ATTITUDES OF MAINSTREAM SCHOOL EDUCATORS TOWARDS THE IMPLEMENTATION OF INCLUSIVE EDUCATION IN MAFIKENG PRIMARY SCHOOLS

by

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DECLARATION

I …………………………………………… declare that **ATTITUDES OF MAINSTREAM EDUCATORS TOWARDS THE IMPLEMENTATION OF INCLUSIVE EDUCATION IN MAFIKENG PRIMARY SCHOOLS** is my own work, that all sources I have used and quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references, and that this work has not been submitted before for any other degree at any other institution.

…………………………….   ……………………….

Signature   Date

 SUMMARY

The study seeks to understand the attitudes of teachers towards the implementation of inclusive education in Mafikeng primary schools. The selected primary schools have been converted to full-service schools, as stipulated in White Paper 6: Special Needs Education Policy (2001), which intends to build a single, inclusive system of education and training in South Africa, based on the principles of human rights and social justice for all learners.

The Theory of Planned Behaviour, which is an extension of the Theory of Reasoned Action, was used as a conceptual framework. Qualitative research design and a case study approach were employed as modes of enquiry in this study, while constructivism/interpretivism was used as philosophical paradigm. The study population comprised 43 teachers and principals who had already been working at full-service schools for almost 12 months. Purposive sampling was used to effect sample selection.

The findings in this study indicate that the respondents (teachers and principals) of the selected full-service schools had a positive attitude towards the implementation of inclusive education and were willing to work within this challenging environment. They were willing to help learners who experience barriers to learning, and thus accepted the introduction of inclusive education in their schools. They indicated that they would be very pleased if the approach were rolled out in all schools in the North-West province, of which Ngaka Modiri Molema district forms a part. However, what is needed is continued support from the district as well as the Institutional Policy Development Services office, from whom they request training that is realistic and relevant to their day-to-day experiences in an inclusive environment. They identified challenges which could be overcome through receiving support and guidance when problems arise within the classroom and the school, and suggested that financial guidance was needed, especially for the principals who are tasked with acquiring the relevant teaching aids needed to help each child learn optimally.

KEYWORDS: district-based support team, full-service school, inclusive education, school-based support team

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

ACEs	Advanced Education Certificates
ANAs	annual national assessments
DBE	Department of Basic Education
DBST	District Based Support Team
DoE	Department of Education
DSD	Department of Social Development
EWP	Education White Paper
FSS	full-service school
IE	inclusive education
ILST	Institutional Level Support Team
IPDS	Institution Policy Development Services
ISP	individual support plan
ITE	Initial Teacher Education
LINUS	Literacy and Numeracy Strategy
OBE	outcomes-based education

SBST	School-Based Support Team
SEN	special education needs
SIAS	screening, identification, assessment and support
SMT	senior management team
SS	special school
SSRC	special school as resource centre
TPB	Theory of Planned Behaviour
TRA	Theory of Reasoned Action
Unesco	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

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1.1   Introduction and background

Global international and national legislations have increased the focus on ideologies of inclusion and inclusive schooling, as emphasised in Unesco's (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation) education policy, adopted at the Salamanca Conference in 1994 (UNESCO, 1994). Inclusive education (IE), which is used as a potent mechanism to afford learners with either physical or learning impairments an opportunity to be educated (mainly in less-developed countries) is regarded as one of the most serious issues facing those nations.

When South Africa's first democratic government was sworn in in 1994, it had a significant impact on the education system, most especially on those learners experiencing barriers to learning. The apartheid government had operated along racial lines, with separate education departments. The segregationist policy of the then government led to resources not being distributed equally, creating vast disparities in terms of funding, educational rights, as well as opportunities and expectations. Special needs education was also affected, having been fragmented by apartheid laws (Savolainen et al., 2012). The introduction in 1996 of the new constitution, which included a bill of rights, ensured that every South African's right to basic education was considered. This led to the introduction of Education White Paper 6 (hereafter EWP6): Special Needs Education: Building an Inclusion Education and Training System (DoE, 2001b), where the main focus is on affirming that no learners, irrespective of the disabilities or barriers to learning which they face, should be denied access to equal education (Engelbrecht et al., 2006).

As a way forward under the new dispensation, South Africa accepted IE as part of its policy development post-1994. According to Hay and Beyers (2000), the legacy of the exclusive society created by the policies of apartheid is one possible reason for the subsequent adoption of IE. Ryndak and Alper (1996:xiii) assert that for years the education system worldwide has been providing special education and the requisite support for learners with learning disabilities and/or special needs. More recently, such learners were no longer segregated and grouped into special classes, but were included in general classes. As a developing country, South Africa faces the challenge of familiarising itself with this new concept of inclusion.

The challenge facing the South African government is that of change. Pottas (2005) views change as something that it is not easy, because it is a process in itself that takes time to unfold: it can sometimes take years longer than anticipated, rather than happening at once or immediately, and it involves more than just programmes, material, technology or equipment. Ryndak and Alper (1996, cited in Pottas 2005) are of the view that change is based on subjective probability; when change happens people are affected either positively or negatively, because each person views change differently. At its core, change requires a measure of personal growth and adaptation. Change cannot, however, be avoided when practices featuring new methods prove to be more effective than any past services or approaches.

Research has shown that educators are the key levers of policy implementation as regards learning and teaching. As agents of change, educators' experiences, beliefs, values, knowledge and attitudes should be taken into consideration during any policy implementation stage, since they are responsible for creating an effective learning environment for learners, which is vital in promoting and developing inclusion within the education system (Subban & Sharma, 2006).

Reynolds (2001) posits that it is difficult to effect change within schools and classrooms, because changing the curriculum, ensuring professional development, and putting in place learner support services and classroom management systems must be done simultaneously, rather than in isolation. However, simultaneous or overwhelming changes tend to make teachers uncertain; in particular they raise concerns about the implementation of IE, causing educators to form preconceived ideas about, or negative attitudes towards, the initiative.

The Department of Education (DoE) has given itself 20 years to change from being an exclusionary system into an inclusive one (DoE, 2001). Caution must, however, be exercised so that ideas around inclusion do not become so strong or overpowering that they overlook the practical realities facing a developing country such as South Africa, with its noted lack of resources. When planning to implement IE, it is advisable not to dismiss issues such as a lack of support for educators, inadequate resources (especially physical), the shortage of skilled teachers or the teacher:learner ratio, because all these factors can have an impact on the competency of the educator cohort (Hay & Beyers, 2000). Various aspects may hinder the implementation of IE, which can result in negative attitudes on the part of teachers becoming entrenched. It is against this background that the present study seeks to examine the attitudes

of mainstream school educators towards the implementation of IE in selected Mafikeng primary schools.

1.2   Definition of concepts

Hereunder is a list of terms which may benefit from being defined prior to commencing with the remainder of the study.

Special school – a school equipped to deliver education to learners who require highly intensive educational and other support, either on a full-time or a part-time basis (DoE, 2005b).

Full-service schools – these are normal primary/high schools which are especially equipped to address the full range of barriers to learning within an IE setting. In addition to their ordinary learner population, the schools are accessible to most learners. In the initial implementation stages, these schools were viewed as models of institutional change, reflecting effective inclusive cultures, policies and practices (DoE, 2005b).

Attitude/belief – attitudes are multidimensional: in the context of measurement, they are a person's thoughts or feelings regarding a particular stimulus that is relatively stable in nature (Shultz & Whitney, 2005). An attitude is also defined as a "predisposition to respond to some class of stimuli with certain classes of responses" (Rosenberg & Hovland, 1960:3). Philosophers refer to attitude as an inclination to believe (Ducasse, 1940, cited in Jones, 2010). And belief? It is a conviction or an opinion (*American Heritage Dictionary of the English Language*, 1980, cited in Jones, 2010).

Inclusive Education (IE) – no universal definition exists, but

> there is a growing international consensus as to the principal features of this multi-dimensional concept. With regard to students with disabilities, these include the following: entitlement to full membership in regular, age-appropriate classes in their neighbourhood school; access to appropriate aids and support services, individualized programmes, with appropriately differentiated curriculum and assessment practices. (Mitchell, 2007:4)

1.3   Problem formulation

Many factors continue to affect and control the development and successful implementation of IE. Beyene and Tizazu (2010) view the lack of in-depth understanding of the concept of disability as inculcating negative attitudes towards people with disabilities, as well as

resistance to change. These are the main obstacles to IE being successfully implemented. Since the advent of democracy in 1994, the Department of Basic Education (DBE) has embarked on a mission to introduce IE in South African schools as a priority (DoE, 2001). This goal aims to align with the Salamanca Framework of Action (1994), which enunciates the statement by Lipsky and Gartner (1999:21) that

> the fundamental principle of the inclusive school is that all children should learn together, wherever possible, regardless of any difficulties or differences they may have. Inclusive schools must recognize and respond to the diverse needs of their students, accommodating both different styles and rates of learning and ensuring quality education to all through appropriate curricula, organizational arrangements, teaching strategies, resource use and partnership with their communities.

IE is thus distinctly identified as an important strategy for the development of an education system that caters for the needs of all (Unesco, 1994b).

Regardless of the DBE's intention to adopt and implement IE, there are inconsistencies between what is really happening at schools and policy statements in this regard (Gous, 2009). Soudien and Baxen (2006:152) illustrate this dilemma by indicating that around 260 000–280 000 disabled children are still denied access to this country's education system, and as a result do not receive "proper care and provision".

Thirteen years after the publication of the EWP6 and other follow-up documents by the DBE, such as *Conceptual and operational guidelines for the implementation of inclusive education* and *National strategy on screening, identification, assessment and support* (SIAS), circulated to all schools in 2008, not much has been achieved – especially in the Mafikeng area of the North West province. The SIAS document was introduced with the aim of further facilitating the smooth implementation of IE; however, many children with disabilities and learning barriers are still denied admission to mainstream schools, regardless of the nature of their disability or the level of support they require. In some instances, ironically, children who deserve to be referred to special schools are kept in mainstream schools where they do not receive adequate support. There seems to be some confusion in primary schools, and amongst teachers in Mafikeng in particular, around issues of inclusion. Teachers appear to have an inadequate understanding of disability, displaying prejudice towards children with

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disabilities. Such prejudices may not be easy to change – even if the teachers are willing to do so. Many teachers see IE as something that is far-fetched and destined to fail, particularly those respondents in Mafikeng primary schools who participated in this study.

According to Kuyini and Desai (2007) and Gous (2009), teachers are key stakeholders in that they are already in place to implement and manage any of the changes that are so vital in transforming schools so that they become inclusive. Therefore, even if sound policies are formulated, these will not ensure that IE is successfully implemented in schools. Rather, teachers' attitudes will be crucial in that regard. Therefore, this study seeks to investigate the attitudes of primary school teachers in respect of implementing IE, and aims to explore the significance of teachers' attitudes and other related factors.

1.4 Research aims

The aims of the study are to

- establish the nature of teachers' attitudes towards the implementation of IE in primary schools
- Determine how teachers implement IE
- Determine why teachers implement IE the way they do.

1.5 Research questions

- What are the views of teachers in primary schools regarding IE?
- How do teachers implement IE?
- Why do teachers implement IE in the way they do?

1.6 Significance of the study

This study was prompted by the lack of (or very limited) research done to date on the attitudes and experiences of primary school teachers in respect of implementing IE in mainstream schools in the Mafikeng area. The EWP6 (DoE, 2001b) acknowledges the need for further research on IE, so that areas requiring improvement can be identified and supported, to ensure the successful implementation of the approach. Little is known about how teachers in mainstream schools are coping with the relatively new phenomenon of IE, and with having disabled learners in their classrooms. Given this paucity, sufficient support

cannot be offered and that will most likely result in the morale of teachers being negatively affected. The hope is that this study will contribute towards the body of knowledge flowing from both national and international debates around the implementation of IE.

The study could contribute to the existing knowledge base on IE in a number of ways: by revealing how teachers in different schools understand IE; by clarifying how teachers' understanding drives, shapes, limits or facilitates the implementation of IE in primary schools around Mafikeng; and by providing greater insight into what knowledge is essential when implementing inclusive programmes effectively and efficiently in schools. Nationally, the study may contribute towards broadening the knowledge base of IE implementation, especially in developing countries where a lack of resources and funding are major obstacles to inclusion. The study may also prompt those who wish to introduce and implement IE in their schools to take a serious look at issues concerning teachers' attitudes, since those can be deciding factors in making inclusion successful (or unsuccessful).

This study may assist educational policy makers in developing curricula that will be highly beneficial to future teachers. The data gathered should be effectively used, where relevant, to support and develop teachers professionally, as they face the challenge of implementing the approach in their schools. The data may also be used to influence inclusion in and around the Ngaka Modiri Molema district in Mafikeng, by conducting workshops and seminars with teachers and inviting their feedback. Bruns and Mogharreban (2007) support this view, indicating that teachers' feedback is useful and even essential when assessing the real issues they face in addressing inclusion in general education classrooms.

1.7   Rationale and motivation

As an IE official in the Ngaka Modiri Molema district, one of the researcher's core duties is to train teachers on issues of inclusion as these affect those learners who are already in mainstream schools, but who continue to experience barriers to learning. This, in fulfilment of the mandate given in EWP6 (DoE, 2001b). When presenting training, the researcher frequently observe educators showing a lack of understanding or exhibiting some confusion, as they express their unique views on inclusion in discussion forums. Numerous educators have asked – both during and after training sessions – whether IE will indeed materialise, or whether it is just another fleeting concept like OBE (outcomes-based education) which is doomed to fail.

The researcher has heard educators priding themselves on the fact that they attend such training sessions for the sake of filling in the attendance register – they have no intention of implementing whatever they learn there. They view this as one way in which, in the eyes of the Department of Education (DoE), they are seen to be working, and therefore the teachers deem it a waste of time, given their existing workload. Such attitudes, coupled with a lack of understanding and an unwillingness to change, continue despite training being conducted on issues of inclusion.

In July 2001, when EWP6 was adopted in South Africa, numerous stakeholders were excited about the DoE's intention to change from an exclusive system into an inclusive one. When interacting with educators during training sessions and workshops, I realised that most of them had no idea, knowledge or awareness of IE. Some educators even asked whether it referred to an autonomous division within the DoE.

The researcher was keen to find out how the DoE planned to inculcate this new, inclusive way of thinking and doing, given the educators' indifferent attitudes. His core duty has been to bring greater awareness on issues of inclusion to educators, by means of training as well as by offering monitoring and support to schools (mainstream and special schools) within the Ngaka Modiri Molema district. This made it possible to access those schools, which became his research sites, and the educators who became the research population. It is against this background that the present study sought to examine the attitudes of mainstream school educators towards the implementation of IE in Mafikeng primary schools.

1.8   Chapter division

The study consists of eight chapters, which are arranged as follows:

Chapter one, the introductory chapter, outlines the background and aim of the study. A detailed account is given of the research methodology employed, as well as an outline of the arrangement of the chapters.

Chapter two offers a review of existing literature on teachers' attitudes towards the implementation of IE internationally and nationally (i.e., in South Africa).

Chapter three outlines the theoretical framework of the study and the conceptualisation of policy implementation and IE.

Chapter four describes the research methods and investigates the research design and methodology used to collect and analyse the data. The setting and procedures for selecting participants make reference to questions regarding reliability and validity, as well as ethical considerations.

Chapters five and six provide an analysis of the accumulated data, in addition to tabling the findings that support and answer the research questions.

Chapter seven discusses a number of themes emerging from the findings.

Chapter eight, the concluding chapter of the thesis, synthesises the study as a whole and proposes a way forward.

CHAPTER TWO
GLOBAL TRENDS IN INCLUSIVE EDUCATION: ATTITUDES, TRAINING AND IMPLEMENTATION

2.1   Literature review

Machi and McEvoy (2012) define literature review as the process of consulting a written scholarly document that "presents a logically argued case founded on a comprehensive understanding of the current state of knowledge about a topic of study". The literature is synthesised and evaluated to establish a thesis that can answer the questions the study poses in a satisfactory manner. The literature review in this study will therefore be discussed under four sub-headings, namely teachers' attitudes towards IE, teacher training in respect of IE, training for IE implementation, and conditions for the successful implementation of IE.

2.2   Teachers' attitudes towards IE

Campbell, Gilmore and Cuskelly (2003) indicate the importance of a teacher, in that s/he has the potential to either improve the quality of life of a learner with disabilities or adversely affect and even harm it. If a teacher develops and displays a negative attitude towards a learner with disabilities, the learner's quality of life can be seriously affected, sometimes for the rest of their life. The importance of embarking on research studies on teachers' attitudes towards IE lies in the fact that teachers can be given support and assistance in dealing with any areas of concern that arise, thus granting them the ability to effectively and successfully implement IE (Cassidy, 2011). When teachers are prepared to teach in an inclusive classroom attitudes towards inclusion improve, but, conversely, when teachers are not prepared for this instructional model, negative attitudes prevail (Jones, 2010). Al-Zyoudi et al. (2011), in studies conducted in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) and Jordan, found support for the latter statement, noting that in most instances it is only when pre-service teachers are given additional training and are more sensitised about people with disabilities, that they develop more positive attitudes towards the disabled. Teachers are principal agents in the execution of IE, therefore it is crucial to enhance their skills in teaching more diverse groups of learners, which include those with special educational needs (SEN) (Malak, 2013). The research suggests that the effectiveness of a teacher in terms of his/her preparedness to work with SEN learners predicts his/her attitude and willingness to teach in inclusive contexts, and is an indication that s/he holds more positive attitudes (McHatton & Parker, 2013).

Furthermore, Sharma et al. (2008) and Jerlinder, Danermark and Gill (2010) argue that for inclusion-related reforms to take place and be implemented successfully, the goodwill of teachers who are at the coalface of inclusion, integration policies and policy implementation, is vital. Therefore, it mainly tends to be those teachers who are willing to change and adapt their work, with the aim of benefiting learners with diverse learning needs, who show positive attitudes towards inclusion. Forlin et al. (2009), Ryan (2009) and Jerlinder et al. (2010) assert that once a learner with diverse learning needs is included in an ordinary classroom, success is dependent on the willingness of the regular teacher to work with him/her. Therefore, the understanding that a teacher possesses of diverse learning needs will have an impact on his/her attitude, as well as on his/her general behaviour towards SEN learners (Ryan, 2009).

For the implementation of IE to be accomplished, the role of teachers needs to be taken into consideration. The role teachers play is crucial in classroom practice, because their behaviour in the classroom determines how students learn. Chopra (2008) posits that, since the admission of learners with more diverse abilities is becoming increasingly prevalent in classrooms, the attitude of general teachers regarding the inclusion of learners with special needs is changing for the better, which results in successful inclusive practices being followed in classrooms and, possibly, within schools at large. It is thus imperative to conduct advocacy campaigns so that mainstream teachers (as well as the public at large) are sensitised. Promoting awareness will eventually lead to successful inclusion being achieved.

A plethora of studies, some which has been discussed in chapter two of this study, have been conducted and confirms that, depending on whether a teacher rejects or embraces inclusion, his/her attitude has a significant bearing on the success or failure of the approach. Nel et al. (2011) concur, stating that for learners with special needs to be successfully included in regular classrooms, teachers in those classrooms must change their attitudes from negative to positive, as regards learners with special needs. Oyugi (2011) advances this argument by interrogating the attitudes teachers may adopt towards such a child in their classroom, and categorises four domains: attachment, concern, indifference and rejection. The way in which a teacher categorises his/her attitude towards a child influences how s/he interacts with that child. For example, Brophy and Good (1972) and Silberman (1969, cited in Oyugi, 2011) found that when teachers placed students in the 'rejection' category, the teachers were less likely to call on those students to read and were less likely to give them feedback compared to students in the other three categories. According to Henley et al. (2009), a child in the

'rejection' category suffers emotionally, because this kind of labelling has distinct disadvantages:

> 1) Categorising (labels) shapes teacher expectations, thus what teachers believe about a student's capability is directly related to student achievement;
>
> 2) Categorising can exaggerate a child's actions in the eyes of a teacher, since all learners have some troubling behaviours a teacher may thus overreact to the behaviour of a labelled learner that would be tolerated in another child;
>
> 3) Labels tend to send a clear message, as if the learning problem lies with the learner, which obscures the essence of teaching and learning as a two-way street. Some learners end up as the unfortunate recipients of ineffective schooling, and are placed in a mild disability category when there is nothing wrong with them;
>
> 4) Learners with mild disabilities tend to go through the same developmental stages as their peers, although at a slower rate;
>
> 5) Many learners may be identified with specific learning disabilities, however, as individuals, each is a unique human being. When a learner is placed in a category, a teacher who knows some of the characteristics of a category may ascribe all known characteristics to each labelled learner, for instance, a teacher may explain a learning problem by citing "Mary" as being unable to do maths because she is intellectually disabled;
>
> 6) Sometimes categorising places the blame/guilt for a learner's learning problems on the parents. In many instances teachers may not fully understand the many different causes of mild disabilities, thus there is an increased probability that the learner will continue to fail and will eventually drop out of school.

Using the same attitudinal categories, a study by Oyugi (2011) found that if teachers place a student in the 'concern' category, they openly expressed their concern. When a student was placed in the 'indifference' category, however, the teacher's interactions with the student were brief and infrequent (Oyugi, 2011).

Different types of disabilities can cause teachers to develop different attitudes. Teachers may be more amenable to including learners with a certain type of disabilities over those whom they deem more challenging. For example, Scruggs and Mastropieri (1996, cited in McHatton & Parker, 2013) conclude that teacher support for the placement of learners in mainstream

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educational settings varies depending on the type of disability: most teachers support the inclusion of learners with mild learning or physical/sensory/medical disabilities in general education classrooms. Woodcock (2013) notes that researchers such as Avramidis and Norwich (2002), Antonak and Larrivee (1995) confirm that teachers have preferences when it comes to accepting learners with different types of disabilities. Loreman and colleagues (2005) found that teachers showed widely varying attitudes towards learners with diverse needs and abilities, with the least positive responses being shown towards learners with behavioural problems (particularly learners who are physically aggressive). Alghazo and Gaad (2004) and Engelbrecht et al. (2003) conclude that teachers found learners with intellectual disabilities to be more difficult to support than students with other types of disability. Dupoux, Wolman and Estrada (2005) compared the attitudes of teachers in respect of the inclusion of students with diverse needs and abilities with a study population of 152 high school teachers in Haiti and 216 high school teachers in the United States. The participants completed the Opinion Relative to the Integration of Students with Disabilities Questionnaire (Antonak & Larrivee, 1995). From the findings, the researchers concluded that teachers in both countries created a hierarchy of attitudes when accommodating the severity of disabilities: learners with severe learning disability (SLD) engendered the most positive attitudes towards accommodating their needs, while those with emotional and behavioural difficulties evoked the least positive attitudes towards accommodating their needs.

Avramidis, Bayliss and Burden (2000) found that even though most teachers support the policy of inclusion, many are of the view that learners with mental disability are more difficult to support in class than learners with other types of disability. Learners with mild disabilities were eagerly accepted in mainstream classrooms.

On the other hand, Dulció and Bakota (2009), Loreman, Forlin and Sharma (2007) and Ross-Hill (2009) found that teachers have positive attitudes towards IE. Teachers with positive views on inclusion tended to value all children, whatever their needs, and interacted with them accordingly. There is evidence that educators' positive attitudes towards inclusion depend strongly on their experience with learners with special educational needs (LSEN), the teacher education they received, the quality of support given to them, as well as class size and workload (Unesco, 2003:24). According to previous research, there is some indication that educators with negative attitudes are likely to impact negatively on educational reforms (such as IE), and will therefore stifle success (see Avramidis, Bayliss & Burden, 2000; Forlin &

Sin, 2010). This is confirmed by research conducted in Botswana by Brandon (2006), who found that teachers consider IE difficult and stressful to implement, because they are negative and do not hold favourable, supportive attitudes towards the approach. Some teachers are not willing to accommodate learners who require specialised and/or individualised programmes (Jonas, 2014).

With regard to the relationship between teachers' attitudes towards inclusion and gender, the evidence appears to be inconsistent. Several international studies, amongst them research conducted in England by Avramidis and Norwich (2002), found that in respect of attitudes towards inclusion, gender differences were not evident amongst the teaching cohort. In the United States, a study conducted by Van Reusen, Shoho and Barker (2001) confirmed this finding, as did Loreman et al. (2007) who conducted studies across Canada, Hong Kong, Australia and Singapore. Similar findings were reported by Al-Zyoudi's (2006) study of Jordanian teachers.

Despite these findings, recent studies have shown that gender is a contributing factor in terms of teachers' attitudes towards inclusion. When it with came to including learners with disabilities, Erdem and Demirel (2007), Romi and Leyser (2006) and Woodcock (2008) all note that female teachers expressed a higher degree of perceived teaching efficacy than their male counterparts. Ahsan et al. (2012), in studying Mexican pre-service teachers, noted that the female teachers displayed greater self-confidence in their teaching than their male counterparts. Khatib (2007), who probed the knowledge of Jordanian regular education teachers as regards learning disabilities, discovered that female teachers were more knowledgeable than their male peers.

There are also studies cited in Samir (2013), that were conducted in the United Arab Emirates (UAE), the UK, Nigeria and Saudi Arabia by Alghazo and Gaad (2004); Avramidis et al. (2000); Fakolade and Adeniyi (2009) and Qaraqish (2008), revealing that female teachers' experience and working level tend to be higher than that of male teachers. Female teachers are regarded as being more inclusive than male teachers, when practising IE in the classroom (Boyle, Topping & Jindal-Snape 2013).

Further, Lopes et al. (2004:413, cited in Cassady, 2011), mention that students with special needs "present serious challenges to teachers because they are difficult, time-consuming, and

frustrating". Therefore, SEN teachers tend to experience high levels of stress when dealing with these learners, and female teachers are said to cope better under these stressful conditions, and to be able to maintain a more positive attitude than their impatient male counterparts.

The study by Boyle et al. (2013) found that significant gender differences create a platform for debate on the issue of gender differences as regards attitudes towards inclusion. The findings of Mdikana, Ntshangase and Mayekiso (2007:130) indicate that since the existing literature reveals both negative and positive attitudes towards IE, it is indicative of the fact that a great deal still needs to be done nationally and internationally. Therefore, community mobilisation and advocacy work are sorely needed for South African populations to be able to buy into the relatively new concept of IE.

2.3   Teacher training in IE

Berry et al. (2012, cited in Buell, Hallam, Gamel-McCormick & Scheer, 1999) state that a lack of efficacy may be a concerning factor for teachers who need to implement IE, because of the insufficient training and education they received on inclusion. Teachers may feel effective in inclusive classrooms if they have had opportunities to experience some success in these settings through training and education. To make certain that these policy and legislative mandates translate into improved teaching practices at the classroom level, reforms in teacher education programmes as well as in teaching–learning practices are necessary (Forlin, 2008; 2010). Further, Forlin et al. (2014) posit that teacher educators are facing challenges in transforming their views and practices with respect to teacher preparation, because schools and systems are shifting towards making environments more inclusive. Allday, Gatti and Hudson (2013), in their study, interviewed teachers who reported a paucity of inclusive training among general education teachers as part of their pre-service preparation. Scruggs and Mastropieri (1996, cited in Allday et al. 2013) observed 10 560 teachers in their survey, and found that only one fourth to one third reported having had sufficient training to carry out inclusion successfully. Even though these concerns were voiced decades ago it appears little progress has been made, hence the call from teachers desiring to be adequately trained in this field. The latter statement is supported by McHatton and Parker (2013), who are of the view that general and special education teachers are increasingly challenged by the likelihood of collaborating in classrooms that are inclusive in nature, so that the needs of all students are met and their potential is realised.

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According to Al-Tarwana (2008), much has been done in terms of preparing regular class teachers for changes over the years, thus teacher training institutions have no choice but to comply by ensuring that pre-service teachers are equipped with the knowledge and skills needed to cater for the needs of increasingly diverse learners. Dealing with diverse groups of learners in the classroom can lead teachers to adopt either a negative or a positive attitude. The findings of various studies on teachers' attitudes indicate that the teachers who are most eager to include students from diverse backgrounds, are those whose pre-service training programmes promoted values and thinking associated with inclusion. They also create inclusive classrooms in which learners thrive (Martinez, 2003; Romi & Leyser, 2006). In support of the latter statement, Algazo and Gaad (2004) and Samir (2013), in a study conducted in the UAE, found that teachers more readily accepted learners who are physically challenged in regular classes than they did learners with specific learning disabilities (e.g., visual or hearing impairments, behavioural difficulties or intellectual disabilities). Research conducted by Qaraqish (2008) in Saudi Arabia, indicates that teachers displayed positive attitudes towards including students with learning problems in regular classrooms, but displayed negative attitudes towards including students with physical and/or behavioural problems.

Bechham and Rouse (2011) and Shade and Stewart (2001) acknowledge that it might be best to address issues concerning educators' understanding of IE and to try to make them feel positive towards IE during the pre-service teacher preparation period. In Lesotho, the Ministry of Education focuses the training of pre-service teachers on developing a positive attitude towards disability and knowledge of disabilities. Training includes informal screening techniques as a way to circumvent any attitudes teachers might develop about disabilities, which could possibly result in a failure to implement inclusion (Johnstone & Chapman, 2009). For continued development and successful inclusive educational practises, the training teachers receive before stepping into the classroom, is vital (Loreman, Sharma, Forlin & Earle, 2005; Loreman, Deppeler, Harvey & Rowley, 2006).

The Malaysian government introduced an intervention programme called the Literacy and Numeracy Strategy (LINUS) for students identified as 'at-risk' of developing numeracy and literacy problems. As part of the initiative, LINUS teachers receive government-supported continuing professional development, which enables them to identify and support students

with special needs as well as those at risk, because these teachers are expected to be better informed than others in Malaysia about special educational needs (Bailey, Nomanbhoy & Tubpan, 2015). Previous research suggests that such specialised training inculcates more positive views in teachers (Loreman et al., 2007).

Thus, for novice teachers to be successful in inclusive environments requires not only expertise in and an understanding of IE, but also the development of positive attitudes towards and beliefs in their work (Avramidis, Bayliss & Burden, 2000; Avramidis & Norwich, 2002). Further, while training teachers to acquire the expertise and ability to implement IE, it is just as important that they accept and support the idea of an inclusive approach (Jordan, Schwartz & McGhie-Richmond, 2009). Some researchers argue that for IE to be a success, it must be strongly grounded in support for the doctrine (Ross-Hill, 2009; Forlin, 2012).

Furthermore, Avramides and Norwich (2002, cited in Bailey et al., 2015), contend that both physical and human support are important variables affecting teachers' perceptions of inclusion. In support of the latter statement, Horne and Timmons (2009) conducted a study in the small community of Prince Edward Island in Canada, where teachers knew the families of children with special needs on a social basis. The findings indicated that the teachers were supportive and displayed a welcoming attitude towards inclusion.

Several studies revealed that participating in IE courses can have a positive impact on the skills and knowledge development of pre-service teachers, thus helping them to develop advanced teaching skills that can strengthen positive attitudes (Sari, Çeliköz & Seçer, 2008; Woodcock, 2008; Lancaster & Bain 2007, 2010; Oh, Rizzo, So, Chung, Park & Lei, 2010). Further studies by Romi and Leyser (2006); Sharma, Moore and Sonawane (2009), Ben-Yehuda, Leyser and Last (2010); Forlin, Cedillo and Romero-Contreras (2010) have shown that pre-service teachers who participate in training programmes about teaching in IE classrooms express their readiness by demonstrating a high degree of teaching efficacy and showing welcoming attitudes towards students with diverse learning needs. Unesco (1994b) supports the latter statement as part of its international recommendations, indicating that teacher training programmes are supposed to incorporate inclusion. Ali, Mustapha and Jelas (2006), in a study done in Malaysia, show that even though teachers displayed favourable opinions regarding the implementation of IE programmes, aspects such as collaboration and

preparation to train mainstream and LSEN teachers in dealing with and teaching students with special needs, should be improved.

According to a study by Kern (2006), teachers like what inclusive classrooms do for their students and are generally interested in serving students in such a manner. However, the study also indicates that teachers do not believe they receive enough support and training in how to teach an inclusion classroom. This concern is also mentioned in Armstrong, Armstrong and Spandagou (2010), who indicate that actual training as a means to prepare teachers to become inclusive practitioners currently lags far behind policy. To substantiate, in Canada, not all pre-service teachers receive specific training in working with students with special needs. As evidence, recent findings reveal that 43 per cent of teachers who teach in Manitoba reported not having attended courses on how to teach students with diverse needs, while 38 per cent were not confident of having the necessary skills in the area of inclusion (Sokal & Sharma, 2014; Sokal & Katz, 2015).

McCrimmon (2015) contends that despite an awareness that teacher knowledge and experience have a dramatic, facilitative effect on inclusive classrooms, the majority of teacher preparation programmes at universities still lag behind the expected standard of teacher training when it comes to the curriculum. Having conducted a study in Canada, McCrimmon (2015) found that most Canadian universities seem not to expose teachers to either definitions or descriptions of childhood disabilities, nor to mentored experience or research-informed, effective, classroom-based intervention practices, despite the fact that such processes would clearly best meet the needs of future teachers working in inclusive classroom environments. Jacquet (2008) provides a further argument by mentioning that even though teachers have reportedly complained about the lack of training they receive and their limited understanding of childhood disabilities (including how to modify or adapt the classroom and/or curriculum to meet such students' learning needs), it is surprising that Canadian (BEd) programmes still lack effective preparatory coursework in this regard. In Canada, recent research has found that teachers do not feel they possess the expertise required to effectively instruct learners within an inclusive environment. Professional training and development opportunities are thus fundamental to ensuring that students with exceptional learning needs in IEs classrooms receive appropriate instruction (Loreman, 2010; Loreman, Sharma & Forlin, 2013).

Newly graduated teachers concur that they are not well prepared to work in inclusive schools (United Nations, 2006; Winter, 2006). Consequently, a lack of training in the field of inclusive or special education may lead many educators to hold less positive attitudes towards including students with disabilities in mainstream settings (Winter & O'Raw, 2010). While a lack of support and training prevents them from being the most effective teachers they can be, increased training has been associated with more positive attitudes about inclusive classrooms (Briggs, Johnson, Shepherd & Sedbrook, 2002).

Taking the argument further, Ahmmed, Sharma and Deppeler (2012) contend that prior positive experiences in teaching and interacting with students with disabilities have caused teachers to show increased support for IE, along with greater support for inclusive practices in their schools in general. The researchers warn that such perceived support for inclusive practices, on the part of the school as a whole, should not be undermined. This is confirmed by Ryan and Gottfried (2012:563), who note that when conflicting values, attitudes and beliefs manifest among members of a group over an issue such as inclusion, or over the behaviours of a member who favours a non-inclusive approach, the entire group dynamic can break down. Therefore, to successfully implement a programme such as inclusion, it is vital to test the attitudes of the staff, as no such endeavour can be successful without positive support.

Chhabra et al. (2010), in a study conducted in Botswana on the implementation of special education, found that teachers are concerned about the inadequate equipment they have to work with, as well as the non-availability of paraprofessionals in schools implementing IE. Mukhopadhyay et al. (2012), in another study carried out in Botswana, discovered that teachers' perceptions on IE were generally positive, yet support from the government was lacking. Teacher respondents complained about not being properly trained to manage children who need specialised attention and treatment, and lacking the necessary resources for teaching these learners. The high teacher:learner ratio in Botswana further exacerbates the problem. Therefore, a government's failure to provide the expected support can adversely affect the way in which IE is implemented, which could help to explain teachers' resistance to implement this approach. Teachers often cite the lack of resources as an obstacle to including learners with special needs in mainstream classrooms. Topping (2012, cited Thomas et al., 1998) mentions that adequate, appropriately expert practitioner time; adequate, appropriate physical space; adequate learning and teaching material; as well as adequate

high-quality continuing professional development (CPD) are essential for the successful inclusion of learners with special needs. For successful inclusion to occur in classrooms, intense and time-consuming CPD must happen, yet sometimes this is lacking or not properly delivered.

In most instances, learners with special needs are placed in mainstream environments without considering their specific needs or the additional support they require. Teachers often cite a lack of resources as a barrier, yet there is little clarity about exactly what resources are needed and why. Sometimes the wrong type of resources are pumped into mainstream environments without an implementation plan: this may worsen the situation, rather than meeting specific needs, and may in fact add to the frustration of teachers (Topping, 2012).

Factors such as the impact of existing legislation and teachers' perceived level of competence in respect of inclusion continue to require consideration. Beyene and Tizazu (2010), in research based in Ethiopia, found that the majority of teachers surveyed had strongly negative feelings about inclusion, identifying impediments such as class size, inadequate resources, failure to adapt curricula and a lack of adequate training. The issue of a lack of resources is also broached by Engelbrecht and Green (2011), who mention that even the United Nations' Declaration of Human Rights of Disabled Persons (1975) states that although persons with disabilities should be provided for, it is possible to procrastinate in taking action until such time as adequate and relevant resources can be made available.

There is a need to enhance teacher training in IE practices, as suggested by Mutepfa, Mpofu and Chataika (2007), who researched Zimbabwean teachers' attitudes towards students with disabilities. They cite an example reported by Barnatt and Kabzems (1992), who found that Zimbabwean teachers who were not supported in this regard did not accept the placement of students with significant disabilities in mainstream settings, and turned away such learners from school even though that was illegal. The teacher respondents admitted to perceiving themselves as untrained and ill equipped to deal with SEN learners.

Li, Oneonta and Ji (2010), in studies carried out in parts of the United States and China, found that although pre-service teachers had favourable attitudes towards inclusion, they were inadequately prepared to teach SEN students. The researchers suggest that teacher education institutions in both countries should carefully consider issues such as attitudes and

self-efficacy, in helping pre-service teachers to become better prepared to meet the challenges of IE.

Much as training institutions are now required to ensure that pre-service teachers are sufficiently competent to cater for the needs of an increasingly wide range of diverse learners, and to include content on inclusion as part of teacher training programmes, the length of pre-service teacher education courses should also be reconsidered. According to Rademacher, Wilhelm and Hildereth (1998), the duration of such courses, as well as the number of courses the teachers attend on inclusion and disability, are predictors of their attitudes towards implementing IE in their classrooms. To substantiate, Ahsan et al. (2012, cited in Rademacher, Wilhelm and Hildereth, 1998) examined the attitudes of 78 American pre-service teachers who were enrolled in different courses of varying duration (from three weeks to one semester to two semesters). Their findings indicate that participants who had enrolled for long-duration programmes (i.e., two semesters) displayed significantly more positive attitudes than their counterparts who were enrolled for shorter duration courses (three weeks, one semester). Most teacher training institutions are now required to produce graduates who are able to respond to the diverse student populations in their mainstream classes. Many are thus modifying their pre-service programmes to address the issue of inclusion (Loreman, 2002).

In Australia, many universities have responded to the challenge by ensuring that all pre-service teachers complete at least one subject in special or inclusive education, so as to be eligible to register as a teacher. To achieve that, graduates in teacher education programmes need to learn a range of strategies aimed at supporting the full participation of students with disabilities. They are also required to design and implement teaching activities that support the participation and learning of students with disabilities, and address relevant policy and legislative requirements. Graduates in teacher education programmes further need to incorporate content related to the teaching of students with special needs, which appears to be a step in the right direction (Sharma, 2011). In a study conducted amongst Australian pre-service teachers, it was found that including components of IE in their course proved to be an enabling factor for high teaching efficacy, because the curriculum content significantly related to pre-service teachers' perceived teaching efficacy in IE (Lancaster & Bain 2007, 2010).

Dharan (2013) contends that research tends to focus on either pre-service or in-service teacher education for inclusion, but not on the transitional stage. The challenges facing novice teachers as they transition into the classroom are not considered, yet their perspective is very important, because they need to be prepared prior to teaching an inclusive classroom. What Romi and Leyser (2006) found in their study conducted in Israel with three groups of pre-service teachers, was that the group which had completed special education majors during their teacher education programme showed a significantly higher level of perceived teaching effectiveness than the group which lacked such experience. A large study with participants from institutions located in Canada, Hong Kong, Australia and Singapore, showed that single-unit courses and infused approaches (where inclusion training is included in all coursework) were effective for espousing positive changes in attitude (Peebles & Mendaglio, 2014).

In Uganda, Lewis and Bagree (2013) found that teacher training for regular teachers rarely prepares them for working in diverse classrooms, and in particular does not equip them with the confidence, knowledge and skills needed to effectively support learners with disabilities. This explains why so many children with disabilities remain out of school, or are excluded from learning processes within schools. There is thus a need to prepare regular teachers to meet the learning and participatory needs of children with disabilities. To do this, regular teachers need to receive appropriate initial training, ongoing training and professional development, as well as ongoing access to adequate, high-quality support and advice from specialist personnel and other stakeholders.

In South Africa, in-service programmes have proven inefficient in equipping teachers, which has resulted in them feeling insecure, inexperienced and lacking confidence to teach and include learners who experience barriers to learning in their classrooms (Engelbrecht et al., 2006). Teacher education has now been restructured in line with the policy and structural innovations envisaged for South Africa's "new" education system since the dawn of democracy. Pre-1994, a dual system of teacher education prevailed, separated along the lines of mainstream and special education. Teacher qualifications prepared teachers to teach in mainstream education, while those who wanted to teach in special education classes and schools were expected to obtain additional qualifications. Teachers working within mainstream classes were not trained to cater for students with special needs. This lack of

training still presents serious challenges to the implementation of IE in South Africa (Oswald, 2007).

For IE to succeed in this country, it is vital that the sentiments or comfort levels of pre-service teachers be effectively addressed, when engaging with disability in the classroom, accepting students with different abilities and needs, and dealing with teachers' concerns about inclusion. One of the major problems facing local teachers is that, when the shift to an IE system occurred, they were confronted with new theories, assumptions and practices which required them to perform different roles, including those of counsellor, minister, parent and social worker – roles they had not been trained for. This implied new mindsets, new attitudes, new practices. Transformation amongst South Africa's teaching cohort has proven not to be so easy, given directives within the previous education system which had the effect of legitimising exclusionary practices (Oswald & Swart, 2011).

The gap between policy development and implementation remains a challenge. Twenty years after the publication of the Salamanca Statement and the establishment of a democratic government in South Africa, the implementation of IE is still problematic (Wildeman & Nomdo, 2007). This can be attributed to two factors.

The first is the rapid transformation of the education system, which has placed considerable demands on teachers and given rise to pessimism and a sense of hopelessness. It has even led teachers to reject transformation policies, which some view as symbolic rather than a practical reality, because many of them grew up and taught for years within a historically divided and separated system. Previous teacher education curriculums mainly focused on a medical model of difference and disability before the introduction of IE, which is why teachers are attempting to improve their knowledge and skills in this regard, by completing further education courses at universities. Teachers regard themselves as not sufficiently trained or experienced to support learners who experience barriers to learning, nor do they feel they can question the opinions of the so-called 'experts' (Welton, 2001; Swart & Pettipher, 2011; Chiner & Cardona 2013; Nel et al., 2013).

The second factor relates to the quality of education in South Africa, which remains very poor, largely due to the inadequate training which teachers receive. This is compounded by overcrowded classrooms, where the ratio of teachers to learners in public schools is 1:32.

According to the South African Institute of Race Relations (2012), there is a need for 25 000 new teachers a year in this country, but only around 10 000 qualify. As a result, the existing cohort of teachers is overburdened. The learner dropout rate is very high, and literacy and numeracy levels are low. Unskilled teachers, a lack of commitment to teach, poor support for learners at home and a shortage of resources in education (despite large budgetary commitments by government) contribute to this situation (Matshidiso, 2012).

In their research study conducted on teachers in Gauteng province, Nel et al. (2013) found that teachers still believe they are not adequately trained or skilled to play an equal role in collaborative partnership within an IE system. They prefer to refer learners with barriers to learning to other professionals who form part of the support structure, e.g. members of the district-based support team (DBST) or the institutional-level support team (ILST).

Naicker (2005) is of the view that teachers are supposed to move from viewing special needs from an individual deficit approach to needs, to a human rights approach to student diversity. Currently, the deficit view still influences attitudes towards disability and difference in the education system, and it seems difficult to eradicate. This view is supported by Oswald (2007, p. 146) who asserts that teacher education programmes are dominated by the medical–pathological model of disability and difference, therefore teachers learn that "certain students have special needs which can only be met through special material, special teacher skills and in special segregated settings".

Sharma, Moore and Sonawane (2009), in research conducted in countries where IE has been implemented for many years, found that the successful implementation of inclusion reforms depends on at least three factors: (1) policy that supports IE; (2) adequately trained educators (teachers, paraprofessionals and school leaders); and (3) a commitment to the provision of the necessary ongoing support, including special teaching resources and the availability of specially trained educational consultants, for classroom teachers and school principals alike. Supporting the latter statement, Nel (2011) states that research has shown that there is a correlation between the positive attitudes of teachers to the mainstreaming of learners with special needs and the support these teachers receive from management (along with other more technical variables such as more resources, smaller classes, more time to design special teaching materials, continuous support and assistance from others).

Donohue and Bornman (2014) are of the view that in South Africa, the primary explanation for the absence of significant movement on inclusive policy is a lack of clarity in the policy, and poor policy implementation. Obviously, for any policy to be implemented successfully sufficient funding is required, yet in this case the funding provided by the South African DoE to provincial education departments proved inadequate. In this regard, Pasensie (2012, p. 3) notes: "Only R463 million was budgeted for the expansion of inclusive education, and the fact that five provinces did not receive appropriate funding for inclusive education meant there were serious backlogs." With a limited budget, provinces are affected and the planned roll-out cost of converting ordinary schools to full-service schools for the implementation of IE is proving challenging. IE policy envisages that teachers should be able to identify and support learners with barriers to learning, yet teachers lack important skills and knowledge in differentiating the curriculum to address a wide range of learning needs. In addition, being confronted with large classes makes it difficult for them to fulfil the policy mandate. According to Pasensie (2012), the DBE identified teachers' lack of skills and categorised that lack in three levels: the first consists of teachers in ordinary schools who lack essential knowledge on how to identify and address barriers to learning in their subjects and in the classroom situation; the second comprises teachers who work in special schools and do not possess specialised knowledge in many key areas of disability, in particular those areas that are critical in the fields of education for visually impaired, autistic, hard-of-hearing or deaf learners, or those with intellectual disabilities, cerebral palsy or communication disorders; and the third includes district officials who lack the expertise required to provide schools with the relevant skills to manage and effectively implement IE.

Eloff and Kgwete (2007, p. 2) support the latter statement by alluding to the fact that many teachers in South Africa are ill prepared to meet the needs of diverse learners, hence the development of negative attitudes towards inclusion. Further, Pasensie (2012, p. 3) mentions that "according to Marie Schoeman of the DBE, the majority of teachers are not sufficiently skilled or positively inclined towards minimising the barriers that are experienced by learners, even though a number of teachers have received Advanced Education Certificates (ACEs)". Some authors lay the blame on the past education system, where black teachers had no exposure to any areas of special education unless they were fortunate enough to attend a private institution. Teaching practices are shaped and informed by the learning theories that teachers are exposed to during their pre-service training, therefore it is a fundamental aspect of education to teach the way someone was taught. For years, teachers in South Africa were

exposed to the apartheid education system, which was authoritarian, exclusionary and teacher centered – as a result, it would be unreasonable to expect a paradigm shift to occur within a short space of time (Davies & Green, 1998; Welton, 2001; Welch, 2002; Engelbrecht, 2003; Oswald et al. cited in Engelbrecht & Green, 2011). This is exacerbated by the lack of strategies for teacher support, which ensure that South Africa still lags behind in training educators for inclusion. Most teacher training institutes in South Africa still provide limited information on how to teach students with disabilities.

The lack of teacher preparation for inclusive classrooms is an oft-repeated complaint in the literature on IE. Academics in South Africa continue to grapple with the challenges of providing conceptually coherent and pedagogically appropriate initial teacher education courses in IE. Amidst competing demands for space in the curriculum, they seek to balance the needs of the context with the research-based practices reported in the literature. There is a need to re-evaluate teacher training and education within the context of this country and the demands of IE practices (Sadek & Sadek, 2000; Walton, 2014). To this end, Pasensie (2012) notes that Briefing paper 314, compiled for parliament, reports that some institutions of higher learning have already begun including IE and learning support as components of their Initial Teacher Education (ITE) programmes.

In conclusion, issues such as the absence of a clear understanding of the concept of inclusion, policy changes and doubts about the ability of the current system to implement the policy, the low self-efficacy of teachers, lack of training, inadequate resources and poor support structures appear to be universal challenges to the practise of IE. Lack of support for learners in the education system creates doubts about the provision of quality education for those with disabilities or special needs, along with uncertainty about the curriculum at special schools as well as inadequate teacher standards (BRIDGE, 2014). To successfully implement inclusion anywhere in the world, educators must receive adequate training and sufficient support, and must foster positive attitudes. Therefore, teacher education institutions need to be at the forefront of research into innovative teaching methodologies, to ensure that pre-service teachers enter the profession with the potential to become agents of change in the development of inclusive schools and classrooms (Naicker, 2005; Frankel, Gold & Ajodhia-Andrews, 2010; Nel et al., 2013).

2.4   Training for IE implementation

Agbenyega (2007) asserts that in Ghana, teachers believe regular schools are not the place for learners with disabilities – particularly those with sensory impairments. To a large extent, the teachers perceive that policy makers impose IE on them. Agbenyega (2007, p. 53) argues that the beliefs, negative attitudes and concerns of teachers may be attributed to a lack of professional preparedness, scarce resources, and a lack of sufficient orientation and specialist assistance. Professional knowledge, appropriate materials and sufficient human resources have been found to enhance teachers' positive attitudes, and their willingness to embrace and make inclusion work.

In support of the latter statement, Avramidis, Bayliss and Burden (2000, cited in Agbenyega, 2007) mention that when teachers are sufficiently equipped in terms of knowledge and expertise, and are duly supported by other professionals, their confidence levels to work with all students in inclusive classrooms improve. In a study conducted in Serbia, it was found that teachers hold slightly negative attitudes towards the inclusion of SEN learners, and that teachers without the relevant experience were more negative than those with the requisite experience, in respect of all the factors assessed (Kolyva, Gojkovic & Tsakiris, 2007). That view is supported by Bigham (2010), who asserts that teachers without any specialised training in including students with special needs tend to have more negative attitudes towards those students and are not comfortable including them in general education inclusive classrooms.

Bigham's (2010) findings reflect observations made by this researcher in both mainstream and special schools in South Africa. Some teachers display negative attitudes towards students with disabilities in general, because they have never been trained (or received very limited training), which leaves them incompetent in dealing with SEN students. General education teachers may feel incapable of adapting the general education curriculum for students with cognitive disabilities, or they may feel ill equipped to deal with significant behavioural issues. Chhabra, Srivastava and Srivastava (2010) found that special education and general education teachers felt unable to meet the needs of students with more severe disabilities in a general education setting. Taking the argument further, a study by Yssel et al. (2007), which compared scenarios in the US with what obtains in this country, indicated that South African parents cited the inability of teachers to implement inclusion successfully, as one of the drawbacks frustrating teachers.

McLeskey and Waldron (2002, cited in Huber, 2009) assert that when teachers participate in ongoing professional development about inclusion, they are more willing to teach children with disabilities in general education classrooms, and are more willing to collaborate with special education professionals. In a study conducted in Hong Kong, Leung and Mak (2010) came to similar conclusions, namely that most teachers in inclusive schools have a basic and incomplete understanding of IE, and believe they need additional training. For instance, one US parent was quoted as saying "the only thing I can say is they could have been trained a lot better". The parent was referring to the teachers, whom she was not accusing of failing to try – rather, she blamed their inadequate training for their reluctance or inability to teach students with disabilities (Yssel et al., 2007).

Much as teachers play a key role in including learners who face barriers to learning, they seem to experience the inclusion of such learners as stressful because they do not feel equipped for the task. Forlin et al. (2009) and Roberts (2011) stress that it is vital that teachers' training institutions offer compulsory courses in IE or special education.

Huber (2009) is of the view that negative attitudes acquired early in one's career are difficult to change, therefore if pre-service teachers leave their teacher education programmes with negative attitudes about including students with disabilities in general education classrooms, they will be resistant to change and will be less likely to promote positive outcomes for such students.

Tarraga, Grau and Peirats (2013) conducted a study on 274 students enrolled in pre-school teacher education, elementary teacher education and the Master's course in special education, at the University of Valencia in Spain, using the ORI (Opinion Relative to Integration of Students with Disabilities Scale). The results indicated that all three groups displayed favourable attitudes towards IE, however the prospective elementary teachers' attitudes were better than those of the other groups.

For the IE system to be implemented successfully, teachers and support staff must be trained to improve their attitudes, because they are the ones responsible for the day-to-day running of the programme at schools (Topping, 2012). Chopra (2008) supports this proposal, noting several factors that influence general education teachers' attitudes towards inclusion, and

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emphasising that they need proper training and support services. Such teachers should be willing to participate in collaborative interaction, so that they can be on par with special teachers. In attempting to fulfil the vision of inclusion, staff must realise that both "regular and special educators will need to share the responsibility of educating all of their students" (Mayhew, 1994). Huber (2009) asserts that training in instructional strategies to improve the skills of teachers and providing specific training on the benefits of inclusion are needed to promote positive teacher attitudes.

It is essential to understand the responses and expectations of pre-service and in-service teachers as regards learners with SEN, since these teachers' attitudes influence the implementation and practise of IE. Therefore, helping regular education teachers to understand their attitudes towards, or their perceptions of, mainstreaming special education learners is a crucial step in making inclusion a reality (Sindelar, Brownell & Billingsley, 2010).

2.5   Successful conditions for the implementation of IE

Avramidis and Norwich (2002) found that teachers' attitudes were strongly influenced by the nature and severity of the disabling condition presented to them (child-related variables) and less by teacher-related variables. Educational environment-related variables (e.g., the availability of physical and human support) were consistently found to be associated with attitudes towards inclusion. However, those teachers at schools who practised inclusion and had resource rooms at their disposal showed more positive attitudes towards the integration of students with disabilities. On the other hand, a lack of facilities and teaching materials became major obstacles and made teachers less willing to engage fully with the implementation of IE (Charema, 2007).

Positive attitudes might be the result of regular education teachers receiving support from, amongst others, the resource room teacher, who might provide instructions on helping special needs students. In addition, teachers with special needs qualifications and experience may display positive attitudes towards education in inclusive settings (Hungwe, 2005) and this might rub off on their fellow educators.

These views are supported by Mnkandla and Mataruse (2002), who found that Zimbabwean regular education teachers are developing more positive attitudes towards IE and learners

with special needs. This is because having students with disabilities at regular schools which are equipped with resource rooms enhances the teaching and learning environment, as well as teachers' awareness of disabilities. Further, inclusion affords special education learners more opportunities for social acceptance and friendship, in addition to them reaping the benefits of higher learning (Kern, 2006).

Maunganidze and Kasayira (2002), cited in Mutepfa et al., 2007) observed that while 52 per cent of regular teachers had positive attitudes towards the education of learners with disabilities in inclusive settings, learners with physical and visual disabilities were considered more acceptable for inclusive schools than those with intellectual and hearing impairments. This confirms what Avramidis and Norwich (2002) noted previously about child-related variables. The survey on the attitudes of mainstream teachers towards the inclusion of children with special needs in ordinary schools, done by Avramidis, Bayliss and Burden (2000), revealed that teachers who have been practising programmes that are inclusive in nature and have been engaging in active practices of inclusion, possess more positive attitudes.

Avramidis and Kalyva (2007) concur, given the results of a survey on the attitudes of Greek teachers towards inclusion: teachers who had been actively involved in teaching SEN learners held significantly more positive attitudes than their counterparts without such experience. Further Leyser, Kapperman and Keller (1994, cited in Mdikana et al., 2007), undertook a cross-cultural study of teacher attitudes towards inclusion or integration in the US, Germany, Israel, Ghana, Taiwan and the Philippines. Their findings show marked differences in attitudes towards inclusion: teachers in the US had the most positive attitudes (attributed to inclusion being widely practised there as a result of Public Law 94-1423); in Ghana, the Philippines, Israel and Taiwan, teachers' attitudes were less positive due to limited or non-existent opportunities for integration.

Inadequate educational facilities can also create conditions that are not conducive to the successful implementation of IE, especially in developing countries. This view is shared by Wanjohi (2013), who asserts that many schools in emerging economies have inadequate basic facilities such as properly ventilated classrooms, furniture suitable for disabled and non-disabled learners, kitchens, safe/clean water, playgrounds, toilets and play materials, among others. Cargan and Schmidt (2011) aver that the majority of teachers in their study had

negative feelings about inclusion due to several impeding factors, such as class size, inappropriate adaptations and insufficient teacher preparation for inclusion, with teachers questioning the usefulness and benefits of inclusion for other pupils.

Scruggs and Mastropieri (1996, cited in Rakap & Kaczmarek, 2010) assert that two factors advance the cause of inclusion: the degree of intensity of inclusion and the severity level of the disabilities of those learners who will be included in regular education classrooms. Teachers' support decreased when asked about more intensive, inclusive practices: they appeared more supportive of inclusion when the learners in their classrooms needed little or no teacher assistance, and seemed mostly supportive when asked about the inclusion of students with mild learning disabilities.

Teacher training is crucial in both the teaching and the learning process. Unless teachers are adequately trained to handle both disabled and non-disabled learners in one class, some learners' performance will be affected. Continued poor performance among disabled learners, due to the poor teaching skills and abilities of teachers, will trigger their poor enrolment in mainstream schools and will affect the overall success of IE (Wanjohi, 2013).

For IE to be successfully implemented, adequate support is needed for all stakeholders concerned. Wanjohi (2013) asserts that many governments in developing countries have not been able to effectively implement an IE policy framework – South Africa included. Successful implementation is largely reliant on factors such as the community's attitude towards disability, the adequate involvement of all stakeholders and the availability of adequate, basic learning facilities. The literature reveals that there is a critical need to conduct research in this field nationally, as little published data exist on the attitudes of mainstream school educators towards the implementation of IE in South Africa, with no specific reference to Mafikeng primary schools. An investigation on this topic will therefore contribute positively to the corpus of existing information.

CHAPTER 3
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

This study is guided by Ajzen's theory of planned behaviour (TPB), an extension of the theory of reasoned action (TRA) (Ajzen, 1991). The TPB model, which is widely used to determine behaviour arising from attitudes, has been utilised in research involving attitudes towards individuals with disabilities (Hodge & Jansma, 2000).

3.2 The TPB

The TPB developed out of the TRA (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980), which aimed to understand behaviour by looking at the relationship between attitudes, subjective norms and behavioural intentions. According to Ajzen (1991), attitudes and subjective norms are the determinants of intention, thus intention most likely directly influences behaviour. Many researchers have, however, suggested that the TRA as a model is inadequate when people believe they have little control over their decisions. This gave rise to the emergence of the TPB, which applies the exact same framework as the TRA, but with the addition of perceived behavioural control (PBC) as a third determinant of intentions.

The TPB can help researchers understand how to change people's behaviour, which is not always completely voluntary or under their control. The assumption can be made that in order for an individual to be involved in a particular action, three major factors should be at play: behavioural beliefs (which link behaviour to expected outcome, i.e., the individual's personal judgement about whether s/he will be able to do something); normative beliefs (the expectations of others, i.e., important referent individuals/groups such as a spouse, family, friends, teacher, doctor, supervisor, co-workers) and control beliefs (the presence of factors that may further or hinder the performance of certain behaviours, including other people's perceptions of someone's ability to perform a given behaviour) (see Figure 1).
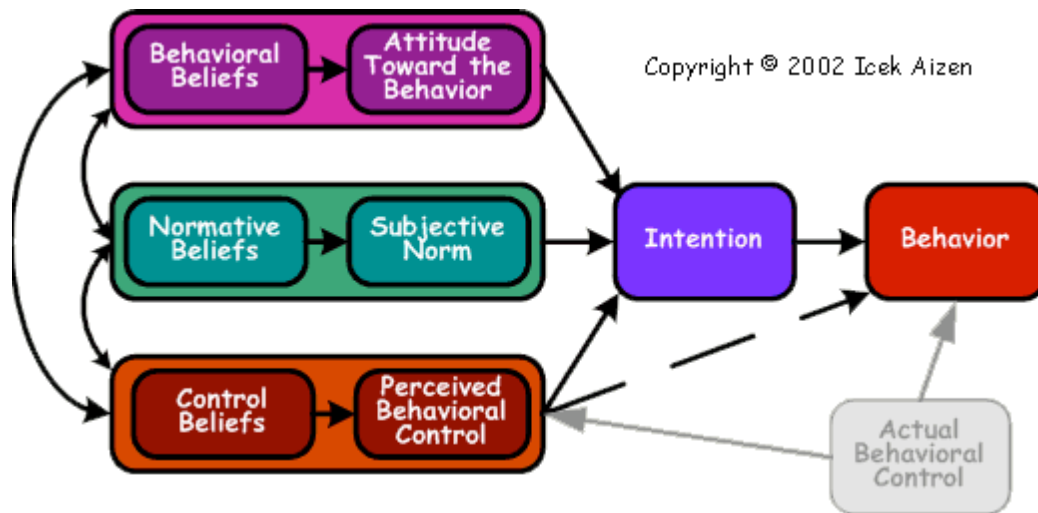
Figure 1: Schematic representation of Theory of Planned Behaviour
Source: Ajzen and Fishbein (1980)

Fishbein and Ajzen (1975) mention that when the elements of behavioural beliefs are combined they produce a favourable or an unfavourable attitude towards the behaviour. Normative beliefs, by contrast, result in perceived social or subjective norms, and control beliefs give rise to perceived behavioural control, the perceived ease or difficulty in performing a specific behaviour. According to Ajzen (1996), when the attitude toward the behaviour, the subjective norm and the perception of behavioural control combine, it leads to the formation of a behavioural intention.

The more favourable the attitude and subjective norm, and the greater the perceived control, the stronger the person's intention to perform the behaviour in question. Thus, when people are given a sufficient degree of actual control over the behaviour, then the expectation is that they will carry out their intentions when the opportunity arises (Ajzen, 1996; Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). In this regard, Hrubes, Ajzen and Daigle (2001) posit that "intention is thus assumed to be the immediate antecedent of behaviour". The assumption made by TPB is that human behaviour is based on facts and guided by logical thought processes. Therefore, the causal chain of the TPB implies that altering behaviour-specific beliefs can assist in improving or correcting unhealthy behaviours. This foundation, along with its restrained nature, has established the TPB as an effective theoretical framework for developing primary prevention interventions (Knowlden et al., 2012). The literature review focusing on the determinants of behaviour, as indicated by the TPB, follows.

3.2.1 Behavioural beliefs and attitudes toward behaviour

Behavioural beliefs concern the likely outcomes of behaviour and the evaluation of those outcomes. In their respective aggregates they produce a favourable or an unfavourable attitude toward a certain behaviour and guide considerations of positive and negative outcomes (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). Therefore, a person's attitude towards a behaviour is defined as his/her personal evaluation of that behaviour, based on the positive or negative outcomes expected to be associated with it (Zemore & Ajzen, 2014).

Fishbein and Ajzen (1975, p.6) state that "attitude can be described as predisposition to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavourable manner with respect to a given object". Schafer and Tait (1986), in turn, refer to attitude as a set of feelings and tendencies that influence a person's views about people, ideas or objects. Those feelings and tendencies can be either positive or negative.

There are different definitions for attitude. According to Eagly and Chaiken (1998, p. 1), construct attitude is defined as "a psychological tendency that is expressed by evaluating a particular entity with some degree of favour or disfavour". To justify their definition, Eagly and Chaiken (1998) discourage the use of terms used by certain theorists, such as "acquired disposition", which they indicate is associated too closely with the idea that attitudes are learned – that is not always the case, since some attitudes have a biological basis. Furthermore, they discourage the use of "disposition", indicating that it is often used to describe personality characteristics. For Eagly and Chaiken (1998), "tendency" is appropriate, because it implies an attitude as an internal state which can either be of short or long duration, and can also be more or less well established. For them, "evaluating" refers to all types of responses in three categories: cognitive, affective and behavioural, be they positive, negative, neutral, overt or covert (Eagly & Chaiken, 1998).

Most contemporary theorists agree that attitudes are essentially evaluative and bipolar in nature. Therefore, this definition ascribes each attitude a place on a bipolar continuum, which ranges from a positive or favourable disposition towards the behaviour to a negative or unfavourable disposition, while passing through a neutral midpoint (Fishbein & Ajzen, 2010).

The attitude variable consists of three components, namely affection, cognition and behaviour. The affective or emotional component usually collects all those emotions and

feelings that stimulate an object or person to display subjective reactions of trust/distrust or like/dislike, amongst others. The cognitive component reflects someone's factual knowledge of a person or object, which refers to the mental process of perception, conception and beliefs about the attitudinal object. Finally, the behavioural component involves someone's open or overt behaviour directed toward a person or object (Zimbardo, Ebbesen, & Maslach, 1977). Further, Gil (1999) and Gómez-Chacón (2000) view the behavioural component as related to expressions of behavioural intentions, or actions and behaviour that represent the tendency to act (or resolve a situation) in a specific way. According to Al-Khaldi and Al-Jabri (1998), individual attitude consists of what a person feels about an object (affective), thinks (cognitive) and plans to do in the future (behavioural).

As stated by Ajzen (1991), "attitudes develop reasonably from the beliefs people hold about the object of the attitude". For example, a person may have a positive attitude about a journey/trip, because s/he associates it with an enjoyable time spent with friends and family, good food, laughter and fun. Ajzen (1991) asserts that when considering the relationship between belief and behaviour, "each belief links the behaviour to a certain outcome, or to some other attribute such as the cost incurred by performing the behaviour". Consequently, in the example of a journey, the person involved is more likely to repeat it because of the positive value placed on his/her previous experience.

3.2.2 Normative beliefs and subjective norms

Normative beliefs are defined as individuals' beliefs about the extent to which others who are important to him/her think s/he should (or should not) perform particular behaviours (Fisher, Fisher, & Rye, 1995). These normative beliefs also measure motivations to comply, i.e., to what extent individuals wish to behave consistently with the prescriptions of what they deem to be important others. The normative expectations of others, and the motivation to comply with their expectations, establish subjective norms. A subjective norm is defined as the perception that someone important to you thinks you should or should not perform a behaviour((Finlay, Trafimow, & Moroi, 1999), and in the context of this study is reflected in opinions such as: "People who are important to me think I should teach those learners who are experiencing barriers to learning in an inclusive setting." The subjective norm is a predictor of intention to behave which, in turn, is a predictor of actual behaviour. Normative beliefs thus reflect a person's association between their belief and the likelihood that

important people/groups will approve or disapprove of them performing a given behaviour (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Ajzen, 1991, 2005).

3.2.3   Control beliefs and perceived behavioural control

Rosenstock (1990) refers to control as the ability to influence what is happening or what will happen, and views beliefs as an individual's thoughts about his/her ability to influence behaviour. Perceived behavioural control (PBC) refers to the extent to which individuals feel they can engage in, or perform, a given behaviour. A person's perception of the ease or difficulty of performing a specific action/behaviour is vital in influencing his/her attitude towards a specific action (e.g., I believe I have sufficient control to practise inclusion in my classroom), and has been found to relate to past behaviours (Ajzen, 1985; Jones, 2010).

Ajzen (1991) explains that perceived behavioural control depends on the degree to which someone sees him/herself as sufficiently knowledgeable, skilful and able to perform a certain act, and on the extent to which s/he feels that other factors (resources, time constraints, personal past experiences, the past experiences of acquaintances, second-hand information about the behaviour, the views of friends, the cooperation of colleagues) could inhibit or facilitate the behaviour. Perceived behavioural control varies across situations and actions, and as a result the individual ends up with different perceptions of behavioural control, depending on the situation. As a component of the theory, perceived behavioural control reflects the fact that the performance of many of any individual's actions may be beyond his/her control (Kothe et al., 2011).

The more resources a person perceives him/herself as having, the less the likelihood of him/her seeing a possible hindrance to performing the behaviour, thus the greater the perceived behavioural control he/she has over the situation (Ajzen, 1991).

Further probing by Ajzen (1991) revealed that behavioural control and its influences on intention are deemed more of psychological interest than the actual control. This perception of behavioural control plays an important role in the TPB, such that it necessitates that PBC be distinguished from other concepts relating to control. To differentiate it from Rotter's (1966) notion of perceived locus of control, Ajzen (1991) asserts that while the locus of control is a universal expectancy that remains constant across a variety of circumstances and

behaviours, PBC usually differs across circumstances and behaviours, and is more aligned to people's unique understanding of the ease or challenge of executing a particular behaviour.

3.2.4   Distinguishing between PBC and self-efficacy

Tavousi et al. (2009) note that several researchers have presented evidence of a distinction between the constructs of self-efficacy and PBC. Researchers such as Armitage and Connor (1999) concur, emphasising the importance of investigating these two constructs as independent predictors of intention and behaviour. Armitage and Connor (2001) explain that self-efficacy is more concerned with cognitive perceptions of control based on internal factors, while PBC reflects more generally on external control factors. Other researchers note that self-efficacy only predicts intention, while PBC strongly predicts behaviour (Terry & O'Leary, 1995). Based on the above argument, the two constructs are closely investigated to distinguish underlying differences and how these affect the present study.

Bandura (1997) defines self-efficacy as a belief in a person having the ability and capability to perform a particular task successfully (see also social cognitive theory/social learning theory). Self-efficacy is deemed a type of self-confidence or a task-specific version of self-esteem (Brockner, 1988; Kanter, 2006). According to Bandura (1997), self-efficacy has three dimensions, namely magnitude (the level of task difficulty a person believes s/he can attain); strength (the belief, view or thought regarding such magnitude as either strong or weak); and generality (the degree to which the expectation is generalised across situations).

According to Bandura (1982), self-efficacy affects learning and performance in three ways: first, the goals people set for themselves are influenced by self-efficacy, for instance, individuals with low levels of self-efficacy tend to set relatively low goals, while the converse is true for someone with high levels of self-efficacy. Research has shown that not only do people learn, but they also perform according to levels consistent with their self-efficacy beliefs, which links with the dimension of magnitude (see earlier) (Pertl et al., 2010). Second, because of the influence self-efficacy has on learning, and on the effort people exert on the job, people differ in terms of learning how to perform a new task. Those with high self-efficacy generally work hard to learn how to perform new tasks because they are confident that their efforts will be successful, while those with low self-efficacy generally expend less effort, as they are not sure of being successful. Third, the persistence with which people attempt new and difficult tasks is also influenced by self-efficacy. People with high

self-efficacy are confident they can learn and perform a specific task, hence they are likely to continue in their efforts even if problems surface. By contrast, those with low self-efficacy (especially in the workplace), who believe they are incapable of learning and performing a difficult task, are likely to give up when problems surface.

Self-efficacy measures the extent to which an individual believes s/he has the confidence or ability to perform a certain action. The choice of activity, preparation for that activity, the effort made in performing that activity, as well as the person's thought patterns and emotional reactions can be influenced by self-efficacy beliefs (Bandura, 1982, 1991).

Four principal sources of self-efficacy are identified by Bandura (1997), who notes that self-efficacy has powerful effects on organisations. The four sources of self-efficacy are shown in Figure 2 and are discussed below.
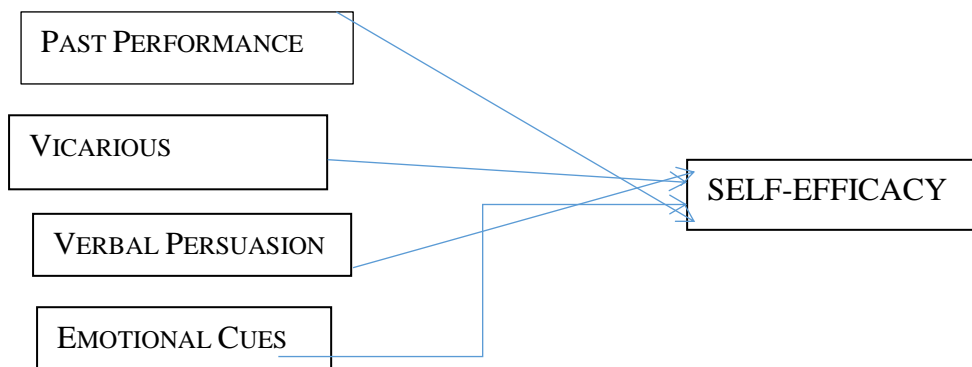
Figure 2: Sources of self-efficacy

Adapted from Lunenburg (2011, p. 2)

- Past performance

Positive and negative experiences can influence an individual's ability to perform a given task. Bandura (1977) asserts that those employees who succeed at tasks related to their job, tend to gain more confidence when completing similar tasks in the future (high self-efficacy) than employees who are unsuccessful (low self-efficacy). Consequently, if people are presented with challenging assignments, professional development and coaching, supportive leadership or rewards for improvement, their self-efficacy can be boosted. Managers or supervisors can take a strong role in this respect.

- Vicarious experience

A worker who sees a co-worker succeed at a particular task may have his self-efficacy boosted. For instance, if an employee loses weight, this may increase his colleague's confidence that he can lose weight as well. Vicarious experience is most effective when a person sees himself as similar to the person s/he is modelling (Bandura, 1997).

- Verbal persuasion

According to Bandura, verbal persuasion involves convincing people that they have the ability to succeed at a particular task. Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) are of the view that the best way for a leader to use verbal persuasion is through the Pygmalion effect, i.e., a self-fulfilling prophesy in which believing something to be true can actually make it true. A good example was when, in Rosenthal and Jacobson's (1968) classic study, teachers were told by their supervisor that one group of students had very high IQ scores (when in fact they had average to low scores) and the same teachers were told that a second group of students had low IQ scores (when in fact they had high scores). Consistent with the Pygmalion effect, the teachers spent more time with the students they thought were smart, gave them more challenging assignments and expected more from them – all of which led to higher student self-efficacy and better student grades. Another recent experiment conducted by Harvard researchers in a ghetto community produced similar results (Rist, 2000).

The Pygmalion effect has also been used in the workplace, and research indicates that when managers are confident that their subordinates can successfully perform a task, subordinates perform at a higher level (Lunenburg, 2011). The power of persuasion is, however, dependent on the leader's credibility, his/her previous relationship with employees, and the leader's influence in the organisation (Eden, 2003).

- Emotional cues

Lastly, emotional cues can dictate self-efficacy: a person who expects to fail at a task or finds something too demanding is likely to experience certain physiological symptoms, like a pounding heart, feeling flushed, sweaty palms, headaches, and so on. These symptoms differ from individual to individual, yet if they persist, they may become associated with poor performance.

Self-efficacy can be linked with other motivational theories. Locke and Latham (2002), for instance, suggest that goal-setting theory and self-efficacy theory complement each other. In this regard, Locke and Latham (2002) explain that when a leader presents an employee with difficult goals, s/he is offering the employee an opportunity to attain a higher level of self-efficacy, which will cause the employee to set higher goals for his/her own future performance.

Research has shown that setting difficult goals for people communicates confidence. This assertion is corroborated by Vroom (1964), who explains that if a supervisor sets high goals for an employee, and the employee realises that it is a higher goal than what was set for his/her colleagues, that employee will most likely think the supervisor believes s/he is capable of performing better than others. This will set in motion a psychological process in which the employee will become more self-confident (higher self-efficacy), will set higher personal goals, and will perform better as a result. After an extensive literature review, Bandura and Locke (2003) concluded that self-efficacy is a powerful determinant of job performance.

Ajzen and Madden (1986) define PBC as "a person's belief as to how easy or difficult performance of the behaviour is likely to be". In this conception, perceptions of factors that are both internal and external are involved: internal factors include an individual's knowledge, skills and willpower, while external factors include time, availability and the cooperation of others (Kraft et al., 2005).

PBC is most similar to the concept of perceived self-efficacy introduced by Bandura (1997, 1982). Much of our knowledge about the role of PBC comes from the systematic research programme of Bandura and associates (see Bandura, Adams, & Beyer, 1977; Bandura, et al., 1980). According to Ajzen (1991), Bandura et al. proved that people's behaviour is strongly influenced by their confidence in their ability to perform that behaviour.

Although PBC was initially conceived as the extent to which a person believes a given behaviour is under their control, Rivis and Sheeran (2003, p. 219) note that "underlying perceived behavioural control are beliefs concerning factors that inhibit or facilitate performance of the behaviour multiplied by the perceived power of these factors". Ajzen and Madden (1986) argue that PBC represents how easy or difficult the performance of behaviour

is perceived to be, therefore such beliefs could reflect judgements about one's own ability or motivation to carry out behaviour, as well as judgements about the manageability of external barriers to the behaviour (e.g., time constraints, cost, availability) (Pertl et al., 2010, p. 770).

Kraft et al. (2005) describe four types of measures resorting under PBC: perceived difficulty (how easy/difficult the performance of a behaviour is perceived to be); perceived confidence (the confidence the respondent has in executing the behaviour); perceived controllability (how much control the respondent feels s/he has over the behaviour) and perceived locus of control (whether the respondent feels the performance of the behaviour is up to him/her).

The perceived difficulty measure (also labelled as self-efficacy within the PBC) deals with the ease or difficulty of performing a certain behaviour. Therefore, the distinction between self-efficacy in terms of the PBC, and that identified by Bandura, lies in the measurement thereof. Ajzen (2002) suggests that the self-efficacy component of PBC can be measured by two types of items: (1) in terms of perceived difficulty (PD), measured on a seven-point scale, with sentences such as: 'For me to perform behaviour would be easy', supported by statements like 'very difficult' or 'very easy'; and (2) in terms of how confident the person is of performing the behaviour if s/he wants to. Measured on a seven-point scale, this is anchored by 'definitely true' or 'definitely false'. The PBC component, which was added later to the theory, created a shift from the TRA to the TPB, and it was in this extended theory (TPB) that PBC is located within a more general framework outlining the relations between beliefs, attitudes, intentions and behaviour (Ajzen, 1991).

Tavousi et al. (2009) assert that there is no clear distinction between the two constructs of self-efficacy and PBC, arguing that it all depends on the type of research being done. To sustain their argument, their study drew a distinction between the two constructs. Some research proposes that PBC consists of two different constructs: perceived self-efficacy and controllability, where the former is defined as a belief in the ability to perform a behaviour with ease or difficulty, while the latter is defined as control beyond the performance of the behaviour. Studies by Bandura (1995) and Armitage and Conner (1999) define self-efficacy as "people's beliefs about their capabilities to produce performance that influences events affecting their lives" and PBC as control beyond performed behaviour (meaning you put measures in place to control the behaviour to a point where you are certain of the expected behavioural pattern or performance).

In conclusion, researchers such as Ajzen and Madden (1986), Manstead and Van Eekelen (1998), Bandura (1995), Ajzen (2008), Tavousi et al. (2009) and Miller and Miller (2011) contend that, conceptually, there is no difference between PBC and self-efficacy. For them, the former is about a person's estimation of how easy or difficult it will be to carry out the behaviour, whereas the latter also involves people's beliefs about their capability to produce performances that influence events affecting their lives. Both constructs represent a person's capacity in respect of certain behaviours, and the ease with which s/he believes s/he can perform the behaviour. Further, the researchers argue that there is some degree of overlap between PBC and self-efficacy, as both constructs are concerned with control. Both control factors are used in several theories and models (e.g., PBC in the Theory of Planned Behaviour, self-efficacy in the Health Belief Model and the Social Cognitive Model).

In this study, these two constructs will also be regarded as being concerned with control and as overarching in nature, since the TPB includes PBC, which originated from Bandura's self-efficacy theory.

3.2.5   Intentions and actual behavioural control

Behavioural intention occurs when attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control combine. Behavioural intention is the cognitive representation of a person's readiness to perform a given behaviour, and according to Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) it is the best predictor of behaviour. This view is supported by Hrubes, Ajzen and Diagle (2001), who indicate how closely intentions are related to, and can be reconciled with, behaviour. Sheeran (2002, p.1) is of the view that the relation between intention and behaviour could be described as follows: "People do what they intend to do and do not do what they do not intend."

Further, it appears that strong intentions towards a certain action are indicative of a high possibility of behaviour or behaviour change. To the extent that perceived behavioural control is veridical, it can serve as a proxy for actual control and contribute to the prediction of the behaviour in question (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980). In support of the latter, Lam (1999) states that attitudes and perceived behavioural control have a significant influence on intentions and behaviour.

Söderlund and Öhman (2005) view intention as the most important component of the TPB and the main predictor of behaviour. Intention is also viewed as an evaluation of the degree to which an individual is motivated. The intention construct is regarded as the 'plan' an individual makes in respect of him/herself, in relation to a future act in which s/he is the acting subject. Intentions thus mainly capture those motivational features that influence behaviour, by acting as markers of how hard people are prepared to try, or how much effort they plan to exert in order to perform the behaviour.

This means that intentions encompass the assurance of a behaviour being acted out, which confirms the presence of a motivation to engage in a particular behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). Further, if a person shows strong intention to engage in a particular behaviour, then his/her motivation is great, thus the greater the chances are that s/he will actually engage in that behaviour. Ajzen (1991, p. 182) warns that a behavioural intention can, however, find expression in behaviour only if the behaviour in question is under volitional control, i.e., if a person can decide at will whether or not to perform the act.

An individual's ability to perform a specific behaviour – even in the presence of a strong positive attitude and subjective norms – may be limited by what Ajzen (1991) calls "non-motivational" factors (e.g., the availability of resources and opportunities required for the successful performance of behaviour that may obstruct intention from being converted into actual behaviour). Francis, Eccles and Johnston et al. (2004) elaborate by citing the example of an individual who may fully intend to practise inclusivity at school, with the required knowledge and training of the concept of IE, but who may be in a situation at school where simply no one is interested, perhaps because of laziness or a lack of knowledge, lack of resources, inadequate infrastructure or a lack of personnel. These kinds of non-motivational factors will definitely prevent a person from engaging in specific behaviour, despite having every intention to do so. Although there is not an absolute relationship between behavioural intention and actual behaviour, intention can be viewed as a proximal measure of behaviour.

It should be remembered that predictors in TPB are assumed sufficient to account for intentions, despite not being necessary in any given application. According to Ayers, Baum, and McManus et al. (2007), the relative importance of attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control in predicting intention is expected to vary across behaviours and populations. Therefore, in some applications only attitudes may have a significant impact

on intentions, while in others attitudes and PBC may be sufficient to account for intentions. In yet another scenario, all three predictors may make independent contributions. The relative weights of the three predictors can vary significantly from application to application (Mukasa, 2012, p. 59).

3.2.6 TPB and IE

According to Sharma and Mannan (2015), two categories within the field of IE have applied TPB: the first comprises studies that apply the TPB in its entirety, i.e., all key determinants (attitudes, PBC and subjective norms) are examined. In the field of IE, the use of this approach in examining teachers' behaviours is limited. Sharma and Mannan (2015) indicate that only nine such studies were done, according to a quick search they did via Google Scholar, namely research by Poulou and Norwich (2002), Meegan and MacPhail (2006), Kuyini and Desai (2007), Batsiou, Bebetsos, Panteli and Antoniou (2008), Mahat (2008), Lambe (2011), Ahmmed, Sharma and Deppeler (2012), MacFarlane and Woolfson (2013) and Yan and Sin (2014).

The second category comprises those studies that apply aspects of the theory (i.e., examine only one determinant of the three). Sharma and Mannan (2015) found that the number of studies in this category is significant (particularly those examining educators' attitudes). Kuyini and Desai (2007), who undertook one of the studies, examined Ghanaian teachers' attitudes towards IE along with their knowledge of the approach. The TPB determinant examined in that study was PBC.

The current study falls into the second category, since only one determinant of the theory is examined, by asking three research questions during interviews with educators and principals at the selected full-service schools which make up the study population. The study did not include the subjective norm determinant, because the research was carried out at four full-service schools which are inclusive in nature, meaning all the teacher participants had experience of practising inclusion. This meant no one at these schools needed to seek approval or permission to practise inclusion.

3.2.7 Assumptions of the TPB

According to Busseri, Lefcourt and Kerton (1998), there are two assumptions within the TPB which must be true for the theory to apply to human behaviour. The first alludes to the fact

that humans are rational and reasonable beings, who use the available information to assess any behaviour involved in an action. The second assumption relates to the likelihood of action being undertaken out of free (elective) will.

3.2.8   Limitations of the TPB

Despite the wide application of TPB, several limitations are expounded in literature reviews. Sharma and Kanekar (2007) note that TPB predicts behavioural intention and behaviour, yet they do not necessarily explain how behaviour changes – something which is important in any study investigating attitudes. The theory does not provide detailed and specific guidance for behaviour modification. Another limitation in TPB is that the theory does not consider other variables like personality-related factors (e.g., fear, mood, threat, past experience), or cultural and demographic factors that also shape behaviour. Much as normative influences are considered, TPB fails to take into account any environmental or economic factors that may play a detrimental role in influencing a person's intention to perform a particular behaviour (Kurland, 1995).

This theory focuses only on rational thoughts, assuming that the research participants are prudent people, therefore it does not account for irrational thoughts or fears, which can emanate from or arise within different environments or settings (Sharma & Kanekar, 2007). The assumption of TPB is that behaviour results from a linear decision-making process, and does not consider that it can change over time. The PBC construct was introduced to account for situations where an individual has less than volitional control over his/her behaviour. It does not address the issue of actual control over behaviour, because the theories do not address the time frame between "intent" and "behavioural action" (Al-Qeisi1 & Al-Zagheer, 2015).

The ability of the TPB model to predict behaviour has been widely acknowledged, but the criticism levelled against it is that the model neglects to consider personal moral standards (Manstead, 2000). Moral norms are defined as a person's perception of his/her moral obligation or responsibility to perform (or refuse to perform) a particular behaviour (Ajzen, 1991; Sparks, 1994; Conner & Armitage, 1998). Moral situations are thus regarded as special, since they are immune to deliberate change (Hart, 1961), which means that moral rules cannot be set like legal rules. Albeit not immune to change, if any change does occur, it happens with difficulty and infrequently. Ajzen (1991, p. 199) emphasises that the addition of

moral norms may prove useful to the theoretical framework, because it will lead to consideration being given to "*personal* feelings of moral obligation or responsibility to perform, or refuse to perform, certain behaviour". Second, moral norms are regarded as an individual's perception of the moral correctness (or incorrectness) of performing a behaviour (Ajzen, 1991; Sparkes, Russell & Cowton, 2004) and they take account of personal feelings towards the responsibility to perform (or a refusal to perform) a certain behaviour (Ajzen, 1991). Third, Conner and Armitage (1998) posit that moral norms should have a significant influence on behavioural performance with a moral or an ethical dimension, and work in parallel with attitudes, subjective norms and PBC.

There is consistent evidence of a relationship between moral norms and intentions. The evidence shows that the inclusion of moral norms significantly contributes to the understanding of intention (Manstead, 2000). Kurland (1995) argues that the more relevant a situation is, the more pronounced the role which moral norms have to play in the prediction of intention. It is obvious that moral considerations are most prominent when an individual's self-interest and the interests of others are at odds (Kaiser & Scheuthle, 2003). In conclusion, Ajzen (1991, 2002), Beck and Ajzen (1991), Manstead (2000) and Buchan (2005) are of the view that moral norms may prove a useful addition to TPB, and suggest further research on this theme**.**

CHAPTER FOUR
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1   Introduction

This section focuses on the research design issues broached, and the methods applied to determine the attitudes of teachers towards the implementation of IE in Mafikeng primary schools. But first, a look at certain concepts or terms which are used in this section.

Research paradigm: Cresswell (2007, p. 17) defines a paradigm as "a basic set of beliefs that guide action". According to Terre Blanche et al. (2006, p. 6), paradigms are all-encompassing systems of interrelated practices and thinking that define, for researchers, the nature of their enquiry along three dimensions: ontology, epistemology and methodology.

Ontology: Terre Blanche and Durrheim (2006) state that ontology defines the nature of the reality being studied, as well as what can be known about it. Grix (2004, p. 59) defines ontology as the study of "claims and assumptions that are made about the nature of social reality, claims about what exists, what it looks like, what units make it up and how these units interact with each other". Mack (2010, p. 5) sums up by adding that "if someone studies ontology, they study what we mean when we say something exists".

Epistemology: epistemology is concerned with the nature of the relationship between the researcher (knower) and what can be known. Taking the argument further, Vasilachis De Gialdino (2011, p. 3) argues that epistemology raises many questions, including how reality can be known; the relationship between the knower and what is known; the characteristics, principles and assumptions that guide the process of knowing and the achievement of findings; and, lastly, the possibility of that process being shared and repeated by others in order to assess the quality of the research and the reliability of the findings. Mack (2010) simplifies it by saying that epistemology is the view of how one acquires knowledge.

Methodology: concerned with how a researcher has come to understand the phenomenon being studied, methodology asks what procedures or logic should be followed. Methodical assumptions are a reflection of the ontological and epistemological assumptions; they simply tell us what methods can be used to study a given reality (Henning et al., 2004; Punch, 2009; Arthur, Waring, & Coe et al., 2012).

4.2   Positivism

Henning et al. (2004, p. 17) describe positivism as a rejection of metaphysics, arguing that it is about finding truth and proving it through empirical means. The positivist paradigm, also called the scientific paradigm, aims to prove or disprove a hypothesis (Mack, 2010).

This means that in a positivist view, science is seen as the way to arrive at the truth and to understand the world to the extent where it can be controlled through a process of prediction. Science is thus about what can be observed and measured, and to this end emotions and thoughts are excluded from scientific study when proving or disproving a hypothesis (Henning et al., 2004; Mack, 2010). "Positivist researchers prefer precise quantitative data and often use experiments, surveys and statistics" (Neuman, 2000, p. 66). Furthermore, positivist research usually has a control and an experimental group (Mack, 2010).

4.2.1   Ontology

Positivists are of the view that reality is out there to be studied, captured and understood, and that it is the responsibility of the researcher to discover that reality. Reality, which is external to the researcher, is represented by objects in space – objects which have meaning independently of any consciousness of them (Mack, 2010). Scotland (2012) argues that the ontological position of positivism is one of realism, i.e., it takes the view that objects have an existence independent of the knower. Post-positivist researchers believe that reality exists, but can never be fully understood (Hatch, 2002).

4.2.2   Epistemology

The positivist epistemology is one of objectivism. Positivists go forth into the world impartially, discovering absolute knowledge about an objective reality (Scotland, 2012). Positivists believe that the investigator and the investigated function independently of each other, therefore the investigator is capable of studying the object without influencing it, or being influenced by it (Hatch, 2002). In positivist epistemology, meaning solely resides in objects, not in the conscience of the researcher – it is the aim of the researcher to derive meaning from it (Scotland, 2012). Post-positivism, on the other hand, entails the belief that the researcher (in the process of data collection) and the hypothesis, theories and background knowledge possessed by the researcher, can influence what is observed (Mertens, 1998). Positivists maintain that scientific knowledge is both accurate and certain, as opposed to being based on opinion and emotion (Henning et al., 2004). Habermas (1972, in Cohen et al.,

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2007) is of the view that, for positivists, all knowledge becomes equated with scientific knowledge, and this causes them to neglect hermeneutic, aesthetic, critical, moral, creative and other forms of knowledge. Behaviour is therefore reduced to technicism. To the positivist, knowledge is objective (Mack, 2010). According to Scotland (2012), post-positivism claims that post-positivistic knowledge is more certain and objective than knowledge which originates from other paradigms.

4.2.3 Methodology

As noted by Cresswell (2009), positivist methodology is directed at explaining relationships and attempting to identify those causes which influence outcomes. Positivists aim to formulate laws which will create the basis for predictions and generalisations; they thus tend to follow a deductive approach.

A scientist is regarded as someone who observes an objective reality, therefore from this understanding, positivists have adopted the methodology of observation, as used in the natural sciences, for the purpose of doing social science research (Mack, 2010). Positivists employ scientific methods like experiments, quasi-experiments, surveys and correlation studies (Hatch, 2002). According to Mertens (1998), these experimental methods are borrowed from the natural sciences. The criticism levelled against positivists by adherents of the post-positivist paradigm, is that their methods are not appropriate for the discipline of education, where teachers and learners (co-)construct meaning. Positivists view their methodology as value neutral, thus the knowledge generated is also value neutral (Mack, 2010; Scotland, 2012). Post-positivists support rigorous methods of qualitative data collection, frequency counts and low-level statistics. They seek to understand causal relationships, thus they tend to employ experimentation and correlation studies (Hatch, 2002; Creswell, 2007, 2009).

4.3   Critical Theory/Emancipatory paradigm

Gage (1989, in Mack, 2010) asserts that critical theory originated from the criticism that educational research was overly technical and solely concerned with efficiency and rationality as elements of design. This created social inequalities and led to issues of power being neglected. Constructivists are concerned about research participants and explaining those participants' point of view. Revealing inequalities or injustices and exploitation in society are fundamental goals of critical research (Blum, 2011).

4.3.1   Ontology

This theory, which is about value, power and politics, is concerned with power relations and patterns of dominance (Alison, 2009). Mertens (1998) contends that when reality is constructed in terms of the emancipatory paradigm, greater emphasis is placed on the influence of cultural, political, social, gender, ethnic, economic and disability values. Taking the argument further, Guba and Lincoln (2005) contend that critical theory situates research within the historical realism, which is "virtual reality shaped by social, political, cultural, economic, ethnic, and gender values".

Hatch (2002) asserts that critical theorists conceive the world as comprised of historical structures that are based on socially constructed dimensions (locations), and that our perceptions of these social structures and locations give rise to social actions that lead us to treat individuals differently.

4.3.2   Epistemology

Cohen et al. (2007, p. 27 in Mack, 2010) contend that "worthwhile knowledge" is defined based on the social and positional power of those advocating that knowledge, therefore such knowledge is an expression of power, not truth. Alison (2009) contends that critical theory tends to take a historical perspective by viewing the world through a political eye, where certain groups (the rich, politicians, men, capitalists) put pressure on, or exert influence over, other groups. The goal of critical theory in these instances is to free the oppressed. Unlike constructivist research, which emphasises knowledge construction, the ultimate goal of critical research is to produce what Guba and Lincoln (2005, cited in Blum, 2011) refer to as "transformational" knowledge, i.e., knowledge which calls for social change that will emancipate those who are disadvantaged by existing social structures.

4.3.3   Methodology

Critical theory researchers use a variety of methods, including transformative inquiry. Guba and Lincoln (1994) assert that this type of inquiry demands a dialogue between the investigator and the subject of inquiry. Such a dialogue must be formal in nature, since it aims to find the truth by comparing two opposing ideas. Guba and Lincoln (1998, p. 110) add that the primary aim of formal dialogue (dialect) is "to transform ignorance and misapprehensions (accepting historically mediated structures as immutable) into more

informed consciousness (seeing how the structures might be changed and comprehending the actions required to effect change)".

4.4   Constructivism/Interpretivism

According to Eichelberger (1989, in Mackenzie & Knipe, 2006), the constructivist paradigm grew out of the philosophy of Edmund Husserl's phenomenology, and Wilhelm Dilthey and other German philosophers' study of interpretive understanding, which came to be known as hermeneutics. Mertens (2009) contends that hermeneutics is the study of interpretive understanding or meaning. Historians tend to use the concept in interpreting historical texts, to try to understand what the author was attempting to communicate within the specific time period and culture in which the documents were written.

Emulating the historians, constructivists use the term "hermeneutics" more generally as a way to interpret meaning from a given standpoint or in a particular situation. Clegg and Slife (2009, cited in Mertens, 2009) argue that all meaning (including the meaning of research findings) is fundamentally interpretive, therefore all knowledge in this sense is developed within a pre-existing social environment, prior to interpreting and reinterpreting itself.

A simple online definition of constructivism summarises the concept well, as it explains constructivism as a theory based on observation and scientific study of how people learn. Human beings construct their own understanding and knowledge of the world by experiencing things and reflecting on those experiences. When humans encounter something new they have to reconcile it with their existing ideas and experiences, perhaps thereafter changing what they believe, and perhaps discarding the new information as irrelevant. In any case, human beings are active creators of their own knowledge. To do this, they must ask questions, explore and assess what they know (WNET, 2013).

This study is situated within the constructivist paradigm, because of the characteristics discussed hereunder.

4.4.1   Ontology

Researchers of the constructivist paradigm argue that reality is expressible in a variety of symbolic and language systems, based on individual interpretation, in addition to being subjective (which gives it a pluralistic and plastic character) (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000; Mack,

2010). Hatch (2002) and Robson (2002) assert that since multiple realities are constructed in this paradigm, it is not possible to fully establish research questions in advance. Mack (2010, p. 8) takes the argument further by contending that "the ontological assumptions of interpretivism are that social reality is seen by multiple people who interpret events differently therefore leaving multiple perspectives of an incident". Guba and Lincoln (1994) and Mertens (2005) argue that reality is socially constructed, therefore multiple mental constructions can be understood. In some cases, conflicting social realities arise due to humans' ability to think logically and understand things differently.

Schwandt (2000) states that knowing is not passive or a simple imprinting of sensory data on the mind – the active mind does something with those impressions, that end up forming abstractions or concepts. Therefore, constructivists take the view that human beings do not find or discover knowledge so much as construct or make it.

This implies that everyone can construct his/her own meaning and learning, depending on how s/he experiences the world. Therefore, for the purposes of this study, the attitudes teachers display towards the implementation of IE are informed by their surroundings – in this case, Mafikeng and surrounding areas. As explained earlier, attitudes can be either positive or negative, depending on how individuals (teachers) respond to their surroundings. According to Guba and Lincoln (1994), it is the ontological position that differentiates constructivism from the other three paradigms.

4.4.2 Epistemology

The basic assumption of this paradigm is that knowledge is gained inductively, that it arises from particular situations and is therefore not reducible to simplistic interpretation. In terms of this view, knowledge is gained via personal experience (Altun & Buyukduman, 2007; Mack, 2010). Schwandt (2000) asserts that the basic assumptions guiding the constructivist paradigm are that knowledge is socially constructed by people who are active participants in the research process, and that researchers should attempt to understand the complex world of lived experience from the point of view of those who live it.

According to Applefield, Huber and Moallem (2000), constructivism is an epistemological view of knowledge acquisition which emphasises knowledge construction, rather than knowledge transmission and the recording of information conveyed by others. To understand

a phenomenon, the researcher should thus look at different places and different factors/situations (Henning et al., 2004). In the present study, the researcher went to selected schools to interview and observe the identified participants, to arrive at a better understanding of the situation. Hatch (2002) asserts that knowledge is a human construct, therefore in this particular situation the researcher and research participant(s) co-constructed understandings. Hein (1991) states that there is no such thing as knowledge "out there", which is independent of the knower, but that we construct knowledge for ourselves as we learn.

For Guba and Lincoln (1994) the investigator and the object of investigation are assumed to be interactively linked, thus the findings of a study are literally created as the investigation proceeds. To elaborate, Hein (1991) questions whether it actually makes any difference in people's everyday work, whether deep down they consider knowledge to be about some "real" world independent of them, or whether they consider knowledge to be of their own making. In fact, it does make a difference, because in respect of people's professions their epistemological views will determine their pedagogic views (Hein, 1991).

This argument is taken further by Moshman (1982), who identifies and describes three types of constructivism: exogenous, endogenous and dialectical. This categorisation flows from attempts to answer the following question: What does it mean to construct knowledge within constructivism? A further aim is to highlight varying notions of the nature of knowledge and the knowledge construction process.

Constructivism stresses that knowledge is not transmitted from one knower to another, but is actively built, therefore facilitators in workshops aimed at teacher development on issues of inclusion must not merely talk about how to implement IE, they must involve teachers practically. This is confirmed by Unal and Akpinar (2006), who state that the construction and reconstruction of meaning – on the part of both teachers and learners – requires that they actively seek to integrate new knowledge with the knowledge which is already in their cognitive structure. Elmore (2004) is of the view that involving teachers and activating their prior knowledge is fundamental to the development of a professional support system. Teachers already have the know-how required to teach, because they are trained professionals in that field. Granted, issues around inclusion are new to many of them, as it may not have formed part of their initial training. Therefore, issues relating to inclusion must be added to their existing teaching experience and body of knowledge.

For teachers in Mafikeng to be able to cope with the implementation of IE in their schools, conceptual development and a deeper understanding of the concept should be the focus, rather than any behaviours and abilities (as indicated by constructivists). However, the use of constructivist efforts in teacher development can be justified by boosting teachers' ability to deal with many of the linguistic, cognitive and social diversity challenges which are so characteristic of inclusion (Johnson, 1998). Unal and Akpinar (2006) assert that if teachers' behaviours and thoughts are consistent with the demands of the curriculum (inclusion), then it becomes a living curriculum (inclusive).

Peer-to-peer interaction both inside and outside of class is considered vital in the constructivist approach, the concept being rooted in Lev Vygotsky's (1962) socio-cultural theory. Such interactions aim to encourage democratic and non-hierarchical decision making, while promoting whole-class (group) activity. This helps participants learn to recognise their peers as potential resources, rather than seeking knowledge from the instructor alone (Singleton, 2009). Mainstream teachers can learn best from their special school peers when it comes to implementing IE, because those teachers teach learners with disabilities on a daily basis. They do not wait for facilitators to tell them what to do or how to do it – their teaching responds to the situation they find themselves in, and that promotes active thinking on their part.

Philips (1995), in an effort to make the theory of constructivism more understandable, draws a distinction between the psychological and social aspects of the theory. The former relates to a reader's construction of meaning based on his/her background knowledge and experience of social membership, while the latter addresses the politics, ideologies, values and power that affect a person's understandings.

In conclusion, if someone is not engaged in constructivist learning, then s/he is probably learning according to the philosophy of instructional theory, which is teacher-directed, product-oriented and less interactive (Johnson, 1998). Adhering to instructional theory can result in participants (teachers) becoming frustrated and demoralised, causing them to develop a negative attitude towards the subject (inclusion) which they are trying to master.

4.4.3 Methodology

The nature of social construction suggests that individual constructions can be obtained and refined only through interaction between investigator and respondents. These varying constructions are interpreted using conventional hermeneutical techniques, and are compared and contrasted through a dialectical interchange (Guba & Lincoln, 1994).

This paradigm makes use of naturalistic qualitative methods such as interviews, observations and document reviews (Hatch, 2002). According to Guba and Lincoln (2000), these methods are applied when there is an assumption about the social construction of reality, i.e., research can be conducted only through interaction between researcher and researched. Mertens (2009) contends that the interactive approach is sometimes described as hermeneutical and dialectical, because of efforts to obtain multiple perspectives that yield better interpretations of meanings. Those meanings are subsequently compared and contrasted through dialectical interchange involving the juxtaposition of conflicting ideas, which leads to previously held positions having to be reconsidered. In justifying this, Eichelberger (1989, p. 9) provides a description of the methodological work of the constructivist (hermeneutical) researcher as follows:

> They want to know what meaning people attribute to activities and how that relates to their behaviour. These researchers are much clearer about the fact that they are constructing the "reality" because of the interpretations of data with the help of the participants who provided the data in the study. They often carry out their research much as anthropologists do in their studies of culture. They do a great deal of observation, read documents produced by members of the groups being studied, do extensive formal and informal interviewing, and develop classifications and descriptions that represent the beliefs of the various groups.

The existence of multiple realities implies that research questions cannot be definitively established before a study begins; instead, they will evolve and change as the investigation progresses. A variety of perceptions from different types of respondents must be sought. It is also imperative for a constructivist researcher to provide information about the backgrounds of the participants and the contexts in which they are being studied (Mertens, 2009).

Multiple data collection methods were used in this study, the majority of them qualitative. The researcher carried out observations in the classroom and on the school terrain. Interviews

were conducted, and documents (such as student work and individual support plans [ISPs] were reviewed) (Mertens & McLaughlin, 2004). This is referred to in the present study in accordance with assumptions about the social construction of reality, i.e., that research can be conducted only through interaction between investigator and respondents (Guba & Lincoln, 2000).

4.5   Sample and its description (selection of participants)

The participants in this study were all teachers at the four primary schools in Ngaka Modiri Molema district, Mafikeng, which have been converted to full-service schools. Both male and female teachers were included in the study to control for gender differences. The 43 teachers who were interviewed were identified using purposive sampling – a process which allows the researcher to deliberately select respondents, and which specifies the characteristics of a population of interest, the settings and the events which will provide answers to the research question(s). Purposive sampling is also used if the number of individuals being studied is relatively small, and when the use of random sampling can prohibit the inclusion of the very participants whom the researcher is attempting to learn about (Maxwell, 1996; Johnson & Christensen, 2008).

Participants were purposively selected because they had the requisite characteristics, which included them currently practising inclusion in their general education classroom, or having been exposed to inclusive practices within the past 12 months. As an IE official working directly with the selected full-service schools in the districts, it was possible for the researcher to select the study participants using information gathered from the teachers' general files during interactions with them.

A study population of 60 general education teachers was generated and finally 43 teachers with all the qualities the researcher was interested in, based on the subject under study, were selected. The researcher mailed a form to all selected participants requesting them to participate in this undertaking, and asked if they would be interested in being contacted to learn more. It was made clear in the request that participation in the study was completely voluntary. Teachers who consented to be interviewed were asked to return a signed consent form using the enclosed self-addressed stamped envelope. Those teachers were sent a letter notifying them of the purpose, procedures, risks and benefits of the study. They were subsequently contacted telephonically, to arrange times and dates for the interviews. In

addition, participants were also informed of measures that would be taken to ensure confidentiality and their right to refuse to participate or withdraw from the study at any time.

4.6   Research design/approach

4.6.1   Case study

A case study was selected as a means of investigating and trying to understand the attitudes of mainstream teachers towards the implementation of IE in their real-life environment, which is the school. Case studies excel at helping researchers understand complex issues or objects, by generally answering one or more questions which begin with "how" or "why". These questions are targeted at a limited number of participants, yet offer an in-depth investigation without generalising about a specific aspect/unit/programme, individual/school/classroom or group (in this study the spotlight was on teachers) (Gay, 1996; Maheshwari, 2011; Gary 2012). The case study results relate directly to the common reader's everyday experience, thus facilitating an understanding of a complex, real-life situation (Soy, 1997).

- Advantages of case studies

A variety of claims are made about the usefulness of case studies. Hayes (2006), for instance, argues that case studies communicate directly with the implementers and initiators of education. Cohen and Manion (1989) support this statement, noting that case study findings may be directly interpreted and used for staff as well as individual development, institutional development, formative evaluation and educational policy making. In this study, the focus was on teachers who are the implementers of inclusion within their classrooms and their school as a whole, and how they initiate the entire process. This relates clearly to their daily experiences, which means the research takes on a "human face", which was strengthened by the fact that the researcher had the opportunity to interact with teachers face to face. As Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000) assert, case studies are usually descriptive in nature, providing rich information about individuals or particular situations. As a form of naturalistic inquiry, researchers can ground their observations in natural settings. Case studies allow the researcher to "enter" the life worlds and experiences of others, but with the privilege of then standing back and evaluating these (Hatch, 2006). The researcher in this study was able to experience the process and at the same time evaluate it, without any interference.

Stake (1983, in Mbelu, 2011) is of the view that case studies contribute both theoretically and pragmatically to educational research, given that they are practical and unfold in a natural setting. In this study, the interviews conducted represented practical activities that occurred in the participants' natural settings, i.e., schools. Therefore, the findings can easily be applied to a similar setting, at another time, in another place (Mbelu, 2011).

- Disadvantages of case studies

Hayes (2006) contends that case study research is an intervention which can sometimes be uncontrolled and might intrude in the lives of others. As an example he refers to the process of interviewing someone or observing someone teaching, or talking to teachers about issues of concern – all of which can undermine existing institutional structures. The other limitation of case study research is that it provides a biased view and a distorted picture of the way things really are. For instance, if different groups of respondents (e.g., principal and head teacher) have different views, whose opinion carries more weight? The principal's statement may be taken seriously, while that of the less influential head teacher may be dismissed.

Case study research does not allow for generalisation; it is an in-depth study of a particular case. In this instance, the scope of the research was limited to particular schools within a particular district in the North West province. Furthermore, as the focus of this study was on teachers and principals, the views of learners and other stakeholders on this issue were not reflected.

4.6.2   Case study schools (context)

Pseudonyms were used in all cases. Makoti Primary is a rural school offering academic subjects. Attended by black learners, the school is located in the rural village of Makgobistadt. The facility is better resourced than many other rural schools: it has, for example, an electricity supply, a borehole and a productive garden. The number of classrooms is inadequate, yet as many as 60 learners sometimes have to crowd into a single classroom. All members of the teaching staff are black females in their mid- to late forties and fifties. Learners at the school are ethnically homogeneous, and speak Setswana. The local community consists of a few working-class families, with unemployment and poverty in the area being very high. The school's infrastructure is in reasonably good repair, with one new block of three rooms having been erected recently. Makoti Primary is a no-fee school which enrols 300 to 400 learners per year.

Tshipika Primary is a township school offering academic subjects. Solely attended by black learners, it is situated near the town of Mafikeng. As a township school, it is relatively more advantaged than rural schools, with an adequate number of classrooms. Classes are, however, overcrowded with approximately 50 learners per classroom. The members of the teaching staff are black males and females in their early forties, who speak Setswana. The buildings at Tshipika are relatively well looked after, with the school enrolling 1 100 learners per year at this no-fee institution.

Burgvilla Laerskool (Primary), which is situated in the town of Lichtenburg, offers academic subjects and is predominantly white (Afrikaner) with other races (blacks, Indians) being represented. As an urban school it is relatively more advantaged than predominantly black rural schools. The school's double-storey building is well maintained and has an adequate number of classrooms with a computer lab that is well resourced, despite some computers being old. The teaching staff comprise white males and females who predominantly speak Afrikaans and are aged 28–53. This Afrikaans-medium school enrols 600–750 learners per year, and school fees are payable.

Koti Gekombineerde Skool (combined school) is situated in a small town of Koster near Rustenburg. It offers academic subjects, and its population is made up of white learners (who are in the majority) as well as blacks and Indians. English is the medium of instruction. The buildings are old in terms of design, but well maintained. The teaching staff comprise white males and females aged 32–60. The school enrols approximately 500–700 learners annually, and school fees are payable.

4.7   Methods of data collection

A vital aspect of research is data collection. In this case, it was based on observation, which can be sensory or the result of questioning or measuring. In qualitative inquiry, data are represented by people's words and actions, which necessitate the use of methods that will allow the researcher to record both language and behaviour (Maritz & Visagie, 2011).

Qualitative researchers typically gather multiple forms of data through, for example, interviews, observation and documents, rather than relying on a single data source. The researcher then reviews all the data collected, makes sense of it, and organises it into

categories or themes that cut across the entire data source (Creswell, 2009, p. 75). In this study, the multi-method strategies used to collect data included interviews, observations and document review (see below for more on these methods).

4.7.1   Interviews

In qualitative research, when seeking a complex understanding of the issues under study, interviews are used because they help to glean information directly from those involved. Participants can be approached either at their workplace or at home. By interviewing research participants in order to assess their beliefs, attitudes, values and knowledge as regards the research topic, "rich and highly illuminating information" (Robinson, 1996, p. 229) can be obtained. Brand (2005) and De Vos et al. (2008) assert that although interviewing is the predominant mode of data or information collection in qualitative research, it does not merely involve a formal chat – rather, it comprises a controlled interaction with a verbal exchange around the main method of asking questions. During the interview process, a relationship develops between the interviewer and the respondent, which can prove to be of benefit to the researcher in terms of other schools or entities with whom he works closely. Brand (2005, p. 48) elaborates that an interview has a direction and a shape; it serves a specific purpose and involves both the interviewer and the respondent who are in a dynamic relationship.

4.7.2   Semi-structured interviews

In this study, semi-structured one-to-one interviews were conducted with the principals to give them an opportunity to comment extensively on the topic. Interviews can range from formal to informal, however, semi-structured interviews were deemed most suitable where an issue is controversial or personal, as they help to facilitate the free expression of participants' thoughts. The interviews were conducted in English: because all the participants were bilingual principals, there was no need to translate the questions or their responses. A tape recorder was used during the interviews, in addition to notes being taken. Opdenakker, (2006) asserts that taking notes helps reduce the long hours of transcription, check if all the questions have been answered, and can act as a written record if the tape recorder becomes faulty during the process. This type of interview involves emphasising participants' definitions of situations, encouraging them to structure accounts of situations and enabling them to introduce any notions of relevance to them (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007; De Vos et al., 2008). The researcher's aim was for all participants to voice their own notions of what was relevant, as informed by their individual experience and the circumstances surrounding their

experiences of how IE is implemented in practice. The use of semi-structured interviews fulfilled the objectives outlined earlier, by allowing for unique responses on the part of the participants.

4.7.3   Focus groups

Focus groups were used to interview teachers at the four selected full-service schools. According to Krüger and Yorke (2010), a focus group has the potential to generate free-flowing discussions that reveal useful data if the group composition is right, and will help to uncover important constructs that may have been missed during the one-to-one interviews. The focus group discussions aimed to gain insight into the state of teachers' readiness, the progress that has been made on IE in the schools under study, teachers' beliefs as well as their attitudes towards inclusion.

4.7.4   Participant observation

Participant observation is a process which enables researchers to learn about participants' activities in a natural setting, through observing and participating in those activities (DeWalt & Dewalt, 2002). The researcher used this method while on the premises of the four selected schools, as a means of collecting more data on infrastructural development as well as the prevailing general atmosphere towards inclusion. McMillan and Schumacher (2001) and Sarkissian et al. (1986) support this method, stating that participant observation is a combination of particular data collection strategies (not recommended for use in isolation, but in conjunction with other tools and techniques, to offset any bias or inaccuracy in the observer's conclusions).

Participant observation helped the researcher to do what McMillan and Schumacher (2001, p. 437) refer to as observing and listening, where the researcher gleans information on participants' perceptions of events and processes, expressed in their actions as feelings, thoughts and beliefs. Being a participant observer gave the researcher an opportunity to listen to the participants and record relevant information as they spoke to one another. The researcher also looked for nonverbal cues such as facial expressions, gestures, tone of voice, body movements and other social interactions that are important clues as to how the implementation of IE is progressing, and about the kind of attitudes that are prevalent towards inclusive practices. This method is discussed by Sarkissian and Ballard (1986) in their definition of participant observation: they state that it is a method of collecting

information about the operation of, and attitudes existing in, a community through a researcher living in the area for an extended period. For this study, however, the participation level was low, with the researcher only seeking information and conducting research for six weeks, on school premises, during school hours. Participants were made aware that they were being observed for the purpose of this study, as required by ethical demands (Mbelu, 2011).

Table 1: Means of data collection

Method	Total Number Of Participants	School A	School B	School C	School D
Focus group interview	42	10	15	8	6
Semi-structured interview	1(principal)	1(principal	1(principal)	1(principal)	1(principal)
Participant observations	42	10	15	8	6
Document review	Documents were requested for review in all participating schools				

4.8   Data analysis

Bogdan and Biklen (1992) assert that data analysis is the process of systematically searching and arranging data collected in the course of a study. Merriam et al. (2002) are of the view that data analysis is the process of making sense of the information collected, which involves consolidating, reducing and interpreting what was said, along with what the researcher saw and read. Data analysis in this study was carried out at the same time as data collection in an iterative process, as suggested by Merriam (2009). That was done to allow the researcher to make adjustments along the way, if necessary: for example, a further interview question could be asked to test an emerging concept.

Merriam (1998) suggests three steps to be followed when analysing data: the first is data preparation. To this end, interviews were transcribed, analysed and captured on a computer database. When transcribing interviews from a tape recording, the researcher followed the hints and tips suggested by Coleman (2013). A tape recorder with headphones and a foot pedal was used; the pedal was used to start and stop the tape as this was easier to operate while typing on the keyboard. All recordings were then transcribed. The *Standard English dictionary* was used to search for the meaning of terms, where necessary. In cases where dialogue was difficult to understand – especially if the speaker spoke with an accent – the

researcher would rewind the tape and replay it until he became familiar with what was being said.

The interviewees' names were shortened to their initials, followed by a colon and the statement, for example, NP: "XXX." Coleman (2013) suggests that after the first draft, the entire tape should be listened to while re-reading the work. If the texts do not match the tape, corrections should be made and problems addressed. In this instance, if a query/issue could not be resolved, the researcher contacted the interviewee for clarification. Where text was deemed less important it was deleted, but this was done with extreme caution, for if one word is removed it can change the entire meaning of a sentence. Field notes were edited and all data were organised chronologically.

The next step was data exploration and reduction, where the researcher read all the transcripts, field notes and documents, and reflected on what was important by extracting statements that were relevant and significant to the topic. That was done by highlighting important quotes and summarising the data collected, as well as any ideas that came to mind during the reading, including any problems, patterns and questions that were written down in memos.

The third step of the data analysis entailed coding. During this process, the researcher assigned words to segments of text in an iterative process, condensed text into analysable segments, sorted coded text segments that were familiar, compared and contrasted coded segments to identify patterns and generated analytical concepts, as suggested by Denzin and Lincoln (2005). The coding process was similar to the comparative method that originated in grounded theory, yet the data were not used to develop a theory but to support (negatively or positively) the topic under discussion (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005).

The findings were interpreted by integrating the information gathered from the literature review, interviews, observations and questionnaires. Transcribed data were discussed in relation to the literature review, indicating the extent to which it supported or contradicted the theory.

4.9   Issues of quality in research

Without rigor, research is worthless – it becomes fiction and loses its utility. Hence, a great deal of attention must be applied to ensuring reliability and validity in all research methods (Morse et al., 2002). In this study, rigor and quality were addressed using reliability, validity and multi-method techniques as recommended by Johnson and Christensen (2008).

- Validity

McMillan and Schumacher (2001) contend that validity refers to the degree to which the explanations of phenomena match the realities of the world. For instance, in this study, semi-structured interviews, focus-group interviews, participant observations and document review were conducted in natural settings to reflect the reality of the participants' lived experiences more accurately than could be contrived or recreated in a laboratory setting (McMillan & Schumacher, 2001, p. 408). The selected full-service schools were used as natural settings in which the study was conducted, and the use of more than one data collection method (participant observation, semi-structured interviews, focus-group interviews, document review) further enhanced validity. Bryman (2007) approves of this course of action, stating that the appeal of multi-methods lies in the possibilities they offer in terms of increasing the validity of an investigation. To further ensure the validity of the results of this study, attention was given to the following details in the survey questions: clear language was used; clear and brief information was given (especially where instructions and clarity were required), and unbiased statements and relevant content were provided to avoid confusion (Jones, 2010). Researchers must be able to use the findings of a study in different settings. To this end, Lincoln and Guba (1985) assert that transferability is achieved through a thick description of the research process, to allow a reader to determine whether the results can be transferred to a different setting.

- Reliability

Reliability is the extent to which results are consistent over time, and provide an accurate representation of the total population under study. If the results of a study can be produced under a similar methodology, then the research instrument is considered reliable (Joppe, 2000, p. 1). The researcher attempted to ensure that any inferences drawn from this study would be consistent with the data collected, by building a progressive, clear and unambiguous audit trail of the collected data, until such stage as conclusions were reached. To achieve this, the original interview transcript and tape-recorded contents were regularly

checked and refereed. The interview transcripts were handed to an independent decoder and the transcribed data were returned to the participants, who could verify their own responses. These steps ensured that a further reliability check was built into the process, to guarantee the trustworthiness of the results.

- Mixed methods

According to Bryman (2007) and Denzin (1989), a mixed-method approach entails the researcher's efforts to collect information from a range of individuals and settings, and use a variety of methods to construct appropriate explanations for the phenomena under investigation. Information collected from a variety of sources is compared and contrasted, and serves to protect the accuracy of any interpretation of the data (Denzin & Lincoln, 2005). Using mixed methods is a means of cross-referencing interpretations made during data analysis (Rumrill & Cook, 2001). Therefore, in this study, the researcher perused the participants' general files to obtain more information about their training and teaching experience, gender and age. Participants' responses were checked against the relevant government policies (more on this later).

4.10 Delimitations

IE means different things to different people. Some only emphasise physical disability when they refer to IE and mainly associate it with special schools. Other barriers that could affect learning (e.g., poverty, being affected/infected by HIV/Aids, socio-economic status or being a victim of violence) tend to be overlooked. For the purposes of this study, the emphasis is on all barriers to effective learning. The study is, however, restricted to schools that are already inclusive (full-service schools), therefore the focus is mainly on the attitudes of teachers towards the implementation of IE in the primary schools where they teach.

4.11 Limitations of the study

The research was conducted in Ngaka Modiri Molema district. Due to time constraints and the distance between schools, the researcher was unable to reach many of the schools in the province. Only four full-service schools were thus selected for the study.

The fact that the researcher has a full-time job as an education specialist and field worker denied him the opportunity to be in the research field all day, and restricted him to spending a few working hours with the research population each month.

The small size of the sample, which is typical of qualitative research, is an obvious limitation of the study and cannot be said to support a general theory pertaining to the attitudes of mainstream school educators towards the implementation of IE.

The sites and participants were chosen based on their willingness to take part in the research. Different participants and sites would certainly have yielded different results. The findings are, nonetheless, sufficient to make meaningful recommendations to the North-West province DoE as well as the DBE (national), concerning the attitudes of mainstream primary school educators.

4.12   Ethical considerations

According to Lincoln and Guba (2000), social research needs to pay attention to pertinent ethical issues, which include informed consent; an indication to participants of the voluntary nature of their participation; assurances about the safety, privacy, confidentiality and anonymity of participants; as well as the establishment of a relationship of trust. As a result, a researcher needs to have high standards of personal and professional integrity. This makes it imperative to be concerned about the state of the research site and the welfare of individual participants. Ethical permission to conduct the study was requested from the district manager of Ngaka Modiri Molema, the DoE of the North-West province in Mafikeng, as well as the different principals of the identified full-service schools. It is the obligation of the researcher to protect the participants' rights in two ways: by informing them of their role in the study and by guaranteeing anonymity during the research process. In this study, the necessary steps were taken. No individual was forced to take part, and participants understood that the study was for educational purposes only.

4.13   Informed consent

Before conducting a survey or interview, it is necessary to obtain written permission granting consent from all the participants, who need to acknowledge that they fully consent to complete specific tasks. Research participants should thus be informed about the nature of the study to be conducted, and should be given the choice of either participating or withdrawing their participation (Leedy & Ormrod, 2001). All educators who participated in this study (see Appendix E) signed an informed consent form. In addition, participants were informed of their right to refuse to participate at any time they felt uncomfortable during the research

process. Participants were assured that there would not be any implications or repercussions should they, at any stage, withdraw from the study.

4.14   Anonymity and confidentiality

Participants' anonymity was never compromised, as their names were not used in the collection of data. Their private information was not publicised, as their right to confidentiality had to be respected (Maphutha, 2006, p. 49). To protect individual confidentiality and anonymity during the research process, no participant's name was used in writing up this research. In lieu of identifying participants, T and P were used (T referring to teachers and P principals). The participants' responses were differentiated using a number, e.g., T2 for a teacher, P1 for a particular principal.

CHAPTER FIVE
FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

5.1   Introduction

The findings and discussions presented in this chapter are based on interviews conducted with principals and teachers at the four-full service schools, with pseudonyms being used throughout. The researcher also made notes of his observations of teaching activities, findings related to the school buildings and surroundings, as well as thoughts arising from his reviewing the relevant documents.

Before presenting and discussing the data, it is necessary to refer to the critical research questions that shaped this study. The formulation of these questions was guided by the theory of perceived behaviour, in an attempt to determine how prepared primary school teachers in the Mafikeng area are to implement IE.

1. What are the views of teachers in the primary schools regarding IE?
2. How do teachers implement IE?
3. Why do teachers implement IE the way they do?

During data presentation and discussion, reference will frequently be made to data obtained through observations and document reviews, to corroborate or refute the data obtained from the interviews. The actual verbatim responses of the respondents are cited in order to strengthen the data presentation, with the intention of presenting defensible and reasoned arguments. As this study is situated within the qualitative research paradigm, an attempt has been made to capture the lived experiences of the participants through reflecting their own voices and observations.

5.2   Discussion of findings

The following responses were elicited from the school principals and teachers of the four full-service schools which participated in this study.

5.2.1   Perceptions and experiences of primary school teachers regarding IE

The first question aimed to seek answers to the following:

What are the views of teachers in the primary schools regarding IE?

In all the participating schools, the participants indicated during the interviews that they like IE because it is good in that it strives to offer all learners – despite their physical abilities and capabilities – an opportunity to learn with their peers, in one environment (if possible). Some participants indicated that IE recognises the right of all children to learn; therefore, every learner must be accommodated in the process of learning. In the opinion of this group, those with problems need to be identified and transferred to special schools with the help of district officials. The participants generally felt that learners with moderate barriers to learning could be accommodated in mainstream schools, where they could be taught according to their cognitive abilities, as outlined in the EWP6 (DoE, 2001b). T2 from Burgavilla Primary said:

> I view inclusive as involving different learners of different capabilities, and of different levels of understanding being included in one educational context. And much as there are policies, the Education White Paper 6 which acts as a guideline to include those learners with barrier or slow or special needs on how to include them into the system of education. In that case, teachers must develop knowledge and skills to assist learners.

Another response was forthcoming from T5 from Koti Primary:

> It is a very good policy, because initially, especially the physically challenged ones suffered a lot. Parents were afraid to take them to school, and schools were unable to accommodate them because of the way the schools were constructed. A child in a wheelchair could not attend a normal school, and the learners who were slow in learning were not taken care of.

Some respondents were of the view that including learners with learning difficulties in mainstream schools was not a very new practice. However, they mentioned that such inclusion occurred haphazardly, without proper structures or the necessary planning and knowledge. They conceded that the DBE has introduced this practice with guided strategies in the form of policy. Some participants mentioned that their schools practised inclusion long before it became official policy, and that this was done by teaching remedial classes. The participants also indicated that the fact that their school offers remedial classes, is one of the reasons why the DoE earmarked them to become a full-service institution.

Jonas (2014), in a study conducted in Botswana, corroborated these teachers' statements, mentioning that IE is based on rights in education, specifically the fact that the human rights of all learners need to be protected. IE represents a paradigm shift from related practices, such as mainstream and integrated education, and focuses on placing students with disabilities in mainstream settings in the hope that all learners will benefit from the experience. This calls for the school environment, organisation, curriculum, teaching and learning methods to be transformed and adapted, and for resources to be carefully managed, to ensure that all learners participate optimally in mainstream education, regardless of their disabilities.

Even though all participants agreed that IE was a laudable undertaking, some complained about the lack of transparency when the approach was first introduced. Since mainstream primary schools were converted to full-service schools in order for IE to be introduced and implemented, some participants felt they were not consulted prior to their schools being earmarked and subsequently converted. In their view the concept was imposed on them, and they appeared to lay the blame on the principals and departmental/district officials.

Affirming this line of thought, Hyam (2004) indicates that the role of teachers in a changing environment will need to change, if there is to be a smooth transition from mainstream education to IE. Naturally, change will not yield the desired results if those who implement it are resistant or are not committed. It is thus essential for teachers to be involved from the outset, so that they can be committed to the process, see the value of the proposed change, and prepare to embrace this change. They may need to acquire new skills and reject certain of their beliefs or practices. IE implies taking risks and facing new challenges. Teachers are required to reconsider their roles, construct new knowledge and learn new skills to equip themselves for the change.

The findings from the researcher's observations corroborate the views of the participants within those four full-service schools who mentioned that they were very willing to practice inclusion in their classes. As they presented their lessons, the researcher could see the teachers trying to accommodate learners of different learning abilities, even though their lesson plans did not indicate any such strategies. During the lesson observation at Tshipika Primary, the teacher was so determined to teach in an inclusive way, that she tried to group learners accordingly, hoping to reach all learners despite their learning dis/abilities. Sadly, the

teacher:learner ratio in that class was 1:48, which made it difficult to deliver the lesson according to her wishes. As an observer, it was clear to the researcher that teachers held positive views about IE, and embraced it as a good practice even though the system was letting them down (overcrowded classes).

When conducting the document review, the researcher discovered that some of the responses given during the teachers' interviews were refuted. First, not all four full-service schools involved in this study were able to show, on request, important documents that define and guide inclusive practices in their school. At Tshipika, Koti and Burgavilla Primary, the ILST/SBST files were in place, but at Makoti Primary the file was not available. The content of the ILST/SBST file should include EWP6, the SIAS manual, the names of the team members and their portfolios, the minutes of meetings held, the names of learners experiencing barriers to learning (and what those barriers are), and an ISP, among other things. However, only the ILST/SBST of Tshipika and Koti Primary were functional. At Burgavilla Primary an ILST/SBST team had been established, but was not functional.

Second, much as teachers were willing to practise IE, their lesson plans did not outline any strategy of how learners with learning barriers would be assisted. Despite viewing IE as a good practise which would enable all learners to learn, the teachers lacked the full support of the DoE to help them implement this approach successfully.

Konza (2008), Mukhopadhyay et al. (2012) and Berry et al. (2012) affirm this line of thought, asserting that IE is good because more learners with special needs are studying side by side in regular schools with their peers who do not have disabilities. IE is exceptional in that it eliminates segregation in schools and dictates that all students must be welcomed by their neighbourhood schools in appropriate, regular classes and must be supported to learn, contribute and participate in all aspects of the life of the school. Children tend to learn from one another, just as teachers can collaborate and exchange ideas on best practices. This is based on a principle advocated by Unesco (1994b) and endorsed by the DoE (2001b), which is that all children, regardless of dis/ability, have a basic right to be educated alongside their peers, in a school in their own neighbourhood.

Pasensie (2012) highlights the lack of expertise on the part of district officials to provide schools and teachers with the requisite skills to teach in an inclusive way. The resulting lack

of adequate support becomes an obstacle in the path of effectively implementing IE in schools.

5.2.2   Implementation of IE

When answering the question: How do teachers implement IE?, it was clear from the teachers' and principals' responses that each school had its own way of practising IE, but mainly it was a way that suited them, because each had their own take on what IE entails. This finding is consistent with those of Johnson et al. (2014), who did a study amongst high school teachers in the Bahamas, and Chaula (2014) who did the same in Tanzanian inclusive primary schools. They found that teachers understood IE to connote a variety of meanings, which led to them developing different attitudes towards implementation.

Some respondents in this study indicated that they involve parents as stakeholders in an endeavour to make their schools more inclusive. Three of the four principals and the majority of participants stated that they worked satisfactorily with the parents as well as other stakeholders. For instance, the parents are invited to school to discuss their children's progress. This was confirmed by the principal of Tshipika Primary:

> We call the parents and they do support us, because they come for intervention, we also have the clinic staff that also does help, and we also have a social worker, who is stationed at the school. We also have a librarian who is also stationed at the school, so they do assist us in keeping the learners, and the parents attend the intervention session, when the learner has a problem.

In the same vein, Mahlo (2011) and the DoE (1997) maintain that participation by parents and other stakeholders helps to improve a school's capacity to respond to diversity, and this helps teachers recognise and react appropriately to the needs of all learners, thereby promoting effective learning. Extending this line of thought, the DoE (2001a, p. 19) emphasises the training of personnel in order to focus on "supporting all learners, educators and the system as a whole so that the full range of learning needs can be met". For the successful implementation of IE, it is essential to create a supportive environment in which there is collaboration amongst teachers, sister departments, district officials, principals and parents.

One principal and several teachers who participated in this study were not satisfied with the level of parental involvement, arguing that even though the parents responded to invitations to come to the school they were selective in attending events/meetings. The reason cited for that kind of behaviour is the fact that some parents are illiterate, and may not be able to read or understand the content of a letter of invitation. Another contributing factor is that most learners have been left in the care of their grandparents due to familial poverty, with the parents having relocated to find work. Some young parents have passed on due to diseases such as HIV/Aids. The participants also indicated that many parents are in denial as regards their child's inability to cope with some of the schoolwork, which leads them to ignore any letters inviting them to attend a meeting called by the school.

Several participants mentioned that they implement IE by looking at the previous grade results to guide them in terms of rendering support. They also do a "baseline" assessment after admission, to group learners into categories (high, middle, average and slow achievers). The focus is mainly on language acquisition (English, Setswana) and mathematical ability. Regardless of whether the results are good or bad, the parents are informed. The district officials become involved if there are learners who need extended support.

Many teachers mentioned that they implement IE by identifying learners with barriers to learning, and giving them extra classes after school. Those learners who struggle, are asked to stay behind after school for a few minutes, since it is difficult to teach achieving and slow learners in the same class at the same time. Those who learn fast tend to disrupt class when the teacher is still busy with the slower learners. This scenario presents teachers with a serious challenge: they are unable to adhere to time allocations as per the lesson plan, and sometimes fail to complete a planned activity. For that reason, some teachers were of the view that policy and reality do not complement each other. The teachers referred to the EWP6, which urges that all learners, regardless of learning ability, should be taught within the same environment. Unfortunately, issues related to time management and overcrowding tend to interfere with the correct and successful implementation of IE. Overcrowding is the result of the high enrolment of learners from neighbouring schools, which leads to a high learner:teacher ratio, which even makes remedial classes ineffective in many instances.

The response of T7 from Tshipika Primary confirmed the importance of after-school extra classes:

Learners take long time, you plan a lesson, that I want to do this and looking at work that will differentiate their capabilities in the class, but you don't even have time to reach those who are good, because of the learners who are unable to do their work properly, if you give them work now and attend the slow ones, those who are good, finish quickly and disrupt the whole class. Our learners are hyperactive, that is why we don't have a special time to attend to those who are experiencing barriers. However, we try to identify those learners and make time so that those learners attend after-school extra classes.

Meanwhile, T1 from Burgavilla Primary confirmed the gap between policy and reality:

I agree and also disagree with Education White Paper 6, when coming to taking all learners on board, because practically it is not happening in class due to workload we are having as teachers. Our period last for 60 minutes (1 hour), but learners with learning barriers need 3 hours, and that can disadvantage.

Even though the after-school extra class arrangements seem to be a solution in certain schools, in others it did not materialise as expected. The major problem was a time clash between the learners' transport and the afternoon classes. Teachers were consequently left with little time to try to cover the work that those learners with learning barriers could not finish during class (normal period/allocated time). According to the principal of Tshipika Primary, teachers are of the view that despite trying their best to implement IE, the approach was not yet fully functional.

Mkhuma et al. (2014) corroborate this view by stating that full-service schools were created in South Africa with the intention of implementing a policy of inclusivity in education. The main focus is on primary schools, where the early identification of and support for learners experiencing barriers to learning should occur. Challenges such as extra paperwork, time shortages, lack of knowledge about a wide range of learner needs, overcrowded classrooms, as well as a lack of quality support from the DBST have, however, caused those ambitious plans to remain elusive.

The interviewees in all four case study schools agreed that it is the responsibility of the DoE, through its district officials, to give them sufficient and relevant support. Both teachers and principals felt that although the district officials visit their schools, they do not provide

adequate support to teachers. The officials were mainly concerned with monitoring rather than providing the necessary support when serious problems were encountered. The other issue raised by participants was that, even though the district officials visit schools, they tend to take a long time to make follow-up visits and resolve any cases which have been reported. As a result, growing number of learners are kept waiting to be helped, and thus have to remain in the same grade longer than is necessary. In the end, they are promoted to the next grade thanks to the age cohort policy, without their learning barriers being attended to.

Some participants felt that the district officials' support was hardly noticeable, that in fact it amounted to little or no support because their visits to schools were mainly concerned with monitoring and checking whether the ILST/SBST was functional. Following that, they hand out information without getting to the bottom of problems encountered at schools or in classrooms. Both teachers and principals indicated that they had presented numerous issues to the district officials, but not only were no solutions proposed, no interventions took place. Amongst those issues was the post-provision model (PPM) of Koti Primary, where the remedial teacher who had been appointed to teach the remedial class was removed and used in other classes. The principal indicated that although the case had been reported as far back as 2013, by 2015 nothing had yet been done about it.

The principal of Makoti Primary continued to show her dissatisfaction by indicating that although a building had been constructed on the school premises and had been completed, and despite the keys having been handed to the school, there had been no directive from the district officials on what to do with the building.

The findings from the researcher's observations reflect the discontent voiced by the Makoti Primary principal, where a building – a so-called therapy room (see Figure 11) – stands empty without any furniture. Looking at the PPM document of Koti Primary, it was indeed true that the school had been allocated a remedial teaching post, which was being used for learners other than those for whom it was intended. A perusal of the school's incident register/logbook revealed that district officials take a long time to visit some schools: at Makoti Primary there was an interval of two to four months, whereas at Burgavilla Primary it was three to six months. In addition, when reading what the purpose of the visit was at that point in time, in most cases it indicated monitoring and support, without explaining what kind of support was given or how that support was offered. This information, obtained from the

school's records, corroborated the findings emanating from the interviews and focus-group discussions, which revealed a lack of adequate support on the part of the district officials.

In this respect, Lewis and Bagree (2013) and Bantwini and Diko (2011) mention that follow-up training and support, as well as regular visits to schools, are vital duties of any district officials. The district has the capacity to be the fulcrum around which desired educational change and improvement revolve, if it fulfils its core function which includes (among others) providing support. There is a knock-on effect: if they receive and pass on clear feedback from those who are hands-on, policy makers as well as implementers will continue to improve the pre-service and in-service support they design for teachers.

The participants in this study were of the view that in order for inclusive education to be implemented successfully in their schools, teachers need to be intensively trained and their schools need to be well resourced. The teachers and principals felt that it was unfair and time-consuming to expect them to practise inclusion without the proper knowledge, skills and resources. Some teachers stated that the district and the Institutional Policy Development Services (IPDS), which is the provincial office that liaises with the DBE nationally on all matters pertaining to IE in the North-West Province, should employ teachers who are qualified in IE to come to their schools and take responsibility for inclusion, to ensure that this task is accomplished well. This view is captured in the following statement by T3 from Koti Primary:

> The policy can be implemented in the school, and it is a very good policy provided we are well trained, and well resourced, we can push, or they can hire a well-trained inclusive teacher to handle all-inclusive matters.

The above view, stemming from the teachers' interviews, correlates with the findings of Lewis and Bagree (2013), who mention that many countries do not have enough well-trained teachers to teach children with disabilities. As a result, teaching without the necessary training or support can be detrimental to the education of an already marginalised group.

The participants were also of the view that the IE policy should be implemented in all schools throughout the district of Ngaka Modiri Molema, as that would minimise the separation of learners according to their abilities, and grant each child the opportunity to learn in a

homogeneous environment. The participants felt that this measure would reduce the influx of learners with learning difficulties into full-service schools; if every primary school practised IE the full-service schools would not be so overcrowded.

The early identification of learners with barriers to learning can be improved, and barriers can be tackled in the early stages, i.e. in the foundation phase. Learners with learning difficulties can benefit from that, because the relevant support provided by the school and teachers can afford them the opportunity to proceed to the next (intermediate or senior) phase. Some participants stated that it would be beneficial to extend this policy to high schools, as that would offer consistency and continuity in terms of tackling barriers to learning and rendering support to learners who were already identified in the foundation phase. Other participants were of the view that what is happening at present, is that those learners who are supported in the foundation phase exit primary school and are left to their own devices – there is no further support and if they attempt high school, they end up as dropouts.

Several teachers viewed the extension of the policy of inclusion to other schools in the district as futile; arguing that given the lack of training and proper monitoring, nothing fundamental would change. They were concerned about the duration of the training sessions, indicating that the time allocation was not sufficient. T7 and T3 from Tshipika and Koti Primary respectively, indicated that unless training and support from the district and other relevant stakeholder is provided, teachers from other schools will find it equally difficult to accept the policy of inclusion at their schools.

Rouse (2010) corroborates the above findings, noting that despite the fact that inclusion is regarded as important in most countries, the available research indicates that it is difficult to fulfil its mandate, which is to provide additional support for learners with disabilities. One of the reasons for this is the inadequate preparation of teachers, as well as the lack of ongoing professional development opportunities.

5.2.3 Why do teachers implement IE in the way they do?

It was very clear when interacting with the participants in this study, that they all lay the blame for the failure of IE on factors like poor infrastructure (especially a shortage of classrooms), the inadequate training of teachers, as well as the limited support they receiving on issues pertaining to inclusion. According to the participants, these factors effectively make

their mission to render IE impossible. All the participants in this study indicated that they were ill equipped in terms of skills and knowledge of issues around screening, identifying and dealing with learners with learning barriers in the classroom.

The shortage of classrooms in some schools poses a serious problem for teachers. Congested classes make it impossible for IE to be implemented successfully. Teachers are compelled to use every bit of available space they can find, as was the case at Tshipika Primary, where the HoD's office was used as a classroom. The shortage of teaching staff worsened the situation. In some schools, overcrowding seriously affected the teacher:learner ratio, which implies that effective teaching and learning are not taking place. In a full-service school, that renders the whole idea of inclusivity impossible. Some participants in this study felt that overcrowding had a negative effect on the support required by the teacher and by those learners who experience barriers to learning. This contradicts the main focus of the SIAS policy, which is to manage and support the teaching and learning process for learners who experience barriers to learning, within the framework of the National Curriculum Statement for Grades R–12 (DoE, 2014, p. 12).

Due to overcrowding, some participants questioned whether the introduction of the full-service school model was indeed effective. A comment by the principal of Koti Primary attested to that fact:

> If they can supply us with classes, then we will know our standpoint as full-service school and we can implement inclusive education. Our class teacher:learner ratio is 1:60, 1:40 and 1:59. The lowest are in grade 3, with 1:40, 1:41 and 1:45 in one class. The circuit inspectors do not honour the postposition model (PPM), as the remedial teacher is being used in different classes. Therefore, the concept of full-service school has not yet yielded any positive results for us.

In addition, T3 from Tshipika Primary mentioned that enrolment figures at their school were too high, and it was therefore impossible to exercise proper time management. The teacher cited the example of a remedial class comprising 70 learners, which made it impossible to do remedial teaching.

When asked why the school had enrolled so many learners, the response was that as a full-service school, the DoE expects them to admit learners from neighbouring schools, which use

the opportunity to send away those learners who are struggling, as that enables the school to obtain a better aggregate result at the end of the year. Such learners are sent over to full-service schools under the pretext of struggling with barriers to learning. T1 and the principal of Tshipika Primary highlighted that no learner from a neighbouring school was denied admission to their school.

The researcher was granted access to the admissions records of the four schools, for the period 2014–2015, as part of the document review process. Of the four full-service schools participating in this study, two were experiencing high enrolment figures: at Tshipika Primary there were 1 380 learners, and at Koti Primary 1 789. The records corroborate statements made during the interviews, in which the participants claimed that due to high enrolment figures their remedial classes were overcrowded, making it impossible to work effectively. Moreover, the notion of a high teacher:learner ratio correlates with the findings made during the observations. At Tshipika Primary, the teacher:learner ratio was 1:56 in grade 4, and at Koti Primary it was 1:48 in grade 3. At Makoti Primary the ratio was 1:45 in grade 2, mainly due to a shortage of classrooms. The researcher discovered that during class activities, the teachers of the observed classes were unable to employ a variety of pupil groupings so that learners are able to draw on one another's strength and skills – the numbers were just too high. Only Burgavilla Primary had an acceptable ratio of 1:33 in grade 3.

Mukhopadhyay et al. (2012), in their study of IE for learners with disabilities in Botswana primary schools, allude to the fact that the school principals they interviewed raised concerns about a lack of resources, among others. They also pinpointed the high learner:teacher ratio as one of the barriers to the successful implementation of IE. This corroborates the findings from the teachers' interviews, observations and documents reviewed in this study.

In respect of physical infrastructure, some participants voiced concerns about the ramps that had been built at all four full-service schools. At some schools the ramps were incomplete: there were no hand-rails to offer support or prevent a learner in a wheelchair from falling over. Some ramps were too narrow, which did not allow a standard wheelchair to move freely, while others were too steep to navigate with ease. It was evident that the specifications used when building those ramps were not standardised. Of the four schools, only Koti Primary had ramps fitted with hand-rails (see Figure 3). Makoti Primary had ramps without safety rails (see Figure 4). It was only at Koti and Tshipika Primary that the toilets had been

modified and allowed sufficient space for a wheelchair to move freely (see Figure 5). The toilets at Burgavilla and Makoti Primary were not suitable for use by paraplegic learners and were inaccessible to children in wheelchairs (see Figure 6). From the researcher's observations and the interview responses, it appeared that there were significant disparities between the four full-service schools as regards infrastructure development. For instance, Koti Primary featured paved surrounding (see Figure 7), whereas Makoti Primary only had sand, little grass, and no paving at all (see Figure 8). The layout of the buildings at Koti Primary is user friendly: there are shaded areas and taps between the toilet and the classrooms with plastic basins where learners can wash their hands after going to the bathroom (see Figure 9). The terrain at Tshipika Primary is partially paved, whereas Burgavilla Primary's schoolyard is equipped with walkways (see Figure 10).

To conclude as regards infrastructure, all four full-service schools that participated in this study indicated that they do have water in their schoolyards as well as proper sanitation. The only challenge was that two of the schools only had normal access toilets, which could not accommodate wheelchairs. Only at one school had the toilets been adapted to allow wheelchairs to move freely.

Makoti primary has a therapy room (see Figure 11), which appears to call into question the idea of IE as not differentiating between learners by segregating them. The comments by the teachers, along with the researcher's observations, contradict the definition of a full-service school, as outlined by the DoE (2010, p. 16), which states that

> a full-service/inclusive school understands that barriers to learning are not only intrinsic to learners but can also be cultural and systemic. Cultural and systemic on the other hand refer to factors from a learner's environment that could include negative attitudes and stereotyping of learners, inflexible teaching methods and practices, inappropriate language and/or communication, inaccessible or unsafe environments. Upgrading the infrastructure in the full-service schools, will provide and create accessible and safe environments for all learners.

Due to a lack of infrastructure, some schools do not have storerooms in which to store the assistive devices that they have bought. Some participants complained that these devices are never utilised – in fact, some have not even been opened since being delivered, due to the lack of space in class for storage and safekeeping. Educational assistive devices are bought

by full-service schools with monies received from the DBE as part of a plan to resource and support these schools. A large sum of money is pumped into newly identified full-service schools, while existing schools continue to be supported by small amounts of money, to cater for their needs. During the observations, the researcher discovered a number of sealed boxes at Koti and Makoti Primary, which proved to contain assistive devices delivered eight months earlier. To verify this, the researcher asked to see the delivery invoice as part of his document review, and it confirmed what the principals and teachers of those two full-service schools had stated in the interviews.

Clearly, the lack of infrastructure development is interfering with teachers' plans to be able to help learners who experience barriers to learning, in that they cannot help them to achieve academically, as outlined in the SIAS policy, when these children are being denied access to assistive devices. It is important to point out that the use of assistive devices is emphasised in all legislation governing the implementation of IE. In affirming the above views, Ramakrishna (2009) and DoE (2014) define educational assistive devices as software or hardware that has been specifically designed, made or adapted to help people with disabilities carry out their daily activities or perform a particular educational task. Assistive devices such as wheelchairs, prostheses, mobility aids, hearing aids, visual aids and specialised computer software and hardware are intended to compensate for any form of functional limitation that makes it difficult for a learner with a disability to participate in inclusive teaching and learning tasks, as required by the curriculum. These devices may also improve learners' mobility, hearing, vision and communication capacities.

Extending this line of thought, Petty (2005) indicates the importance of assistive devices by mentioning that they can open up new avenues of possibility for children and adults with disabilities (including cognitive, learning, sensory as well as physical disabilities). They enable disabled learners to complete assignments, examinations, as well as other academic activities independently. Ndhlovu (2008), Unesco (2011) and Chaula (2014) corroborate the interview findings, the observations made as well as the document reviews done by this researcher, which found that a lack of resources and inadequate facilities that hamper the implementation of IE exclude vast numbers of children with disabilities from accessing formal education. It is imperative that learners who use wheelchairs and other assistive technology/devices be able to access the learning environment with ease.

Participants from all four schools involved in this study had concerns about the role of curriculum specialists, who fail to consider the fact that full-service schools must accommodate all learners – including those facing barriers to learning. Remedial teachers are put under pressure, because during monitoring, curriculum specialists treat them the same as their counterparts who teach mainstream learners in ordinary schools. The teachers therefore feel compelled to abandon their mission of providing remedial assistance to learners who experience barriers to learning, in an attempt to meet the expectations of curriculum specialists.

The participants also referred to the issue of progression due to age cohort, indicating that it was causing confusion. The teachers were of the view that since their schools were full service, one of their cardinal mandates is to help learners with learning barriers overcome those obstacles. Given the policy of age cohort, however, learners end up progressing to the next grade despite their learning problems not having been fully addressed or overcome.

Affirming the above, Lewis and Bagree (2013) mention that for IE to be promoted successfully across all aspects of education, policy-makers, implementers and trainers should have a sound understanding of the subject. To achieve this, all those involved must understand that IE is an issue that cuts across every aspect of education at all levels. It employs twin track (meaning that IE can improve the quality of education for all, yet provide specialised support for learners with disabilities, when needed) and inter-sectoral approaches that link (among others) with the health, social welfare, water and sanitation as well as the justice sectors.

Of the four schools that took part in this study, three showed their dissatisfaction with national examinations, in particular the annual national assessments (ANAs). These are standardised national assessments for languages and mathematics in the intermediate phase (grades 4–6) and in literacy and numeracy for the foundation phase (grades 1–3). The question papers and marking memoranda are supplied by the national DBE and schools are responsible for conducting the tests as well as marking and internal moderation. The participating teachers were of the view that during the ANAs, remedial learners and all those learners experiencing barriers to learning are not considered: in fact, learners in full-service schools and those in mainstream schools are treated in exactly the same way, and teachers feel it is unfair to both teachers and learners. When they receive the results of the ANAs,

schools are held to account for poor performance, and that is where full-service teachers feel the DBE is being unfair. They complain that the circumstances under which they operate are not considered.

This concern is indicated in a statement made by the principal of Tshipika Primary:

> We are inclusive, we accept learners who are slow, but when ANA test them it does not differentiate, it brings questions that are for all learners. Come the analysis of results, school A has 50% pass rate, yet they do not consider the fact that other schools admit the learners straight. Problem is that we do not have a system that analyses these learners separately, and there are no slow learner results.

In addition, some participants mentioned that since the ANAs are taken by all learners, and all learners who are in the same grade are treated the same, some learners end up submitting blank answer sheets. The reason for this is that some do not understand the instructions to the questions, thus they do not know exactly what to do. The participant teachers were of the opinion that learners should not be treated equally, as those with learning difficulties face unique challenges.

The literature attests to these views: Bruwer, Hartell and Steyn (2014) contend that the implementation of IE, amongst others, aims to support learners who experience barriers to learning. Those who are not yet school ready must be assisted through early intervention strategies to help them realise their potential and allow them to reach the required level of readiness, as spelled out in the Salamanca Statement (Unesco, 1994a). Sadly, the reality differs from the visions and ideals presented, because what is proposed in EWP6 (DoE, 2001b) is that quality education should be provided to all learners, either by adapting curricula, providing teaching strategies or making organisational arrangements so that the needs of the learners are met. This is not happening. Learners are forced to write ANAs whether they are ready or not, and teachers are not allowed to put into practice what is stated in the EWP6 (DoE, 2001b), hence the ANAs represent a persistent concern.

In all four full-service schools involved in this study, teachers believed that the way they implement IE in their schools is incorrect. They feel that they improvise, and that this might mean they are doing the wrong thing because they are not adequately trained or supported.

Teachers are of the view that they need support in terms of the learning content, and if possible, lessons and curricula should be adapted and differentiated to suit the learning abilities displayed by those learners who experience barriers to learning. Learning materials as well as teaching aids must meet the needs of the learners, first and foremost.

Some participants disagreed, arguing that the DBE provides sufficient support in terms of learning materials. They indicated that money is given to schools to buy learning materials in accordance with their needs. Consequently, what they want is support in class, especially when teaching. If they are supposed to differentiate a lesson, someone should demonstrate that practically to let them see how it is done. T6 and T4 from Burgavilla Primary highlighted the fact that they are satisfied with the financial support the DBE provides, which makes it possible for them to buy learning materials, however their concerns were based on non-support on issues pertaining to teaching. They suggest that district officials should provide practical examples, strategies and training, when dealing with curriculum issues in particular, as well as how to handle learners with behavioural problems not only in class but also in the school at large. Reference was made to a Burgavilla Primary learner who was diagnosed with bipolar syndrome. The child is difficult to handle in class. An eight year-old learner from Makoti Primary eats paper when upset, and becomes disruptive. According to the two primary school teachers concerned, these cases were reported to the district officials who failed to intervene successfully.

Lewis and Bagree (2013) validate the teachers' views, stating that teacher training needs to provide a balance between learning about the concept of IE and implementing these theories in practice. Support should be provided by an experienced official (or the teacher's colleagues), in anticipation of facing real-life challenges in schools. This will provide teachers with the necessary skills to become reflective and analytical practitioners.

The inability of district officials to provide support to those schools and teachers where learners display behavioural problems, contradicts what the SIAS policy propagates. According to the DoE (2014, p. 9), full-service schools are ordinary schools that are inclusive and welcoming of all learners, as reflected in the schools' culture, policies and practices. These schools increase participation and combat exclusion by providing support to all learners to help them develop their full potential, irrespective of their background, culture, dis/abilities, gender or race. Such schools will be strengthened and orientated to address and

overcome a full range of barriers to learning within IE. Where additional support may be required for a child or young person who experiences learning difficulties (for instance due to bullying) or manifests behavioural difficulties, that will be given.

Even though all the participants in this study stated their willingness to implement IE in their schools, they admitted that they each faced different challenges. Some teachers complained about being unable to follow SIAS processes, in terms of determining the level of support they have to give to needy learners, because they do not know which documents to complete. They admitted to needing thorough training on SIAS. Other teachers cited the progression of learners from one grade to another – even though they cannot read and write – as their biggest challenge, because that makes it impossible to follow SIAS processes. This is in line with the IE policy of SIAS, which requires learners to be assessed, to determine the kind of support each child requires. The policy makes provision for assessment in three different stages: the first is called profiling, where a learner's information is captured upon admission; stage two is about identification, where decisions can be made about the level of support and the support package each learner needs; and stage three is where the formal assessment and the information gathered during profiling and identification are reviewed. This stage deals with information based on the milestones a learner has reached (or failed to reach). Such a multi-agency approach sees the DBST becoming involved in managing and coordinating the level of support and the type of support package needed (DoE, 2014). Nevertheless, what is outlined in the SIAS policy is not happening on the ground, as expected, due to insufficient knowledge on the part of those being charged with implementing the steps.

Training was also a major source of concern for the teachers and principals of the four full-service schools. The principals complained about not being given any training on how to manage a school of this kind. All the principals mentioned that they were using the teacher training skills they acquired at teacher training institutions, or information gleaned from the teachers at their respective schools. Thus, teachers and principals end up confusing one another when it comes to providing remedial support, and a large number of learners unnecessarily end up in remedial class. Several participating principals confirmed these sentiments. From Koti Primary, the principal stated:

> We need training because it is difficult for teachers to concentrate on those learners who need remedial, because they do not have the skill. They end up referring learners to the remedial

class in large numbers and we end up having a full remedial class, and this means learners who can't cope and they make a class. It seems as if teachers ignore those learners who learn with a slow pace, so training of teachers on issues of inclusion is needed badly.

The principals of Tshipika and Koti Primary indicated that they do have professional development programmes to assist teachers in implementing IE. Minutes to this effect were indeed kept, but the schools conduct such programmes based on their own needs and they work in isolation, without support from district officials or IPDs. Makoti and Burgavilla Primary indicated that they did not have such programmes. Schools running professional development programmes were doing it out of their school budgets; they indicated that sometimes they use section 21 budgets, as the DoE made no provision for a specific budget for such activities. The principal of Koti Primary indicated that the only budget available from the DoE is one that makes provision for assistive devices.

The teachers also complained about not being trained well enough to be able to work with learners with different learning abilities. This led them to believe they might at some point be doing an injustice to those learners, hence their plea to the DoE to provide assistance that can help solve the problem. This much is evident in a comment made by T3 from Burgavilla Primary:

> Most of the challenges facing us as educators are that most of us are not trained to work with learners who are having problems or difficulties, so we end up not knowing whether we are on the right track to help the poor learner. Sometimes we end up misleading a learner instead of helping the child. So what I would say is that I think the government could maybe make at some point whereby it will give us some advice on how to handle learners with such problem, because we are just going astray, not knowing how to help these learners.

Johnson et al. (2014) and Chaula (2014), who conducted studies in the Bahamas, corroborate the teachers' views by indicating that variables like lack of funding, insufficient teacher preparation and training, minimal administrative support and systemic barriers in terms of unclear policies play a vital role in hindering the successful implementation of IE.

5.3   Challenges and opportunities around implementing IE

This section focused on the feedback of the principals of the four participating schools. The aim was to determine what challenges they were confronted with, which could hamper the successful implementation of IE in their schools, as well as the opportunities that come with implementing this approach.

All four principals agreed that being selected to become full-service schools meant that their schools are better resourced than other primary schools in terms of buildings, paved yards, as well as assistive devices, computers and other necessary technology. This sentiment is echoed in a comment by the principal of Tshipika Primary:

> We have the resources, apart from infrastructure, the government is assisting, and they allocate money to us. It is an opportunity because we are able to get these resources, and are able to use them even in the classroom, and learners get to know and be able to use technology in learning.

To probe this point, the researcher asked the principal to be specific in terms of the resources used in the classroom. The answer referred to assistive devices like reading pens and interactive whiteboards, which had been installed in some classrooms.

The principals were grateful and happy to have been given an opportunity to practise inclusion. They believed that being a full-service school and implementing IE would benefit their communities and provide opportunities for those learners who need support, especially in the rural areas. The principal of Makoti Primary stressed the advantage that lay in their school being situated near the main road and being relatively centrally located, thus allowing neighbouring schools easy access to them.

The principals also acknowledged that there were challenges to face in managing full-service schools. Just like the teachers who were interviewed, the principals' main concerns related to a lack of training. When asked if they had been trained and prepared to manage a full-service school, all four principals indicated that they had received no training – not even a crash course. For them this remains a concern, since running a full-service school entails managing large sums of money. In addition, the DoE places a significant burden of accountability on them. As the principal of Tshipika Primary stated:

A full-service school is not just an ordinary primary; there is a lot of money involved. The previous years, I think it was in 2008 the school was given R350 000 and I was asked to spend it on ramps, walkways, eating bays, sick bays and paraplegic toilets. However, all these were done without me (us principals) being guided or taken through. I did not know what ramps were by then and the correct measurement required. To make things worse, I have to go and look for people to build those things. And we were given the period to submit the receipt showing all the spenditure. That put me under a lot of pressure because I was afraid that the Department would blame me for misusing the money. That is why our ramps differ and has no rails, and a child with wheelchair can fall over.

The principals felt that the lack of training on how to run a full-service school can pose a threat to the successful implementation of IE. They also wish to receive training on how to identify, screen and teach learners with learning barriers, so that when they speak to parents and other stakeholders about inclusion they will know exactly what they are talking about – especially as managers. Some principals indicated that it is unprofessional to always rely on the information provided by teachers when addressing stakeholders from outside the school.

Affirming this line of thought are, amongst others, Conrad and Brown (2011), Brotherson et al. (2001) and Pasensie (2012), who found that principals tend to attribute the difficulties and challenges they face in implementing IE to external factors such as a lack of government assistance, a paucity of resources and funds, and inadequate understanding of how to identify and address barriers to learning through differentiating the curriculum, assessment processes and classroom methodologies. Not understanding the abovementioned issues, means that principals as well as teachers are unable to address the diverse learning and teaching requirements of all learners, as would be expected of them.

5.4   Chapter summary

In chapter five, data were analysed and findings were discussed. The participants in this study expressed views based on their perceptions and experiences as schoolteachers charged with implementing IE. The participants viewed this approach positively, and associated inclusion with significant benefits, such as the placement of learners who experience barriers to learning in institutions that can provide the necessary intensive care and support, i.e., special schools. In their view, this means that learners who face learning barriers that require

moderate support are given an opportunity in life, which allows them to interact with others in society and in their community, within mainstream schools. The findings revealed that teachers felt that the practice of inclusion helped learners not to see themselves as isolated and as able to perform certain activities that are important for their socialisation. They mentioned that in previous years, learners who were physically challenged suffered a great deal because their parents were afraid to take them to school. On the other hand, many schools were still not completely accommodating of handicapped children, because of the manner in which they were constructed.

The participants agreed that the introduction of IE was done haphazardly and hastily, without the approach being advocated beforehand. In addition, the teachers – as the main implementers and driving force behind IE – were not consulted satisfactorily. Affirming this line of thought, Sharma et al. (2008) and Jerlinder, Denmark and Gill (2010) state that the successful implementation of inclusion reforms depends largely on the goodwill of those educators who are at the coalface of integration policies and policy implementation.

The participants also voiced concerns about the training they received, highlighting the fact that teachers should be thoroughly skilled on issues of inclusion, to be able to provide the relevant support necessary to guarantee success.

The researcher concluded that the teachers and principals at the schools under study had embraced the idea of IE, because they realised the benefits that come with implementing the approach. This perception was substantiated during class observations, where it became clear that the teachers were very willing to conduct lessons in an inclusive manner, even though the environment in which they were operating was not always supportive.

The participants raised concerns about the implementation of IE at the different schools, stressing that they faced challenges in terms of fully understanding and interpreting the concept. The teachers' understanding of what IE entails varies, and this has resulted in each school implementing IE in its own way, as per its requirements. Different methods were used, for instance looking at a learner's previous grade results when trying to decide on the type of support to be provided. Conducting baseline assessments after a learner's admission meant that based on the results, learners could be grouped into categories (high, middle, average and slow achievers). This categorisation was mainly done based on their language acquisition and

competency (in English, Setswana) and mathematics. Offering extra classes to learners after school, so that they can receive additional instruction without any disruptions (as one would find during a normal class), meant that parents had to be involved in all the learning activities. This finding clearly indicates a lack of uniformity in following and applying the SIAS processes. These processes were formulated for the purpose of providing a policy framework for standardising procedures aimed at identifying, assessing and offering programmes for all learners who require additional support, so as to enhance their participation and inclusion, and successfully realise inclusivity in schools (DoE, 2014, p. 1).

The conclusion to be drawn from the different responses is that the participants lacked clear guidelines on how to define the concept of IE and implement it, in addition to raising awareness of serious oversights with regard to SIAS processes. The participants mentioned that policy and reality were in conflict, in addition to pointing out policy ambiguities. This matter will be discussed under two headings: 1) shortage of classes: high teacher:learner ratios in the classroom make it difficult for teachers to attend to learners experiencing barriers to learning, as expected in accordance with IE policy; and 2) overcrowding: EWP6 propagates that all learners of different learning abilities should be taught within the same environment, however, reality presents teachers with time-management issues, difficulties in terms of lesson planning, and time clashes (between additional classes after school and learners' transport arrangements) – as a result, learners are not receiving the schooling they are entitled to.

In line with this view, Terzi (2010), Beacham and Rouse (2012), Dalton (2012), Donohue and Bornman (2014) and Vaz et al. (2015) assert that although there is widespread support for inclusion at a philosophical level, there are concerns that it is difficult to implement for a number of reasons. Obstacles include a lack of thorough knowledge on the part of teachers as to how to implement the theory in practice, along with a lack of resources. Teachers' attitudes towards inclusion are often based on practical concerns about how IE can be implemented, rather than being grounded in any particular ideology. The researcher's observations and document review corroborated the finding that a lack of resources/physical infrastructure leads to overcrowding.

Policy ambiguities will be discussed under the following headings: the ANA examinations and the age cohort policy. This study identified a great deal of dissatisfaction amongst the

participants about the ANAs. When setting this assessment test, the DoE does not take learners with barriers to learning into consideration. The argument can be made that the content of the ANA question papers does not consider any learners other than ordinary, mainstream youth. The DBE is quite aware of the composition of learners at full-service schools, but nothing is being done to cater for them in these assessments. It was also found that most learners in full-service schools end up submitting blank answer sheets during the ANA exams, simply because they cannot cope with the questions. The teachers viewed this as an unfair practice, since those children's counterparts in mainstream schools do not have to deal with barriers to learning. When the ANA results are made known, the teachers are subjected to harsh scrutiny – as is the case with any other school which underperforms. These concerns seem to indicate that there are ambiguities within the EWP6 (DoE, 2001b). This raises the question whether officials serving within the same department of education do not perhaps view their area of operation as more important than that of a colleague: if teachers are forced to abandon their mission to provide remedial assistance to learners experiencing barriers to learning, in an attempt to comply with the demands of curriculum specialists, then the learners will suffer. Surely it is not possible to monitor or evaluate such teachers according to the exact same standards as their counterparts who teach learners without learning impediments in mainstream schools? Corroborating the participants' views, Lewis and Bagree (2013) mention that for IE to be promoted successfully across all aspects of education, policy makers, implementers as well as teacher training must reflect the fact that IE cuts across all aspects of education, at all levels.

Allowing learners to progress to the next level due to the policy of age cohort also frustrates full-service teachers. They cannot hold back learners who experience barriers to learning until such time as they are convinced that there is an improvement: teachers are forced to promote such learners, even though they are clearly not ready to progress – this, due to policy.

Inadequate support and a lack of commitment on the part of district officials are further challenges which the participants complained about. Several examples of incidents supporting the latter statement were mentioned, such as the case of a learner referred by one of the schools to the district officials for further placement in a special school because the learner was not coping. The matter was referred back to that particular school – the reason being that there was nothing wrong with the learner, therefore s/he had to remain at the

school and be taught alongside other learners. The inability to provide much-needed support contradicts the mandate given to district officials to act as intermediaries between the national and provincial DoEs and local schools. Affirming this line of thought, Bantwini and Diko (2011, p. 226) assert that district officials play a fundamental role in overseeing the implementation of all new policies developed by the national DoE and implemented by the nine provincial DoEs. To elaborate, the districts are required, by law, to ensure that all learners – regardless of race, ethnicity, socio-economic background and disability – have access to education within their regional boundaries. Extending this line of thought, Zulu (2007), Berry and Gravelle (2013) and Mukhopadhyay et al. (2012) mention that a lack of adequate support from education department officials in high positions causes teachers to develop negative attitudes towards the implementation of IE in their schools.

Participants also blamed a lack of adequate infrastructure and resources (such as a shortage of classrooms and well as limited opportunities for trained teachers to offer remedial services) as causing congestion. At some schools, the teacher:learner ratio stands at 1:56, which makes it impossible for teachers to carry out their mandate to teach effectively, or to implement IE properly. Some teachers complained about assistive devices being stored on the premises, unopened. If the devices are available, they are sometimes not used to assist learners due to the unavailability of storage. The teachers and principals of certain schools questioned the state of readiness of the majority of schools to introduce IE, as well as the effectiveness of the full-service school model. Neighbouring schools also played a role in how the teachers at the schools under study fulfilled their mandate, as they had a tendency to 'pass on' many of their learners to them. In the view of the participants, this was an excuse to 'get rid' of learners deemed to be experiencing learning problems. Yes, the DoE expects full-service schools to help in such instances, therefore no learner may be denied admission. Ironically, the *Conceptual and operational guidelines for the implementation of inclusive education: Full-service schools* (DoE, 2010, p. 11) outline government's expectations of full-service schools as needing to be amenable to sharing their resources with other schools, while serving as a model site for inclusion. From this study, it became evident that there were no clear pathways of admission or transferral from one school to another – especially from a mainstream to a full-service school. In general, it would be fair to say that SIAS procedures were not followed. It appeared that admissions were done haphazardly, without following procedure, perhaps because of the confusion created by the policy being misinterpreted, and because of a lack of thorough training on the part of those expected to implement it. To substantiate, one

of the participants mentioned being concerned about their inability and lack of surety regarding the screening, identification (assessment), admission and placement of learners, hence the confusion.

This finding is corroborated by studies carried out by DeBettencourt (1999, cited in Mukhopadhyay et al., 2012), who states that major obstacles to IE at the primary school level often result from pragmatic factors such as limited time, large class size, heavy workload and insufficient institutional support.

A specific infrastructure-related problem which the participants mentioned, was that of ramps for use by the disabled. No uniform specifications were used in constructing the ramps, and as a result they differ in terms of gradient and width. Only one school had modified paraplegic toilets which allow wheelchair users easy access. Three schools still use ordinary toilets without wheelchair access. One school's premises have paving and shelter as well as taps near the toilets, making it easy for learners to wash their hands when needed (see Figures 7 and 9). The researcher's observations corroborated these statements, and revealed that the layout and surroundings of the four schools differ significantly. It became apparent that the responsibility for building and improving the infrastructure was left solely up to each school: the district officials and IPDS were not on hand to give proper guidance and support.

Another concern is that of teacher training: participants strongly emphasised that district officials should embark on the thorough training of, and support for, teachers on issues of inclusion. They complained about not receiving sufficient or in-depth training on issues relating to IE, as training was allocated a very limited time frame. An example was given of training in respect of SIAS policy, which was done over three days, from noon until about 15:30. This was deemed inadequate, given the complexity of the policy. Upon studying the training attendance register as part of the document review process, the researcher noted that training was scheduled to start at noon and end at 16:00, which corroborated the teachers' views expressed during the interviews. The conclusion reached here, is that the training offered by district officials had a limited impact in terms of empowering teachers in respect of new policies of inclusion. This view is substantiated by comments made by almost all the participants, who admitted to needing thorough training on inclusivity. Attesting to these views, the work of Mkhuma et al. (2014), conducted in Limpopo with foundation phase teachers in full-service schools, indicates that the time spent in workshops run by the district

was limited. An example was provided where, in a workshop on identifying SEN learners, a great deal of information was provided in under three hours, leaving teachers confused about issues that required in-depth explanation.

The participants were also concerned about training which had no practical component. District officials must demonstrate to teachers how to go about handling certain issues that are challenging in practice. This finding is corroborated by Bantwini and Diko (2011), who mention that although schools and teachers do their utmost best, the onus is on district officials to provide better policy direction and support in a variety of ways. Further, Bantwini and Diko (2011) contend that district officials' holistic or broader understanding of an issue may assist in narrowing the gap between theory and practice, thus ensuring that the policies which are promulgated can be successfully implemented.

In conclusion, it was evident that all participants from the four full-service schools agreed that the IE policy should be rolled out gradually to institutions within the Ngaka Modiri Molema district. In their view, this will lighten the heavy workload which these full-service schools are currently faced with, due to an influx of learners from neighbouring schools. They emphasise that thorough training, monitoring and support must be provided to teachers on a continuous basis, to boost morale and keep them abreast of the latest developments in the education field.

CHAPTER 6
EMERGING THEMES

6.1   Introductory remarks

This chapter discusses the key themes that emerged from the findings of the present research. It does not, however, attempt to exhaust all the themes that arose, but focuses on the major issues which are crucial for answering the research questions posed by this study. Some of the cited literature is integrated here to facilitate the discussion and show the connection between that literature and the present research.

6.2   Teacher training and development

Throughout this study, the recurring theme was that teachers face a myriad challenges that emanate from inadequate training and insufficient development which do not address those skills that are imperative when teaching in inclusive schools. All the study participants identified a strong need for intensive teacher training and ongoing development on issues concerning inclusivity. Mukhopadhyay et al. (2013), who mention that their study found that teachers complained of not receiving adequate training to manage children with special needs, corroborate this. The participants in this study felt that in order for them to work confidently in IE settings and contribute positively towards helping SEN learners, they need comprehensive training. The teachers highlighted the areas they see as fundamental for the proper implementation of IE in their schools, and stressed the importance of proper, sufficient, intensive and relevant training and development.

6.2.1   Aspects to be covered by training

•   Lesson preparation

The teacher participants complained about not knowing exactly how to design a lesson plan for an inclusive class due to its diversity, the fact that learners learn differently, each at a different pace, and are at different levels of development. To show that there is a need for training in this specific area, T3 from Koti Primary indicated that she desires formal training on IE, since her educational background has not prepared her to work with SEN learners. Most of the participant teachers were trained to teach and interact with learners in a mainstream school, with ordinary barriers to learning. To show the seriousness of this matter, the researcher decided to capture T3's comment:

Most of the challenges facing us educators are that almost all of us are not trained to work with learners who are having problems or difficulties, so we end up not knowing whether we are on the right track in helping the poor learner. Sometimes we end up misleading learners instead of helping them because our lesson preparations suit those learners who have normal barriers. I think the government should make it a point whereby it will give us some advice on how to handle those learners with learning difficulties, because we are just going astray, not knowing how to help these learners.

All four full-service schools presented their lesson plans, which did not clearly outline pertinent strategies for dealing with barriers to learning, nor was it evident, from the observations, how learners with learning disabilities were accommodated. There were no activities targeting those learners: in fact, almost all activities in the lesson plan catered for learners without barriers to learning. Duncan and Met (2010) and Maryati and Susilowati (2015) corroborate the teachers' views, noting that preparation is a key element and vital for effective teaching and learning to take place. Lesson preparations thus help to ensure that classroom instruction aligns with curriculum goals and objectives, to enable learners to demonstrate their successful learning as per unit or curricular assessments. Lesson preparation can be described as the activity of creating a roadmap, blueprint or game plan, without which it may not be possible for teachers to achieve their goals and objectives. By having a well-prepared lesson plan, teachers know what, when and how they are going to conduct a lesson in the classroom.

A lesson plan not only benefits the learner but also teachers, because lessons not only shape how and what students learn, they also affect learners' attitudes toward learning. Further, Duncan and Met (2010) emphasise the importance of a lesson plan amongst the learning and teaching fraternity, focusing on four essential elements: 1) expected outcomes are formulated; 2) the learning activities to be completed before, during and after the lesson are listed; 3) assessment activities accompanying the lesson (e.g., classwork, homework, tools, memoranda, methods) are identified; and 4) provision is made for learners with learning difficulties, in that the teacher develops specific activities to accommodate the different levels of learners' comprehension (differentiation).

Teachers need clarify about their teaching and learning activities, therefore, in the absence of a well-considered lesson plan they are sure to leave out important components. This will

result in a poorly presented and ineffective lesson. In this regard, the participant teachers cited a lack of specialised knowledge on issues related to the compilation of an inclusive lesson plan. Corroborating this finding, Walton (2011) indicates that teachers identified a lack of specialised knowledge and a lack of support from experts (among other things) as hindrances in the successful implementation of IE.

- Strategies on how to screen, identify and deal with barriers to learning

This study found that the SIAS policy requires teachers to screen, identify and support learners, yet they were only able to do a baseline assessment, having not been fully trained. The study participants were of the view that qualified educational psychologists and other experts should do in-depth assessments, because their training covers a wide spectrum of learners with diverse needs. Affirming this view is one of the recommendations tabled in BRIDGE (2014), a report stating that teacher development should focus on supporting interventions aimed at SEN learners, and should include screening and identification. All these process should be aimed at helping SEN learners achieve to the best of their abilities. Further, the report states that in order for teachers to identify and support learners in the way the SIAS policy envisages, teachers need to be appropriately skilled. Yet, despite what is advocated by the policy (the involvement of the DBST in assessing and providing relevant support and support packages) that is not happening in practice, due to the non-availability of educational psychologists and the non-functionality of the DBST in the district. Teachers with large classes and limited training are forced to carry out the three stages of assessment that the SIAS policy recommends, as discussed in chapter five of this study.

The IE policy requires that learners be assessed in order to determine the kind of support that should be offered to them. In IE, the process of assessing SEN learners is known as support needs assessment (SNA). This refers to the process of determining what additional support provision is needed for each individual learner, to best help the learner achieve the desired learning outcomes. According to the SIAS policy (2014), SNA has three aims: 1) to identify the barriers that affect learners' participation in the process of learning; 2) to make a decision on the level of support needed, together with the envisaged support package to address those barriers; and 3) to track the progress and impact of the implemented support package. These processes are guided by SNA, which applies to various stages of the process, as highlighted in the screening, identification, assessment and support (SIAS) policy document (DoE, 2014). This process presents a challenge to many teachers, as they may lack knowledge of the

various learning difficulties which learners face. In addition, they may not be completely comfortable with implementing all aspects of the SIAS strategy.

Corroborating these findings, Ntsanwisi (2008) argues that teachers lack the necessary training in the skills needed to identify barriers to learning and instead depended on test scores as criteria for identification. This deficiency makes it difficult for teachers to manage diversity in their classrooms. Also, it contradicts what the SIAS policy advocates, which is to correctly implement the process of identifying SEN learners as a critical step in the provision of effective support.

Ironically, teachers in full-service schools are expected to have the knowledge and expertise to handle such matters. The concepts of screening and identification are embedded in the SIAS policy, as a policy framework for standardising the procedures used to identify, assess and create programmes for learners who require additional support, and for enhancing their participation and inclusion in school. According to the SIAS policy, teachers must be trained to carry out this process diligently and to ensure that IE in schools is successful (DoE, 2014). IE is based on human rights standards and principles, therefore, according to the South African constitution (1996, p. 14), education is a basic human right. In the same document, section 9 (3) prohibits unfair discrimination in any form. It is against this background that Mkhuma et al. (2014, p. 450) view issues of misidentification, non-identification and over-identification of SEN learners as verging on unlawful acts.

Teachers face the mammoth task of accommodating and implementing the support required for SEN learners, with their diverse needs. Helping each child to unleash their ultimate potential is a notion that causes panic amongst teachers, who fear they may not be up to the task, given questions about the type of support they are expected to provide.

Another issue that was of great concern during teacher workshops and trainings on SIAS pertained to district officials from the IE section. The participants felt that the training these officials conducted was based on theory rather than practice, and had little to do with actual classroom situations. Affirming these findings are Chataika, McKenzie, Swart and Lyner-Cleophas (2012) and Mkhuma et al. (2014), who found that despite the development of an IE policy to combat the exclusion of SEN learners in South Africa, one of the issues hampering progress is insufficient skills on the part of teachers, in adapting the curriculum to meet a

range of learning needs. This highlights the need for frameworks that conceptualise and empower teachers to cater for learners with diverse needs. Further, Pasensie (2012) indicates that most of the district officials who provide workshops to teachers and senior management teams (SMTs) on the identification and support of SEN learners lack strong academic backgrounds in IE policy. They themselves thus tend to depend on workshops provided by the DBE.

The allocation of limited training time on SIAS policy is detrimental to the successful empowerment of teachers. Participants viewed the SIAS process as long and complicated. Only being allowed to attend training by the district office from noon until four, for two or three days, is inadequate. The teachers complained that training is rushed, which means the quality and purpose of the training are compromised. It was clear that participants were frustrated with having to learn so much within a short space of time, and then having to successfully implement policies according to DoE directives. They claimed they were being denied an opportunity to implement the SIAS and IE policy in an effective manner, as they would wish to do. Confirming this are Mkhuma et al. (2014), who note that during district-run workshops for teachers, attendees are compelled to get to grips with vast quantities of information in under three hours, which leaves them more confused than ever about identifying SEN learners and rendering adequate and effective support at the school level.

•   Strategies for dealing with behavioural problems in the classroom

The findings of this research reflect the concerns raised by teachers from the four full-service schools, about their inability to handle learners with behavioural problems – both in the classroom and in the school at large. The participants expressed concerns about a lack of support in terms of practical strategies on how to handle behavioural problems – neither the district nor IPDS officials were very helpful in this regard. A teacher from Burgavilla Primary stated that they have to deal with a learner who has been diagnosed with bipolar syndrome: district officials are not willing to place the child in the correct school, and merely advised the teacher to suggest that the child's doctor lower the dose of the prescribed medication.

There is currently a plethora of literature, nationally and internationally, by authors such as Allday et al. (2013), McHatton and Parker (2013) and Mkhuma et al. (2014), which corroborates these findings. These authors cite a lack of knowledge, inadequate teacher

training and unhelpful district officials as factors hampering the provision of successful IE practices.

Teachers' inability to handle learners with behavioural problems or to provide them with help contradicts what is enshrined in the SIAS policy documents. According to the DoE (2014, p. 9), full-service schools are ordinary schools that are inclusive and welcoming of all learners, regardless of their culture, policies and practices. These schools have to increase participation and reduce exclusion by providing support to all learners, to allow them to develop to their full potential irrespective of their background, culture, dis/abilities, gender or race. The SIAS policy document (2014) maintains that such schools must be strengthened and orientated to address a full range of barriers to learning. Where additional support may be required for a child or young person who faces learning or behavioural difficulties, it must be given.

The teaching staff at Makoti Primary were very concerned about the fact that no one had come forward to help them – especially not the IE officials at district level. They also stated that being declared a full-service school within their area had disadvantaged them, as the surrounding schools tend to 'dump' learners with learning barriers at their school.

This is contrary to the *Guidelines for full-service and inclusive schools* (2010, p. 18), which state that full-service/inclusive schools should not encourage the admission of SEN learners from neighbouring schools, but should rather provide guidance to the referring schools. Full-service schools must be willing to share their expertise and provide leadership within a cluster of schools, yet according to the participants that is not the case.

6.2.2   Teachers' support on issues of inclusion

One of the recurring themes in this study is teacher support on issues of inclusion. That can best be defined by the DoE (1997, p. 58) and Mahlo (2011, p. 18) as all activities that increase the capacity of a school to respond to diversity. Further, support services should not only focus on assisting individual learners, but on supporting educators and the system as a whole. This must be done in order to make teachers "recognize and respond appropriately to the needs of all learners, thereby promoting effective learning" (Mahlo, 2011). The theme of support on issues of inclusion will be discussed under the following subheadings: district level, parents/stakeholders, school infrastructure and resources. For the successful

implementation of IE, it is essential to create a supportive environment in which there is collaboration amongst teachers, district officials, principals and parents (Mahlo, 2011).

- District officials

The functions and responsibilities of South African schools districts include, amongst others, mediating between the national and provincial DoEs and local schools. The fundamental role of district officials is thus to oversee and support the implementation of all new policies developed by the national DoE (Bantwini & Diko, 2011). The participants in this study mentioned that district officials, as representatives of the DoE, fail to provide adequate support to teachers. Even though such officials visit schools, they are mainly concerned with monitoring, rather than providing support if problems are encountered. Several examples of cases that remain unresolved after being referred to the district officials were mentioned. A case in point is the post-provision model (PPM) at Koti Primary, where the remedial teacher has to teach other classes. To date, nothing has been done about this, almost three years down the line. A case arose where a learner could not read or write; after various strategies had been trialled, the learner was referred to the district office, only to be returned to the school because according to the district officials there was nothing wrong with the child. Some learners end up being promoted due to the age cohort policy, without being helped. Affirming the teachers' view, Bantwini and Diko (2011) argue that district officials should work closely with local schools to ensure that their educational needs are met. In the same vein, Kalyva et al. (2007), Bigham (2010), Hido and Shehu (2010), Slavica (2010) and Hwang and Evans (2011) concede that although the systemic barriers which impede the implementation of inclusive practices may vary, if these barriers are not addressed there will still be varying attitudes towards IE. They agree that factors like information-sharing workshops, time management, adequate resources, reduced class sizes and training for school administrators are essential in the implementation of IE and will help to promote inclusivity.

- Parents/stakeholders

The findings of this research study indicate that the participants were satisfied with the support they receive from parents at their school. Where there were problems, it was mainly due to misunderstandings or denial on the part of either the school or the parents. The participants from Burgavilla and Koti Primary confirmed that parents are invited to the school to discuss their children's problems and take note of progress during teacher–parent meetings. The parents are responsible for signing an intervention form to show that they

agree that their child proceed to the next class. In some cases, parents commit themselves to help their child(ren) at home with schoolwork, under a teacher's guidance. The principal of Makoti Primary stated that after the school has identified a learner's problem, the parents are involved by being called to the school where they are updated and taught relevant skills to support the child at home. In most cases, the parents respond positively to such a request.

The mutual support shown by teachers and parents in this regard was well established. Parents were brought on board in terms of keeping them abreast of developments taking place in the school. The principals were also instrumental in making sure that good relationships exist between teachers and parents, by informing and involving everyone in activities aimed at developing the school.

Some schools were fortunate enough to enjoy the support of different stakeholders outside of the parent community. The principal of Tshipika Primary indicated that they were supported by sister departments such as the DSD (Department of Social Development) which offered the services of a school social worker, while the Department of Health (DoH) provided the school with clinic staff. A librarian provides services and assistance to the learners, as does the community. In addition, an educator from Tshipika Primary mentioned that they have a working committee made up of police officials and parents, as well as representatives from the religious, health care and education sectors.

Even though the support shown by the parents was satisfactory, the participants stated that some parents refuse to cooperate. Many are in denial about the fact that their child might be experiencing barriers to learning or might have a disability. In some cases, the parents appeared not to understand their role: being illiterate, they refused to come to the school when summoned (perhaps for fear of stigmatisation or being made to feel foolish or incompetent). Filler and Xu (2006), Anderson and Minke (2007) and Afolabi (2014) corroborate these findings, indicating how important parental involvement is in the education of children of all ages – in fact, it is critical for the success of young learners in inclusive settings. High levels of parental involvement correlate with improved academic performance, higher test scores and more positive attitudes toward school. Some of the literature in this field refutes the second part of the above findings, noting that parents' denial or refusal to accept their children's learning difficulties, and their unwillingness to become involved in matters concerning their child's education, may relate to the actions of the teacher(s). When

parents perceive that teachers require their participation, many will overcome any obstacle to be involved, despite a lack of resources. The opposite might happen, particularly amongst minority and low-income families (Filler & Xu, 2006; Anderson & Minke, 2007; Afolabi, 2014). While the DoE is instrumental in supporting inclusion initiatives, collaboration with parents and other stakeholders (like sister departments) is vital.

- Infrastructure

In this research study, it emerged that failing or inadequate infrastructure was a concern. The participants felt that even if they were passionate about practising IE in their schools and classrooms, without infrastructure-related issues being addressed and resolved, their efforts might not be successful. They were concerned that negative attitudes might set in, because of the frustrations and hardships they experience. Under 'infrastructure', the participants were referring to the school terrain and surroundings (the availability of ramps for wheelchair users, paraplegic toilets, large enough classrooms to accommodate learners' assistive technology devices, and other furniture to meet individual needs). Confirming this view, Mbelu (2011) cites poor infrastructural development as one of the major factors hindering the successful implementation of IE.

This correlates with how the DBE expects full-service schools to operate. According to the DoE (2010, p. 16), a full-service/inclusive school understands that barriers to learning are not only intrinsic to learners, but can also be cultural and systemic (i.e., factors in a learner's environment, such as negative attitudes and stereotyping, inflexible teaching methods and practices, inappropriate language and/or communication, inaccessible or unsafe environments). Upgrading the infrastructure in full-service schools will provide and create an accessible and safe environment for all learners. Certain participants believed their schools were not yet fully user-friendly, and as such it would be difficult to admit learners in wheelchairs, since their mobility would be limited. A shortage of classrooms was another problem. Some participants complained about overcrowding, which made it impossible to include everyone in activities in an orderly and focused manner. Affected schools like Tshipika Primary tried to resolve this problem by using every available space, especially for remedial classes. The findings confirm the researcher's observations: of the four full-service schools involved in the study, two reported a high learner:teacher ratio. Those participants whose classes were observed, stated that due to the high number of learners per class, they were unable to employ a variety of pupil grouping techniques which would have allowed

learners to draw on one another's strengths and skills. The teacher:learner ratio in those observed classes ranged from 1:56 to 1:60. Information provided by the South Africa Information Services on Education (SAInfo, 2012), in a comparison between private and state-owned schools, corroborated this finding, indicating that the average teacher:pupil ratio in South African schools is 1:30. At state-aided schools, where parents pay for extra teachers by way of school fees, and at more expensive private schools the maximum number of pupils per class is usually about 30. At poorer schools this tends to be higher, with as many as 40 to 50 learners being taught in a single classroom.

During observations of the infrastructure both inside and outside the classrooms, it transpired that the four full-service schools under study differed significantly. Tshipika and Koti Primary had paved surroundings. At Koti Primary the layout of the buildings is user-friendly, there are ramps with handrails, shaded courtyards and outdoor taps with basins (see Figures 3, 7 and 9). At Burgavilla Primary the yard has walkways (see Figure 10), while at Makoti Primary the schoolyard has neither paving nor walkways, only sand and a ramp without a handrail (see Figures 4 and 8).

Tshipika, Makoti and Burgavilla Primary only had ordinary toilets – the restrooms have not been adapted for paraplegic use (see Figure 6), even though the *Guidelines for full service and inclusive schools* (DoE, 2010, pp. 8–9) state clearly that a "full-service school should be equipped with physical resources that are acceptable and in good condition, like toilets, buildings, playground and terrain". To affirm that disparities exist in terms of infrastructure, see the figures below.
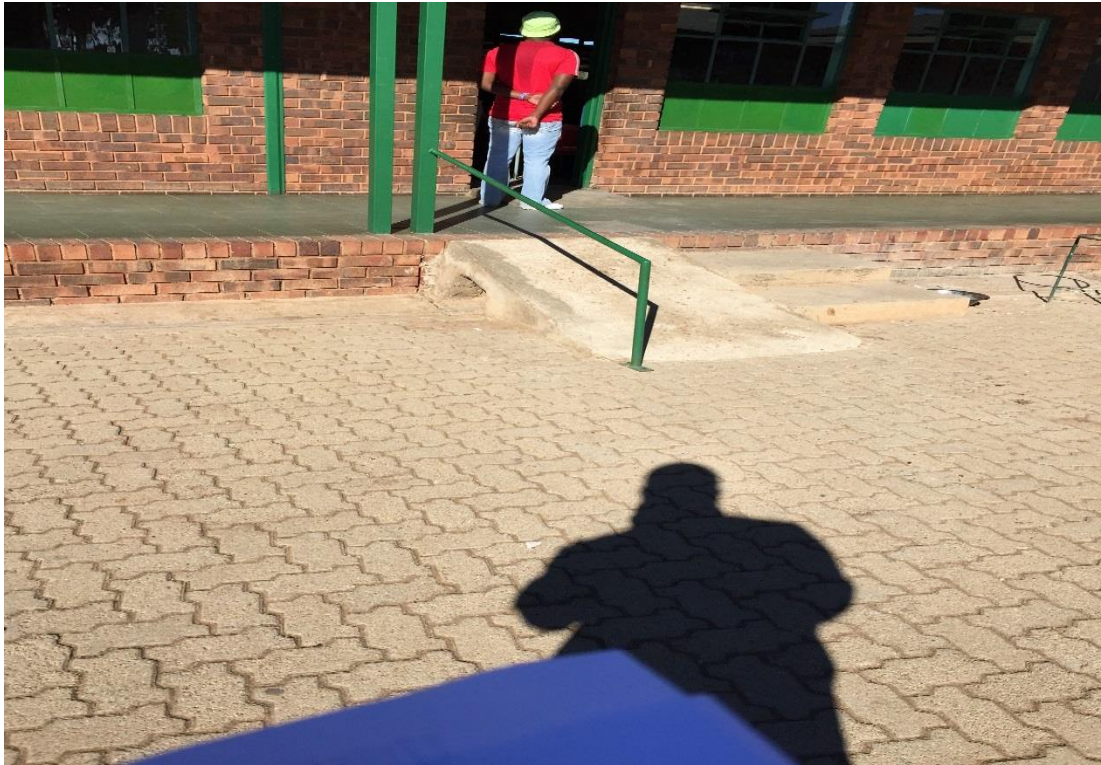
Figure 3: Koti Primary's wheelchair access ramps with handrails

Figure 4: Makoti Primary's ramps (without safety rails)

Figure 5: Koti Primary's paraplegic toilets

Figure 6: Burgavilla Primary's toilets (not wheelchair accessible)

Figure 7: Koti Primary's paved schoolyard

Figure 8: Makoti Primary's ramp and unpaved schoolyard

Figure 9: Koti Primary's outdoor taps with plastic basins

Figure 10: Burgavilla Primary's schoolyard with walkways

Figure 11: Makoti Primary's vacant therapy room

In conclusion, participants from all four full-service schools indicated that they do have electricity, water and sanitation at all times, and that they were satisfied with those services.

- Resources

As regards resources, conflicting views were presented. Not only did participants have different views amongst themselves, in some instances the principals differed from the teachers. Tshipika Primary's principal maintained: "We do have the resources, the government is assisting, and they allocate money for us." All the principals and some of the teachers alluded to the fact that the monies received are used to buy teaching and learning

materials, as indicated by their learners' requirements. A number of teachers felt that despite the fact that full-service schools are better supported, financially speaking, they still lag behind because they deal with learners facing a variety of barriers to learning. Their arguments were based on the unique support and more sophisticated attention and assistance that such learners require – assistance which the teachers are unable to provide due to their inadequate training, especially on matters relating to IE. T5 from Koti Primary maintained: "The only fly in the ointment is lack of human resource; we need to be trained thoroughly or get a teacher who is well qualified in inclusive education." The teachers are thus of the view that there are significant challenges pertaining to the availability of human resources within full-service schools.

In conclusion, Unesco (1994, 2009a) and Dalton (2012) corroborate these findings by stating that the concept of IE has been problematic in developing countries especially, where resources are limited. Therefore, according to EWP6 (DoE, 2001b), to make IE a reality there needs to be a conceptual shift in the provision of support for SEN learners. It is imperative that the resources provided help to ensure the successful implementation of IE.

6.3   Chapter summary

In chapter six, key themes emerging from the findings were discussed. This study found that teacher training and development are needed on aspects pertaining to IE, because teachers are unable to implement the approach in the way the policy directs them to, as they are lacking in terms of knowledge and skills. By being unable to implement IE, teachers are failing SEN learners as well as their mainstream counterparts, by not allowing them to benefit from one another socially and academically, or preventing their unique contributions from being recognised and acknowledged in their own society – not as people who are challenged, but as human beings. For teacher training and development to be done successfully, specific identified areas need to be targeted. The first and most important aspect to be covered in any related plan is lesson planning/preparation. This aspect is very important for the teaching fraternity and for learners, because it is the pointer/roadmap that provides direction: without it, learning and teaching cannot be effective. In this study, participants indicated that they are unable to come up with a convincing lesson plan that is inclusive, therefore their efforts at teaching in an inclusive way are futile, because they do not know, what, when or how to conduct lessons that include all learners, despite the challenges they face in the classroom.

The second and third aspects that participants feel should be considered when providing teacher training and development, are strategies on how to screen, identify and deal with barriers to learning, and how to handle behavioural problems in the classroom. Teachers should be able to provide the requisite support for learners post-screening and post-identification. The participants in this study were of the view that their screening and identification seem useless because they are not sure what to do once they have identified a particular obstacle to learning. In most cases, even if they follow the SIAS procedures they still have doubts and that frustrates them as teachers, in addition to being unfair on the learners. This proves that the training which the district provides is theoretical rather than practical – it should focus on what happens in the classroom. Even the duration of the training raises eyebrows, because such sessions are too short to truly be effective. Examples were provided of cases which were reported to the district office, of learners displaying unusual behaviour that is disruptive in class, but where no one seems to know what to do.

The findings also suggest that teachers should be supported on issues of inclusion. The support services they so desperately need should not only deal with learners, but should empower them as teachers and impact the system as a whole. Consequently, there should be collaboration amongst teachers, district officials, principals, parents/stakeholders and other human resources, to create the most supportive environment possible. District officials should be more supportive and responsive by attending to teachers' problems quickly, because amongst other things, the participants complained about slow response times. The participants in this study were satisfied with the support they received from parents and stakeholders (such as DoH and the DSD), even though occasional misunderstandings emanated from the illiteracy of certain parents, who did not respond to invitations to attend meetings at their child's school. This problem may be attributed to the fact that many learners are being taken care of by their grandparents.

Issues related to school infrastructure were also a concern: the availability of ramps of an acceptable standard, the modification of toilets (for use by paraplegics), the availability of classrooms to accommodate huge numbers of learners, were all mentioned. The participants had diverse views about the support provided in terms of resources, with several remarking that their schools were allocated the necessary funding to buy assistive and other devices, while others complained that there were not enough staff on hand to manage the number of

learners in each class. Overcrowding and understaffing were deemed serious issues, as was proper training for teachers who are expected to roll out IE in schools.

CHAPTER 7

LESSON LEARNED AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE STUDY

7.1   Introduction

The preceding chapters dealt with the presentation, analysis and discussion of the themes emerging from the study. After careful consideration of the data presented in chapter five, and the themes set out in chapter six, it is possible to identify a number of clear lessons to be learned from this research endeavour. Based on the findings and themes outlined in the preceding two chapters, and the lessons learnt from them, several recommendations can be made. The proposed activities are rooted in the framework of the Theory of Planned Behaviour, and can support primary school teachers as they undertake the task of successfully implementing IE.

7.2   Lessons learned

During this study, the actual experiences and practices of teachers and principals in implementing IE in their full-service schools were explored using a qualitative case study design. According to EWP6 (DoE, 2001b), all schools (starting with primary schools) have to be converted to full-service schools in a phased approach. The establishment of full-service schools will enable the DoE to implement an inclusive model, by identifying learners who manifest a range of diverse learning needs and starting the intervention process as soon as possible during or after the foundation phase.

The overall objective of this study has been to determine the attitudes of those teachers involved in implementing inclusivity in their schools. After careful consideration of the findings, the following lessons have been learned. All participants from the four full-service schools admitted that they lacked adequate training in aspects pertaining to IE. They were thus not afraid to identify their own shortcomings, which is commendable. Much as district officials conducted training, it was not thorough enough to make an impact and was sometimes irrelevant to the classroom situation. Many teachers felt their needs were not being taken into consideration. They were not only prepared to undergo training, but were honest enough to admit that they had not benefitted fully from the upskilling opportunities on offer. In some instances, problems that required district officials' intervention were handled in an unsatisfactory manner, leaving the matter in the teachers' hands. Some teachers felt that the district officials were failing them. It was because of this failure that many teachers and

principals who participated in this study believed that their full-service schools were not yet functioning optimally.

Some teachers viewed themselves as unfit to teach in an inclusive setting because of the limited support and training they had received from district officials. Mainly theory dominated the training provided, which failed to address the real problems teachers encounter in actual classroom situations. Therefore, the teachers were compromised, they were left unable to handle learners with behavioural problems and felt uncertain about how to tailor support to the needs of each learner – a very honest appraisal of their own skills and capabilities. This contrasted with what the inclusive policy requires in terms of the support which should be offered to both learners and teachers. Inclusive policy requires that relevant support packages, informed by assessments done on each individual learner, be implemented so that each child can achieve the desired learning outcomes to the best of their ability (DoE, 2014). According to the TPB (see chapter three of this study), human action is influenced by three major constructs: behavioural beliefs that form attitudes towards a behaviour, normative beliefs that lead to a subjective norm which arises from social pressure to either indulge in/refrain from specific behaviour, and control beliefs that lead to perceived behavioural control. In this study, the perceived behavioural control factor was the most significant predictor, as teachers complained about lacking proper knowledge of the concept of IE, which in their view made them unfit to teach in an inclusive setting. Within the TPB, the extent to which a person feels capable and has confidence and the ability to execute the desired behaviour will play a crucial role in their intentions and actual behavioural outcomes. This links with the perception that every person has the ability to overcome potential barriers and challenges, even to a limited extent. Consequently, as teachers' level of perceived behavioural control is low, that is likely to affect their intention to implement IE. Since perceived behavioural control reflects an individual's perceived ease or difficulty in performing a particular behaviour, it can also impact negatively on their self-efficacy. In this case, it can be seen as a type of constraint that prevents teachers from embracing the actual behaviour, which is to implement IE, because their intentions are negative, they view their teaching efficacy as minimal, and regard themselves as unknowledgeable about the topic (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1980; Ajzen, 1991).

Full-service schools are ordinary schools that are inclusive and welcoming of all learners, in that their culture, policies and practices support such children. For this to happen, they should

receive assistance in terms of the necessary financial aid, infrastructure and teaching resources (human as well as physical).

The abundant literature used in this study puts greater emphasis on the in-service training of teachers, as regards IE as a new policy in South Africa. Therefore, teachers who are at the coalface of inclusion, of integration policies and policy implementation, require intensive training. The participants in this study felt the duration of the training provided was not sufficient. They had received training on SIAS, the policy that governs inclusion, but being trained for three days, three hours per day, is not fruitful. To the teachers, the district and the IPDS officials seem to be more interested in compiling statistics of the number of teachers trained (which they can compile and submit to the DBE at national level), than in interrogating the effectiveness of their training and the difference it makes. According to Allday et al. (2013) and MacHatton and Parker (2013), teachers are increasingly demanding to be well trained. Without the proper skills and knowledge, the PBC construct will remain a constraints factor, because teachers will perceive IE as a difficult concept to implement in practice. Consequently, they will develop negative attitudes towards the approach.

What this thesis has demonstrated, is that despite the presence of policies like the EWP6 (DoE, 2001b), the *Guidelines for full-service/inclusive schools* (2010) and SIAS (2014), which state what needs to be done in order for policies on inclusivity to be successfully introduced in South Africa, there is very little to prove that these policies are having the desired outcome in schools in the North-West province, in particular in the Mafikeng area. After interviewing the teachers and principals of the four full-service schools participating in this study, the researcher realised that IE is not afforded the necessary attention, judging from the inadequate training which is sometimes not relevant to the situation teachers and principals find themselves in. EWP6 (DoE, 2001b) has been in existence for 15 years or more, yet in the district of Ngaka Modiri Molema there have been no significant changes in terms of moving towards fully fledged IE practices – certainly not in those primary schools that have been converted to full-service institutions. Perhaps it is too much to expect immediate changes to occur in such schools, given the demands of IE as outlined in EWP6 (2001).

7.3   Recommendations

Presented in this section are the recommendations, which are made based on the research questions, findings and lessons learned in the course of this study.

7.3.1   A coordinated and integrated approach to teacher training needs

This study has highlighted that all teachers complain about training being inadequate and failing to address their teaching needs. The researcher's recommendations are discussed hereunder according to particular topics.

- Lesson plans

The DBE must take it upon itself to provide training that corresponds with the demands of the teachers, i.e., on aspects which are relevant to the day-to-day scope of their operations. For example, if a teacher does not have the know-how to formulate a lesson plan that caters for all types of learners – be they children without barriers to learning or children with handicaps – then that teacher cannot make a positive contribution to the implementation of IE, despite the fact that his/her institution is a so-called full-service school. Lack of knowledge about lesson preparation or planning will have a negative impact on how assessments are planned for all types of learners, and teachers will lack the necessary strategies to handle learners with behavioural problems in the classroom. Alternatively, teachers should be provided with the relevant technology to overcome any obstacles in implementing differentiated instruction, in order to address diversity in the classroom as well as the school. Ormsby and Hobgood (2011, p. 3) indicate that "teachers who feel ill prepared to address the diverse needs of their students, have ready access to more options than ever before as a result of the wide range of software and hardware tools available". Table 2 reflects the use and application of assistive technologies in education, which the district of Ngaka Modiri Molema can use as a reference in guiding schools to address diversity at those full-service schools striving to promote IE.

Table 2: Use and application of assistive technology in education

CATEGORY/ AREA OF FUNCTION	ASSISTIVE TECHNOLOGY APPLICATIONS	NEED AND RELEVANCE IN CLASSROOM LEARNING
Reading	Electronic books, Book adapted for page turning, Single word scanners, Predictable texts, Tabs,	For students having difficulty in reading and understanding written text and in paying attention to the reading

	Talking electronic devices/software, Speech Software	assigned
Writing	Pen/Pencil grips, Templates, Word processors, Word card/book/wall, software, Spelling/Grammar checker, Adapted papers	For students having problem in writing or composition
Math	Calculators, Talking Clocks, Enlarged Worksheets, Voice Output Measuring Devices, Scientific Calculators	For students having computational problems and confusions, and finding it difficult to perform well in Math lessons
Vision	Eyeglasses, Magnifier, Screen Magnification, Screen Reader, Braille Large Print Books, CCTV, Audio Lesson Tapes	For students who have difficulty in seeing or lack complete vision
Hearing	Hearing Aids, Pen and paper, Signalling Devices, Closed Captioning	For students who have difficulty in hearing or are absolute hearing impaired
Computer Access	Word prediction, Alternative Keyboards, Pointing Option, Switches, Voice recognition software	For students finding it difficult to access the computer in its standard form and have difficulty in performing academic tasks
Augmentative/ Alternative Communication	Communication Board, Device with speech synthesis for typing, Eye gaze board/ frame, Voice output device	For students having problems in comprehension of language, and lacking the ability to express it, or are unclear in speech and demonstrate delayed expressive language
Learning Disability and Attention Deficit Hyperactivity Disorder (ADHD)	Use of applications/devices depending on the degree of disability/difficulty, in the area of reading and writing (Dyslexia), hand-eye coordination, written expression and composition (Dysgraphia), difficulty in fine motor skills, Coordination (Dyspraxia), Math (Dyscalculia) and Attention (ADHD) e.g. Talking electronic devices, Calculators, Electric Organizers, Highlighters, Pencil Grips, Post-its, Computers,	For Students having problem in language development, reading and writing (Dyslexia), hand-eye coordination, written expression and composition (Dysgraphia), difficulty in fine motor skills, Coordination (Dyspraxia), Math (Dyscalculia), and ADHD

	Spelling/Grammar Checker, Electronic Organizers, Recorded materials, Hand-held Scanners, Print or picture schedule, Electronic Diaries, etc.	

Source: Ahmad (2015)

According to Ahmad (2015, p. 64), assistive technology

> broadly spells out a continuum of tools, strategies, and services that match a person's needs, abilities and tasks, and includes evaluation of the needs of an individual with a disability, a functional evaluation of the individual in the individual's customary environment, and the selection, designing, fitting, customization, adaption, application, maintenance, repair, and replacement of assistive technology services, and their coordination with the existing education and rehabilitation plans and programs for inclusive development.

Technology can thus be an intermediary or a bridge in the relationship between teachers and learners. In addressing learners' needs, these assistive devices have the capacity to increase or improve learners' abilities, allowing them to bypass those barriers that are created by their disability (Lewis and Bagree, 1994). Teachers should, however, be thoroughly trained in the use of such devices to avoid inefficient or incorrect application, as that can also act as a barrier to the successful implementation of IE.

In support of the latter statement, Andrews and Frankel (2010) assert that inadequate training and a lack of skills in teaching learners with special needs, amongst other factors, affect teachers' experiences and attitudes towards IE. The DoE in the Mafikeng area must empower teachers by frequently hosting workshops or presenting training on how to prepare a lesson plan for an inclusive class, in addition to making full use of any assistive technology at their disposal. If within the district there are no officials who are conversant in this, it would be best to outsource the task to an expert.

- Assessment of learners experiencing barriers to learning

Recommendations on assessment can be divided into two categories: the first focuses on the functionality of the DBST, which should ideally comprise district directors, curriculum

experts, IE officials, psychologists, therapists, social workers, learning support educators, school governance and management officials, infrastructure officials and circuit managers. The inputs of such a wide array of experts will make it possible to do proper assessments, as required by the SIAS, during the admissions period at schools. According to EWP6 (DoE, 2001b, p. 19), the key purpose and functions of the DBST are:

> To support all learners, educators and the system as a whole so that the full range of learning needs can be met. The focus will be on teaching and learning factors, and emphasis will be placed on the development of good teaching strategies that will be of benefit to all learners; on overcoming barriers in the system that prevent it from meeting the full range of learning needs; and on adaptation of support systems available in the classroom.

According to Makhalemele and Nel (2016), after identifying a learner who experiences barriers to learning, it is important to put together a plan to help provide the appropriate support for such a learner. It is essential in this process that all interacting factors which influence the learner's immediate environment be taken into consideration, including the larger environment (home life, society as a whole). This means that DBST members must be able to obtain comprehensive information on any breakdown occurring within a learner's home, school or community, which can prevent him/her from receiving appropriate support as and when needed.

Consequently, there is a need for these team members to fulfil the roles of researchers and evaluators, providers of learning support, and material developers for specific learning needs (DoE, 2005; Johnson & Green, 2007). For the DBST to be able to carry out its mandate fully, which is to provide relevant support, it should liaise with SBSTs. All the relevant support providers in these teams are also responsible for, amongst others, developing collaborative support strategies in schools by establishing networks between all role players; identifying school and learner needs with regard to barriers to learning; focusing on the in-service training of teachers; facilitating the sharing of resources between different role players; ensuring parental involvement; planning preventive strategies and monitoring the learning support process (DoE, 2005; Johnson & Green, 2007; Landsberg, 2011; Makhalemele & Nel, 2016).

One of the findings of this study is that the DBSTs of Ngaka Modiri Molema district are not functional. The question is: How possible will it be for IE to be implemented successfully? It is therefore recommended that the establishment and functionality of DBSTs be given first priority, because they provide a coordinated support structure that comprises vital providers such as health professionals, community-based organisations and other government departments (Nel et al., 2013).

Training and the inculcation of a professional attitude on the part of the members are crucial, because as the coordinating body in a specific district, the DBST is responsible for providing support in a broader sense. The DoE (2001) views professionalism as one of the essential qualities of the DBST, which can contribute to the success or failure of the implementation of IE. Someone is regarded as a professional when s/he demonstrates sufficient knowledge, is well trained and recognised by the community, and interacts professionally with parents and teachers, while maintaining appropriate networking and collaboration with colleagues (DoE, 2005; Engelbrecht, 2008). To maintain the functionality of the DBST, Makhalemele and Nel (2016, p. 180) list several of the main challenges that ought to be taken into consideration (and, if possible, attended to without delay): 1) lack of proper infrastructure, such as equipment and physical and human resources; 2) limited access to the support that special schools as resource centres (SSRCs) can provide, either because of the long distances to travel or the inadequate functioning of these resource centres. Therefore, they suggest that SSRCs be developed to function as effective support centres for all schools in a district, which should then strengthen the DBSTs' capacity to support SEN learners as well as the teachers who teach them. This will become the central role of provincial and national DoEs, namely to ensure that the DBSTs' human resources and infrastructure are attended to; 3) there should be increased awareness campaigns of the critical role the DBST can play in school communities. Schools and their surrounding communities should be sensitised about who the DBST members are, as well as what their functions entail; and, finally, 4) satisfactory training, support and collaboration must be offered by the DBE, in the process of implementing IE policies. If national, provincial and district offices become more involved, DBSTs will function more effectively in providing classroom and organisational support, specialised learner and teacher support, as well as in facilitating curricular and institutional development (including management and governance) and administrative support to all schools.

In conclusion, it is through the effective functioning of the DBST that securing the services of educational psychologists and occupational therapists will help in identifying, prioritising and offering the support which is the rightful due of learners who face barriers to learning within a local context (DoE, 2005). In such a scenario, teachers will be relieved of the duty of carrying out the three stages of SIAS assessment on their own, and that will grant them both the time and the opportunity to focus on their specific scope of operation.

The second category concerns the ANAs, whereby it is recommended that the DBE take into consideration those learners who are experiencing barriers to learning, when administering ANAs in schools. Too often standardised tests like the ANAs place enormous pressure on schools to perform, and that results in vulnerable and weaker learners being excluded and becoming more at-risk than they would ordinarily be. It is recommended that, if possible, blanket accommodations/concessions such as extra time (15 or 30 minutes), readers, scribes, amanuenses, separate venues, spelling exemptions, etc. in all subjects be granted to remedial learners, in accordance with the specific barrier which each learner has to overcome.

A further recommendation is that the curriculum be adapted to suit the diverse needs of SEN learners. Classroom instruction should also be adapted to meet the needs of individual learners, taking into consideration the strengths, abilities and characteristics of every child. For instance, a learner who struggles with reading will not be able to read the instructions on the ANA question paper – that has led to the submission of blank answer sheets, as mentioned by one of the participants in this research study. Being helped to overcome this impediment can greatly ease or even alleviate the learner's stress, make him/her feel less discouraged, and prevent the tears that come with taking the ANAs. Both teachers and learners will benefit, and it will make for a more level playing field for SEN learners: those who can cope without any concessions will be fine, while those who need a bit of help will be on par with their counterparts. When the time comes to be accountable, given a school's ANA performances, the teachers and principals will be more at ease, knowing that the platform on which the examinations were conducted offered the same level of support to each child, regardless of dis/ability. This will be in line with the *Draft procedural manual for the introduction of the policy on accommodations and concessions* and the *National Policy Pertaining to the Programme and Promotion Requirements of the National Curriculum Statement Grades R–12* (DoE, 2011; DoE, 2016, p. 4), which aims to ensure that all learners who experience barriers to learning receive the necessary support in both school-based and

external assessments. Consequently, that can help to answer questions about disparities within policy pertaining to IE (EWP6, see DoE, 2001b, p. 16), which states that "the implementation of the curriculum should be flexible" and that "teachers should have the freedom to adapt teaching strategies and learning content according to the needs of their learners". After all, the expectations of the DBE as regards the implementation of the curriculum and school policies in classrooms seemingly require all learners to work at the same pace and meet the same requirements.

- Strategies on how to screen, identify and deal with barriers to learning

For teachers in full-service schools, it is vital to possess the necessary skills and knowledge to be able to screen and identify learners with barriers to learning, in order to offer them the relevant assistance. This study has revealed that many teachers are confused when it comes to issues of who should be referred to a remedial class. In some instances, large numbers of learners were grouped in the remedial class – something that was not acceptable, nor in line with policy. The majority of teachers in full-service schools only hold qualifications that prepare them to teach in mainstream schools, therefore they tend to rely on test scores as a criterion for identifying SEN learners. The recommendation made here, is that those teachers should acquire the practical skills and theoretical knowledge which will enable them to screen and identify SEN learners. In turn, that ability will help to minimise bias, non-identification, over-identification and mis-identification. Despite such upskilling, it remains the responsibility of the IPDS in Mafikeng to ensure that the quality of teachers' development training and workshops be elevated and brought up to standard. Training and workshops should not merely be held for statistical purposes, where a task can be ticked off a list and the data fed into the national DBE's database as 'job done'. Teacher training should be less theoretical and should have practical components, to help teachers deal with real-life situations. Bantwin and Diko (2011) support the notion of less theory and more practice, because they view teachers' understanding of practical issues as assisting in bridging the gap between academic knowledge and implementation on the ground. Concretising ideas and approaches can help to promote the coherent implementation of a policy or plan. That can be achieved by resuscitating the DBSTs and maintaining their proper functionality, so that teacher development workshops, organised by the DBST, are of an acceptable standard. This concern is also articulated by Mkhuma et al. (2014), who in their study highlight the plight of full-service teachers, namely that they are not skilled or knowledgeable enough to identify learners with barriers to learning, and lack the ability to support them.

7.3.2 Teacher development towards the implementation of IE

- What aspect does the training cover?

One of the findings of this study was that all participants agreed that the SIAS training they received was relevant and informative as regards the scope of their work, especially during the admissions period at school. However, there is still confusion about which learner profile to use: Do schools use the learner profile provided in the SIAS training packs, or the one that the DoE disseminates via its circuit offices? In the light of this uncertainty, it is suggested that the starting point be to provide training: if teachers and principals are trained on which learner profile to use and how to use it, that will facilitate their work. They need to understand why is the SIAS learner profile is preferable to the traditional version, which has been in use for years. If that is clarified, then any looming confusion can be averted.

Second on the agenda should be the streamlining and operationalising of the DBSTs, whose core educational support service providers include district directors and officials, as well as circuit managers and curriculum specialists. These entities should work together to decide which learner profile to use during admissions in schools. The circuit managers will know which learner profile they should recommend that schools use, while the curriculum specialists will have a more comprehensive grasp of what a full-service school entails, so that when supporting teachers they can advise them on what to do, and not segregate those teachers who teach remedial classes from the rest, but ensure that they are treated fairly. In doing so, it will help to uphold the commitment stated in EWP6 (DoE, 2001, p. 5), which envisages the establishment of an "education and training system which will promote education for all and foster the development of inclusive and supportive centres of learning that would enable all learners to participate actively in the education process so that they could develop and extend their potential and participate as equal members of society". In order for the expected collaboration to happen smoothly, it is critical for Ngaka Modiri Molema district to try and find possible reasons why collaborative support teams do not function effectively, to avoid future mistakes. According to Nel et al. (2013), possible reasons include demotivation and despondency on the part of teachers about the South African education system in general (Greyling, 2009); limited understanding on their part of what IE entails, as well as inadequate professional training in implementing the approach (Ntombela, 2011; Schoeman, 2012); teachers' perceptions that they do not have the knowledge and skills to practise inclusivity in their classrooms, or to support those learners who experience

barriers to learning (Schoeman, 2012); overcrowded classrooms as well as a lack of resources (Human Sciences Research Council, 2005).

- Adequate training time

A further recommendation addresses findings pertaining to the duration of training periods as part of the teacher development plan. All teachers complained about the way training is structured in terms of time allocation. For the entire cohort of study participants, it was impossible to fully benefit from training on a policy like the SIAS, when it is very exhaustive, spanning two hours per day over three days, after a day of teaching. The teachers complained about fatigue, explaining that they went straight from work to the training venue. They also raised the issue of quantity over quality. This is problematic, in that in order to implement policy effectively and efficiently there must be a thorough interrogation and understanding of that policy. The researcher therefore suggests that the provincial DoE formulate a strategy that will allow teachers to be intensively trained in the morning, when they are still energetic, and for at least two weeks or longer. This will help to fast-track the process of making policy a reality. For now, progress is slow and not consistent across groups or geographic areas. Such a change will be more in line with the aim of the DBE, as stated in EWP6 (DoE, 2001b), which is to ensure that the IE system is fully implemented by 2021.

In conclusion, it would be the right thing to do if the district office, together with the IPDS office, meet with teachers and principals during their monitoring and support visits, to determine in which area of their work they require further development. The collated training and developmental needs can then be used to inform those responsible for planning teacher training, allowing them to target exactly the right type of workshops for specific teachers and principals, to empower them in implementing IE in their schools. When teachers become more autonomous through training, their knowledge of the discipline and their conceptual understanding improve, thus giving them more confidence. As an additional benefit, they will then most likely not perceive teaching inclusion in their school as a daunting or onerous task. Subsequently, their teaching behaviour will be more positive as suggested by Ajzen (1985, 1991), who argues that perceived behavioural control reflects individual perceptions of how behaviour is complicated by internal factors (i.e., skill, ability and knowledge).

7.3.3   Teachers' support on issues of inclusion

The recommendations on teachers' support are discussed under four headings.

- District officials

Much as IE is being considered and implemented by many countries (South Africa included), the process will stagnate and its successful implementation will be a pipe dream if the mode of support on offer remains lacking or limited. District officials are core service providers for teachers within a full-service environment. It is therefore recommended that they be present at schools for prolonged periods, providing full support rather than monitoring the establishment and functionality of ILSTs/SBSTs only.

Landsberg et al. (2005, p. 62) define support in this context as

> the cornerstone of successful inclusive education, and therefore support entails the ability to advise, assist and if possible show teachers how certain problems are solved, especially in the classroom situation. The concept 'support' can also be defined as activities in a school which increase capacity of the educators to address the needs of all learners.

District officials must adopt a hands-on approach to all issues which affect inclusivity, be it learners' behavioural problems or the training they offer teachers. For example, if training is about how to differentiate a lesson to accommodate learners with barriers to learning, the official who provides the training should be in a position to show the attendees how to do this in practice. District officials must refrain from dwelling too much on theory, because that frustrates teachers who deal with very real problems in actual, concrete situations. The EWP6 requires teachers to receive support so that they can address barriers to learning in class.

- Parents and stakeholders

Since the majority of the participants were satisfied with the existing relationships between their school and the parents and other stakeholders, it is recommended that they strive to maintain that relationship and the spirit of participation. Those parents who are illiterate should be accommodated; teachers must be prepared to work at their level in terms of their thinking and reasoning when it comes to resolving issues relating to their children's schoolwork. In doing so, the teachers and other stakeholders will be encouraged to work in a positive environment which promotes the successful implementation of IE, as suggested and

recommended by numerous experts in the field (see DoE, 1997 and 2001a, p. 19; Mahlo, 2011).

- Resources

The majority of study participants expressed concerns about the lack of physical resources at their schools. The teachers complained about overcrowding, adding that more classrooms need to be built at some schools, to allow for the smooth running of the school. Full-service schools are regarded as already being well equipped in terms of teaching and learning strategies and devices, but for them to be able to take in and support new learners from surrounding mainstream schools, they need adequate resources.

Thus, it is recommended that the IPDS in Mafikeng make it a point to resource these schools properly and sufficiently. Where there is a shortage of classrooms, additional venues need to be constructed to avoid overcrowding. Storage is needed for assistive devices: if they are stored in a special facility, they can be accessed easily when needed. If stored in a classroom they may be damaged or some devices might go missing. The need for human/teaching resources should also be addressed, in that teachers who are assigned to teach remedial classes should not be redirected and assigned other responsibilities.

According to the DoE (2010, p. 15),

> a full-service school has to have the capacity to respond to diversity by providing appropriate education for the individual needs of learners, irrespective of disability or differences in learning style or pace, or social difficulties experienced and they establish methods to assist curriculum and institutional transformation to ensure both an awareness of diversity, and that additional support is available to those learners and educators who need it.

During the researcher's observations, it was clear that those identified full-service schools which participated in this study, differ significantly in respect of the physical resources available to them. Access ramps were built in all four schools, but clearly no standard specifications had been used in their construction. The ramps at Makoti Primary differ significantly from those at Koti Primary in terms of their width, length and gradient. In addition, at Koti Primary the ramps were fitted with security railings to prevent wheelchairs

from toppling. Burgavilla Primary's toilets had not been made wheelchair-friendly, while those at Koti Primary were.

At Koti and Tshipika Primary the schoolyards were neatly paved, but at Makoti and Burgavilla Primary the yards were dusty and unwelcoming. Even though all four schools provided access to drinking water, at schools like Koti and Tshipika Primary there were taps in the schoolyard and there was shelter for the learners. The availability of more than one tap made it easier for learners to access water without having to queue, unlike at Burgavilla and Makoti Primary where learners must queue, especially during break – there, water is stored in a tank with a tap in an open space, without any shelter from the elements.

During the observations, the researcher came to realise that these full-service schools had been identified and selected without considering many of the factors stipulated in the *Guidelines for full-service and inclusive schools* (2010), as confirmed during interviews with the teachers and principals. It is recommended that there be monitoring and support from the district as well as IPDS officials to verify whether schools are coping. Do they have the necessary physical resources (ramps, toilets, access to water, suitable playgrounds)? Are these areas sufficient, well constructed and maintained? At present the balance is uneven and there are many incongruities. All full-service schools within the Ngaka Modiri Molema district and the province should adhere to the same norms and standards, not only in terms of what a full-service school should look like, but also how to identify such a school, before equipping and supporting such an institution as per the stipulations contained in the *Guidelines for full-service and inclusive schools* (2010). That is the only way in which to successfully meet a broad range of learning needs.

- Financial resources

The majority of participants agreed that financially they were receiving enough support from the district. Here, it is recommended that when full-service schools are allocated funds, they be advised and supported in respect of spending those funds, by looking at the school in its totality. This will help them to channel the funds to priority areas, be it purchasing assistive devices that will help overcome identified barriers to learning, or appointing personnel to assist learners. During the researcher's observations it became clear that the principals do not always know exactly what kind of assistive devices should be bought. Consequently, because of pressure from the district office to spend the monies allocated to them within a certain

period, the principals tend to buy unnecessary items that are not informed by the learners' actual needs. The recommendation would be to let occupational therapists or educational psychologists who are used to working in an IE approach screen SEN learners to determine exactly what aids they require. That will not only improve the learning experience for each child, but will also assist teachers in achieving the desired outcomes. Not all the responsibilities of financial management and control should be left solely in the hands of the schools, without support and proper guidance from the district and IPDS.

In conclusion, Ajzen (1991, 1985) mentions that PBC as the third determinant of the TPB refers to those resources and obstacles that either facilitate or impede engagement and affect behaviour. PBC reflects individual perceptions of how behaviour is complicated by external factors such as resources, opportunities and cooperation. Without sufficient resources (adequate number of classrooms to balance out learner intake), venues will be overcrowded and that will result in a high learner:teacher ratio, which creates a climate that is not conducive to proper teaching and learning. The whole idea behind implementing IE at mainstream schools will thus fail at the first hurdle. Without adequate and appropriate support from district and provincial officials, teachers will not have any success stories to tell. Teachers need to be granted opportunities to grow intellectually, by being trained in IE-related issues. If all these factors are addressed, teachers' perceptions will be positive and their intention to perform will be enhanced.

7.4   Implications for further research

In this thesis, a qualitative approach was employed to look into the attitudes of teachers at four full-service schools which currently implement inclusivity. Much as the results of this study cannot be generalised for other schools in other provinces in South Africa, there are lessons to learn and extrapolations to make. The findings of this study show that the majority of teachers and principals accept the conversion of their primary schools into full-service schools, and are willing to implement IE. However, the findings indicate that the district, IPDS and the DoE in the North-West province do not take teachers' need for inclusivity training into consideration. The support and training they currently receive are not effective, and are sometimes irrelevant to the situations and problems encountered at grassroots level.

On the other hand, the disparities between the full-service schools participating in this study (in respect of physical resources, infrastructure conversions, funding) is unacceptable.

Despite all four schools resorting under the district of Ngaka Modiri Molema they are autonomous, rather than the district, the IPDS and the DoE in the province taking control and standardising issues of inclusion.

The researcher found that the morale of the teachers and principals differ from one school to the next, and depends to a significant degree on how each school is resourced and supported. That explains discrepancies in terms of teachers' attitudes towards the implementation of IE. Kenpro (2010) and Mkhuma et al. (2014) assert that teachers overwhelmingly believe IE is impossible if their need for specialist resources remains unaddressed. Overall, their belief is that without sufficient resources and support, IE might very well be doomed as an approach. Further research is needed on the attitudes of mainstream primary school educators towards the implementation of IE in the Mafikeng area.

7.5   Chapter summary

The above recommendations are intended to help improve the establishment and functionality of full-service schools. These schools are created with the aim of promoting IE, which has been widely embraced as an ideal model for education both in South Africa and internationally (Maher, 2009), therefore it is important to make a success of this undertaking. If full-service schools are well resourced and supported, the attitudes of the teachers working there are bound to be positive. The literature referenced in this study indicates that the successful implementation of IE depends largely on the attitudes and actions of both teachers and principals. The DBE must therefore take full-service schools seriously when considering what support to provide. In addition, teacher development must become a priority, so that teachers do not feel neglected or overwhelmed by the huge challenges facing them, as that can cause them to develop negative attitudes towards IE. Implementing the recommendations discussed in this study can help ease the burden and frustrations of the teachers, while fulfilling the mandate outlined in EWP6 (DoE, 2001b).

CHAPTER 8
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

8.1   Introduction

This study was prompted by the desire to understand the attitudes of teachers, particularly those in mainstream primary schools which have become full-service schools since adopting the IE approach. The literature review in chapter two examined global trends in IE with regard to teachers' attitudes towards this approach, teacher training on IE and policy implementation, as well as the conditions which are vital for ensuring success. The TPB model employed in this study assumes that human action is influenced by three major factors: behavioural beliefs (which produce a favourable or unfavourable attitude towards the behaviour, given the beliefs people hold about the object of the attitude); normative beliefs (which reflect a person's association between their belief and the likelihood that important people/groups will approve/disapprove of their performing a given behaviour); and perceived behavioural control (a person's perception of their ability to perform a given behaviour).

These control beliefs may be based on several factors, including personal past experiences, the past experiences of acquaintances/friends, or second-hand information about a behaviour. The more resources a person perceives him/herself to have, the less the possibility of a hindrance arising to prevent them from performing the behaviour, thus the greater the perceived behavioural control they exercise in a situation.

8.2   Summary of the study

Chapter one provided the rationale and motivation for the study, in addition to formulating and describing the problem. It outlined the aims of the study and presented the questions the study undertook to answer. The methodology employed was also outlined, and significant concepts as well as definitions were clarified. Aspects touched upon were the confusion and frustrations that mainstream teachers experience in practising IE in their schools. From the literature, it was evident that many teachers who are involved in implementing IE globally are confronted with similar problems, especially if they are not completely conversant with what is expected of them in that environment, or are not adequately trained.

In chapter two, international and local developments in IE, which might affect the attitudes of teachers towards implementation, were examined. This chapter explored global trends in educational change, which aims to include all learners in the pursuit of 'Education for All'. This work also interrogated the modes which countries around the world use to address teachers' attitudes. The literature review incorporated a discussion on the attitudes of teachers

towards IE, teacher training in IE, training for the implementation of the approach, as well as fertile conditions for ensuring inclusivity. In addition, the chapter considered interventions and support strategies (amongst others, providing adequate and intensive training as well as teacher development on IE).

Chapter three focused on the theoretical framework underpinning this study. That framework is informed by Ajzen's Theory of Planned Behaviour, and the model employed here assumes that human action is influenced by three major factors: behavioural and normative beliefs and perceived behavioural control. The interaction between these factors, personal past experience and the past experiences of others, can stimulate and drive the development of a particular attitude towards an object or action – in this case, the implementation of IE by teachers. It was thus deemed important to determine which factors influence the attitudes of mainstream teachers towards the implementation of IE in Mafikeng primary schools, and how the participant teachers changed their attitudes to accommodate new experiences and practices, using the TPB.

Chapter four presented an in-depth account of the research design and methodology used in conducting this study. A discussion on the philosophical paradigm was presented. For this study, constructivism/interpretivism was employed, as the paradigm asserts that knowledge is gained through personal experience. The researcher relied on the experiences of individuals as the main source for interpreting their social reality. The benefit of conducting this study within the constructivist paradigm is that it presented an opportunity to understand and make sense of the actions and views of teachers and principals working in an inclusive environment. It afforded an opportunity to understand that different people can perceive the same social phenomenon in different ways, and can develop different attitudes towards the same social phenomenon. This was followed by an account of how the researcher planned to collect, analyse and interpret the data. In addition, clarification was given on how the issues of trustworthiness, credibility and validity in the study would be ensured, as well as the ethical guidelines that would provide direction to the entire undertaking.

Chapter five provided detailed findings and discussions of the data collected through focus-group interviews, participant observations and document review. This was followed by a thematic interpretation and discussion of the data collected through the abovementioned methods, linked to an understanding of the attitudes of mainstream primary school teachers

towards the implementation of IE. The findings drawn from the results were further mapped against international and national initiatives pertaining to the relevance of training, and the support and development offered to teachers, as revealed in the literature in chapter two.

Chapter six focused on key themes emerging from the findings and discussions of this study. These themes were deemed crucial in answering the research questions posed earlier. Some of the existing literature was integrated to facilitate the discussion and highlight the connection between that literature and the present research.

Chapter seven presented the lessons learned in the course of this undertaking, and discussed a number of recommendations. The importance of outlining the lessons learned lies in cautioning stakeholders not to repeat the same mistakes. The different lessons learned call for new intervention strategies and a new way forward. Ajzen's TPB contextualised the recommendations which flowed from the research findings discussed in chapters five and six. Chapter eight provided a synthesis of the study as a whole, as well as concluding remarks.

8.3   Concluding remarks

This study has shown that teachers and principals experience challenges in the implementation of IE policy in South Africa, especially in full-service schools. They also face specific challenges in terms of identifying and dealing with learners who experience behavioural and learning barriers. Many learners are misidentified, and that leads to a large number of them having to attend remedial classes, which is not acceptable within a normal inclusive environment. In some instances there is non-identification or over-identification of SEN learners, because teachers do not really know how to go about conducting screening and identification processes the SIAS way. Although a DBST has been established to serve the Ngaka Modiri Molema district by providing support to teachers, its functionality is poor, which leaves the teachers in full-service schools frustrated and unsure of what to do.

According to the South African constitution (RSA, 1996, p. 14), education is a basic human right. Unfair discrimination against a citizen, in any form, is prohibited by the same document (see section 9 (3)). Therefore, being unable to identify or provide any form of assistance related to helping SEN learners is unlawful. Teachers who are unable to correctly identify learners who experience barriers to learning are hampered in terms of providing appropriate support packages to assist those children. That directly contradicts what a full-

service school stands for, which is the provision of maximum support to learners and to neighbouring schools in the area.

The findings therefore suggest that training as well as teacher development programmes on IE must be made relevant to the teachers' needs, in addition to being adequate, effective and intensive. That way, teachers and principals who are employed at full-service schools will have greater confidence in the tasks they perform on a day-to-day basis. Support and monitoring on the part of district officials as well as the IPDS should also be relevant and realistic, and should primarily respond to the problems and challenges facing SEN learners and their teachers. Any strategies aimed at improving the support rendered by the ILST/SBST must also be augmented. That will empower teachers by placing them in a better position to provide the necessary support to SEN learners, both in the classroom and in the school as a whole. Teachers will have the necessary knowledge and skills – as well as the confidence – to handle and teach mixed-ability classes. In sum, the teachers will be able to implement IE successfully, as mandated by EWP6 (DoE, 2001b).

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX   A

<div align="right">

70 Molopo Road

Mafikeng

2745

</div>

Private Bag X10

Piet Hugo Building

MAFIKENG

2745

24 /04/ 2014

ATT: THE DIRECTOR (NGAKA MODIRI MOLEMA DISTRICT)

 REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEACH STUDY AT PRIMARY SCHOOLS

Dear Sir/Madam

I hereby request permission to conduct research at primary schools (full service) in Ngaka Modiri Molema District. I am registered for a DEd (Inclusive Education) with the University of South Africa (UNISA) under the supervision of Prof V. Mncube, tel no 012 429 2139 / 0765625104. The research is about "Attitude of mainstream school educators towards the implementation of Inclusive Education in Mafikeng primary schools."

. The objectives of the study are to:

- Establish the nature of attitudes of teachers towards the implementation of Inclusive Education in the primary schools.
- Determine how teachers implement Inclusive Education?
- Determine why teachers implement Inclusive Education the way they do.

Multiple data collection methods will be used most of which resulted from qualitative. The methods for data collection will be in the form of interviews, observation, and documents pertaining to the support rendered to learners will be collected and analysed.

Participants in the study will be teachers who are currently teaching in those converted full service schools in Inclusive Education. Teachers, and principals will be interviewed by the researcher in English and this will take not more than one hour after normal teaching time. Interviews will be audio taped with the consent of the participants. Interviews will be transcribed. A copy of the transcription will be returned to the participants to ensure that no misunderstandings occurred.

The principles of confidentiality, anonymity and privacy will be adhered to.

Thanking you in advance.

Yours truly

MN LEBOPA

072124807

APPENDIX B

70 MOLOPO ROAD

MAFIKENG

 2745

Department of Education

Area Office

Cnr Thelesho Tawana & Modiri Molema

Private Bag X10

2735

08/04/2015

ATT: **THE AREA MANAGER (Mafikeng)**

 REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH STUDY AT PRIMARY SCHOOLS

Dear Sir/Madam

I, Lebopa Maikanya Nicholas am doing research with Vusi Mncube, Professor in the Department of Educational Management towards DEd (Inclusive Education) at the University of South Africa(Tel 012 429 2139 / 0765625104),request permission to conduct research in primary schools (full service)that falls under Mafikeng and Rekopantswe Area Office in the Ngaka Modiri Molema District. The research is about "Attitude of mainstream school educators towards the implementation of Inclusive Education in Mafikeng primary schools."

 . The objectives of the study are to:

- Establish the nature of attitudes of teachers towards the implementation of Inclusive Education in the primary schools.
- Determine how teachers implement Inclusive Education?
- Determine why teachers implement Inclusive Education the way they do.

Multiple data collection methods will be used most of which resulted from qualitative. The methods for data collection will be in the form of interviews, observation. Participants in the study will be teachers who are currently teaching in those converted full service schools in Inclusive Education. Teachers and principals will be interviewed by the researcher in English and this will take not more than one hour after normal teaching time, and they will also be observed during their teaching process for a period of six weeks. Interviews will be audio taped with the consent of the participants. Interviews will be transcribed, and a copy of the transcription will be returned to the participants to ensure that no misunderstandings occurred. Furthermore, participation is voluntary, and the participants may decide to withdraw from this study at any time without any negative consequences.

The principles of confidentiality, anonymity and privacy will be adhered to.

Thanking you in advance.

Yours truly

MN LEBOPA

0721248072

APPENDIX C

70 MOLOPO ROAD

MAFIKENG

2745

19/03/2014

The Principal

████████████

Mafikeng

2745

Dear Sir/Madam

PERMISSION TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH STUDY AT………………..................

Primary School

I, Lebopa Maikanya Nicholas am doing research with Prof Vusi Mncube (Tel 0124292139/0765625104) in the Department of Educational Management towards Ded (Inclusive Education) at the University of South Africa. We are inviting you to participate in a study entitled **"Attitude of mainstream school educators towards the implementation of Inclusive Education in Mafikeng primary schools."**

. The objectives of the study are to:

- Establish the nature of attitudes of teachers towards the implementation of Inclusive Education in the primary schools.
- Determine how teachers implement Inclusive Education?
- Determine why teachers implement Inclusive Education the way they do.

Multiple data collection methods will be used most of which resulted from qualitative. The methods for data collection will be in the form of interviews, and observations.

You have been selected because your institution has been converted to a full service school. Participants in the study will be teachers who are currently teaching in those converted full service schools in Inclusive Education. Teachers and principals will be interviewed by the

researcher in English and this will take not more than one hour after normal teaching time, and they will also be observed during their teaching process for a period of six weeks. Interviews will be audio taped with the consent of the participants. Interviews will be transcribed, and a copy of the transcription will be returned to the participants to ensure that no misunderstandings occurred. The study will benefit the school as well as the Department of education provincially as well as nationally, in seeing that inclusion in schools is practiced the correct way and learners benefit from it.

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.The principles of confidentiality, anonymity and privacy will be adhered to. Permission has already been requested from the North West Department of Education (District and Area Office), and has been granted thereof. (See attached permission)

Thanking you in advance.

Yours truly

MN LEBOPA

0721248072

APPENDIX D

70 Molopo Road

Mafikeng

2745

13/04/2015

REQUESTING TEACHERS AND PRINCIPALS TO PARTICIPATE IN AN INTERVIEW

Dear Sir/Madam

This letter is an invitation to consider participating in a study I, Lebopa Nicholas, am conducting as part of my research as a doctoral student entitled "Attitude of mainstream school educators towards the implementation of Inclusive Education in Mafikeng primary schools" at the University of South Africa. Permission for the study has been given by DoE (Northwest, District, and Area Office) and the Ethics Committee of the College of Education, UNISA. I have purposefully identified you as a possible participant because of your valuable experience and expertise related to the 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 inclusion in education is substantial and well documented. Attitude of mainstream school educators towards the implementation of Inclusive Education with reference to Mafikeng primary schools is very important. The findings of this study will help in seeing that inclusion is done the correct way and learners benefit from it.

In this interview I would like to have your views and opinions on this topic. This information can be used to improve the perception and attitudes teachers as well as the community have towards practicing inclusion in our schools.

Your participation in this study is voluntary. It will involve an interview of approximately *50* minutes in length to take place in a mutually agreed upon location at a time convenient to 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 and later 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 12 months 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 0721248072.

I look forward to speaking with 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

………………………

MN LEBOPA

0721248072

APPENDIX E

CONSENT FORM

I have read the information presented in the information letter about the study Ded (Inclusive) in education. I have had the opportunity to ask any questions related to this study, to receive satisfactory answers to my question, and add any additional details I wanted. I am aware that I have the option of allowing my interview to be audio recorded to ensure an accurate recording of my responses. I am also aware that excerpts from the interview may be included in publications to come from this research, with the understanding that the quotations will be anonymous. I was informed that I may withdraw my consent at any time without penalty by advising the researcher. With full knowledge of foregoing, I agree, of my own free will, to participate in this study.

Participant's Name (Please print):------------------------------

Participant Signature: ---------------------

Researcher Name: Lebopa MN

Researcher Signature: -------------------------

Date: -----------------------

_____   _____

Signature of Participant   Date

FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR EDUCATORS AND PRINCIPALS

SECTION A (EDUCATORS)

The following questions will be asked in order to determine the experience, and background awareness of the educator with regard to the Inclusive Education Policy.

1. How long have you been teaching at the school?

2. Have you been exposed to the implementation of any new education policy as an educator? If yes, which policy? And how successful was the implementation?

3. What is your understanding of the Inclusive Education Policy?

4. Are you aware of any country in the world where the Inclusive policy has been successfully implemented?

5. Do you think the policy of inclusion can be successfully implemented in South African Schools especially the full service schools? Support your response.

6. What do you consider as the main requirements for the successful implementation of Inclusive Education at a school level?

SECTION B

Questions are aimed at establishing the state of readiness of the school to implement Inclusive Education.

1. Has the implementation of Inclusive Education begun in this school? If yes, when? If no, why not?

2. Do you have any knowledge of the DBST and why it should be established? If yes, who are the team members? If not, why?

3. How many special schools do you have in your area, which has been converted into support centers to support mainstream schools?

4. How many primary schools have been converted into full-service schools in your area?

5. How is this school involved in supporting neighbouring schools educators and support staff in order to successfully implement Inclusive Education?

6. The inclusion model requires full participants of various stakeholders, including the parents. What is the role of this school in ensuring that parents understand and support the idea of inclusion in their schools?

7. What kind of infra-structural development is taking place in the mainstream schools in preparation for inclusion?

8. Do you get any support from the Area office and District with regards to the implementation of Inclusive Education? If yes, what kind of support is it?

9. What are the most common challenges the school has had to deal with since the implementation started, if any?

Interviews with the principals of the schools involved. _NB_ The principals will be interviewed separately in their schools using the same tool. The aim is to establish the capacity and their schools' preparedness to successfully implement Inclusive Education.

PRINCIPALS

SECTION C: **- THEME -ATTITUDE**

1. Do you think Inclusive Education Policy is a good policy? Give reasons for your answer.

2. Can this policy be implemented successfully in your schools? Give reasons for your answer?

3. Would you like to see this policy implemented in all schools in this District? Support your response.

SECTION D: THEME - AWARENESS ABOUT INCLUSIVE EDUCATION

1. How did you find out that your school was chosen to be a full service?

2. What was your understanding of Inclusive Education before your school was made full service?

3. What is your understanding of Inclusive Education now?

4. Do you have the White Paper 6 document on Inclusive Education at your school?

SECTION E: **THEME - PERSONNEL DEVELOPMENT**

1. Have you ever been trained to manage an inclusive school?

2. Do you have professional development programs to assist educators in order for them to be able to implement inclusive education in this school?

3. Does this school have a budget set aside to cater for staff (professional & support) development for Inclusive purposes?

SECTION F: **THEME - INFRASRUCTURAL DEVELOPMENT**

1. Does this school have a problem of overcrowding? If yes, how does it affect inclusion?

2. Is the layout of buildings user-friendly for learners with disabilities, e.g. learners on wheelchair?

3. Does the school have sanitation facilities? Is there electricity in the school?

4. Is water available in the school at all times?

SECTION G: **THEME -THREATS and OPPORTUNITIES**

1. What do you regard as the main threats to the successful implementation of inclusive education in this school?

2. What do you regard as the main opportunities to successfully implementing inclusive education in schools?

APPENDIX G

FOCUS GROUP/INTERVIEW ASSENT AND CONFIDENTIALITY AGREEMENT

I_____grant consent/assent that the information I share
during the group discussions (focus group interviews) may be used by the researcher MN
LEBOPA for research purpose. I am aware that the group discussion will be digitally
recorded and grant consent/assent for these recordings, shared in the group discussions to any
person outside the group in order to maintain confidentiality.

Participant's Name (Please print):----------------------

Participant Signature: ------------------

Researcher's Name: Lebopa MN

Researcher's Signature: -----------------------------

Date:

APPENDIX H

Inclusive classroom observation checklist

Observer: Lebopa M N (Researcher) Place: School Time: During school hours Participant Observation	Evidence	
Infrastructure(Outside and Inside the classroom)	Tick the appropriate	
Does the school aims at inclusion, the way it is organised with regards to structure, policies , practise and culture	Yes	No
Is the school clean and orderly		
Is the school equipped and supported to provide for a broad range of learning needs.		
Whole class (Lesson)		
Is the lesson plan available		
Does the lesson plan include the aims and objectives and duration?		
Are children seating carefully planned		
Is the child, teacher ratio appropriate and allows the teacher to execute teaching effectively		
Is there use of interactive strategies, e.g. pupils having cards to hold up or their own whiteboards or coming to the front to take a role?		
Is there use of visual and tangible aids, e.g. real objects, signs or symbols, photographs, computer animations?		
Does the teacher find ways of making abstract concepts concrete, e.g. word		

problems in mathematics turned into pictures or acted out or modelled with resources		
Does the teacher use simplified and extended tasks, e.g. short, concrete text used by one group and long, abstract text by another, numbers to 100 by one group or to 20 by another?		
Are tasks made more open or more closed, according to pupils' needs?		
Over time, does the teacher employ a variety of pupil groupings so that pupils are able to draw on each other's strengths and skills?		
Can all pupils see and hear the teacher and any resources in use (e.g. Background noise avoided where possible, light source in front of teacher not behind, pupils' seating carefully planned)?		
Is new or difficult vocabulary clarified, written up, displayed, returned to?		
Does the teacher check for understanding of instructions, e.g. by asking a pupil to explain them in their own words?		
Does the teacher ask questions suitable for the different levels, in order to allow maximum participation of all learners? (Bloom's Taxonomy)		
Does the teacher apply multilevel teaching approach: principle of individualisation, flexibility and inclusion of all learners, regardless of personal skill level?		
Is the contribution of all learners valued – is this a secure and supportive learning environment where there is safety to have a go and make mistakes?		
Does the teacher give time and support before responses are required, e.g., personal thinking time, partner talk, persisting with progressively more scaffolding until a pupil can answer correctly?		
Where extra adult support is available for underachieving pupils, is it used in ways that promote independence, protect self-esteem and increase pupils' inclusion within their peer group?		

Does the teacher work directly with underachieving groups as well as with more-able groups?		
Are tasks clearly explained or modelled – checks for understanding, task cards or boards as reminders, time available and expected outcomes made clear?		
Are pupils provided with, and regularly reminded of, resources to help them be independent? (e.g. Relevant material from the whole - class session kept on display, word lists or mats, dictionaries of terms, glossaries, number lines, table squares).		
Is scaffolding used (e.g. problem-solving grids, talk and writing frames, clue cards) to support learners?		
Has the teacher made arrangements (budding, adult support,) where necessary to ensure that all children can access written text or instructions? Has the teacher planned alternatives to paper-and-pencil tasks, where appropriate?		
Does the teacher make effective use of assistive devices as an access strategy? (e.g. Speech-supported or sign-supported software, on-screen word banks, predictive word processing, interactive board, computer, if any).		
Is appropriate behaviour noticed and praised or rewarded?		
Are all learners involved in setting their own targets and monitoring their own progress?		
Has the teacher identified appropriate and differentiated learning objectives for all learners?		
Is there use of multi-sensory teaching approaches (visual, verbal, and kinaesthetic)?		
Assessment		
Does the assessment task allow a learner to demonstrate a level of competence and to achieve an outcome in a way that suits their individual needs?		
Are assessments, including CASS adapted according to the level of support that each learner needs.		
Are there strategies in place to be applied differently, according to the nature of the barrier (e.g. long standing, fluctuating, temporary)		

APPENDIX I

education
Lefapha la Thuto la Bokone Bophirima
Noord-Wes Departement van Onderwys
North West Department of Education
NORTH WEST PROVINCE

10 Nelson Mandela Drive,
Mafikeng
Private Bag X10,
Mmabatho 2735
Tel.: (018) 388-1964 / 3383
Fax: 086 513 9881 / (018) 381-8299
e-mail: bmonale@nwpg.gov.za
e-mail: omolete@nwpg.gov.za (Off. Man.)

NGAKA MODIRI MOLEMA DISTRICT

Enquiries	S.O. Molete
Telephone	018 - 388 – 3383

To	:	School Managers Mahikeng & Rekopantswe Primary Schools
From	:	Mr B.E. Monale District Director
Date	:	24 April 2014
Subject	**:**	**Permission to conduct a research in Schools in Mahikeng** **And Rekopantswe Area Offices**

Permission is hereby granted to **Mr M.N. Lebopa**, a Ded (Inclusive Education) student in the University of South Africa to conduct a research on *"Attitude of mainstream school educators towards the implementation of Inclusive Education in Mafikeng Primary Schools"*.

School Managers, Deputy Principals and Head of Departments are requested to cooperate with him.

Your cooperation and support in this regard is highly appreciated

Yours in education

Mr B.E. Monale
District Director

APPENDIX J

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION RESEARCH ETHICS REVIEW COMMITTEE (CEDU REC)

2014 APPLICATION FORM

MASTER'S AND DOCTORAL STUDENTS WHO HAVE ANY QUESTIONS OR REQUIRE ASSISTANCE WITH THE COMPLETION OF THIS FORM, SHOULD PLEASE CONTACT THEIR SUPERVISORS. STAFF MEMBERS WHO NEEDS GUIDANCE WITH THE COMPLETION OF THIS APPLICATION FORM SHOULD CONTACT DR M CLAASSENS AT MCDTC@NETACTIVE.CO.ZA

THIS APPLICATION FORM MUST BE COMPLETED AFTER READING THE UNISA POLICY ON RESEARCH ETHICS. STUDENTS SHOULD REQUEST THE POLICY OR THE LINK FROM THEIR SUPERVISORS.

PLEASE STUDY THE DOCUMENT "GUIDELINES AND EXAMPLES FOR CEDU REC APPLICATION" BEFORE COMPLETING THE APPLICATION FORM If your supervisor did not provide you with these guidelines and examples, request them *before* completing the form.

1. THIS TEMPLATE [©2014] IS THE OFFICIAL APPLICATION FORM THAT MAY BE USED BY BOTH STAFF AND STUDENTS OF THE COLLEGE OF EDUCATION TO APPLY FOR RESEARCH ETHICS CLEARANCE DIRECTLY INVOLVING HUMANS. AN APPLICATION MADE ON PREVIOUS VERSIONS OF THE TEMPLATE CANNOT BE ACCEPTED AND WILL BE RETURNED TO THE APPLICANT.

2. PLEASE NOTE THAT THE UNISA POLICY ON RESEARCH ETHICS (2014) DOES NOT APPLY RETROSPECTIVELY. IF DATA COLLECTION HAS ALREADY COMMENCED, OR IS IN PROGRESS, THE CEDU REC WILL NOT CONSIDER THE APPLICATION.

3. The application must be submitted as *one* document. Do not submit separate attachments as the application will be returned to you.

4. This application form provides for the following types of application directly involving humans through fieldwork activities:

   4.1   Master's and doctoral students
   4.2   Research conducted by College staff (for non-degree purposes) to produce research output in the form of academic articles, papers to be presented at conferences or research reports or books
   4.3   Research that involves UNISA staff, students or data
   4.4   Research conducted by external researchers within CEDU
   4.5   The use of secondary data in consolidation with the use of primary data (involving human participants).

5. Submit applications before the last Wednesday of the month. **Because of the large numbers of applications received each month, late submissions to the CEDU REC cannot be accepted.** Applications received after the closing date will stand over to the next CEDU REC review meeting.

6. The CEDU REC will evaluate the ethical soundness of each application. Ethical soundness relates to scientific quality.

7. Decisions will be communicated within two weeks of the meeting.

8. If the application is referred back, the applicant should respond to the committee's feedback within **two months** of receiving the formal feedback. A memorandum confirming that comments have been attended to, should accompany the revised application. **All amendments should be clearly highlighted in the revised application form and supporting documents**. The application will be removed from the CEDU REC agenda if no feedback is received within 3 months. A new application would then have to be tabled.

APPLICATION FOR ETHICS REVIEW AND CLEARANCE: 2014

To be submitted to both the CEDU REC at mcdtc@netactive.co.za and the secretary kekanp@unisa.ac.za]

SECTION 1:   TYPE OF RESEARCH AND RESEARCHER'S DETAILS

1.1   APPLICATION STATUS

FIRST SUBMISSION	
REVISED SUBMISSION (WITH CORRECTIONS HIGHLIGHTED)	X
DATE(S) OF PREVIOUS SUBMISSION(S) IF ANY	DECEMBER 2014

1.2   TYPE OF APPLICATION (MORE THAN ONE OPTION MIGHT APPLY) (PLACE X IN APPLICABLE BOX)

MASTERS' STUDENT		USING UNISA DATA, STUDENTS, STAFF	
DOCTORAL STUDENT	X	COMMUNITY ENGAGED RESEARCH	
STAFF APPLICATION FOR NON-DEGREE PURPOSE (JOURNAL ARTICLES; CONFERENCE PAPERS ETC.)		COLLABORATIVE RESEARCH	
RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT (R&D) LEAVE		COMMISSIONED RESEARCH	

1.3   STATUS OF FIELD WORK (<mark>HIGHLIGHT</mark> OR PLACE X IN APPROPRIATE BOX)

DATA COLLECTION HAS COMMENCED OR IS COMPLETED	Yes	No**X**
PILOT STUDY HAS COMMENCED OR IS COMPLETED	Yes	No**X**

1.4   CONSULT THE RISK ASSESMENT IN THE GUIDELINES (SECTION 2.7) AND INDICATE YOUR RISK CATEGORY

CATEGORY 1	
CATEGORY 2	**X**
CATEGORY 3	
CATEGORY 4	

1.5   FULL NAMES AND CONTACT DETAILS OF RESEARCHER SUBMITTING THE APPLICATION

TITLE	MR
FIRST NAME	NICHOLAS
MIDDLE NAME	MAIKANYA
SURNAME	LEBOPA
TELEPHONE	
CELL PHONE	0721248072
EMAIL ADDRESS	nlebopa@gmail.com

1.6   STUDENT OR STAFF NUMBER (STUDENTS: ATTACH LETTER OF REGISTRATION CONFIRMATION AS APPENDIX A)

STUDENT NUMBER:	31474101		
STAFF NUMBER:			
PROOF OF REGISTRATION. HAS IT BEEN ATTACHED AS APPENDIX A? (PLACE X IN APPROPRIATE BOX)		YES **X**	NO

1.7 ACADEMIC AND PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATIONS

ACADEMIC (DEGREE(S)	BPed(Music) BED, MED(Educational Psychology)
PROFESSIONAL(DIPLOMAS)	

SECTION 2: DETAILS OF PROPOSED RESEARCH

2.1 PROGRAMME DETAILS

DEGREE/PROJECT/MODULE	TFIED05DED
AREA OF SPECIALISATION (IF APPLICABLE)	INCLUSIVE EDUCATION

2.2 NAME OF SUPERVISOR/ PROMOTOR/STAFF MEMBER AND CONTACT DETAILS

TITLE, INITIALS, SURNAME	Professor V. S. Mncube
DEPARTMENT	EDUCATION LEADERSHIP AND MANAGEMENT
TELEPHONE	0124292139
EMAIL	MNCUBVS@UNISA.AC.ZA

2.3 NAME OF CO-SUPERVISOR/CO-PRESENTERS OF MODULE (IF APPLICABLE)

TITLE, INITIALS, SURNAME	
DEPARTMENT	
INSTITUTION	
TELEPHONE	
EMAIL	

2.4 SPONSORS OR FUNDERS (IF NOT APPLICABLE FILL IN N/A)

Name	
Address	N/A
Contact details	

2.5 OTHER PERTINENT INFORMATION SUCH AS CONFLICT OF INTERESTS AND HOW THIS WILL BE DEALT WITH(E.G. ARE YOU CONDUCTING RESEARCH AT YOUR WORKPLACE?)

N/A

SECTION 3: RESEARCH/PROJECT SUMMARY

3.1 HOW SHOULD THIS STUDY BE CHARACTERISED?

(PLEASE *HIGHLIGHT* ALL APPROPRIATE BOXES OR PLACE X IN THE APPROPRIATE BOXES)

ONLY LITERATURE, NO EMPIRICAL (FIELD) STUDY (IF "YES" YOU DO NOT NEED TO COMPLETE THE REST OF THE TABLE)	YES	NO**X**
INFORMATION TO BE COLLECTED DIRECTLY FROM PARTICIPANTS	YES**X**	NO
PARTICIPANTS TO UNDERGO PSYCHOMETRIC / PROJECTIVE TESTING	YES	NO**X**
IDENTIFIABLE INFORMATION TO BE COLLECTED ABOUT PEOPLE FROM AVAILABLE RECORDS (E.G. MEDICAL RECORDS, STAFF RECORDS, STUDENT RECORDS, ETC.)	YES**X**	NO
ANONYMOUS INFORMATION TO BE COLLECTED FROM AVAILABLE RECORDS	YES	NO**X**
USE OF SECONDARY DATA (DATA COLLECTED BY STUDENTS)	YES	NO **X**
RESEARCH INVOLVING UNISA STAFF, STUDENTS OR DATA	YES	NO **X**
COMMUNITY ENGAGEMENT	YES	NO **X**

3.2 TITLE OF DISSERTATION/THESIS/PROJECT

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ATTITUDE OF MAINSTREAM SCHOOL EDUCATORS TOWARDS THE IMPLEMENTATION OF INCLUSIVE EDUCATION IN MAFIKENG PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

3.3 RESEARCH BACKGROUND

Provide a brief *background* to the research including the *research question* (problem statement) and *sub-questions*, as well as the *purpose* and the *anticipated outcomes* of the research. *It may not exceed 1½ page.* **Use font size 11.** (Please do not use acronyms or abbreviations in your abstract.)

INTRODUCTION

INCLUSIVE EDUCATION IS PROGRESSIVELY BEING ACCEPTED AS AN EFFECTUAL MEANS TO ENSURE ACCESS TO EDUCATION FOR CHILDREN WITH DISABILITIES WHICH IS ONE OF THE MOST SERIOUS ISSUES FACING THE DEVELOPING COUNTRIES. SOUTH AFRICA AS A DEVELOPING COUNTRY, HAS ALSO EMBRACED INCLUSIVE EDUCATION IN ITS POLICY DEVELOPMENT SINCE THE 1994 DEMOCRATIC ELECTIONS. ONE OF THE POSSIBLE REASONS BEING THE LEGACY OF THE EXCLUSIVE SOCIETY BROUGHT ABOUT BY THE POLICY OF APARTHEID (HAY & BEYERS, 2000). FOR YEARS, EDUCATION SYSTEMS WORLDWIDE HAS PROVIDED SPECIAL EDUCATION AND RELATED SERVICES TO LEARNERS WITH

SPECIAL NEEDS. REFORM IN EDUCATION HAS LED TO A MOVE AWAY FROM SEGREGATION OF LEARNERS WITH DISABILITIES IN SPECIAL CLASSES TOWARDS INCLUSION OF THOSE LEARNERS IN GENERAL EDUCATION. BEING A DEVELOPING COUNTRY SOUTH AFRICA FACES THE CHALLENGE OF FAMILIARIZING ITSELF WITH THIS NEW CONCEPT OF INCLUSION.

THE CHALLENGE THAT THE SOUTH AFRICAN GOVERNMENT, ESPECIALLY THE NATIONAL DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION FACES IS THAT OF CHANGE. ACCORDING TO POTTAS (2005), CHANGE IS NEVER EASY, AS IT INVOLVES A PROCESS THAT TAKES TIME, SOMETIMES UP TO SEVERAL YEARS, RATHER THAN A SINGLE OCCURRENCE OR EVENT, AND IT INVOLVES MORE THAN JUST PROGRAMMES, MATERIAL, TECHNOLOGY OR EQUIPMENT, BUT IT IS PRIMARILY ABOUT INDIVIDUALS IN AN ESTABLISHED SYSTEM. RYNDAK & APLER (1996, CITED IN POTTAS, 2005) ALLUDE TO THE FACT THAT CHANGE IS HIGHLY PERSONAL, AFFECTS PEOPLE, IS VIEWED DIFFERENTLY BY EACH PARTICIPANT AND REQUIRES PERSONAL GROWTH. YET CHANGE IS INVENTIBLE WHEN INNOVATIVE PRACTICES DEMONSTRATE GREATER EFFECTIVENESS THAN PAST SERVICES.

PURPOSE

THE STUDY COULD CONTRIBUTE TO THE EXISTING KNOWLEDGE BASE ON INCLUSIVE EDUCATION IN A NUMBER OF WAYS. IT WILL REVEAL HOW TEACHERS IN DIFFERENT SCHOOLS UNDERSTAND INCLUSIVE EDUCATION. IT WILL ALSO CLARIFY HOW THE UNDERSTANDING OF TEACHERS DRIVE, SHAPE, LIMIT OR FACILITATE THE IMPLEMENTATION OF INCLUSIVE EDUCATION IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS AROUND MAFIKENG AREA, PROVIDING MORE INSIGHT INTO WHAT KNOWLEDGE IS ESSENTIAL IN IMPLEMENTING INCLUSIVE PROGRAMS EFFECTIVELY AND EFFICIENTLY IN THEIR SCHOOL. NATIONALLY THE

STUDY MAY CONTRIBUTE TOWARDS THE KNOWLEDGE BASE OF INCLUSIVE EDUCATION IMPLEMENTATION, ESPECIALLY IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES, WHERE LACK OF RESOURCES AND FUNDING ARE MAJOR STUMBLING BLOCKS TO ACHIEVE INCLUSION. THE STUDY MAY ALSO INFORM THOSE WHO WISH TO INTRODUCE AND IMPLEMENT INCLUSIVE EDUCATION IN THEIR SCHOOLS TO TAKE A SERIOUS LOOK AT ISSUES CONCERNING TEACHERS' ATTITUDE, SINCE THAT CAN BE A DECIDING FACTOR TOWARDS SUCCESSFUL IMPLEMENTATION OF INCLUSIVE EDUCATION. THIS VIEW IS ALSO SHARED BY KUYINI AND DESAI (2007), HIGHLIGHTING THE FACT THAT NOT EVEN SOUND POLICIES CAN ENSURE THE SUCCESS OF INCLUSIVE EDUCATION IN SCHOOLS, BUT TEACHER'S ATTITUDE PLAYS A PIVOTAL ROLE IN ENSURING THE SUCCESS OR FAILURE OF INCLUSIVE EDUCATION IN SCHOOLS.

PROBLEM STATEMENT

THE INTRODUCTION OF INCLUSIVE EDUCATION IN SOUTH AFRICAN SCHOOLS HAS BEEN A PRIORITY OF THE NATIONAL DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION SINCE THE BEGINNING OF THE MILLENNIUM (DoE, 2001). THIS WAS TO BE IN ALIGNMENT WITH THE SALAMANCA FRAMEWORK OF ACTION, 1994, WHICH STATE THAT THE FUNDAMENTAL PRINCIPLE OF THE INCLUSIVE SCHOOL IS THAT ALL CHILDREN SHOULD LEARN TOGETHER, WHEREVER POSSIBLE, REGARDLESS OF ANY DIFFICULTIES OR DIFFERENCES THEY MAY HAVE. INCLUSIVE SCHOOLS MUST RECOGNIZE AND RESPOND TO THE DIVERSE NEEDS OF THEIR STUDENTS, ACCOMMODATING BOTH DIFFERENT STYLES AND RATES OF LEARNING AND ENSURING QUALITY EDUCATION TO ALL THROUGH APPROPRIATE CURRICULA, ORGANIZATIONAL ARRANGEMENTS, TEACHING STRATEGIES, RESOURCE USE AND PARTNERSHIP WITH THEIR COMMUNITIES.

DESPITE THE ADOPTION OF INCLUSIVE EDUCATION BY THE SOUTH AFRICAN NATIONAL DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION, THERE IS DISPARITY BETWEEN THE POLICY AND WHAT IS ACTUALLY HAPPENING IN SCHOOLS (GOUS, 2009). THIRTEEN YEARS AFTER WP6 WAS PUBLISHED AND DESPITE THE PUBLICATION OF OTHER DoE DOCUMENTS SUCH AS CONCEPTUAL AND OPERATIONAL GUIDELINES FOR IMPLEMENTATION OF INCLUSIVE EDUCATION AND NATIONAL STRATEGY ON SCREENING, IDENTIFICATION, ASSESSMENT AND SUPPORT (SIAS), THAT WAS CIRCULATED TO ALL SCHOOLS IN 2008, NOTHING MUCH HAS BEEN ACHIEVED, ESPECIALLY IN MAFIKENG AREAS IN THE NORTH WEST PROVINCE. THE SIAS DOCUMENT WAS MEANT TO FURTHER FACILITATE THE IMPLEMENTATION OF INCLUSIVE EDUCATION; HOWEVER, CHILDREN WITH DISABILITIES CONTINUE TO BE ACTIVELY EXCLUDED FROM THE MAINSTREAM SCHOOLS, DESPITE THE NATURE OF DISABILITY AND LEVEL OF SUPPORT THEY REQUIRE. IN SOME INSTANCE, IT'S A REVERSAL OF THE LATTER STATEMENT, WHERE CHILDREN WHO DESERVE TO BE REFERRED TO SPECIAL SCHOOLS ARE KEPT IN THE MAINSTREAM SCHOOLS WHERE THEY DON'T GET ANY SUPPORT. THERE SEEMS TO BE CONFUSION IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS AND AMONGST TEACHERS IN MAFIKENG WHEN COMING TO ISSUES OF INCLUSION. TEACHERS SEEM TO HAVE A LIMITED UNDERSTANDING OF THE CONCEPT DISABILITY, DISPLAY AN ATTITUDE AND PREJUDICE TOWARDS CHILDREN WITH DISABILITIES AND SEEM NOT READY TO CHANGE. INCLUSIVE EDUCATION IS SEEN AS SOMETHING THAT IS FARFETCHED AND DESTINED TO FAIL IN MAFIKENG PRIMARY SCHOOLS BY TEACHERS.

TEACHERS ARE KEY PEOPLE IN PLACE TO IMPLEMENT AND MANAGE THE CHANGE THAT IS NECESSARY TO TRANSFORM A SCHOOL INTO BEING INCLUSIVE. EVEN SOUND POLICIES WILL NOT ENSURE THE SUCCESS OF INCLUSIVE EDUCATION IN SCHOOLS, BUT TEACHERS AND TEACHERS' ATTITUDES PLAY A VITALLY IMPORTANT ROLE IN ENSURING THE SUCCESS OF INCLUSIVE EDUCATION (KUYINI AND DESAI 2007, GOUS, 2009). THEREFORE, THIS STUDY SEEKS TO LOOK AT ATTITUDES OF PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS TOWARDS THE IMPLEMENTATION OF INCLUSIVE EDUCATION, AND TO EXPLORE THE SIGNIFICANCE OF ATTITUDES AND FACTORS THAT AFFECT TEACHER'S ATTITUDE.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. WHAT ARE THE VIEWS OF TEACHERS IN THE PRIMARY SCHOOLS REGARDING INCLUSIVE EDUCATION?

2. HOW DO TEACHERS IMPLEMENT INCLUSIVE EDUCATION?

3. WHY DO TEACHERS IMPLEMENT INCLUSIVE EDUCATION THE WAY THEY DO?

POPULATION

A STUDY POPULATION OF SIXTY GENERAL EDUCATION TEACHERS FROM THE FOUR PRIMARY THAT HAVE BEEN CONVERTED TO FULL SERVICE SCHOOLS WILL BE GENERATED, AND FORTY THREE TEACHERS WILL BE INTERVIEWED AND THEY WILL BE IDENTIFIED USING PURPOSIVE SAMPLING. PURPOSIVE SAMPLING ALLOWS RESEARCHERS TO DELIBERATELY SELECT PERSONS AND SPECIFIES THE CHARACTERISTICS OF A POPULATION OF INTEREST, SETTINGS, AND EVENTS TO PROVIDE ANSWERS TO THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS.

RESEARCH DESIGN

IN THIS, STUDY A QUALITATIVE RESEARCH DESIGN WILL BE USED AND CASE STUDY WILL BE EMPLOYED AS A MODE OF INQUIRY IN TRYING TO UNDERSTAND THE ATTITUDES OF MAINSTREAM TEACHERS TOWARDS THE IMPLEMENTATION OF INCLUSIVE EDUCATION, IN THEIR REAL LIFE ENVIRONMENT WHICH IS THE SCHOOL.

3.4   RESEARCH METHODOLOGY – PLEASE PROVIDE THE RELEVANT INFORMATION

3.4.1 DATA COLLECTION APPROACH (HIGHLIGHT OR PLACE X IN APPROPRIATE BOX)	QUALITATIVE X	QUANTITATIVE	MIXED METHOD

3.4.2 RESEARCH DESIGN (HIGHLIGHT OR PLACE X IN APPROPRIATE BOXES)

DESCRIPTIVE	EXPLORATORY	OBSERVATIONAL	BIOGRAPHICAL
SURVEY	GROUNDED THEORY	ETHNOGRAPHICAL	CASE STUDY X
NON-EXPERIMENTAL	EXPERIMENTAL	SEMI-EXPERIMENTAL	LONGITUDINAL

CROSS-SECTIONAL	ACTION	CAUSAL	COHORT
HISTORICAL	SEQUENTIAL	PHILOSOPHICAL	NARRATIVE
OTHER (SPECIFY):			

3.4.3 POPULATION (DESCRIBE THE POPULATION(S). <mark>HIGHLIGHT</mark> OR PLACE X IN APPROPRIATE BOXES. YOU MAY MARK MORE THAN ONE.

PRINCIPALS X	TEACHERS/TRAINERS X	COD/HOD	ADULTS (18 YEARS AND OLDER)	CHILDREN BELOW THE AGE OF 18	BOTH PARENTS
MOTHERS ONLY	FATHERS ONLY	GRAND-PARENTS	GUARDIANS	FOSTER PARENTS	COUNSELLOR
UNISA LECTURERS	UNISA STUDENTS	OFFICIAL(S) AT DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION	MEMBERS OF SGB	OTHER (PLEASE SPECIFY):	

3.4.4 SAMPLING METHODS (<mark>HIGHLIGHT</mark> OR PLACE X IN APPROPRIATE BOX)	CONVENIENT	PURPOSIVE X	RANDOM
	SYSTEMATIC	STRATIFIED	QUOTA
	CLUSTER	JUDGEMENT	SNOWBALL
	MULTISTAGE	OTHER (PLEASE SPECIFY):	

3.4.5 SAMPLE SIZE (DESCRIBE AND INCLUDE *ALL* GROUPINGS E.G. 5 SCHOOL PRINCIPALS, 10 TEACHERS, 3 PARENTS, 10 GRADE 4 LEARNERS, ETC.):

<mark>39 TEACHERS, 4 PRINCIPALS FROM FOUR SCHOOLS WILL BE INTERVIEWED (TOTAL SAMPLE SIZE WILL BE 43)</mark>

3.4.6 INDICATE TO WHICH CATEGORY PARTICIPANTS BELONG(<mark>HIGHLIGHT</mark> OR PLACE X IN APPROPRIATE BOX)

CHILDREN (BELOW THE AGE OF 18)	ADULTS (18 YEARS AND OLDER) **X**	THE ELDERLY (65 AND OLDER)

3.4.7 PARTICIPANT SELECTION (describe *comprehensively* how the participants will be identified and selected (mention selection criteria).

The participants will be all the teaching staff of the four primary that have been converted to full service schools in Ngaka Modiri Molema District at Mafikeng. A <mark>total of thirty nine(39) teachers</mark> both male and females will be purposefully selected for interview, because they will be currently practicing inclusion in their general education classroom, or had been exposed to inclusive practice within the last 12 months.

3.4.9 DATA COLLECTION INSTRUMENTS

COMPLETE **ONLY** THOSE SECTIONS <mark>RELEVANT TO YOUR RESEARCH</mark>.

<mark>USE THE BULLET POINTS AS SUBHEADINGS</mark> WHEN YOU COMPLETE THE SECTION RELEVANT TO YOUR RESEARCH.

DOCUMENT COLLECTION
• NAME TYPE(S):   • HOW WILL YOU OBTAIN THE DOCUMENTS?
FOCUS GROUP INTERVIEW
• Size of group: 7/8   • Number of interviews: 1 <mark>interview per group which implies that in total it will be 5 interviews</mark>   • Site(s): Schools   • Who will be interviewed? Principals and Teachers

Important: Attach focus group interview schedule(s) as an Appendix and indicate the number of the Appendix here: **APPENDIX G (Educators and Principals)**

OBSERVATION

- Non-participant or participant observation? **Participant observation**
- Describe the nature (i.e. who / what will be observed, when and where?): Teachers and learners will be observed during the teaching and learning process, to see if there are lesson plans, assessment schedules, arrangement of learners in the classroom, and how the teacher and learners interact. The school environment will also be observed, its infrastructure, i.e are there ramps to accommodate wheel chairs, are there taps for drinking water, is there proper sanitation. The observations will take place during school hours, and it will be done within the school yard, for 6 weeks.

Important: Attach observation guide(s) or checklists as an Appendix and indicate the number of the Appendix here: **APPENDIX I**

SCHOLASTIC OR PERFORMANCE TEST

- NAME TEST(S) BUT DO <u>NOT</u> APPEND IF STANDARDISED:
- WHO WILL COMPLETE THE TEST?
- WILL THE TEST(S) BE ADMINISTERED IN GROUP CONTEXT?
- IF ADMINISTERED AS A GROUP TEST, HOW BIG IS THE GROUP?
- ARE YOU ASSISTED BY A FIELD WORKER(S)?
- IF ASSISTED BY FIELD WORKERS, INDICATE THE LEVEL OF TRAINING AND EXPERIENCE OF EACH FIELD WORKER:

IMPORTANT: ATTACH SELF-DESIGNED TEST(S) WITHOUT STANDARDISED NORMS, AS AN APPENDIX AND INDICATE THE NUMBER OF THE APPENDIX HERE: _____ .

PLEASE NOTE THAT CONFIDENTIALITY MAY BE COMPROMISED IN A GROUP AND THAT IT SHOULD BE MENTIONED AS A RISK IN THE CONSENT/ASSENT LETTER

PROJECTION MEDIA OR TECHNIQUE

- NAME TEST(S) BUT DO <u>NOT</u> APPEND:
- WHO WILL COMPLETE THE TEST?
- DESCRIBE THE RELATION OF THE TEST ADMINISTRATOR TO YOURSELF:

Important: Attach proof of registration of the test administrator at the HPCSA if test administration is in South Africa or of an equivalent board if administration is outside South Africa as an Appendix and indicate the number of the Appendix here: _____ .

PSYCHOMETRIC TEST

- NAME TEST(S) (WRITE ACRONYMS OUT) BUT DO <u>NOT</u> APPEND:
- WHO WILL COMPLETE THE TEST?
- DESCRIBE THE RELATION OF THE TEST ADMINISTRATOR TO YOURSELF:

Important: Attach proof of registration of the test administrator at the HPCSA, if test administration

is in South Africa or of an equivalent board if administration is outside South Africa as an Appendix and indicate the number of the Appendix here: _____.

ARTEFACTS
• DESCRIBE THE NATURE (I.E. WHAT WILL BE COLLECTED, WHEN AND WHERE?):

INTERVIEW
• Who will be interviewed? Principals(4) • Will the interviews be structured or unstructured? Semi-structured • Name the type of interview (e.g. Telephonic, Face-to-face, Computer Assisted Personal Interviewing (CAPI), etc.): Face-to-face • First interview**:** First interview • Follow-up(s): No follow-ups *Important:* Attach interview schedule(s) as an Appendix and indicate the number of the Appendix here: **APPENDIX G (Section C-G).**

QUESTIONNAIRE/ONLINE SURVEYS
• Who will complete the self-designed questionnaire? • How will it be made available to the participant? *Important*: Attach questionnaire/online survey as an Appendix and indicate the number of the Appendix here: _____. *Note that a standardised questionnaire should be listed under "Psychometric test".* *Note that confidentiality may be compromised if administered in a group context and that it should be mentioned as a risk in the consent/assent letter.*

SELF-REPORTS OR DIARIES
• Describe the nature (i.e. what will be collected, when and where?):

Photographs
• Who will take the photos? • What/who will be photographed? • How will anonymity / privacy be protected?

Video
• Who will record the video? • What/who will be video-taped? • How will anonymity / privacy be protected?

Therapy
• Briefly describe the therapy:

Intervention
• Briefly describe the intervention:

OTHER (PLEASE SPECIFY):
• Please describe any other type of data collection not listed above that you are planning to

use:

3.5 THE PROCESS OF DATA COLLECTION

Describe *comprehensively* how data will be collected. Include all the participants and instruments mentioned in number 3.4.9 above. Pay attention to detail, for example, How will the questionnaires be delivered to the participants and returned to the researcher? This is an important step to ensure compliance with ethical research.

The multi-method strategies will be used to collect data, and that will include: interviews and observations. Two types of interviews will be used to collect data, a semi-structured one to one interview with the principals, which will give each principal an opportunity to comment extensively on the topic and the focus group for the teachers. Interviews will range from formal to informal. The interviews will be conducted at participants' schools, in English because all participants are principals and teachers, therefore, there won't be a need for translation. A tape recorder will be used during the interviews as well as notes taking. Notes taking help in reducing long hours of transcription and can also save the researcher if the tape machine becomes faulty during the process. Participant observation is the process, enabling researchers to learn about the activities of the people under study in the natural setting through observing and participating in those activities. This method will also be used while in the premises of the selected four full service schools, as this will help in collecting more data regarding the infrastructural development as well as the prevailing general atmosphere towards inclusion. The participant observation will help to obtain people's perceptions of events and processes expressed in their actions as feelings, thoughts and beliefs. I will also be able to listen to the participants when they talk to each other and record that which is relevant to this study. Nonverbal clues such as facial expressions, gestures, tone of voice, body movements and other social interactions will be considered, as they may give me a clue of how the implementation of Inclusive Education is progressing, and what kind of attitude is prevailing towards inclusion practices in the four full service schools that are selected in this study.

However, the participation level for this study will be low as it will only be for information and it will be expected to be conducted for six weeks at the school premises during school hours. Participants will be made aware that they are being observed for the purpose of this study and this will be done for the sake of ethical consideration.

3.6 DATA ANALYSIS

Explain how the data will be analysed:

Three steps will be followed when analysing data in this study. The first step in the data analysis process will be data preparation were interviews will be transcribed and captured in the database of the computer. When transcribing interviews a tape recorder with head phones and a foot pedal will be used; the foot pedal will be used to start and stop the tape as this will be easier to operate while typing on the keyboard. Everything will be transcribed; no dialect or other grammatical forms that might sound non standard to my ear will be left and the order in which words will be spoken. The standard English dictionary will be used regardless of the person level of education. In cases where some dialogue will be difficult to understand especially if the accent is difficult to understand, the tape will be rewinded and played until I become familiar with what was said.

The interviewee's names will be shortened to their initials followed by a colon, example: NP: After the first draft, the whole tape will be listened to while reading the work. If the texts don't match with the tape, corrections will be made. The problems encountered will be addressed. If the problem encountered could not be resolved, I will get in touch with the interviewee to verify. Where the text is deemed to be of less importance I will strike it out, however with extreme caution because if one word is taken out it can change the whole meaning. Field notes will be edited and all data will be organized chronologically.

The next step of data analysis will be data exploration and reduction, where I will read through all of the transcripts, field notes, and documents and reflect on what is important by extracting statements that are relevant and significant to the topic. This can be done by highlighting the important quotes and summarizing the data collected, and any ideas that will come to mind during reading, any problems patterns and questions will be written down in memos.

The third step of the data analysis will be coding. During this process of coding, I will assign words to segments of text in an iterative process, condense text into analyzable segments, sort coded text segments that are familiar, compare and contrast coded segments as I will be looking for patterns and generated analytic concepts. The coding process that I will use is similar to the comparative method that originate in grounded theory, however the data will not be used to develop a theory, but to support negatively or positively the topic in discussion.

The findings will be interpreted by integrating the information gathered from literature review, interviews, and observations. Transcribed data will be discussed in relation to the literature review indicating the extent to which it support or contradict the theory.

3.7 HOW WILL THE DATA BE STORED? Hard and soft copies will be securely stored for 5 years

The data will be stored in an electronic file, and it will be password secured.

SECTION 4: PROPOSAL AND RISK RELATED INFORMATION

4.1 DESCRIPTION OF THE RISKS OF THE PROCEDURES WHICH PARTICIPANTS MAY BE EXPOSED TO

PLEASE INDICATE ANY PARTICIPANT DISCOMFORT, PAIN/PHYSICAL OR PSYCHOLOGICAL PROBLEMS/SIDE-EFFECTS, PERSECUTION, STIGMATISATION OR NEGATIVE LABELLING THAT COULD ARISE DURING THE COURSE OR AS AN OUTCOME OF THE RESEARCH UNDERTAKEN. **IF NO RISK IS ANTICIPATED, STATE THAT NO RISKS ARE FORESEEN.** (SEE SECTION 2.7 IN THE *GUIDELINES AND EXAMPLE DOCUMENT* FOR A LIST OF RISKS THAT NEED TO BE TAKEN INTO CONSIDERATION.)*THIS POINT IS OF PARTICULAR IMPORTANCE TO RESEARCH INVOLVING VULNERABLE GROUPS.*

The researcher cannot foresee any risk in the execution of this study.

4.2 DESCRIPTION OF STEPS TO BE UNDERTAKEN IN CASE OF ADVERSE EVENT OR WHEN INJURY OR HARM IS EXPERIENCED BY THE PARTICIPANTS ATTRIBUTABLE TO THEIR PARTICIPATION IN THE STUDY

There is no potential risk or hazard that is envisaged from participation in this study.

4.3 DESCRIPTION OF HOW PARTICIPANTS WILL BE INFORMED OF THE FINDINGS OR RESULTS

(PROVIDE SPECIFICS AS PARTICIPANTS ARE ENTITLED TO **AGE-APPROPRIATE** FEEDBACK)

Participants can ask for a summary of the research findings. A summary will also be sent to the principal of each participating primary schools as well as the District manager. This will be done in the hope that participants and participating schools will benefit, as the research will hopefully make a positive contribution towards the implementation of inclusive education in schools around Mafikeng and South Africa as a whole.

4.4 DESCRIPTION AND/OR AMOUNTS OF COMPENSATION INCLUDING REIMBURSEMENTS,

GIFTS OR SERVICES TO BE PROVIDED TO PARTICIPANTS (IF APPLICABLE)

N/A

4.5   DESCRIPTION FOR ARRANGEMENT FOR INDEMNITY (IF APPLICABLE)

N/A

4.6   DESCRIPTION OF ANY FINANCIAL COSTS TO PARTICIPANTS (IF APPLICABLE)

N/A

4.7   DESCRIPTION OF PROVISION OF INSURANCE TO PARTICIPANTS (IF APPLICABLE)

N/A

4.8   DISCLOSURE OF PREVIOUS ETHICS REVIEW ACTION BY OTHER ETHICS REVIEW BODIES

(**IF APPLICABLE** ATTACH ANY OTHER ETHICS CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE FROM ANOTHER INSTITUTION)

N/A

4.9   DESCRIPTION OF REPORTING TO ETHICS RESEARCH COMMTTEE

THE SUPERVISOR USUALLY INFORMS THE REC OF ANY ADVERSE EVENTS.

Permission, for the study, will be requested from the ethics committee of Unisa. Clarification will be sought from the ethics committee of Unisa when ethical problems are encountered. In the case of changes to the research design or the methodology, the chair of the Ethics committee should be informed via my supervisor.

SECTION 5:   PERMISSION, CONSENT AND ASSENT (SEE EXAMPLES AND GUIDELINES IN THE MANUAL)

5.1   DESCRIPTION OF THE PROCESS OF OBTAINING PERMISSION, INFORMED CONSENT AND

ASSENT

1. List the procedure followed from highest authority for example, GDE, Circuit Office, gate keepers, principals, to the individual participant. Please note: It is the

researchers' responsibility to ensure that the *correct procedure* is followed in order to obtain permission to undertake the study. Also note that ***institutions grant permission*** and ***participants grant consent*** or ***assent.***

2. <u>Describe</u> in detail how you will obtain permission, consent and assent.

E.G.

<u>Permission</u> – Gauteng Department of Education: *submit the prescribed completed form*

<u>Consent</u> – parent: *I will phone each parent and determine whether they are willing to let their child participate in the study upon which I will send them a consent letter.*

<u>Assent</u> – child: *A child should give assent before participating in a study*

Continue here with your list and description:

Permission- North West Department of Education: *submit letters to the Director of Ngaka Modiri Molema District, as well as to area managers in the Area Offices and Principals, requesting permission to conduct research in the primary schools, in and around Mafikeng.*

Invitation- Teachers and Principals: *Letters will be sent to teachers of the identified schools, to ask them to participate in the interview processes.*

Consent and Confidentiality agreement-Teacher and Principals: *I will phone the principals of the selected schools and determine if they are willing to participate in the study together with their teachers, upon which I will send the consent and confidentiality agreement forms for them to fill in and sign.*

5.2 INFORMED PERMISSION, CONSENT AND ASSENT LETTERS

Attach permission, consent and assent letters in English and the language in which the research will be conducted.*Attach only an <u>example</u> of the letters outlining the study and requesting permission, consent or assent, <u>not</u> an indication that the form has been signed*. It is not necessary to have the letters signed before applying for ethics clearance.
Attach each document as a separate appendix. Please start each appendix on a new page.
(You are welcome to use examples provided in the guidelines)

- Note that ***all*** letters requesting participation in the study – regardless of to whom they are directed – must provide
  - the title and purpose of the study
  - the name of the university (Unisa) and the supervisor
  - the researcher's contact details
- Use the prompt sheet provided below to ensure that all the aspects are covered in the letter requesting the participant to be involved in the research. (Prompt sheet at the bottom of this description)
- At the bottom of your covering letter, provide space for the participant to acknowledge the above and provide permission / consent / assent by signing the consent form section and providing the date. Mention explicitly permission / consent

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/ assent for digital recordings on this reply slip. It is preferable that the researcher co-signs this section.

- Attach only an <u>example</u> of the letters outlining the study and requesting permission, consent or assent. It is not necessary to attach a signed form.
- The letter must be written in a comprehensible language and in formal letter format.
- Also include a confidentiality agreement for participants in the event of focus groups or group interventions.
- If the research involves collaborative, multi-institutional or multi-country research this must be explained in detail.
- If respondents cannot read or write you have to explain the process that will be followed to get informed consent or assent (for example digital recording, etc.).

INFORMED CONSENT PROMPT SHEET: PLEASE ENSURE THAT THE FOLLOWING ASPECTS ARE INCLUDED IN THE INFORMED CONSENT FORM:

INCLUDE INFORMATION ABOUT THE FOLLOWING IN A READER FRIENDLY STYLE	√
Name of the researcher and purpose of the research	√
Participants' role in the study – involved in an interview; complete questionnaires etc.	√
Expected duration of participation	√
Approximate number of participants and which other groups will be participating e.g. teachers, learners etc.	√
Benefits to participation and to others, compensation, reimbursements	√
Procedures of selection of participants	√
Foreseeable risks or discomforts to participants	√
Guarantee of privacy, anonymity and confidentiality	√
Voluntary participation and invitation to ask questions	√
Withdrawal without penalty	√
Names of contact person for research related inquiries	√
Summary of findings/debriefing	√
Institution that guides/gave ethics approval	√
Contact details of researcher	√

Child assent prompt sheet: Please ensure that the following aspects are included in the child assent form.

Include information about the following on a level that the child will understand	√
A statement of the purpose of the research or study	
A description of the procedure to be applied to the minor	
A statement that the minor's identity will not be revealed	
A description of the potential risks or discomforts associated with the research	
A description of any direct benefits to the minor	
A description that the minor is not compelled to participate	
A statement that the minor is free to withdraw at any time	
A statement that the minor should discuss participation with the parents prior to signing the form	
A statement that the parent(s)/guardian(s) of the minor will be asked for permission on behalf of the minor	
A statement that the parent(s)/guardian(s) of the minor will receive a copy of the signed assent form	
Invitation to ask questions	
CONTACT DETAILS OF RESEARCHER	

NOTE THAT ONLY THE MINOR AND THE RESEARCHER OBTAINING ASSENT SHOULD SIGN THE CHILD ASSENT FORM. A COPY OF THE CHILD ASSENT FORM SHOULD BE GIVEN TO THE PARENT OR LEGAL GUARDIAN.

APPENDICES:

Refer here to your consecutively numbered appendices which contain the permission, consent, assent letters, interview schedule, questionnaire, observation checklist, etc. for example *Appendix A: Proof of Registration*; *Appendix B: Permission letter to principal, Appendix C: Interview schedule, Appendix D: Observation checklist, etc.*

Appendix A: *Proof of Registration*
Appendix B*: Application Department of Education. (District)*
Appendix C: *Application Department of Education (Area Office)*
Appendix D: Letter *to Principal to conduct research study in the school*
Appendix E: *Letter to Teachers and Principals to participate in interviews*
Appendix F*: Consent slip to participate in the interviews from Teachers and Principals*
Appendix G*: Focus group interview schedule*
Appendix H: *Focus group /interview assent and confidentiality agreement*
Appendix I: *Observation check list*
Appendix J: *Permission letter North West Department of Education(District).*

PLEASE NOTE THE FOLLOWING IMPORTANT INFORMATION:

Please alert the committee if exceptions occur in terms of the Criminal Law (Sexual Offences and Related Matters) Amendment Act, 32 of 2007, the Children's Act 38 of 2005, and the Child Justice Act 75 of 2008, or similar pieces of legislation in which instance the researcher should also take note of the obligation to report such abuse to the relevant authorities. If informed consent is not necessary, please state why not:

SECTION 6: ONLY FOR UNISA STAFF INVOLVED IN PROJECT RESEARCH OR THE USE OF SECONDARY DATA.
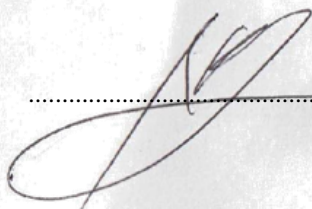
UNISA staff involved in project research, or the use of secondary data, must attach CVs of principal investigatorsas an Appendix.

SECTION 7: DECLARATION

STATEMENT AGREEING TO COMPLY WITH ETHICAL PRINCIPLES SET OUT IN UNISA POLICY ON RESEARCH ETHICS

I,Lebopa Maikanya Nicholas (full name of main researcher), declare that I have read the Policy on Research Ethics of UNISA and the contents of this document are a true and accurate reflection of the methodological and ethical implications of my proposed study. I shall carry out the study in strict accordance with the approved proposal and the Policy on Research Ethics of UNISA. I further undertake to inform the relevant research ethics review committee of the College of Education in writing of any adverse events that occur arising from the injury or harm experienced by the participants in the study. I shall also notify the research ethics review committee if any changes to the study are proposed. I shall maintain the confidentiality of all data collected from or about the research participants, and impose strict controls in the maintenance of privacy. I shall record all data

captured during interviews in accordance with ethical guidelines outlined in my proposal. The Policy on Research Ethics places huge emphasis on the integrity of the research and I shall ensure that I conduct the research with the highest integrity taking into account UNISA's Policy for Copyright Infringement and Plagiarism. No data that was gathered retrospectively will be used. I acknowledge that as main researcher it is my responsibility to ensure that the co-researchers, if any, to this research project adhere to the ethical principles set out in the UNISA Policy on Research Ethics. .

....   20/11/2014   SIGNATURE

                    (DATE)

APPROVED BY SUPERVISOR (IF APPLICABLE)

I VS MNCUBE (name of supervisor) declare that I have checked that this form is complete and I subsequently approve the submission of the proposal for ethical clearance. If applicable, I will ensure that the student reports unanticipated problems or serious adverse events to the Research Ethics Committee of the College of Education.

.... 01 DECEMBER 2014

(SIGNATURE)   (DATE)

APPROVED BY CO-SUPERVISOR (IF APPLICABLE)

I **NOT APPLICABLE** (name of supervisor) declare that I have checked that this form is complete and I subsequently approve the submission of the proposal for ethical clearance. If applicable, I will ensure that the student reports unanticipated problems or serious adverse events to the Research Ethics Committee of the College of Education.

.NOT APPLICABLE**.**..........................

(SIGNATURE)   (DATE)

APPENDIX K

UNISA | college of education

Research Ethics Clearance Certificate

This is to certify that the application for ethical clearance submitted by

NM Lebopa [31474101]

For a D Ed study entitled

Attitude of mainstream school teachers towards the implementation of

Inclusive Education in Mafikeng primary schools

has met the ethical requirements as specified by the University of South Africa College of Education Research Ethics Committee. This certificate is valid for two years from the date of issue.

Prof VI McKay
Acting Executive Dean: CEDU

Dr M Claassens
CEDU REC (Chairperson)
mcdtc@netactive.co.za

Reference number: 2015 February /31474101/MC   18 February 2015

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Office of the Deputy Executive Dean