-to-face individual interviews and document analysis were augmented through the use of non-participant observation. The use of non-participant observation facilitated my focusing on what Oun and Bach (2014:255) call 'the meaning of human action in context.' Learners in the classroom of Tr8 were observed learning in groups constituting girls and boys, demonstrative of the fact that inclusion in education extends to include the pursuit of realizing equity and equality as it relates to other forms of human diversity including gender, disabilities, socio-economic status, cultural and linguistic diversity.

According to Kumar (2011:134), the use of non-participant observation in studies has some shortcomings, including being incomplete when the researcher takes notes while missing some interaction occurring, and that there can be observer bias. In this study, I made skeletal notes on the non-participant observation guide during observation, which was then fully explained soon after the observation before forgetting of events observed. I also remained impartial to avoid observer bias through using the items on

the non-participant observation guide. Kothari (2004) postulates that non-participant observation provides limited information about the studied phenomenon, particularly the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe. Consequently, I also used individual interviews and document analysis as data gathering instruments in this study for triangulation of the data.

5.7.3 Document analysis

Document analysis is a secondary source of data in qualitative study (Bower, 2009:2) hence used in this study. Documents are important research tools and provide invaluable parts of most schemes of triangulation (Cath, 2011:4). Document analysis involves the examination and interpretation of documents and records for data relevant to the study (Cath, 2011:4). In this study, documents that I analysed included university module outline, the university prospectus, academic regulations for the B.Ed Honours degree (pre-service), TP file, TP assessment forms, the circular to the school heads, mentors and student teachers as well as school documents such as registers, records and learners' workbooks. Document analysis involves reading lots of written material which relates to some aspect under study (Yin, 2011:7). In this study, documents were collected, recorded, analysed and interpreted by the researcher to provide "...voice and meaning" (Dingnan, 2008:1) on the understanding, practices and strategies sought by this study.

Qualitative research, due to its amenability, provides privacy to participants' social life and world view (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011:11). In this study, the social life of the participants discerned from the records included that some learners were orphaned, some came from poor socio-economic circumstances while others were single-parented. Document analysis is used in studies as an alternative method of data collection that allows for triangulation of findings (Yin, 2011:7). It can also present in text a research topic that participants may feel insecure to share with the public (Viswambharan & Priya, 2015:4). Document analysis revealed the shortcomings of the professional preparation of graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in

education, including limited contact hours of modules and the lack of depth and breadth of modules on inclusion in education which the participants did not readily share with me during individual interviews.

In this study, typical case sampling was used to select from the university, primary documents for analysis. O’Leary (2014:17) defines primary documents as “public records or the official, ongoing records of an organization’s activities which include student transcripts, mission statements, annual reports, policy manuals, student handbooks, strategic plans, and syllabi.” In this study, primary documents analysed included the university prospectus, the academic regulations or guidelines for the degree program as well as the module outlines. According to Bowen (2009:3), “documents are stable, ‘non-reactive’ data sources, meaning that they can be read and reviewed multiple times and remain unchanged by the researcher’s influence or research process.” In this study, both university and school documents used were read repeatedly during analysis without being changed by my repeated reviews. These documents included the university’s module outlines including the module, outline on Special Needs Education, the university’s academic regulations, the university prospectus, TP file and TP assessment forms which I had requested from the School of Education through the Department of Special Needs Education’s secretary. Access was limited to documents whose authenticity was verified and evidenced by their bearing of the university logo. Though correspondence had been conducted through the registrar, I also submitted to the School of Education’s secretary approval letters from both the REC of UNISA and the studied university.

The data I collected from these documents for analysis were quite significant to this study. Payne and Payne (2004:14) describe the documentary method as a technique used “to categorize, investigate, interpret and identify the limitations of physical sources, most commonly written documents whether in private or public domain.” Commonly written documents in this study included the university prospectus and the academic guidelines for the degree program. A guide (see Appendix C) was used for document analysis to guarantee the alignment of the process with the aspects addressed in the

individual interviews and non-participant observations and expedite the analysis of data due to alignment of the three data collection instruments.

According to Creswell (2009), some documents availed may be inaccurate and non-authentic while some material may be incomplete. Certain information may also be protected from public access. In this study, I collected documents bearing the official university logo or stamp while, at the same time, making reference to relevant literature to complement what the module outlines contained. The university prospectus and academic guidelines for the degree program bore the official logo while the module outlines, TP assessment forms and the circular to the school heads, mentors and student teachers were stamped. However, there was no protected information that the study sought to analyse.

5.8 Data collection procedure

I embarked on data collection after the collection of the signed informed consent and child and parent assent forms from all the prospective participants. As agreed with individual participants, during my collection of these forms, I interviewed them outside working hours so as not to interfere with their daily schoolwork schedule, in the comfort of their schools in their classrooms with the permission of their respective heads of schools and their informed consent. One interview, which lasted, at least 45 minutes was carried out per working day with each one of the 16 participants in different schools. To guide my face-to-face individual interviews, I utilized a semi-structured interview guide. Simultaneous audio recording and note taking when in an interview session is an essential means through which the researcher can ensure accurate transcription of the verbal discourse (Neergaard & Ulhøj, 2007:311). In this study, I audio-recorded the interviews with the informed consent of the participants and, at the same time, held follow-up discussions with the participants to clarify certain issues. For instance, Tr2 made a learner with Spina Bifida to sit closest to the door of the classroom. From a follow-up discussion, the participant revealed to me that this learner with Spina Bifida often experienced incontinence; hence the need to be positioned near the exit to avoid delays when there was need to visit the toilet. I carried out, transcribed

and analysed one interview per day. When I had interviewed 16 participants, I achieved data saturation.

Upon completion of individual interviews, I observed a lesson per participant for familiarization with learners prior to the actual non-participant observation. This took two weeks as I observed lessons in at most 3 primary schools per day. Since most of the participating schools were urban while some were peri-urban, I managed to make these three lesson observations a day as I used my personal car to travel between them. Thereafter, I conducted main study non-participant observations, one per day, for data collection. According to Creswell (2009:181) “qualitative non-participant observations are those in which the researcher takes field notes on the behaviour and activities of individuals at the research site.” Non-participant observation was utilized in the current study during graduate pre-service primary school teachers’ delivery of mainstream classroom lessons. Both the date and time for the non-participant classroom lesson observation were agreed upon individually with the participants in advance at their convenience. Thus, non-participant lesson observations were held during normal teaching hours. Each pre-service teacher was observed teaching a specific topic in a specific subject such as English, Indigenous Language and FAREME in his or her natural classroom. Denzin and Lincoln (2011: 3) postulate that, “qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of or interpret phenomena in terms of the meanings people bring to them.”

I carried out these classroom lesson observations as an eye-witness of how the graduate pre-service primary school teachers were professionally prepared for inclusion in education. These non-participant lesson observations were guided for consistency and accuracy by a non-participant lesson observation schedule on which I made notes for future review and reflection during data analysis and interpretation. According to Taylor, Bogdan and DeVault (2016:81), non-participant observation notes should be taken during and as soon as possible after each observation to reduce chances of forgetting. Lichtman (2014:292) postulates that observation notes can be repeatedly reviewed by the researcher. Each of the 16 non-participant observations lasted for 30 minutes in sync with the duration of lessons recommended by the MoPSE of Zimbabwe.

After the completion of non-participant observations, I collected data using document analysis. Yin (2011:147) asserts that, most of the collection or accumulation of objects such as documents that are relevant to one's study area takes place while the researcher is still in the field. Creswell (2014:240) postulates that a qualitative researcher is able to unobtrusively gather research data from documents. I then collected with the assistance of the secretary of the School of Education, and the chairperson of the concerned department (names not mentioned for anonymity and confidentiality of the institution) who provided me with all the documents, including university module outlines such as the module outline on Special Needs Education, the university's academic regulations, the university prospectus, TP file and TP assessment forms as well as a circular to school heads, mentors and students on TP which I had requested from the School of Education. I also collected teachers' records, teachers' old TP files and learners' workbooks. These I obtained in person after I requested them through the participants' head teachers. I also requested learners' documents from parents and children through their class teachers to whom I had explained the research profile. Documents were analysed at my home to allow adequate time for the process. Documents that teachers and learners needed during school days were analysed during the weekend at home and returned to school prior to the beginning of the school week.

5.9 Data analysis

Qualitative data analysis is a rigorous, non-linear and a recurring process of critically reading, interpreting and establishing a common understanding of data so as to gain a rich picture of the studied phenomenon (Flick, 2013:10). This process is underpinned by the interpretive paradigm in order to examine the meaningful and symbolic content of data. According to Flick (2013:3), data analysis is a pivotal stage to attain the interpretive mandate of qualitative research. Qualitative data is non-numeric information like interview transcripts and text documents which in turn need to be analysed so as to establish what Ansari (2011:15) calls "...the story behind views of participants." In light of this, data analysis serves the purpose of showing findings of the study derived from information offered by its participants.

To analyse the data collected, I adopted Braun and Clarke's (2006) six phase guide to conduct an interpretive top-down or theoretical thematic analysis of data transcribed, driven by specific research questions of the current study. These stages involve: familiarizing oneself with the data, generating initial codes, searching for themes, reviewing potential themes, defining and naming themes and lastly producing the report (Braun & Clarke, 2012:5). In this study, I first analysed data gathered through individual interviews with the 16 university graduate pre-service primary school teachers in order to understand their professional preparation for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe. I first transcribed all interview data verbatim (Marshall & Rossman, 2011:69) to allow for the accurate capture of central themes during analysis. Transcription brought me closer to the data (Hesse-Biber, 2010:6) and representing audible data in text form is an interpretive process (Bailey, 2008:131) I undertook in the current study.

During familiarization with the data, I read and re-read the transcriptions to acclimatize myself with the data in addition to playing repeatedly audio recordings to verify the accuracy of transcriptions. In qualitative studies, interviews recorded should be transcribed word-for-word to allow their repeated review (Creswell, 2014:256) with "the researcher moving backwards and forwards between transcripts" (Dawson, 2002:116). During this exercise, I entered my early impressions in the form of comments, recurring phrases and language used by participants. "Most qualitative researchers analyse and code their own data" (Taylor et al, 2016:169). Thus coding, as the crux of qualitative analysis (Office of Assessment of Teaching and Learning (OAAATL), 2015:3), is a physical reduction of data by putting names or labels on excerpts (Hesse-Biber, 2010:13) to facilitate familiarity and understanding of it. According to Flick (2013:11), the purpose of data analysis is "...data reduction" as the researcher looks for commonalities leading to categories that are known as themes.

To generate initial codes, I then re-read the transcripts and identified extracts of data to code using different colours to mark texts associated with each code. The purpose of coding was to reduce masses of data collected into manageable sizes of meaningful information (Flick, 2013:11). Codes were attached only to those portions of data bearing relevant information to my specific individual interview questions, thus line-by-line

coding was irrelevant as it was not inductive analysis (Maguire & Delahunt, 2017:3355). An over-lapping stage of searching for themes followed through an examination of generated codes and bunched together those that fitted into a theme. A theme “captures something important about the data in relation to the research question, and represents some level of patterned response or meaning within the data set” (Braun & Clarke, 2006:82). Descriptive themes then emerged, expressed by participants which I entered on the right margin of my transcripts. These themes described recurring patterns in the data transcribed relevant to the interview questions of this study.

After this stage, I went further to reviewing themes established to see if that data supported it contextually. I fine-tuned and discarded some codes and remained with those that meaningfully captured more relevant data. Qualitative data analysis is an on-going, cyclical process which is determined by both the researcher as well as the context of the research (OATL, 2018:2). Next in line was the stage of defining themes with a purpose of establishing the essence of what individual themes were all about. According to Maguire and Delahunt (2017:3358), themes are required to be “...coherent and ...distinct from each other.” All excerpts of interview responses relevant to each theme were grouped under each research question to facilitate a true reflection of the participants’ expressions of their experiences as presented in Chapter 6.

Since this study assumed a qualitative case study design, its analysis therefore produced what Ponelis (2015:535) refers to as “... an intensive, holistic description... of a single, bounded unit situated in a specific context”. Data from participants was examined and analysed within their social context in this study. I was the primary analytical instrument in this process as rightfully pointed out by Scotland (2012:11) who observed that, “...to experience the world, you have to participate in it, constructing meaning and not discovering it.”

Subsequent to the analysis of data from face-to-face individual interviews, I reviewed and analysed non-participant lesson observation field notes written during and post observation. In order to further reinforce the study, I finally reviewed and analysed the contents reflected in the collected university and school documents cognizant of

Glesne's (2011:85) assertion that, "documents can provide you with historical, demographic and sometimes personal information that is unavailable from other sources." Written documents are examined to obtain an in-depth understanding and description of the participants' experiences (Bogdan & Bicklen, 2006). The transcription of documentary notes provided me with an opportunity to develop transcripts that were based on the research sub-questions of this study. I examined the data from the documents for recurrent instances which were then systematically identified from the data set and then clustered together thematically. Resultantly, Braun and Clarke's (2006) data analysis steps were adopted as was done with interview transcripts and field notes from lesson observations. Research ethical considerations for the present qualitative study are discussed in the subsequent section.

5.10 Research ethical considerations

Ethics in research concern principles that govern how a study is conducted with special consideration of research stakeholders including the participants, the researcher and funding organizations (Kumar, 2011:217). According to King (2010:99), researchers are obliged to give due respect to research stakeholders including research venues. All ethical protocols were observed with respect to securing clearance from the REC of UNISA before data collection commenced for this study. Special consideration was given to ethical issues of confidentiality, anonymity, informed consent, protection from harm and honesty with professional colleagues.

5.10.1 Permission

Researchers need to obtain the approval of the participants of a study, institutions and individual organisations prior to executing their studies (Neuman, 2011:116). I first submitted an ethics clearance application to the Research Ethics Committee (REC) of the College of Education of the University of South Africa (UNISA). In response to this application, an Ethical Clearance Certificate (ECC) (see Appendix D) was obtained from UNISA that granted me permission to execute this study on graduate pre-service primary school teachers from a public university in Zimbabwe. I applied and secured permission to carry out this study from the Head Offices of the MoHTES&TD and the MoPSE of Zimbabwe respectively (see Appendices F&M). Thereafter, I also applied and

secured permission to carry out this study from the public university in Zimbabwe from which the participating graduate pre-service primary school teachers were drawn (see Appendix N). The ECC together with the respective permission from the two ministries as well as the participating university allowed me the opportunity to collect the required data. Primary school head teachers and university graduate pre-service primary school teachers were first contacted by telephone to book appointments with them. I then provided the prospective participants with both oral and detailed written information about the scope and purpose of the study before embarking on the data collection processes so as to secure their informed consent.

Selected participants were given a letter highlighting the purpose of the study, rationale for their selection and what their participation in the study entailed. The participants were requested to sign a written agreement indicating their comprehension of the significance of the study and their willingness to voluntarily take part in this study (see Appendix H). Parents of minor children were equally served with introductory letters in the form of a Parental Consent for Minors Form, attached to the Ascent Forms (see Appendices K & J) respectively, provided via their children for them to have an idea of the mandate of the study before assenting to the participation of their children. Parents then signed both assent forms and parental consent forms for their minor children who participated in the study. I collected data on the dates and times agreed upon with the participating university graduate pre-service primary school teachers.

5.10.2 Informed consent

Informed consent relates to "...the participants' understanding of the nature and purpose of the study" (Yin, 2011:46). According to Grix (2010:144), "participants in any study must do so willingly without any form of coercion." Prior to data collection, researchers are therefore expected not to force as well as deceive participants to sign consent forms (Creswell, 2014:132) but get appropriate consent. Hays and Singh (2012:80) state that informed consent is obtainable through the researcher highlighting issues that may affect participants. Such issues include what Creswell (2014:135) calls "...conveyance of the study purpose and specification of the sponsorship of the study" in order to develop a trusting relationship with participants. To secure the informed

consent of graduate pre-service primary school teachers to participate in this study, I first explained to each school head the profile of the study telephonically and then in person when I initially visited them. I also had an opportunity to explain in detail to participants while at their respective schools, several issues including the potential risks and benefits of taking part in a study before conducting the individual interviews and lesson observations after issuing an invitation letter to participate in this study (see Appendix G).

I did not force their participation but first revealed that participation in this study was voluntary and withdrawal attracted no penalty. Instead, I explained to them clearly that, choice to participate or withdraw was the right of participants. I furthermore informed them that their contributions would be audio-recorded and shared through a doctoral thesis, subject to publication. I also explained to the learners on the same day, at their respective schools, similar issues around the study before giving them assent forms that they took to their parents/guardians for completion (see Appendix J). I thereafter issued consent forms to teachers, each at his/her school where they taught (see Appendix H).

5.10.3 Confidentiality

Confidentiality demands researchers to keep secret the identity of the participants of their studies in any publication, report or presentation (Yin, 2011:46). Confidentiality is a complementary ethical tenet to both anonymity and informed consent. According to Hays and Singh, (2012:84), “when study participants’ identity remains ‘hidden,’ they become relaxed and start to freely and generously share their experiences given assurance that no harm befalls them for divulging such information.” Ensuring confidentiality was a pre-requisite for me since teachers, as professional public servants in Zimbabwe, are obliged to keep and adhere to the Official Secrets Act of 1970 amended in 2004, Chapter 11: 09, Section 4; Prohibition of Communication of certain information Sub-section 1c) (ii). This Act deems one who contravenes it as guilty of an offence and liable to a fine (Government of Zimbabwe, 2004:159). Since I was a professional colleague, employed under the same ministry, bound by the same rules and regulations, these teachers interviewed confidently and in a friendly manner shared

their views on their professional preparation for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe with me. In addition, the face-to-face individual interviews were held indoors to afford them privacy and to create a conducive environment without disturbances or distractions.

5.10.4 Anonymity

According to Anol (2012:138), “anonymity implies failure by a reader to identify a response (perception) given with its source (perceiver).” This failure was enhanced first through my explanations that emphasized that, in place of their real names, pseudonyms would be used and that, the data collected would be treated with all the confidentiality it deserves, hence I cleared up any fears of victimization and possible transgression of the official secrecy to all participants, assuring them that their identities would remain strictly confidential and anonymous as these participants were civil servants bound by ministerial codes of conduct. Thus, I disassociated names from responses during coding and the recording process (Creswell, 2014). Pseudonyms in the form of codes (Tr1 to Tr16 for Teacher 1 to Teacher 16) were used in this study for identification of participants in order to conceal their real identities from the public (see Table 5.1). According to Leedy and Ormrod (2009:124), a researcher must ensure that the right to anonymity of the research participants is respected and maintained. Flick (2010:42) also postulates that, researchers should encrypt specific details like names and company names to identities of participants.

5.15.5 Protection from harm

The use of human beings as study participants, according to Yin (2011:44), requires researchers to “...respect participants’ autonomy, minimize their risks of harm, maximise their benefits and treat them fairly.” In addition, Anol (2012:137) asserts that researchers should not harm study participants for their participation or non-participation. Such harm to which participants should not be exposed, include physical or psychological harm (Neuman, 2011:117; Creswell, 2009:96). In this study, I kept and maintained the safety of participants by not asking about personal, cultural and sensitive issues at the same time being gender sensitive. I also observed and interviewed participants while they were in their usual classrooms where they were not exposed to any form of harm such as of loss of human dignity, anger, torture and invasion to

privacy. I also retained and adhered to other ethical guidelines such as privacy, anonymity and confidentiality as highlighted in earlier sections.

5.10.6 Honesty with professional colleagues

Leedy and Ormrod (2009:129) assert that, “researchers are expected to fully and honestly report their findings without misrepresentation of what they have accomplished or intentionally misleading readers about the nature of their findings”. This avoids two common ethical violations, namely, plagiarism and falsification of data (Anol, 2012:14; Punch, 2009:313). To support particular conclusions, I gave credit to sources of material by using quotation marks for exact words borrowed at the same time fully acknowledging any use of ideas or phrases of any individual, organization or institution in this thesis.

5.11 Trustworthiness

According to Nowell, Norris, White and Moules (2017:1), for findings of qualitative research to be regarded as trustworthy, they would have been reached at as a product of “...precise, consistent and exhaustive data analysis.” Transferability, credibility, dependability and confirmability were observed to ensure trustworthiness of the findings of this study (Creswell, 2014:202). These are the ‘indicators or determinants’ of trustworthiness of qualitative studies (Kumar, 2011:172).

5.11.1 Credibility

Researchers should, disclose detailed methods of data analysis they apply so as to assist readers to determine credibility of the findings of their studies. Findings of any qualitative study should be credible or believable (Mike, 2011:6; Anney, 2014:275). According to Guba (1981:79) credibility is “how can one establish confidence in the ‘truth’ of the findings of a particular inquiry for the subjects (respondents) with which and the context in which the inquiry was carried out?” I ensured credibility of the findings through prolonged engagement with participants to develop an in-depth understanding of the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe.

I had five phases of continued contact with participants at their respective schools: initial phase of introductions to the school head, participating teachers and learners; a phase of lesson observations for familiarisation with participants; a phase of individual interviews and follow-up discussions with individual participants; a phase of non-participant lesson observations for data collection and the final phase of collecting relevant documents such as their TP files, records and learners' workbooks for analysis. The more experience that the researcher has with participants in their natural settings the more accurate the findings become (Mike, 2011). Triangulation of data collection instruments serves to minimize bias of the researcher (Anney, 2014:277). In this study, I triangulated data collection instruments through using individual interviews, non-participant lesson observations and document analysis. According to Yin (2011:19), qualitative research should be publicly, transparently and methodically conducted. In this study, I clearly described and documented all research procedures for public review and comprehension of it.

5.11.2 Transferability

Transferability involves what quantitative researchers refer to as generalization of findings of a study to similar other situations and contexts (Devault, 2018:1). Trochim and Donnelly (2007:149) posit that findings of a study should be transferrable to other similar contexts. According to Anney (2014:277), transferability is the level to which findings of a qualitative study can be applicable in similar circumstances using other participants. Guba (1981:80) explains transferability as "how one can determine the degree to which the findings of a particular inquiry may have applicability in other contexts or with other subjects (respondents)?" Thus, transferability is the applicability of findings of a study to other contexts. Provision of rich and thick descriptions of study results has the potential to transport readers to the study setting as findings become more practical and realistic (Creswell, 2014:251) and findings of a study should be applicable and the researcher has to provide adequate descriptive data to enhance transferability (Lincoln & Guba, 1985:298). I provided comprehensive descriptions of the setting of the study and its findings as well as participants with evidence of quotations from particular interviews and documents to ensure transferability. The process of the

whole research was documented and the setting of the study explained (see Section 5.5).

5.11.3 Dependability

Dependability also regarded as replicability is equivalent to reliability in quantitative research (Billups, 2014:1). Dependability is “How one can determine whether the findings of an inquiry would be consistently repeated if the inquiry were replicated with the same (or similar) subjects (respondents) in the same (or similar) context?” (Guba, 1981:80). This indicator of trustworthiness is more concerned about whether the findings of a study are consistent, repeated or stable over time (Mike, 2011:6). Stability of the research findings is ensured when participants ascertain them and the recommendations of the study are supported by the data they shared about their experiences (Cohen et al, 2011:21). In this study, I went back to the university graduate pre-service primary school teachers who participated and presented major findings of this study for them to verify their accuracy and allow the researcher not to distort their perceptions. This strategy is regarded by Rose (2016:4) as ‘member-checking’. Creswell (2014:251) defines member checking as a strategy used to determine the accuracy of the findings of a study. Merriam (2009:229) asserts that, dependability can be ensured through triangulation of data collection instruments, having ample engagement during data collection until achieving saturation as well as using the maximum variation in the selected sample to permit a greater range of application. In this study, I used three instruments of data collection: individual interviews accompanied by follow-up discussions, non-participant observation and document analysis.

5.11.4 Confirmability

According to Guba (1981:80), confirmability is “how can one establish the degree to which the findings of an inquiry are a function solely of the subjects (respondents) and conditions of the inquiry and not of the biases, motivations, interests, perspectives and so on of the inquirer?” Confirmability is the equivalent of objectivity in quantitative research (Chege, 2011:16) and the issue of confirmability is about the degree to which study results are a function mainly of study participants (Moon, Brewer, Hartley et al., 2016:2). The concept of confirmability complements that of dependability as both share

a common focus at establishing the researcher's understanding of participants' perceptions as derivatives of the data shared (Nowell et al, 2017:4).

Confirmability thus positions research participants as playing what Sinkovics, Penz and Ghauri (2008:698) call "...the role of the devil's advocate" as they should react to both the data and the researcher's interpretation of it. To this end, I specially considered views of participants to establish meaningful interpretations of their perceptions of issues studied on their professional preparation for inclusion in education. According to Creswell (2014:254), in order to portray a qualitative research, the report should include quotations of participants' views that range from "short to long impeded passages." Consequently, I used actual words spoken by participants as quotations in my presentation of the data. A clear distinction between actual views of participants and the researcher's interpretations has been made in this study. In addition, confirmability or objectivity as in quantitative research (Mike, 2011:7) of the research findings was maintained by the researcher through being unbiased throughout the research process. I made all these efforts to ensure confirmability and I took care to comply with what the In-depth Training and Research Centre of Excellence (INTREC, 2009:2) refers to as 'neutrality' of the researcher as my personal interests did not influence my findings, recommendations and conclusions.

5.12 Summary of the chapter

This chapter presented the research methodology and design of the study. Aspects of the research paradigm, research approach, research design, research methods, recruitment of study participants and the study sample were covered. The chapter also presented data collection instruments, namely, individual interviews, non-participant observation, document analysis, data collection procedures and data analysis methods used. Both ethical considerations as well as the trustworthiness of this study were given together with action taken by the researcher to ensure trustworthiness of the study's findings. The next chapter will present, analyse and interpret the data gathered in this study.

CHAPTER 6: PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

6.1 Introduction

Entrenched in the interpretivist research paradigm, this qualitative single descriptive case study examined the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe as the context for proposing strategies to enhance their professional preparation. The previous chapter presented the research methodology and design of the study. This chapter presents and analyses the data of the study collected using semi-structured individual interviews, non-participant observations, document analysis and follow-up discussions with the 16 university graduate pre-service primary school teachers who participated in the study. The collected data was thematically organized based on the research sub-questions of the study as the organizing framework. Braun and Clarke's (2006) six-phase strategy for the thematic analysis of data was used.

6.2 Main research question

How professionally prepared for inclusion in education are graduate pre-service primary school teachers from a public university in Zimbabwe?

6.3 Research sub-questions

- How do graduate pre-service primary school teachers from a public university in Zimbabwe understand inclusion in education?
- How do graduate pre-service primary school teachers from a public university in Zimbabwe practice inclusion in education?
- What strategies can enhance the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education?

6.4 Profile of study participants

According to Pickering (2017:576), the profiles of the participants of a study provide readers with information on the number and type of its informants and clarify to whom its findings are transferable. Sixteen graduate pre-service primary school teachers who were purposefully drawn from one purposefully sampled public university in Zimbabwe

participated in this study. Pseudonyms were used to guarantee their anonymity and confidentiality in alignment with Chapter 5, Section 5.7 of this thesis. The following table presents the demographic information of the graduate pre-service primary school teachers who participated in this study that was gathered using individual interviews, non-participant observations and document analysis.

TABLE 6.1: Demographic information of participants

NAME	GENDE R	AGE	TEACHING EXPERIENCE (Years)	GRADE TAUGHT	CLASS SIZE	DIVERSITY CATEGORIES
Teacher 1	F	30	1	6C	50	-Hard of hearing -Partial sight -Vulnerable and Orphaned -Christians -Males -Females -Gifted, creative and talented -Dysgraphia
Teacher 2	F	24	1	4D	48	-Near sighted -Gifted, talented and creative -Low economic status -Spina Bifida -Dyslexia -Males -Female
Teacher 3	F	30	1	6B	51	-Down Syndrome -Gifted, talented and creative -Dyslexia -Muslim -Christians -Dyscalculia -Males -Females
Teacher 4	M	30	1	5R	45	-Dyscalculia -Gifted, talented and creative -Partial sight -Malawian -Christians -High economic status -low-economic status -Males -Females
Teacher 5	F	35	1	5M	34	-Deaf -Gifted, talented and creative -Dyslexia -Dysgraphia -Males -Females
Teacher6	F	30	1	6C	48	-Speech and communication disorders - Orphan -Albinism -Gifted, talented and creative -Dyscalculia -Shona -Males -Females
Teacher	F	31	1	4ZH	40	-Dyscalculia -Gifted, talented and creative

7						-Christians -Males -Females
Teacher 8	F	27	1	4M	46	-Dyscalculia -Near sighted -High socio-economic status -Gifted, talented and creative -Males -Females
Teacher 9	F	28	1	4A	46	-Dyscalculia -Gifted, talented and creative -Males -Females
Teacher 10	M	36	1	6N	52	-Low socio-economic status -Gifted, talented and creative -Dyscalculia -Low vision -Christians -Males -Females
Teacher 11	F	27	1	5M	49	-Dysgraphia -Low vision -Single parented -Moslem -Gifted, talented and creative -Speech and communication disorder -Males -Females
Teacher 12	F	36	1	4V	44	-Dyscalculia -Dysgraphia -Gifted, talented and creative -Dyslexia -Males -Females
Teacher 13	F	31	1	4Z	47	-Behavioural and emotional disorders -Gifted, talented and creative -Christians Dysgraphia -Low vision -Males -Females
Teacher 14	F	26	1	4	48	-Dyscalculia -Gifted, talented and creative -Low vision -Males -Females
Teacher 15	F	36	1	2B	40	-Albinism -Low socio- economic status -Gifted, talented and creative -Dyscalculia -Christians -Moslem -Males -Females
Teacher 16	F	27	1	2A	46	-Low socio- economic status -Intellectual disability -Single parented -Gifted, talented and creative - Orphaned -Males -Females

Table 6.1 (above) shows that 16 graduate pre-service primary school teachers; two males and 14 female participated in this study. The gender bias was necessitated by

the fact that, when data saturation was reached at, only two male graduate pre-service primary school teachers had participated. This aligns with the demographic profile in Zimbabwean universities in which females constitute a majority of the population of students. The table also indicates that the majority of the graduate pre-service primary school teachers who took part in this study were mature as most of them were in their thirties while the rest were in the twenties. This is because the entry requirements of the university allow those individuals with at least 5 'O' level passes to enrol on 'maturity entry'. The table further shows that the graduate pre-service primary school teachers who participated in this study all had one year of teaching experience. This is because they were sampled from the 2013 to 2016 cohort of the participating institution. In addition, these graduate pre-service primary school teachers had trained at the same university in the same cohort. They also studied the same compulsory core module on Special Needs Education and thirty-seven generic modules in their B.Ed Honour's Degree in Education where they specialised in primary school education.

Table 6.1 indicates that all the graduate pre-service primary school teachers who took part in the study taught from Grade one to seven. This is because they trained in B.E degree program with a specialization in primary school education. The table also shows that the majority of the classes had more than 45 learners, including those with various categories of human diversity. This is consistent with the large class size in Zimbabwean primary schools as a result of the national economic crisis which impedes the implementation of a lower learner-teacher ratio. The table further shows that every class that graduate pre-service teachers taught included children with diverse and unique needs. This is because mainstream primary schools serve the majority of learners with diverse and unique needs since there are very few special schools in Zimbabwe.

TABLE 6.2: Themes and sub-themes of the findings

Themes	Sub-themes
University graduate pre-service primary school teachers' understanding of inclusion in education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adoption of updated curriculum • Meeting diverse abilities and socio-economic statuses of learners • Meeting diverse disabilities, abilities and educational backgrounds of learners • Addressing diverse abilities and disabilities of learners • Blending of learners with and without disabilities • Acceptance of learners from diverse socio-economic statuses • Mixed ability grouping • Gender equality • Integration of learners with disabilities • Support for learners with reading difficulties
University graduate pre-service primary school teachers' practices in inclusion in education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • picture and concrete media based teaching and learning • Individual, paired and group work • code-switching and baseline assessment • initial talking • work differentiation • simple to complex • error shooting and content enrichment • sitting and environment • Voice, picture and letter projection • previous grade work • occupying • time • support
Strategies that could enhance the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • TP duration • TP supervision • Teaching strategies • Management • Teaching and learning records making • Inclusion in education • Teaching and learning media design • Training duration • Selected theory • Contact hours • Professionalism of lecturers • TP allowances • Standardized TP supervision • TP in special schools

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stand-alone module • Specialist training
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6.5.1 Theme 1: University graduate pre-service primary school teachers' understanding of inclusion in education

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers revealed the lack of a common and comprehensive understanding of inclusion in education. This included understanding inclusion in education as: the adoption of an adapted curriculum, meeting diverse abilities and socio-economic statuses of learners, addressing diverse abilities and disabilities of learners, integration of learners with and without disabilities and integration of learners from diverse backgrounds. University graduate pre-service teachers also understood inclusion in education as mixed ability grouping, gender equality, integration of learners with disabilities and support for learners with reading difficulties. The following section presents and analyses these sub-themes.

Sub-theme 1: Adoption of updated curriculum

One university graduate pre-service primary school teacher understood inclusion in education as the adoption of an updated curriculum in response to changing needs of society. This entailed fostering in learners the knowledge, skills and vocational careers to cope with their future life, as reflected in the subsequent quote:

Inclusion is to make them [learners] learn about the new curriculum. In this case we have a new curriculum issued by Dr Dokora [Former Minister of MoPSE of Zimbabwe]. So, the implementation of the new curriculum makes them to grasp the new concept that helps them in future life and to grasp the skills from, especially the hands-on skills. For example, the Visual and Performance Arts Studies that was introduced in the New Curriculum (Tr7).

In Grade 4, Tr7 was observed opening and copying a list of Mathematics problems on a topic on Measurement of the Area of a Rectangle drawn from the Curriculum Framework for Zimbabwe Primary and Secondary Education 2015-2022. Tr7 was observed supporting a learner with Dyscalculia to accurately draw shapes using measurements on the ruler before calculating their respective areas. Learners were observed using rulers, pencils and set-squares drawing shapes, measuring them and

calculating their area following the demonstrations of Tr7 on the chalkboard. Tr7 was later observed cross-checking conceptualization of calculation of areas of learners through shoulder marking of their work. Thereafter, Tr7 discussed with the learners the significance of Mathematical concepts of accurately measuring, drawing and calculating in the life after school to ensure their appreciation of the practicality of such concepts.

One gifted, talented and creative learner was seen pointing out that such concepts were practiced by designers and builders during construction of physical structures inclusive of houses. In a follow-up discussion with Tr7, it was revealed that the Curriculum Framework for Primary and Secondary Education 2015-2022 of Zimbabwe requires teachers to equip learners with practical skills for use in future life and careers, hence the setting of pathways that learners should choose as they further their education. The MoPSE of Zimbabwe disseminated an inclusive curriculum named Curriculum Framework for Zimbabwe Primary and Secondary Education 2015-2022 when the participants were deployed for teaching practice. Analysis of this curriculum framework revealed that it is life-skills oriented and guided by a generic principle of inclusivity defined on page 15 as: “an education system that takes into account and addresses the different learners' needs and abilities without disadvantaging any group or individual”. Thus, the graduate pre-service primary school teachers' understanding of inclusion in education was based on the mere association of the inclusive curriculum implemented in primary schools instead of formal training hence lacked its conceptual understanding.

Sub-theme 2: Meeting diverse abilities and socio-economic statuses of learners

Embedded in religion and human diversity, two university graduate pre-service primary school teachers understood inclusion in education as teachers' response to the diverse abilities and socio-economic statuses of learners in regular classes to facilitate their understanding of taught concepts. This constituted the process and the methods of teaching that meets the individuality of learners that manifests from individual and systemic factors, as illustrated in the following selected excerpts:

Inclusion in education is how a teacher takes learners of different abilities and the method that he or she uses to teach these children for them to understand

the taught concept. God created everyone. Some are from poor families. Others are from rich families. Some have enough materials while others lack resources. In inclusion in education, a teacher should teach these learners accordingly (Tr1).

Inclusion in education is having different pupils in the classroom. For example, some of them are less able; more able. As a teacher, you have to cater for all the differences. When you are teaching, they need time and they need more media for them to understand something. As a teacher, you have to understand them first for you to teach them. You have to understand their differences as most are from poverty stricken homes (Tr12).

Thus, university graduate pre-service teachers' understanding of inclusion in education only addressed some unique needs of learners that are expected to be addressed in inclusion in education rather than the various categories of human diversity. In teaching Shona, a learning area, Tr1 was observed using pictures of animals including an elephant, hyena, cow, goat, cheetah and jackal to teach Shona proverbs on wild and domestic animals in Grade 6. The teacher was observed asking questions related to the chart and learners not raising their hands as they seemed not to have knowledge of some animals displayed. Two learners were seen taking turns to write with one pen as they were completing proverbs on wild and domestic animals that were written on the chalkboard.

A follow-up discussion with the teacher revealed that learners who were not participating in the lesson lacked exposure to wild animals that were displayed as they were found in national parks and game reserves that they never visited. Analysis of the basic terminology of the module TDEFP 403 outline revealed that "inclusion in education" is not among the terms such as disability, impairment and special needs education that are taught to graduate pre-service primary school teachers during their professional preparation. Analysis of the Shona lesson plan of Tr1 revealed that learners were assigned the same written work regardless of their diverse abilities as they wrote 10 problems as the written exercise for the lesson. Analysis of the TP supervision file of the university, from which the graduate pre-service teachers who participated in this study were drawn, revealed that it focused on using general teaching methods for typically developing learners without any mention of methods that meet the diverse abilities and backgrounds of learners in mainstream classes. For instance, its

section on teaching procedures outlines that lesson development is achieved through clear explanations, demonstrations and questioning, among others.

Sub-theme 3: Addressing diverse abilities, disabilities and educational backgrounds of learners

Three university graduate pre-service primary school teachers understood inclusion in education as teaching methods that meet the individuality of learners with diverse abilities, disabilities and educational backgrounds in the mainstream classes. This entailed identifying and understanding barriers to learning of children to provide them adequate time, remedial work, extension work, appropriate teaching and learning media and strategic sitting positions to equally participate in the classroom, as shown in the following statements.

Inclusion involves the way you teach in the classroom whether all children are being catered for in whatever you are doing. They have differences including delayed enrolment in schools. Those unable need more attention and appropriate sitting positions while those who are able, understand quickly, despite the fact that you are using relevant media or you are not using relevant media (Tr11).

Inclusion in education is how you teach when you are in a classroom with learners with different learning abilities. As a teacher, you have to take on board each one of them in your teaching. When those slow learners fail the exercise I give them, I remedy them. And those, the fast learners, I will give them extension work so that they won't play (Tr9).

Inclusion in education is accepting all the learners, their different abilities and disabilities. You accept them as they are and you can handle them with their differences. The other child has the problem of the eyesight problem. So I changed his sitting position. I changed him from the back and put him at the front so that he can see what is written on the chalkboard (Tr13).

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers' understanding of inclusion in education was short of addressing most of the components of the philosophy, including teaching and learning assessment that responds to the individuality of learners with diverse abilities, disabilities and educational backgrounds. In a Grade 5 Mathematics lesson, Tr11 was observed teaching calculation of the area of a triangle. She handpicked learners to demonstrate the correct calculation of such an area on the

chalkboard. After successful demonstrations by these learners, Tr11 asked volunteers to calculate the area of the same triangle again on the chalkboard. Except for the three learners who had initially demonstrated on the chalkboard, none of the learners volunteered to do so. Two learners who were selected to calculate the area of a triangle failed to follow the specified steps for the calculation of the area of a triangle.

Learners with low-vision were observed seated closer to the chalkboard to facilitate correct perception of the work written on the chalkboard. Participant Tr11 was observed explaining how to calculate the same area of a triangle using wooden blocks to illustrate to learners dimensions considered in calculating the area of a triangle. Tr11 was further observed shoulder marking other learners' progress. She also assisted a learner who had no pen to write with her own pen. Learners were observed taking turns to use rulers as the culture of sharing seemed to permeate the class. Analysis of the module TDEFP 403: Special Needs Education Section 3.3 reveals that graduate pre-service primary school teachers were taught strategies for the inclusion of children with disabilities in education during their professional preparation. Analysis of the Circular Minute Number P36 of 2006 on Curriculum Access for All Learners which graduate pre-service primary school teachers were taught on strategies for the inclusion of children with diverse abilities, disabilities and backgrounds in mainstream classrooms in module TDEFP 404: Educational Management in Section 2.10 in their initial teacher professional training demonstrated that teachers should provide equal access to education for all learners including those with disabilities.

Sub-theme 4: Meeting diverse abilities and disabilities of learners

Four university graduate pre-service primary school teachers understood inclusion in education as a teaching method that facilitates the meeting of the individuality of learners with diverse abilities and disabilities including those with learning difficulties and the gifted, talented and creative in mainstream classrooms. This involved addressing of individuality including the provision of non-discriminatory social interaction between learners with and without disabilities in mainstream classrooms, as shown in the following statements:

Inclusion in education is teaching every pupil in the lesson. Every pupil must participate in the lesson. He or she might be disabled or might have some problems or might be so talented. All of them must be treated equally when learning. So those pupils must mingle with those who do not have disabilities when learning (Tr2).

Inclusion in education is how the teacher meets each and every strength and weakness of the learner. We were taught about learners who are slow and those who are fast in learning. I start with the lower level learning and then go to the concrete learning. Lower level explanation going to the concrete one, that's how I do it with the slow learners so that they understand each and every step, where we are coming from. For the gifted, I use abstract teaching (Tr6).

These university graduate pre-service primary school teachers had a narrow understanding of inclusion in education since it was based on addressing diverse abilities and disabilities of learners. Inclusion in education addresses the diversity of learners that manifests from diverse individual and systemic factors beyond abilities and disabilities. These include sexual orientation and poverty of learners and extend beyond their participation in mainstream classes to include their access, success and acceptance in these settings. In a Grade 4 English lesson, Tr2 was observed differentiating reading comprehension tasks. He instructed learners to choose types of punctuation marks they wanted to use from a list of six provided. Learners who were gifted, creative and talented were seen punctuating a play-based story extracted from a newspaper while the rest of the learners punctuated a simple paragraph written on the chalkboard. The teacher was then seen following up with all learners, shoulder-marking in order to provide support where a need arose. This resulted in most learners successfully completing the assigned written exercise on the use of punctuation marks.

A learner with Spina-Bifida and another with low vision were seen being called individually by name and relocated from their near the door and near the chalk board sitting positions respectively for paired-group work. From a follow-up discussion, the participant revealed to me that a learner with Spina-Bifida was usually seated closest to the door to allow a quick exit to the toilet because of the problem of incontinence. Analysis of the Disabled Persons Act [Chapter 17:01] (as amended) 2001 of Zimbabwe which is a component of the course Module TDEFP 403: Special Needs Education taught to graduate pre-service primary school teachers under item 3.4: Legislative

dimensions, prohibits the discrimination of people with disabilities in public premises, services and amenities. Analysis of the Constitution of Zimbabwe Amendment (No. 20) Act 2013, Section 56, which graduate pre-service teachers were taught, showed that it enshrined equality and non-discrimination of people on the basis of abilities, disabilities and any other basis.

Sub-theme 5: Blending of learners with and without disabilities

One university graduate pre-service primary school teacher understood inclusion in education as the placement of learners with disabilities in regular classes. This was seen to enable learners without disabilities to serve as educational and behaviour models for those with disabilities, as illustrated in the following statement:

Inclusion is the blending of learners with different disabilities inclusive of intellectual disability. Learners with disabilities, if mixed with able-bodied peers, they benefit. For instance, they can learn good behaviour and better performance in school work from them (Tr15).

Contrary to the expression of the graduate pre-service teachers, inclusion in education is beyond the mere physical presence of learners with diverse abilities and disabilities in mainstream classes as it includes meeting the individuality of these learners in teaching content, process, environment and product. I observed Tr15 teaching a Grade 2 Mathematics lesson on division of single digits. Learners with disabilities particularly were observed behaving in socially approved ways comparable to their typically developing peers.

Sub-theme 6: Acceptance of learners with diverse socio-economic statuses

Embedded in religion, one university graduate pre-service primary school teacher understood inclusion in education as the placement and acceptance of learners with different socio-economic statuses in regular classes. Different socio-economic statuses of learners inclusive of poverty and wealth contributed to their diversity, as illustrated in the following excerpt:

Inclusion means teachers must consider the children and their differences. Are they poor, are they rich? So we must consider them in our classroom so that

they don't feel, selected. They must feel accepted. How to take care of each other and how to share so that you can tell them that God does like this. God likes this. This is not good and this is good. And they understand each other very well (Tr4).

Inclusion in education is beyond placement and acceptance of learners with diverse socio-economic statuses in regular classes embedded in religion as the graduate primary school teacher expressed. It includes mainstream education that addresses the diversity of these learners entrenched in human rights and social justice. In a Grade 5 FAREME lesson, Tr4 was observed teaching on the topic of care and support. Learners with and without diverse and unique needs, including learners with learning difficulties and those who were gifted, talented and creative were observed working in groups identifying strategies for care and support for each other. Analysis of the module TDEFP 403: Special Needs Education item 3.4, revealed that graduate pre-service primary school teachers were taught the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (UNESCO, 1994:6) where item 7.3, requires teachers to accommodate all learners in regular classes regardless of their social differences.

Sub-theme 7: Mixed dis/ability grouping

One university graduate pre-service primary school teacher understood inclusion in education as mixed dis/ability learning. This entailed grouping learners with diverse abilities to support each other in teaching and learning, as shown in the following excerpt:

Inclusion in education is when pupils are learning through mixed ability grouping. Mixed ability grouping facilitates their interaction. They get to help each other best than by the lecture method (Tr5).

The university graduate pre-service primary school teacher had a restricted understanding of inclusion in education as it includes adaptation of the mainstream school environment and process to the individual learners with diverse abilities and other forms of learner diversity rather than mixed ability grouping. Tr5 was observed teaching Grade 5: Heritage and Social Studies lesson on hard and soft water experiments using mixed ability grouping. Learners with learning disabilities were observed writing down the observations of their peers who were gifted, talented and

creative from the experiments. In a follow-up discussion with Tr5, he reported that in mixed ability grouping, the less capable would receive peer support from those more capable during classroom interaction which promotes their learning. Analysis of the module, TDEFP 403: Special Needs Education Section 3.3 on curriculum management of children with disabilities revealed that graduate pre-service teachers were taught strategies including grouping to support the learning of children with diverse and unique needs for inclusion in education. Analysis of the module TDEFP 203: Psychology of Teaching and Learning, Section 4 revealed grouping learners with different abilities as one of the approaches to teaching that graduate pre-service primary school teachers were taught during their initial teacher training.

Sub-theme 8: Gender equality

One university graduate pre-service primary school teacher understood inclusion in education as the realization of gender equality and equity in studying the school curriculum by learners. This involved the provision of equal access and motivation to study the different subjects in the school curriculum, including Mathematics, Science and English for learners and grouping them regardless of their gender and ability, as shown in the following excerpt:

Inclusion is how pupils are being given the chance, both boys and girls to learn all the subjects as in Maths, English and Science. They are given that chance to learn in spite of their gender. In inclusion learners are grouped regardless of their gender to motivate them to learn and understand gender equality (Tr8).

The pursuit of the realization of gender equality and equity of learners in studying different subjects in the curriculum is just one aspect of inclusion in education that the graduate pre-service primary school teacher expressed. Inclusion in education extends to include the pursuit of the realization of equity and equality as it relates to other forms of human diversity including disabilities, poverty, cultural and linguistic diversity. In teaching a lesson on leisure activities in Social Studies in Grade 4, learners in the classroom of Tr8 were observed learning in groups consisting of both girls and boys. Analysis of Module TDEFP 403: Special Needs Education, Section 3.4, reveals that university graduate pre-service primary school teachers were taught the Salamanca

Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (UNESCO, 1994) where item 19 page 18 states that, “Special attention should be given to ensuring equality of access and opportunity for girls and women with disabilities”. Analysis of the vision and goal of the National Gender Policy (2013-2017) of the Republic of Zimbabwe on page 14 of the Curriculum Framework for Primary and Secondary Education 2015-2022 that graduate pre-service primary school teachers implemented at the time of data gathering, revealed that it required teachers to advocate for a gender just society.

Sub-theme 9: Integration of learners with disabilities

One university graduate pre-service primary school teacher understood inclusion in education as the mere physical presence of learners with disabilities in regular classrooms. This entailed integration as learners with disabilities were not afforded any educational support, as illustrated in the following selected statement:

Inclusion in education is about both pupils in the class, those with abilities and those without. But we do not do anything with those with disabilities because we don't have any resources to help these pupils. So I teach them like others, in the class (Tr16).

The university graduate pre-service primary school teacher understood inclusion in education as integration in education. Inclusion in education is beyond the mere physical presence of learners with diverse and unique needs in mainstream classrooms as it includes their access, participation, acceptance and success in these settings. Tr16 was observed teaching a Grade 2 class Mathematics topic on division of single digits. The learner with intellectual disability was observed not learning. A follow-up discussion with Tr16 revealed that he lacked the skills to include the learner in his teaching and learning. Nevertheless, analysis of the Module TDEFP 403: Special Needs Education revealed that graduate pre-service teachers were taught management of children with different disabilities during their professional preparation for inclusion in education. Similarly, the analysis of the Director's Circular Number P36 of 2005 on “Guidelines on Providing Equal Access to Education for Learners with Disabilities” that graduate pre-service primary school teachers were taught in their professional preparation in the Module TDEFP 404: Educational Management Section 3.2 also requires teachers to

support all learners to ensure that none of them “falls through the cracks once in school.”

Sub-theme 10: Supporting learners with reading difficulties

One university graduate pre-service primary school teacher understood inclusion in education as the placement and support of learners with reading difficulties in regular classrooms. This included code switching during teaching and learning to facilitate conceptualization of taught content for these learners and their corrective teaching, as reflected in the following selected excerpt:

Inclusion is concentrating on the non-readers who are in my classroom. I use Shona so that they can understand better. We were told not to shut down non-readers, those who cannot say anything. We just have to take their answers and correct them where we can (Tr3).

The university graduate pre-service primary school teacher had a narrow understanding of inclusion in education as it is beyond supporting learners with reading difficulties in mainstream classes. It includes supporting both learners with and without reading difficulties and other diverse and unique needs in these settings. Tr3 was observed teaching a Grade 6 lesson on the use of new vocabulary in the construction of sentences. He had a list of new words of the week written on the flashcards he made on his own that learners used to construct sentences. These were “reduction”, “separation”, “extraction”, “production” and “reproduction”. Learners constructed sentences in pairs using these words. Tr3 was observed code switching to Shona to support learners with learning difficulties to correctly use these words in the construction of sentences. Analysis of the Module TDEFP 403: Special Needs Education included several strategies to facilitate teaching and learning inclusive of scaffolding and code switching.

6.5.2 Theme 2: University graduate pre-service primary school teachers’ practices in inclusion in education

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers reported that they engaged in various practices in inclusion in education. These included picture and concrete media-

based teaching and learning; individual, paired and group work; code-switching and baseline assessment; initial talking; work differentiation; simple to complex and child centred pedagogy. They also included error shooting and content enrichment; sitting and environment; voice, picture and letter magnification; teaching the previous grade's work; occupying; time and support. These are presented in the following sub-themes.

Sub-theme 1: Picture and concrete media-based teaching and learning

Six university graduate pre-service primary school teachers reported that they used picture and concrete teaching and learning media tailored to the diverse and unique needs of learners that they sourced and made on their own to teach specific subjects of the primary school curriculum in practicing inclusion in education. This included charts with large diagrams, work cards and objects that were believed to promote multi-sensory learning to foster conceptualization of taught content for learners, as illustrated in the selected excerpts below:

I use media that can cater for all learners. I bring visual media which can help them to understand the concept that I am teaching about. For example, when I am teaching about shapes in Mathematics, I bring a chart with shapes like this one (pointing at one on the wall that was self-made) so that I can show them. This is a square. This is a rectangle, a composite shape. I draw or I bring some of the shapes so that they can see and they can touch and feel them. This is a square. How many sides does it have (Tr1).

I know how to handle different pupils, especially in my classroom. For example, there are those who cannot see properly. There are also pupils who stammer and those with sight challenge. I have pupils who do not understand if I do not have teaching aids. In my classroom, I make charts with big diagrams. When I am teaching such learners, they participate so well. They understand easily when I am using relevant teaching media (Tr11)

Some learners need more media for them to understand something. I use work cards and real objects for them to understand what I teach (Tr12).

For children with eyesight problem, I use big pictures so that they see what is in the picture. When I am writing on the chalkboard, I use big letters so that they can read the work (Tr14).

In teaching Shona in Grade 6, Tr1 was observed flashing coloured pictures of domestic and wild animals including baboons, cows, birds, hyenas, goats and elephants for learners to construct Shona proverbs associated with these animals. Learners also constructed proverbs based on the herd of cattle that was in the kraal near the school which promoted concrete teaching and learning. Analysis of the synopsis of the core Module TDEFP 403: Special Needs Education page 1 item 1.0, revealed that it read that, "Focus will be on inclusion practices for the education of exceptional children". Analysis of the Module TDIMT 201: Instructional Media and Technology, Section 2 on module learning outcomes revealed that it read, "By the end of the course, students should be able to: select and or develop and utilize instructional media which is appropriate to own contexts, with a particular focus on manipulating local environment and improvising. "Analysis of the Curriculum Framework for Primary and Secondary Education (2015-2022:41) Section 5.2 on Principles of teaching and learning, revealed that it stated that, "Learning is participatory and the teacher is facilitator and coach where multiple forms of media are used for learning."

Sub-theme 2: Individual, pair and group work

Six university graduate pre-service primary school teachers revealed that in practicing inclusion in education, they grouped learners with disabilities with those without disabilities and sometimes taught them in pairs or individually based on the knowledge and information they had accumulated from their professional training and the nature of the taught concept. Such grouping was perceived to promote social interaction of learners with and without disabilities and to be founded on the pursuit of equity and equality in treatment and mastery of taught content for all learners in teaching and learning regardless of their individual differences including abilities or disabilities. This is illustrated in the following selected statements:

I do not select to say, this one is a child with a disability so he or she must sit alone. I treat children the same. When I was trained, I was taught that all children are equal. We do not have to select or favour the children because of their disabilities or their intelligence. It is good for these children to mingle. I group them with those without disabilities. They feel at home particularly belonging to this class (Tr2).

I first introduce the lesson and then we make a conversation between them and me. Then after that, I group them according to the nature of the concept. I also sometimes groups in pairs, sometimes individually regardless of their abilities or disabilities (Tr7).

When I teach, I include those children with disabilities so that they can also master the concepts. I can give them some more time to work in groups so that they can be helped by those who are gifted, talented and creative (Tr13).

In teaching the use of punctuation marks in English in Grade 4, Tr2 was observed assigning different work to learners who were gifted, talented and creative and those with learning disabilities based on their individual differences. Analysis of the module TDEFP 403: Special Needs Education Section 2.0 Objective 2.5 revealed that it stated that: “By the end of the module, students should be able to examine individual or group methodologies as practicalities of including children with disabilities in the mainstream.” Analysis of the Constitution of Zimbabwe Amendment (No. 20) Act 2013 Section 56, Sub-section 3, item 3 taught to these graduate pre-service primary school teachers in module TDEFP 404: Educational Management on Educational Policies in Zimbabwe during their initial training, revealed that it enshrined the right of all people not to be unfairly discriminated on grounds such as disability, gender, sex and any other individual or systemic factor influencing human diversity.

Sub-theme 3: Code-switching and baseline assessment

One university graduate pre-service primary school teacher reported that she used whole class teaching and learning with a special focus on learners who could not read to enhance their understanding of the taught concepts for inclusion in education. This approach was believed to be grounded in flexible management of teaching and learning, inclusive of code-switching to promote understanding of taught concepts for learners who had reading difficulties and assignment of tasks to learners who were gifted, talented and creative based on their performance in baseline assessments, as indicated in the subsequent selected excerpt:

I teach them at the same time but I mostly concentrate on those who cannot read so that they can understand better. I code switch so that they can

understand better. For those who are best performers, I assign them tasks before I give anything to see how much they know (Tr3).

In an English lesson on Language Practice in the classroom of Tr3, a Grade 6 learner with Down syndrome and those who were gifted, talented and creative were observed attempting the same exercise on the construction of sentences. The participant was seen translating some English words into their mother language to facilitate the understanding of taught concepts for learners with learning disabilities and one with Down syndrome. The word “separation” was a challenge to comprehend for most learners and was resultantly code-switched to the Shona word “kupatsanura” to facilitate concept mastery. Analysis of Section 2.0 on Course Objectives, item 2.4 of the Module TDEFP 403: Special Needs Education that was taught to graduate pre-service teachers during their professional preparation for inclusion revealed that: “By the end of the course, students should understand how to manage kids with special educational needs within the regular school environment.” Analysis of the teacher’s lesson plan revealed that the lesson objectives and developmental stages were child-specific as they made reference to the use of mother language for those with learning challenges. Analysis of the Director’s Circular Number 3 of 2002, Section 3, Sub-section 3.1.1 on primary school curriculum’s expected learning outcomes that graduate pre-service primary school teachers were taught in module TDEFP 404: Educational Management indicated that: “By the end of the primary school course, learners will be expected to communicate effectively in both written and spoken forms of either Shona or Ndebele and English.”

Sub-theme 4: Initial talking

For inclusion in education, one university graduate pre-service primary school teacher reported that she sought information from learners about their socio-economic status before their teaching and learning. This served as a needs assessment as it was seen to inform the teaching strategies and inclusivity of learners in the class, as illustrated in the following quote:

I use teaching methods that cater for the diversity of children. The best way to teach them is first talking to the children so that I can have more information

about them. Are they poor, are they rich? Then I find some ways to teach them (Tr4).

In a Grade 5 FAREME lesson on the roles of religion, Tr4 was observed making use of a gospel song as part of his lesson's introduction before assigning learners written work. A class discussion on the role of religion then followed. Though placed in the front row near to the chalkboard, a learner with residual vision was seen struggling to see a faintly drawn table that she was completing. The Individual Record of profiles of learners of Tr4 revealed that pre-information seeking had been done at the commencement of the year. The profiles indicated the names of learners, date of birth, guardian's occupation/social status, learner's background information and educational needs. Analysis of the Director's Circular Minute Number P67 of 1987 on Primary School Pupils' Record, Section 1, which graduate pre-service teachers were taught during their professional training, revealed that it required them to seek information about learners from their parents/guardians. Such information included school performance, health, background information, attendance, intervention programs, extra-curricular activities, sporting involvement and learner interests to allow for the accountability of the school; to parents, pupils and other interested parties.

Sub-theme 5: Work differentiation

Two university graduate pre-service primary school teachers expressed that they differentiated work for their learners for inclusion in education. This constituted assigning work to learners according to their abilities, and at times, following up to ensure that learners completed assigned tasks in time, as shown in the excerpts below:

I treat slow learners in a different way from fast learners. I assign them work that they can finish within the stipulated time. I then assign fast learners work that meet their abilities (Tr5).

I plan knowing that my learners are different. I look for work that is appropriate as they have different abilities (Tr8).

Tr5 was observed teaching Laundry in Grade 5 where the gifted, creative and talented learners were nominated to lead in group work. Those with learning disabilities were

observed copying down results obtained by the gifted, creative and talented learners. Analysis of Section 3.3.2 of Module TDEFP 403 on Management of children with disabilities revealed that graduate pre-service primary school teachers were taught intervention strategies, particularly, individualization, differentiation and IEPs during their professional preparation for inclusion in education. The Secretary's circular Minute Number P36 of 2006: Guidelines on providing equal access to education for learners with disabilities, Section 7.0 on curriculum access for learners with disabilities that the graduate pre-service primary school teachers were taught points out that: Learner-centred pedagogy with the mandatory Individualized Educational Program (IEP) for each learner with identified disability-related special needs should be based on the national curriculum. In Heritage Studies, every learner answered a short written exercise of five structured questions based on laundry experiments done which was then marked out of nine.

Sub-theme 6: Simple to complex

For inclusion in education, three university graduate pre-service primary school teachers reported that they taught from simple to complex. These focused on slow learners so as to enhance their understanding of taught concepts, as indicated in the selected excerpts below:

There are fast learners and slow learners in my class. Therefore, I teach from the lower level explanation to the abstract one. That is how I do it with the slow learners. This helps them to understand each step (Tr6).

In my class, I have some slow learners. When teaching a difficult concept, I explain it part by part until they master it as a whole (Tr9).

In a Grade 6 Heritage and Social Studies lesson on the topic: Significance and services offered by Voluntary Organizations, Tr6 introduced her lesson by explaining and giving drought relief and food for work programs as examples of social services offered by voluntary organizations. She then proceeded to explain how such organizations operate as sanctioned by the host government. Tr6 took her time providing clear, simple and comprehensive explanations of abstract concepts such as "social services", "provisions", "volunteering", "sustenance" and "empowerment" to

enhance their mastery. She then asked learners to give examples of organizations they knew before she was seen providing them with a longer list of voluntary organizations for them to appreciate the role of such organizations during times of crisis such as the provision of food, clothing and shelter before assigning learners to spell out organizational aims and different activities undertaken by such organizations in their different communities. Analysis of the Module TDEFP 102: “Introduction to Educational Psychology” revealed that pre-service graduate primary school teachers were taught about cognitivists, including Jean Piaget, whose developmental theory of learning advocates for teaching from simple to complex.

Sub-theme 7: Error shooting and content enrichment

On inclusion in education, three university graduate pre-service primary school teachers reported that they practiced error shooting and content enrichment to ensure instructional support for learners. This entailed remediation meant to allow the comprehension of concepts by those with learning disability, while at the same time, accelerating those gifted, talented and creative to avoid idleness in class, as illustrated in the following statements:

When learners with learning disabilities fail the written exercise, I remedy them. I assign extension work to learners who are gifted, creative and talented for their concentration (Tr9).

I go around checking progress while they are writing. When I discover that one would have failed to master, I then go back to explain the same concept showing how to do it. I offer oral remediation (Tr8).

In teaching Mathematics in Grade 4, Tr9 was observed asking the gifted, talented and creative learner to draw complex shapes and calculate their respective area while a learner with Dyscalculia was earmarked for remediation to catch up with peers in concept mastery. Analysis of the module TDEFP 403: Special Needs Education showed that it included the Nziramasanga Commission Report of 1999. The Nziramasanga Commission Report (32) Section 4.25 on challenges to schools states that: “Teaching must be individualized as children are not equally gifted. There will be a need for counselling and remediation and informative forms of assessment in order

to identify individual talents”. Analysis of the Teaching Practice File Content requirements also revealed that it required separate slots for both remedial and extension records from graduate pre-service primary school teachers during their initial teacher training. Its Table of Contents included Continuous assessment; Record of marks; Test record; Remedial record; Extension record and Reading record.

Sub-theme 8: Sitting and environment

Seven university graduate pre-service primary school teachers reported that they re-organized the classroom sitting arrangement to accommodate learners with specific disabilities for inclusion in education. This ensured better visual perception of the material written on the chalkboard for learners with visual impairment and better sound perception of the teacher’s voice for learners with hearing impairment, as indicated in the following selected statements:

One learner in my class has visual impairment. I have reserved her a place in front of the class near the chalkboard so that she can see a little bit clearly. Sometimes we close the door to avoid the light that causes her not to see the chalkboard clearly (Tr10).

I treat diverse learners in response to their needs. For example, I set up a sitting position in the front row for learners with hearing impairment. They sit comfortably, see the chalkboard work clearly and hear what I say well (Tr5).

I have one other child; I changed her sitting position and has improved resultantly. The child had the problem of reading work on the chalkboard from afar. I made her to sit in the front of the class. The child is now doing well (Tr8).

In teaching Shona in Grade 6 of Tr10, a learner with residual sight was seen seated in the front row closest to both the chalkboard and the teacher’s table to provide comfort of seeing written material on the chalkboard and individual attention from the teacher. Analysis of the synopsis of the Module TDEFP 403: Special Needs Education, Page 1 Section 1.0 revealed that it states that, “The module should provide students with skills to identify impairment among children in the classroom and adopt suitable intervention strategies.”

Sub-theme 9: Voice and picture and letter projection

For inclusion in education, one university graduate pre-service primary school teacher reported that she amplified her voice and enlarged media. This made learners, especially those with low vision and hearing impairment to equally participate in the teaching and learning process as illustrated in the following excerpt:

For learners with hearing impairment, I raise my voice for them to hear me. I write large letters on the chalkboard and use big pictures for learners with visual impairment to be able to read (Tr14).

In teaching Social Studies in Grade 4, Tr14 was observed bringing closest to the learner with near sight big photographs and pictures to increase visual acuity and speaking at the top of his voice. Learners with visual impairment were observed making accurate interpretations of the attire associated with different professions that were in the pictures. Analysis of the Module TDEFP 403: Special Needs Education revealed that, in Section 3.3, graduate pre-service primary school teachers were taught management of children with specific disabilities inclusive of those with hearing impairment and visual impairment. Analysis of Zimbabwe's New Curriculum Framework for Primary and Secondary Education: 2015-2022 that Tr14 used, revealed that it embraces ICTs and e-learning; Flexibility and adaptability and Critical thinking and creativity.

Sub-theme 10: Previous grade work

Three university graduate pre-service primary school teachers reported that they revisited un-mastered previous grade concepts and gradually re-introduced them for inclusion in education. This was focused on those learners with learning challenges in order to catch up with their peers, as shown in the subsequent excerpts:

With the ones [learners] that do reversals and omissions, I go back with them, starting with them Grade 1 work as we are in Grade 2 now (Tr15).

Some pupils do not understand. When I teach, they are left behind. They do not understand up to the end of the lesson. I do not have any other choice except going back so that I help these pupils (Tr2).

Daily I identify the weaknesses of the learners who did not grasp the taught concepts. In the following day, I revisit the taught concept that is not mastered,

taking my time so that struggling learners master (Tr8).

In a Mathematics lesson, Tr15 was observed teaching all learners Grade 2 material despite their different abilities. Learners with Dyscalculia were seen struggling to do logical chalkboard demonstrations, taking turns with the rest of the class. Learners with learning disabilities were also observed overwhelmed by questions but being given more time to do the permutations on the board. Analysis of the Director's Circular Number 26 of 2008 on guidelines on remedial work at primary and secondary school levels taught to graduate pre-service primary school teachers, revealed that: "schools should design and identify the level or grade at which pupils stopped grasping learning concepts and accelerate them to their academic level."

Sub-theme 11: Occupying

Two university graduate pre-service primary school teachers reported that they adopted omnibus type of teaching for inclusion in education because of pressure and sizes of classes. This entailed ignoring or occupying learners experiencing barriers to learning with written work while proceeding with the learners who were gifted, talented and creative and those who performed averagely, as shown in the subsequent excerpts:

At times, I just give them [non-readers] something to do whilst I am concentrating on the gifted, creative and talented and average performers (Tr3).

I have learners who cannot construct proper sentences. I ignore them because of pressure. Alternatively, I give them books and they just write. I do not follow-up properly because of the large number of learners I have in my classroom. I focus on the talented learners and others who perform better rather than the struggling ones (Tr15).

In Grade 6, in an English lesson on Language Practice, it was observed that Tr3 assigned a learner with Down syndrome a similar task given to the rest of the class with no assistance given while the gifted, talented and creative learners were observed receiving more attention from the participant. Nevertheless, analysis of the TDEFP 403: Special Needs Education revealed that graduate pre-service primary school teachers were taught to respond to learners with various disability categories. This practice however, could be coming from the participant's own initiatives of crisis management

given the fact that she was overwhelmed by huge numbers of diverse learners in her classroom, as there were 51 learners in total.

Sub-theme 12: Time

For inclusion in education, five university graduate pre-service primary school teachers reported that they extended teaching and learning time for learners experiencing barriers to learning. This constituted affording such learners more time to ensure mastery of learnt concepts in practicing inclusion in education, as shown in the subsequent excerpts:

It is challenging when dealing with inclusion or with pupils of mixed abilities. I normally provide more time to slow learners so that they can finish their work (Tr10).

I have two children who stammer. They do not have confidence, even if I say they must read like when I am conducting reading lessons. They do not even want to read because they are shy of their problems. I also have a son who stammers. I understand them better; I offer them time (Tr11).

We sometimes have parents' meetings and prize giving days. We have poems that we assign to them. Like the children with intellectual disability, although they can flop here and there, the parents can see that, at least they are doing something at school because I give them time, more time to try. They end up learning something (Tr15).

Tr15 was observed teaching a mathematics lesson on addition of single digits to Grade 2 learners. He was observed affording learners who had not completed the written exercise, more time to complete the assigned written work in the following lesson. Analysis of the module TDEFP 403 Section 3.3.6 of TDEFP 403 revealed that graduate pre-service teachers were taught curriculum management for learners with diverse disabilities including learning disabilities. Analysis of the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education's Policy Minute Number 3 of 2001 also revealed that: "schools should make possible time concessions to allow learners with developmental delays to complete classroom tasks".

Sub-theme 13: Support

Five university graduate pre-service primary school teachers reported that they treated their learners equally in the teaching and learning process for inclusion in education. This was reported to entail the provision of individual assistance to learners including those with learning disabilities and those with intellectual disability in order to promote concept mastery, as illustrated in the following statements:

I take my learners as equal and with equal potential. One is slow in writing. The other with intellectual disability does not write at all. I help them individually to understand some concepts (Tr16).

I cater for all children through individual teaching and child-centred learning. I cater for each learner according to his or her ability. For example, when a child does not understand the concept, I take him or her aside and try to teach him or her. Eventually, he or she understands taught content (Tr1).

I pay special attention to learners who are slow in learning. I also pay special attention to learners who are fast in learning (Tr6).

Tr16 was observed teaching division of single digits to Grade 2 learners. While other learners successfully solved the assigned number of problems on the subject, the learner with intellectual disability was not actively involved in the teaching and learning process. Nevertheless, analysis of the module on Special Needs Education, TDEFP 403 revealed that it included curriculum management for learners with diverse disabilities inclusive of intellectual disability. Thus, graduate pre-service primary school teachers may not have been taught or lacked mastery of curriculum management for learners with intellectual disability.

6.5.3 Theme 3: Strategies that could enhance the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers revealed diverse strategies that could enhance their professional preparation for inclusion in education. These strategies are grounded in the Professional Studies and Educational Foundations Modules that they studied and their concerns and sentiments about their professional preparation. These strategies included TP duration, TP supervision, teaching strategies,

management, teaching and learning records, inclusion in education and teaching and learning media. They also included training duration, selected theory, contact hours, professionalism of lecturers, TP allowances, standardized TP supervision, TP in special schools, stand-alone module and specialized training. These strategies are presented as sub-themes below.

Sub-theme 1: TP duration

Four university graduate pre-service primary school teachers reported that lengthening of the duration of the TP of universities could enhance their professional preparation for inclusion in education. The extension of the duration of teaching practice by two (2) or three (3) years of theory and about one-and-half years of teaching practice could afford graduate pre-service primary school teachers practical training, as illustrated in the following selected quotes:

Universities need to increase the time for TP so that when student teachers are in their second year of training, they go on TP for two years continuously. The advantage is student teachers can have longer TP experience. This will be a good experience because in the first year of TP they will be still new in real teaching then, the second year they will be experienced in the field. It will be now easy for them to teach more effectively (Tr6).

Since we had four years of training, I think we needed two (2) years or three (3) years of theory. Then at least a year and a half (1½ years) on teaching practice. They should afford pre-service teachers more time to practice than to theorize(Tr8).

Lecturers need more time with student teachers for more practice. They should not teach them only theory. They need more practice so that when they come to work they will be competent to manage inclusive classrooms (Tr12).

In her lesson on Work and Leisure with Grade 4 learners, it was observed that Tr8 made the learner with visual to sit in front of the class for better visual perception of the work written on the chalkboard, including the summary on the forms of treatment accorded to women in African culture. A follow-up discussion with the teacher revealed that she could not support the learner to use Braille. She also revealed that she failed to master Braille related skills learnt on a trial and error basis during her one year of TP at a school where a Braille machine had been secured for learners with visual impairment.

She thus contemplated being given a longer TP period during which she could have acquired Braille skills. Analysis of the University Prospectus of 2014-2018 page 68 revealed that graduate pre-service primary school teachers had TP of one year. Academic Regulations for a Bachelor of Education Primary Pre-service Honours' degree full-time under Section 6 page 68: Structure of the Program, Sub-section 6.1 states that: "The normal duration of the program shall be four [4] years of full-time study including a year of Teaching Practice attachment". At level 3, a candidate is required to do Teaching Practice equivalent to one [1] module. The teaching practice equivalence of one module constitutes three school terms. Analysis of the Teaching Practice module of the graduate pre-service primary school teachers revealed that they were in schools for three school terms.

Sub-theme 2: TP supervision

Two university graduate pre-service primary school teachers expressed that increasing TP supervision visits could enhance their professional preparation for inclusion in education. This could keep the pre-service teacher trainees focused and supported, as illustrated in the following quotes:

They [lecturers] should also pay more visits. They visited us once a school term. So, the student teachers will be relaxed. If it is a DLP, it ends up being designed only once because they are not coming continuously. Of course, the headmaster is there, deputy is there but they cannot keep on monitoring student teachers (Tr8).

They must visit their students regularly and they have to assist them on the spot where need be. This is because, whilst I was at university, they were not readily available and could not provide the assistance we required. We were supposed to be assisted by our university staff (Tr5).

During non-participant lesson observation in Grade 5 on the topic: Laundry, Tr5 was seen using her old TP resource file as she extracted an article that summarized the characteristics of hard and soft water which informed her comments following feedback provided by learners after the completion of experiments they had carried out in groups. The article drew my interest to further interrogate the teacher's TP file. Analysis of the file showed that, it had few Detailed Lesson Plans [DLPs] prepared and fully evaluated.

A follow-up discussion with the teacher revealed that, she only prepared DLPs when tipped-off by colleagues that university supervisors were out in the field conducting their routine visits. Analysis of some of these DLPs showed that, it had no assumed knowledge as well as a lesson conclusion. Analysis of the university's TP Format for a DLP indicated assumed knowledge and lesson conclusion as some of its components. Document analysis of another DLP dated 13 September 2015 on the use of vocabulary in English sentence construction of this participant reflected a single statement on the evaluation without giving details reflective of what actually transpired during the course of the lesson. The statement read: "The lesson was a success and was taught as planned". Document analysis of a sample lesson evaluation provided to students when they go out on TP by the university showed how lessons should be evaluated as illustrated below:

Sample Lesson Evaluation:

"This lesson was a disaster right from the beginning. I did not think carefully enough about the subject content for the lesson. My explanation of the concept 'matter' lacked clarity. Yes, the pupils could say 'matter occupies space' and similar phrases I repeated several times in the lesson but, I do not think they really understand what 'matter' means. When I asked them to give examples of 'matter', they could only give the ones I had mentioned in the previous lesson. I am going to have to devote the first part of the next lesson to going over this concept. I think we will need to look at as many different examples of 'matter' as possible, both inside and outside the classroom. We will also have to consider non-examples so that pupils can distinguish between the material world and the non-material. Pupils will have to put into their own words the distinction between matter and non-matter."

Analysis of the TP file revealed that the university lectures supervised the participant only two times. Further analysis of the same file unearthed a circular to school heads, mentors and student teachers on 'Duties of the mentor/supervising teacher for B.Ed pre-service Honours students on attachment' which revealed that the aforementioned recipients of the circular were expected to regularly supervise student teachers on TP as stated under Section 5: General information Sub-section

5.4 that: “The university expects three supervision/assessment crits from the school, one per term.”

Sub-theme 3: Teaching strategies

Two university graduate pre-service primary school teachers reported that their training on teaching strategies for learners with disabilities in university could enhance their professional preparation for inclusion in education. Such training could be grounded in equipping them with the knowledge and skills to teach learners with diverse disabilities from a practical perspective, as illustrated in the following selected excerpts:

Teachers must be equipped with skills on how to teach children with disabilities (Tr14).

Teacher training must equip the trainees with full knowledge about different disabilities not in theory only but practically (Tr15).

Tr14 was observed using computers during a Social Studies lesson with Grade 4 diverse learners on Different Professions Common in Zimbabwe to facilitate mastery of taught concepts of all learners. A learner with residual sight had the comfort of seeing enlarged pictures of different workers in their professional attire associated with their respective occupations such as helmets for miners and camouflage for soldiers. Tr14 was also observed using diverse teaching strategies, including question and answer, discussion, feedback and imitation to meet the individuality of learners and intervene in their respective barriers to teaching and learning. Conversely, in Grade 5 on a laundry lesson where experiments with samples of water and soap were used to determine nature of water, a learner with deafness was observed just gazing at other learners and copying whatever they were writing down in their exercise books as Tr5 did not communicate with her in Sign Language. A follow-up discussion with the teacher revealed that she could not sign meaningfully to the learner with deafness hence the learner resorted to copying from her peers. Analysis of the module TDEFP 403: Special Needs Education Section 3.3 on management of children with disabilities revealed that it constituted only curriculum and environmental adaptations without outlining inclusive practices such as UDL, collaboration, differentiation of instruction, guided notes, individualisation and culturally and linguistically responsive pedagogy. Analysis of the

other 37 modules on the professional preparation of graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education revealed that they had no teaching strategies for learners with disabilities for inclusion in education. Record books of graduate pre-service primary school teachers, particularly lesson plans, showed that they primarily used general teaching strategies for typically developing learners. These included question and answer, discussion, group work, exposition and demonstration hence their proposal for training graduate pre-service primary school teachers on teaching strategies for children with disabilities.

Sub-theme 4: Management

One university graduate participant reported that training graduate pre-service primary school teachers on management of learners with disabilities could enhance their professional preparation for inclusion in education. This entails the provision of more information to graduate pre-service primary school teachers on the management of learners with disabilities, as exemplified below:

I think when we were training, the university must have taught us how to treat these pupils. I think the university can provide more information or can provide more studies about managing pupils with disabilities (Tr16).

Tr16 was observed teaching a Grade 2 Mathematics lesson on division of single digits. For instance, a learner with intellectual disability was seen seated in a corner while others were busy working on division sums. The participant was seen utilising the question and answer method in conjunction with handpicking specific learners to demonstrate the concept of division. All selected learners accurately performed division of single digit numbers. In a follow-up discussion, the participant reported that she had no idea of how to meaningfully manage a learner with intellectual disability as she received no specific training on teaching such learners. Analysis of the synopsis of the Module TDEFP 403 Special Needs Education in Section 1.0, revealed that this module primarily focused on equipping graduate pre-service primary school teachers to work in collaboration with other stakeholders since it states that “The module is designed to enhance the knowledge of children with special needs and equip them with skills to work with parents and professionals to support such learners”. Analysis of most of the

Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education Director's Circular Minutes covered in the generic Module TDEFP 404: Educational Management indicated that the management of learners with disabilities is a topical issue. For example, the Director's Circular Minute Number 7 of 2014 on Operational guidelines and format for learners with disabilities or other special needs, Section 3.4 states: "This exercise should be done in conjunction with the multi-disciplinary community, designed to identify or facilitate access to education for all school-aged children with disabilities or other special needs as well as to respond to the additional needs of learners for them to achieve their optimal learning outcomes."

Sub-theme 5: Teaching and learning records

One university graduate participant reported that training pre-service primary school teachers on designing teaching and learning records could enhance their professional preparation for inclusion in education. This could afford them formal knowledge and information on the subject, as shown in the following statement:

There is a great change because at university, we were not taught how to write our documents and the records. But here, I now have experience from other teachers (Tr7).

Non-participant observation revealed that, Tr7 presented her lesson in a haphazard manner as she had not prepared a detailed lesson plan that would guide sequential steps of concept development. For example, teaching a Grade 4 Mathematics lesson on measurement and area calculations, the teacher was observed initially opening and copying a list of Mathematics problems about Measuring-Area of a Rectangle from a textbook entitled "New Curriculum: Ventures Primary Mathematics and Science Grade 4 Learners' Book". Secondly, she was seen drawing shapes on the chalkboard that would guide learners in calculating their respective areas. The participant then requested learners to take out their drawing and measurement instruments including rulers, pencils and square-sets and then introduced the lesson by asking a volunteer to give the formula for the area of a rectangle before going on to request learners to answer listed questions on the chalkboard. Contrarily, the TP Format for a DLP's vital features listed in sequence all sub-topics

to be included on a DLP. These are: Lesson objectives, Assumed knowledge, Introduction, Lesson development, Steps, Conclusion, Follow-up activities/assignments and lastly, Lesson evaluation. Analysis of the core module TDEFP 403: Special Needs Education indicated that graduate pre-service primary school teachers were not taught about designing of teaching and learning records. Analysis of the circular to school heads, mentors and student teachers showed that it contained attachments of templates for TP File Contents, TP Format for a DLP, TP Format for a Scheme of Work, Format for Co-Curricular and Community Involvement Record, Format for Extension Record, Format for Remedial Record, Lesson Evaluation Format and lastly, Requirements for Test Records. A follow-up discussion with the participant revealed that, though such documents were availed for TP execution, lecturers did not train graduate pre-service primary school teachers on how to design them.

Sub-theme 6: Inclusion in education

One university graduate participant reported that training graduate pre-service teachers on theory of inclusion in education in both the core and the generic modules could enhance her professional preparation for it. Such training could equip them with the content on inclusive education, as shown in the following statement:

We could run around looking for information whilst we are supposed to be assisted by our college. Yah, so they have to teach about inclusion in education in all modules whilst people are students at college so that when they go out, they will have full information about IE (Tr5).

During a Grade 5 Heritage and Social Studies lesson on Laundry, a deaf learner was observed being rebuked by peers as she kept on making efforts to pull her desk closer to another learner's exercise book with the intention to copy what her peers had written following a group experiment. Tr5 was observed requesting members in mixed ability groups to carry out experiments with different water samples to determine whether they were hard or soft liquids. Gifted, creative and talented learners were seen in charge of group activities at the teacher's directive. Those with learning disabilities including the deaf learner played passive roles. Analysis of the module TDEFP 403: Special Needs Education revealed that it professionally prepared graduate pre-service primary school

teachers for special needs education instead of inclusion in education. Analysis of ministerial circulars studied in Module TDEFP 404: Educational Management revealed that they focused on disabilities and special education. For instance, the Director's Circular Minute Number 83 of 2008 entitled Policy Guidelines on the Assessment of learners with disabilities and those on special educational programmes, is focused on special needs education and not on inclusion in education.

Sub-theme 7: Teaching and learning media

One university graduate participant reported that training of graduate pre-service primary school teachers on designing teaching and learning media could enhance their professional preparation for inclusion in education. This training could foster in graduate pre-service primary school teachers the knowledge and practical skills of designing and writing charts, as reflected in the subsequent quote:

When we were at university, we needed time to learn practical work. For example, writing of charts... We were not taught how to write charts, so it was a big challenge during our TP (Tr11).

Non-participant observation revealed that, in a Grade 5 Mathematics lesson on the area of shapes, Tr11 drew tiny diagrams with thinly printed measurements that were difficult for some learners to read clearly. For instance, a learner with low-vision was observed standing up to read print on the chalkboard despite being seated closest to it. On the other hand, Tr2 in a Grade 4 Shona lesson on word construction was observed flashing a hand-made chart with a number of words constructed using the stems 'dzv'...and 'dz'... to reinforce feedback provided by learners who opted for a task requiring such constructs. The hand-made chart had poor colour contrast as it was seen to be written in green on a blue background. Analysis of the module TDEFP 403: Special Needs Education as well as TDIMT 201: Instructional Media and Technology revealed that neither of them had a section covering preparation of teaching and learning media. Analysis of the teacher's wall and hanging charts revealed that they were inscribed in different colours despite all having a blue background. Some charts had no marked boundaries while those marked had different decorations that encroached into the displayed and intended subject matter. Analysis of the TP Supervision Form however

required in Section B on the learning atmosphere, quality and relevance of charts and in Section C on teaching procedures and lesson development, it required creative and effective use of media and the orderly use of the chalkboard and the legibility of handwriting in both.

Sub-theme 8: Training duration

Two university graduate pre-service primary school teachers expressed that the extension of the duration of their training could enhance their professional preparation for inclusion in education. The extension of the duration of training of graduate pre-service primary school teachers could afford them the time to cover the necessary information on inclusion in education and conceptualize it, as shown in the subsequent excerpts:

We wanted to be given more time, the time to grasp all the concepts needed for one to become a good teacher (Tr7).

The lecturers are not having enough time with students at university. That is the other problem... We needed more time when we were at university to cover all pre-requisite information concerning inclusion for quality education (Tr11).

In teaching the area of a rectangle during a Grade 4 Mathematics lesson, Tr7 was seen assisting a learner with Dyscalculia to draw shapes and calculate listed problems on the chalkboard. Nevertheless, the teacher was impatient to continue supporting the learner through all the stages of the formula. The teacher was heard telling the learner that she could not waste time for other children. While lesson observation revealed that learners worked out common Mathematics problems listed on the chalkboard, document analysis showed the same as daily Maths exercise books bore similar assignments throughout despite learners' different abilities. Academic Regulations for a Bachelor of Education Primary Pre-service Honours' Degree full-time under Section 6.2, page 68: Structure of program, states that: "Each student shall be required to take a total of thirty-eight [38] modules in four [4] years." This means three [3] years at college mandates lecturers to cover 37 modules as TP is equivalent to one [1] module. Section 6.3 further states: "A module shall have thirty-six [36] contact hours and candidates are required to pass all modules in each part."

Sub-theme 9: Selected theory

One university graduate participant revealed that the provision of selected theory on inclusion in education to graduate pre-service primary school teachers could enhance their professional preparation for it. The provision of limited theory on inclusion in education to graduate pre-service primary school teachers could facilitate its conceptualization, as illustrated in the following statement:

I am not competent in inclusion in education. Why? Because it there was a lot of theory, one...Too much theory confuses students as there is a lot to grasp, remember or memorize (Tr8).

Analysis of Module TDEFP 403 revealed that it constituted four topics on theory of special needs education. These were definitions and terminology in special needs education, the development of special needs education, management of children with disabilities and legislative dimensions in special needs education. So these participants may have realized that they primarily learnt disability issues and not inclusion issues. Consequently, they needed critical theory on inclusion in education.

Sub-theme 10: Contact hours

One university graduate participant reported that extension of time allocation for modules and reducing their number could enhance the professional preparation of graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education. The extension of contact hours of modules and reducing their number could afford graduate pre-service primary school teachers comprehensive theory on inclusion in education, as shown in the subsequent excerpt:

They [lecturers] did not give us adequate information before we left the college. We could not stand our ground during TP. We needed more time to cover all theory for us to have the basis for teaching practice. All theory we got was just sort of a summary. It was not comprehensive because they wanted to cover more modules. They needed to reduce the number of modules taught to us to provide us with comprehensive theory (Tr8).

Analysis of the module TDEFP 403: Special Needs Education indicated on its front cover that, the contact hours for the module were 36 hours. Analysis of the university's Academic Guidelines for the degree Section 6.2 and 6.3, page 68 on structure of

program states: “Each student shall be required to take a total of thirty-eight [38] modules...and a module shall have thirty-six [36] contact hours and candidates are required to pass all modules in each level.”

Sub-theme 11: Professionalism of lecturers

One university graduate participant reported that professionalism of lecturers could enhance the professional preparation of graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education. Professionalism of lecturers could result in their positive relationship with graduate pre-service primary school teachers, their fair assessment, appreciation of their effort and motivating them, as shown in the subsequent statement:

Some of the lecturers were tough when they came to supervise or assess us. They were not friendly. You could see that you work hard and they did not consider that. The marks awarded discouraged the students on TP. There must be a good relationship between supervisor and teacher trainees during TP supervision (Tr4).

In a FAREME lesson, Tr4 was observed making his Grade 5 learners share their religious songs commonly sung by their respective denominations that would give others a clue of naming the religion or denomination associated with such songs. For example, two Christian learners from the Seventh Day Adventist Church received a huge pompom from the class after their melodious song. A learner from a poor background was seen volunteering to challenge the duo by offering a touching song that led Tr4 to give the trio a blue pen each as a gesture of appreciation and encouragement for competent participation. This gesture of applauding achievers was in sync with what the participant had learnt in the generic module covered. Analysis of the Module TDEFP 102: Introduction to Educational Psychology, Module TDEFP 102 revealed that it constituted psychological theories of behaviourism including: Classical conditioning – J.B. Watson and I. Pavlov and Operant conditioning – B.F. Skinner and E. Thorndike that might have informed the participant about the necessity of a positive relationship between the lecturers and pre-service primary school teacher trainees. Analysis of the 2014-2018 Prospectus of the university, page 20 Section 4, sub-section 1b) also revealed that the institution was founded on “nurturing of the intellectual, aesthetic, social and moral growth of the students.”

Sub-theme 12: TP allowances

One university graduate participant reported that paying TP allowances to graduate pre-service primary school teachers could enhance their professional preparation for inclusion in education. Such payment could enable them to purchase teaching and learning media to use during TP thereby enhancing their professional preparation for the philosophy, as illustrated in the following statement:

The university should have at least a small allowance that they can give to student teachers. This can help them to secure teaching and learning aids to improve their training. These require a lot of money (Tr10).

Tr10 was observed using a variety of costly teaching-learning media. For instance, in his Grade 6 Shona lesson on Management of Time in Life, Tr10 was observed selecting photographic material from a big cardboard box filled with handmade and commercial charts, flash cards, pictures and photographs stored in one of the learning centres in his classroom. Learners were shown colour photographs of the city of Jerusalem, Jesus' tomb, the temple of Jerusalem and the Ethiopian airliner among others that the participant reported to have secured from some of his church congregants who had gone on a pilgrimage aboard the Ethiopian airways. Section b(i) of the university's TP file advocated for graduate pre-service primary school teacher trainees' nurturance of a learning atmosphere that is characterised by: quality and relevance of learning centres that include: Discovery corner, Library, Shop, Music, PE and judicious display of children's work. Analysis of the TP File contents form revealed a long list of items expected to be included in the file which required purchasing before and during TP engagement. These included TP File, scheme books, paper for lesson plans, and record of marks exercise books, test record books, remedial record books, extension record books, reading record books, co-curricular record books, teaching note books and inventory books.

Sub-theme 13: Standardized TP supervision

Two university graduate pre-service primary school teachers revealed that standardisation of TP supervision of university lecturers could enhance their

professional preparation for inclusion in education. Standardised supervision of TP could inculcate in them consistent professional practices in service delivery in teaching and learning in mainstream classrooms, as illustrated in the following quotes:

With respect to TP assessment, the first assessor and the second assessor contradicts each other, be it school-based or university-based assessment. Each one has his or her views. When the second one comes, he/she does not read the comments of the first supervisor (Tr11).

When lecturers pay visits during attachment period, they must not oppose one another. At one time I was awarded a very low overall assessment mark for failure to reflect in my schemes of work, individual lesson aims as well as individual and general comments section as part of evaluation. The previous lecturer had condemned these features after I adopted them from my mentor (Tr2).

Analysis of some TP documents revealed significant differences between marks that university TP supervisors awarded to graduate pre-service primary school teachers. For instance, some critiques compiled by university lecturers of the same student had contradictory marks as one lecturer had awarded a 77% mark to a student who later was awarded 58%. The comments accompanying it read: "Your work overall, is far from being a distinction student." On a different note, marks allocated by school supervisors were generally higher than those awarded by university supervisors. Analysis of the Director's Circular Minute Number P34 of 1989 covered under the generic Module TDEFP: Educational Management, Section 2 on TP reads: "TP for student teachers is organised by specially designed lecturers in teachers' colleges who should provide heads with details of the students' programmes and expected teaching loads. Where possible, it is suggested that teachers and lecturers meet before hand to ensure clarity and appreciation of the college objectives for the TP." Analysis of a university circular to school heads, mentors and student teachers stipulates procedures of supervision and areas demanding consistency as listed below in the circular's order: Documentation; Lesson supervision; Giving feedback; Pupils' written work; General; Teaching practice file contents; Teaching practice format for a scheme work; Format for co-curricular and community involvement records; Format for extension records; Format for remedial records; Lesson evaluation and Requirements for test records.

Sub-theme 14: TP in special schools

Three graduate pre-service primary school teachers reported that their placement in special schools during TP could enhance their professional preparation for inclusion in education. Such placement could develop in graduate pre-service primary school teachers the practice of teaching learners with diverse and unique needs, as shown in the following selected excerpts:

The university needs to deploy student teachers in special schools for teaching practice. This can equip them with the relevant knowledge and skills to teach learners with unique needs thus, preparing them for full-time teaching (Tr9).

Student teachers need to be accustomed to children with disabilities at schools like Ratidzo where those with intellectual disabilities learn. This can afford them meaningful TP experiences (Tr15).

From a non-participant observation conducted during a Mathematics lesson in Grade 4, Tr9 was observed assigning learners work according to their abilities. For instance, she displayed simple four sided shapes for those with learning disability and a complex 7 sided shape for those gifted, creative and talented to calculate respective areas of each shape. However, a learner with dyscalculia was seen seated alone while others were busy in groups sharing ideas of calculating areas of different shapes assigned them. Tr9 revealed in a follow-up discussion that she ignored the one with dyscalculia for remediation as she could not teach the learner simultaneously with the others. Analysis of the Format for Remedial Records of the university from which graduate pre-service primary school teachers in this study were drawn revealed that, "Only one pupil per program of remediation in order to avoid bunching or lumping remedial cases in one column as each may have a unique way of responding to given remedial treatment." Analysis of the Module TDEFP 403: Special Needs Education, Section 3.5 lists six modalities of the professional preparation of graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education, namely, lectures, video clips, student research, tutorials, group presentations and assignments. These exclude the placement of these teachers for TP in special schools.

Sub-theme 15: Infused module

Three university graduate pre-service primary school teachers reiterated that teaching the module on inclusion in education as an infused subject in universities could enhance their professional preparation for the philosophy. These graduate pre-service teachers felt that the module could be taught as an infused entity since it would enable them to meet the individuality of all learners, as illustrated in the selected quotes below:

They [pre-service teachers] need to be taught the content on inclusion in education incorporated in other modules instead of as a module on its own (Tr3).

Oh yes, I believe inclusion in education is important and it should not continue being taught in the colleges as a major subject. It should be taught in all modules because it promotes the teaching and learning of all the learners. It supports every learner (Tr13).

While teaching Language Practices and Sentence Construction during a Grade 6 English lesson, Tr3 was observed supporting a learner with dyslexia to construct and read a complete English sentence. Thus, the offering of inclusion as an infused component under the banner of special needs education could prepare the participants for inclusion since the philosophy is used across school subjects hence their proposal. Analysis of the academic guidelines of 2014-2018 page 68 Section 6.2 shows that each student shall be required to take a total of thirty-eight [38] modules. Page 75 further indicates that, at level 4 semester 2, module TDEFP 403: Special Needs Education is offered as one of the foundational modules.

Sub-theme 16: Specialised training

One university graduate participant reported that specialised training of graduate pre-service primary school teachers in special needs education in universities could enhance their professional preparation for inclusion in education. Specialist training could equip university graduate pre-service primary school teachers to meet the needs of learners with special needs, as shown in the following statement:

Universities should train specialists and in particular, special teachers who can cater for learners with special needs (Tr1).

In Grade 6, Tr1: Learning Area, Shona on proverbs was observed using a self-drawn picture of an elephant to demonstrate how the animal is associated with Shona proverbs. Tr1 was seen making use of only the gifted, creative and talented learners without considering the vulnerable and orphaned learner and those with disabilities who equally raised their hands to draw the teacher's attention. A follow-up discussion with the participant revealed that, this preferential treatment was exacerbated by the university's failure to equip her with specific skills and information on inclusion issues. Analysis of the Module TDEFP 403: Special Needs Education revealed that its narration lacks focus on inclusion issues but has a special education needs orientation. Analysis of the Director's Circular Minute Number 24 of 2007 on Examination of candidates with visual and hearing impairment: Braille transcription and Sign Language interpretation, Section 3.7 which graduate pre-service primary school teachers were taught in Module TDEFP 404: Educational Management under policy implementation states that, "Specialist teachers/special invigilators for the deaf will be identified by the Ministry of Education to carry out signed examinations in schools/centres".

6.6 Summary of the chapter

This chapter thematically presented collected data utilising the research sub-questions of the study as its organising framework to establish the graduate pre-service primary school teachers' understanding and practices of inclusion in education. Graduate pre-service primary school teachers revealed divergent understandings of inclusion in education. This included understanding inclusion in education as adoption of adapted curriculum, meeting diverse abilities and socio-economic statuses of learners, addressing diverse abilities and disabilities of learners, blending of learners with and without disabilities and integration of learners with diverse backgrounds. They also understood it as mixed ability grouping, gender equality, integration of learners with disabilities and support of learners with reading difficulties. Graduate pre-service primary school teachers reported various practices of inclusion in education, including

picture and concrete media-based teaching and learning; individual, pair and group work; code-switching and baseline assessment; initial talking; work differentiation; simple to complex and child-centred pedagogy. They also included error shooting and content enrichment; sitting and environment; voice, picture and letter magnification; teaching the previous grade's work; occupying; time and support. Graduate pre-service primary school teachers further proposed several strategies that could enhance their professional preparation for inclusion in education. These strategies included lengthening TP duration, improved TP supervision, teaching strategies, management, teaching and learning records, inclusion in education and teaching and learning media. They also included training duration, selected theory, contact hours, professionalism of lecturers, TP allowances, standardised TP supervision, TP in special schools, a stand-alone module on inclusive education and specialised training. The next chapter focuses on the discussion of the data collected in this study.

CHAPTER 7: DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

7.1 Introduction

Entrenched in the interpretivist research paradigm, this qualitative single case study examined the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe as the context for proposing strategies to enhance their professional preparation. The previous chapter presented and analysed the findings of the study on the subject. This chapter presents a discussion of the findings that were generated from face-to-face semi-structured individual interviews, non-participant observations, document analysis and individual follow-up discussions with 16 university graduate pre-service primary school teachers who participated in the study.

7.2 An overview of the study findings

Using multiple sources of data, the current study established that, university graduate pre-service primary school teachers lacked of a common and comprehensive understanding of inclusion in education as some understood it as the adoption of an adapted curriculum while some perceived it as meeting diverse abilities and socio-economic statuses of learners. Others took it to mean integration of learners with and without disabilities while others took it to be integration of learners from diverse backgrounds. These university graduate pre-service primary school teachers reported that they engaged in various practices in inclusion in education. While some engaged in picture and concrete media-based teaching and learning, some engaged in code-switching and baseline assessment. The university graduate pre-service primary school teachers also revealed diverse strategies that could enhance their professional preparation for inclusion in education including lengthening TP duration as well as multiplying TP visits among others.

The section below presents the discussion of the findings on university graduate pre-service primary school teachers' understanding of inclusion in education in relation to

the theoretical framework for the study, namely, CHAT and the reviewed related international and Zimbabwean literature on the subject.

7.3 University graduate pre-service primary school teachers' understanding of inclusion in education

Graduate pre-service primary school teachers who trained at the same university in the same cohort, studying the same compulsory core module on Special Needs Education and thirty-seven generic modules in their B.Ed Honour's Degree in Education specialising in primary school education, revealed divergent understandings of inclusion in education. This is consistent with the CHAT principle of multi-voicedness of an activity system, which advances that an activity is usually a community of multiple points of view, traditions and interests as its participants carry their own individual diverse histories and views (Hancock & Miller, 2017). Similarly, Frambach et al. (2014) postulate that multi-voicedness of an activity system is a collective interaction of individuals and communities who share different views and interests. In the same vein, Murphy and Rodriguez-Manzanares (2008) assert that an activity system is often a community of multiple interests, perspectives and traditions as participants carry their own different histories and views.

The foregoing finding aligns with previous studies which established that, worldwide, there is no single universally accepted definition of inclusion in education because of several and related terms such as integration, least restrictive environment, mainstreaming and deinstitutionalisation that have been institutionalised in Special Needs Education before the adoption of the philosophy (Armstrong et al., 2010; Forlin et al., 2013). In the same vein, previous studies found that both developed and developing countries define inclusion in education differently (Donnelly, 2011). Similarly, Michael et al's (2013) study established that Irish primary school teachers understood inclusion in education differently as some perceived it as schools' success in promoting a change in learners' academic and social experiences while others viewed it as teacher responsiveness to learners' needs and learning styles. University graduate pre-service primary school teachers' divergent understandings of inclusion in education may result

from their lack of comprehensive formal teaching and learning on it in their training which reveals a lack of their professional preparation with respect to the conceptual understanding of the philosophy. The divergent understandings of inclusion in education of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers resulted in their divergent practices of it. Similarly, Voss and Bufkin (2011) postulate that the international lack of a single comprehensive meaning of inclusion in education results in misconceptions and confused practice of it (Voss & Bufkin, 2011:339). In the same vein, previous studies found that, while the phrase inclusion in education is used internationally, it could be distorted in developing countries that do not have a history of institutionalisation of learners with disabilities and industrialisation because of their economic challenges that hamper the development of education systems that address the diversity of learners (Singh, 2009; Armstrong et al, 2010). Previous studies also reveal that the differences in meaning of inclusion in education in different countries manifests from their diverse historical, political and social contexts (Stubbs, 2008:19; Norwich, 2008:13).

Positive dispositions, knowledge, and skills gleaned from one core Special Needs Education module, thirty-seven generic modules and the social-cultural-religious space of the university graduate pre-service primary school teachers informed their understanding of inclusion in education. This aligns with CHAT that postulates that individuals cannot operate independently from their social, historical, and cultural settings (Wilson, 2014) and their development is entrenched in the social, cultural, and historical contexts of their countries and the global world (Holzman, 2006). Similarly, Yang et al's (2011) quantitative study in Singapore found that the discrete model of professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education taught these teachers child-centred pedagogy that fostered in them appreciation of the value of it since they could accommodate learner diversity in their classes. In the same vein, Pitner et al's (2018) study in the USA established that the discrete model of professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education fostered in these teachers cultural responsiveness in their classes. In Australia, Konza (2008:39) established that the professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion unified special and regular education to ensure that all learners access special and adapted educational settings. Similarly, in Portland, Fullerton et al's (2011:45) qualitative study found that

merging regular and special education content inculcated in pre-service primary school teachers' awareness of the whole class and of those with different learning needs resulting in their development of empathy for some learners. The foregoing finding is inconsistent with the discrete model of professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education in other countries that entails minimal relationship, if any, between regular education courses and special education courses because of independent professional development of these courses (Young, 2011; Blanton & Pugach, 2007). The influence of the social-cultural-religious space of the university graduate pre-service primary school teachers on their professional preparation for inclusion in education is a point of departure from the premise that it is solely the core special needs education module and generic modules that equip these teachers with positive dispositions and competence for practicing the philosophy. This is because the cultural grounding of the university that professionally prepared the studied graduate pre-service primary school teachers, particularly its entrenchment in cultural heritage and the overall religious conviction of the country, particularly Christianity, influenced their understanding of inclusion in education.

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers understood inclusion in education as teaching and learning of an updated curriculum in regular primary schools to learners in response to the dynamic needs of society to guarantee their optimum functionality in it. The adoption and implementation of the Curriculum Framework for Zimbabwe Primary and Secondary Education 2015-2022 when the graduate pre-service primary school teachers were on TP can be attributed to such understanding as this curriculum is founded on inclusion in education and fostering in learners, knowledge and skills for the 21st century. This finding resonates with CHAT, which postulates that a dynamic mediating relationship occurs between an activity and the types of tools used that bring about transformation when an activity system evolves (Dolonen, 2014:4). Hasan and Kazlauskas (2014:11) also assert that when environmental factors of an activity system such as societal needs change, there is also need to change activity plans which ultimately alter the course of the activity as mediating tools (in this case, curriculum) also change to keep pace with context.

University graduate pre-service teachers' foregoing understanding of inclusion in education aligns with previous studies that reveal that, since 1994, various countries updated their school curriculum in alignment with their paradigm shift from exclusion to inclusion in education. For instance, in 2005, India adopted a new National Curriculum Framework to transform schools into platforms for life training through beneficial education (Sanjeev & Kumar, 2007:8; Kohama, 2012:22). Similarly, China implemented the New Curriculum Reform Scheme in 2003, which mandated teachers to respect the individuality of learners premised on principles of appreciation, tolerance and respect, which fosters positive teacher-learner relationships in regular education settings (UNESCO, 2007:10). Inclusion in education includes professionally preparing learners to meet the changing demands of society. University graduate pre-service primary school teachers understood inclusion in education in the context of equipping learners with the skills and competencies to prepare them for the changing demands in society. Thus, the university graduate pre-service primary school teachers in this study realized the imperative of preparing learners for new societal demands through the nationwide adoption of an updated regular school curriculum. Nevertheless, the university graduate pre-service primary school teachers revealed the lack of professional preparation for inclusion in education with respect to its understanding as it includes meeting learner diversity in regular classes in their neighbourhood communities, contrary to the adoption of an updated national school curriculum.

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers understood inclusion in education as teaching and learning methods that meet the diverse individual abilities and socio-economic statuses of learners in regular classes to ensure their conceptualization of taught content. This resonates with CHAT which advances that teaching and learning is a holistic and collaborative activity (Hasan & Kazlauskas, 2014:10) that addresses the individuality of learners in the context of their diverse potentialities and social statuses (Bloomfield & Nguyen, 2015:28). Similarly, Anderson and Stillman (2013:1) assert that, from a CHAT perspective, all forms of teaching and learning, including teacher education and the training of pre-service teachers, are holistic activities that professionally prepare them to respond to socio-cultural life of learners in their pedagogy. In the same vein, previous research established that

inclusion in education addresses and acknowledges the diversity of learners through meeting their individual needs in regular school classes (Ahsan & Mullick, 2013:152).

Previous studies established that inclusion in education is both a process and a goal to ensure the teaching and learning of all learners including those who are vulnerable and marginalized as active participants in their communities (Omidvar & Richmond, 2003:1; Hodkinson, 2009:91; Thomas, 2013:474). In Australia, Forlin's (2010) qualitative study observed that inclusion in education is a crucial element in teaching and learning that guarantees the provision of accessible quality teaching and learning to learners with diverse and unique needs in regular classes. Richmond et al. (2013) in Canada established that elementary teachers understood inclusion in education as the contemporary and normal way of meeting learner diversity in regular classes. In the same vein, Forlin et al's (2011) quantitative study in the USA, Hong Kong, Canada and India established that pre-service teachers understood inclusion in education as meeting the teaching and learning needs of all learners with different backgrounds in regular classes.

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers understood inclusion in education as teaching and learning methods that meet diverse disabilities, abilities, and educational backgrounds of learners in mainstream classrooms. They revealed the lack of professional preparation for inclusion in education as regards its understanding since the deficit perspective of the bygone special needs education era instead of the strength perspective of the current inclusive education era informed their conceptualization of it. This misaligns with the historicity principle of CHAT which advances that the growth and development of an activity system with time, is often evolutionary (Foot, 2014:5) and the evolution of an activity system is usually a product of tensions or contradictions that occur within a community (Georg, 2011:2). The foregoing finding aligns with the special education orientation of the USA that perceives inclusion in education as meeting the needs of learners with disabilities in regular classes (Voss & Bufkin, 2011:339). Consequently, it passed the Education for All Handicapped Children Act in 1975, revised in 1991 to the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) that mandates schools to address the needs of learners with disabilities (Valiquette, 2009:22). Weber

(2006: 6) reveals that IDEA (1990) which was amended in 2004 to Individuals with Disabilities Education Improvement Act (IDEIA) mandates the inclusion of all learners with disabilities in American regular classrooms. Similarly, in Malawi, inclusion in education is founded on the provision of access to regular education for learners with disabilities in compliance with the National Policy Guidelines on Special Education (2007) and the Disability Act of 2012 (Banks et al., 2015:8).

Contrarily, while inclusion in education in Zimbabwe initially meant the provision of education to children with disabilities in regular schools, a shift from exclusion to inclusion of learners with diverse and unique needs (beyond disabilities) in education occurred in 1994, in alignment with several global human rights instruments. Such include the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (UNESCO, 1994) and the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (United Nations, 2006) (Jenjekwa et al., 2013:21). Thus, the understanding of inclusion in education of the graduate pre-service primary school teachers was inconsistent with the national understanding of the philosophy. Nevertheless, the university graduate pre-service primary school teachers' understanding of inclusion in education from a special needs education perspective resonates with previous research.

It was found, for example, that in the USA, accountability requires teachers to assess the abilities of learners in reading and Mathematics to identify those in need of support to reach the level of academic excellence that the state requires (Spellings & Justesen, 2008:39). Thus, schools operate on a normal distribution curve premise that is founded on a deficit-based perspective that informed the special needs education era. Nevertheless, countries are currently grappling with the inclusive education era that is founded on the strength-based perspective as regards the performance of learners. Thus, despite the two-and-a-half decades of the adoption of inclusion in education in Zimbabwe and its national definition, special needs education/ the disability perspective underpinned the professional preparation of pre-service primary school teachers for the philosophy at the studied university. This is because overall, the university graduate pre-service primary school teachers' understanding of inclusion in education was

grounded in disability discourse. Seemingly, the studied institution failed to eliminate the legacy of special needs education in its program for professional preparation of pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education.

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers understood inclusion in education as teaching and learning that addresses the diverse abilities and disabilities of learners in mainstream classes based on their equal treatment. This finding is consistent with CHAT, including its principle of conditions and operations in an activity system which resonates with the teacher's facilitation of learner participation based on equal treatment. According to Nussbaumer (2012:39), conditions (equal treatment) determine success of an operation (facilitation of participation by the teacher). Similarly, Gal et al's (2010:89) quantitative study in Northern Israel found that Jewish teachers equated inclusion in education to participation as they perceived that it was intertwined with the concept of human rights and equal opportunities for involvement of individual learners in their social environments.

Hodkinson (2010:61), in the same vein, established that equal treatment, inclusive of equalization of opportunities for learners, is one of the key components of inclusion in education as it promotes participation and optimizes achievement of learners. The foregoing finding is inconsistent with previous studies which established that some pre-service teachers have no idea of what inclusion in education is all about. For instance, Udoba's (2014:63) qualitative study found that, in Tanzania, pre-service primary school teachers had no idea of what inclusion in education was. Thus, the university graduate pre-service primary school teachers lacked professional preparation for inclusion in education with respect to its understanding. This is because of their perception of it as the mere physical presence of learners with diverse abilities and disabilities in regular classes without consideration of other aspects of pedagogy including participation, acceptance and success of these learners in these settings. Moreover, inclusion in education addresses other aspects of human diversity including language, culture, gender, race and sexual orientation.

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers understood inclusion in education as the placement of learners with disabilities in regular classes in which their typically developing peers serve as their models of positive behaviour and academic performance. This aligns with the historicity principle, including transformative progression in which an activity progressively develops with time (Engestrom, 1987) where the subject of an activity brings with it its different motives (Hasan & Kazlauskas, 2014:9). Similarly, CHAT postulates that transformation potential encompasses the movement of activity systems through long cycles that create a dynamic framework that applies to both formal and informal processes in groups that support a sociological approach to studying collective learning within structured social relationships (Young, 2008). According to Abella (2016:30), the subject transforms the environment while carrying out the activity. The above finding is inconsistent with previous studies which established that the teaching and learning of learners with and without disabilities has evolved from exclusion to inclusion in education in which these learners are equal partners who learn from each other in regular classes (Fryson & Cromby, 2013:1164; Staniland, 2011:17; Wagithunu, 2014:117). This is because of the shift in paradigm from the institutional care of children with disabilities to their education in regular classes with professional support services (Fergus, 2008:110; Hallahan & Sayeski, 2010:8).

Ahmed et al's (2012:132) quantitative study in Bangladesh, similarly, found that graduate pre-service primary school teachers understood inclusion in education as the placement of learners with disabilities in regular classrooms to interact with their typically developing peers. In the same vein, Ali et al's (2006:36) study in Malaysia established that pre-service teachers understood inclusion in education as the interaction occurring between learners with disabilities and their peers without developmental delays in regular classes. Thus, countries have evolved from the normalization era to the inclusion era in theory but not in practice. Thus, the university graduate pre-service primary school teachers lacked the professional preparation for inclusion in education with respect to its understanding. This is because of its conceptualization as the mere physical presence of learners with disabilities in regular classes without support from various stakeholders including parents, professionals, and

para-professionals except for their typically developing peers serving as role models of good behaviour and educational performance.

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers understood inclusion in education as the integration and acceptance of learners from poor and rich economic statuses in regular classes based on their religious conviction. Nevertheless, inclusion in education includes access, participation, acceptance, and success of learners with diverse and unique needs in regular classes based on the pursuit of the realization of human rights and social justice instead of the mere physical presence and acceptance of learners from diverse backgrounds in such settings. This finding is inconsistent with the CHAT element of subjects as actors in an activity system who are diverse individuals placed at an individual level to bring about an outcome through mediating an object (Engestroom, 1987:78). Similarly, Hasan and Kazlauskas (2014:9) postulate that central to CHAT is the idea of actions and agency of different individuals and their mediating relationship with the object being influenced by cultural tools. The foregoing finding aligns with previous research which established that in the Western societies, inclusion in education is perceived as integration (Vislie, 2003:19) where learners from diverse backgrounds are brought together into one educational environment irrespective of their deficits or strengths (Boyle et al, 2011:73).

Similarly, in Australia, teachers understand inclusion in education as the placement of children from diverse backgrounds in regular classrooms (Loreman, 2007:22; Loreman et al., 2013:27; Forlin& Chambers, 2011:17). In the same vein, previous research observed that in Italy, with an integrationist mentality supported by enactment of its policy called 'Integrazione Scolastica' meaning student integration (D'Alessio, 2011:2), inclusion in education is the placement of learners from diverse backgrounds in regular school settings (D'Alessio, 2011:6).The Warnock Report in the UK perceives inclusion in education as the minimization of barriers to learning through the use of locational, social, and functional integration (Nenty, 2012:2; Gray, 2009:20). The university from which participating graduate pre-service primary school teachers were drawn professionally prepared them for integration of learners from diverse backgrounds in education instead of the inclusion of these learners. Despite the shift of the university

graduate pre-service primary school teachers from a disability perspective to a diversity perspective regarding the understanding of inclusion in education, they still lacked the professional preparation for it with respect to the conceptualization of the philosophy. This is because inclusion in education is beyond the physical presence of learners from diverse backgrounds in regular classes as it includes meeting their individual needs in these settings.

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers understood inclusion in education as mixed dis/ability grouping in which learners with and without disabilities are grouped together to support each other in their teaching and learning in regular classes. This finding is consistent with CHAT, which posits that in an activity system, there is collective activity of different actors who possess a common object (Foot, 2014:5). Similarly, an activity system is a goal-oriented, dynamic, and collaborative holistic construct that is contextually understood in cultural and historical environments to reduce tensions (Bloomfield & Nguyen, 2015:28). In the same vein, collaboration in inclusion in education entails consultation and partnership of stakeholders with each other to realize common academic and social goals (Meadan & Amaya, 2008:159). According to Farrell et al (2014:88), collaboration of stakeholders promotes congruence of purpose and language that facilitates inclusion in education. Collier et al's (2015:117) study also observed that collaboration of stakeholders facilitates their sharing of experiences of inclusion in education that promotes its successful practice. Similarly, Das et al's (2013:8) quantitative study established that, Indian primary and secondary school pre-service preparation programs of teachers offered, needed more emphasis on collaboration competence as these teachers expressed relatively lower skill levels in it. The foregoing finding also aligns with past studies which established that, when learners with disabilities and those without disabilities learn in the same classroom, they assist each other (Kohama, 2012) as they group for interpersonal support (Konza, 2008:39).

Consistently, Banks et al's (2015) qualitative study found that, in Malawi, learners with and without disabilities are grouped together to support one another as their teachers lack specialist training. Contrarily, Spelling's (2008:10) study in the USA, observed that

inclusion in education was the responsibility of the state as individual learners were supported by the state and not seeking their own support services. According to Mukhopadhyay and Musengi (2012:9), inclusion in education offers support services and material resources that facilitate quality education for learners with diverse and unique needs in regular classes. Similarly, Green and Engelbrecht (2007:4) established that inclusion in education avails support to promote full participation of diverse learners in regular classes, especially those with disabilities. University graduate pre-service primary school teachers in this study realized the fundamentality of intra-group support of learners for inclusion in regular classes. Nevertheless, these university graduates lacked the professional preparation for inclusion in education as regards its understanding as it extends beyond collaboration of learners to include collaboration of other stakeholders.

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers understood inclusion in education as ensuring gender equality and equity in studying of curriculum subjects of learners. This finding resonates with CHAT, which advances that all human activity takes place in a social environment (Hasan & Kazlauskas, 2014:9). Anderson and Stillman (2013:1), similarly, reveal that CHAT advances that human activities occur within socio-cultural and historical contexts such as gender equality and social justice. The finding is consistent with previous research which established that the social life of learners is critical in the teaching and learning process (Blarke & Pope, 2008:62) as actions, learning and meaning-making are premised on the culture of the society in which the learners belong and not on individual perception (Bloomfield & Nguyen, 2015:28).

Similarly, Specht's (2016:2) study in Canada established that pre-service teachers understood inclusion in education as a right and an opportunity for all learners to be successful in life founded on respecting and valuing of human dignity. In the same vein, in Japan, Sanagi's (2016:103) quantitative study established that teachers understood inclusion in education as a human right issue that entails the extension of the environment of the school to provide education to learners who experience barriers to learning. Thus, the cultural heritage focus of the university that the graduate pre-service

teachers were drawn from influenced their understanding of inclusion in education as the pursuit of the realization of gender equity and equality among its *modus operandi*. Nevertheless, the university graduate pre-service primary school teachers exhibited a lack of professional preparation for inclusion in education as regards its understanding. This is because the philosophy extends beyond safeguarding gender equity and equality in studying of subjects by learners to include guaranteeing human rights and social justice in all domains of life.

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers understood inclusion in education as the integration of learners with disabilities in regular classes. Nevertheless, inclusion in education is not integration as it includes access, participation, tolerance or acceptance, and achievement of learners with diverse and unique needs in regular classes instead of the mere physical placement of learners with disabilities in such settings. This finding is inconsistent with the CHAT element of actors in an activity system who are diverse individuals placed at an individual level to bring about an outcome through mediating an object (Engestroom, 1987:78). Similarly, Barhouni (2015) asserts that, there are different actors in an activity system as there is division of labour or division of activities amongst actors to achieve a common goal. The above finding is consistent with previous studies which established that in developing nations, inclusion in education is perceived as integration where diverse learners are brought together in a regular classroom without taking cognizance of unique individualities of these learners as in Malawi (Chimwaza, 2015) and in Kenya (Oketch, 2009). This finding is consistent with Ali's (2006:36) quantitative study in Malaysia which established that teachers understood inclusion in education as interaction occurring amongst learners with disabilities and their peers without developmental delays placed in common regular classrooms. Similarly, Ahmed et al's (2012:132) quantitative study also found that teachers in Bangladesh understood inclusion in education as a practice that involved learners with disabilities being brought into regular classrooms. The finding is evidence that the university from which participating graduate pre-service primary school teachers were selected does not professionally prepare them for inclusion in regular classrooms but for integration of learners with disabilities.

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers in this study understood inclusion in education as concerned with supporting learners to facilitate only their reading competence in order to master taught content. Nevertheless, inclusion in education extends beyond this aspect of offering only reading support to include support for access and participation of all learners with and without various diverse and unique needs including age, disabilities, and immigration status in teaching and learning in regular classes in their neighbourhood communities. As a tool of realizing social justice, inclusion in education advances equality for it embraces rights, opportunity, belonging, acceptance, participation, achievement and access for all learners in their neighbourhood school classes in the community of their age-appropriate peers (Ashman & Merrotsky, 2009:73; Foreman, 2011:548; Woodcock et al, 2012:1). Thus, these university graduate pre-service primary school teachers revealed the lack of professional preparation for inclusion in education as regards its understanding as they articulated one aspect of its focus.

All university graduate pre-service primary school teachers revealed the lack of a comprehensive understanding of inclusion in education. This is because they mentioned limited individual and or systemic factors including diverse abilities, disabilities, and backgrounds that need to be addressed in regular classrooms through the use of responsive teaching and learning methods. However, inclusion in education addresses the diversity of learners that manifest from a combination of individual and systemic factors through the provision of responsive teaching and learning content, environment, process, assessment and other relevant services and goods. This finding is consistent with the CHAT principle of contradiction that envisages that, in an activity system, there are human practices and structural tensions that occur but these are a good source of transformative development as they provide new insights about the activity undertaken (Dolonen, 2014:4). Engestrom (2001:137) also postulates that as multiple-voicedness multiply in carrying out an activity, it promotes contradictions and innovations that bring about transformation of an activity system. The foregoing finding aligns with previous research which established that the understanding of inclusion in education is not without challenges (Norwich, 2013) whose ambiguities in meaning have not stopped its global adoption (Florian, 2010:11; Norwich, 2013:11). Similarly, past studies established

that the provision of a unified definition of inclusion in education presents challenges since some definitions are determined by movements in educational practices, culture, context and even circumstances that may make some aspects of it outdated (Forlin et al, 2013:8; Voss & Bufkin, 2011:339). In the same vein, Armstrong et al (2010:8) established that there are dilemmas of differences in opinion as to what inclusion is and how the philosophy is practiced in regular schools as it has been used interchangeably to mean special needs education. Consistently, different understandings of inclusion in education, leading to possible contradictions in practicing it, were established in North Carolina (Liggins, 2016:1), Canada (Richmond et al., 2013:198) and Tanzania (Udoba, 2014:65). The subsequent section presents graduate pre-service primary school teachers' practices in inclusion in education.

7.4 University graduate pre-service primary school teachers' practices in inclusion in education

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers reported various individual and common practices they engaged in for inclusion in education. This is consistent with CHAT, which postulates that varied artefacts, namely, primary, secondary and tertiary tools, facilitate the realization of the objective of any activity (Hasan & Kazlauskas, 2014:11). Similarly, Abella (2016:29) asserts that all human actions are mediated by different socio-cultural tools as interaction occurs in social activities. The above finding aligns with past research, which established that for inclusion in education, teachers used diverse practices including co-teaching, small group instruction and one-to-one instruction to teach learners with diverse and unique needs (Hartlep, Porfilio & O'Brien, 2015:135). Similarly, Gurgur and Uzuner's (2010:311) study in Turkey established that pre-service teachers used diverse approaches of co-teaching including one-teach-one-observe, station teaching, parallel teaching, alternative teaching, team teaching and one-teach-one-assist for inclusion in education. In the same vein, Ko and Boswell's (2013:223) qualitative study in East Carolina established that pre-service teachers used diverse instructional methods and adapted equipment for inclusion in education. According to Hartman (2015:59), pre-service teachers use a wide range of instructional practices for inclusion in education. The use of diverse practices of university graduate

pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education may reveal their professional preparation for it. This is because they demonstrated that, for inclusion in education, teaching practices need to be adapted to the diverse needs of individual learners and not vice-versa.

For inclusion in regular classes, university graduate pre-service primary school teachers used subject specific concrete and picture teaching and learning media including animals, objects and charts that they made on their own or sourced to facilitate the understanding of taught concepts, multi-sensory learning and responding to individual needs of learners, including those with visual impairment. Innovation and creativity founded on addressing the diversity of learners and promoting their success, informed graduate pre-service primary school teachers' use of such teaching and learning media in pursuit of inclusion in education. This resonates with the principle of mediating tools in CHAT which postulates that human contact with reality is an educational pedagogy that is designed and centred on practical activities (Jones et al, 2014:3). Engestroom (2001:134) also asserts that individual members in an activity system design, produce and use tools in order to make meaning. Consistent studies reveal that the aim of inclusion in education is the designing and restructuring of schools to enable them to cater for diverse needs of all learners in such a way that they experience full membership and unconditional belonging to the regular school and community (Abosi et al., 2012:2; Mittler, 2012:10; Antia et al, 2002:214).

Similarly, the Ministry of Education and Skills Development of Botswana (2008:36) found that teachers are discouraged from using traditional methods of teaching in education such as 'chalk and talk' but to devise innovative strategies to promote inclusion in education. In the same vein, Danielson et al's (2019) online survey in the USA established that teachers practiced DVD screen media based pedagogy to capture the attention of learners to promote their mastery of language vocabulary. Shabiralyani et al's (2015:226) quantitative study in Pakistan found that pre-service teachers used pictures and animation videos to motivate learners and enhance their attention in reading literary texts. Inclusion in education may not require sophisticated technology to practice it in cases where learners have low to medium support needs. Thus, the nature

and severity of disabilities may inform teachers on the sophistication/advancement of technology needed for inclusion in education. University graduate pre-service primary school teachers used teaching and learning picture media that they made on their own as well as concrete teaching and learning media that they sourced to practice inclusion in education embedded in the contexts of their schools and learners. Such included urbanicity or rurality of their schools and the nature and severity of the disabilities of their learners. Picture teaching and learning media and concrete teaching and learning media that graduate pre-service primary school teachers made and sourced respectively, such as big pictures that they drew and domestic animals that they used to concretise teaching and learning, demonstrate their innovation, creativity and agency to promote inclusion in education. Thus, teachers can design and source teaching and learning media for their learners in the context of their teaching and learning or socio-cultural environment to facilitate inclusion in education. This is unlike in Europe where teachers primarily depend on sophisticated assistive devices that are specifically designed and manufactured for use in regular classes to facilitate inclusion in these settings (Boyle et al., 2011).

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers manipulated the use of group, pair and individual work premised on promoting academic and social inclusion of learners with disabilities for academic achievement in regular classrooms. This was in keeping with responding to learner diversity that underpins inclusion in education. This aligns with collectivism in CHAT, which postulates that an activity is a human collective where humans act as a group (Foot, 2014:3). CHAT also demonstrates the connectedness and dynamics of elements of an activity system in terms of group actions and their cultural mediation (Bloomfield & Nguyen, 2015:29). Inclusion in education is a process that involves radical transformation of the school curriculum, assessment, and pedagogy to include grouping of learners for interpersonal support (Konza, 2008:39; Mittler, 2012:10). Teachers in Malawi prefer grouping their learners in carrying out classroom activities in regular classrooms for active involvement and mastery of taught concepts (Banks et al's, 2015:8). Hartlep et al's (2015:135) study established that small group instruction and one-to-one instruction are some of the contemporary practices that are used for inclusion in education. Similarly, in Finland and

Austria, Meijer's (2003:27) qualitative study established that teachers adopted the heterogeneous grouping model for flexible instructional teaching and learning for the inclusion of children with diverse and unique needs in education. The support of each other for children with and without disabilities in teaching and learning in this study challenges the premise that, for inclusion in education, it is only learners with disabilities who are supported by their typically developing peers. Thus, learners with and without disabilities served as equal partners for inclusion in education hence mixed dis/ability grouping and not mixed ability grouping was demonstrated in this study.

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers code-switched and adopted baseline assessment with a special focus on non-readers and the gifted, talented and creative learners in practicing inclusion in education. This resonates with the premise of CHAT that language and other cultural means mediates all social action (Jones et al., 2014:3). Hasan and Kazlauskas (2014:9) posit that in CHAT, language is one such useful tool used to realize collaborative human activity. In the USA, language changed from being disability centred to become more people centred to promote inclusion in education (Fergus, 2008:110; Hallahan & Sayeski, 2010:8). In Botswana, Setswana was introduced as the official language for use by learners from pre-school up to Standard 2 to ensure that no child, including those with disabilities, is excluded from regular education as a result of cultural issues and language (Ministry of Education and Skills Development, 2008:34). Ibrahim et al's (2013:139) qualitative study observed that Malaysian teachers code-switched in language classrooms to foster mastery of taught concepts for learners in regular classes. Modupeola's (2013:92) qualitative study established that Nigerian teachers code switched as an inclusive teaching practice for language instruction at foundation levels that attracted learners' interest but was gradually withdrawn as learners became more proficient. Previous studies also established that, by the nature of the multi-culturalism and multi-lingualism of Zimbabwe, code switching has been adopted only in oral classroom discourse in order to address the needs of learners with language barriers in learning (Gotosa et al., 2013:88). University graduate pre-service primary school teachers' use of native language for inclusion in education challenges the national policy of the MoPSE of

Zimbabwe on the use of English as the language of teaching and learning in all curriculum subjects except indigenous languages such as Ndebele, Venda or Shona.

For inclusion in education, university graduate pre-service primary school teachers talked with learners in order to understand them prior to teaching them. Such pre-teaching information that the university graduate pre-service primary school teachers sought and secured was a form of needs assessment as it provided them with background information about learners that facilitated responding to their individual needs in alignment with inclusion in education. This finding resonates with the aim and dialectical relationships of CHAT, which require understanding individuals in their natural everyday lives through establishing a mutual relationship with them (Cole, 1996:117). Jones et al (2014:3) also asserts that CHAT aims at understanding individuals' actions in the context of their socio-cultural environment where they are practiced. Knowledge of profile of learners is a pre-requisite in establishing and developing a positive teacher-learner relationship in inclusion in education as it facilitates understanding and choice of technology, differentiation and or adaptation needed to address child diversity (Lynch, 2018:1). Resnick et al's (2015:2) qualitative study found that American teachers utilized needs assessment prior to teaching and learning as a basis for broadening learners' chances of educational achievement. Chireshe's (2011:163) qualitative study in Zimbabwe, inversely, noted that graduate pre-service primary school teachers reported the need for curriculum change in order to promote equal educational achievement of learners with and without disabilities. Initial talking of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers with their learners is a point of departure in that, normally, specialists such as educational psychologists use standardized tests to determine the individual teaching and learning needs of learners for inclusion in education the world over.

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers differentiated and assigned work to learners in response to their individual abilities and at times following up to ensure that they completed assigned written work in time in inclusion in education. This aligns with the principle of engagement in CHAT, which entails that, subjects are involved in activities at an individual level in an activity system (Barhoumi, 2015:224)

where learners are contextual subjects engaged in collaborative learning. Similarly, Hasan and Kazlauskas (2014:9) assert that in CHAT, human activities are at an individual level. Previous research in Europe established that pre-service teachers differentiated instruction including individualising the teaching and learning content, learning process and the environment to capitalise on the unique strengths of individual learners in inclusion in education (Specht, 2016:1). A Saudi Arabian study by Alsalim (2019:1) established that teachers differentiated instruction to promote the active participation and achievement of learners for inclusion in education. Stiffler's (2018:153) qualitative study found that teachers in Northern California differentiated instruction to engage individual learners in their regular classrooms. Sharma's (2012:53) quantitative study in Victoria, Australia, revealed that pre-service teachers differentiated instruction to include learners with unique needs in regular classrooms. Thus, differentiation of instruction of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers in Zimbabwe is in alignment with international best practice of inclusion in education.

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers taught from simple to complex for inclusion in education and focused on learners with disabilities to enhance the mastery of taught concepts of these learners. This finding is consistent with the CHAT principle of interaction, which postulates that purposeful activity by subjects in an activity system influence the outcome (Bloomfield & Nguyen, 2015:31). Jones et al. (2014:7), similarly, postulate that in an activity system, humans purposely act within a shared social environment that is characterised by interactions towards meaning making. Graduate pre-service primary school teachers taught learners from simple to complex, thus inclusion in education requires teachers to know the baseline performance/entry competence of individual learners to differentiate instruction. This finding resonates with previous research which established that teachers use diverse instructional methods to meet the individuality of learners for inclusion in education (Thomas, 2016:45).

A Canadian quantitative study by Specht (2016:1) found that differentiated instruction served all learners in regular classrooms. In the same vein, Ko and Boswell's (2013:223) qualitative case study established that, in East Carolina, pre-service teachers differentiated instruction to meet the individual needs of learners for inclusion

in education. Similarly, Samkange's (2013:960) study established that Zimbabwean teachers reported the need to offer individualised instruction in order to promote equal educational opportunities for diverse learners. Although spiral teaching and learning is usually practiced in serving learners with diverse abilities, in this study, it was reserved for learners with learning disabilities.

For inclusion in education, university graduate pre-service primary school teachers remediated and accelerated learners with learning disabilities and learners who were gifted, talented and creative respectively as instructional support for these learners. This aligns with the special needs education era in which specialist teachers were concerned about the deficits and not strengths of learners (Hallahan & Sayeski, 2010:7). Similarly, in New York City, learners with disabilities were educated in separate institutions that were established towards the close of the 19th century under specialist teachers such as Elizabeth Farrell, a renowned advocate and pioneer of special education (Fergus, 2008:110; Hallahan & Sayeski, 2010:7). In the same vein, previous studies established that, post-colonial Zimbabwe educate children with disabilities in special classrooms in regular schools (Samkange, 2013:955; Jenjekwa, Rutoro & Runyowa, 2013:22). The acceleration of content for learners who were gifted, talented and creative by graduate pre-service primary school teachers in this study, aligns with previous studies which found that enrichment activities reinforced skill mastery of individual learners who needed to take what they learnt for future application, particularly those who had a natural passion for exploration of challenging situations (Shoemaker, 2014:3). Similarly, Nobori's (2011:1) qualitative study found that American pre-service teachers accelerated the teaching and learning content of learners who were gifted, talented and creative in regular education through expanding lesson objectives to ensure higher-level mastery of skills and knowledge before these learners advanced to the next level of teaching and learning. The remediation of learners with learning disabilities of graduate pre-service primary school teachers was inconsistent with inclusion in education. This is because it is the teaching and learning methods that should be adapted to the individual needs of learners and not vice-versa.

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers organised and modified the

classroom sitting arrangement to meet the unique needs of learners with specific disabilities for inclusion in education. This included ensuring that learners who had residual sight had good visual perception of work written on the chalkboard while those who were hard of hearing had better perception of sound. This resonates with placement in CHAT which positions individual subjects in an activity system at their individual levels of operation to influence their participation (Dolonen, 2014:4). According to Engestroom (1987:78), in an activity system, actors are placed at an individual level to influence their participation in order to realise the outcome. Classroom management for inclusion in education requires teachers to establish a supportive and user-friendly environment for social, emotional and academic learning and to promote positive behaviour of learners (Korpershoek et al., 2014:11). Similarly, past research established that teachers needed training in classroom behaviour management to support learners in dealing with own problems and learn to exercise self-control (Hu, 2010:12). According to Sharma et al. (2013), regular education teachers in the Asia-Pacific region's lack of awareness and orientation of inclusion in education, pre-requisite resources and an inclusive curriculum increased their stress levels. This was because they attempted idealistic inclusion in their overcrowded regular classrooms leading them to underscore the need for appropriate training that promotes acceptance and good management of learner diversity. Similarly, Ficarra and Quinn's (2014:71) quantitative study in New York State established that successful classroom management strategies supported learners' academic and social outcomes that were determined by the teacher's knowledge and competency. Armstrong et al (2010:7) postulate that the school system should overcome barriers to learning and participation by using varied practices such as adapting to the child and not the child to the system. Samkange (2013: 958) and Save the Children UK (2002) found that Zimbabwean teachers adapted the physical environment of regular classrooms to improve schooling for all learners.

For inclusion in education, university graduate pre-service primary school teachers spoke at the top of their voices and used enlarged subject specific teaching and learning media, including large pictures to facilitate auditory and visual perception (respectively) of taught concepts as well as mastery of taught concepts for learners with residual hearing and residual sight respectively. Selection and use of such teaching and

learning media was evidence of innovation and creativity of graduate pre-service primary school teachers that was premised on addressing the diversity of learners and promoting their success in inclusion in education. This is consistent with diversity of mediating artefacts in CHAT, which asserts that, all human activity is mediated by varied tools (Dolonen, 2014:6). Similarly, Hardman (2008:65) posits that the main idea of CHAT is that, cultural tools mediate all human activity. Graduate pre-service primary school teachers' talking loudly was one way of mediating inclusion in education.

According to Walt and Wolhuter (2018:121), practices differ from subject to subject since the different subjects possess diverse mediating artifacts inclusive of human and natural endowments, material resources, quality of lecturers, instructional methodology, human resources, funds, motivation and infrastructure. The foregoing finding is inconsistent with previous studies. For instance, in Nigeria, Adetoro (2014) and Obi and Ashi (2016) established that relevant equipment was provided to children with various categories of disabilities for inclusion in education through state funding and demonstration of political will that was founded on institutionalisation of pro-inclusion legislation and policies that acknowledged the rights of people with disabilities. Similarly, inclusion in education in Italy has become an ethical issue that is practiced daily, premised on respecting human rights and celebrating human diversity (Petrella, 2012:2; Camerini, 2011:2). In the same vein, in the USA, inclusion in education is viewed as “a commitment to educate every child to the maximum extent possible in a school with support services brought to the child rather than bringing the child to the support services” (Spellings & Justesen, 2008:9). Inclusion in education is the provision of the most appropriate resources and means of reducing exclusionary practices against learners with disabilities where ordinary schools should accommodate the diversity of learners (UNESCO, 1994; UNESCO, 2009:8). In Zimbabwe, inclusion in education caters for diverse needs of children with disabilities and is regarded as one of the ways of ensuring that these children enjoy their right to education (Mpofu, 2007:66; Chireshe, 2011:157). Inclusion in education requires innovation and creativity of teachers in response to the needs of children regardless of the economic advancement of a country.

For inclusion in education, university graduate pre-service primary school teachers re-visited un-mastered concepts and gradually re-introduced them to foster conceptualisation of taught content for learners particularly those learners with learning difficulties. The principle of historicity in CHAT also advances that an activity system should be seen in its historical context characterised by past, personal and cultural experiences that influence activity (Hancock & Miller, 2017:5). Similarly, Engestrom (2001:136) postulates that, activity systems establish and are transformed with time as their problems and potentials can only be understood against their own history which in turn should be studied as local history of the activity and its objects. This aligns with UDL principles, including multi-means of engagement that entails designing the teaching and learning process to maintain learners' point of entry and interests (Heelan, 2015:5). UDL is a practice for inclusion premised on establishing a wide range of instructional methods that provide means of learning (Hartman, 2015:59). A qualitative study in Southern California by Black et al (2015:1) observed that the UDL principle of multiple-means of engagement minimised barriers to learning as learners with visual impairment depended on library staff assistance to meaningfully engage with library resources. In Chicago, Mavrovic-Glasser's (2017:1) quantitative study found that both pre-service and in-service teachers needed training on UDL since it was more often used for inclusion in regular classrooms by teachers who were familiar with it after receiving formal training on its use. In Italy, pre-service teachers re-visited previously covered work to support learners experiencing challenges (Dipace, 2013:153). Similarly, Donnelly and Watkins' (2011:341) qualitative study in Europe established that pre-service teachers used flexible and child-centred methodology for learners with diverse and unique needs. Although re-visiting of previously taught concepts is practiced for all learners irrespective of their abilities to establish the linkage between new and learnt concepts so as to enhance sequential development of concepts and transfer of knowledge, in this study, it was meant specifically for those with learning disabilities.

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers attended to learners who were gifted, talented and creative at the expense of those who had learning difficulties for inclusion in education. This finding is inconsistent with the element of rules of the 'game' of CHAT which guide and regulate what subjects do in relation to the object in an

activity system (Foot, 2014:8). Thus, university graduate primary school teachers, as subjects, infringed upon the rights of those with learning difficulties yet the rule (professionalism) demands what Thomas (2013) calls equal treatment of learners in regular classrooms. According to Hasan and Kazslauskas (2014:9), in an activity system, rules regulate the relationship involving the subject, the community and division of labour. The foregoing finding is inconsistent with previous studies, which found that inclusion in education advocates for a non-segregated schooling system (O'Brien, 2002:10; Hodkinson, 2010:61).

Consistently, previous studies established that learners with unique educational needs have a right to be taught alongside their peers without special needs in regular schools in order for these institutions to meet their social and moral obligation to educate all learners (Mitchell, 2008:27; Forbes, 2007:66). The foregoing finding aligns with Romi and Leyser's (2006) qualitative study, in Jordan, which established that teachers could not include learners with disabilities in regular classes because they lacked the content and pedagogy on strategies to plan for and assess these learners. Similarly, Jewell et al's (2008) quantitative study in North Carolina established that the majority of teacher trainees could not teach learners with disabilities as they lacked the relevant knowledge and skills.

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers afforded learners extended time for group interaction to ensure their mastery of taught concepts for inclusion in education. More time was granted, taking cognisance of learners with disabilities who were grouped with those learners without disabilities which fostered group cohesion and acceptance of the diversity of learners. This resonates with value-orientedness in CHAT, which advances that individuals in an activity system are encultured as human activity is value-oriented (Foot, 2014:3). Similarly, in CHAT, in an activity system, individuals are believed to interact with their broad cultural and historical contexts in which they participate (Vygotsky, 1978; Leontiev, 1978). In the same vein, inclusion in education is a human right practice that promotes the realisation of just and equal societies (EADSNE, 2010). This finding is inconsistent with providing guided notes to

learners for them to easily complete set tasks (Larwin, Dawson, Erickson & Larwin, 2012:109).

A quantitative study in Cyprus by Kourea et al. (2019:47) found a positive correlation between the academic performance of learners and the guided notes program. Similarly, in the states of Kent and Youngstown, USA, Larwin et al's (2012) quantitative study established that, while guided notes had a moderate impact on the achievement of general education learners, they had no impact on learners with special needs whose instructional obstacles of pacing and comprehension were not reduced. Contrarily, Haydon et al's (2011:226) quantitative study in Florida, Louisville and Cincinnati, USA found that the use of guided notes had positive effects on the outcomes of learners as it improved accuracy of note-taking and test scores of learners. Similarly, Nobori's (2011:1) qualitative study in Arizona established that, pre-service teachers provided their learners who experienced educational challenges with additional instructional time to comprehend taught concepts in regular classrooms. University graduate pre-service primary school teachers may have perpetuated exclusion in education as they treated learners with disabilities as a special group that required special consideration. For inclusion in education, no learner is more special than the other.

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers supported learners individually during teaching and learning for inclusion in education. This entailed the provision of individual support to learners including those with learning disabilities and those with intellectual disabilities in order to promote the mastery of taught concepts of these learners. This finding is inconsistent with interactivity in CHAT where individuals in an activity system and their environment are treated as independent variables that operate at an individual level (Abella, 2016:29). Similarly, Vygotsky (1978:57) advances that, in an activity system, interaction offers individuals a platform for collaborative learning which ultimately promotes human cognition. In the same vein, previous research found that teachers who use IEPs in the Western State, USA, promoted the progress of individual learners for inclusion in education (Rodriguez, 2017:70). Elder et al's (2018:116) quantitative study in the USA found that IEPs were implemented to support individual learners for inclusion in education. Jenjekwa et al's (2013:25) study in

Zimbabwe established that when teachers afforded more attention to all learners with disabilities during teaching and learning ill-discipline manifested in the classroom because of large class sizes. The provision of individual support to specific learners by graduate pre-service primary school teachers in this study contradicts the practice of attending to all learners in inclusion in education. Overall, university graduate pre-service primary school teachers may not have grasped adequately the theory on inclusion in education but may practice it. These teachers used practices that were in the context of their environments based on the content that they gleaned from the core and generic modules that they were taught during their professional preparation.

7.5 Strategies that could enhance the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers proposed several strategies that are grounded in individual and institutional capacity building that could enhance their professional preparation for inclusion in education. This resonates with the multi-dimensionality of actors (graduate pre-service primary school teachers) in CHAT who mediate subject-object interaction using many different tools (strategies) to realise the intended outcome (inclusion in education). Consistent studies reveal that teacher-training institutions use a wide array of context-specific strategies to enhance the professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education (Pantic & Florian, 2015:333; Hammond, 2010:35).

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers felt that the lengthening of the duration of their TP through the addition of another year to make it two years could afford them more time to practice skills including communication in sign language with learners who are deaf that could enhance their professional preparation for inclusion in education. This aligns with partnership creation in CHAT which entails the need to change systems through the establishment of partnerships when a joint activity system with a minimum of two interacting activity systems result in contradictions that historically accrue between activity systems (Bloomfield & Nguyen, 2015:29). Similarly, Foot (2014:16) asserts that when contradictions occur in an activity system, they can be potential sources of innovation for transforming an activity system. According to

Honeyman (2016:46), TP is a field experience that involves teacher trainees observing expert teachers and trialling teaching in real classroom settings under mentorship of experienced teachers. Similarly, Main and Hammond's (2008:28) mixed method survey in Australia established that TP provided an opportunity for pre-service teachers to observe, emulate and practice teaching that they later reflected upon as they shared with their peers best practices for inclusion in education.

In the same vein, Sokal et al's (2013:285) quantitative in Canada found that pre-service teachers who had TP in an inclusive school developed increased teacher efficacy in classroom management in comparison with their peers who had no TP. Donnelly and Watkins' (2011:341) qualitative study in Finland found that pre-service teachers opted for extension from (3) to three-and-a-half-years (3 1/2) for theory and one (1) to one-and-a-half-years (1 1/2) for TP, resulting in a total course duration of five (5) years of their initial teacher training. According to Donnelly (2010:18), there is need to lengthen TP duration to enhance the professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education as some countries, including Spain, have more than 4 years for the B.Ed Degree. Similarly, Coady et al (2015:4) found that, in Florida, the degree course duration for the professional preparation of pre-service teachers was extended to an average of five years. In the same vein, in West Virginia, the professional preparation degree program of pre-service teachers was extended from four to five years to allow teacher trainees to have more time of contact with reality and practical challenges associated with the diversity of learners for inclusion in education (Cartwright et al, 2006:1). In Zimbabwe, Majoko's (2017) qualitative study revealed that pre-service teachers needed equal number of years of training on theory of education and teaching practice to balance their theoretical and practical professional grounding for inclusion in education. University graduate pre-service primary school teachers felt that the lengthening of the duration of their TP period could enhance their professional preparation for inclusion in education through affording them more time to practice learnt theory of the philosophy.

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers felt that regular supervision during TP could enhance their professional preparation for inclusion in education

through facilitating on the spot support and the dissemination of relevant information to them. This is consistent with CHAT, which advances that the division of labour in an activity system, is a critical element that mediates the relationship existing between the community and the object as different subjects occupy contingent roles in order to realize their intended and desired outcome (Foot, 2014:8). Jones et al (2014:12) also found that within a community, there is a given division of labour with responsibilities and power constantly negotiated. This finding resonates with the classroom management practice of teachers for increasing positive behaviour of learners in the classroom (Korpershoek et al., 2014). Similarly, Columbia et al. (2009:180) established that good classroom management is positively associated with academic achievement of learners, school success and healthy development of learners. According to UNESCO (1994:24), classroom management is one of the key duties that regular classroom teachers should undertake in the educational process to support learners within a classroom setting. Donnelly and Watkins' (2011:341) qualitative study in Finland also found that stakeholders including school administrators and mentors collaboratively visited teacher trainees on TP frequently to improve their professional preparation for inclusion in education. University graduate pre-service primary school teachers felt that supervisors' regular visits of teacher trainees on TP could enhance their professional preparation for inclusion in education through affording them timely interventions.

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers perceived that their training in the theory and practice of teaching strategies for learners with disabilities for inclusion in education could enhance their professional preparation for the philosophy through equipping them to respond to the diversity of these learners. This aligns with CHAT, which advances the use of instruments (teaching strategies) that mediate or influence achievement of an object and the outcome (Nussbaumer, 2012:39). Similarly, Waitoller and Kozleski (2013:35) postulate that practical or conceptual tools mediate how individual subjects attain an object and outcome in an activity system. Sharma et al. (2014:6) found that Pakistan universities train teachers on teaching strategies in both special education programs and general education programs founded on developing in them a wide range of skills to address the individuality of learners with diverse

disabilities. Similarly, Blume et al. (2019:4) established that at the Leuphana University in Luneburg, Germany, the professional preparation of pre-service teachers includes equipping them with teaching strategies for learners with diverse categories of disabilities in regular classrooms. University graduate pre-service primary school teachers felt that their professional preparation in the theory and practice of teaching strategies for children with disabilities could foster in them prerequisite knowledge and skills premised on praxis to meet the individuality of learners with diverse disability categories for inclusion education.

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers felt that their training in the management of learners with disabilities could enhance their professional preparation for inclusion in education through developing in them the competence to adapt to the behaviour of these learners. This aligns with CHAT that requires institutional activity to emphasize management of learners through the provision of teaching strategies for active adoption of inclusion in education in line with the international model practices (Kafedzic et al, 2010:12). Consistent research reveals that teachers' adaptation to learners involves changes, made in both special needs education and general education that allow learners to meet set objectives in inclusive settings where learners with diverse and unique needs have often experienced challenges (Kurth, 2013:35).

In Northeast USA, a qualitative study by Sahin and Yorek (2009:19) revealed that, learners with visual impairment easily mastered abstract science concepts because of classroom environmental adaptation that included the provision of stuffed animal figures, rocks, embossed maps and talking computers needed for tactual and more hands-on experiences. Similarly, a quantitative study by Perales (2019:39) of Spanish primary school children established that the use of vertical enrichment by teachers as part of their instructional adaptation increased the performance of learners who were gifted, talented and creative. Previous research established that teachers, as managers of the educational process, should support learners with resources at their disposal in regular educational settings (UNESCO, 1994:24). Brooke's (2014:4) study in Malawi established that pre-service teachers lacked the knowledge to manage learners with disabilities and instructional skills needed for inclusion in education. Hasher and

Hagenauer (2016:15), similarly, found that the lack of knowledge and skills in management of learners with disabilities in regular classrooms by pre-service teachers interfered with the teaching and learning in these settings since they adopted teacher-centered and not child-centered lessons.

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers felt that their training on making and keeping teaching and learning records could enhance their professional preparation for inclusion in education through fostering in them knowledge and skills to use these records for service delivery to learners with and without unique needs. This resonates with co-designing in CHAT, which holds that actors co-design educational programs and artifacts for their meaningful utilization in an activity system. Previous studies also established that pre-service teachers needed to be actively involved in designing educational programs which ultimately developed in them a sense of ownership of the system whose ideas they were prepared to defend (Dolonen, 2014:4). Young (2018:224) asserts that teacher education should equip pre-service teachers with skills of preparing teaching and learning records, including the development of IEPs for inclusion in education. Similarly, Dolonen (2014:5) postulates that teachers are fundamental co-designers of features they regard as critical for inclusion in education. University graduate pre-service primary school teachers believed that training on the preparation of teaching and learning records could enhance their professional preparation for inclusion in education through facilitating their documentation of teaching and learning content, process, environment and assessment and use of such documentation to inform their delivery of services in practicing the philosophy.

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers believed that training on inclusion in education could enhance their professional preparation for it through equipping them with skills and competencies to serve learners with diverse and unique needs. This aligns with CHAT that views human activity as purposeful and achievable through actions that involve the use of tools (Clemmensen et al, 2016:2). Georg (2011:2) similarly postulates that human activity is never isolated hence it occurs in context and is in turn influenced by culturally mediated tools. In the same vein, past research reveals that teachers should think during the course of their actions while at

the same time engaging in a deeper meditation about their interventions in the teaching-learning process (Pellerin & Paukner, 2015:48). A qualitative case study by Pellerin and Paukner (2015:46) in Chile found that reflection empowered teachers to be vibrant catalysts of pedagogical transformation through their own actions as these teachers pointed out the need for reflection in establishing new ways and habits of inquiry about their own pedagogical practices.

Contrarily, a mixed methods study in Western Australia by Main and Hammond (2008:28) established that, while teachers should have more opportunities to reflect on their experiences and share their best practices after observing and identifying critical features of classroom management in educational settings, reflection was not sustainable as teachers were deficient of its pre-requisite skills. In South Africa, Pakistan and Brazil, Thomas' (2016:45) qualitative study established that, pre-service teachers needed training and development of a deep knowledge of inclusion in education. Similarly, York et al. (2016:11) observed that the Niagara university professional preparation programme of teachers involved in-depth training on knowledge of inclusion in education. University graduate pre-service primary school teachers felt that their training on inclusion in education in their initial teacher training could enhance their professional preparation for the philosophy through equipping them to address child diversity.

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers felt that their training on preparation of teaching and learning media, including its design, could enhance their professional preparation for inclusion in education through facilitating their use of it to mediate education. This finding aligns with CHAT which is embedded in transformative development (Lund & Eriksen, 2016:58) which entails the realisation of a collective object through applying practical skills to use cultural tools to prepare mediating tools (teaching and learning media). Human activity is also practically oriented, socially constructed, and culturally mediated, as CHAT requires change or transformation of the approaches of the subject to the object. Similarly, Stilz and Wissenbach (2016:3) established that the widespread use of ICT, including internet and mobile phones, supports inclusivity in education. In the USA, Gomez et al's (2008:117) exploratory

study found that pre-service teachers used a variety of ICT inclusive of word processors, spreadsheets, presentation managers, e-mail, web-browsers, text-based conferencing as well as audio and video conferencing for inclusion in education. Video tools enabled pre-service teachers to reflect on their own practices as well as those of others in the profession.

Contrarily, in Spain, Batanero et al's (2018:332) quantitative study established that teachers lacked the training and knowledge of different types of technologies applicable to learners with disabilities, which interfered with inclusion in education. Previous studies also established that in Spain, pre-service teacher educators lacked training and knowledge of different types of media such as technologies that teachers could use for inclusion in education (Batanero et al. 2018:332). Conversely, Gomez et al's (2008:117) qualitative study found that pre-service teachers in the USA had professional training in preparation and use of various ICT media for inclusion in education. University graduate pre-service primary school teachers felt that their professional preparation on designing and use of teaching and learning media could develop in them the competencies and skills to use it to address the diversity of learners for inclusion in education.

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers felt that allocating more teaching and learning time in the module on the theory of inclusion in education could enhance their professional preparation for the philosophy. They felt that this could be realized through reducing the number of modules to be taught and ultimately necessitating their learning of comprehensive theory on inclusion during their initial teacher education. This aligns with international practice as some other nations, including Florida (Coady et al, 2015:4), Finland, Portugal, Iceland, France, Spain (Donnelly, 2010:18) and West Virginia (Cartwright et al, 2006:1) have since extended degree course durations for professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education. Similarly, Donnelly's (2011:18) study in Europe established that, pre-service teachers welcomed an increase in course duration as it added to the teachers' status while at the same time increasing their time for detailed learning and practice of inclusion in education. In the same vein, Walton's (2017:120) study in South African universities established that, four years for professional preparation of pre-

service teachers was a barrier to the realization of inclusion in education. This finding aligns with the integrated or unified teacher training model in which regular and special education course content are coherently integrated and presented in a manner that requires all regular and special educators in every course to take responsibility to encourage inclusive practices as they collaboratively work to reduce duplication of course content and encourage teacher trainees' application of techniques to support a diverse range of learners (Nketsia, 2016:45; O'Neill, Bourke & Kearney, 2009:590).

Wallace and Georgina's (2014:165) quantitative survey in Minnesota found that the integration of regular and special education course content positively impacted on teachers' lesson delivery as it facilitated their engagement with learners given the knowledge and skills they acquired from the program, thereby promoting inclusion in education. Contrarily, in Egypt, Alshamy's (2016:281) mixed method case study found that integration of regular and special education course content produced gaps in instructional service delivery which could however be minimized by the teachers' effort and intentional strategies of addressing the diverse needs of different learners.

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers perceived that their training on comprehensive theory of inclusion in education could enhance their professional preparation for the philosophy through fostering in them the pre-requisite dispositions and competencies. This resonates with meaning making in CHAT that asserts that all social action in a shared social environment is aimed at meaning-making (Jones, Edwards & Tuim, 2014:7). Consistently, Anderson and Stillman (2013:1) reveal that in CHAT, human activity is not an individual meaning making but a collective activity system. Andrews' (2002:27) study in the Phoenix, USA, observed that pre-service teachers needed detailed knowledge of inclusion in education issues to generalize beyond classroom teaching and learning. Similarly, Hasche and Hagenauer's (2016:15) study found that teacher trainees who are taught meaningful educational theory rendered more support to the teaching and learning of children for inclusion in education. In the same vein, Ruff (2018:6) asserts that inclusion in education is realized through human interaction meant to transform practically human intentions through a complex system of multiple interpretations across levels and sites of policy enactment

and implementation (Ruff, 2018:6). In Saudi Arabia, Murray and Alqahtani's (2015:57) quantitative survey established that most teachers were unable to practice inclusion in education as they lacked knowledge on its policy and legislation including the Saudi Arabia Constitution that protects the rights of children with disabilities. It was perceived that the provision of comprehensive theory of inclusion in education to pre-service teachers could enhance their professional preparation for the philosophy through facilitating evidence-based practice of it.

University graduate pre-service primary school teacher believed that the nurturance of a positive relationship between lecturers and teacher trainees could enhance the professional preparation of the latter for inclusion in education. It was felt that positive relationships could result in hard work on the part of the teacher trainees and lecturers' ultimately awarding them of deserving marks that could motivate them to be professionally prepared for inclusion in education. This aligns with inter-connectedness of internalization and externalization in CHAT that postulates that the development of an individual in an activity system is a factor of dialogical engagement (Dolonen, 2014:6) between lecturer and teacher trainees within a culture where the lecturer should competently supervise and monitor what teacher trainees externalize. Barhoumi (2015:224), similarly, asserts that externalization is a social context of a system and a community level of an activity system where all subjects in a community are collaboratively involved in the activity system.

Contrarily, Apolot et al's (2018: 16) qualitative study established that Ugandan teacher trainees experienced a lack of respect from their lecturers resulting in teacher trainees, in turn, not respecting their lecturers. Similarly, in Ghana, Owusu and Brown's (2014:27) case study found that pre-service teachers complained of victimization by their lecturers leading to hatred towards some lecturers. According to Honeyman (2016:46), pre-service teachers need to closely and cooperatively work with expert teachers whom they observe in real classroom settings apart from their lecturers. Consistently, Donnelly's (2011:34) quantitative survey of 14 European nations established that, while in Latvia TP was an opportunity for pre-service teachers to develop skills of evaluating, making sound decisions and becoming responsive to diverse needs, in Spain TP

promoted reflection under mentorship of both a professional and an academic tutor. Similarly, in Finland, teachers reported the need for a close and positive partnership between universities and schools if pre-service teachers were to optimally benefit from TP experiences. Nurturance of a positive relationship between lecturers and teacher-trainees could result in a community of practice between them resulting in enhancement of the professional preparation of the latter for inclusion in education.

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers perceived that their reception of TP allowance could enhance their professional preparation for inclusion in education through enabling them to buy media to use in their teaching and learning that could foster in them positive dispositions and competencies on the philosophy. Similarly, Ingvarson et al (2014:61) established that in Taipei, the Chinese government generously pays pre-service teachers who pass the first year of the university programme. In the same vein, in Finland, the same study established that conditions of both training and service of teachers is lucrative as the Finnish government pays its teachers better salaries in comparison to other countries. Mudungwe's (2016:87) qualitative study in Zimbabwe revealed that, while university trainees were not paid, those in teachers' colleges receive some allowances though inadequate to meet the financial demands of their professional preparation programmes.

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers felt that standardised supervision during TP could enhance their professional preparation for inclusion in education through lecturers' recognition of their hard work and motivating them through awarding encouraging overall assessment marks. This is consistent with the principle of rules in CHAT that advocates for guidelines that regulate activities in an activity system (Barhoumi, 2015:224). Lampert-Shepel (2008: 214), similarly, postulates that an activity is a socially constructed and culturally mediated human action where rules mediate interactions between the community and the subject. This finding aligns with Gursoy et al. (2013:192) who established that in Turkey, pre-service teachers demanded standardized TP supervision as they believed that its effectiveness was determined by the quality of feedback given after assessment which was often poor due to inadequate observations. Similarly, Owusu and Brown's (2014:27) study found that the Ghanaian

pre-service teachers complained of improper grading procedures by some supervisors, resulting in development of dislike for some supervisors, which affected the overall quality of TP supervision and assessment. Standardization of supervision of TP could enhance the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education through guaranteeing the quality of their assessment.

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers felt that their placement in special schools, for their TP during their initial training, could develop in them skills for addressing needs of children with specific disabilities that could enhance their professional preparation for inclusion in education. This resonates with CHAT which requires collaborative culture of subjects of an activity for the realisation of a shared outcome (Bloomfield & Nguyen, 2015:31). Lund and Erikson (2016:64) also assert that partnerships are pivotal in attaining quality professional preparation of pre-service teachers hence teacher education institutions should collaborate with schools where their teacher-trainees are on attachment. In the same vein, previous studies established that the placement of teacher trainees in special schools during teaching practice affords them the opportunity to establish and acquire practical teaching competence, professional readiness and maturity (Baek& Ham, 2009:2). Similarly, Hildebrandtz et al's (2013:15) study in Texas found that teacher education universities placed pre-service teachers in special schools or inclusive settings for TP prior to teaching children to afford them an opportunity to have first-hand experience of understanding their profession in a real classroom setting. In the same vein, Melnick and Meister's (2008:39) qualitative study revealed that pre-service teachers who were placed in special schools during their TP, had an opportunity to actively interact with children with diverse and unique needs, and experienced a feel of practical challenges associated with learner diversity. University graduate pre-service teachers with the experience of teaching practice in special schools during their professional preparation could be equipped with praxis of inclusion in education.

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers perceived that the offering of a module on inclusion in education as an infused subject in their training could enhance their professional preparation for the philosophy through fostering in them the requisite

competency. This aligns with the CHAT principle of contradiction, which postulates that contradictions are the main drivers of change and development of activity systems (Danish, 2018:2). Similarly, Georg (2011:2) opines that, contradictions among activities provide tension needed to cause evolution and these contradictions are historically accumulating structural tensions that take place both within and beyond activity systems. In Botswana, Mukhopadhyay et al's (2009:51) qualitative study established that the merged model was used for professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education. Fullerton et al's (2011:45) qualitative study also found that Portland merges regular and special education content in the professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education. Similarly, the merged model of teacher education infuses regular and special education into a single pre-service curriculum designed in such a manner that all course content focuses on a diverse learner population inclusive of those with disabilities (Naukkarinen, 2010:192; Turner, 2009:1).

In the same vein, Mukhopadhyay et al. (2009:51) established that Botswana uses the merged model of teacher education in the professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion that equips them to meet the individual learning needs of diverse learners. According to Fragouli and Rokka (2017:753), in Greece, the varied activities of the merged model of teacher education for inclusion offers greater flexibility for pre-service teachers to gain new knowledge and diverse skills on strategies to deliver teaching and learning content. Inversely, Akbaba and Baskan's (2017:1) quantitative study in Turkey established that the merged model of teacher education for inclusion did not bring total success in knowledge acquisition as ironing out details of a collaborative course was time-consuming in addition to demanding fast exchange of ideas to get solutions to unexpected problems that cropped-up. University graduate pre-service primary school teachers felt that the infusion of the theory on inclusion in education in all modules could enhance their professional preparation for inclusion in education through making it a cross-cutting theme for their professional preparation.

University graduate pre-service primary school teachers felt that their specialist training could enhance their professional preparation for inclusion in education through

equipping them with positive dispositions and competencies to address the diversity of children with and without disabilities in regular classes. This aligns with the CHAT element of the division of labour which postulates that, in any human activity system, division of activities amongst actors is unavoidable and critical (Barhoum, 2015:224) as it mediates interactions between the community and the object (Georg, 2011:2). Past research also found that ordinary schools should accommodate all learners irrespective of diversity where teachers are the managers of the educational process, supporting children in regular classrooms (UNESCO, 1994:24). Kumar's (2017:535) qualitative study, similarly found that in India, specialist teachers are trained to teach learners with disabilities in the regular classes. Contrarily, Mkandawire and Maphale (2016:182) established that Malawi "has not been training special needs education teachers for so long" while Lesotho teachers have not received "any training with regard to students with disabilities". Specialist training of university pre-service primary school teachers could enhance their professional preparation through fostering in them skills to cater for children with disabilities in regular classrooms.

7.6 Summary of chapter

In the current chapter, findings from this study were thematically discussed. University graduate pre-service primary school teachers who trained at the same university in the same cohort studying the same B.Ed Honour's Degree in Education curriculum for primary school education revealed divergent misunderstanding of inclusion in education. This divergence was chiefly attributed to the training university's professional preparation of primary school teachers for integration of diverse learners particularly those with disabilities and not for inclusion in education. Thus, their training had a special needs education orientation derived from their core module. While university graduate pre-service primary school teachers who participated in this study may not have been taught comprehensive theory on inclusion in education, they demonstrated varied practice of it. These teachers made use of practices that were in the context of their environments based on the content that they gleaned from both the core and generic modules that they were taught during their initial professional training. The chapter also discussed findings on strategies that university graduate pre-service

primary school teachers proposed that are grounded in individual and institutional capacity building that could enhance their professional preparation for inclusion in education. The subsequent chapter will present the summary, conclusions and recommendations from the study.

CHAPTER 8: SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

8.1 Introduction

This study examined the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe as the context for proposing strategies to enhance their professional preparation. The previous chapter presented a discussion of the findings of the study. This chapter presents the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study. This includes a review of the background to the study that was presented in Chapter one, review of the theoretical framework for this study presented in Chapter two, review of the related international literature on inclusion in education and the professional preparation of pre-service teachers presented in Chapter three, review of the related Zimbabwean literature on inclusion in education and the professional preparation of pre-service teachers presented in Chapter four, review of the research methodology and design presented in Chapter five, review of the presentation and analysis of the study's findings presented in Chapter six and a review of the discussion of the study's findings presented in Chapter seven.

8.2 Review of the background of the study

The background of the study has revealed that in 1994, the world shifted in paradigm from the exclusivity to inclusivity in education in accord with the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (UNESCO, 1994) (Eunice, Nyangia & Orodho, 2015:39; Majoko, 2017:671). The statement reaffirmed the fundamental human right to education for all individuals as enshrined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UN, 1948) and reaffirmed the pledge made by the global community at the World Conference on Education for All (UNESCO, 1990) to guarantee that right for all regardless of individual differences (Donnelly & Watkins, 2011). The Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (UNESCO, 1994) is in compliance with civil rights movements as enshrined in several other global and African regional human rights instruments on or related to inclusion in education. These include the Convention on the Rights of the Child (UN, 1989), the

World Declaration on the Education for All (EFA) (UN, 1990), the Convention on the Rights of the Child (UN, 1989), the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of the Child (OAU, 1990) and the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (UN, 2006). The worldwide adoption of inclusion in education in 1994 culminated in several countries institutionalizing several measures in support of the philosophy including the passage and enforcement of relevant policies, legislation and guidelines on or related to it. These include the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 and the Public Law 108-446 of 2004 in the USA, the Disability Standard for Education of 2005 in Australia (Forlin et al, 2013:4), the Education Act: 58:01 of 2002 in Botswana (Mukhopadhyay, 2013:74), the Law 62 of 2000 in Italy (Petrella, 2012:7), the Education White Paper 6 of 2001 of South Africa (Mumford, 2013:72) and the Right to Education Act of 2009 in India (Kohama, 2012:26). Zimbabwe also adopted inclusion in education in 1994 in alignment with the foregoing international human rights instruments and passed several pro-inclusion policies and legislation (Musengi & Chireshe, 2012:107). These include the Zimbabwe Education Act of 1987 as amended in 1996 and 2006 respectively (Wadesango et al, 2012:528:), the Disabled Persons Act of 1996 and the Zimbabwe Constitution Amendment Number 20 of 2013, Section 75 (Mutswanga & Mapuranga, 2014:59; GoZ, 2015:14).

In spite of the institutionalization and enforcement of the foregoing global and African regional human rights instruments on or related to inclusion in education among others, several factors interfere with its practice. These include the lack of awareness and knowledge, tension among authority figures, large class sizes, lack of policy and legal support, inadequate resources and facilities, inadequate teacher training in inclusive thinking and techniques, rigid curriculum and unsupportive school and district leadership as well as socio-cultural attitudes towards school and disability (Schuelka, 2018; Hui Ng, 2015:32). There is also a contention that, although policies and structures are in existence, they are not always effective, for instance, members of the District-Based-Support Teams in South Africa lack professional preparation for inclusion in education (Nel et al., 2016:1).

The background of the study has also revealed that, several countries are in pursuit of teacher education for inclusion in education to support the practice of the philosophy. For instance, Finland (Sahlberg, 2010:2), Malaysia (Saad et al., 2013:674), Germany (Blume et al., 2019:4), Ghana (Nketsia et al., 2016:7), South Africa (Majoko & Pasha, 2018) and Botswana (Mongwaketse & Mokhopadhyay, 2013:37) professionally prepare and develop teachers for inclusion in education at college and university levels. Consistently, Zimbabwe mandates the initial professional training and development of teachers for inclusion in education in its universities and teachers' training colleges (Chireshe, 2011:157; Majoko, 2018:2). At least 11 primary school teachers' training colleges and six universities provide pre-service and in-service training to teachers for inclusion in education at diploma and degree levels (Majoko, 2019:2).

The background of the study has also shown that since the adoption of inclusion in education in 1994, significant numbers of children with diverse and unique needs including those with disabilities are educated in regular schools in different countries including Greece (Pappas, Papoutsi & Drigas, 2018:5), Australia (Forlin, et al, 2013:17), Indonesia (Lian et al., 2007:6), Saudi Arabia (Alawfi, 2017:5), Kenya, Ethiopia and Uganda (UNICEF,2016:41). The increase in percentages however differs from one country to another (Vislie, 2008:24). In sync with the international fraternity, Zimbabwe has also resulted in over 150 000 children with diverse categories of disabilities out of about 600 000 being catered for in mainstream classrooms (Chakuchichi, 2013:1; Charema & Eloff, 2011:17). All educational provinces in Zimbabwe have reported a significant increase in the number of children with diverse and unique needs in regular classrooms (Majoko, 2018). However, physical access does not mean inclusion in education as the philosophy encompasses other aspects such as equality, equity, quality, social justice, democratic values, unity and celebration of diversity in education (Majoko, 2017:32; Sharma et al, 2006:8; Norwich, 2013:9; Rofrano, 2007: 56).

The background of the study has also revealed that in various countries, several researchers have examined the professional preparation of graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education and established inconsistent findings. These include India (Abdul & Muhammed, 2009:5), Jordan (Fayez et al., 2011), North

Carolina (Jewell et al, 2008:159), Bosnia and Herzegovina (Kafedzic et al., 2010:3), Malawi (Brooke, 2014:4), Tanzania (Kapinga, 2014:14) and China (Malinen et al., 2012). Zimbabwe too, had similar studies with different findings, including Jenjekwa et al.(2013:21), Mafa and Chaminuka (2012:36), Musengi and Chireshe (2012:107), Majoko (2017) and Chireshe (2013:223). Because of the inconsistent findings of the above-mentioned studies, among others, on the professional preparation of teachers for inclusion in education, this study examined the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe as the context for proposing strategies to enhance their professional preparation.

8.3 Review of the theoretical framework

CHAT which is a combination of psychological and sociological ideas that reveal the nature of human activities in social, cultural, historical and educational contexts (Walt & Wolhuter, 2018:116) underpinned this study. From an educational perspective, these human activities occur in an activity system where an activity is defined by Shepel (2008:214) as a social construct that is mediated by culture. Complementary and supplementary elements of artifacts, the subject, rules, community, division of labour, objective and the outcome as well as its core principles of historicity, orientedness of the object, multi-voicedness and tensions promoting expansive learning constitutes CHAT. In this study, artifacts are the tools (modules, lectures, TP assessment, etc.) used by university lecturers (the subjects) to achieve an outcome (inclusive teacher). The human activity undertaken by subjects is their common objective (graduate pre-service primary school teacher professional preparation for inclusion in education). The activity takes place in a community (teacher training university) according to the set rules (national policies and legislation on teacher education for inclusion in education) guiding the deed as well as the conduct between lecturers and teacher trainees.

Division of labour implies that different stakeholders, inclusive of university administrators, lecturers, quality assurers and deans play different roles such as designing degree programs, mediating (interacting with) the object through teaching and supervision, monitoring degree programs and manning faculties respectively. According

to Engestrom (2001:136), orientedness of an activity involves all artifacts mediating individual actions undertaken by actors in an activity system. Historicity concerns an activity system being understood in its historical context that is characterized by past, personal and socio-cultural experiences that influence it (Hancock & Miller, 2017:5). Multi-voicedness of an activity system means that, an activity system usually has a community of multiple points of view, traditions and interests of different actors (Barhoumi, 2015:224; Hancock & Miller, 2017:4). Expansive learning occurs when tensions between communities arise leading to transformation of an activity when the object and motive of the activity are re-conceptualized (Lund & Eriksen, 2016:58) thus, contradictions in an activity system are potential sources of transformation. The study examined the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe embedded in these principles of CHAT, among others, as it is executed in its historical and social-cultural context to inform its enhancement.

8.4 Review of related international literature on inclusion in education and the professional preparation of pre-service teachers

The review of related international literature revealed inconsistent findings regarding teachers' understanding of inclusion in education, pre-service teachers' practices of inclusion in education and the strategies that could enhance the professional preparation of pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education. The term inclusion in education has been established to have taken multiple meanings across the globe leading to conceptual confusion in understandings of the philosophy and interpretations since its use in educational discourses is fairly recent (Norwich, 2013:9; (Miles & Singal, 2008:9). Differences in perceiving inclusion in education have also resulted from the traditional and contemporary mixture of established values of equal opportunity, social respect and solidarity, access and quality, equity and social justice, democratic values and participation and unity and diversity in education (Norwich, 2013:9).

The majority of teachers in the previous studies understood inclusion in education as a philosophical and methodological approach that refers to securing and guaranteeing the fundamental human right of all children to access, presence, participation and success in teaching and learning in their neighbourhood regular schools regardless of their individual differences. According to Mukhopadhyay and Musengi (2012:9), teachers understand inclusion in education as the provision of support services and resources that facilitate the participation of learners with diverse and unique needs in mainstream schools. Some teachers in the USA understood inclusion in education as teaching learners with disabilities in the community of their typically developing peers in regular classrooms (Liggins, 2016). In Canada, teachers understood inclusion in education as the contemporary and normal way of embracing diversity through provision of a mainstream school teaching and learning environment that caters for all learners irrespective of their diversity (Richmond et al., 2013:198).

Teachers in Japan understood inclusion in education as an extension of the pedagogical environment of the school to provide education to learners who experience barriers to learning in resource units (Sanai, 2016:103) while in Tanzania teachers lacked its understanding and felt under qualified to teach learners with diverse and unique needs in their regular classrooms (Udoba, 2014:63). In the USA, Hong Kong, Canada and India, teachers understood inclusion in education as meeting the educational needs of all learners enrolled in the regular classroom irrespective of their diversity (Forlin et al., 2011:50). Some teachers in Malaysia understood inclusion in education as interaction occurring amongst learners with disabilities and their peers without developmental delays in regular classrooms (Ali et al., 2006:36). On the whole, the international literature revealed that globally, understanding of inclusion in education differs from country to country and within countries. Thus, this study examined the understanding of inclusion of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers in Zimbabwe.

The review of related international literature also revealed that teachers practiced inclusion in regular classrooms differently. Their different practices were based on the premise that mainstream schools should adapt the curriculum to address the diversity of

learners in these settings (Guojonsdottir & Oskarsdottir, 2016:5). Teachers used co-teaching, UDL, collaboration, differentiation of instruction, guided notes, culturally and linguistically responsive pedagogy, parental involvement, individualization, active learner engagement and classroom management and adaptation for inclusion in mainstream classes. According to Press et al (2010:43), various factors inclusive of the size of the class, number of learners with diverse and unique needs, as well as the type and nature of their unique needs influences the utility of these practices. This study examined the practices of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe in view of the different practices between and within countries.

The review of related international literature further revealed various strategies that could enhance the professional preparation of pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education. These included the institutionalization of the use of ICT, clear and specific policies and legislation, reflection of teachers, the provision of TP, merging special and regular education and the use of an integrated model. This study examined strategies that could enhance the professional preparation of graduate pre-service teachers for inclusion in education since the reviewed literature revealed that the strategies are unique to countries and teacher education universities.

8.5 Review of the Zimbabwean literature on inclusion in education and the professional preparation of pre-service teachers

The review of the Zimbabwean literature has revealed that, though WHO (2004;2012) estimated that Zimbabwe has about 10 percent of children with a disability, the country lacks current and comprehensive national statistics on learners with disabilities since different studies on the subject are inconsistent (Majoko, 2017:672). In several countries, including Zimbabwe, the treatment of persons with disabilities has passed through several eras (Fryson & Cromby, 2013:1164; Staniland, 2011:17), including extermination (Wagithunu, 2014:117), ridicule (Fryson & Cromby, 2013:1165), social conscience or asylum (Staniland, 2011:18), special education (Norwitz, 2016:3) characterized by institutionalization and integration (Sibanda, 2015:186; Mubika, 2011:313) and normalization (Chaurasia, 2014:1; Konza, 2008:39). With the realization

by human rights movements that integration perpetuated exclusion (Winzer, 2006:30), the world adopted inclusion in education in compliance with the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (UN, 1994; Eunice et al., 2015:40). To address the educational imbalances that manifested from British colonial rule, Zimbabwe adopted inclusion in education in line with democratic principles and human rights enshrined in its constitution (Majoko, 2016) and in alignment with the international fraternity (Chitiyo & Wheeler, 2004; Chitiyo, 2006; Majoko, 2013).

The review of the Zimbabwean literature further revealed that Zimbabwe passed various pro-inclusion legislation and policies including the Secretary of Education Policy Circular Minutes No. P12 and P36 of 1987 and No. P36 of 1990 which call for access to basic primary education for all children regardless of disability, race, gender, religion or doctrine (Mutepfa et al, 2007:342; Musengi & Chireshe, 2012:107); the Director's Circular No. 1 and No. 2 of 2001; the Education Act of 1996 as revised in 2006; the Disabled Persons' Act of 1992 as amended in 1996 and the Zimbabwe Constitution Amendment No. 20 of 2013, Section 75. These mandate the right of people with disabilities in Zimbabwe to equal care, employment, education and health, among other rights (Mutepfa et al., 2007; Ncube & Hlatywayo, 2014; Charema & Eloff, 2011; Samkange, 2013).

The review of the Zimbabwean literature has also revealed that the current education system of Zimbabwe spans from ECD to university level. It constitutes three distinct phases, namely, primary education, secondary education, and higher and tertiary education (Kanyongo, 2005:67). The MoPSE and the MoHTES&TD manage these phases (World Data on Education, 2011:3). While the former ministry's curricula are designed by the Curriculum Development Unit (CDU), the latter ministry designs its curricula in consultation with other stakeholders under the watchdog of ZIMCHE (Kanyongo, 2005:68). The MoHTES&TD constitutes 12 universities, nine polytechnic colleges and 12 teachers' training colleges (Education for All, 2015). According to the Zimbabwe National Statistical Agency (2013), while universities award degrees (bachelors, honours, masters and doctoral degrees), colleges award diplomas and certificates.

The review of the related Zimbabwean literature has further revealed that, in pursuit of the professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education, Zimbabwe institutionalized several support initiatives (Chireshe, 2013:223). These include the establishment of a Department of Special Education at the United College of Education in Bulawayo in 1983 and the introduction of the Bachelor's Degree in Education including a component on special needs education in universities. Six universities in Zimbabwe offer professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education (Education for All, 2015) out of the 14 private and state universities (Hapanyengwi-Chemhuru, 2015:12). The pre-service teacher education curriculum was revised in 2001 in addition to promoting teacher development programs for those already in the service to enhance quality inclusion in education (Wadesango et al., 2012:528).

A review of the Zimbabwean literature has further revealed inconsistent findings regarding pre-service teachers' understanding of inclusion in education, pre-service teachers' practices of inclusion in education and the strategies that could enhance the professional preparation of pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education. The inconsistent findings are a result of educational, economic, social, political and cultural challenges, including limited awareness of concepts of learner diversity and disability, inadequate resources, inappropriate teacher training, lack of teacher motivation to practice inclusion in education because of poor remuneration, lack of specific policy and legislation on inclusion in education, negative attitudes of stakeholders towards inclusion in education because of a lack of its understanding, poor infrastructure and limited funding of inclusion in education because of the national economic crisis (Magumise & Sefotho, 2018:11; Chitiyo & Muwana, 2018:96; Majoko, 2018:351).

The majority of teachers in the previous studies in Zimbabwe understood inclusion in education from a human rights based perspective. For instance, some pre-service teachers understood inclusion in education as a strategy of empowering learners through non-selective provision of resources such as assistive devices for all learners including those with disabilities irrespective of their academic performance (Samkange,

2013). Other pre-service teachers understood inclusion in education as the practice of ubuntu/unhu in the teaching and learning process in regular classrooms of learners with and without disabilities (Chikwature et al., 2016). Some pre-service teachers understood inclusion in education from an African and European perspective as a philosophy that promotes achievement of diverse learners in regular classrooms (Majoko, 2017). Against this background, this study sought to ascertain the relevance of these findings.

The review of related international literature also revealed that teachers practiced inclusion in regular classrooms differently. Teachers used curriculum adaptation in order to promote equal educational opportunities (Chireshe, 2011), individualized instruction to meet the unique needs of diverse learners and environmental adaptations such as establishing ramps to accommodate learners with physical and motor disabilities (Samkange, 2013). Others paid more attention to one special learner during lesson delivery (Jenjekwa et al., 2013). Majoko (2017) established that teachers used inclusive pedagogy to optimize learning and accepted all learners premised on the belief that teaching children with disabilities in regular classrooms was their professional obligation. The study also established that teachers focused on the strengths and not deficits of learners, interacted with individual learners with special needs and were sensitive to the diversity of learners. This study examined the practices of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe in view of these different practices that were established in previous studies in the country.

The review of related Zimbabwean literature further revealed various strategies that could enhance the professional preparation of pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education. These included providing sufficient training that entails marrying theory and practice of inclusion in education; deploying students for TP in inclusive schools; training pre-service teachers in critical components of inclusion in education, inclusive of learner diversity, curriculum differentiation and strategies for management of inclusive educational settings. It was revealed that including disability issues in all curriculum subjects, training for understanding and acceptance of human diversity, socio-cultural aspects of disability in curriculum could enhance the professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education through developing in

them positive attitudes towards it. The literature reviewed also showed that, the establishment of partnerships of teacher education institutions with stakeholders such as parents, donors, universities and communities to solicit for needed human and material resources, could enhance the professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education. This study examined strategies that could enhance the professional preparation of graduate pre-service teachers for inclusion in education since the reviewed literature revealed that the strategies varied from school to school.

8.6 Review of the research methodology and design

8.6.1 Research paradigm

An interpretivist/constructivist paradigm underpinned this study. According to Denzin and Lincoln (2011:11), “a constructivist/interpretivist paradigm assumes a subjectivist epistemology where the knower and the respondent co-create understandings.” Interpretivist/ constructivist provide an in-depth understanding of reality through first hand experiences, honest reporting and real quotations of insiders’ views (Antwi & Hamza, 2015:219). The interpretive research paradigm aligns with the qualitative research approach as it advances that the researcher is the primary instrument in data collection and analysis (Merriam, 2009:15). I collected data using individual interviews, non-participant observations, document analysis and follow-up discussions with individual participants. According to Creswell (2009:176), qualitative research is an inquiry-based interpretation of what researchers observe, hear or perceive in the context of their own historical backgrounds. Thus, the constructivist/interpretivist paradigm is premised on the belief that, knowledge of reality is an entity constructed and hidden in the mind of an individual (Creswell, 2014:6) whose meaning must be revealed through one’s interaction with the environment. Thus, the professional preparation of graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe was understood from their individual perspectives and experiences.

8.6.2 Research approach

In the current study, a qualitative research approach was chosen which is a blue-print of the steps taken in executing a study using specified methods of data collection,

analysis, and interpretation (Creswell, 2014:31). A research approach is essentially a blueprint for the collection, measurement and analysis of data since the term 'qualitative' suggests the search for meanings instead of experimentation or search for quantities (Vohra, 2014:55; Denzin & Lincoln, 2005:10). According to Yin (2013: 9) "qualitative research strives to use multiple sources of evidence rather than relying on a single source alone". In the current study, I made use of four sources of data including individual interviews, non-participant observation, document analysis and follow-up discussions with individual participants to collect data from which I made an interpretation of what I heard during individual interviews and observed during non-participant lesson observations.

8.6.3 Research design

A case study research design was adopted in the current study which Yin (2009: 14) defines as a scientific study that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth within its socio-cultural context where there are no clear cut boundaries between phenomenon and context. Since education is a social discipline which calls for information gathering through case studies (Vohra, 2014:55), a case study research design was ideal to explore pre-service primary school teachers' constructions of teacher preparation as a social-contextual phenomenon. Moreover, a case study research design involves intensive analysis of an individual unit such as an organization leading to the researcher obtaining a deeper and holistic view of the research problem (Kumar, 2011:123; Yin, 2012:14). This study examined and understood the professional preparation of graduate pre-service teachers for inclusion in education from their individual perspectives and experiences.

8.6.4 Population

According to McMillan and Schumacher (2010:489), a population of a study is made up of all the individuals from which a sample is selected and to which the findings of a study can be generalized. The current study's population consisted of 221 pre-service primary school teachers of the 2013-2016 cohort from the participating public university in Zimbabwe.

8.6.5 Sampling

Typical case sampling was used in this study. Typical case sampling involves a researcher investigating an ideal setting or group of individuals making consultations with experts in the study area in order to agree on what is typical of the phenomenon to be studied (Omona, 2013:180). I investigated a public university that professionally prepares pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe. This university was the only university out of the nation's seven universities that trained pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education at degree level since its establishment (Coltart, 2013:3) at the time of study, hence its selection. I used typical case sampling to select 16 graduate pre-service primary school teachers who possessed the relevant information sought in this study as they all graduated with a B.Ed Honours Degree in primary school education from this university and all had the same years of teaching experience.

8.6.6 Data collection instruments

In this study, individual interviews, non-participant observations, document analysis and follow-up discussions with individual participants were used to collect data. Qualitative studies use multiple research instruments for triangulation of data (Creswell, 2012:33). The semi-structured individual interviews are in sync with the interpretive paradigm which is concerned with narrative descriptions of participants' multiple views (Lincoln & Lynham, 2011:5). This instrument helped me to get meanings behind the lived experiences of the study participants regarding their professional preparation for inclusion in education. I also made use of non-participant observation to collect data in this study. According to Kumar (2011:134), a researcher can passively gather data based on what he/she notices in real life. I took note of real lesson delivery by graduate pre-service teachers in their natural classrooms to explore their professional preparation for inclusion in education. I also used document analysis in this study. Document analysis entails gathering and reading written material which relates to the phenomenon under study (Yin, 2011:7). I further had follow-up discussions with the individual participants. In this study, documents were collected, analysed and interpreted by the

researcher on the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe.

8.6.7 Data collection procedure

In order to start data collection on the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe, I observed all research protocol for the face-to-face semi-structured individual interviews, non-participant observation, document analysis and follow-up discussions with individual participants. Good rapport is a prerequisite in qualitative research if a participant has to provide personal information on the studied phenomenon (Dawson, 2002). I cultivated good rapport with the participants through being appropriately dressed and punctual for scheduled interviews with their consent. For non-participant observations, the dates and times for the non-participant classroom lesson observation were agreed upon individually and in advance with the graduate pre-service primary school teachers. I carried out non-participant observations with the consent of all the participants, parents and children. Denzin and Lincoln's (2011: 3) assertion that, in a qualitative study, research participants are studied in their natural settings. Creswell (2014:240) states that a qualitative researcher can unobtrusively collect research data from documents. I observed one lesson per participant to ascertain professional preparation with respect to the content, process, environment and product of inclusion in education during delivery of lessons. I analysed the core module on Special Needs Education, generic modules, TP files, TP assessment forms, the university's academic regulations and learners' workbooks, with the permission of the concerned parties including children, parents and the participating teachers. These documents provided me with information on the professional preparation of graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education.

8.6.8 Data analysis

Braun and Clarke's (2006) six-step data analysis approach was used to analyse data from individual interviews, non-participant observation and document analysis. The steps included familiarising oneself with the data, generating initial codes, searching for themes, reviewing potential themes, defining and naming themes and lastly producing

the report (Braun & Clarke, 2012:5). During familiarisation, I read and re-read the transcriptions and also replayed recorded audios to acquaint myself with the data and verify the accuracy of transcriptions. Initial coding then followed using different colours to mark texts associated with each code. This reduces masses of data collected into manageable sizes of meaningful information (Flick, 2013:11). The search for themes followed. According to Braun and Clarke (2006:82), themes capture crucial data in relation to the research question, and represent patterned response or meaning within the data set. Descriptive themes which described recurring patterns in the data transcribed relevant to specific research sub-questions of this study then emerged from expressions of lived experiences of participants as regards their professional preparation for inclusion in education. Next in line was the stage of defining themes with a purpose of establishing the essence of what individual themes were all about. According to Maguire and Delahunt (2017:358), themes are required to be "...coherent and ...distinct from each other". All excerpts of interview responses relevant to each theme were grouped under each sub-theme to reveal the participants' expressions of their experiences. Finally, I compiled this in-depth and holistic description of the professional preparation of graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe based on their intended meanings.

8.6.9 Trustworthiness

According to Patton (2015:11), trustworthiness in qualitative research is the researcher's effort to make sure that study findings are accurate and detailed from the perspectives of participants. In this study, pillars of transferability, credibility, dependability, and confirmability were ensured. According to Creswell (2014:202), transferability, credibility, dependability and confirmability of study findings can be used to measure the study's trustworthiness. I ensured credibility of research findings through prolonged engagement (Mike, 2011:6) during individual interviews and observations to develop an in-depth understanding of the professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education. For participants to freely offer information during data collection through individual interviews, I developed and maintained a cordial relationship with them. Transcribed data was sent to participants for verification of their

contributions, promoting member-checking (Trochim & Donnelly, 2009:149). Dependability was realized through provision of a detailed and methodical report of each process undertaken (Yin, 2011:19) in this study. An extensive and thorough description of how data was gathered and analysed sets a stage for readers to assess the transferability of the study's findings to other similar situations (Kumar, 2011:172). Confirmability was ensured through submission of accurate and verbatim excerpts of views of participants who were identified by pseudonyms. Use of participants' own words and member-checking also ensured confirmability of the research findings.

8.6.10 Ethical considerations

Research ethics are the norms and values that guide the conduct of the researcher and study participants (American Psychological Association, 2010:1060). I provided all parties with a brief, clear and comprehensive research profile so as to get the permission required to execute the study. While it is significant that all researchers be aware of and observe research ethics, study participants should know their rights for a fair research process. Ethical issues observed in this study included permission, confidentiality, anonymity, informed consent, protection from harm and honesty with professional colleagues (Melbourne School of Psychological Sciences, 2015:1). These issues guarantee that studies are executed in the best interest of individual, organizational and institutional research participants. Researchers need to obtain the approval of the study participants, institutions and individual organizations prior to executing their studies (Neuman, 2011:116). In order to secure the approval of the research participants, I first sought and secured ethical clearance from the UNISA and Head Office of the MoHTES&TD and thereafter from the MoPSE of Zimbabwe. Then the participating university, primary school heads and their teachers were contacted and provided with approval letters before embarking on the investigation.

Ethical considerations were observed in this study. Any researcher should respect the right to confidentiality of the research participants (Leedy & Ormrod, 2009:129; Neuman, 2011:116). I informed participants first that the information they provided would not be disclosed. Individual interviews were carried out in classrooms of the

participants outside working hours so as not to interfere with their work and to avoid a third person over-hearing the dialogue. I thereafter secured all tape recordings for safe keeping in a cabinet and all soft copies of data gathered will be retained on a password protected computer in compliance with UNISA REC stipulations. It is an ethical obligation of any researcher to observe and maintain the right to anonymity of the research participants (Leedy & Ormrod, 2009:124). I used pseudonyms to identify study participants. Anonymity was also realized through thematic presentation of data rather than presenting their individual views. Informed consent demands research participants to volunteer participation in a study after being served with pre-requisite information regarding likely benefits or otherwise of participating (Grix, 2010:144; Neuman, 2011:116). All the participant pre-service teachers were informed about the reasons behind this study in addition to being informed that they were entitled to withdrawal from the study without being required to give reasons. Consent forms were issued to participants, requesting them to indicate their willingness to participate in this study. Study participants should not be exposed to undue physical or psychological harm (Creswell, 2009:96). All participants were not exposed to any form of harm such as ridicule, anger, insecurity, emotional torture and prejudice. Safety of participants was kept and maintained by observing and interviewing participants in their natural settings. According to Punch (2009:313), it is the ethical responsibility of any researcher to report study findings in a complete and honest manner without misrepresentation of facts. In this study, honest with professional colleagues was safeguarded through non-fabrication of data to support particular conclusions. Honesty was also realised by fully acknowledging any use of ideas of any individual, organization or institution in this study.

8.7 Summary of the findings of the study

This section summarises the study's findings and is presented around sub-headings derived from the research sub-questions. These were the teachers' understanding of inclusion in education, teachers' practices in inclusion in education and strategies that could enhance the professional preparation of graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education as reviewed in the subsequent section.

8.7. 1 Teachers' understanding of inclusion in education

Graduate pre-service primary school teachers in this study revealed divergent and limited understandings of inclusion in education. These included understanding of inclusion in education as adoption of an updated curriculum in response to changing needs of society, meeting diverse abilities and socio-economic statuses of learners, addressing diverse abilities and disabilities of learners in mainstream classrooms, placement of learners with and without disabilities in regular classes and integration of learners from diverse backgrounds in mainstream classrooms. Graduate pre-service primary school teachers also understood inclusion in education as mixed ability grouping, realisation of gender equality and equity in studying of school curriculum subjects of learners, integration of learners with disabilities in mainstream classrooms and support of learners with reading difficulties in mainstream classrooms. These different and limited understandings of inclusion in education resulted in their divergent practices of the philosophy in misalignment with its tenets including access, participation, acceptance and success of all learners in mainstream classrooms. This revealed the lack of professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education.

8.7.2 Teachers' practices in inclusion in education

Graduate pre-service primary school teachers in this study engaged in varied practices in inclusion in education. These included using picture and concrete media based teaching and learning; using individual, pair and group work during classroom activities; code-switching and baseline assessment; initial talking with learners; work differentiation; teaching from simple to complex as well as error shooting and content enrichment. They also re-organised the classroom sitting arrangement to accommodate learners with specific disabilities; voice projection, picture and letter magnification; teaching the previous grade's work and occupying learners experiencing barriers to learning with written work while proceeding with their peers without disabilities. Graduate pre-service teachers also extended teaching and learning time for learners who experienced barriers to learning and provided individual support to learners including those with learning disabilities and those with intellectual disability in order to

promote concept mastery. These teachers used practices that were embedded in the contexts of their environments, some of which were embedded in the tenets of inclusion in education including the pursuit for realisation of human rights and social justice in teaching and learning for all learners in mainstream classrooms.

8.7.3 Strategies that could enhance the professional preparation of graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education

Graduate pre-service primary school teachers who participated in this study revealed a combination of individual and institutional capacity building oriented strategies that could enhance their professional preparation for inclusion in education. These strategies were grounded in the Professional Studies and Educational Foundations Modules that they studied during their training as well as their experience during teaching practice. These strategies included lengthening TP duration, regular supervision during teaching practice, providing varied teaching strategies to cater for class diversity, training on how to manage learners with disabilities, training on preparation of teaching and learning records, training on inclusion in education, training on preparation of teaching and learning media and increasing training duration. They also felt that learning selected comprehensive theory, increasing contact hours to ensure teaching and learning of the content of the module, professionalism of lecturers during TP supervision, payment of TP allowances by the government, standardising TP supervision, placement in special schools during TP, offering an infused module on inclusion in education as well as offering specialist training to meet needs of diverse learners could enhance their professional preparation for inclusion in education.

8.8 Conclusions

This study examined the professional preparation of graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe as the context for proposing strategies to enhance their professional preparation. The professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe is a positive development towards addressing the unique needs of diverse learners who are significantly increasing in regular primary schools since the country shifted in paradigm from exclusivity to inclusivity in education in 1994 in compliance with international human

rights instruments inclusive of the Salamanca Statement and Framework for Action on Special Needs Education (UNESCO, 1994) and in alignment with several other countries. However, the university graduate pre-service primary school teachers lacked the professional preparation for inclusion in education as they revealed limited positive dispositions, knowledge, and skills to address the diversity of learners in mainstream primary schools.

The standalone core module on special needs education offered to pre-service primary school teachers seemed to afford them limited information related to conceptual understanding of inclusion in education. This was because their understanding of inclusion in education ranged from limited and divergent understandings of the philosophy to a complete lack of understanding of it. Besides the theory of the core module on special needs education, university graduate pre-service primary school teachers used the theory of the generic modules for practicing inclusion in education. Thus, the blend of the theory of the core module on special needs education and generic modules on mainstream education contributed to the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education. The socio-cultural-religious contexts and the niche area of the university that graduate pre-service primary school teachers studied at influenced their theory and practice of inclusion in education. It can be concluded that university graduate pre-service primary school teachers practiced inclusion in education in the contexts of their environments. While the graduate pre-service teachers who participated in this study lacked the theory on inclusion in education since they revealed divergent understandings of it, it can also be concluded that, the lack of theory on inclusion in education does not guarantee failure to practice it in regular classrooms since university graduate pre-service primary school teachers had positive attitudes towards inclusion in education and practiced it based on theory of regular education.

8.9 Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study, recommendations are made on the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in

education. The recommendations presented in this section are in direct response to the research sub-questions of this study, namely:

- How do pre-service primary school teachers who graduated from a public university in Zimbabwe understand inclusion in education?
- What are the practices of inclusion in education of pre-service primary school teachers who graduated from a public university in Zimbabwe?
- What strategies can enhance the professional preparation of pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education?

The recommendations relate to policy, practice and research.

8.9.1 Policy

Since the special needs education discourse and specifically a deficit perspective underpinned university graduate pre-service primary school teachers' delivery of services, policy makers' engineering of the adoption of inclusive education could enhance graduate pre-service teachers' adoption of a strength based perspective in service delivery in mainstream primary schools. Since university graduate pre-service primary school teachers revealed that they were overloaded with many modules with limited content on theory of inclusion in education and mainstream education, policy makers/curricularists' re-curriculation of pre-service teacher education could ensure that the number of modules taught to pre-service teachers afford them comprehensive theory of inclusion in education. As university graduate pre-service primary school teachers reported that they lacked financial, material and technological resources needed for their professional preparation for inclusion in education because of the lack of government funding during their TP, the MoHTES&TD of Zimbabwe and education policy makers could formulate policy to ensure that they are funded. As the professional conduct of lecturers during the supervision of TP interfered with the professional preparation for inclusion in education of pre-service teachers, formulation, amendment, or enforcement of a code of conduct for teacher educators by policy makers could enhance their service delivery during TP. Because university graduate pre-service primary school teachers revealed divergent and limited understandings of inclusion in education, education policy makers in Zimbabwe could consult and partner with other

stakeholders, including individuals, organizations and institutions to develop a common national definition of inclusion in education in the country that could improve the delivery of services. As teachers in schools that had electricity used technology in practicing inclusion in education, national policy makers' passing of policies on the electrification of all primary schools could enhance teachers' practices in inclusion in education.

8.9.2 Practice

Because most university graduate pre-service primary school teachers revealed limited and divergent understandings of inclusion in education while some university graduate pre-service primary school teachers revealed a total lack of understanding of inclusion in education, reviewing the core module on special needs education could ensure that pre-service teachers have a comprehensive understanding of the philosophy. Since both the core module on special needs education and the generic modules on mainstream education contributed to the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education, the use of an infused approach to the professional preparation of pre-service teachers could enhance their professional preparation for inclusion in education. As the social-cultural-religious contexts and the niche area of the university that pre-service primary school teachers studied at influenced their professional preparation for inclusion in education, embedment of the content, process, product and environment of teacher education in the milieu of pre-service teachers could enhance their professional preparation for inclusion in education. Because university graduate pre-service primary school teachers' narratives in delivery of services in primary schools was embedded in disability discourse, co-optation of human diversity discourse in professional preparation of teachers could enhance their professional preparation for inclusion in education. As university graduate pre-service teachers exhibited positive attitudes towards inclusion in education through their agency, social justice, innovation and creativity in delivery of services in mainstream primary schools, the failure to equip them with positive dispositions and competencies on the philosophy in their professional preparation could result in their development of negative attitudes towards it.

8.9.3 Recommendations for further research

Based on the findings of this study, several recommendations are made for further research relating to the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education as itemised below:

- In this study, the social-cultural-religious space of the graduate pre-service primary school teachers influenced their professional preparation for inclusion in education. A study on other factors that influence teacher education would further provide strategies that could enhance the professional preparation of graduate pre-service primary school teacher preparation for inclusion in education.
- Since in this study, data was gathered from only graduate pre-service primary school teachers, a broad spectrum of stakeholders as research participants such as head teachers, the School Development Committee members, children and parents would provide a collection of multiple perceptions of inclusion in education regarding the professional preparation of graduate pre-service primary school teachers for the philosophy.
- Based on the fact that this was a qualitative study, a quantitative survey of all university graduate pre-service primary school teachers as participants adjudicating on graduate pre-service teacher preparation for inclusion in education could also be carried out.
- Since data collection instruments used in this qualitative study included non-participant observations, document analysis, individual interviews and follow-up discussions, a qualitative study in which university lecturers are also observed teaching teacher trainees could be done to ascertain their competence in the professional preparation of these trainees for inclusion in education.
- As more women than men participated in this study, further research on the professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education could be carried out on gender equity and equality basis.
- Since the discrete model facilitated the professional preparation of graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education in this study while some

studies revealed that the infused model was more effective, further studies could compare the utility of these models.

8.9.4 Summary of the chapter

This last chapter of the current study has presented the summary, conclusions and recommendations of this qualitative single case study. It reviewed: the background to the study that was presented in Chapter one, the theoretical framework that informed this study presented in Chapter two, the related international literature on inclusion in education and the professional preparation of pre-service teachers presented in Chapter three, the related Zimbabwean literature on inclusion in education and the professional preparation of pre-service teachers presented in Chapter four, the research methodology and design presented in Chapter five, the presentation and analysis of the study's findings presented in Chapter six and the discussion of the study's findings presented in Chapter seven. The chapter concluded by presenting recommendations for further studies based on the nature and findings of this study as a way of furthering professional preparation of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: SEMI-STRUCTURED INTERVIEW GUIDE

Professional preparational of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education

Pseudonym:

Interview Number:

Date:

Gender:

Age:

Academic qualification:

Professional qualifications:

Teaching experience:

School setting:

Grade taught:

Class size:

Diversity categories in class:

1. How long have you been a teacher? (Probe for demographics, teaching experience, professional training etc.)?
2. Describe your working day.
3. How do you understand inclusion in education?
4. What are your strategies in inclusion in education?
5. How do experience inclusion in education?
6. How were you prepared for inclusion in education?
7. How do you view the adequacy of your preparation for inclusion in education?
8. What strategies can improve the professional preparation of pre-service teachers for inclusion in education?

9. What else would you like to add that we did not talk about regarding your professional preparation for inclusion in education?

APPENDIX B: NON-PARTICIPANT OBSERVATION GUIDE

Professional preparational of university graduate pre-service primary school teachers for inclusion in education

Pseudonym:

Interview Number:

Date:

Gender:

Age:

Academic qualification:

Professional qualifications:

Teaching experience:

School setting:

Grade taught:

Class size:

Diversity categories in class:

Component of professional preparation for inclusion in education	Observables	Remarks
Rapport	-Attitude in teaching -Rapport with children	
Content of inclusion	-Inclusive class organisation -diverse needs of learners -different types of barriers to learning -Identify appropriate and differentiated learning objectives for all learners -Knowledge and application of the school's inclusion policy -Incorporation of recent developments in inclusive education -lesson modification -Diversity of instructional strategies -materials or resources used in inclusive settings	
Process of inclusion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Use of resources/ media • Relates concepts to children's experiences • Caters for individuality • Strategies for learners in need of 	

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> support • Group activity • Peer mediated strategies • Use of ICT • Nature of class tasks • Checking mastery of instruction 	
Environment of inclusion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adaptation of physical environment • Adaptation of psycho-social environment 	
Product of inclusion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adapted assessment 	
Strategies to enhance inclusion	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • peer teaching • multi-level instruction • collaboration • information and communication technology • instructional adaptations • self-management intervention • community in the classroom 	

Post observation remarks:

What was impressive/unimpressive and why?

Signature of researcher:

Date:

APPENDIX C: DOCUMENTARY ANALYSIS GUIDE

A. UNIVERSITY CURRICULUM CONTENT

1. How many modules address inclusion?
2. What does the main reference textbook focus on?
3. What are the key topics listed on course outlines provided to students?
4. What are the course narrations in documents?
5. Is the curriculum inclusive education inclined?

B. PEDAGOGICAL ISSUES

1. What methods of teaching are reflected in documents?
2. Do these methods enhance inclusion in education?

C. TP ASSESSMENT PROCEDURES

1. What is the duration of TP?
2. How are students on TP assessed?
3. How do these TP assessment procedures promote inclusion in education?

APPENDIX D: ETHICAL CLEARANCE



COLLEGE OF EDUCATION RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE

16 November 2016

Ref : 2016/11/16/57667241/35/MC
Student: Mr CG Chipika
Student Number : 57667241

Dear Mr Chipika,

Decision: Approved

Researcher: Mr CG Chipika
Tel: +263773512500
Email: cchipika@gmail.com

Supervisor: Dr T Majoko
College of Education
Department of Inclusive Education
Tel: +2712 481 2933
Email: majokt@unisa.ac.za

Co-supervisor: Prof N Phasha
College of Education
Department of Inclusive Education
Tel: +2712 4298748
Email: phashnl@unisa.ac.za

Proposal: The effectiveness of teacher preparation for inclusion in Zimbabwe

Qualification: D Ed in Inclusive Education

Thank you for the application for research ethics clearance by the College of Education Research Ethics Review Committee for the above mentioned research. Final approval is granted for the duration of the research.

The application was reviewed in compliance with the Unisa Policy on Research Ethics by the College of Education Research Ethics Review Committee on 16 November 2016.

The proposed research may now commence with the proviso that:

- 1) The researcher/s will ensure that the research project adheres to the values and principles expressed in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics.*
- 2) Any adverse circumstance arising in the undertaking of the research project that is relevant to the ethicality of the study, as well as changes in the methodology, should*



University of South Africa
Pretorius Street, Muckleneuk Ridge, City of Tshwane
PO Box 954 UNISA, 0003 South Africa
Telephone: +27 12 429 3111 Facsimile: +27 12 429 4150
www.unisa.ac.za

APPENDIX E: APPLICATION LETTER TO CARRY A STUDY IN ZIMBABWE

Request for permission to conduct research at one of the following universities:

Great Zimbabwe University, Reformed Church University and Zimbabwe Open University.

Research Title: Teacher preparation for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe.

26 September 2016

The Permanent Secretary
Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development
P. O. Box, Causeway-Harare
Zimbabwe

Dear Permanent Secretary

I, Chipika Charles Govero, am doing research under the supervision of Dr.Majoko, in the Department of Inclusive Education towards a D. Ed at the University of South Africa (UNISA). We have personal funding to illuminate on the needs of mainstream teachers in meeting inclusion needs of children with diverse disabilities and strategies to respond to them. We are requesting your office to grant us permission to carry out this research entitled "Teacher Preparation for Inclusion in Zimbabwe".

The aim of the study is to investigate teacher preparation for inclusion in Zimbabwe in an effort to explore their competence in meeting the unique needs of diverse children in inclusive classrooms as the context for strategising on enhancement of their pre-service and in-service training for improved delivery of services. Your universities have been selected because they all prepare mainstream teachers for inclusion. The study will entail a qualitative methodology grounded in a case-study design that will involve interviewing, observing participants and analysis of documents, including the three selected universities' Special Needs Education niche area, prospectus, modules and course outlines. It is envisaged that, teachers, teacher educators, policy makers and non-governmental organisations in Zimbabwe will have information required for informed decision-making regarding teacher preparation for inclusion. In addition, a model for teacher preparation for inclusion will be proposed that is expected to inform pre-service and in-service teacher training programmes.

Groups of participants will include university Heads of Department, lecturers, primary school teachers and children with disabilities. The identity of participants and all information provided will remain anonymous, private and strictly confidential by using participant codes and pseudonyms and at the same time not divulging information they give. The university routine will not be interfered with as interviews lasting for about an hour will be executed outside tuition time. Approximately three Heads of Department (HOD) will be asked to provide university documents for analysis while about six senior lectures will be interviewed. All participants will be entitled to voluntary withdrawal without penalty if they wish to do so. The research ethics committee of UNISA has approved this research and no risks are foreseen in this study. Feedback procedures will entail sharing research findings with teachers, children, parents and lecturers at their respective institutions. For further information that you may require concerning this study please contact Chipika Charles Govero on: +263773512500 or email on cgchipika@gmail.com

Yours sincerely,

Chipika Charles Govero (RESEARCHER).

APPENDIX F: PERMISSION LETTER

All official communications should be addressed to:
"The Secretary for Higher & Tertiary Education
Telephones: 795891-5, 796441-9, 730055-9
Fax Numbers: 793109, 728730, 703957
E-mail: thesecretary@mhrt.ac.zw
Telegraphic address: "EDUCATION"



Reference: G/11/13

MINISTRY OF HIGHER AND TERTIARY
EDUCATION, SCIENCE AND
TECHNOLOGY DEVELOPMENT
P. BAG CV 7732
CAUSEWAY

Our Ref.: E/7/6

29 August 2017

Mr. Chipiki Charles Govero
Nyashanu High School
P O Box 3646
Murambinda

RE: RESEARCH ON "TEACHER PREPARATION FOR INCLUSION IN ZIMBABWE" AT ZIMBABWE'S THREE SELECTED UNIVERSITIES: GREAT ZIMBABWE UNIVERSITY, REFORMED CHURCH UNIVERSITY AND THE ZIMBABWE OPEN UNIVERSITY ; MINISTRY OF HIGHER AND TERTIARY EDUCATION, SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY DEVELOPMENT

Reference is made to your letter in which you requested for permission to carry out a research on "TEACHER PREPARATION FOR INCLUSION IN ZIMBABWE" AT ZIMBABWE'S THREE SELECTED UNIVERSITIES: GREAT ZIMBABWE UNIVERSITY, REFORMED CHURCH UNIVERSITY AND THE ZIMBABWE OPEN UNIVERSITY".

Accordingly, please be advised that the Head of Ministry has granted permission for you to carry out the research in this Ministry's Institutions only.

It is hoped that your research will benefit the Ministry and it would be appreciated if you could supply the office of the Permanent Secretary with a final copy of your study, as the findings would be relevant to the Ministry's strategic planning process.

Mavhondo P. (Mr.)
Acting Deputy Director – Human Resources
For: **PERMANENT SECRETARY**

APPENDIX G: INVITATION LETTER TO PARTICIPANTS

Title: Teacher preparation for inclusion in education in Zimbabwe

Dear participant

This letter is an invitation to consider participating in a study I, Chipika Charles Govero, am conducting as part of my research as a doctoral student entitled TEACHER PREPARATION FOR INCLUSION IN EDUCATION IN ZIMBABWE at the University of South Africa. Permission for the study has been granted by the Department of Education and the Ethics Committee of the College of Education at UNISA. I have purposely identified you as a possible participant because of your valuable experience and expertise related to my research topic.

I would like to provide you with more information about this project and what your involvement would entail if you should agree to take part. The importance of this study in education titled: "Teacher preparation for inclusion in Zimbabwe", is substantial and well documented. Since the Salamanca Convention of 1994, inclusive education is internationally recognised as a philosophy for attaining equity, justice and quality education for all children with diverse backgrounds in inclusive settings. In this interview, I would like to have your views and opinions on this topic. This information can be used to improve mainstream teachers' competences in teaching children with disabilities in inclusive settings.

Your participation in this study is voluntary. It will involve an interview of approximately 60 minutes long to take place in a naturally agreed upon location at a time convenient for you. You may decline to answer any of the interview questions if you so wish. Furthermore, you may decide to withdraw from this study at any time without any negative consequences.

With your kind permission, the interview will be audio-recorded to facilitate collection of accurate information that will later be transcribed for analysis. Shortly after the transcription has been completed, I will send you a copy of the transcript to give you an opportunity to confirm the accuracy of our conversation and to add or to clarify any

points. All information you provide is considered completely confidential. Your name will not appear in any publication resulting from this study and any identifying information will be omitted from the report. However, with your permission, anonymous quotations may be used. Data collected during this study will be retained on a password protected computer for 5 years in my locked office. There are no known or anticipated risks to you as a participant in this study.

If you have any questions regarding this study, or would like additional information to assist you in reaching a decision about participation, please contact me at: +263773512500 or by email at: cgchipika@gmail.com. I look forward to speaking to you very much and thank you in advance for your assistance in this project. If you accept my invitation to participate, I will request you to sign the consent form which follows on the next page.

Yours sincerely,

Chipika Charles Govero

APPENDIX H: CONSENT FORM

CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS STUDY

I, -----, confirm that the person asking my consent to take part in this research has told me about the nature, procedure, potential benefits and anticipated inconvenience of participation. I have read (or had explained to me) and understood the study as explained in the information sheet. I have had sufficient opportunity to ask questions and am prepared to participate in the study. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without penalty. I am aware that the findings of this study will be processed into a research report, journal publications and/ or conference proceedings, but that my participation will be kept confidential unless otherwise specified. I agree to the recording of the individual or focus group interviews. I have received a signed copy of the informed consent agreement.

PARTICIPANT NAME AND SURNAME:

PARTICIPANT SIGNATURE:

DATE:

RESEARCHER'S NAME AND SURNAME:.....

RESEARCHER'S SIGNATURE:

DATE:

APPENDIX J: CHILD ASCENT



ANNEXURE I: Child Assent

Dear learner

26 September 2016

My name is Teacher Chipika Charles Govero and would like to ask you if I can come and watch you do some activities/listen how you read/ do Mathematics/ with your teacher and when you play outside on the playground. I am trying to learn more about how children do activities/read/ mathematics with their teachers as well as when they play with friends.



If you agree to do this, I will come and watch you when you are with your teacher doing activities/reading/maths as well as when you play on the playground. We will do a fun game where you have to answer some questions for me. I will also ask you to do some activities with me. I will not ask you to do anything that might hurt you or that you don't want to do.

I will also ask your parents if you can take part. If you do not want to take part, it will also be fine with me. Remember, you can say yes or you can say no and no one will be upset if you don't want to take part or even if you change your mind later and want to stop. You can ask any questions that you have now. If you have a question later, that you didn't think of now, ask me next time I visit your school.

Please speak to mommy or daddy about taking part before you sign this letter. Signing your name at the bottom means that you agree to be in this study. A copy of this letter will be given to your parents. Should you have any concerns about the current research please contact Chipika Charles Govero on: +263773512500 or email on: cgchipika@gmail.com

Regards

Teacher: Chipika Charles Govero.

Your Name	Yes I will take part 	No I don't want to take part 
Name of the researcher		
Date		
Witness		

APPENDIX K: PARENTAL CONSENT FOR MINOR



ANNEXURE H: Parental consent for minor

Dear parent

Your child is invited to participate in a study entitled teacher preparation for inclusion in Zimbabwe. I am undertaking this study as part of my doctoral research at the University of South Africa. The purpose of the study is to examine teacher preparation for inclusion in Zimbabwe in an effort to suggest a model of teacher preparation that can be adopted by teacher training institutions in Zimbabwe and elsewhere. Possible benefits of the study are the improvement of teaching strategies to enhance inclusion at the same time, developing a database of relevant literature that teachers and researchers can tap into in order to enhance their knowledge. Policy makers and relevant education stakeholders will have a basis for making informed decisions. I am asking to include your child in this study because your child will be a direct beneficiary of the current study who therefore, has to play a part towards success of this study. I expect to have more than ten other children participating in the study.

If you allow your child to participate, I shall request him or her to be part of a group of children to be observed while learning in an inclusive class. About ten other children with disabilities and their teachers will participate in this study. Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and can be identified with your child will remain confidential and will only be disclosed with your permission. His or her responses will not be linked to his or her name or your name or the school's name in any written or verbal report based on this study. Such a report will be used for research purposes only.

There are no foreseeable risks to your child by participating in the study. Your child will receive no direct benefit from participating in the study; however, the possible benefits to education are that recommendations will be suggested based on the research findings to the effect of teacher preparation for inclusion. Neither your child nor you will receive any type of payment for participating in this study.

Your child's participation in this study is voluntary. Your child may decline to participate or to withdraw from participation at any time. Withdrawal or refusal to participate will not affect him or her in any way. Similarly, you can agree to allow your child to be in the study now and change your mind later without any penalty. The study will take place during regular classroom activities with the prior approval of the school and your child's teacher. However, if you do not want your child to participate, an alternative activity will be available.

In addition to your permission, your child must agree to participate in the study and you and your child will also be asked to sign the assent form which accompanies this letter. If your child does not wish to participate in the study, he or she will not be included and there will be no penalty. The information gathered from the study and your child's participation in the study will be stored securely on a password locked computer in my locked office for five years after the study. Thereafter, records will be erased.

If you have questions about this study, please ask me or my study supervisors, Dr. Majoko and Prof. Phasha, Department of Inclusive Education, College of Education, University of South Africa. My

conduct number is +263773512500 and my e-mail is cgchipika@gmail.com. The e-mails of my supervisors are majokt@unisa.ac.za and phashant@unisa.ac.za. Permission for the study has already been given by the university and the Ethics Committee of the College of Education, UNISA.

You are making a decision about allowing your child to participate in this study. Your signature below indicates that you have read the information provided above and have decided to allow him ore her to participate in the study. You may keep a copy of this letter.

Name of child:

Sincerely

Parent/guardian's name (print)	Parent/guardian's signature	Date
--------------------------------	-----------------------------	------

Researcher's name (print)	Researcher's signature	Date
---------------------------	------------------------	------

APPENDIX L: PERMISSION LETTER-MASVINGO EDUCATIONAL PROVINCE AND DISTRICT

ALL communications should be addressed to
"The Provincial Education Director for Primary and Secondary Education"
Telephone: 263585/264331
Fax: 039-263261



Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education
P. O Box 89
Masvingo

28 August 2017

Chipika Charles Govero
Nyashanu High School
P. Bag 3646
Murambinda

RE: PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH IN MASVINGO PROVINCE: MASVINGO DISTRICT

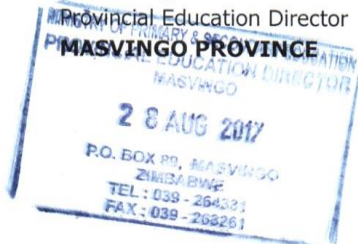
Reference is made to your application to carry out a research at the above mentioned school in Masvingo District on the research title:

"TEACHER PREPARATION FOR INCLUSION IN ZIMBABWE."

Please be advised that the Secretary for Primary and Secondary Education has granted permission to carry out your research.

You are also advised to liaise with the District Education Officer who is responsible for the schools which are part of the sample for your research.


Z. M. Chitiga
Provincial Education Director



APPENDIX M: PERMISSION-MoPSE

All communications should be addressed
to The Secretary for Primary and Secondary
Education"
Telephone: 799914 and 705153
Telegraphic address : "EDUCATION"
Fax: 791923



Reference: C/426/3 Masvingo
Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education
P.O Box CY 121
Causeway
Harare

16 August 2017

Chipika Charles Govero
Nyashanu High School
P. O. Box 3646
Murambinda

RE: PERMISSION TO CARRY OUT RESEARCH AT
SCHOOLS: MASVINGO DISTRICT:
MASVINGO PROVINCE

Reference is made to your application to carry out a research at the above mentioned school in Masvingo Province on the research title:

"TEACHER PREPARATION FOR INCLUSION IN ZIMBABWE."

Permission is hereby granted. However, you are required to liaise with the Provincial Education Director Masvingo Province, who is responsible for the schools which you want to involve in your research. You should ensure that your research work does not disrupt the normal operations of the school. You are required to seek consent of the parents/guardians of all learners who will be involved in the research.

You are required to provide a copy of your presentation and a report of what transpired to the Secretary for Primary and Secondary Education by December 2017.

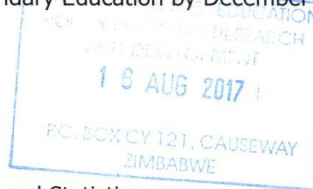
A handwritten signature in blue ink that reads 'E. Chinyowa'.

E. Chinyowa

Acting Director: Planning, Research and Statistics

For: **SECRETARY FOR PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION**

cc: PED – Masvingo Province



APPENDIX N: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CARRYOUT RESEARCH AT GREAT ZIMBABWE UNIVERSITY



Registrar

*P O Box 1235
MASVINGO
Tel: 039-252100
Fax: 039-252100*

*Off Old Great Zimbabwe Road
MASVINGO
E mail: registrar@gzu.ac.zw*

GREAT ZIMBABWE UNIVERSITY

13 September 2017

Chipika Charles Govero
Nyashanu High School
P.O. Box 3646
MURAMBINDA

Dear Mr Chipika Charles Govero

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CARRYOUT RESEARCH AT GREAT ZIMBABWE UNIVERSITY

Reference is made to the above subject.

This is to confirm that your request has been approved, and please note that we would request a copy of your findings too.

Wishing you good luck in your studies.

Sincerely

A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to be 'S. Gwatidzo', written over a circular stamp.

S. Gwatidzo (Mrs)



APPENDIX O: NINE CATEGORIES OF MODULES COVERED

1. Educational Foundations (11 modules):

Modules on offer include: Introduction to Sociology of Education (TDEFP 101), Introduction to Educational Psychology (TDEFP 102), Introduction to Philosophy of Education (TDEFP 103), Curriculum Planning and Development (TDPCT 201), Psychology of Teaching and Learning (TDEFP 203), Sociology of Teaching and Learning (TDEFP 401); Philosophical Issues in Teaching and Learning (TDEFP 402), Early Childhood Education (TDECE 403), Curriculum Evaluation, Change and Innovation (TDPCT 401), Educational Management (TDEFP 404) and Special Needs Education (TDEFP 403).

2. Faculty (2 modules):

These include Introduction to Zimbabwean Culture and Heritage (BHS 110) and Introduction to Zimbabwean History (BHS 101).

3. Areas of specialization (6 modules):

At level 1, semester 2:

One module is chosen from the following: Foundations of Art and Design Education (TDPAD 101), Introduction to Linguistics and Language Teaching (TDPEL 101), The History and Development of ChiShona Language (TDPCH 101), Philosophy of Environmental Science and Education for Sustainable Development (TDPES 104), Family Studies I (TDPFE 101), Calculus (TDPMA 101), Zimbabwean Folk Music and Traditional Dances (TDPMU 101), History of the Ndebele Language and its Development (TDPND 101), Foundations of Physical Education and Sport (TDPPE 102), Old Testament (TDPRM 101) and The History and Philosophy of Social Studies (TDPSS 101).

At level 2 semester 1:

One area of specialization module is also chosen from the following: Drawing and Painting (TDPAD 201); ChiShona and African Traditional Oral Literature and Culture (TDPCH 201). They also include Introduction to Modern English Grammar (TDPEL 201); Principles of Environmental Science and Education for Sustainable Development (TDPEL 201); Family Studies 11 (TDPHE 201); Analysis (TDPMA 201); Foundations of Music (TDPMU 201); Ukuhumutshela (TDPND 201); Introduction to Sports Science (TDPPE 204); The History and Philosophy of Religious and Moral Education (TDPRM 201) and Natural, Environmental and Social Issues (TDPSS 201).

At level 2 semester 1:

Two areas of specialization modules are chosen from the following: Graphic Design (TDPAD 202) or Textile and Fabric Design (TDPAD 204); Major Theories of Literature and Criticism (TDPAD 202) or ChiShona Relationship Systems and Speech Styles (TDPCH 203); The English Language and the School Curriculum (TDPEL 202) or Orature and Zimbabwean Literature (TDPEL 204); Principles of Teaching Environmental Science at Primary School (TDPEL 202) or Economics of the Environment (TDPEL 203); Introduction to Textiles (TDPHE 202) or Introduction to Food Technology (TDPHE 203); Linear and Abstract Algebra (TDPMA 203) or Statistical Inference (TDPMA 206); Performance Studies 1 (TDPMU 202) or Transcription and Analysis (TDPMU 203); Ndebele Orthography (TDPND 202) or Theories of Literature (TDPND 203); Fundamental Skills and Techniques in the Individual and Team Sports (TDPPE 203) or Human Anatomy and Physiology (TDPPE 206); New Testament (TDPRM 203) or History of Christianity and African Independent Churches in Zimbabwe (TDPRM 205); World Political Systems and Institutions (TDPSS 202) or Emerging Issues in the Political Economy of SADC (TDPSS 203).

At level 4 semester 1:

Two areas of specialization modules are selected from the following: History of African and Western Art (TDPAD 405) and Craftwork in Zimbabwe (TDPAD 406) or Criticism of Shona Literature (TDPCH 401) and ChiShona Dialects and other Languages in Zimbabwe (TDPCH 402) or Classroom Text and Discourse (TDPEL 401) and Children's

Literature (TDPEL 402); Environmental Impact Assessment (TDPEs 401) and Environmental Chemistry (TDPEs 402) or Textiles (TDPHE 401) and Food Technology (TDPHE 402) or Mechanics (TDPMA 401) and Ethno mathematics (TDPMA 405) or Performance Studies 11 (TDPMU 401) and Ethnomusicology and Analysis (TDPMU 401) or Literary Criticism (TDPND 401) and Formulation of Language Policy in Zimbabwe (TDPND 405) or Organization and Administration of Sport(TDPPE 401) and Indigenous Games (TDPPE); Liberation Theology (TDPRM 401) and African Traditional Religions (TDPRM402) or Pedagogical and Methodological Issues in the Teaching of Social Studies Issues (TDPSS 401) and Emerging Issues in the Political Economy of Africa (TDPSS 402).

4. Professional Studies (11 modules):

Modules offered include: Science Education (TDPSE 101); English Education Studies (TDPEs 101); Teaching ChiShona in the Primary School (TDPEs 102) or Teaching of IsiNdebele at Primary School (TDPEs 103); HIV and AIDS Education and Current Issues In Primary Education (TDPACP 102); Mathematics Education (TDPME 101); Professional Issues in Primary Education (TDPIP 103); Music and Art Education (TDPMAP 201); Social Sciences Education (TDPSSSE 203); Physical Education and Home Economics (TDPPSE 204); Instructional Media and Technology (TDIMT 201); Primary School Mathematics (TDPMA 202).

5. Micro-Teaching (1 module):

One module on Micro-Teaching (TDPMT 202) is offered.

6. Practicum (1 module):

One module on Teaching Practice (TDPTP 301) is offered.

7. Compulsory (3 modules):

Modules offered include: Academic and Professional Communication (HAPC 101); Information and Communication Technology (TDEF 105) and Research Methods and Statistics (RMS 201).

8. Curriculum studies (2 modules):

Modules on offer are selected from areas of specialization. These are Dimensional Design (TDPAD 403) and Visual Aesthetics (TDPAD 404) or Psycho and Sociolinguistic Aspects of Language (TDPCH 403) and ChiShona Semantics and Pragmatics (TDPCH 404) or Theories of Language Arts (TDPEL 403) and African and Caribbean Literature (TDPEL 404) or Research and Current Trends in Environmental Science and Education (TDPEES 403) and Ecosystems and Environmental Management (TDPEES 404) or Interior Decoration and Home Soft Furnishing (TDPHE 404) and Catering and Ethnic Diets (TDPHE 405) or Ordinary Differential Equations (TDPMA 403) and Assessment and Evaluation in Mathematics (TDPMA404) or Performance Studies 111 (TDPMU 403) and Dances (TDPMU 404) or Ndebele Language Structure and Syntax (TDPND 403) and Lexicography (TDPND 404) or Gymnastics TDPPE (406) and Current Trends and Issues in Physical Education and Sport (TDPPE 407) or Ethics and Emerging Issues in Religious and Moral Education (TDPRM 403) and Major Themes in World Religions (TDPRM 404) or Political Systems and Institutions in Africa (TDPSS 403) and Regional Groupings and World Politics (TDPSS 404).

At level 4 semester 2:

9. Research Project (1 module):

One module, Research Project (TDPRP 401) is offered.

Once a student fails his/her Research Methods and Statistics module, he/she shall not proceed to do the research project until he or she passes this module.

APPENDIX P: CERTIFICATE OF EDITING

Margaret Farred
Language Editing Service

082 899 3783

felicitas@mweb.co.za

This serves to certify that the PhD (Inclusive Education) Thesis titled:

**GRADUATE PRE-SERVICE PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHER PREPARATION FOR
INCLUSION IN EDUCATION IN ZIMBABWE**

by:

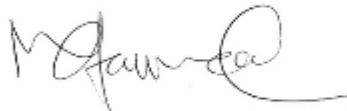
CHIPIKA CHARLES GOVERO

was duly edited by me.

I am an experienced editor and have previously edited a range of different publications, including academic journal articles, Research and Annual Reports, Dissertations, Theses and books.

Please note that all editing is done in *Track Changes*, and I therefore have no control over what is accepted or rejected by the author. Furthermore, I have no control over text added at a later stage.

Should there be any queries, please contact me on the number provided above.



Margaret Farred
Professional Editors' Guild
Membership Number FAR007